

Experimental soil warming effects on CO₂ and CH₄ flux from a low elevation spruce–fir forest soil in Maine, USA

LINDSEY E. RUSTAD* and IVAN J. FERNANDEZ†

*USDA Forest Service, Northeastern Forest Experiment Station, P.O. Box 640, Durham, NH 03824, USA

†Department of Applied Ecology and Environmental Sciences, University of Maine, Orono, ME 04469, USA

Abstract

The effect of soil warming on CO₂ and CH₄ flux from a spruce–fir forest soil was evaluated at the Howland Integrated Forest Study site in Maine, USA from 1993 to 1995. Elevated soil temperatures (~5 °C) were maintained during the snow-free season (May – November) in replicated 15 × 15-m plots using electric cables buried 1–2 cm below the soil surface; replicated unheated plots served as the control. CO₂ evolution from the soil surface and soil air CO₂ concentrations both showed clear seasonal trends and significant ($P < 0.0001$) positive exponential relationships with soil temperature. Soil warming caused a 25–40% increase in CO₂ flux from the heated plots compared to the controls. No significant differences were observed between heated and control plot soil air CO₂ concentrations which we attribute to rapid equilibration with the atmosphere in the O horizon and minimal treatment effects in the B horizon. Methane fluxes were highly variable and showed no consistent trends with treatment.

Keywords: carbon dioxide, climate change, forest soils, methane, soil respiration, soil warming

Received 16 June 1997; revised version received 22 September and accepted 26 September 1997

Introduction

Tropospheric concentrations of CO₂ and other trace gases have been increasing since the beginning of the industrial revolution, with an even more rapid increase over the last 50 years (Houghton *et al.* 1990; Denmead 1991; Keeling & Whorf 1992). It is expected that this increase in 'greenhouse' gases will raise mean global air temperature by 2–5 °C or more in the next 50–100 years, with a greater warming occurring in the higher latitudes than at the equator (Bolin *et al.* 1986; Hansen *et al.* 1988; IPCC 1990). Warmer air temperatures would likely result in warmer soil temperatures which could, in turn, enhance the mineralization of soil organic matter, with consequent increases in the flux of C from the soil to the atmosphere providing a positive feedback to climate change.

The efflux of C from soils to the atmosphere occurs primarily in the form of CO₂, and is the result of 'soil respiration'. Soil respiration represents the combined respiration of roots and soil micro and macro-biota. The magnitude of this flux is estimated to range between ≈ 68 Pg C y⁻¹ (Raich & Schlesinger 1992) to 100 Pg C y⁻¹

(Musselman & Fox 1991). This makes soil respiration one of the major pathways of C flux in the global C cycle, second only to gross primary productivity, which is estimated to range between 100 and 120 Pg C y⁻¹ (Houghton & Woodwell 1989). Even a small increase in soil respiration could rival the annual input of CO₂ from tropical deforestation, land-use changes, or fossil fuel combustion which is estimated to be ≈ 7 Pg C y⁻¹ (Lal *et al.* 1995). Production and consumption of CH₄ also plays a significant role in the global C cycle. Although the total flux of CH₄ is smaller than that of CO₂ [estimated at 500–540 Tg C y⁻¹ by Fung *et al.* (1991)], CH₄ has the ability to trap 32 times as much thermal radiation as CO₂ on a molar basis (Bouwman 1990), and thus may play a significant role in shaping future climates.

Numerous studies have highlighted the temperature-dependence of soil respiration (for recent reviews see Raich & Nadelhoffer 1989; Raich & Schlesinger 1992; Raich & Potter 1995; Kirschbaum 1995) with flux rates generally increasing with increasing temperature. Although CH₄ dynamics are more variable, studies have shown increasing CH₄ uptake (i.e. oxidation) in response to increases in temperature (Crill *et al.* 1988, Born *et al.*

Correspondence: Lindsey E. Rustad, 50 Woodland Road, Pownal, ME 04069, USA, e-mail rustad@maine.maine.edu

1990; Crill 1991; Peterjohn *et al.* 1994; Johnson *et al.* 1996). For both CO₂ and CH₄, these studies have typically consisted of either field observations under ambient conditions or controlled greenhouse or laboratory manipulations of microcosms. Few studies to date have attempted to study temperature effects using *in situ* temperature manipulations. Such manipulations can provide a powerful tool to test predictive relationships between soil C flux and soil temperature under field conditions, and to scale-up results from laboratory experiments to larger, more relevant ecological units.

