

Quantification of vertical solid matter transfers in soils during pedogenesis by a multi-tracer approach

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1	SOILS, SEC # • RESEARCH ARTICLE
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3	Quantification of vertical solid matter transfers in soils during pedogenesis by a multi-
4	tracer approach
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19 Abstract

- *Purpose* Vertical transfer of solid matter in soils (bioturbation and translocation) is responsible
 for changes in soil properties over time through the redistribution of most of the soil constituents
 with depth. Such transfers are, however, still poorly quantified.
- *Materials and methods* In this study, we examine matter transfer in four eutric Luvisols through an isotopic approach based on 137 Cs, 210 Pb_(xs), and meteoric 10 Be. These isotopes differ with respect to chemical behaviour, input histories and half-lives, which allows us to explore a large time range. Their vertical distributions were modelled by a diffusionadvection equation with depth-dependent parameters. We estimated a set of advection and diffusion coefficients able to simulate all isotope depth distributions and validated the resulting model by comparing the depth distribution of organic carbon (including $^{12/13}$ C and 14 C isotopes)
- 30 and of the 0-2 μ m particles with the data.
- 31 *Results and discussion* We showed that i) the model satisfactorily reproduces the organic 32 carbon, ¹³C and ¹⁴C depth distributions, indicating that organic carbon content and age can be 33 explained by transport without invoking depth-dependent decay rates; ii) translocation partly 34 explains the 0-2 μ m particle accumulation in the Bt-horizon; and iii) estimates of diffusion 35 coefficients that quantify the soil mixing rate by bioturbation are significantly higher for the 36 studied plots than those obtained by ecological studies.
- *Conclusions* This study presents a model capable of satisfactorily reproducing the isotopic
 profiles of several tracers and simulating the distribution of organic carbon and the translocation
 of 0-2 µm particles.

- 41 **Keywords** 0-2 μ m fraction Bioturbation Clay translocation Cosmonuclides Fallout 42 radionuclides • δ^{13} C • Organic carbon • Numerical modelling
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- 44

45 **1 Introduction**

Vertical matter transfer processes in soils, such as bioturbation and 0-2 µm particle 46 translocation, are responsible for the evolution through time of the ecosystem services provided 47 by the soils through the redistribution of most of their components with depth, especially the 48 finest particle fractions and organic matter, which are responsible for the main properties of soil 49 surface layers. Progressive transfer of matter with depth leads to the development of texture-50 51 contrasted soils (Jamagne and Pedro 1981; Bockheim and Gennadiyev 2000) and to the redistribution of organic carbon with depth. Indeed, a recent state-of-the-art model of soil 52 organic carbon dynamics (e.g., Koven et al. 2013) concludes with the need to estimate carbon 53 vertical transport. 54

55 Despite their importance in soil formation processes and in the control of the organic carbon depth distribution, the dynamics of the vertical transfer of soil matter are still poorly 56 57 constrained and modelled (Samouelian and Cornu, 2008). Salvador-Blanes et al. (2007) reported that most of the existing models of pedogenesis failed at describing the horizon 58 formation because they did not consider the redistribution of matter with depth. To improve 59 modelling of these processes, there is a need to better quantify the transfer of matter in soils 60 and to constrain their kinetics. To this end, the measurement of tracers that are supplied to 61 62 the soil surface through meteoric deposition and that have a strong affinity for soil constituents can provide relevant information to improve our knowledge of those processes. 63 Fallout radionuclides ¹⁰Be, ¹³⁷Cs and ²¹⁰Pb_(xs), which are characterized by different half-lives, 64 65 may be used as chronometers in this context.

Meteoric ¹⁰Be (half-life = 1.39 Myr (Korschinek et al., 2010) is a cosmogenic nuclide created in the upper atmosphere by the interaction of primary and secondary cosmic ray particles with oxygen and nitrogen atoms (Lal and Peters 1967). It is delivered to the terrestrial surface through wet/dry fallout. ¹³⁷Cs (half-life = 30.2 years) was released and dispersed during

thermonuclear atmospheric tests that occurred between 1953 and the 1970s and during nuclear 70 power plant accidents (Chernobyl in 1986 or Fukushima Dai-ichi in 2011). Finally, ²¹⁰Pb (half-71 life = 22.3 years) is naturally present as it decays from its ultimate parent 238 U, and it constitutes 72 a daughter product of gaseous ²²²Rn. Some ²²²Rn may escape from the soil and then decay in 73 the atmosphere, producing ²¹⁰Pb, which then returns to the surface of the Earth through wet 74 fallout. This isotope is therefore referred to as unsupported or excess (xs) ²¹⁰Pb, in contrast to 75 supported ²¹⁰Pb, which is naturally present in the soil. Due to their different input histories and 76 half-lives, these isotopes provide temporal constraints ranging from the duration of soil 77 formation (10 Be) to the duration of human activity (137 Cs and 210 Pb_(xs)). 78

¹³⁷Cs and ¹⁰Be are known to sorb on clay particles (Tamura and Jacobs 1960; Sawhney 1972;
Pavich et al. 1984; Cremers et al. 1988; You et al. 1989; Takahashi et al. 1999) and ²¹⁰Pb_(xs) on
both clay particles and organic matter (Dörr and Münnich, 1989). They were therefore used in
the past to trace erosion (e.g. He and Walling, 1997) and bioturbation (Jarvis et al., 2010). Their
depth distribution is classically described by an advection diffusion in the literature (e.g. He
and Walling, 1997). However, to the best of our knowledge, these three tracers were rarely used
in combination in the literature.

