

Influence of atmospheric CO₂ enrichment on nitrous oxide flux in a temperate forest ecosystem

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Abstract. Long-term exposure of native vegetation to elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) is expected to increase the water content and the input of labile carbon (C) to soil, which could stimulate nitrification and denitrification and enhance nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions. We measured N₂O fluxes for 2 years in a *Pinus taeda* forest that was continuously enriched 200 μL L⁻¹ CO₂ above the ambient atmospheric CO₂ concentration (~560 μL L⁻¹) beginning 16 months prior to our study. Soil treated with elevated CO₂ showed higher N₂O emissions at low winter temperatures than the ambient CO₂ control. Conversely, soil treated with elevated CO₂ showed lower N₂O emissions at high summer temperatures than the control soil. Annual N₂O fluxes, however, were similar between treatments (~6600 μg m⁻²). Factors that influence denitrification and N₂O production were investigated in the laboratory using intact soil core incubations. Nitrate additions (0.17 mg KNO₃-N g⁻¹) to intact soil cores during laboratory incubations stimulated total N₂O production as well as denitrification in both treatments, whereas glucose additions lowered N₂O production in both treatments. These experiments demonstrated that N₂O production is strongly limited by available nitrogen (N) and that the addition of labile C is likely to reduce the amount of N₂O produced by nitrification. Our results collectively suggest that CO₂ enrichment of this N-limited ecosystem may reduce N₂O flux during the growing season, when soil C inputs and plant-microbial competition for NH₄⁺ are high. Alternatively, elevated CO₂ may enhance N₂O flux in the winter, when conditions are moist and cold and plants are less active. The potential indirect effects of CO₂ enrichment (greater soil moisture and labile C inputs) could reduce N₂O flux from nitrification in summer and enhance N₂O flux from denitrification in winter, resulting in no net change in total ecosystem N₂O flux at the soil-atmosphere interface.

1. Introduction

The atmospheric N₂O concentration has been increasing at a rate of 0.3% per year, primarily as a result of anthropogenic emissions from agriculture, energy, industry, and animal waste management systems [Khalil, 1999]. Food production systems, in general, are largely responsible for enhanced biogenic emissions [Kroeze *et al.*, 1999]. The global warming potential of N₂O is ~300 times greater than that of CO₂, and enhanced N₂O emissions contributed 6% to the change in radiative forcing of Earth's atmosphere between 1980 and 1990 [Houghton *et al.*, 1997]. Nitrous oxide resides in the atmosphere 120 years, so small increases in atmospheric N₂O can have long-lasting effects [Khalil, 1999]. Soils are a major source of atmospheric N₂O, contributing 10 of the 16 Tg emitted annually from all sources [Schlesinger, 1997], yet environmental

controls, interactions, and feedbacks that affect in situ N₂O production and emission are not well understood.

Denitrification and nitrification are the microbial processes primarily responsible for N₂O production [Knowles, 1982]. Denitrification is conducted by facultative anaerobes and is regulated by O₂, NO₃⁻, and labile C availability. Nitrification is an aerobic process governed by NH₄⁺ availability [Knowles, 1982]. Both processes are influenced by soil moisture, temperature, and O₂ [Knowles, 1982]. At an ecosystem scale, substrate supply for nitrification and denitrification is directly or indirectly determined by rates of N mineralization and N assimilation by plants and microbes and by diffusional constraints [Firestone and Davidson, 1989]. These processes drive N₂O production, and they are strongly controlled by factors expected to change as a result of elevated atmospheric CO₂. Alterations in soil physical or chemical properties, such as lower O₂ status or greater C and N availability, could lead to a greater flux of N₂O at the soil surface and an enhanced greenhouse effect.

The atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration has increased 30% since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution and is expected to rise from the present concentration of 360 to 460–560 μL L⁻¹ during this century [Schlesinger, 1997]. It is uncertain how forest ecosystems will respond to the anthropogenic increase in atmospheric CO₂. High concentrations of atmospheric CO₂ have been

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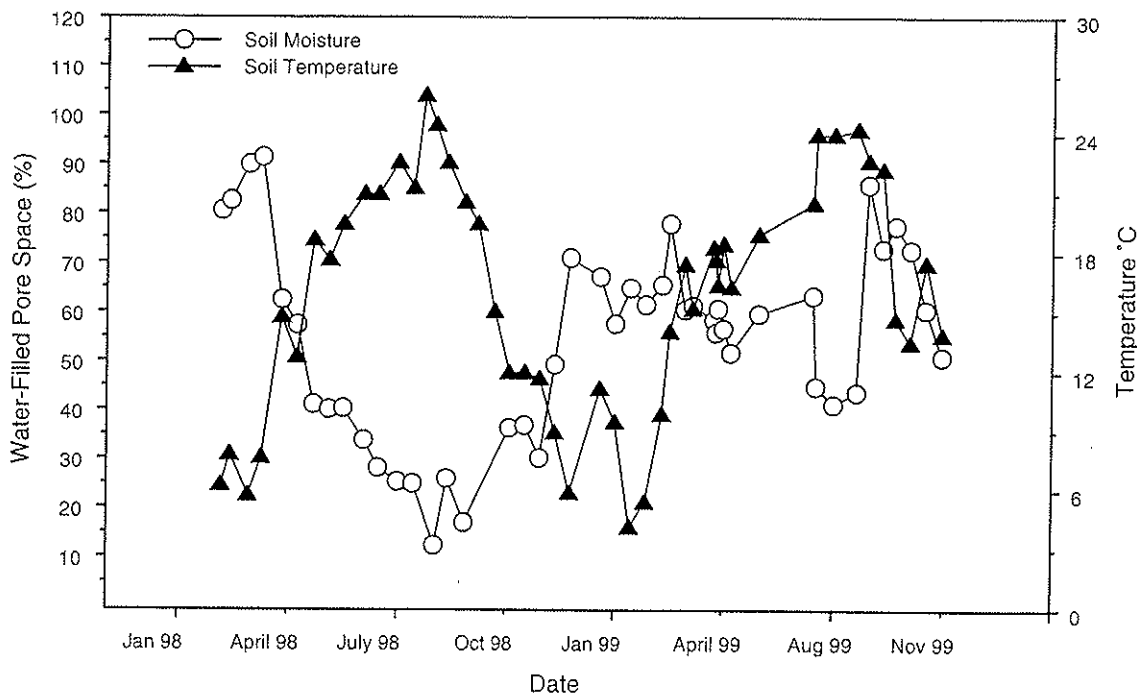


Figure 1. Mean soil moisture in the 0- to 30-cm zone and soil temperature averaged from the 1- to 20-cm zone on each sampling date.

shown to enhance plant productivity [DeLucia *et al.*, 1999], fine root turnover [Pregitzer *et al.*, 1995], and nutrient and water use efficiency [Hungate *et al.*, 1997b; Jackson *et al.*, 1994]. These plant responses to elevated CO₂ may, in turn, influence soil microbial activity [Sadowsky and Schortmeyer, 1997; Zak *et al.*, 1993].

The effects of extended, large-scale CO₂ enrichment on forest ecosystem function, including soil-biotic processes, are not well defined [Schimel and Gullledge, 1998]. Few studies have investigated N₂O emissions under CO₂ enrichment [Hungate *et al.*, 1997a; Ineson *et al.*, 1998; Ambus and Robertson, 1999], and none have investigated N₂O in a free-air CO₂-enriched forest ecosystem. Forests contribute roughly 25% of the total N₂O annually emitted to the atmosphere [Schlesinger, 1997], and these ecosystems occupy one third of the Earth's land surface [Leith and Whitaker, 1975]. Consequently, a detailed understanding of the impact of elevated CO₂ on net N₂O flux from forest soils is critical to predicting the future source strength of these ecosystems in the atmospheric N₂O budget.