We describe here the results of a soil warming experiment designed to investigate the effects of a 5 °C increase in soil temperature on soil respiration and CH₄ uptake in a low elevation spruce–fir forest soil in Maine, USA.

Site description, experimental design, and methods

Study site

The study site is located in a low elevation (60 m) spruce–fir forest in east-central Maine (45°10' N, 68°40' W), adjacent to the Howland Integrated Forest Study (HIFS) site. The vegetation is dominated by red spruce (*Picea rubens* Sarg.) (≈ 50% of live basal area), with occasional codominant white pine (*Pinus strobus* L., ≈ 22%) and eastern hemlock (*Tsuga canadensis* Carr., 13%). Stand age is uneven (45–130 years), which reflects a logging history of single tree selection. Little or no understorey vegetation is present. Soils at the site are classified as Aquic Haplorhods developed from an underlying layer of dense basal till. Drainage ranges from well drained to poorly drained, with classic pit and mound microtopography. The climate is continental with mean temperature between 5 and 6 °C and mean precipitation slightly more than 100 cm y⁻¹ (Lautzenheiser 1972).

Experimental design

Three 15 × 15-m plots were established in each of two locations (separated by ≈ 300 m) at the study site in the spring and summer of 1992. One warming treatment (5 °C above ambient) and two controls (an undisturbed 'control' with no disturbance from cable installation and a 'cabled control' in which subsurface cables were installed but not heated) were assigned to one plot in each location in a randomized complete block design, with location as the blocking factor. Cable installation was completed by July of 1992 and treatments were initiated in May of 1993, providing a 10 month equilibrium period to minimize disturbance effects. Plots were heated from mid-May through early November for 1993, 1994 and 1995.

A buried cable method was used to experimentally increase soil temperatures in the heated plots. In this method, heat resistance cables (Smith–Gates Easy Heat) were installed 1–2 cm below the O horizon soil surface at 20 cm intervals in each of the heated plots. After cable installation, six stations were established systematically in each plot in an approximate 'H' pattern for temperature and moisture measurements. All stations were located within an inner 12 × 12-m area within each 15 × 15-m plot to avoid edge effects. 'Temperature control' thermistors, connected directly to a Campbell CR-10™ datalogger, were installed at a depth of 7 cm in the O horizon midway between cables at each of these six stations. The datalogger read temperatures from all O horizon thermistors and calculated mean plot temperatures at 10 minute intervals. If the mean temperature in a heated plot was less than 5 °C above the mean temperature in the adjacent control plot, then the datalogger would turn the heating cables on for that plot; conversely, if the mean temperature in the heated plot was 5 °C or greater than the mean temperature in the adjacent control plot, then the datalogger would turn off the heating cables. Cabled control plot temperatures were recorded for comparison.

Field and laboratory methods

In addition to the 'temperature control' thermistors, soil temperature was monitored at each of the six stations at four depths (O horizon, and 10-, 25-, and 50-cm below the surface of the B horizon). Thermistors from two depth profiles per plot were connected to the datalogger for automatic recording of soil temperature at four hour intervals throughout the field season (May through November). Thermistor readings from the other four depth profiles per plot were recorded manually on a weekly basis.

Soil moisture tensions were measured at each of the six stations per plot at two depths (10- and 25-cm below the surface of the B horizon) using Watermark® 200x soil moisture probes. Probes from two depth profiles per plot were connected to the datalogger and recording intervals were identical to those for soil temperature measurements. Soil moisture readings from the other four depth profiles per plot were recorded manually on a weekly basis. Gravimetric soil moisture for the O-horizon and top 10-cm of the B horizon was also determined at six week intervals from 10 soil cores per horizon per plot, and was expressed on a percentage dry mass basis.

