



Ge/Si ratios point to increased contribution from deeper mineral weathering to streams after forest conversion to cropland

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ABSTRACT

The impact of forest conversion on soil weathering is studied in a subtropical humid setting in southern Brazil (Rio Grande do Sul). A geochemical tracer of mineral weathering processes, the Ge/Si ratio, was used at the pedon and catchment scales to compare a cropland and a forest catchment. Ge/Si measurements were performed on bedrock, bulk soil, soil pore water and stream waters during base flow and rain events. The Ge/Si ratio in bulk soils is interpreted as the result of a mixing between clay minerals and quartz. Based on the Ge/Si ratio in soil pore water, no change in mineral weathering has been induced by forest conversion at the pedon scale. In contrast, at the catchment scale, the Ge/Si ratio of stream waters indicates an increased contribution from mineral weathering after conversion of forest to cropland. The evolution of Ge/Si ratio in stream waters during rain events points to a change in the hydrological paths due to forest conversion. We argue that forest conversion to cropland led to increased water percolation in soil, allowing the weathering of deeper soil material and thus, a stronger contribution from mineral weathering to stream waters.

1. Introduction

Vegetation type, soil water availability and erosion rates are key factors that govern the chemical weathering of minerals (e.g., Drever, 1994; Millot et al., 2002; Dixon et al., 2009). Growing world population places a high demand for arable lands, resulting in increased conversion of forests to croplands (Godfray et al., 2010; Foley, 2011). Such land use changes impact on vegetation cover, soil hydrology and soil erosion (e.g., Costa et al., 2003; Brown et al., 2005; Pimentel, 2006; Quinton et al., 2010; Molina et al., 2012), which in turn may influence chemical weathering processes in soil (e.g., Lucas, 2001; Maher, 2010).

The presence of plants alters the soil weathering conditions, mainly by changes in pH and in the concentration in dissolved elements in soil pore water (e.g., Lucas, 2001). Forest conversion to cropland alters plant element uptake, litter fall decay, and hence, the element cycling of the forested ecosystems (e.g., Lucas et al., 1993; Alexandre et al., 1997; Lucas, 2001). As shown for Si in the context of deforestation, the dissolved element fluxes at the catchment scale increase immediately after deforestation (Conley et al., 2008) but decrease in the long term

(Struyf et al., 2010; Carey and Fulweiler, 2012). These studies mainly attribute the observed changes in dissolved Si fluxes to changes in the biogenic silicon pool (phytoliths) in soils, but the contribution from mineral weathering to dissolved Si fluxes has not been specifically considered.

Conversion of forest to cropland also modifies soil hydrology and hence, critically, the amount of water available for weathering reactions (e.g., Dixon et al., 2009; Maher, 2010; Rasmussen et al., 2011; Ferrier et al., 2012). This is due (i) to less evapotranspiration taking place in croplands than in forests (e.g., Foley et al., 2005) and (ii) to destruction of the macropore-driven lateral water pathways which result from roots and biological activity and which normally prevail in forested ecosystems (Uchida et al., 2001; Bachmair and Weiler, 2011; Beven and Germann, 2013). Further, soil tillage in croplands typically accelerates erosion compared to forests (Meade et al., 1990; Pimentel, 2006; Montgomery, 2007). This may expose deeper soil layers containing less weathered mineral surfaces to chemical weathering (Millot et al., 2002).

Changes in mineral weathering following conversion of forest to

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cropland remain largely unexplored despite important implications for the global biogeochemical cycles of key elements, such as C and Si (Struyf et al., 2010; Goudie and Viles, 2012). Changes in the mineral weathering contribution to element fluxes are often investigated at the catchment scales by monitoring the concentrations of Si and major cations in river waters (e.g., Gaillardet et al., 1999; Jacobson et al., 2003; Moon et al., 2014). Conversion of a forest to a cropland modifies the Si biogeochemical cycle in the soil-plant system (Struyf et al., 2010; Carey and Fulweiler, 2012) and thereby, the relative contributions of biogenic and non-biogenic sources and processes to dissolved Si in rivers. This jeopardizes the use of riverine Si concentrations to assess the impact of land use change on weathering. However, monitoring of the Ge/Si ratio may help to circumvent this issue. Since Ge substitutes for Si during clay formation, soils are generally characterised by higher Ge/Si ratios than their parent materials (Murnane and Stallard, 1990; Kurtz et al., 2002). Conversely, soil pore water and streams display lower Ge/Si values than the bedrock (Mortlock and Froelich, 1987). Due to discrimination against Ge by plants, phytoliths display among the lowest Ge/Si ratios (Derry et al., 2005; Blecker et al., 2007). Thus, Ge/Si ratio has been used as a geochemical tracer to study silicate weathering (e.g., Mortlock and Froelich, 1987; Murnane and Stallard, 1990; Froelich et al., 1992; Kurtz et al., 2002) and the biological cycle of Si (Derry et al., 2005; Cornélis et al., 2011).

Here, we report the results of a study aimed at assessing the impact of forest conversion to cropland on mineral weathering in a subtropical humid region in southern Brazil. To do this, we measured the Ge/Si ratio in a variety of soil and water samples from a forested and a cropland catchment.

2. Environmental setting

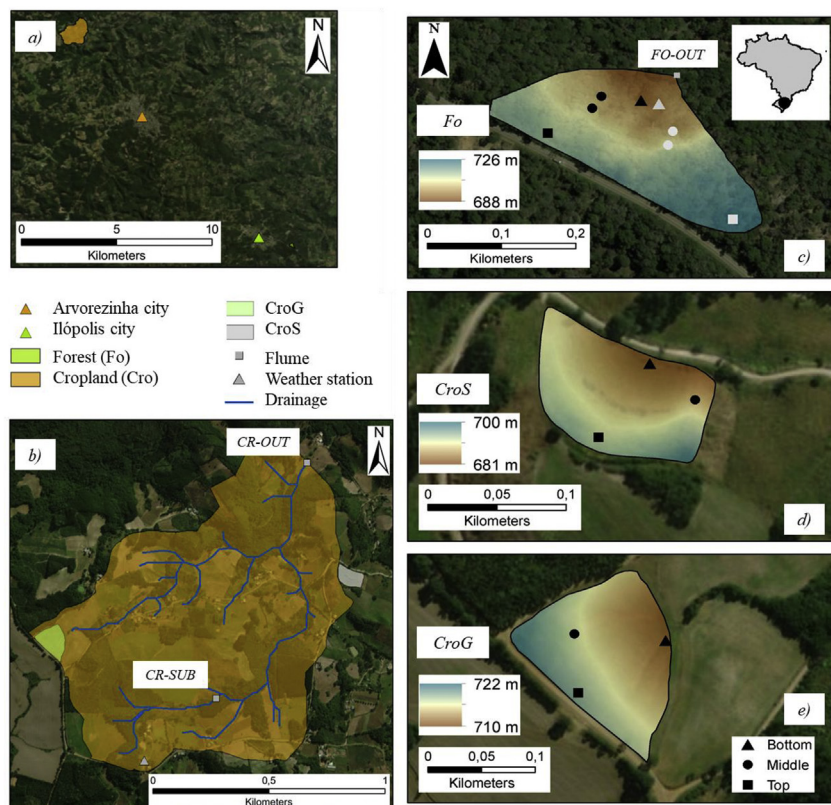
The study area is located in the southernmost state of Brazil, Rio Grande do Sul, situated on the Rio-Grandense plateau (Fig. 1). Agricultural development started around 1925 and was gradually intensified until reaching a peak in the early 1960s (Lopes, 2006; Minella et al., 2008). The

climate is subtropical super-humid mesothermic (Köppen classification; Minella et al., 2008). The mean annual temperature and rainfall fluctuate between 14 and 18 °C and between 1700 and 1800 mm, respectively (Minella et al., 2014). The soils belong to the Acrisols, Cambisols and Leptosols types (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2007). Topography is characterised by slopes between 4 and 84° (Minella, 2003). At the altitude of the study site (650–730 m above sea level), the parent material is rhyodacitic and the mineralogy is dominated by quartz (~38%) and sanidine (K-feldspar; ~45–55%). Hematite and goethite occur in minor amounts. A basaltic lithology dominates at lower altitudes (Bellieni et al., 1986; Montanheiro et al., 2004).