In previous studies, Jagercikova et al. (2014a and 2015) fitted a diffusion-advection 86 equation to the depth distributions of ${}^{137}Cs$ and ${}^{210}Pb_{(xs)}$ and of meteoric ${}^{10}Be$ along a Luvisol 87 sequence developed on loess with varying histories of land use and soil management. ¹³⁷Cs and 88 ²¹⁰Pb_(xs) advection velocities (Jagercikova et al. 2014a) were one order of magnitude higher than 89 those of meteoric ¹⁰Be (Jagercikova et al. 2015). To understand the origin of the discrepancy in 90 91 the diffusion-advection coefficients obtained by Jagercikova et al. (2014a) and (2015), we return in this study to model rationales and initialisation conditions to infer the major 92 discrepancies. Indeed, i) diffusion-advection coefficients used for ¹³⁷Cs and ²¹⁰Pb_(xs) varied in 93 depth with organic matter and pH (Jagercikova et al. 2014a) but decreased exponentially with 94

depth for meteoric ¹⁰Be (Jagercikova et al. 2015); ii) ¹³⁷Cs/²¹⁰Pb_(xs) and meteoric ¹⁰Be 95 simulations were not performed for the same time period (last 60 years for 137 Cs and 210 Pb_(xs) 96 and 15 kyr for meteoric ¹⁰Be); and iii) histories of isotope input differed: ¹³⁷Cs and ²¹⁰Pb_(xs) had 97 no inherited fraction, whereas more than two-thirds of the meteoric ¹⁰Be was inherited 98 (Jagercikova et al. 2015). To integrate the information provided by both ¹³⁷Cs and meteoric 99 ¹⁰Be in a single model, we designed a single diffusion-advection model based on the difference 100 in input history, including inheritance, of the different isotopes to simulate the ¹³⁷Cs, ¹⁰Be and 101 210 Pb_(xs) depth-distribution profiles along four of the Luvisols, that had been measured by 102 Jagercikova et al. (2014a and 2015). 103

We then used the obtained coefficients to estimate the solid matter transfer of both the 0- $2 \mu m$ fraction and organic carbon. For organic carbon depth-distribution modelling, we tested as a simplifying hypothesis that carbon mineralization, i.e., carbon decay rate, is not depthdependent. Because organic carbon dynamics are usually constrained by isotope measurements (Koven et al. 2013; Ahrens et al. 2014), ¹³C and ¹⁴C depth distributions were also modelled.

110 2 Materials and methods

111 2.1 Numerical modelling

115

112 2.1.1 Diffusion-advection equation and tillage mixing term

Numerical modelling was performed using a diffusion-advection equation including
radioactive decay (He and Walling 1997; Schuller et al. 1997; Jagercikova et al. 2014a):

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(D_s \frac{\partial C}{\partial z} - v_s C \right) - \lambda C \tag{1}$$

with *C* being the isotopic concentration per soil volume (isotope. cm⁻³) obtained by multiplying the isotopic concentration by the soil bulk density (g.cm⁻³); *z* the depth (cm); *t* the time (yr); D_s the diffusion coefficient (cm².yr⁻¹); v_s the advection velocity (cm. yr⁻¹); and λ the radioactive constant (yr⁻¹) in the case of radioisotopes.

120 Both the diffusion and advection coefficients are considered to vary with depth, as follows:

121
$$v_s(z) = v_0 + 1/20 (v_{20} - v_0) z$$
 for z in [0, 20]
122 $v_s(z) = v_{20} \exp(-dz)$ for $z \ge 20$ (2)

with v_0 being the surface advection velocity, v_{20} the advection velocity at 20 cm depth and d the constant of the exponential term (cm⁻¹); and

125
$$D_s(z) = D_0 \exp(-bz)$$
 "z (3)

with D_0 being the diffusion coefficient at the surface and b the constant of the exponential 126 term (cm⁻¹). The negative exponential term in the advection and diffusion coefficients 127 determines the diminution with depth. In the case of advection, this is due to decreasing 128 hydraulic conductivity in the soil profile and leads to the accumulation of the 0-2 µm particles 129 and radioisotopes (e.g., meteoric ¹⁰Be, as discussed in Jagercikova et al. 2015). The decreasing 130 diffusion coefficient reflects the decreasing organic matter content on which earthworms feed 131 (Jagercikova et al. 2014a), earthworms being the main bioturbation agent in the temperate zone 132 (Gobat et al. 2004; Wilkinson et al. 2009). 133

Finally, a tillage term is introduced into the model. This term mixes annually 85 % of the soil
matter homogeneously over the whole tilled layer as proposed in the Soil and Water Assessment
Tool (SWAT) models (Ullrich and Volk 2009 and references therein) and detailed in equation
4.

$$C(z,t+\Delta t) = (1-M_R)C(z,t) + \frac{M_R}{T_D} \int_0^{T_D} C(z,t)dz \qquad \forall z \in [0;T_D]$$
138 (4)

139 with M_R being the mixing ratio (85 %) and T_D the tillage depth.

140

141 2.1.2 Soil pools subjected to advection

142 Advection corresponds to the vertical transfer of the isotopes that can either occur under solute

form or in association with particles. Bundt et al. (2000) showed that ¹³⁷Cs is mainly found 143 along preferential flow paths in soils where both the majority of particle transfers (Jacobsen et 144 al. 1997; Majdalani et al. 2007) and rapid water flow occurs (Sammartino et al., 2015). 145 Accordingly, we hypothesize that only the fraction of the isotopes surrounding macropores are 146 subjected to advection. We thus assumed that all the isotopes brought by meteoric deposition 147 after the loess was deposited are subjected to advective transfer. On the other hand, the inherited 148 149 isotopes are supposed to be homogeneously distributed in the initial loess deposit. Thus, only 20 % of them are assumed to surround the macropores and are therefore as assumed to be 150 submitted to advection. As mentioned in the introduction, ¹³⁷Cs has no inherited fraction, 151 whereas more than two-thirds of the meteoric ¹⁰Be is inherited (Jagercikova et al. 2015). 152

To summarize, we assume for each isotope and/or element that i) the isotopes brought to the soil after the loess was deposited are subjected to both diffusive and advective transfers and ii) for ¹⁰Be and the 0-2 μ m fraction, 20 % of the initial loess content is also subjected to both diffusive and advective transfers, while the remaining 80 % is subjected exclusively to diffusion, because bioturbation is considered to affect the entire soil mass.