Soil CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes were measured at three week intervals at three of the six stations per plot using a static chamber technique (modified from Steudler *et al.* 1989). In this method, permanent 18 cm diameter bases were inserted at each of the three stations per plot to a depth of ≈ 2 cm in the O horizon, and kept clear of vegetation

for the duration of the study. For measurement of trace gas flux, PVC chambers were connected to the bases using a tongue-in-groove system with additional 1 kg weights on top of the chambers to ensure an air-tight seal. Gas samples were withdrawn from the chambers using a 10-mL gas-tight syringe; stored in evacuated glass tubes (Vacutainers[®], Becton-Dickinson, Rutherford, NJ) which were cleaned by filling and emptying with CO₂-free He gas; and then analysed for CO₂ by thermal conductivity on a Gow-Mac Model 380 dual column gas chromatograph, and for CH₄ by flame ionization on a Gow-Mac 750P chromatograph (1994 and 1995 only). Initially, gas samples were withdrawn at time 0, 15, 30, and 60 min to assess the linearity of the flux rates. Given the approximate linearity of the flux measurements, the 15 and 30 minute samples were eliminated so that all chambers could be sampled in the same approximate hour and a half, thereby avoiding expected artifacts due to diurnal variation. Net flux was then calculated as the difference between the initial and final gas concentrations. During the first year, gas fluxes were measured at three times during a 24-h period (06.00, 12.00, 18.00 hours). Because no significant differences were observed between the sampling times, gas flux was only measured at 12:00 hours for the second and third years. On two dates (10–11 July 1995 and 28–29 September 1995), flux was measured at 3 h intervals over a 24-h period to evaluate diurnal patterns. For comparison, CO₂ evolution was also measured at three stations per plot by the sodalime technique as described by Edwards (1982). These measurements were initiated in June of 1994 and continued for the duration of the study.

We measured soil air CO₂ concentrations to evaluate trends in soil respiration with soil depth. Soil air CO₂ concentrations were measured at each of four depths (O horizon and 10-, 25- and 50-cm below the surface of the B horizon) at three of the six sampling stations per plot at three week intervals (typically within 24 h of the CO₂ measurements) throughout the field season following a protocol described by Erikson *et al.* (1990). Soil air access tubes consisted of polycarbonate tubes with perforated ends and a septum at the top were inserted into the soil to the appropriate depth. Gas samples were collected using a 10-mL gas-tight syringe, stored in Vacutainers, and analysed by the same method described for CO₂ evolution.

The percentage change in a response variable was calculated as:

$$100 \times [(\text{heated} - \text{control})/\text{control}].$$

Statistical analysis

Differences in CO₂ evolution, soil air CO₂ concentrations, CH₄ flux, temperature and moisture between treatments

were determined using a *t*-test. Regression analyses and correlation analyses were used to investigate relationships between CO₂, CH₄, temperature and moisture. Statistical analyses for CO₂ evolution and soil air CO₂ concentrations were performed on natural logarithm (CO₂) transformations; statistical analyses for CH₄ flux were performed on natural logarithm (CH₄ + 200). Seasons were defined as spring (May–June), summer (July–August), and fall (September–November). All statistical analyses were performed on the Statistical Analysis System at the 0.05 level of significance unless otherwise noted (SAS 1985).

Results and discussion

Evaluation of treatment

The buried cable method used in this study was highly effective at maintaining surface soil temperatures at ~4–5 °C above ambient (Fig. 1). This temperature differential was maintained to a depth of 30–50 cm from the mineral soil surface resulting in a treatment involving the whole soil, well below the rooting depth (Fig. 2). Overall, no significant disturbance effects were observed for any of the measured parameters. We attribute this to the minimum impact involved in the cable installation and to the 10 month equilibration period between cable installation and the initiation of the study. Thus, results from the control and cabled control plots are pooled for this discussion.