A native semi-deciduous forest catchment was selected as the natural reference (near Ilópolis, 28°56'1.03"S - 52° 6'28.44"W, surface area of 0.03 km²; Fig. 1a). *Araucaria angustifolia*, *Luehea divaricata*, *Nectandra Grandiflora* and *Campomanesia guaviroba* are the most representative species. The cropland catchment (Arvorezinha; 28°49'55.90"S - 52°13'12.12"W) is located 20 km from the forested catchment (Fig. 1a) and has a surface area of 1.19 km². A smaller sub-catchment (0.14 km², five times larger than the forest catchment) was also defined within the cropland catchment (Fig. 1b) to be more comparable to the size of the forest catchment than the whole cropland catchment (40 times larger than the forest catchment). Information on land use in the cropland catchment for the past 50 years and sediment export between 2002 and 2011 is available from Minella et al. (2014). The main crops are tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*), maize (*Zea mays*) and soybean (*Glycine max*). These are cultivated with a frequency dictated by market prices. Black oat is sometimes used as a cover crop. The soil is prepared for seeding between August and September, and the scarce vegetation residues from the precedent harvest are ploughed back into the soil. Seeding begins in September–October and consequently, the soil cover is minimal at the time of the year characterised by the highest rainfall erosivity (September; Ramon et al., 2017). Harvest takes place between January and February. Between March and August, some fields remain abandoned, with spontaneous winter vegetation, whereas others are planted with a winter vegetation cover.

Fig. 1. Location of the study site in Brazil (upper right box).

a) Location of Arvorezinha and Ilópolis cities and the cropland (Cro) and forest (Fo) study areas (note that the forest study area is a small green area East of Ilópolis city). b) Relative position of the two cropland slopes within the cropland study area (CroS = steep in grey; CroG = gentle in green) and position of the flumes for river sampling (grey squares labelled CR-OUT and CR-SUB). c) Position along the slope of the sampled soil profiles in the forest steep slopes (FoS, white symbols) and gentle (FoG, black symbols); position of the flume for river sampling (small grey square at the bottom of the slope labelled FO-OUT). d) Position along the slope of the sampled soil profiles in the cropland steep slope (CroS). e) Position along the slope of the sampled soil profiles in the cropland gentle slope (CroG). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)



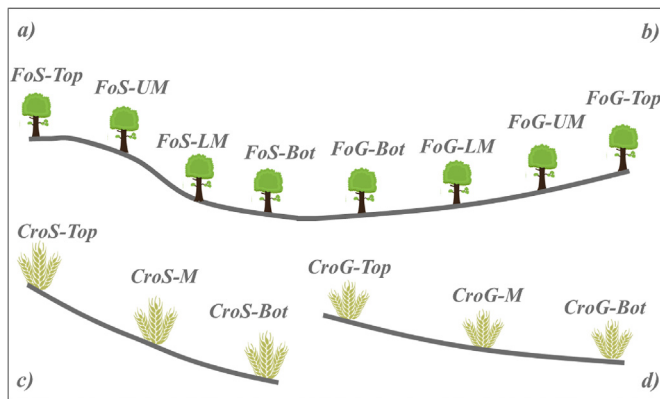


Fig. 2. Schematic representing the three sample positions, i.e. top, middle and bottom, along the slopes. a) forest steep slope (FoS); b) forest gentle slope (FoG); c) cropland steep slope (CroS); d) cropland gentle slope (CroG). Top: top, UM: upper middle, LM: lower middle, Bot: bottom.

3. Methods

3.1. Sampling

3.1.1. Bulk soils and bedrock samples

Bedrock and soil samples were collected in July–August 2014. Bedrock fragments were sampled from outcrops in each catchment. Two different slopes were selected in both the forest (Fo) and cropland (Cro) sites (Fig. 1c, d and e) in order to account for conditions less favourable to erosion in gentle slope (G; average on the middle of the slope: $9 \pm 2^\circ$) and more favourable to erosion in steep slope (S; average on the middle of the slope: $15 \pm 3^\circ$). On each slope, different soil positions were sampled to cover the eroding zone at the summit (top position Top), the intermediate zone in the middle position (M; with two middle positions in the forest catchment defined as Upper Middle, UM, and Lower Middle, LM), and the bottom of the slope (bottom, Bot). The bottom position was considered as the deposition zone accumulating eroding material from upslope (Fig. 2). The soil was sampled at two depths (20–30 cm and 55–65 cm) to investigate the evolution of the Ge/Si ratio within the soil profile. The full characterization of the soil and bedrock samples is provided elsewhere (Ameijeiras-Mariño et al., Schoonejans et al., 2017) and the key soil properties are presented in Table A1.

3.1.2. Soil pore water

Soil pore water was collected at the forest and cropland sites every week during five weeks between October 7th and November 8th 2014. In cropland, soil pore water was collected at the beginning of the seeding season, i.e. tobacco in steep slope and soybean in gentle slope. Suction cups with a porous membrane of $0.45 \mu\text{m}$ pore size (Eijkelkamp®) were installed at 70 cm depth at all slope positions, except for the forest steep upper middle (FoS-UM) where the soil was shallower than 50 cm. The cups were installed one month before sampling. Vacuum was applied with a hand pump to initiate water sampling. The soil pore water was not collected during the first month to allow soil recovery from the disturbance induced during installation. Then, soil pore water samples were collected during five weeks (once per week) in pre-cleaned polypropylene copolymer (PPCO) bottles and acidified with 1% HNO_3 (suprapur).

3.1.3. Stream waters

Stream water samples were collected between October 12th and November 5th 2014 at the outlet of the forest and cropland catchments (Fig. 1b and c). The streams sampled include water from the whole forest catchment outlet (FO-OUT; 0.03 km^2), the whole cropland catchment outlet (CR-OUT; 1.19 km^2), and the smaller sub-catchment

within the cropland catchment (CR-SUB; 0.14 km^2 , to compare with the smaller surface area of the forested catchment). Stream water samples at the three sampling points were collected during base flow and during rain events (at fixed water level increments). Samples were collected in plastic bottles connected to an automatic sampling device (ISCO system), and filtered within 24 h using polycarbonate filters ($0.45 \mu\text{m}$ pore size). After filtration, the samples were collected in PPCO bottles previously cleaned with 2.5% HNO_3 (commercial) and acidified to 1% HNO_3 (suprapur).

Stream water samples were sampled at base flow, three times in forest at FO-OUT between 22nd October and 4th November 2014, and four times in cropland at both CR-SUB and CR-OUT between 21st October and 5th November 2014. Stream water samples were also collected during rain events in forest and cropland. The sampling covers rain events with lower and higher change in stream water discharge and were monitored during deviation (rising limb) and return to base flow levels (falling limb). Under forest, stream waters were sampled during: (i) a small rain event with an increase of \sim three times of the stream discharge (from between 1 and $21 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ during base flow up to 56 and $58 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ during the rain event, standardised to the catchment size) on 12th October 2014 during 1 h ($n = 6$). The sampling started when the discharge was already higher than the base flow level; (ii) a large rain event of \sim 24 h with an increase of \sim 40 times of the discharge (discharge variation between 96 and $839 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ during the event, as compared to between 1 and $21 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ during base flow) on 16–17th October 2014 ($n = 21$). The sampling stopped before the return to base flow level. Under cropland, stream waters were sampled during one rain event on 13–14th October 2014: (i) at the outlet of the whole catchment ($n = 4$, covering a portion of the rain event) where the discharge increased \sim 12 times (from base flow discharge of $16\text{--}20 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ to a range between 65 and $242 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ during the event); and (ii) at the sub-catchment ($n = 10$, covering nearly the entire rain event) where the discharge increased \sim 38 times (from 8 to $11 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ during base flow level to a range between 34 and $420 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$ during the rain event).