158

159 2.1.3 Numerical implementation and parameter optimization

The boundary, initial conditions and isotope input history used for the simulations are reported 160 in Table 1. The differential equation (1) is solved using an upstream finite difference 161 162 approximation for spatial derivatives and a semi-implicit Crank-Nicholson scheme as a timesolver (implementation is detailed in Jagercikova 2014a). The obtained system of algebraic 163 equations is solved by Gaussian elimination. Simulations start at the end of the loess deposition 164 period, which coincides with the assumed beginning of pedogenesis, i.e., 15 kyr BP. The 165 advection-diffusion coefficients and their standard deviations are determined with a non-linear 166 least-squares minimization procedure based on the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm. For 167 estimating the performance of the fitting procedure, the modelling efficiency (EF) is calculated 168

(Loague and Green 1991; see Jagercikova et al. (2014a) for further details). All parameters 169 are deduced from both ¹³⁷Cs and ¹⁰Be profiles. Combining two isotopes with different periods 170 and input histories allows better constraint of the equation parameters than would be possible 171 using a single isotope. The long period of ¹⁰Be allows precise definition of the D_0 and d terms, 172 whereas ¹³⁷Cs provides better information on the advection term in the upper 20 cm. The 173 obtained diffusion and advection velocity coefficients are then used to simulate the 0-2 µm 174 fraction, organic carbon concentration and δ^{13} C and Δ^{14} C isotope depth distributions for 175 the different soil profiles. 176

177

178 2.2 Application of the model to four Luvisol profiles in northern France

179 2.2.1 Studied soil profiles

Four of the nine eutric Luvisol profiles studied by Jagercikova et al. (2014a and 2015) were
selected. These soil profiles are part of long-term experimental sites in northern France
dedicated to the evaluation of the impact of different farming practices on soil characteristics
(Table 2, Fig. 1).

These Luvisols developed on Weichselian (Upper Pleniglacial) loess deposited in both the 184 Somme and the Seine River basins (northern France) during glacial eras and until 15-17 kyr BP 185 (Antoine et al. 1999, 2003). They have thus undergone pedogenesis for at least the last 15 kyr 186 and developed from the same parent material under similar climatic and topographic conditions 187 (slope < 1 %). The four studied soils have different pH levels (from 8 to 6, Fig. 2) and are 188 developed on different substrates (Table 3). In Mons, Luvisols (under cropland and grassland) 189 are developed from several metres of loess and are thus well drained, whereas in Feucherolles, 190 clay and gritstone deposits are found at approximately 1.5 m depth. Finally, in Boigneville, 191 chalk is reached at approximately 80 cm depth. Luvisols in Feucherolles exhibit features of 192 morphologic degradation due to the change of parent material with depth. 193

Soils are continuously sampled along a pit side with a sampling increment ranging from 2

to 10 cm and following the horizon boundaries. Sampling is stopped at 1.7 m depth or when the
underlying parent material is reached. Bulk densities are measured using cylinders of 500 cm³,
with three replicates.

198

199 *2.2.2 Sample preparation and analysis*

200 *Particle size fractionation* - Collected samples are oven-dried for a week at 40°C and sieved 201 to 2 mm as recommended in the NF ISO 11464 procedure. Particle size distribution ($<2 \mu$ m; 2-202 20 µm; 20-50 µm; 50-200 µm; 200-2000 µm) is measured by wet sieving down to 50 µm and 203 according to the Robison's pipette method below 50 µm after removal of organic matter using 204 H₂O₂ at the INRA Laboratory of Soil Analysis (Arras, France).

205

Organic carbon content and isotope analysis - Organic carbon content (hereafter referred to 206 207 as carbon content) is determined by dry combustion (Carlo Erba NA 1500 Elemental Analyzer) of samples ground to less than 200 μ m, and δ^{13} C is analysed by coupled mass 208 spectrometry analysis (EA-IRMS, Delta Plus, ThermoFinnigan). The δ^{13} C values are 209 reported vs V-PDB, using polyethylene IAEA CH7 ($\delta^{13}C = -32.15 \pm 0.05$ ‰) as a secondary 210 standard; the sucrose standard IAEA CH6 (Coplen et al., 2006) yields a mean value 211 of -10.45 ± 0.04 %. When containing carbonates, the samples are pretreated with repeated 212 amounts of 2 M HCl added to 100 mg of sample. To avoid the loss of acid-extracted organic 213 carbon, the whole suspension is then dried at 60° C. 214

For ¹⁴C analyses, the CO₂ gas is prepared at the LSCE - ¹⁴C lab using a protocol adapted to achieve carbonate leaching without any loss of organic carbon, with ¹⁴C activity measurement performed by AMS at the French LMC14 facility (Cottereau et al., 2007). The ¹⁴C activities are presented in Δ (‰) notation, with measurement and sampling year corrections as recommended by Stuiver and Polach (1977). 220 δ^{13} C vertical distributions are available for the Mons grassland and Boigneville cropland 221 sites, while the Δ^{14} C vertical distribution is available for the Mons grassland site only.

222

223 2.2.3 Application to organic carbon transfer in soil

Because organic carbon is a complex ensemble of molecules with different decomposition rates, 224 the proposed model accounts for soil organic carbon dynamics by considering organic carbon 225 226 partitioning between pools with different residence times based on the RothC model 227 (Jenkinson and Rayner 1977; Coleman and Jenkinson 1999; Jenkinson and Coleman 2008). 228 Five carbon pools are considered (Table 4): decomposable plant matter (DPM), resistant plant matter (RPM), decomposers biomass (BIO), stabilized organic matter (HUM) and almost inert 229 organic matter (IOM). All RothC parameter values are set to the default values provided by 230 Coleman and Jenkinson (1999), except the parameter driving IOM, which is kept as proposed 231 by Jenkinson and Rayner (1977) (Table 4). 232

In the proposed representation, the organic matter decomposition rate evolves with depth as a function of the 0-2 μ m fraction content that affects the proportion of carbon allocated to the BIO (*P*_{BIO}) and HUM (*P*_{HUM}) pools (Coleman and Jenkinson 1999; Table 4). The transport parameters (*v* and *D*) are the same for the five dynamic pools.