The Duke Forest Free-Air CO₂ Enrichment (FACE) project is an integrated, multidisciplinary experiment designed to assess the response of a temperate forest to projected future atmospheric concentrations of CO₂. Open, experimental plots of a sufficient size (30 m) to encompass ecosystem-level feedbacks and interactions between the atmosphere and plant-soil systems are directly and continuously fumigated with CO₂ to maintain a concentration 560 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$. For each CO₂-enriched plot, there is a similar control plot that is continuously fumigated with ambient air only.

Our study was conducted at the Duke Forest FACE site with the overall objective of assessing the influence of elevated CO₂ on N₂O production and emission in a temperate forest soil. To meet this objective, we conducted a 2-year time series for changes in N₂O emission, soil temperature, and soil moisture at permanently established locations within CO₂-enriched plots and companion plots amended with ambient air only (controls). In addition, we conducted laboratory studies assessing denitrifier enzyme activity,

chemical limitations (NO₃⁻ and labile C) to denitrification, and the relative importance of nitrification and denitrification to N₂O production for homogenized soil samples and soil cores from CO₂-enriched and control plots.

2. Methods

2.1. Field Site

The study site is located in Orange County, North Carolina, United States (35°58'N, 79°05'W), where a 90-ha parcel of even-aged loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda* L.) was planted on a clay loam soil in 1983. Topography is flat, and soils are Ultic Alfisols of the Enon Series, (Ultic Hapludalf) [Allen *et al.*, 2000]. Average monthly air temperature ranges from 1°C in January to 36°C in July. Annual precipitation averages 1150 mm and is evenly distributed throughout the year [State Climate Office of North Carolina, 1999].

Six circular, 30-m-diameter plots (herein referred to as "rings") were established within the Duke forest to fumigate trees with CO₂. Each of the six rings was divided into four pie-shaped sections for a total of 24 individual sectors. Three rings served as a control to which ambient air was added, whereas the remaining three rings were fumigated continuously to maintain atmospheric CO₂ levels at $\sim 560 \mu\text{L L}^{-1}$. Treatment began on August 27, 1996, and has continued with minimal interruptions. Carbon dioxide concentration was tracked continuously with sensors within plots. Actual mean enrichments ranged from 199 to 203 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ above ambient CO₂ (365 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$), with concentrations inside the CO₂-treated rings varying from 550 to 570 $\mu\text{L L}^{-1}$ [Hendrey *et al.*, 1999].

2.2. Soil Sampling Methods

Soil cores were collected to a depth of 15 cm using a hammer-driven core device containing stainless steel inserts (5-cm diameter by 30-cm height). During each sampling session a single core was

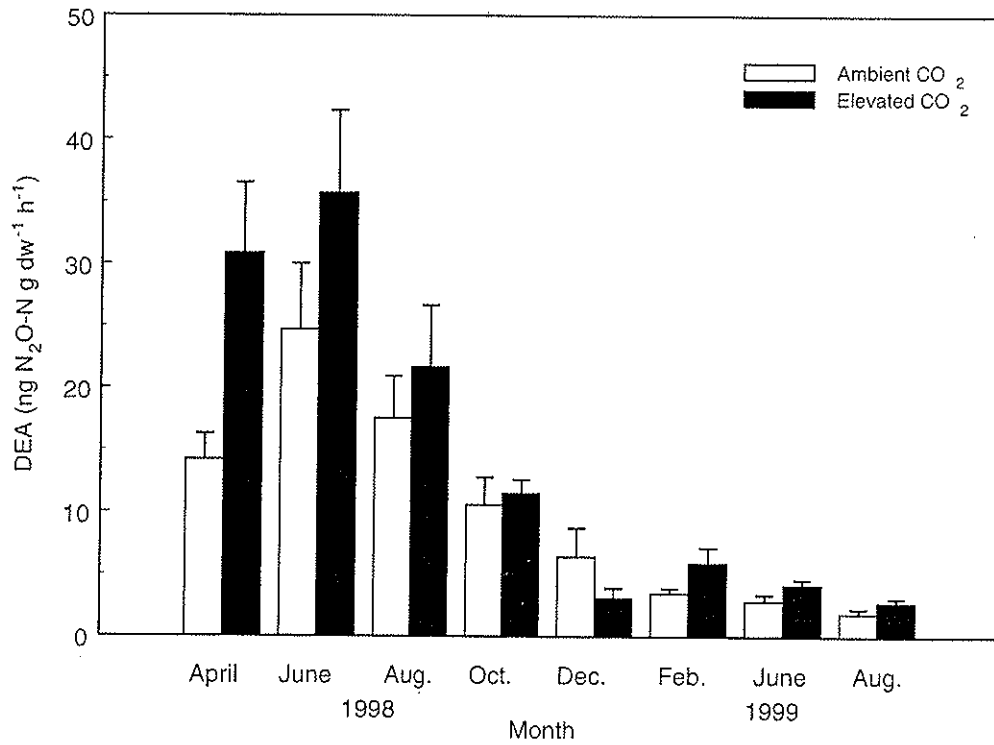


Figure 2. Mean (\pm standard error of the mean (SEM) and $n = 3$) denitrifier enzyme activity (DEA) for CO₂-enriched and control plots.

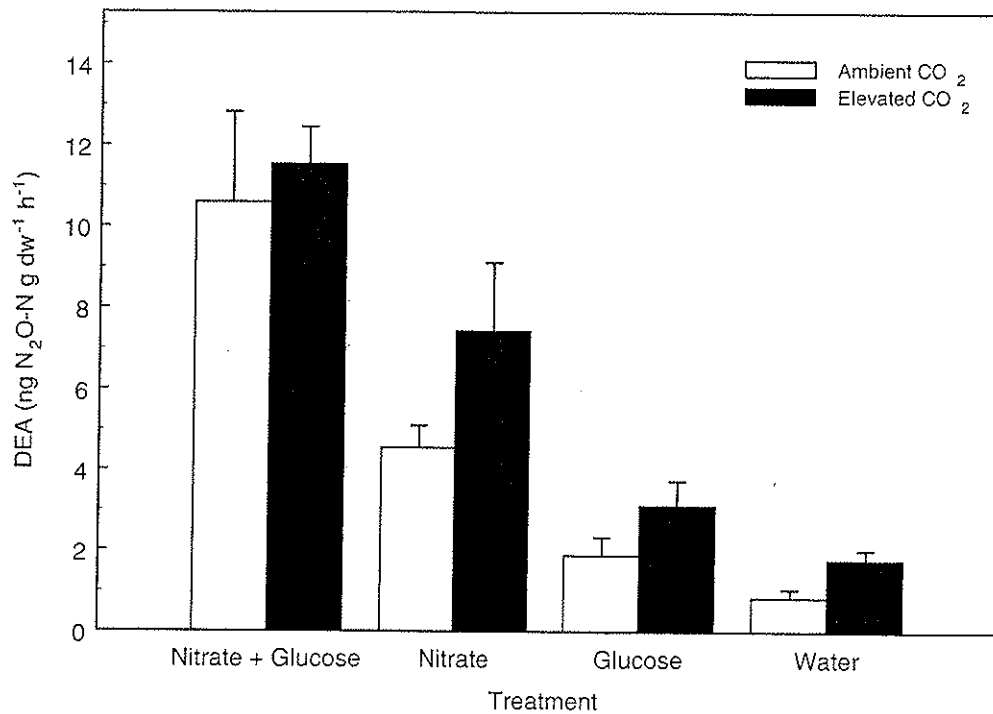


Figure 3. Mean (\pm SEM and $n = 4$) denitrifier enzyme activity (DEA) in homogenized soil composites in response to glucose and nitrate addition in October 1998.