3.2. Si and Ge measurements

The bedrock and soil (fraction $< 2 \text{ mm}$) samples were crushed within an agate mortar prior to analysis. The soil and bedrock materials were dissolved by lithium metaborate and tetraborate fusion (Chao and Sanzalone, 1992). The Si concentration of the bedrock, soil, soil pore water and stream water samples was measured by ICP-AES (1.3% uncertainty relative to standard material). Major elements concentrations in soil pore water and river waters are provided in the Appendix (Tables A2 and A3 respectively).

Germanium measurements in the soil, bedrock, soil pore water and stream waters were performed by high resolution inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (HR-ICP-MS, Element2, Thermo Fischer Scientific, Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences of Cornell University, Ithaca, NY) using a hydride generation system and applying the isotope dilution technique (Mortlock and Froelich, 1996). Soil and bedrock samples were first dissolved by microwave digestion of the finely crushed powder at 220°C with $\text{HNO}_3\text{-HCl-HF}$. After cooling to room temperature, the digestion vessel was opened and H_3BO_3 was added. The vessel was sealed and re-heated to 120°C in order to prevent volatilisation of Ge and Si fluoride compounds. After cooling down to room temperature, the solution was diluted with ultrapure water and heated at 50°C during one night to prevent silica precipitation. A spike enriched in ^{70}Ge was added to liquid samples (either water or digested soil or bedrock) at least 24 h prior to analysis, the samples were well mixed with the spike and left for equilibration at $\sim 80^\circ\text{C}$ overnight. The target $^{70}\text{Ge}/^{74}\text{Ge}$ ratio of spiked samples was ca. 5–15, relative to a natural ratio of 0.5635 (Kipphardt et al., 1999). After equilibration of the spike, the sample was fed to an online hydride generation system with NaBH_4 and HNO_3 to produce the germane species. The reacting

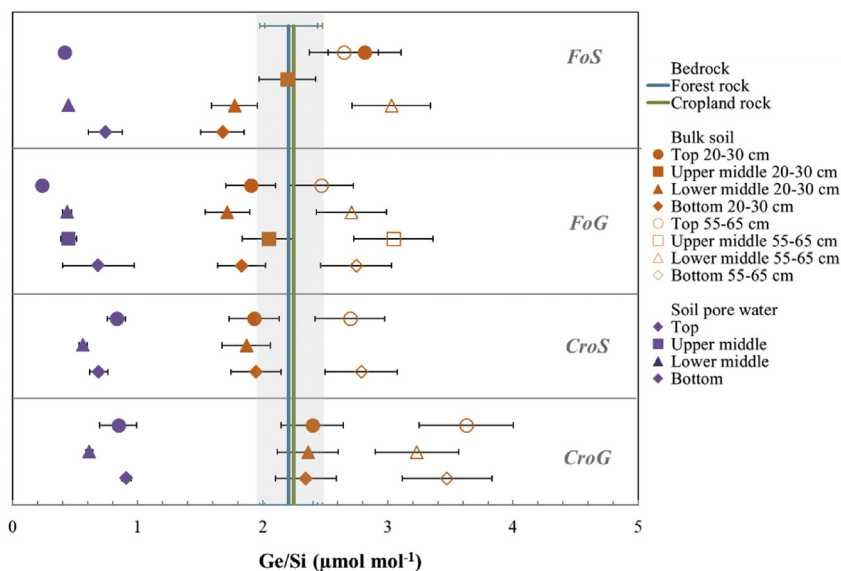


Fig. 3. Ge/Si ratios (\pm SD) of the soil at two depths (20–30 cm and 55–65 cm; orange symbols) and soil pore water (at 70 cm; purple symbols) samples grouped by slope and slope position (average for five weeks \pm SD). FoS: forest steep slope; FoG: forest gentle slope; CroS: cropland steep slope; CroG: cropland gentle slope. The vertical lines represent the Ge/Si ratio of the bedrock from each catchment. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

solution was sparged with Ar and the volatile Ge passed through a PTFE membrane gas-liquid separator and directly into the torch of the ICP-MS. $^{70}\text{Ge}/^{74}\text{Ge}$ ratios were measured using the low mass resolution slit settings in ion counting mode. Mass bias was corrected from analysis of unspiked standards, yielding in a typical precision on $^{70}\text{Ge}/^{74}\text{Ge}$ of $\pm 2\%$ RSD (e.g., Derry et al., 2005; Lugolobi et al., 2010; Kurtz et al., 2011).

4. Results

The Ge/Si ratios of the bedrock, bulk soil, soil pore water and stream water samples are shown in Fig. 3 (bedrock, bulk soil and soil pore water), Fig. 4 (soil pore water and stream water base flow), Fig. 5 (stream waters during rain events), Table 1 (bedrock and bulk soil), Table 2 (soil pore water), Table 3 (stream waters) and in the Appendix (Fig.A1, soil pore water).

4.1. Ge/Si ratios of the bedrock and bulk soils

The forest (Fo) and cropland (Cro) catchment bedrocks have similar Ge/Si ratios (2.25 ± 0.23 and $2.21 \pm 0.23 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, respectively) (Fig. 3; Table 1). The Ge/Si ratios of the forest soils vary from 1.68 to $3.04 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$. The CroS soils display similar values. In contrast, the CroG soils show distinctively higher Ge/Si ratios (from 2.34 to

$3.92 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$). Except for the FoS-Top samples, the soil Ge/Si ratio at 55–65 cm ($2.47\text{--}3.63 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) is always higher than that at 20–30 cm ($1.68\text{--}2.81 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) (Fig. 3, Table 1). Except FoS-LM, FoS-Bot and FoG-UM, all samples at 20–30 cm display Ge/Si ratios in soils comparable to those measured for the bedrocks. Position in the slope (top, middle, bottom) does not seem to influence the soil Ge/Si ratio, which could have been expected considering the upper positions as an eroding zone and the bottom position as the deposition zone potentially accumulating clay fractions eroded from soils upslope.

4.2. Ge/Si ratios of the soil pore waters

The Ge/Si ratios of the soil pore waters collected at 70 cm depth vary in the range $0.20\text{--}1.07 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3). Except for the FoS-Bot, FoG-Bot and CroT-G sites, the Ge/Si ratios of pore water remained stable over the five-week survey period, ranging from 0.39 to 0.47 and $0.20\text{--}0.53 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, respectively, for the forest sites FoS and FoG, and from 0.52 to 0.91 and $0.59\text{--}0.96 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, respectively, for the cropland sites CroS and CroG (Fig. 3, Table 2). The pore water Ge/Si ratio at the FoG-Bot site fluctuated ($0.53\text{--}1.04 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) between each sampling date. Despite these variations, the Ge/Si ratios of the soil pore water under forest (averaged per slope) cannot be distinguished from the Ge/Si ratios of the soil pore water under cropland (Fig. 4).

4.3. Ge/Si ratios of stream waters

4.3.1. Base flow

The Ge/Si ratios of the stream waters during base flow are up to three times higher in the forest catchment (FO-OUT = $0.74 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, $n = 3$) than in the cropland catchments (CR-SUB = $0.24 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, $n = 4$; CR-OUT = $0.25 \pm 0.07 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, $n = 4$; Fig. 4; Table 3).

