Temperature-induced diurnal redox potential in soil†

Kristof Dorau, a, b, * Bianca Bohn, b Lutz Weihermüller, c and Tim Mansfeldt, a

With the capabilities to measure redox potentials (Eₜₐ) at a high temporal resolution, scientists have observed diurnal Eₜₐ that occur in a distinct periodicity in soils and sediments. These patterns have been disregarded for a long time because minor fluctuations of the Eₜₐ in the tens of mV range are difficult to interpret. Various explanations have been proposed for the origin of diel Eₜₐ but a cohesive assessment of the temperature-dependency for field- and laboratory-based investigations is missing at present. In this study, we investigated spatiotemporal diel Eₜₐ of previous long-term (up to 10 years) field- and lab-based monitoring data collected at high-temporal (every hour) and spatial (up to 6 depths) resolution. In addition, we set up a redox experiment where we manipulated the soil temperature (ST) by diel temperature cycles to assess the Eₜₐ response. Diel fluctuations were absent for laboratory experiments with ΔEₜₐ of a few mV (daily Eₜₐ max – daily Eₜₐ min), but we found pronounced fluctuations up to ~100 mV for field investigations. The spatiotemporal pattern in Eₜₐ fluctuations was amplified in the topsoil during the summer months concomitant with ST. We showed for the first time that changes in ST during an incubation experiment altered the Eₜₐ by –3.3 mV °C⁻¹ and inferred that the diel Eₜₐ were driven by the thermal conditions of the soil itself. This is particularly important when Eₜₐ is measured close to the soil surface and underlines that minor fluctuations of the Eₜₐ with a recurring periodicity should be carefully checked for its dependency with the soil and reference electrode temperature. Redox measurements should not be considered a routine determination and cautious handling of Eₜₐ data by physical sound corrections is urgently needed in order to link ΔEₜₐ to daily biogeochemical cycling in soils.

Environmental significance

The coherent interpretation of redox potential (Eₜₐ) measurements in soils and sediments is difficult from a theoretical and practical perspective. Spatiotemporal patterns of Eₜₐ are controlled by intrinsic soil properties as well as external factors. In our study, we highlighted that the thermal conditions of the soil itself largely explain the diel Eₜₐ by –3.3 mV °C⁻¹, a finding that has been overlooked so far. When working with automatic redox measurements on a high temporal scale, a diel Eₜₐ should be verified for its temperature dependency and not be misinterpreted, e.g., as exclusively microbial-related features that occur in soils.

1 Introduction

Automated and continuous data logging of redox potential (Eₜₐ) in soils is beneficial to delineate their redox status, which is crucial to assess the mobility of trace metals, nutrients, greenhouse gas emission, biotransformation of organic pollutants, isotopic fractionation processes, and soil genesis. Measurements, e.g., on an hourly basis, became technically feasible several decades earlier, which paved the way to assess the dynamic nature of the Eₜₐ. Since then, numerous authors have reported that diurnal Eₜₐ have occurred in soils with daily cycles up to 200 mV. Even at 2 and 8 m depths of a sandy aquifer pronounced fluctuations up to 50 mV in Eₜₐ were found. While some studies did not pay any attention to this phenomenon, others gave various explanations. These included, for instance, the temperature in general as part of the Nernst equation, temperature-dependent O₂ solubility, changes in light intensity that impacted photosynthetic activity in plants, and recently, a universal periodicity in atmospheric electricity that affects microbial processes in soil and thus redox conditions with a diel Eₜₐ. In addition, it was recently shown that barometric-pumping alters the gas transport in soils and this might be a factor for diel Eₜₐ. However, besides these plausible processes it is well known that temperature affects the
standard potential ($E^0$) of the reference electrode but this technical relation issue has not been systematically cross validated with data from the field. A linkage between spatiotemporal trends in diel $E_H$ and how this is related to the soil temperature (ST) is missing up to now.