Soil moisture

All three summers were relatively dry years when compared with the previous six years of data at the HIFS (Fernandez, unpubl. data). B horizon soil moisture tension was inversely related to throughfall volume, with peak moisture tensions typically occurring in early September when throughfall volumes were lowest. Although soil moisture tensions were significantly correlated to soil temperature over the range of 0–25 °C (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.34; *P* < 0.0001), no significant treatment or depth trends were observed due to the high spatial variability in these measurements. Gravimetric soil moisture, on the other hand, showed significant effects for both depth and treatment, i.e. gravimetric soil moisture was significantly higher (*P* < 0.0001) in the O horizon relative to the upper B horizon (195 vs. 44%, respectively), and gravimetric soil moisture was significantly lower (*P* < 0.0001) in the O horizon in the heated plots relative to the control plots (mean 177 vs. 205%, respectively). Similar reductions in soil moisture in response to thermal manipulations have been reported by Peterjohn *et al.* (1994), Hantschel *et al.* (1995), Harte *et al.* (1995), and Pajari (1995). No significant differences

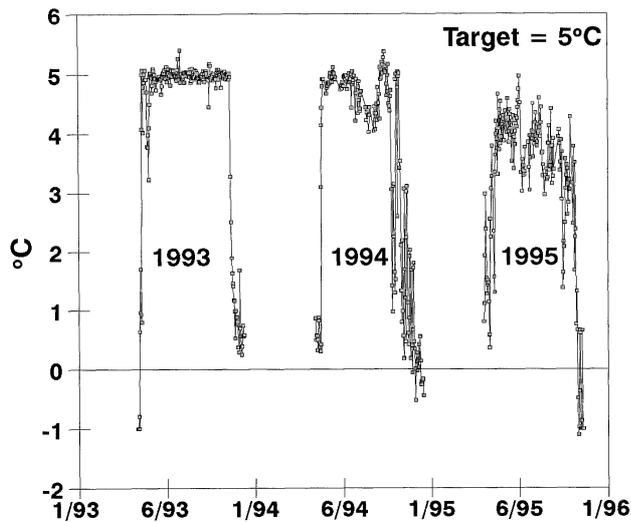


Fig. 1 Daily 0:00 h temperature deltas (calculated as the mean temperature in the heated plots minus the mean temperature in the control plots) for the Howland Integrated Forest Study site warming plots for 1993-95.

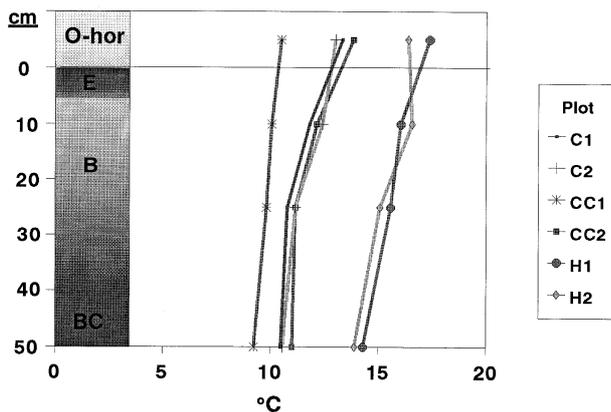


Fig. 2 Mean soil temperatures with depth for the heated ('H1' and 'H2'), control ('C1' and 'C2') and cable control ('CC1' and 'CC2') plots during the snow-free months (May through November) at the Howland Integrated Forest Study site for 1993-95.

between treatments were observed in gravimetric soil moisture in the B horizon.

CO₂ flux

Soil respiration rates, measured by the chamber method, ranged from 0.02 to 0.43 g CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹, with a mean (\pm SD) for all plots of 0.13 \pm 0.05 g CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹. If we assume winter respiration rates of 0.04 g CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹ (based on late fall and early spring measured values), then we can estimate an annual flux of 219 g CO₂-C m⁻² y⁻¹. This is somewhat lower than annual respiration rates estimated from data reported by Simmons *et al.* (1996) for red maple-

dominated sites distributed across a climatic gradient in Maine (mean 285 g CO₂-C m⁻² y⁻¹), and considerably lower than the mean values reported by Raich & Schlesinger (1992) for 16 boreal forests (mean 322 g CO₂-C m⁻² y⁻¹) and for 23 temperate coniferous forests (mean 681 g CO₂-C m⁻² y⁻¹).