4.3.2. Rain events

In forest, the variations of the Ge/Si ratio of stream waters during a rain event seem to be dictated by the influence on the stream discharge: a small increase in discharge (~ 3 times) resulted in a narrow range of Ge/Si values ($0.61\text{--}0.76 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$; Fig. 5a; Table 3), whereas a larger increase in discharge (~ 40 times) resulted in a larger range of Ge/Si values in stream waters (from 0.43 to $3.16 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$; Fig. 5b; Table 3). More specifically, with a small increase in discharge, the Ge/Si ratio in the stream increased, and then remained constant with Ge/Si values similar to the base flow Ge/Si ratios ($0.74 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$; Table 3), whereas with a large increase in discharge, the change in Ge/Si

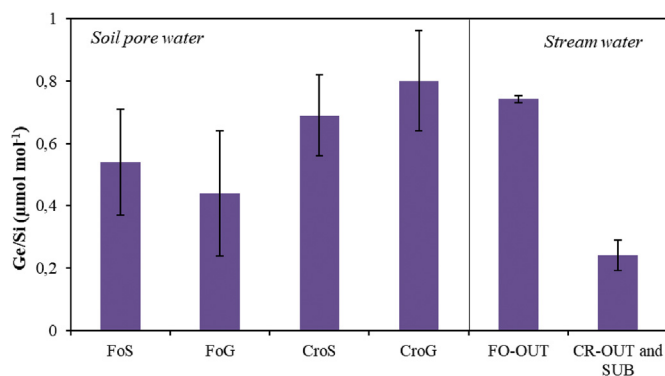


Fig. 4. Average Ge/Si values (\pm SD) of the soil pore water (left side) and stream waters during base flow (right side). From left to right: soil pore water forest steep (FoS; $n = 14$), forest gentle (FoG; $n = 19$), cropland steep (CroS; $n = 15$), cropland gentle (CroG; $n = 13$), base flow stream waters forest (FO-OUT; $n = 3$) and cropland (CR-OUT and CR-SUB; $n = 8$).

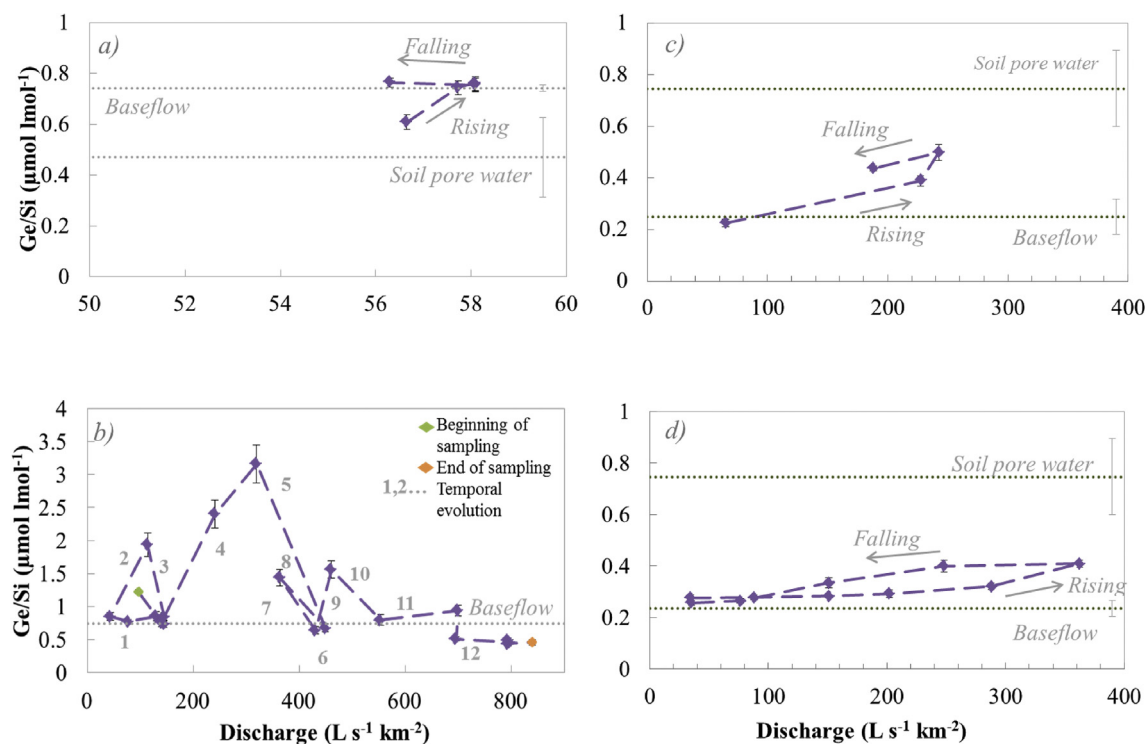


Fig. 5. Evolution of the Ge/Si ratio (\pm SD) in stream waters with discharge during rain events. a) Forest (FO-OUT) small rain event with a \sim 3-time increase in discharge, b) forest (FO-OUT) large rain event with a \sim 40 time increase in discharge (green dot = beginning of sampling; orange dot = end of sampling; numbers = temporal evolution of sampling), c) Cropland whole catchment (CR-OUT) with a \sim 12 time increase in discharge, d) Cropland sub-catchment (CR-SUB) with a \sim 38 time increase in discharge. Horizontal dotted lines represent the average Ge/Si ratios (\pm SD) of the base flow and soil pore water. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Table 1

Si and Ge concentrations and Ge/Si ratios in bedrocks and bulk soil samples. Bulk soil samples grouped by slope and sorted by slope position from top to bottom. Last line: white material identified in cropland gentle slope.

Slope position	Code	Si mol kg ⁻¹	Ge μmol kg ⁻¹	Ge/Si μmol mol ⁻¹	error Ge/Si μmol mol ⁻¹
Bedrock sample	Forest	11	25	2.21	0.23
Bedrock sample	Cropland	12	26	2.25	0.23
Forest steep slope (FoS)					
Top (T)	FoS-Top/20-30	10	29	2.81	0.29
	FoS-Top/55-65	11	28	2.65	0.27
Upper Middle (UM)	FoS-UM/20-30	11	24	2.2	0.23
Lower Middle (LM)	FoS-LM/20-30	12	22	1.77	0.18
	FoS-LM/55-65	10	29	3.03	0.31
Bottom (B)	FoS-Bot/20-30	13	22	1.68	0.17
Forest gentle slope (FoG)					
Top (T)	FoG-Top/20-30	12	23	1.90	0.20
	FoG-Top/55-65	11	26	2.47	0.26
Upper Middle (UM)	FoG-UM/20-30	12	24	2.05	0.21
	FoG-UM/55-65	10	29	3.04	0.32
Lower Middle (LM)	FoG-LM/20-30	13	22	1.72	0.18
	FoG-LM/55-65	11	29	2.71	0.28
Bottom (B)	FoG-Bot/20-30	13	23	1.83	0.19
	FoG-Bot/55-65	11	29	2.75	0.28
Cropland steep slope (CroS)					
Top (T)	CroS-Top/20-30	12	23	1.93	0.20
	CroS-Top/55-65	10	28	2.70	0.28
Middle (M)	CroS-M/20-30	11	21	1.87	0.19
Bottom (B)	CroS-Bot/20-30	12	23	1.95	0.20
	CroS-Bot/55-65	10	28	2.79	0.29
Cropland gentle slope (CroG)					
Top (T)	CroG-Top/20-30	11	27	2.40	0.25
	CroG-Top/55-65	9	33	3.63	0.38
Middle (M)	CroG-M/20-30	11	27	2.36	0.24
	CroG-M/55-65	9	30	3.23	0.33
Bottom (B)	CroG-Bot/20-30	11	26	2.34	0.24
	CroG-Bot/55-65	9	31	3.47	0.36
White material Top (T) 130–140 cm depth	CroG-Top/130-140	7.4	29	3.92	0.40

Table 2

Si and Ge concentrations and Ge/Si ratios in soil pore waters (70 cm depth). Samples divided by land use and slope type and presented for the five sampling weeks. The accumulated rainfall between the sampling weeks is given in Table A4.