Diel $E_H$ cycles were omnipresent during our own previous monitoring campaigns, but we did not pay close attention to these patterns, nor did we speculate about their origin.18 We did this in line with the current belief that variations in electrochemical force up to 50 mV have little meaning and cannot be interpreted.18 To appropriately measure $E_H$, the basic equipment includes (i) redox electrodes, (ii) a reference electrode, (iii) a salt bridge, and (iv) portable voltmeters or data loggers.7 There is an undoubted value to employ $E_H$ measurements to obtain a mechanistic understanding of temporarily water-saturated soil environments.6,19–23 However, a quantitative interpretation of the $E_H$ is only valid under chemical equilibrium conditions. This thermodynamic prerequisite is in most cases not met, since the electron pool in soils changes continuously due to soil organic matter (e− donor) turnover.7 Furthermore, the limitation of electroactive redox couples in soil solution with concentrations <10−5 M, e.g., Fe(m) and Fe(n), featuring rapid and reversible electron transfer reactions22,23 allows only for the determination of redox classes rather than absolute values. Even though $E_H$ is considered a master variable along with pH and has proven to be an attractive measure the manifold limitations of this concept tend to be neglected.24

To investigate the spatiotemporal diel $E_H$ more into detail, we looked at our own previous field data where $E_H$ was measured to delineate reducing conditions, but this time, we focused particularly on diurnal variations that were analyzed by a time-series analysis. The data comprises three long-term field data sets that extend from 18 months to 10 years and multiple laboratory-based experiments that lasted up to one year. Both generic settings featured in total 50 individual electrodes and a raw data set of $7 \times 10^6$ individual $E_H$ measurements to derive trends in diel $E_H$.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Study sites

We used data from previous field and laboratory experiments and focused on diurnal $E_H$ variations. The study sites were in Germany: two in North Rhine-Westphalia (Lavesum 51°48‘59" N, 7°12‘59" E, 41 m asl; Kottenforst 50°40‘18" N, 7°02‘48" E, 168 m asl) and one in Schleswig-Holstein (Speicherkoog 54°8‘1" N, 8°58‘28" E, 0.5 m asl). The sites differed in land use (Table 1). It is a common feature that the soils were temporarily affected by reducing conditions either due to groundwater (the Gleysols) or perched water (the Planosols). In addition, the soils featured a broad range of relevant properties from carbonaceous-rich soil with neutral soil reaction to low-pH environments (Table 2). For a detailed site description the reader is referred to Mansfeldt and Overesch,4 Dorau and Mansfeldt,17 and Dorau et al.6

2.2 Data collection in the field

Each monitoring campaign comprised a variable period with the longest duration for Speicherkoog, followed by Kottenforst, and finally by Lavesum (Table 1). The measurement interval was on an hourly basis, and the data were stored in a data logger (enviLog Maxi, ecoTech, Bonn, Germany). We employed permanently installed platinum (Pt) electrodes for each site, and a silver–silver chloride (Ag–AgCl; 3 M KCl internal electrolyte) electrode served as the reference. The reference electrode (ecoTech, Bonn, Germany) was pushed in a salt bridge,25 which was a perforated PVC tube filled with 3 M KCl and stabilized by agar, to slow down the loss of KCl solution through the diaphragm. The Pt electrodes (ecoTech, Bonn, Germany) were placed in stellar configuration around the reference electrode and the measured voltage was corrected by adding +207 mV, i.e., the deviation against the standard hydrogen electrode at 25 °C. The $E_H$ readings were not adjusted to pH 7 because the use of the Nernst factor for soils is questionable26 in any case, the pH of the respective sample should be reported (Table S1). At each study site, the individual Pt electrodes were physically separated from the reference electrode, and the galvanic circuit was connected by a relay only for the measurement itself. A multiplexer was programmed to measure each channel with 12.5 ms, and a subsequent stabilization time of 200 ms before the next channel was measured. To obtain a stable and precise reading, all data loggers featured a high impedance of >1 TΩ (enviLog module, ecoTech, Bonn, Germany) with an AD converter of 16 bit resolution and a measurement range from −1250 to +1250 mV. Per soil depth, each three Pt electrodes attached to 5 m shielded Cu cables (distance from the Pt tip to the data logger) were installed at variable depths (Table 1). An important feature was that at all sites the redox electrodes had