Organic carbon input is distributed between above-ground inputs set at 70 % of the total Cinput and below-ground inputs consisting of the remaining 30 %. The latter are distributed according to an exponential law, with 80 % of the below-ground input found in the first 20 cm for grasslands and areas with maize and wheat crops (Warembourg and Paul 1977; Balesdent and Balabane 1992; Swinnen et al. 1994).

The δ^{13} C at each depth is calculated by assuming an enrichment of the δ^{13} C associated with organic matter decomposition that is fitted to - 1.00010 (the fractionation factor associated with heterotrophic respiration). The ¹³C/¹²C ratios of the biodegradation products allocated to

BIO and HUM are then calculated by isotopic mass balance. The newly formed BIO, HUM and IOM are therefore enriched in ¹³C by 0.32‰ to 0.58‰ compared to the source pool at each biodegradation step.

248

249 2.2.4 Application to 0-2 μm particle transfer in soil

Two input data are needed to simulate the 0-2 μ m particle transfer in soil: i) the initial 0-2 μ m particle content in the loess deposit, set at 24 % (Mons and Feucherolles) and 28 % (Boigneville), and ii) the pool of 0-2 μ m particles surrounding macropores, which corresponds to the pool submitted to advection, set at 20 % as for ¹⁰Be (Table 1).

254

255 **3 Results and discussion**

256 3.1 Obtained advection and diffusion coefficients

Evolution with depth of the advection velocity and diffusion optimized for the four sites is 257 shown in Fig. 3 and Table 5. Comparisons between simulated data and observations (¹⁰Be, 258 ¹³⁷Cs, and ²¹⁰Pb_(xs) when available) are shown for Mons grassland, Boigneville cultivation, 259 Mons cultivation, and Feucherolles cultivation in Figs. 4, 5, 6 and 7, respectively. The proposed 260 261 model fits the isotope depth distribution with modelling efficiencies (EF) greater than 0.9 for meteoric ¹⁰Be and equal or greater than 0.8 for ¹³⁷Cs (Table 5). These efficiencies strengthen 262 confidence in the model and its rationales. ²¹⁰Pb_(xs) is reasonably modelled for Mons grassland, 263 the only Luvisol profile having ²¹⁰Pb_(xs) concentrations higher than the detection limit 264 (Jagercikova et al. 2014a). The fact that we could reasonably well predict the distribution of all 265 the studied isotopes with a single set of diffusion-advection coefficients suggests that the 266 isotopes are mainly transported with solid matter in the studied soils, more than as soluble form. 267 Campforts et al. (2016) recently demonstrated using a Kd modelling approach that, for soils 268 with high Kds (i.e., for soil with pH higher than 5), 5/6 of the isotopic redistribution in depth 269

occurrs through particle transfer, even on timescales as long as 10^4 years. This is typically the 270 271 case of the studied soils where pH does not decrease below 5 as shown in Figure 2. Pavich et al. (1986), Graly et al. (2010), Jarvis et al. (2010), Willenbring and von Blanckenburg (2010), 272 and Matisoff et al. (2011) also found that the transfer of these isotopes in soils mainly occurs 273 in association with the solid matter, especially in soils with negligible contents in dissolved 274 organic carbon, as observed in the neutral eutric Luvisols developed on loess investigated in 275 276 the current research. Nevertheless, chemical mobility in soluble phases cannot be ruled out, and the coefficients determined here are therefore considered as proxies maximizing particulate 277 transfer. 278

The advection velocity ranges from 0.12 to 0.27 cm yr^{-1} at 20 cm depth (Fig. 3, Table 5). 279 Kaste et al. (2007) have estimated advection velocities (though not depth-dependent) to vary 280 between 0.07 and 0.2 cm yr⁻¹ at their study sites by conducting a combined ²¹⁰Pb_(xs) and ¹³⁷Cs 281 modelling approach. Based on the modelling of ¹³⁷Cs vertical distributions in seven Luvisols 282 collected in different environmental conditions (Milton et al. 2001; Al-Masri 2006; Schimmack 283 and Márquez 2006), Jagercikova et al. (2014b) have found mean advection velocities of 0.22 \pm 284 0.06 cm yr⁻¹ (not depth-dependent). All these data are of the same order of magnitude. 285 Calculated advection velocities in the first 20 cm in cultivated plots are of poor significance 286 287 because advection is hidden by inversion tillage in these soils. The exponential decrease below 20 cm modelled at all sites, which matches the meteoric ¹⁰Be accumulation in the Bt-horizon 288 (Figs. 4b, 5b, 6b and 7b), can be attributed to the decreasing hydraulic conductivity measured 289 at these sites (data not shown), leading to the subsequent accumulation of 0-2 µm particles. 290 Advection velocities become lower than 0.001 cm.yr⁻¹ at 82 cm for grassland and at depths 291 ranging from 42 to 73 cm for cultivation sites (Table 5, Fig. 3), which correspond to Bt-292 horizons. The mean advection velocities vary down to these depths between 0.03 and 0.09 293 cm.yr⁻¹ (Table 5). 294