Slope position	Sampling week	Ge pmol L ⁻¹	Si μmol L ⁻¹	Ge/Si μmol mol ⁻¹	error Ge/Si μmol mol ⁻¹
Forest steep (FoS)					
Top	7-8th Oct.	70	156	0.45	0.05
	14-16th Oct.	61	155	0.39	0.01
	21-23rd Oct.	62	159	0.39	0.02
	28-30 th Oct.	68	158	0.43	0.04
Middle	7-8th Nov.	67	162	0.42	0.05
	7-8th Oct.	78	173	0.45	0.03
	14-16th Oct.	69	157	0.44	0.01
	21-23rd Oct.	No sample			
Bottom	28-30 th Oct.	74	168	0.44	0.02
	7-8th Nov.	77	165	0.47	0.01
	7-8th Oct.	194	220	0.89	0.10
	14-16th Oct.	185	225	0.82	0.03
Forest gentle (FoG)	21-23rd Oct.	114	213	0.54	0.01
	28-30 th Oct.	160	208	0.77	0.03
	7-8th Nov.	154	220	0.70	0.03
	7-8th Oct.	79	286	0.28	0.01
Top	14-16th Oct.	76	294	0.26	0.02
	21-23rd Oct.	53	261	0.20	0.01
	28-30 th Oct.	56	279	0.20	0.01
	7-8th Nov.	67	294	0.23	0.02
Upper middle	7-8th Oct.	89	189	0.47	0.01
	14-16th Oct.	87	187	0.47	0.01
	21-23rd Oct.	62	173	0.36	0.01
	28-30 th Oct.	80	190	0.42	0.02
Lower middle	7-8th Nov.	109	209	0.53	0.03
	7-8th Oct.	81	175	0.46	0.03
	14-16th Oct.	80	167	0.48	0.03
	21-23rd Oct.	67	160	0.42	0.04
Bottom	28-30 th Oct.	75	168	0.45	0.04
	7-8th Nov.	66	173	0.38	0.03
	7-8th Oct.	95	181	0.53	0.03
	14-16th Oct.	130	125	1.04	0.08
Cropland steep (CroS)	21-23rd Oct.	49	124	0.40	0.10
	28-30 th Oct.	92	117	0.78	0.07
	7-8th Nov.	No sample			
	7-8th Oct.	107	141	0.76	0.06
Top	14-16th Oct.	143	175	0.82	0.04
	21-23rd Oct.	126	165	0.76	0.04
	28-30 th Oct.	150	167	0.90	0.04
	7-8th Nov.	169	185	0.91	0.04
Middle	7-8th Oct.	98	160	0.61	0.04
	14-16th Oct.	92	165	0.55	0.03
	21-23rd Oct.	88	152	0.58	0.03
	28-30 th Oct.	85	162	0.52	0.03
Bottom	7-8th Nov.	99	177	0.56	0.03
	7-8th Oct.	123	158	0.78	0.04
	14-16th Oct.	113	154	0.74	0.04
	21-23rd Oct.	99	166	0.60	0.03
Cropland gentle (CroG)	28-30 th Oct.	104	164	0.64	0.03
	7-8th Nov.	120	172	0.70	0.04
	7-8th Oct.	81	107	0.75	0.07
	14-16th Oct.	108	101	1.07	0.09
Top	21-23rd Oct.	77	106	0.73	0.06
	28-30 th Oct.	80	106	0.76	0.07
	7-8th Nov.	104	113	0.92	0.07
	7-8th Oct.	No sample			
Middle	14-16th Oct.	73	125	0.59	0.05
	21-23rd Oct.	78	128	0.61	0.05
	28-30 th Oct.	74	113	0.65	0.06
	7-8th Nov.	77	128	0.60	0.05
Bottom	7-8th Oct.	152	171	0.89	0.04
	14-16th Oct.	148	157	0.94	0.04
	21-23rd Oct.	134	150	0.89	0.04
	28-30 th Oct.	140	160	0.87	0.04
7-8th Nov.	149	154	0.96	0.04	

Table 3

Si and Ge concentrations and Ge/Si ratios in stream waters: forest catchment outlet (FO-OUT), cropland sub-catchment (CR-SUB) and cropland whole catchment outlet (CR-OUT). Within each catchment, samples are presented during base flow and rain event. The samples of each rain event are presented in the same order as sampled.

Standardised discharge L s ⁻¹ Km ⁻²	Moment of sampling	Si μmol L ⁻¹	Ge pmol L ⁻¹	Ge/Si μmol mol ⁻¹	error Ge/Si μmol mol ⁻¹	
Forest catchment (FO-OUT)						
21	base flow	235	175	0.74	0.03	
	22nd Oct.					
1	base flow	250	188	0.75	0.01	
	31st Oct.					
5	base flow	253	185	0.73	0.03	
	4th Nov.					
57	rain event	218	133	0.61	0.03	
	12th Oct.	252	188	0.74	0.03	
58		252	191	0.76	0.03	
		58	253	192	0.76	0.03
58		251	190	0.75	0.03	
		56	252	192	0.76	0.02
96	rain event	75	92	1.22	0.03	
	16–17th Oct.	130	117	1.00	0.07	
77		182	140	0.77	0.04	
		43	146	124	0.85	0.06
113		30	59	1.94	0.18	
		144	129	109	0.85	0.07
144		153	113	0.74	0.06	
		140	111	84	0.76	0.06
240		30	72	2.40	0.22	
		319	21	68	3.16	0.29
449		134	91	0.68	0.06	
		363	61	87	1.44	0.12
430		123	79	0.64	0.06	
		460	55	86	1.56	0.13
553		43	34	0.79	0.08	
		699	77	72	0.94	0.08
695		146	74	0.51	0.03	
		798	161	74	0.46	0.04
793		793	164	80	0.49	0.03
		793	164	71	0.43	0.03
839		160	74	0.46	0.04	
	Cropland subcatchment (CR-SUB)					
–	base flow 21 Oct.	473	125	0.26	0.02	
	base flow 25 Oct.	528	135	0.26	0.01	
11	base flow 30 Oct.	559	125	0.22	0.01	
	base flow 5 Nov.	577	115	0.20	0.01	
34	rain event	466	129	0.28	0.01	
	13-14th Oct.	389	108	0.28	0.01	
88		376	107	0.28	0.00	
		151	350	103	0.29	0.01
202		246	79	0.32	0.01	
		288	215	88	0.41	0.01
363		248	230	92	0.40	0.02
		151	305	102	0.33	0.02
76		425	113	0.27	0.01	
		35	478	125	0.26	0.01
Cropland whole catchment outlet (CR-OUT)						
–	base flow 21 Oct.	406	136	0.33	0.00	
	base flow 25 Oct.	460	126	0.27	0.02	
20	base flow 30 Oct.	495	105	0.21	0.02	
	base flow 5 Nov.	526	95	0.18	0.01	
16	rain event	319	72	0.22	0.01	
	13-14th Oct.	260	101	0.39	0.02	
65		155	77	0.50	0.03	
		227	188	199	87	0.44

Si ratios in stream waters was random with changing discharge. The Ge/Si ratios in the stream during the said large rain event are generally above the Ge/Si ratio in base flow (Fig. 5b), except after a very high discharge ($\sim 800 \text{ L s}^{-1} \text{ km}^{-2}$) with a stream Ge/Si ratio lower than base flow values.

In cropland, the Ge/Si ratio in stream waters increases with the rising limb (from 0.22 to $0.50 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ for CR-OUT; from 0.28 to $0.41 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ for CR-SUB) and decreases with the falling limb (to $0.44 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ for CR-OUT, to $0.26 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ for CR-SUB) in both catchments (CR-OUT and CR-SUB; Fig. 5c and d; Table 3). At both CR-OUT and CR-SUB, the Ge/Si ratio in streams is higher in the falling limb than in the rising limb for a same discharge value (Fig. 5c and d).