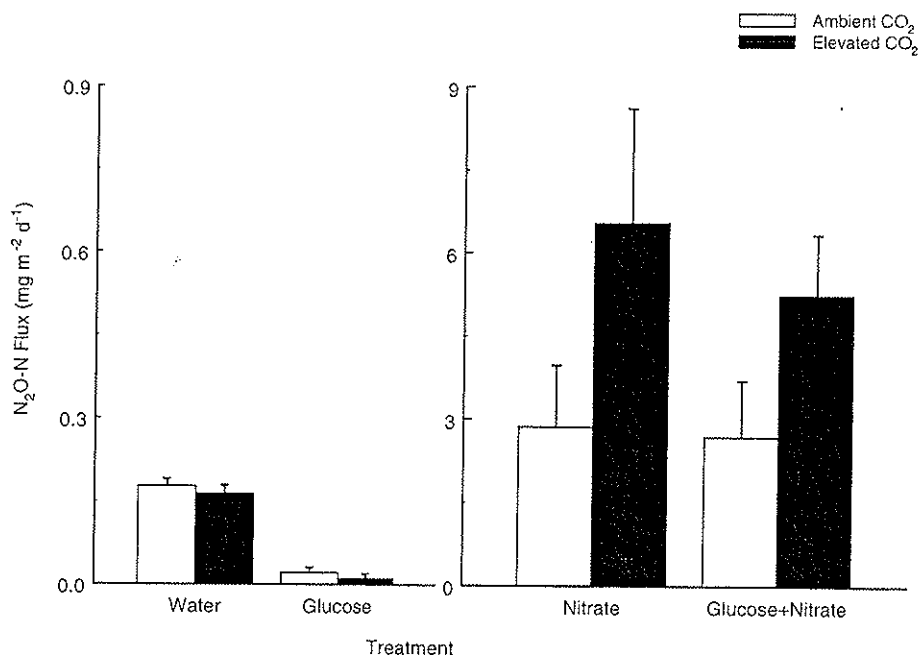


Figure 4. Mean (\pm SEM and $n = 12$) N₂O flux by intact soil cores (15-cm length) collected from CO₂-enriched and control plots. Cores were amended with glucose, nitrate, glucose plus nitrate, or water only (control). Note the change in scale between ordinal axes.

randomly collected within each sector of each plot for a total of 24 cores. The bottom of each soil core was covered with a plastic cap. Each covered core was placed in cold storage and transported to the laboratory within 6 hours of collection. Core sections from the 0- to 7.5-cm depth interval were composited by ring and sieved (through 4-mm mesh) for experiments requiring homogenized soil samples. Most soil sampling was performed at ~8-week intervals during the March through November growing season.

2.3. Determination of Soil Physical Properties

In each ring, organic content for homogenized soils in the 0- to 7.5-cm and 7.5- to 15-cm zones was determined by loss on ignition (550°C for 4 hours) for triplicate, oven-dried (105°C for 24 hours) subsamples. Soil particle density was measured pycnometrically, and bulk density was computed as the quotient of oven-dried mass divided by field volume. Soil pH was measured potentiometrically on 1:2 soil-deionized H₂O paste. All determinations of soil physical properties follow Carter [1993].

2.4. Laboratory Experiments With Homogenized Soil Samples

Laboratory experiments with homogenized samples were used to assess potential denitrification, controls on denitrification, and sources of N₂O (nitrification or denitrification). Experiments were conducted in 133-mL mason jars equipped with O-seal fittings and septa to allow introduction and withdrawal of headspace gas. As required, sealed jars were amended with liquid medium (described below) and made anaerobic. Anaerobiosis was achieved by repeated evacuation of the headspace, introduction of N₂, and vigorous shaking to equilibrate headspace gases in the dissolved phase. In all experiments involving the addition of H₂SO₄-scrubbed acetylene, samples were vigorously shaken by hand to equilibrate headspace C₂H₂ with the aqueous phase. Jars were incubated on a rotary shaker (175 rpm), and 2-mL headspace

samples were analyzed for N₂O after 0.5 hour and at 0.5-hour intervals thereafter for 2 hours.

Denitrification enzyme activity (DEA) was determined in 1998 and 1999 according to Tiedje [1994]. Triplicate field-moist soil samples (25 g each) from each ring on each collection date were amended with 25 mL of the standard medium (40 mg glucose-C L⁻¹, 100 mg NO₃⁻-N L⁻¹, and 10 mg chloramphenicol L⁻¹), and the headspaces were adjusted to 10 kPa C₂H₂ prior to time course determination of headspace N₂O. A modification of this experiment was used to assess factors limiting DEA for soils collected in October 1998. Quadruplicate 25-g field moist soil samples from each ring were amended with 25 mL of one of four solutions: (1) deionized water (control), (2) 40 mg glucose-C L⁻¹, (3) 100 mg NO₃⁻-N L⁻¹, or (4) 40 mg glucose-C L⁻¹ plus 100 mg NO₃⁻-N L⁻¹. Acetylene was added (10 kPa), and the time course for accumulation of headspace N₂O was determined.

A selective inhibition technique [Klemmedisson *et al.*, 1988] was used to assess the relative contribution of nitrification and denitrification to N₂O production for soils. We added deionized water to achieve 49% and 94% of water-filled pore space (WFPS) because these values for the percentage of WFPS bracketed most of the field observations made during 2 years of study. Quadruplicate (35 g) samples from each ring were adjusted to each percentage of WFPS and acclimated overnight at 20°C. Samples were equilibrated with the ambient atmosphere, and N₂O production was measured every 0.5 hour over a 2-hour time period. Headspace were adjusted to 10 Pa C₂H₂, samples were then incubated for 5 hours, headspaces were reequilibrated with the ambient atmosphere, and time courses for N₂O accumulation were again assessed. The initial rate of N₂O production represents the contribution of both nitrifiers and denitrifiers, while the C₂H₂-amended rate indicates N₂O production by denitrifiers because C₂H₂ at this concentration eliminates autotrophic nitrifier activity but has no influence on the reduction of N₂O to N₂ by denitrifiers. The difference between the two rates gives the contribution of nitrifiers only.

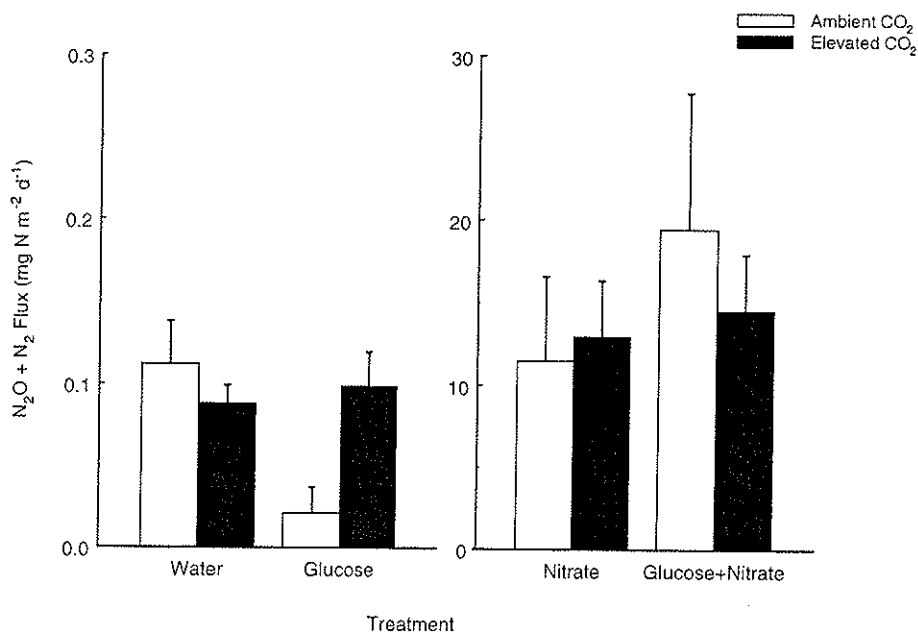


Figure 5. Mean (\pm SEM and $n = 12$) rate of total denitrification ($N_2 + N_2O$) by intact soil cores (15-cm length) from CO₂-enriched and control plots. Cores were amended with glucose, nitrate, glucose plus nitrate, or water only (control). Note the change in scale between ordinal axes.