The surface diffusion coefficient is equal to $3.2 \pm 1.0 \text{ cm}^2 \text{.yr}^{-1}$ at Mons grassland plot. 295 Although their value was not depth-dependent, Kaste et al. (2007) also estimated the diffusion 296 coefficient at 2.1 \pm 0.4 cm².yr⁻¹ for a grassland site in Tennessee valley (California). In 297 cultivated plots, the surface diffusion coefficient varies from 0.26 \pm 0.06 to 40 \pm 39 cm² yr^{-1} 298 (Table 5). This very large range of values is attributed to the prevailing effect of tillage mixing 299 on diffusion that renders the diffusion coefficient difficult to quantify. In agricultural plots, 300 below the surface layer, diffusion becomes negligible ($D_s < 0.01 \text{ cm}^2.\text{yr}^{-1}$). The associated mean 301 diffusion coefficients are difficult to quantify (Table 5). Diffusion in terms of bioturbation will 302 therefore be further discussed for the grassland plot only. 303

304

305 3.2 Application of transfer coefficients to modelling of the organic carbon vertical distributions
 306 – Validation of the model

Comparisons of modelled and observed carbon contents ¹³C and ¹⁴C (when available) 307 are shown in Fig. 8 for Mons grassland and cultivation and in Fig. 9 for Boigneville and 308 Feucherolles cultivation sites. The transfer coefficients determined using ¹³⁷Cs and ¹⁰Be are 309 applied to vertical distributions of organic carbon. The amount of the inherited carbon set by 310 estimation of the C-horizon (Table 1) has a limited effect on final simulation results and only 311 affects deep layers, because the inherited carbon is exhausted. Indeed, less than 1 % of initial 312 C remains, according to the mineralisation rate constants (Table 4). Modelling efficiencies 313 greater than 0.6 are obtained for carbon concentrations. The EF for Δ^{14} C is 0.87 for the 314 grassland plot in Mons, and those for δ^{13} C exceed 0.80 for the grassland in Mons and the 315 Boigneville plot (Table 6). The EF values show that the model is valid for the modelling of 316 organic carbon depth distribution. 317

In detail, the simulation of C, 13 C and 14 C is excellent between 30 and 70 cm in all soils (Figs.

8 and 9). Below this depth, the model tends to systematically underestimate the organic C

concentrations and $\delta^{13}C$, but not $\Delta^{14}C$. We can therefore conclude that the hypothesis of 320 constant decay rates (not depth-dependent) down to 70 cm is consistent with the observed 321 profiles. Underestimation of carbon content below 70 cm can be explained by i) an 322 underestimation of the deep root input by the exponential rooting function; ii) an improper 323 approximation of the continuum of decay rates by discrete pools (Table 4), which is intrinsic to 324 the RothC model and neglects carbon intermediate between HUM (100 yrs) and IOM (2000 325 326 yrs); iii) an overestimation of the decay rate or an underestimation of the initial IOM; or iv) an underestimation of the advective movement in deep layers. Further analysis is needed to 327 distinguish among these different hypotheses,. 328

Furthermore, the agreement between the simulation of the carbon and the 0-2 μ m particles corroborates our vertical transfer model. Indeed, it illustrates the link between the carbon content and the 0-2 μ m fraction, as most of the organic carbon content is contained in the 0-2 μ m fraction (Supplementary Data file).

333

334 3.3 Diffusion coefficient as an indicator of the bioturbation rate

The diffusion coefficient rapidly decreases with depth (Fig. 3). Diffusion coefficients are 335 classically used in the literature to approximate bioturbation (Wilkinson et al., 2009; Jarvis et 336 337 al., 2010). To compare the modelled diffusion obtained for the pasture plot to bioturbation data based on biological indicators provided in the literature, we evaluated the mean bioturbation 338 rates for the upper 30 cm layer of the soil, which corresponds to the depth classically considered 339 in ecological studies. To this end, we used the method described in Jarvis et al. (2010) and 340 Jagercikova et al. (2014a), taking into account the mean diffusion for the upper 30 cm of the 341 pasture plot, the soil bulk density (1.32 g.cm^{-3}) and the earthworm length (8 cm at the grassland 342 site). The mean diffusion coefficient ranges from 1.4 to 2.9 cm².yr⁻¹ for the pasture plot, and 343 the calculated bioturbation rates vary from 693 to 1,473 t.ha⁻¹.yr⁻¹. When considering vertical 344

movement, ecological studies estimate that the bioturbation induced by anecic worms 345 346 dominates in temperate climates (Gobat at al. 2004; Persson et al. 2007). According to Bouche (1981), anecic species consume approximately 200 times their biomass of dry matter per year, 347 thereby generating bioturbation rates ranging from 6 to 400 t.ha⁻¹.yr⁻¹ for grasslands 348 (Jagercikova et al. 2014a). The estimation provided by the multi-tracer approach is thus 349 significantly higher than those based on anecic worm biomass. In both cases, the estimated 350 351 ranges are very wide, and significant uncertainties remain regarding the quantification of bioturbation. Our estimation based on a diffusion coefficient includes i) all processes of 352 pedoturbation, not just earthworm activity, including the processes associated with rooting (fall 353 354 of soil in dead root pores) or swelling and shrinking; ii) some solute transport. Accordingly, this estimation provides a maximized value of (bio)turbation in soils. The discrepancies 355 356 observed between the two approaches must be further investigated and better understood to 357 improve the estimation of bioturbation in soils.