5. Discussion

5.1. Controls on Ge/Si ratios in soils

The Ge/Si ratios measured for the bedrock ($2.21\text{--}2.25 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) are within the range reported for silicate rocks (Ge/Si = $1\text{--}3 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$; Bernstein, 1985). The bulk soils display Ge/Si values ($1.68\text{--}3.63 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) close to or higher than those in the bedrock (Fig. 3). The Ge/Si ratio of the FoS-UM soil sample may reflect the shallow soil depth (50 cm) and proximity of the bedrock to the surface. Preferential incorporation of Ge in clay minerals during weathering typically increases the Ge/Si ratio of soil relative to that in the bedrock (e.g., Bernstein, 1985; Murnane and Stallard, 1990; Froelich et al., 1992). In Hawaii, weathered volcanic soils display Ge/Si ratios that are up to ten times higher than the values of the basaltic parent material, a large increase attributed to high desilication in these soils (Kurtz et al., 2002). In contrast, accumulation of residual quartz with a low Ge/Si ratio ($0.5\text{--}1 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$; Kurtz et al., 2002; Lugolobi et al., 2010) in soils decreases the Ge/Si values. Except the CroG samples, the forest and cropland bulk soils display similar Ge/Si ratios (Fig. 3). We attribute the comparatively high Ge/Si ratios measured in the CroG soils to halloysite, which was clearly identified in the soil profiles (Appendix A1). The soil halloysite has a Ge/Si ratio of $3.92 \pm 0.40 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, i.e. higher than that of the bulk soil (Fig. 3).

Similar to previous findings in tropical environments (Kurtz et al., 2002; Lugolobi et al., 2010), the Ge/Si signatures of the forest and cropland bulk soils may be controlled by the presence in various proportions of quartz and clay minerals (as quantified by XRD analysis, Appendix A1, Table A1). These typically display a low and high Ge/Si ratio, respectively. The Ge/Si ratio and the quartz content in the soils are inversely correlated ($R = -0.79$, Fig. 6a). In contrast, there is a positive correlation ($R = 0.69$, Fig. 6b) between the soil Ge/Si ratios and the kaolinite + halloysite contents. Thus, the range of Ge/Si ratio values found for soils probably results from an end-member mixing (Fig. 6c) between quartz and clay minerals. The quartz in soil originates from the rhyodacite parent material of which the mineral assemblage is dominated by quartz ($\sim 38\%$) and sanidine (K-feldspar; $\sim 45\text{--}55\%$), and some traces of hematite and goethite. As soil weathers, clay minerals are formed, increasing the clay content. An accumulation of quartz, (which is resistant to weathering) in soil should deplete the soil in Al relative to the parent material, whereas an accumulation of clay minerals should enrich the soil in Al relative to the parent material (e.g., Al/Si molar ratio of kaolinite at 0.9; Kurtz et al., 2002). Fig. 6c indicates a positive linear correlation between the Ge/Si ratios and Al/Si ratios in the bulk soil samples ($\text{Ge/Si} = 5.22 \cdot \text{Al/Si} + 1.09$, $R = 0.96$, the Al/Si ratios are provided in Appendix Table A1). Using this relationship, and assuming an Al/Si ratio of 0 for quartz and 0.9 for kaolinite, their Ge/Si ratio is calculated to be ~ 1.08 and $\sim 5.79 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, respectively. This is consistent with the Ge/Si ratios reported for quartz ($0.5\text{--}1 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) and kaolinite ($4.8\text{--}6.1 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) elsewhere (Kurtz et al., 2002; Lugolobi et al., 2010). Thus, we conclude that the Ge/Si ratios of the cropland and forest soils are controlled by the presence of quartz and clay minerals

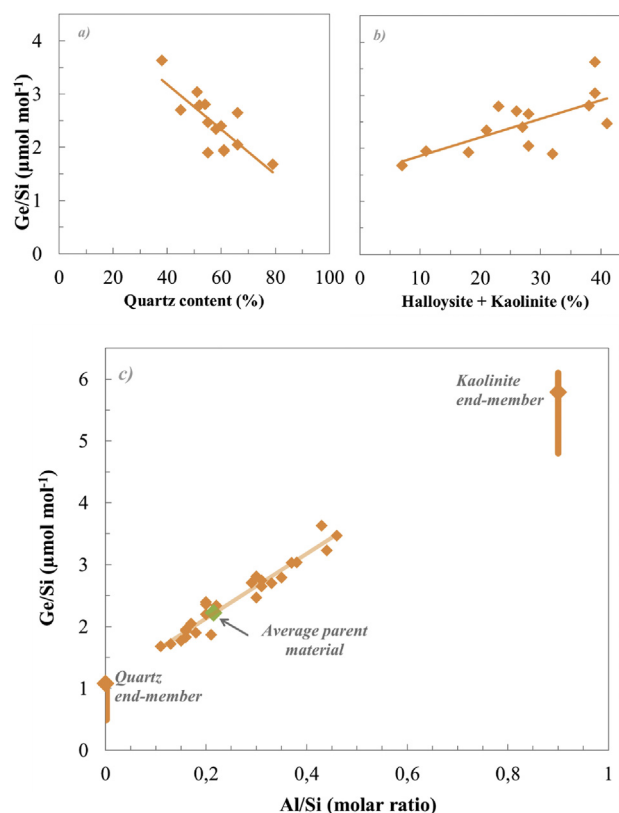


Fig. 6. a) Ge/Si ratios of bulk soils as a function of soil quartz content ($R = -0.79$, $n = 14$). b) Ge/Si ratios of the bulk soil as a function of the soil halloysite and kaolinite content ($R = 0.69$, $n = 14$). c) Ge/Si ratios as a function of Al/Si (mol mol^{-1}) in bulk soil samples (orange; fitting line: $\text{Ge/Si} = 5.22 \cdot \text{Al/Si} + 1.09$, $R = 0.96$, $n = 25$) and parent material (green; average for both rocks: Al/Si = 0.22, Ge/Si = $2.23 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$). End-members obtained from fitting line: quartz (Al/Si typically 0, Ge/Si $\sim 1.09 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$); kaolinite (Al/Si typically 0.9, Ge/Si $\sim 5.79 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$). Range of Ge/Si ratios from literature: quartz Ge/Si $0.5\text{--}1 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$; kaolinite Ge/Si $4.8\text{--}6.1 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ (Kurtz et al., 2002; Lugolobi et al., 2010). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

(such as kaolinite).

A potential additional contribution to the Ge/Si in soils relate to the presence of iron oxides and (oxy)hydroxides in soils. The content of iron oxides and (oxy)hydroxides in our soils, as quantified by the dithionite-citrate-bicarbonate extraction method (Fe_d ; Mehra and Jackson, 1960), ranges between 13 and 44 g kg^{-1} (Appendix Table A1). It is shown experimentally that Ge adsorbs to the surface of these minerals, and that Ge is likely to be adsorbed more efficiently compared to Si (Bernstein, 1985; Anders et al., 2003; Pokrovsky et al., 2006, 2014), thereby potentially affecting the Ge/Si fractionation. However, this is mainly expected for geological settings such as the emergence of underground reduced waters, the redox barrier near the sediment-water interface, or the top of the hydrothermal plume above hydrothermal vents near oceanic ridges (Pokrovsky et al., 2006). During weathering, it is shown that the precipitation of Fe-oxyhydroxides is not a major factor contributing to Ge/Si fractionation in soils, and that elevated soil Ge/Si ratios reflect the partitioning of Ge into secondary clay minerals (Scribner et al., 2006).