2.5. Laboratory Experiments With Intact Soil Cores

Factors limiting N₂O flux and total denitrification (N₂O + N₂) were investigated using 15-cm-depth cores collected in June 1999. These remained intact inside 30-cm stainless steel insert tubes used for sample collection. Twenty-four cores (12 ambient and 12 elevated CO₂) were amended with 60 mL of one of four solutions: (1) deionized water (control), (2) 0.4 g glucose-C L⁻¹, (3) 1 g KNO₃-N L⁻¹, or (4) 0.4 g glucose-C L⁻¹ plus 1 g KNO₃-N L⁻¹. Solutions were applied with a spinal syringe to evenly distribute the solution throughout the soil profile with a volume (60 mLs) sufficient to raise soil moisture to the typical June level of 55% WFPS, and cores were incubated for 12 hours. Each insert tube was sealed at both ends with plastic stainless-steel-lined caps equipped with O-seal fittings and septa, and the time course for N₂O accumulation in the headspace was determined. Headspace and air-filled pore spaces were then adjusted to 10-kPa C₂H₂ using a 20-cm-long, 1-mm-diameter stainless steel needle perforated to distribute C₂H₂ evenly in the soil profile. After 5 hours each core was vented and capped, and the time course for N₂O accumulation was reevaluated. The first flux measurement estimates community N₂O production, while the latter gives total denitrification (N₂O + N₂), because C₂H₂ at this concentration inhibits the reduction of N₂O to N₂ by denitrifiers.

2.6. Field Studies of N₂O Emission

Nitrous oxide fluxes within each ring sector were determined bimonthly from January 1998 through December 1999 using the static chamber technique [Whalen *et al.*, 1990]. One polyvinyl chloride collar (20-cm diameter by 11-cm height) was randomly located within each sector prior to initiation of the study for a total of 12 per treatment. Polyvinyl chloride covers equipped with butyl O-rings were placed on the collars during each N₂O flux measurement. Covers included a capillary bleed to equalize pressure and an O-seal fitting and septa for syringe sampling of the headspace gas at 0.5-hour intervals during a 2-hour time course.

Soil moisture and temperature were determined in conjunction with N₂O flux measurements. Depth-integrated (0–30 cm) soil moisture determinations were made continuously with time domain reflectometry (TDR) probes installed within each sector. Soil temperature was measured at 3-cm intervals from 1 to 16 cm with a multithermistor probe during each site visit, and the average temperature for this depth interval was calculated.

2.7. Gas Analysis

Headspace gas was sampled with 5- or 10-mL SESI nylon syringes equipped with pistons modified to accept a larger-diameter sealing O-ring. Samples were analyzed for N₂O with a Shimadzu GC-14A ⁶³Ni electron capture gas chromatograph fitted with a 0.5-mL sample loop. Gases were injected onto a 1-m precolumn and a 3-m analytical column (both Porapak-Q) operated at 40°C with a 5% CH₄ to 95% Ar carrier flowing at 25 mL min⁻¹. The gas chromatograph was calibrated with commercial N₂O-air blends (Scott Specialty Gases) following verification of stated concentrations with standards from the National Institute of Standards and Technology. The precision of analysis expressed as a coefficient of variation for 10 replicate injections of 301- and 360-nL N₂O-N L⁻¹ standards was <2%. The minimum detectable concentration change was ± 7 nL L⁻¹. Values that were within 7 nL L⁻¹ of each other were considered to be no different from zero. Gas samples were stored <8 hours in the SESI syringes before analysis. Tests showed no change in N₂O concentration during storage.

2.8. Calculations and Statistics

Rates of N₂O production in field and laboratory experiments were calculated from the time linear change in headspace concentration and headspace volume of the static chamber or incubation vessel. Annual N₂O fluxes from field sites were calculated by time integration of the daily N₂O flux from each chamber. The integrated N₂O flux was numerically approximated with the midpoint rule [Berkey and Blanchard, 1992] using the set of flux observations

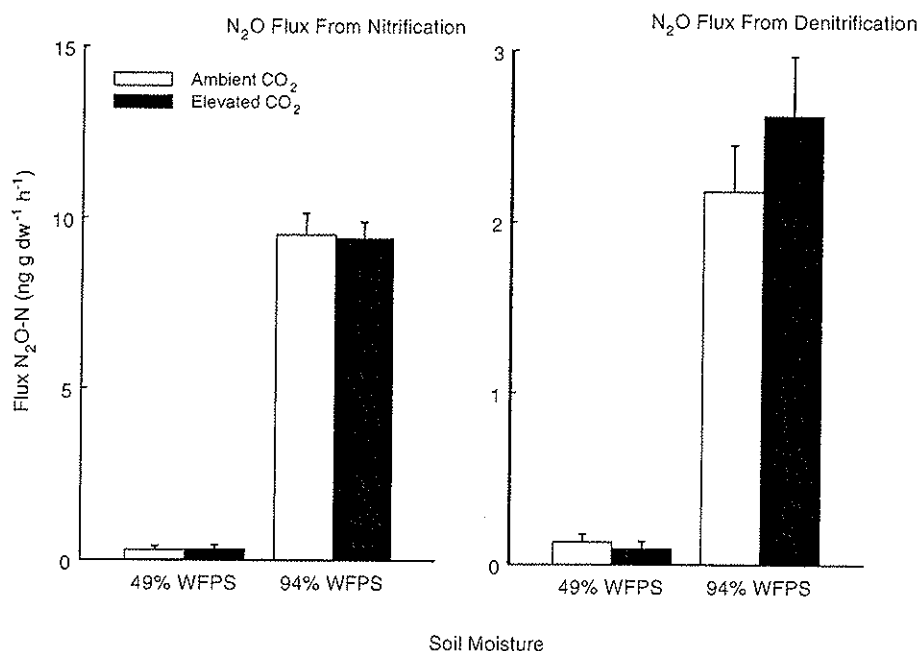


Figure 6. Mean (\pm SEM and $n = 24$) N₂O flux before and after C₂H₂ addition (10 Pa) at two levels of soil moisture (in percent water-filled pore space (WFPS)). Nitrous oxide flux prior to C₂H₂ addition is due to both nitrification and denitrification, while the flux following C₂H₂ addition is due to denitrification only.

over time (Figure 7) for each year. A *t* test was used to determine differences between treatment and year for annual N₂O flux.

Field flux data were analyzed using a mixed linear model with repeated measures. Carbon dioxide treatment was the main effect, with moisture, temperature, and season as covariates. This was necessary to determine the effect of treatment (given soil moisture variability among plots) and if this effect varied with moisture, temperature, or season. A nested hierarchical model was used with sectors nested inside plots and treatments. Data collection intervals were unequal, so a time series covariance structure was used where correlations decline as a function of time. All interactions were tested; only significant three-way interactions remained in the model along with all lower-order terms and interactions.