358

359 3.4 Application of transfer coefficients to modelling of the vertical distributions of the 0-2 μm
360 particle-size fractions

361 The determined transfer coefficients (Table 5) are applied to the vertical distribution of the 0-2 µm fraction in the uppermost metre of the soil profiles. Model efficiencies range from 0.88 362 363 to 0.97 (Table 6), according to the site. The simulations reproduce, within the range of measurement uncertainties, i) the upper and lower 0-2 µm concentrations, except at the 364 Feucherolles site, where the simulated 0-2 µm concentrations in the upper part of the profile 365 are higher than the measured values, and ii) the depth of the inflexion points in the 0-2 µm 366 concentrations within a precision of 5 cm (10 cm for cropland at Boigneville) (Fig. 10). 367 Nevertheless, concentrations measured in the 0-2 µm bulge are underestimated by the model 368 (Fig. 10). The model underestimates the 0-2 µm particles accumulation in the bulge by 76 % at 369

the grassland plot. This result is, however, obtained i) for an initial 0-2 µm particle content of 370 371 24 % in the loess parent material, which is higher than the contents generally found in loess (Table 7); ii) considering that the advection-diffusion coefficient represents particle-bound 372 373 transfer only, although the occurrence of some transfer under soluble form may not be entirely excluded. The model underestimation of the 0-2 µm particles accumulation in the bulge is thus 374 minimal. Other processes, such as clay neo-formation, probably contributed to the formation of 375 376 this horizon. In addition, long-term erosion is not considered in our modelling approach, while soil truncation at the surface due to human activity from the Neolithic times cannot be ruled 377 out. 378

379 Finally, the temporal evolution over the last 15 kyr of the 0-2 µm fraction distribution is reconstructed for the grassland plot (Fig. 11 and video in Supplementary Data). After 30 years, 380 a 0-2 µm fraction bulge is formed. With time, this bulge migrates deeper and widens due to the 381 382 accumulation of 0-2 µm particles and the occurrence of diffusive processes. It reaches the dimension and position of the present-day Bt-horizon after approximately 5 kyr. Then its 383 migration almost stagnates as it reaches a depth range where the advection velocity is low, and 384 the 0-2 µm fraction distribution does not significantly change after 9 kyr of simulation (i.e., 385 over the last 6 kyr). This simulated age of the Bt-horizon agrees with the estimated ¹⁴C age of 386 387 greater than 3.4 kyr. The 0-2 µm depth distribution does not significantly evolve over the last 5 kyr because both diffusion and advection processes are still ongoing and compensate for each 388 other. The system can be considered as having reached a steady state. Nevertheless, in this 389 model, the decarbonation and Ca^{2+} desaturation of the parent loess material are not considered. 390 391 These processes may take several thousands of years to occur (Finke and Hutson 2008; Quénard et al. 2011) and may impede 0-2 µm particle translocation (Jamagne 1973; Quénard et al. 2011). 392 Independent simulation with SoilGen (Finke 2012) at this site with the same parent material 393 hypothesis led to estimates of 5 kyr for decarbonation of 0.5 m of loess and 6 kyr for 394

decarbonation of 1 m of loess. Because the steady state persists over at least 6 kyr in the simulation, the estimated duration for decarbonation remains relevant to the duration required to form the Bt-horizon generated by our simulation. At last, the steady state is disturbed by the introduction of agriculture. Indeed, a noticeable change occurs in the 0-20 cm layer after the introduction of tillage practices, considered to have occurred between 1700 and 1939 AD for this plot.

401

402 4 Conclusions

Redistribution of ¹³⁷Cs, meteoric ¹⁰Be, and ²¹⁰Pb_(xs) with depth in the studied soils is 403 simulated using a diffusion-advection equation with a single set of vertically variable 404 coefficients. The resulting depth evolutions of the two coefficients are consistent with the soil 405 characteristics controlling particle mobilization and/or transfer in soils under both particulate 406 and soluble forms. The mean advection velocities vary to depths between 0.03 and 0.09 cm.yr⁻ 407 ¹. To be fully comprehensive, additional processes such as lateral mixing (between macropores 408 409 and the soil matrix), compaction, erosion and alteration should be added to the current model 410 as well as explicit consideration of both solute and particulate transfers. These improvements 411 might be achieved by including new datasets from other disciplines (past erosion rates, parent material compositions and atmospheric isotopic fluxes). 412

Based on the obtained advection-diffusion coefficients, we satisfactorily model the organic carbon, δ^{13} C and ¹⁴C depth distributions in the studied Luvisols. The model, however, slightly underestimates the carbon content below 70 cm, likely due to the organic carbon representation, which is split into the 5 RothC pools. This independent verification confirms the validity of the defined depth-dependent advection velocity and diffusion parameters.

The surface diffusion coefficient is equal to $3.2 \pm 1.0 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ at the Mons grassland plot. When used as a proxy for bioturbation, the modelled diffusion term leads to significantly higher

estimates than those found in the literature and those derived from anecic and endogeic worm 420 421 biomass data under similar climatic conditions. Further studies should therefore be performed to better understand the processes involved and to reconcile both approaches. The fact that 422 423 carbon profiles in the top 70 cm can be reproduced by the same solid matter transport parameters as ¹³⁷Cs also supports the suggestion that carbon concentrations could be used with 424 ¹³⁷Cs to constrain the bioturbation intensity and depth in these environments. This finding is in 425 line with the common observations of field soil scientists, who diagnose the intensity of 426 bioturbation through the observation of the carbon profile. 427

Regarding clay translocation, we conclude that i) it is possible to simulate the formation of a Bt-horizon at the appropriate depth by restricting modelling to vertical solid transfers and ii) the 0-2 μ m fraction bulge is rapidly formed (within a few decades after the beginning of the simulation), demonstrating that clay translocation is a rapid process. We also highlight that vertical solid matter transfer explains a maximum of 24 % of the 0-2 μ m accumulation in the Bt-horizon, the rest being due to other processes, such as *in situ* weathering of primary minerals and clay neo-formation.

In conclusion, this study presents a model capable of simultaneously reproducing the isotopic profiles of several tracers and simulating the organic carbon distribution down to a depth of 70 cm and the 0-2 μ m fraction translocation. We also coupled the 0-2 μ m fraction and the organic carbon depth evolution; such a coupling could improve long-term organic carbon modelling.