The Ge/Si ratios are lower in the soil pore water samples than in the bulk soils (Fig. 3). This is consistent with preferential incorporation of Ge over Si in clay lattices (e.g., Bernstein, 1985; Murnane and Stallard, 1990; Froelich et al., 1992). Slope position (top, middle, bottom) does not influence the Ge/Si ratio in soil pore water

($0.59 \pm 0.22 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$), a result consistent with what was observed for the bulk soils ($2.45 \pm 0.56 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$). Exceptions to these observations are the FoS-Bot and FoG-Bot soil pore waters for which the Ge/Si ratios varied ($0.4\text{--}1.04 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) during the five-week period of sampling. This may reflect inputs of soil colloids transferred from upslope by lateral water flow through soil macroporosity (see section 5.2) (McIntosh et al., 2017). Such materials typically contain high-Ge/Si ratio clay minerals, which may increase the Ge/Si ratio of the soil pore water (Trostle et al., 2016; Aguirre et al., 2017; McIntosh et al., 2017). Contribution from colloids to soil pore water can be heterogeneous given that the rainfall pattern was unevenly distributed over the five weeks of sampling (from no rain between two consecutive samples up to 143 mm rainfall over one week between two consecutive samples; Appendix Table A4). Assuming that lateral water flow through soil macroporosity is higher in a forest catchment compared to cropland (Uchida et al., 2001; Bachmair and Weiler, 2011; Beven and Germann, 2013; see section 5.2), a larger contribution of colloids from upslope to pore water at the bottom of the slope may be expected in forest compared to cropland during rainfall (see section 5.3).

The Ge/Si ratio of soil pore water (average along the slope) under forest cannot be distinguished from that measured for the cropland samples (Fig. 4). Forest conversion to cropland likely alters the biological cycling of Si (Lucas et al., 1993; Struyf et al., 2010) and therefore, one may suspect a change in the Ge/Si ratio of soil pore water in cropland. Silicon-accumulating plants are known to take up Si preferentially over Ge during plant growth, thereby increasing the Ge/Si ratio of soil pore water (e.g., Seyfferth et al., 2013). Among the crops from the studied sites, soybean is a higher Si-accumulator than tobacco (Ma and Takahashi, 2002; Hodson et al., 2005). Thus, a control by plant uptake of the Ge/Si ratio in soil pore water should lead to different Ge/Si values at a spatial scale between sites, and at a temporal scale between the sampling weeks due to plant growth during the sampling campaign. However, this is not the case (Appendix Fig. A1) and thus, the influence of plant uptake on Ge/Si ratio in soil pore water is probably limited. It also appears that, even if the stock of biogenic silica in the studied soils decreases under cropland steep slope relative to the forest (Unzué-Belmonte et al., 2017), the Ge/Si ratio of the soil pore water under cropland steep slope is not different than that of the other three slopes. Consequently, biogenic silica does not seem to be a main control on the Ge/Si ratios in pore water. Another influence of deforestation on the Ge/Si ratios in soil pore water could have been expected due to increased erosion (Montgomery, 2007), exposing less weathered minerals to weathering (Millot et al., 2002). Erosion and transport of sediments in rivers in the cropland catchment of Arvorezinha increase during intense rainfall (Merten and Minella, 2006). Removal of the surface soil layer by erosive processes may expose less weathered mineral surfaces to weathering and thereby, contribute to release Si over Ge in solution (while Ge is sequestered in clay minerals), which would decrease the Ge/Si of pore water. However, the Ge/Si ratio of the pore water under cropland is not different than that measured for the forest catchment. Thus, there is no evidence that primary mineral weathering is enhanced in cropland soils. Overall, clay formation and colloidal contribution are likely the main controlling factors on the Ge/Si ratios in pore water for the sampling period considered.

5.2. Stream waters Ge/Si ratios in base flow point to deeper weathering in cropland than in forest

While the pore water samples in the forest and cropland soils display comparable Ge/Si ratios, the stream waters in base flow from the cropland catchment are characterised by lower average Ge/Si values ($0.24 \pm 0.05 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) than those measured in the forest catchment ($0.74 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) (Fig. 4). The composition of stream waters in base flow is known to reflect groundwater chemistry (e.g., Bishop et al., 1990; Robson et al., 1992; Peters and Ratcliffe, 1998; Burns et al., 2001; Kurtz et al., 2011). Therefore, different Ge/Si ratios

in the forest and cropland stream waters in base flow suggest distinct controlling factors of groundwater chemistry.

Topography (gentle slopes of $9 \pm 2^\circ$, and steep slopes of $15 \pm 3^\circ$) and climatic conditions are comparable between the forest and cropland catchments. Therefore, differences in landscape and climatic influences on water transfer in soils down to groundwater between catchments are probably limited (Zapata-Rios et al., 2015). Difference in size between the forest (FO-OUT = 0.03 km^2) and cropland (CR-OUT = 1.19 km^2 ; CR-SUB = 0.14 km^2) catchments could influence the length of the water pathway to groundwater and therefore, the Ge/Si ratio in stream waters in base flow. However, the Ge/Si ratio in stream waters in base flow is noticeably higher in the forest catchment (FO-OUT = $0.74 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) compared to the values found for both the whole (CR-OUT = $0.25 \pm 0.07 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$; 40 times larger in size than the forest catchment) and sub- (CR-SUB = $0.24 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$; 5 times larger in size than the forest catchment) cropland catchments. In addition, in the cropland whole catchment, despite being characterised by a size that is nine times larger than the sub-catchment, the Ge/Si ratio in stream waters in base flow is similar in both outlets (CR-OUT = $0.25 \pm 0.07 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ and CR-SUB = $0.24 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$). Therefore, catchment size cannot explain the discrepancy in the Ge/Si ratio values determined for stream waters in base flow in the forest and cropland catchments. Further investigations should consider a comparison of larger forested and cropland catchments to verify if the observed trend can be extrapolated at different catchment sizes.

A lower Ge/Si ratio in stream waters in base flow in cropland may result from a contribution of phytolith dissolution. According to previous works, the Ge/Si ratio of phytoliths range from 0.03 to $0.50 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ (e.g., Derry et al., 2005; Blecker et al., 2007; Lugolobi et al., 2010). The soils with the highest phytolith content correspond to CroG (Unzué-Belmonte et al., 2017); they display a Ge/Si ratio in pore water greater than $0.50 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, a value incompatible with phytolith dissolution. On this basis, a contribution from phytolith dissolution to explain the groundwater Ge/Si ratio is dismissed.

A lower Ge/Si ratio in stream waters in base flow in cropland may also result from secondary clay mineral precipitation, a process which depletes Ge in the solution (e.g., Bernstein, 1985; Murnane and Stallard, 1990; Froelich et al., 1992). Conversely, clay mineral dissolution enriches the solution in Ge and increases the Ge/Si ratio. Forests are systems characterised by elevated soil macroporosity associated to roots and biological activity (e.g., Aubertin, 1971; Beasley, 1976; Edwards and Loft, 1977) allowing lateral water pathways (e.g., Beven and Germann, 1982; McDonnell, 1990; Uchida et al., 2001; Bachmair and Weiler, 2011; Beven and Germann, 2013). Soil bulk density from the forest site displays a general increase in values with depth (Appendix Figs. A2 a, b), and comparatively limited changes with depth in cropland relative to forest (Appendix Figs. A2 c, d). Although more analyses would be required to link these changes to soil macroporosity in surface horizons, we hypothesise that soil compaction (e.g., Soane and van Ouwerkerk, 1994) and removal of the upper soil cover by erosion associated to agricultural practices (e.g., Montgomery, 2007) altered soil macroporosity and thereby, soil structure, in the cropland catchment. Preferential lateral water flows through soil macroporosity in surface horizons (above 30 cm) are thought to limit water percolation in soils in forest relative to cropland (Robinet et al., 2018). Water percolation is also likely to be more limited in forest relative to cropland due to higher evapotranspiration in forests compared to croplands (e.g., Foley et al., 2003). This is supported by increased base flow discharge reported after deforestation (e.g., Costa et al., 2003; Brown et al., 2005; Molina et al., 2012). Further, water uptake by roots limits deep drainage in forest soils relative to cropland (Lucas, 2001). Predominance of lateral water flow through macroporosity, higher evapotranspiration, and roots uptake are expected to result in limited water percolation under forest, and comparatively higher water percolation in cropland. Water renewal in groundwater would be reduced under forest, thereby increasing

water residence time in the groundwater reservoir under forest. In turn, this may favour dissolution of clay minerals, and produce Ge/Si values in stream waters in base flow ($0.74 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) within the range of the Ge/Si ratio in soil pore water ($0.20\text{--}1.04 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$). In contrast, higher water percolation under cropland relative to forest is likely to increase water renewal in the deeper soil layers, thus favouring weathering (Chabaux et al., 2017) and incorporation of Ge in newly-formed clay minerals. This would generate lower Ge/Si ratio in groundwater, as reflected by the lower Ge/Si ratio in stream waters in base flow under cropland ($0.24 \pm 0.05 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) relative to forest.