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Relevant information about the study sites in Germany where redox potential monitoring was conducted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Study site</td>
<td>Land use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lavesum</td>
<td>Extensively used grassland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speicherkoog</td>
<td>Non-cultivated grassland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kottenforst</td>
<td>Forest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* According to WRB. † Soil temperature. ‡ Air temperature.
the same design, *i.e.*, a Pt wire of 1 mm in diameter and 5 mm in length protruded into the soil. This ensured that a uniform electrode surface area of \( \sim 15.7 \, \text{mm}^2 \) was in contact with the soil matrix. The Pt wire was welded on a copper (Cu) wire that was connected to a standard Cu cable. Soil temperature was simultaneously measured at all redox electrode depths with Tensiomark® and pH Meter (ecoTech, Bonn, Germany) at Kottenforst and Speicherkooog and temperature sensors (Pt 100) at Lavesum. The air temperature was exclusively measured at Speicherkooog using a weather transmitter (WXT520, Vaisala, Helsinki, Finland).

### 2.3 Data collection in the laboratory

The redox electrodes employed for the lab experiments were identical in construction with the ones employed for the field investigation, which was also true for the reference electrode and the data logger. Thereby, the installation was carried out either in (i) homogenized and air-dried soil sieved \(<2 \, \text{mm} \) or (ii) undisturbed samples taken by steel cylinder (250 cm³) in which the redox electrodes were installed. The room for the incubation experiments was air-conditioned and kept constantly at 25 ± 2 °C.

### 2.4 Incubation experiment with manipulated temperature

To check for the impact of temperature, we excavated an undisturbed soil monolith (20 × 20 × 5 cm; \( l \times h \times w \)) by an acryl glass housing from the Speicherkooog study site (labeled as “Lab E” in Table S1, Fig. S1†) and installed redox electrodes at depths of 2.5, 7.5, 12.5, and 17.5 cm. The test assembly was incubated in a climate chamber (KB400, Binder, Tuttlingen, Germany) and the temperature was (i) adjusted at a constant value of 25 °C for two months, (ii) raised to 35 °C and then lowered to 15 °C in 5 °C increments for every three days, and (iii) manipulated to fluctuate daily between 35 and 15 °C. The experiment at constant temperature (25 °C) was at first performed under reducing conditions by adjusting the water table in the box to 10 cm below soil depth followed by re-aeration of the sample via removal of the soil water due to free drainage. The temperature manipulation between 35 and 15 °C reflects a typical daily air temperature range found in mid-latitude regions during cloudless conditions. For this particular experiment, the Ag-AgCl reference electrode remained for the first half of the experiment inside the soil and, thus, was also prone to changes in temperature. For the second half, we detached the electrode from the soil and connected it via an electrolyte bridge from outside the climate chamber. Thus, only the Pt electrodes and the soil were affected by temperature changes. The electrolyte bridge was a silicone tube (1 cm Ø) filled with 3 M KCl and stabilized by agar.

### 2.5 Statistical analysis

Since we employed only quasi-stationary \( E_{\text{H}} \) conditions where the focus is on the diurnal \( E_{\text{H}} \) variability with a recurring periodicity, we removed periods with a strong \( E_{\text{H}} \) increase or decrease, *e.g.*, due to the position of the variable water table. These transitions across multiple redox classes are typical in waterlogged horizons with changes up to 540 mV within 24 hours1 but would potentially bias our analysis. Neglecting these transitions curtailed the data but by doing so we reduce overfitting and focus on diel \( E_{\text{H}} \) with the underlying mechanistic relationships (Fig. S2†). In addition, we deleted data from measurements when the \( E_{\text{H}} \) exceeded 50 mV within one hour and classified this data as unsuitable (not available; NA) for our calculations. All analysis including data manipulation, calculation, and visualization were carried out in R. The most important steps featured (i) aggregation of the hourly data to calculate the range between daily min and daily max denoted with delta (Δ) in the following, (ii) summarization of the data to allocate the monthly mean throughout the time-series, and (iii) summarization of the data for the distinct hour of the day. All steps were done for the individual electrodes (in triplicate per depth) and joined afterward, when needed, to obtain the depth-specific mean and the standard error of the mean.