All laboratory data were analyzed using a mixed, hierarchical linear model. Modified versions of this model were used to test the effect of CO₂ enrichment on DEA, sources of N₂O, N₂O flux from intact cores, and denitrification. DEA data collected in 1998–1999 were analyzed with a repeated measures model that included CO₂ treatment and year and month of soil collection. Limitations to DEA were tested in a model that included CO₂ treatment and media amendment. Experiments assessing the contribution of nitrification and denitrification to N₂O production were analyzed separately for each moisture level. Nitrous oxide fluxes from intact soil cores were analyzed separately from the N₂O + N₂ flux produced by denitrification only, and these models were tested for both the effect of CO₂ treatment and media amendment. Only significant interactions remained in each model. A significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ was used for all tests, and data were transformed (natural log) when necessary to homogenize variances.

3. Results

3.1. Soil Properties

Soil temperatures varied from 4° to 26°C, with an overall mean of 16°C (Figure 1). The lowest soil temperature was 4°C in

February 1999, and the highest was 26°C in August 1998. Individual soil moisture content by sector, expressed as percent WFPS, varied from 1 to 120% with an overall mean of 60%. Soil particle density was 2.5 g cm⁻³, and pH was 6.0. Bulk density was 1.05 g cm⁻³ in the 0- to 7.5-cm zone and 1.3 g cm⁻³ in the 7.5- to 15-cm zone. Soil organic matter ranged from 6.4 to 9.0% in the 0- to 7.5-cm depth interval and from 3.6 to 6.3% in the 7.5- to 15-cm depth interval. These soil properties measured on the dates shown during this study period (Figure 1) were similar between treatments except for percent soil organic matter, which was slightly higher for CO₂-enriched plots in June 1999 [Phillips *et al.*, 2001].

3.2. Denitrifier Enzyme Activity

Denitrifier enzyme activity ranged from 1 to 95 ng N₂O-N g_{dw}⁻¹ h⁻¹ (where dw is dry soil mass), with the highest DEA at the beginning of the study in June 1998 and the lowest DEA at the end of the study in August 1999 (Figure 2). Average DEA in 1998 (19 ng N₂O-N g_{dw}⁻¹ h⁻¹ with a standard error of the mean (SEM) of 2 and $n = 60$) was higher ($p < 0.05$) than in 1999 (3.2 ng N₂O-N g_{dw}⁻¹ h⁻¹ with SEM = 0.2 and $n = 60$) for both elevated and ambient CO₂ plots. Overall, mean DEA for CO₂-enriched plots was 13 ng N₂O-N g_{dw}⁻¹ h⁻¹ (SEM = 2 and $n = 60$), while mean DEA for controls was 9 ng N₂O-N g_{dw}⁻¹ h⁻¹ (SEM = 1 and $n = 60$). The effect of CO₂ on DEA depended upon the month of soil collection, with a significant ($p < 0.05$) treatment by month interaction (Figure 2).

3.3. Organic C and NO₃⁻-N Limitations of DEA

The chemical composition of the medium added to homogenized soil composites significantly ($p < 0.05$) affected DEA for October 1998 soils (Figure 3). Samples amended with both NO₃⁻ and glucose showed the highest DEA, which was ~1 order of magnitude greater than control soils amended with water only. Denitrifier enzyme activity for the NO₃⁻ addition was ~5 times

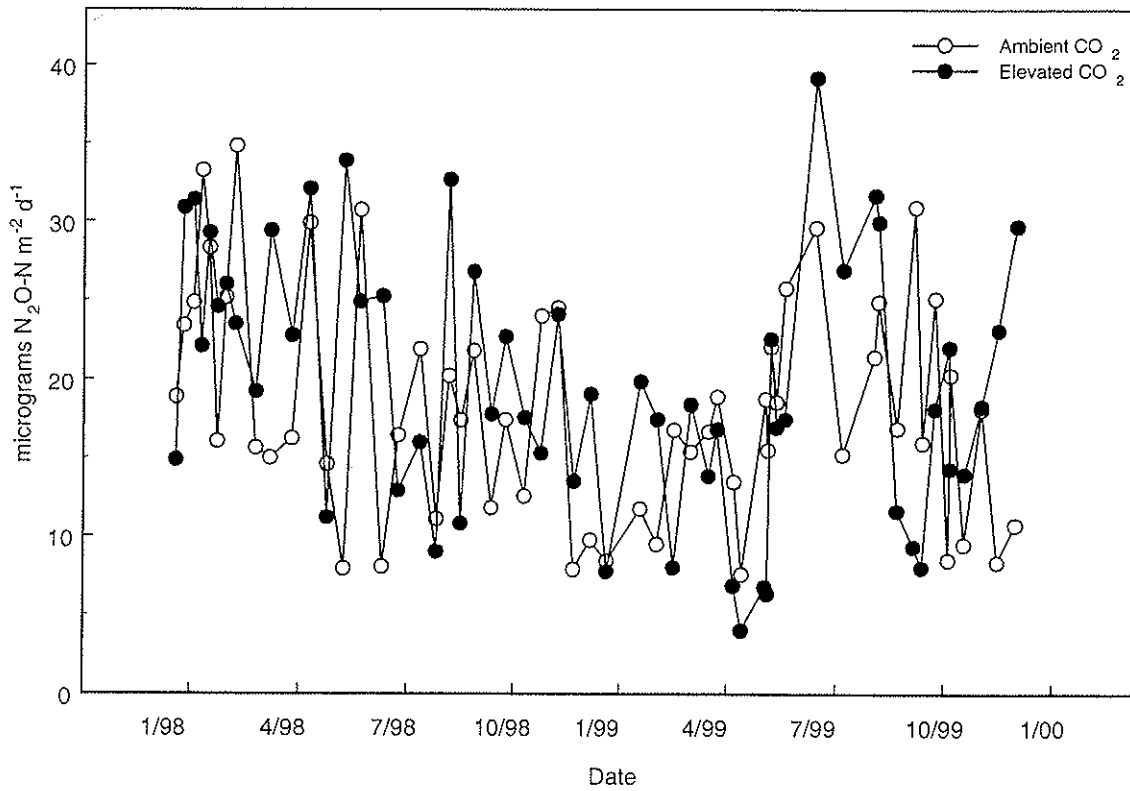


Figure 7. Mean ($n = 12$ for each date) N₂O flux from static chambers in CO₂-enriched and control forest plots. Error bars are eliminated for clarity.

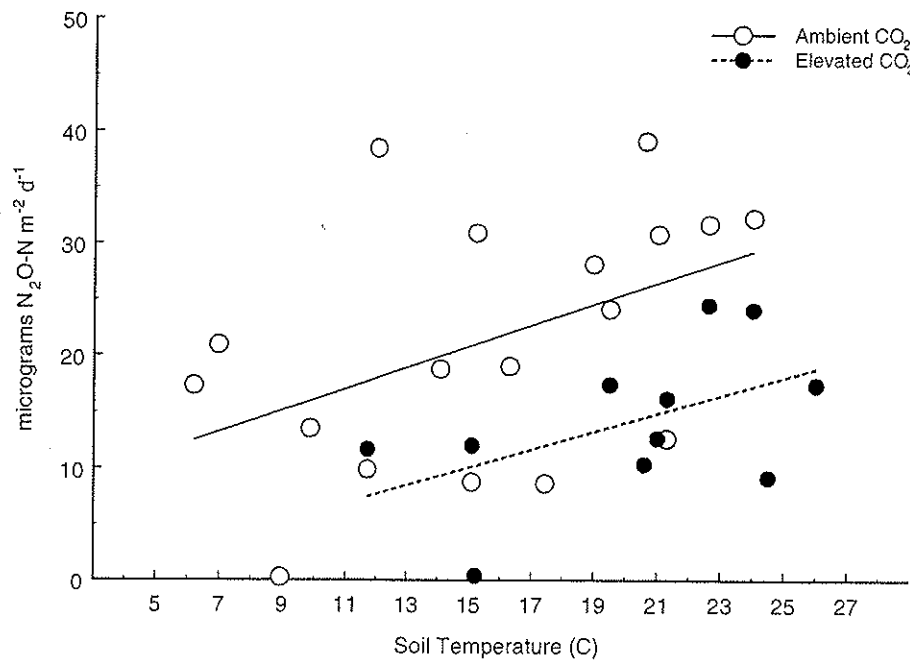


Figure 8. Mean N₂O flux from field plots by soil temperature where soil moisture was $\leq 30\%$ WFPS (mean by date for 159 observations). Linear regression lines illustrate trends for CO₂-enriched and control plots.