5.3. Stream waters Ge/Si ratios during a rain event support a deeper source of element fluxes in cropland than in forest

At the forest catchment, Fig. 5a shows that a small increase in discharge (threefold, i.e., during a small rain event) slightly decreased stream Ge/Si values ($0.61 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) relative to those measured in base flow ($0.74 \pm 0.01 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$; Fig. 4). Lateral water fluxes from soil pore water are favoured by macroporosity under forest (section 5.2; Robinet et al., 2018): a contribution from soil pore water (under forest: $0.48 \pm 0.19 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) may explain a temporary decrease in the Ge/Si ratio of the stream waters relative to the base flow Ge/Si values. For a major rain event with ~ 40 times increase in discharge, the Ge/Si ratio in stream waters increases and decreases rapidly relative to Ge/Si values in base flow, with no specific trend with increasing discharge (Fig. 5b). The contrast in Ge/Si ratio in stream waters between the small and the major rain events relative to base flow (Fig. 5a and b) confirms the importance to sample in contrasted hydrological conditions (Schaffhauser et al., 2014) to better understand the controls on Ge/Si ratios in stream waters. Discrete zones of element mobilisation within soils and sediments can lead to discrete pulses of a particular solute into streams (McClain et al., 2003; Andrews et al., 2011; Herndon et al., 2015). This may result in pulses of high Ge/Si ratios during the rain event. Moreover, erosion and mobilisation of soils with clay minerals (characterised by high Ge/Si ratios) by runoff contributing to high discharge (and high turbidity) can increase the Ge/Si ratio of stream waters through the presence of colloids in the dissolved fraction filtered at $0.45 \mu\text{m}$ (Aguirre et al., 2017). Such runoff (known as saturation overland flow) during rain events is well documented in tropical forests (Bonell, 2005). A mobilisation from soils is also indicated by the variability of the Ge/Si ratios observed in soil pore water at the FoG at the bottom of the slope, i.e. the portion of the slope where colloids are transferred from upslope by lateral water flow through soil macroporosity and accumulate ($0.4\text{--}1.04 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$, Table 2; over 5 sampling weeks with distinct rainfall amounts between the weeks, Appendix Table A4).

Under cropland, during a rain event, the Ge/Si ratio in stream waters (both at CR-OUT and CR-SUB) increases during the rising limb relative to the base flow Ge/Si values and decreases during the falling limb to reach base flow Ge/Si values. Overall, the Ge/Si values during the falling limb are higher than during the rising limb for a similar discharge (Fig. 5c and d). This evolution cannot be explained by dilution with increasing discharge because Si concentration decreases almost twofold faster than Ge concentration with increasing discharge (Appendix Fig.A3). The evolution is characterised by a « hysteresis » loop, similar to the evolution of intra-storm Si concentrations in streams (Wels et al., 1991; Hinton et al., 1994; Evans and Davies, 1998; Hornberger et al., 2001; Scanlon et al., 2001). Such behaviour is typically observed when two or more sources of water are mixed in different proportions (Kurtz et al., 2011). This observation supports a contribution from an additional source of chemical element fluxes to streams during a rain event (DeWalle et al., 1988; Bazemore et al., 1994; Rice and Hornberger, 1998; Klaus and McDonnell, 2013). Soil pore water mobilised during rainfall events may contribute to streams, along with groundwater input (McGlynn and McDonnell, 2003; Godsey et al., 2009; Kurtz et al., 2011; Herndon et al., 2015). A contribution

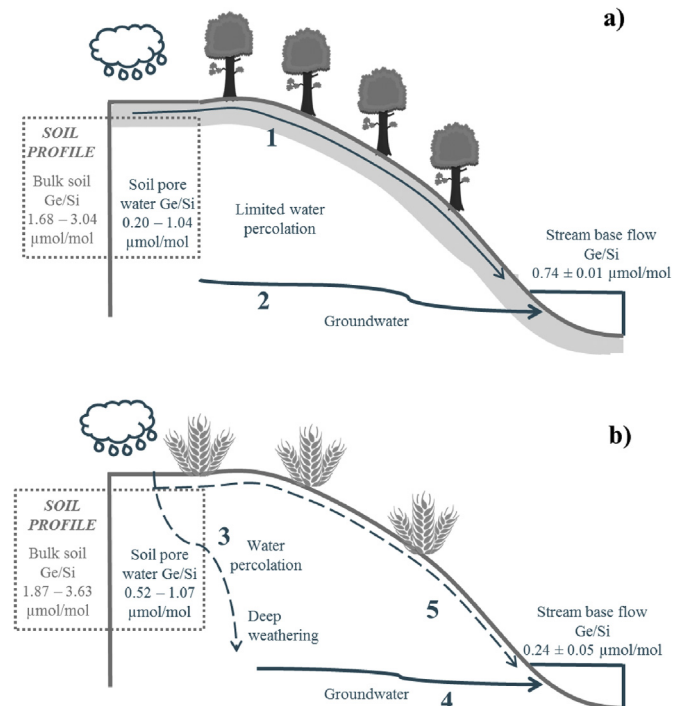


Fig. 7. Conceptual schematic to explain the differences in water percolation between forest and cropland. a) In forest the macroporosity of the surface soils (represented by the grey layer below the soil surface) favours lateral water flow downslope (1) and limits percolation downwards the soil profile. Water renewal in groundwater (2) is limited and the higher water residence time may allow clay dissolution and results in Ge/Si ratio in stream waters in base flow within the range of Ge/Si ratio in soil pore water. b) In cropland the changes in the water flow path induced by forest conversion result in higher water percolation (3), consequently water can reach deeper material, as a result, the composition of the groundwater (4) reflects mineral weathering and clay formation leading to lower Ge/Si ratio in stream waters in base flow than in forest. During a rain event, soil pore water may be mobilised from the soil profile and contribute to the stream by runoff (5).

from soil pore water (with Ge/Si values $0.52\text{--}1.07 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$; Table 2) to streams would increase the stream Ge/Si ratios during a rain event relative to the value in base flow (Kurtz et al., 2011). This is consistent with our observations (Fig. 7). The change observed in Ge/Si ratio of cropland stream water during a rain event in reference to base flow confirms that stream water composition is controlled by distinct processes in cropland compared to those operating under forest cover (see section 5.2).

6. Conclusions

The Ge/Si ratio was used as a weathering tracer to understand changes in mineral weathering contribution to solutes export to streams following a recent forest conversion to cropland (~ 100 years, Brazil). The Ge/Si ratios measured in bedrock, soils, soil pore water, streams in base flow and streams during a rain event point to a modification of the location of the weathering processes generating element fluxes exported towards rivers after forest conversion to cropland. It is hypothesised that under forest, preferential lateral water fluxes and higher evapotranspiration reduce water percolation in soils relative to cropland. Higher percolation in cropland favours weathering and incorporation of Ge in newly-formed clay minerals by increasing water renewal in the deeper soil layers, and lowers Ge/Si ratio in groundwater, as reflected by lower Ge/Si ratio in stream waters during base flow in cropland relative to forest. The change in stream waters Ge/Si ratio during a rain event in reference to base flow confirms that stream water composition is controlled by distinct processes in cropland than

under forest. This study highlights that studying the impact of forest conversion on soils requires considering not only the pedon scale (where changes in mineral weathering contribution to soil pore water after forest conversion were not observable), but also the catchment scale integrating the response of the system to a perturbation of the soil surface.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeochem.2018.06.002>.

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