Soil respiration rates, measured by the soda-lime method, ranged from 0.13 to 0.55 g CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹, with a mean (\pm SD) for all plots of 0.28 \pm 0.09 g CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹, or about twice that measured using the chamber method. If we again assume winter respiration rates of 0.04 g CO₂ m⁻² h⁻¹, the estimated annual flux of CO₂ is 427 g CO₂-C m⁻² y⁻¹, which is somewhat higher than the mean value reported by Raich & Schlesinger (1992) for boreal forests but lower than the mean value reported for temperate coniferous forests, as one might expect. Diel patterns of soil respiration were studied for 24-h sampling periods on two occasions to determine if diel variation explained the differences between CO₂ evolution rates measured by the soda-lime technique vs. the chamber method. Figure 3 shows that diel variation was minimal at this site and failed to explain the discrepancy. Although the reasons for this discrepancy are unknown, it is not altogether unexpected. Previous studies have shown large differences between soil respiration method techniques, with the static chamber method often underestimating soil respiration relative to the soda-lime ('alkali trap') method (Jensen *et al.* 1996) or the dynamic chamber method (Rochette *et al.* 1992).

Seasonal patterns were similar for both methods (Fig. 4). In 1993, soil respiration closely tracked soil temperature, while in 1994 and 1995, soil respiration showed more variable patterns, with mid-season declines coinciding with periods of higher moisture stress. Linear regression using temperature as the independent variable explained from 28% (soda-lime) to 35% (chamber method) of the variation in soil CO₂ efflux (Table 1). No significant relationships were observed between CO₂ flux and soil moisture, due in part to the high variability in soil moisture tensions. These seasonal patterns are comparable to those reported at other forest sites (Edwards & Harris 1977; de Jong *et al.* 1979; Toland & Zak 1994).

Raising surface soil temperatures by \sim 5 °C resulted in a 25% (chamber method) to 40% (soda-lime method) increase in measured rates of soil respiration ($P < 0.05$; Table 2), or an increased field season flux of 42-138 g CO₂-C m⁻² y⁻¹ from the soil to the atmosphere. These results are consistent with (a) the 19-27% increase in litter decay rates observed for red maple and red spruce litter during the initial 6-30-months of decay at this site (Rustad & Fernandez, in press), reflecting greater microbial activity and associated respiration, and (b) the 48% increase in O horizon fine root mass from root ingrowth cores reported after the first field season (Rustad

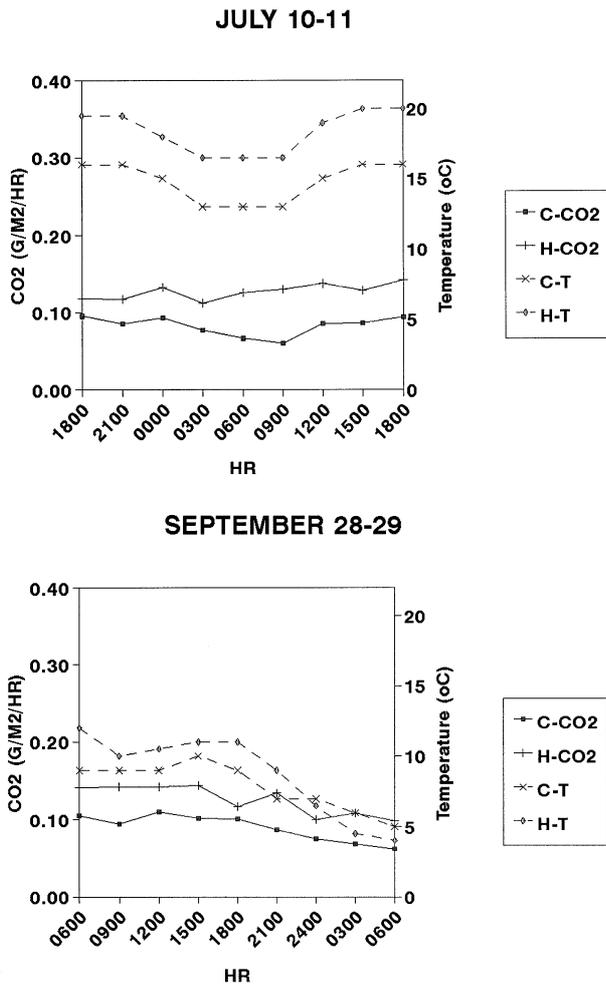


Fig. 3 Diurnal trends in CO₂ evolution and soil temperature for the heated ('H') and control ('C') plots in at the Howland Integrated Forest Study site for two dates in 1995.