### 2.6 Soil properties

The most important soil properties for both the field and the lab were determined at oven-dried and sieved (<2 mm) samples as follows: pH was measured using a glass electrode in a 0.01 M L⁻¹ CaCl₂ solution mixed 5 : 1 with soil (vol/vol).28

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**Table 2** Overview of studies that observed diel \( E_{\text{H}} \) with the employed technical equipment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Diel ( E_{\text{H}} )</th>
<th>Distance between Pt and Ag–AgCl electrode</th>
<th>Reference electrode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lab 37</td>
<td>Mollic gleysol</td>
<td>NO (soil columns)</td>
<td>A few cm</td>
<td>3 M Ag–AgCl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Silt-loam argixeroll</td>
<td>YES (PVC rings)</td>
<td>A few cm</td>
<td>3 M Ag–AgCl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field 38</td>
<td>Saltmarsh sediments</td>
<td>YES (4)</td>
<td>Combination electrode</td>
<td>n. m. Calomel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Tidal wetland</td>
<td>YES (20/50)</td>
<td>~50 cm</td>
<td>Calomel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Humic gleysol</td>
<td>YES (5/20/30)</td>
<td>~30 cm</td>
<td>4 M Ag–AgCl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Saltmarsh</td>
<td>YES (1/2/4/5/9/10)</td>
<td>A few cm</td>
<td>Calomel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Reed bed</td>
<td>YES (20)</td>
<td>From 1 to 15 m</td>
<td>Ag–AgCl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Peat and sandy aquifer</td>
<td>YES (19/25/35/109/119/200/800)</td>
<td>From a few cm to 8 m</td>
<td>Ag–AgCl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Calcareous gleysol</td>
<td>YES (10/20/30/60/100/150)</td>
<td>~30 cm</td>
<td>3 M Ag–AgCl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Tidal soil</td>
<td>YES (15/25/50/75)</td>
<td>n. m.</td>
<td>Ag–AgCl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Synthetic substrate</td>
<td>YES (50/100)</td>
<td>n. m.</td>
<td>Calomel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Not mentioned.
organic carbon (OC) using a CNS analyzer (Vario EL cube, Elemental, Hanau, Germany).29 The particle-size-distribution after pre-treatment with H₂O₂ and HCl by the sieve and settling method.30

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Prominent temperature effects on $E_H$ measurements

The temperature has a manifold impact on the $E_H$ measurement because it (i) is an inherent property of the Nernst equation, (ii) changes the electrical properties of the cabling, and (iii) alters the electrode potential of the reference electrode. First, if we consider a common redox reaction with $\text{Fe}^{3+} + e^- \rightleftharpoons \text{Fe}^{2+}$, having a standard potential ($E^0$) of 770 mV and assuming equilibrium conditions, temperature modifies the measured potential by, however, only 0.086 mV °C⁻¹ (Fig. 1A). Second, the cabling to measure redox consists of a conducting cable (e.g., a Cu cable with 5 m length and 1 mm Ø as is employed for the field experiments), and along with an increase in temperature, the electric resistance increases by 0.442 mΩ °C⁻¹ (Fig. 1B). Brownian motion is responsible for this behavior because as more atoms and molecules bounce around, e.g., within a Cu cable, the harder it is for electrons to flow. However, if we consider a typical exchange current of 1 µA at the Pt surface, these marginal changes in $R$ along with the associated little currents can only explain <0.001 mV °C⁻¹ and, thus, resistance of the Cu cable is not a factor. Third, the Ag–AgCl (3 M KCl) reference electrode has a fixed $E^0$ of 207 mV at 25 °C, but temperature modifies the measured $E_H$ relative to the reference electrode by $-0.71$ mV °C⁻¹ (Fig. 1C). Temperature fluctuations of 20 °C would explain a variation of 14 mV from the reference electrode, but this can barely explain fluctuations in $\Delta E_H$ up to 50 mV and even larger.31,32,33 Finally, the temperature of the measured medium is also of importance, as exemplified with ZoBell’s solution. This test solution is classically employed to check for the proper functioning of the redox electrodes and shows an inherent strong temperature dependency due to entropy, enthalpy, and heating capacity with $-2.40$ mV °C⁻¹ (Fig. 1D).34 However, up to now the temperature of the measured medium, i.e., the soil, has not been included in the $E_H$ measurement protocol.