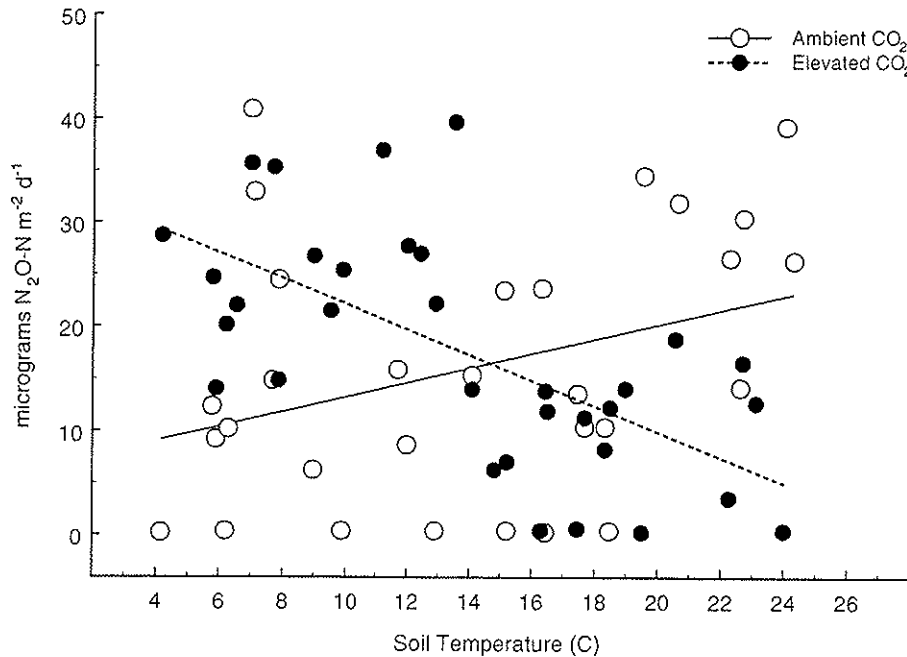


Figure 9. Mean N₂O flux from field plots by soil temperature where soil moisture was $\geq 70\%$ WFPS (mean by date for 320 observations). Linear regression lines are plotted to illustrate trends for CO₂-enriched and control plots.

greater than the control, whereas DEA for the glucose-C medium was only twice that of the control. Soils from elevated CO₂ plots tended to respond to NO₃⁻, glucose, and water-only media with greater DEA as compared with ambient CO₂ soils, but this trend was not statistically significant. Soils from CO₂-enriched plots consistently showed higher within-treatment DEA than soils from control plots, but the differences were not significant.

3.4. Intact Soil Core Experiments

Nitrous oxide fluxes for cores collected from CO₂-enriched plots were similar to ambient CO₂ control cores for each substrate addition (Figure 4). However, N₂O flux was significantly affected by the composition of the medium when compared with the flux from water-only media. Nitrous oxide fluxes from cores amended with NO₃⁻-N or glucose-C + NO₃⁻-N were significantly higher than N₂O flux from water-only media. However, cores amended with glucose-C only showed significantly lower N₂O flux with respect to water-only media.

Mean total N (N₂O + N₂) flux from denitrification for cores collected from CO₂-enriched soils was similar to the flux for ambient control soils for each chemical treatment (Figure 5). However, total N flux from denitrification was significantly

affected by substrate addition when compared with flux from treatments that received water only. Total N fluxes for the NO₃⁻-N and NO₃⁻-N + glucose-C treatments were significantly higher than the flux from the water-only treatment. However, addition of glucose-C alone did not significantly alter the total N flux relative to the addition of water only.

3.5. Sources of N₂O

An increase in soil moisture significantly increased total N₂O production in homogenized soil composites (Figure 6). The average N₂O-N production rate of 18 ng g_{dw}⁻¹ h⁻¹ (SEM = 1 and *n* = 24) at 94% WFPS exceeded the mean of 0.79 ng g_{dw}⁻¹ h⁻¹ (SEM = 0.11 and *n* = 24) at 49% WFPS by a factor of ~ 20 . Addition of 10 Pa of C₂H₂, to inhibit only nitrification, reduced the rates of N₂O-N production at 94% WFPS and 49% WFPS by 73% and 80%, respectively. The average rate of N₂O produced by denitrifiers at 94% WFPS (3.6 ng N₂O-N g_{dw}⁻¹ h⁻¹ with SEM = 0.2 and *n* = 24) exceeded the mean at 49% WFPS (0.21 ng N₂O-N g_{dw}⁻¹ h⁻¹ with SEM = 0.05 and *n* = 24) by a factor of ~ 17 . Nitrous oxide production was not significantly different between CO₂-enriched and control soils at similar moisture contents, both before and after C₂H₂ addition. Thus denitrification and nitrification accounted for $\sim 25\%$ and 75%, respectively, of the total N₂O

Table 1. Model Estimates of N₂O Flux at Mean Soil Moisture and Temperature Values for Each Season^a

Season	CO ₂	CO ₂ by Temperature	CO ₂ by Moisture	CO ₂ by Season	CO ₂ by Temperature by Moisture	CO ₂ by Temperature by Season
Winter	-32.4	2.1	137.8	-34.6	-8.6	3.5
Spring	-32.4	2.1	137.8	-3.1	-8.6	-0.03
Summer	-32.4	2.1	137.8	23	-8.6	-1.1
Fall	-32.4	2.1	137.8	0	-8.6	0

^a All units are in $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$; see Figure 10.