440

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628	Figure captions
629	
630 631 632	Figure 1: Location of the study sites in Northern France (red asterix – campaign in 2011; open asterix - campaign in 2012).
633	Figure 2: Measured depth distributions of a- the 0-2 μm fraction, b- organic carbon content and c- the pH_{H2O} for
634	all sampled soils. CT stands for cultivation
635	
636	Figure 3: Evolution of a- advection velocity and b- diffusion with soil depth, as determined by the multi-isotopic
637	modelling performed on ¹³⁷ Cs and meteoric ¹⁰ Be data. CT stands for cultivation.
638	
639	Figure 4: Measured (green) and simulated (blue curves) vertical isotopic distributions at Mons grassland: a- ¹³⁷ Cs;
640	b- meteoric ¹⁰ Be; and c- ²¹⁰ Pb (xs)
641	
642	Figure 5: Measured (green) and simulated (blue curves) vertical distributions at Boigneville cultivation: a- ¹³⁷ Cs;
643	b- meteoric ¹⁰ Be. Pb-210 (xs) measurements were below the detection limit
644	
645	Figure 6: Measured (green) and simulated (blue curves) vertical distributions at Mons cultivation: a- ¹³⁷ Cs; b-
646	meteoric ¹⁰ Be. Pb-210 (xs) measurements were below the detection limit
647	
648	Figure 7: Measured (green) and simulated (blue curves) vertical distributions at Feucherolles cultivation: a-
649	¹³⁷ Cs; b- meteoric ¹⁰ Be. Pb-210 (xs) measurements were below the detection limit
650	
651	Figure 8: Measured (green) and simulated (blue curves) vertical isotopic distributions at Mons of a- organic carbon
652	concentrations and RothC compartments (RPM for resistant plant matter, BIO for decomposers biomass, HUM
653	for stabilized organic matter and IOM for almost inert organic matter), with the blue curve representing the sum
654	of all compartments; b- $\delta^{13}C$ and c- $\Delta^{14}C$ for the grassland plot; and d- organic carbon concentrations and RothC
655	compartments, with blue curve representing the sum of all compartments for the cultivation plot
656	
657	Figure 9: Measured (green) and simulated (blue curves) vertical distributions of a- organic carbon concentrations
658	and RothC compartments (RPM for resistant plant matter, BIO for decomposers biomass, HUM for stabilized
659	organic matter and IOM for almost inert organic matter), with the blue curve representing the sum of all
660	compartments and b- δ^{13} C for Boigneville cultivation; c- organic carbon concentrations and RothC compartments
661	for Feucherolles cultivation, with blue curve representing the sum of all compartments
662	
663	Figure 10: Measured (green) and simulated (blue curves) of the 0-2 μ m fraction vertical distributions considering
664	the transfer coefficient reported in Table 5: a and b- Mons grassland and cultivation, respectively; c- Feucherolles
665	cultivation; and d- Boigneville cultivation
666	
667	Figure 11: Temporal evolution over 15,000 years of the 0-2 µm fraction vertical distribution at Mons
668	grassland based on the transfer coefficients determined in Table 5. Tillage is simulated from year 14,700 to

year 11,222

Table 1: Parameters used when modelling the studied isotopes (initial concentrations, input histories, and fraction of the inherited concentration subjected to advection).

Isotope and 0-2 µm	Input history reconstruction	Initial concentration or composition	Fraction of the inherited concentration subjected to advection
¹³⁷ Cs	Nuclear weapon tests (Cambray et al., 1989) and the Chernobyl accident in 1986 (Roussel-Debel et al., 2007)	None	None
²¹⁰ Pb (xs)	93 ± 8 Bq m ⁻² yr ⁻¹ (Jagercikova et al., 2014)	None	None
Carbon	After Davis et al., 2003, Verbruggen et al. (1996), Meteo France data and site's data	$0.005 \mathrm{~g~g^{-1}}$	
δ^{13} C	Francey et al. (1999);White and Vaughn (2011); Schmitt et al. (2012)	-23‰ (Mons and Feucherolles) and 24‰ (Boigneville)	None
$\Delta^{14}C$	Natural flux (Reimer et al., 2009) and nuclear weapon tests (Hua et al., 2013)	275.7‰ (Reimer et al., 2009)	
Meteoric ¹⁰ Be	Constant flux of 1.15×10^6 atoms cm ⁻² yr ⁻¹ (Jagercikova et al., 2015)	3.4×10^8 atoms cm ⁻³ (Mons); 4.2×10^8 atoms cm ⁻³ (Feucherolles); 7.6×10^8 atoms cm ⁻³ (Boigneville) (Jagercikova etal., 2015)	20%
0 -2 µm	None	240 g kg ⁻¹ (Mons and Feucherolles) 280 g kg ⁻¹ (Boigneville)	20%

Site	Mons	Feucherolles	Boigneville
Experiment name	Essay system – ORE-ACBB ^a Mons	ORE-PRO ^b -Qualiagro	Wheat monoculture
Managing institution	INRA	INRA	Arvalis (Plant institute)
Geographic coordinates	49°52'01"N - 3°01'53" E	48°53'49"N - 1°58'19"E	2°22'58''E - 48°19'30''N
Elevation	88 m	120 m	116 m
Mean annual rainfall	680 mm	660 mm	630 mm
Mean annual temperature	11 °C	11.2 °C	10.4 °C
Considered land uses	Cultivation Grassland (since 1939)	Cultivation	Cultivation
Crop rotation	Wheat – corn – sugar beet rotation	Corn – wheat rotation	Wheat (continuous)
Liming	Not since 1986 for cultivation and 1939 for pasture	Not since 1998	Not since 1970
Sampling date	March 2011	April 2011	March 2012

Table 2: General descriptions of the study sites.