3.2 Temperature effects in the laboratory

To verify the key role of temperature on the $E_H$ measurement, we set up an incubation experiment in the laboratory (Fig. S1†). Under constant temperature of 25 °C (Fig. 2A), we did not observe die $E_H$ under reducing conditions when the water table was adjusted at 10 cm below soil depth (in 7.5, 12.5, and 17.5 cm), or under oxidizing conditions subsequent when the sample was aerated from 27 July onwards (Fig. 2B). All electrodes reached quasi-stationary $E_H$ conditions on 22 August, and from this moment on, we adjusted the temperature in a stepwise manner (Fig. 2A). Interestingly, the $E_H$ reacted instantaneously after each temperature change (Fig. 2B), and under quasi-stationary conditions, a significant negative correlation between $E_H$ and temperature existed ($r = -0.995, p < 0.001$; Fig. 2C). As soon as we generated daily temperature fluctuations, we produced a periodicity in $E_H$ in all depths with a clear cause-effect relationship (Fig. 2B). Thus, we argue that temperature is involved in the development of daily $E_H$ cycles with our empirical data highlighting a slope of $-3.3$ mV °C⁻¹, if we correct the measured $E_H$ for the temperature-dependency of the reference electrode (Fig. 2C). To the best of our knowledge,
the only study performed in the laboratory that exhibited a diel deviation of temperature and redox potential in four depths \(E_H\) for a soil monolith incubated within a climate chamber. The climate chamber was programmed to run under three different conditions: (i) constant temperature, (ii) fixed temperature, and (iii) variable daily temperature regime. We used the following equation and corrected the measured voltage by adding the temperature-dependent deviation against the standard hydrogen electrode: \(E_H = (–0.714 \times \text{temperature}) + 225\) (Fig. 1C). The regression lines in (C) were derived from the fixed temperature conditions and account for the applied correction (red) and assuming a constant temperature of 25 °C by adding +207 mV to adjust the measured voltage (blue line). Under variable temperature regime, the experiment was conducted with the reference electrode (Ag–AgCl; 3 M KCl internal electrolyte) being inside the climate chamber and put outside on 22 October outside the climate chamber. The electrical circuit with the soil was closed via an electrolyte bridge. Panel (D) shows the mean \(\Delta E_H\) (calculated as the difference between daily \(E_H\)-max – \(E_H\)-min value) for the redox incubation experiment under constant and variable temperature, for previous lab experiments (Lab A to E), and for field experiments (Kottenforst, Speicherkoog, Lavesum) among all electrodes and different depths.

3.3 Temperature effects in the field

As previously mentioned, diel \(E_H\) with a recurring periodicity were omnipresent during our field campaigns among all depths and electrodes for all sites (Fig. S3D–F†). The average \(\Delta E_H\) decreased in the order Lavesum > Speicherkoog > Kottenforst (Fig. 2D). Thereby, diel \(E_H\) occurred under strongly reducing conditions for some electrodes at Speicherkoog and Lavesum (Fig. S3A and B†) but also under oxidizing conditions with \(E_H > 300 \text{ mV}\) predominant for Kottenforst (Fig. S3C†). Temperature fluctuations were most pronounced at the soil surface and this is coherent with a decrease in \(\Delta E_H\) for Lavesum and Speicherkoog (Fig. S4†). The absence of this pattern for Kottenforst is plausible, because the forested site is shaded by the canopy and the uppermost depth in 25 cm generally exhibits only marginal changes in \(ST\).