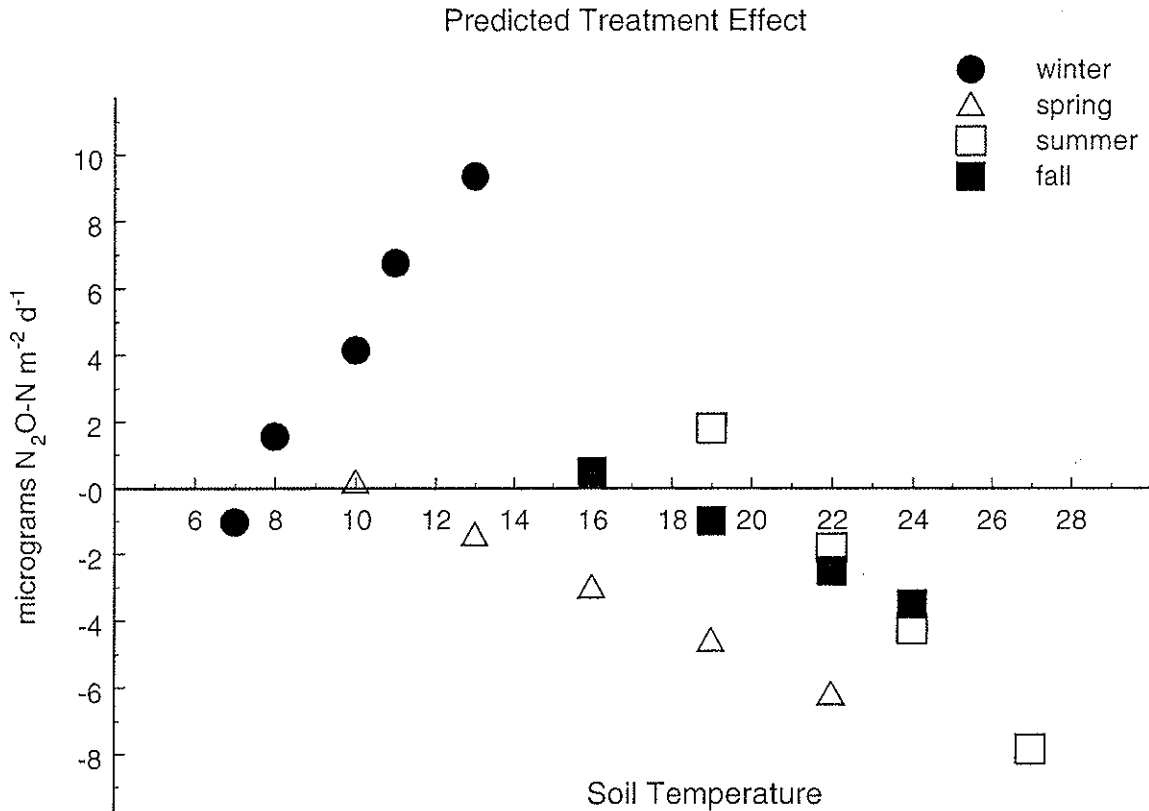


Figure 10. Predicted effect of CO₂ enrichment on N₂O flux for the winter (December through February), spring (March through May), summer (June through August), and fall (September through November) as a function of soil temperature. Model estimates (in $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) shown determined the predicted effect at mean soil moisture for the seasonal range of soil temperature.

produced at both moisture levels, and CO₂ enrichment did not alter these proportions.

3.6. Field N₂O Fluxes

Nitrous oxide fluxes in 1998 and 1999 varied from 0 to 110 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ with an overall mean of 19 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ (SEM = 0.6 and $n = 1300$). The average N₂O flux for CO₂-enriched plots was 20 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ (SEM = 0.9 and $n = 650$), while the average flux for control plots was 18 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ (SEM = 0.9 and $n = 650$) (Figure 7). The average annual integrated N₂O-N flux for CO₂-enriched plots was 7900 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2}$ (SEM = 950 and $n = 12$) in 1998 and 5900 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2}$ (SEM = 560 and $n = 12$) in 1999. The average annual integrated flux for control plots was 6900 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2}$ (SEM = 810 and $n = 12$) in 1998 and 5500 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2}$ (SEM = 780 and $n = 12$) in 1999. Within-treatment annual fluxes were not significantly different between years, and annual N₂O fluxes were not significantly different between CO₂-enriched and control plots. The overall mean integrated N₂O flux was 6600 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ or 0.066 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹.

Analysis of field data showed a significant CO₂ treatment by moisture by temperature interaction with respect to N₂O emission, indicating that the effect of CO₂ enrichment on N₂O flux varied, depending upon in situ soil moisture and temperature conditions. When soil moisture content was $\leq 30\%$ WFPS, flux in both enriched and ambient plots responded similarly to increases in soil temperature (Figure 8). However, when soil moisture exceeded 70% WFPS, N₂O flux from CO₂-enriched plots declined with increasing temperature (Figure 9), while flux from control plots

increased with increasing temperature in a pattern similar to the low-moisture conditions (Figures 8 and 9). CO₂-enriched plots showed greater N₂O flux than control plots under soil conditions of high moisture and low temperature, coinciding with the winter season. Conversely, flux for CO₂-enriched plots was lower than controls when both soil moisture and temperature were high, conditions more commonly found in summer.

The statistical model also showed a significant CO₂ treatment by season by temperature interaction, which complements the CO₂ treatment, moisture, and temperature interaction indicated above. The predicted effect of CO₂ treatment on N₂O flux did not vary between spring, summer, and fall, but the predicted effect in the winter was significantly different from the warmer seasons when moisture was held constant (Table 1, Figure 10). This corresponds to the enhanced N₂O emissions found for CO₂-enriched plots at high moisture and low temperature (Figure 9), which is correlated with typical winter conditions (Figure 1). In winter the positive effect of CO₂ enrichment on N₂O flux also increased with increasing soil temperature. The predicted treatment during the spring, summer, and fall for a range of soil temperatures indicated that the negative effect of CO₂ enrichment on N₂O flux increased with increasing temperature at these times of the year.

4. Discussion

Nitrous oxide is highly effective as a greenhouse gas, given its radiative properties and long atmospheric lifetime (120 years). The contemporary increase in N₂O will clearly influence future cli-

mates. Soils represent the largest single source of atmospheric N₂O, so the global response of microbial N₂O production to a CO₂-enriched atmosphere is critical to future climate model predictions. Our investigation of a temperate forest ecosystem shows that soil biota responsible for N₂O production respond to elevated CO₂ in a complex, interactive manner. No single factor was sufficient to explain how N₂O flux varied with CO₂ treatment. Both nitrification and denitrification govern N₂O flux, and each varies concomitantly with soil conditions. Our results demonstrate that CO₂ enrichment interacts with soil moisture, temperature, and N availability to alter N₂O emissions. These key components need to be factored into CO₂ enrichment models to make better predictions of N₂O fluxes from temperate forests.

4.1. Denitrification

Nitrate availability was the most important individual factor affecting denitrification in soils from both CO₂-enriched and control plots. Denitrifying enzyme activity for homogenized soils amended with NO₃⁻ was about twice that for soils amended with glucose-C (Figure 3). Total denitrification was >2 orders of magnitude higher in NO₃⁻-amended cores than in watered controls (Figure 5). Nitrate limitation of denitrification here is corroborated by the low rates of nitrification and small pools of NO₃⁻ found in this forest [Allen et al., 2000]. This is also consistent with reports of NO₃⁻ stimulation of denitrification in other forest soils [Davidson and Swank, 1987], for NO₃⁻ is typically the limiting nutrient in forest soils [Vitousek et al., 1982].

Although DEA tended to be slightly higher in CO₂-enriched plots during the warmer months (treatment by month interaction), rates of total denitrification in intact cores were not significantly different between CO₂-enriched and control plots within a chemical treatment (e.g., NO₃⁻ addition) (Figure 5). Similarly, Ambus and Robertson [1999] found slightly higher DEA in summer but similar rates of N₂O production for intact cores when CO₂-enriched soils were compared with control soils in an open-top chamber CO₂ experiment. These results may be explained by differences in soil O₂ status, as denitrification requires anaerobic conditions. Anaerobiosis was achieved during DEA assays, whereas aerobic conditions prevailed during field and core experiments. The full potential for denitrification was probably not achieved in situ, although the presence of DEA suggests that anaerobic conditions occasionally occur. Collectively, these results at CO₂-enriched sites suggest that soil O₂ status ultimately dictates whether changes in the denitrifying microbial community resulting from CO₂ fertilization will be manifested as increased denitrification at an ecosystem level.