^a- Observatory for Environmental Research on Agrosystems, Biogeochemical Cycles and Biodiversity

Horizon Sites Plots Α Е **Degraded Bt** C/Bt C Π Bt 130-150 cm: silt-> 150 cm: same Silt-loam, 10YR4/4^a: None None 38-130 cm: silty None clay-loam, characteristics as loam, 0-28 cm: tillage horizon, prismatic, continuous. C/Bt. no Cultivation crumbly, no earthworms. 10YR4/4^a with 10YR5/6, few earthworms. 28-38 cm: base of the ancient Mons 7.5YR4/4 coatings, earthworms. tillage, polyhedral, few few earthworms. earthworms. Richer in organic matter and earthworm **Grassland**^b activity, exhibiting darker colours (10 YR 3/2) and frequent earthworm casts 0-25(27) cm: tillage horizon, 32(35)-45(50) 45(50)-75(80) 75(80)-95(100) cm: None 95(100)-160 cm: > 168 (172) cm: silt loam, crumbly to cm, silt loam, cm: silty clay silty clay loam, silt loam, 10 clays with poorly loam, prismatic, $10YR5/6^{a}$ with YR5/6^a, watergritstone gravels. polyhedrous, 10YR4/4^a. Feucherolles Cultivation logged at its base 25(27)-32(35) cm: base of the polyhedrous, 7.5YR4/6^a with 7.5YR4/6 coatings. 10YR4/6^a. during sampling; former tillage, poorly 10YR4/6 160-168(172) polyhedrous. tongues. cm: carbonated Ck. 0-20(25) cm: tillage horizon, 34(50)-73(80) cm: >73(80) cm: None None None None^c silty clay loam to silt loam, crumbly, 10YR4/4 a: transition to silty clay, Boigneville 20(25)-35 cm, former tillage, another parent Cultivation prismatic, material. compact, more clayey, $10YR4/4^{a}$ with 10YR3/3.5 10YR3/4 coatings.

Table 3: Synthetic soil description of the different plots and sites.

^a According to the Munsell Soil Color Chart, 2000.

^b Only changes compared to the reference cropped profile at the same site are described.

^c A fresh loess sample could not be collected at Boigneville, where it was entirely pedogenetised.

Table 4: Proportion of the organic carbon compartment (*P*) and its decay rate *k* used for modelling the carbon dynamics in soil. All parameters are the RothC default values from Coleman and Jenkinson (1999) except P_{IOM} and k_{IOM} .

Parameters	Mons Grassland	Mons CT ^a	Feucherolles CT ^a	Boigneville CT ^a
P _{DPM}	0.4	0.59	0.59	0.59
P_{RPM}	0.6	0.41	0.41	0.41
P _{BIO}	0.099 for <i>z</i> =0 ^b	0.098 for $z=0^{b}$	0.093 for <i>z</i> =0 ^b	0.104 for $z=0^{b}$
P _{HUM}	0.116 for $z=0^{b}$	0.115 for $z=0^{b}$	0.110 for <i>z</i> =0 ^b	0.122 for <i>z</i> =0 ^b
P _{IOM}	0.001208	0.001208	0.001208	0.001208
1/k _{DPM} yr	0.15	0.13	0.17	0.21
<i>l/k_{DPM}</i> yr	5.11	4.50	5.52	7.03
<i>1/k_{BIO}</i> yr	2.32	2.04	2.51	3.20
1/k _{HUM} yr	76.6	67.5	82.8	105.5
1/k _{IOM} yr	2042	3372	2759	2812

^a CT stands for cultivation

 $^{b}P_{BIO}$ and P_{HUM} are functions of 0-2 μ m fraction content and are thus depth-dependent: Only their surface values are reported in the table.

Site	D_0	b	$v_0(z=0 \text{ cm})$	$v_1(z=20 \text{ cm})$	d	<i>EF</i> ¹³⁷ Cs	<i>EF</i> ¹⁰ Be
	$\mathrm{cm}^2\mathrm{yr}^{-1}$	cm ⁻¹	$cm yr^{-1}$	$cm yr^{-1}$	cm ⁻¹		
Mons							
Grassland	3.22 ± 1.02	0.030 ± 0.004	0.18 ± 0.08	0.27 ± 0.64	0.090 ± 0.004	0.78	0.99
Cultivation	0.26 ± 0.06	0.001 ± 0.003	0.03 ± 0.15	0.14 ± 0.01	0.230 ± 0.020	0.89	0.99
Feucherolles	1.85 ± 0.87	0.043 ± 0.008	0.00 ± 1.28	0.12 ± 0.02	0.090 ± 0.002	2 0.97	0.98
Boigneville	40.00 ± 38.65	0.139 ± 0.037	0.05 ± 0.08	0.14 ± 0.09	0.155 ± 0.017	0.97	0.89

Table 5: Advection and diffusion coefficients and modelling efficiencies obtained by fitting the ¹³⁷Cs and ¹⁰Be vertical distributions.

Site		EF					
	0-2 µm	С	δ^{13} C	$\Delta^{14}C$			
Mons							
Grassland	0.95	0.60	0.89	0.87			
Cultivation	0.91	0.87	NA	NA			
Feucherolles	0.88	0.96	NA	NA			
Boigneville	0.80	0.90	0.8	NA			

Table 6: Modelling efficiencies (*EF*) of the 0-2 μ m fraction, organic carbon and isotope depth redistributions, considering the transfer coefficients reported in Table 5.

Table 7: Data compilation of worldwide 0-2 μ m fraction and carbonate contents in loess.

Only studies providing both loess characteristics are reported.

Reference	Place	0-2 μm	CaCO3 %	0-2 μm % after carbonate dissolution
Antoine (pers. com.)	Beugnatre (France)	15-18	12-15	17-21
Antoire at al. (1999)	St. Pierre les Elbeuf (NW France)	14	12	16
Antoine et al. (2003)	Villiers Adam (Val d'Oise, France)	15	18	18
Bettis et al. (2003)	Columbia Plateau (USA)	12	20	15
Joret and Malterre (1947)	Mons region (France)	14	12	16
Sterckeman et al. (2006)	Nord Pas de Calais (France)	18	13	21
Pécsi (1990)	Typical loess	5-25	1-20	6-31