For the monthly development in \(\Delta E_H\), there was an annual pattern evident for the 10 cm soil depth that peaked during the summer months with values up to 50 mV in conjunction with \(\Delta ST\) (Fig. 3A and B). If these patterns are broken down on a daily basis, the \(E_H\) was lowest when the \(ST\) was highest (Fig. 3C and D; \(r = –0.99, p < 0.001\)), in accordance with the negative correlation of the independent laboratory-based study with \(-3.3 \text{ mV °C}^{-1}\) (Fig. 2C). \(\Delta E_H\) in 150 cm soil depth was considerably lower with annual values between 5 to 10 mV, since there are neither annual nor daily variations in \(\Delta ST\). Thus, no significant correlation existed with \(ST\) in this depth but the daily curves between \(E_H\) and air temperature matched perfectly (\(r = –0.94, p < 0.001; \) Fig. S5B†). We assume two different mechanisms being important for this finding, which are (i) changes of the reference
electrode temperature and (ii) the thermal properties of the soil. The $E_{H}$ measurement procedure in our study – and in most of the other field studies (Table 2) – features a two-probe system with a separated reference and redox electrode. This has practical advantages compared with a combination electrode in terms of maintenance and costs. However, since the reference electrode is positioned at the soil surface (Fig. S6†), its standard electrode potential is more affected by changes in $AT$ than $ST$. Thus, $E_{H}$ measured in subsoils will only be affected by changes of the reference electrode temperature while $E_{H}$ measured in the topsoil is in addition affected by the thermal properties of the soil itself. The latter process contributes largely to the magnitude of diel $E_{H}$. Overall, a temperature correction of the $E_{H}$ is particularly desirable if measurements are conducted within surface horizons where daily amplitudes in $ST$ are expected, e.g., in the summer time.

### 3.4 $E_{H}$ correction for temperature fluctuations

Strong indication that fluctuations in $ST$ has to be taken into account for correcting periodicity in measured $E_{H}$, even if the reference electrode is placed in an environment with constant temperature, is provided in Fig. 2B, where $E_{H}$ is measured in the climatic chamber and the reference electrode is located outside the climate chamber. For the temperature correction of $E_{H}$ a detrending approach was applied, as commonly done to correct, e.g., soil CO$_2$ flux measurements performed over the course of a day with varying temperature according to eqn (1):

$$E_{H\text{ corrected}} = E_{H} + (MST - ST) \times m$$

where $E_{H}$ is the measured redox potential (mV) measured at a specific time, $ST$ is the soil temperature ($^\circ C$) at the time $E_{H}$ was measured, MST is the mean soil temperature ($^\circ C$) over the entire measurement period, and $m$ is the slope from the regression equation between $E_{H}$ and $ST$ over the course of the measurement period. In our case $m$ was calculated to be $-7.58$ in the example of Fig. 4A. Applying this correction to the measured $E_{H}$ resulted in a decreased $\Delta E_{H}$ from $34 \pm 6$ mV for the raw data towards $16 \pm 9$ mV for the corrected $E_{H}$ (Fig. 4B). Even if this straightforward approach already improved the $\Delta E_{H}$ substantially, more sophisticated correction approaches are desired. For instance, the data in Fig. 4A clusters into two groups due to (i) a general soil warming/cooling trend from the $22^{nd}$ of June.
onwards, and (ii) cyclical alterations due to day–night cycles. More adaptive mathematical algorithms should cope with these constraints but the ultimate goal would be a physical based correction method that integrates geochemical data such as PHREEQC with heat-, water-, and gas-transport to explain diel $E_H$ in soil. The HP1 software offers such capabilities but the main challenge remains to feed these physical trained models with data collected as close as possible in vicinity to the Pt surface of the redox electrode. Recently, Maisch et al. collected by noninvasive imaging techniques Fe(II), Fe(III), O$_2$, and pH gradients at high temporal (hourly) and spatial (∼mm) scale within specialized rhizotrons filled with an artificial substrate. This points to the right direction to further investigate highly variable $E_H$ patterns in soil by knowledge of the environmental surrounding. Whereas the correction of $E_H$ has no impact on long-term trends it should be considered as a first step to reduce technical noise and artefacts being present in $E_H$ data.

4 Conclusions

Diel variations in $E_H$ were omnipresent when monitoring was performed in the field and showed an (i) annual, (ii) daily, and (iii) soil depth-dependent pattern. Enhanced diurnal fluctuations in soil temperature were linked to diel changes in $E_H$ and were amplified during the summertime. In addition to the theoretical restrictions that are accompanied by $E_H$ measurements using a Pt electrode, the temperature of the soil itself must be integrated simultaneously with the well-known temperature-dependence of the reference electrode. The temperature of the soil itself changes its thermochemical behavior analog to ZoBell’s solution and this should be carefully considered to partition and discriminate between physical and biological influences on the $E_H$ measurement. Therefore, physical sound corrections should be further pursued in the future to differentiate between technical related noise and microbial-driven signals on redox measurements.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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References


27 R Core Team, 2020.