4.2. Laboratory N₂O Fluxes

Our results indicate that nitrification is the primary microbial process responsible for N₂O production in soils from both CO₂-enriched and control plots. We found that inhibition of nitrification reduced N₂O flux by 70–80% in laboratory incubations at both moderate (49% WFPS) and high (94% WFPS) soil moisture levels. The enhanced N₂O emission at 94% WFPS, relative to 49% WFPS, was due to proportional increases in both nitrification and denitrification. These moisture values represent the typical range of field conditions (Figure 1), which demonstrate that these soils are generally well drained. Additionally, over 98% of the individual field observations showed soil moisture contents of <110% WFPS, indicating that nitrification is the dominant source of N₂O-N at typical in situ soil moisture conditions. Finally, in experiments assessing chemical influences on denitrification, reduced N₂O production was observed in watered controls following addition of 10 kPa C₂H₂ to inhibit nitrification entirely [Klemetsson et al., 1988] (Figures 4 and 5), which indicates a strong nitrification component to total N₂O flux. This is corroborated

by other studies that show nitrification as the dominant source of N₂O in well-drained terrestrial environments, including an early successional temperate forest [Robertson and Tiedje, 1987], a tropical forest [Davidson et al., 1993], and a shrub-steppe ecosystem [Mummey et al., 1994].

Glucose-amended cores showed significantly reduced N₂O flux relative to watered controls (Figure 4). Reduced N₂O: N₂ ratios from denitrification were expected in response to an increase in the labile C supply [Sahrawat and Keeney, 1986]. However, since nitrification clearly dominated N₂O production in both CO₂-enriched and control soils, it is more likely the observed response is largely attributable to enhanced N immobilization, which is a process highly competitive with nitrification [Davidson et al., 1992]. Therefore soil C enrichment may enhance immobilization and reduce N₂O flux from nitrification.

4.3. Field N₂O Fluxes

We estimated the annual N₂O flux from this ecosystem to be 0.066 kg N₂O-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, which is similar to estimates reported for a shortgrass steppe [Mosier et al., 1996; Parton et al., 1988], Wisconsin prairies [Goodroad and Keeney, 1984], and a northern temperate forest [Bowden et al., 1990]. Comparable annual, time-integrated N₂O flux data for soils exposed to free-air CO₂ enrichment, however, are lacking. We found fluxes of N₂O ranging from 5 to 40 μg N₂O-N m⁻² d⁻¹ (Figure 7). Other investigators at CO₂ enrichment sites report N₂O fluxes during the summer ranging from 2.4 to 50.4 μg N₂O-N m⁻² d⁻¹, depending upon nutrient and water additions [Ambus and Robertson, 1999; Ineson et al., 1998].

Results of the statistical analysis for field N₂O flux measurements showed that at a given level of soil moisture and temperature, N₂O emissions were significantly different between treatments. Carbon dioxide enrichment enhanced N₂O emissions under conditions of high soil moisture and low temperature (Figure 9). An increase in soil temperature, however, resulted in a more negative treatment effect. This was consistent with statistical model predictions of greater N₂O emissions under elevated CO₂ conditions in the winter (when soil temperatures were lowest) and lower N₂O emissions in the spring, summer, and fall (when soil temperatures were highest) (Figure 10). The strong interaction with season indicated that while holding moisture and temperature constant, N₂O emission under elevated CO₂ conditions tended to be lower than the control from spring through fall. This effect was most apparent at high temperatures. In winter, higher N₂O emissions were found under elevated CO₂ conditions than in control soil. The net result on an annual basis was that N₂O flux from both treatments was similar in 1998 and 1999.

Both nitrification and denitrification were expected to increase in response to greater soil moisture and temperature irrespective of CO₂ treatment, with a proportionately greater flux of N₂O from denitrification as soils reached saturation [Maag and Vinther, 1996]. When soils were closer to saturation, N₂O flux from elevated CO₂ plots responded negatively to an increase in temperature, suggesting that one or both of these processes may have been inhibited when soils were moist and temperatures were >15°C. Since a positive temperature response was evident only during the cold, wet season, differences in denitrification may have contributed to this interaction between CO₂ enrichment and temperature. Denitrification contributed ~25% to the total N₂O flux during laboratory incubations and may be an important source of N₂O during the wet season [Davidson et al., 1993]. Additionally, NO₃⁻ uptake by loblolly pine is greater under elevated CO₂ [BassiriRad et al., 1997], so competition for NO₃⁻ during the warm growing season may have limited denitrification, resulting in lower N₂O emissions.

Carbon dioxide enrichment negatively impacted N₂O emission during the summer months (Figure 10) when soils were both very

warm and moist (60% WFPS). This may be linked to lower nitrification, as nitrification is the primary source of N₂O during the dry season [Davidson *et al.*, 1993]. Although N₂O flux from nitrification was similar for both treatment groups in laboratory incubations (Figure 6), reductions in N₂O emissions were found when cores were enriched with glucose (Figure 4). This may have resulted from enhanced N immobilization [Hungate *et al.*, 1997b] and reduced soil NH₄⁺ availability under elevated CO₂ [Matamala, 1997]. Greater plant NH₄⁺ uptake and reduced gross nitrification have been reported for CO₂-enriched plots during the growing season when organic C input from autotrophic production was high [Hungate *et al.*, 1997b], and this CO₂ effect on gross nitrification may have also depended upon soil moisture. Summers 1998 and 1999 were exceptionally dry, so the extent that elevated CO₂ lowered N₂O emission was limited by low summer rainfall. Our analysis and the literature suggest, however, that lower N₂O emission during the growing seasons at higher temperature and moisture indicates processes operating at an ecosystem level that may have lowered N₂O flux by altering denitrification, nitrification, or both.

Environmental factors regulating N₂O emission are clearly complex and interactive. Results from this 2-year investigation infer that changes in soil physicochemical properties and biology as a result of FACE did not alter total annual N₂O emission in this temperate forest, at least in the time frame of the observation period. We lack comparable N₂O data from other FACE sites, and results from short-term studies are mixed. Nitrous oxide fluxes measured in a California grassland FACE site in October [Hungate *et al.*, 1997a] and in a Michigan forest open-top chamber experiment in July [Ambus and Robertson, 1999] were similar for both ambient and elevated CO₂. However, emissions were higher in elevated plots following NH₄NO₃ application to a Swiss grassland in July [Ineson *et al.*, 1998]. Cumulative information from these enriched sites, excluding those that were fertilized with N, show that the many positive and negative feedbacks and interactions associated with CO₂ enrichment and N limitation may result in largely similar N₂O fluxes at an ecosystem level.

5. Conclusions

Our study demonstrates that the effect of elevated CO₂ on soil N₂O emissions varies with N availability and soil conditions. Our statistical analysis controlled for soil moisture and temperature differences between sites and collection times, so we conclude that interactions with treatment are driven by changes in N₂O production processes. At mean soil moisture levels, microorganisms under CO₂ enrichment responded to warm soil temperatures (such as those found in the spring, summer, and fall) with lower N₂O emissions than the control. When conditions were relatively wet and cold, microorganisms under CO₂ enrichment produced more N₂O than the control. Both nitrification and denitrification are strongly controlled by N availability, so seasonal differences in N₂O emission may be due to variation in plant and microbial competition for N. Lower N₂O production during the growing season suggests that greater plant demand for N under CO₂ enrichment may slow these processes and reduce N₂O flux. Conversely, this may be counteracted by increased N₂O flux during the winter, when soils are moist and plant and microbial competition for N has subsided and when enhanced C availability could stimulate denitrification.

Our results collectively suggest that conditions favorable to denitrification are rare in this well-drained, N-limited forest and that nitrification is the primary source of N₂O. Nitrate limitation and aerobic conditions preclude this ecosystem from responding to C enrichment with enhanced denitrification during most of the year, although further studies in winter are needed. We suspect that

with greater C inputs over time, enhanced N immobilization and plant uptake will lead to seasonal reductions in nitrification and N₂O emission under FACE. Reductions may be offset, however, if the microbial community under elevated CO₂ more actively nitrify and denitrify during the winter, which may result in no change to annual N₂O flux.

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