et al. 1995) which would result in a net increase of root respiration. Similar increases in soil respiration due to elevated soil temperature *in situ* have been reported by Peterjohn *et al.* (1993) for a northern hardwood forest at Woods Hole, Massachusetts, Peterjohn *et al.* (1994) for a northern hardwood forest at the Harvard Forest in Petersham, Massachusetts, & Shaver *et al.* (1998) for wet sedge tundra in northern Alaska. The magnitude of the response at these different sites varies, likely reflecting differences in substrate quality, mean annual temperature, and soil moisture. Peterjohn *et al.* (1994) also suggested that the large efflux of CO₂ in response to elevated temperatures at the Harvard Forest may in effect be transitory, representing a depletion of a labile C pool. Once the labile C pools are gone, temperature effects may be less dramatic. This may also explain, in part, the relatively smaller increase in soil CO₂ efflux with a 5 °C increase in soil temperature observed at the Howland site (+ 25–40%) compared to the Harvard Forest site

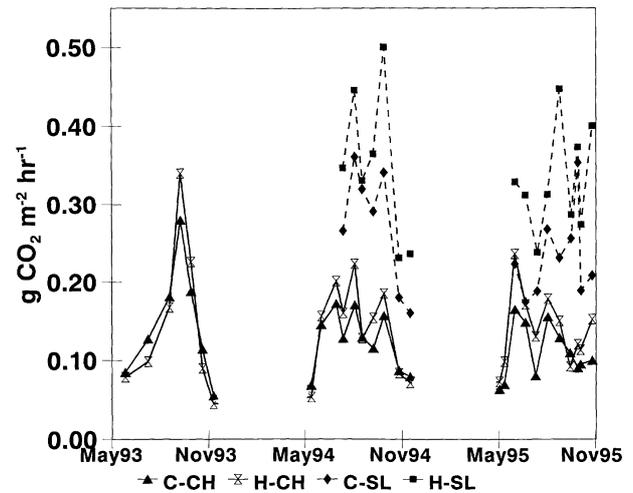


Fig. 4 Seasonal trends in CO₂ evolution for the heated plots ($n = 6$ for each date) and control plots ($n = 12$ for each date) at the Howland Integrated Forest Study site from 1993 to 1995. 'C-CH' refers to control plots, chamber method; 'H-CH' to heated plots, chamber method; 'C-SL' refers to control plots, soda-lime method; 'H-SL' to heated plots, soda-lime method;

(+ 76%), i.e. the Howland site likely had a smaller pool of labile C. These site differences highlight the need to be cautious in extrapolating temperature effects on soil respiration across sites and over time.

Soil air CO₂ concentrations

Soil air CO₂ concentrations increased significantly with depth in all plots, with a three year mean (\pm SD) for all plots of 0.21 \pm 0.09% in the O horizon, 0.34 \pm 0.14% at the 10-cm increment, 0.48 \pm 0.19 at the 25-cm increment, and 0.54 \pm 0.22 at the 50-cm increment. Seasonally, soil air CO₂ concentrations showed a bimodal pattern for 1993 and 1994, with peak concentrations occurring in mid-summer and then again in early fall (Fig. 5). In 1995, an additional peak and trough occurred in early summer in response to an unusually dry early July. Mean soil air CO₂ concentrations and seasonal patterns observed at the Howland site were similar to those reported previously by Son *et al.* (1992) for the same site and by Fernandez & Kosian (1987) for a nearby red spruce site at Tunk Mountain, ME.

Linear regression, using temperature as the independent variable, explained from 6% (O horizon) to 16% (10-cm depth) of the variation in soil air CO₂ concentrations, whereas linear regression using moisture as the independent variable explained 3% or less of the variation at the 10- and 25-cm depths (Table 1). In general, r^2 's for the relationship between soil air CO₂ concentrations and temperature were greater in the spring ($r^2 = 0.33$ – 0.64 ; $P < 0.0001$) and fall ($r^2 = 0.24$ – 0.44 ; $P < 0.05$) when soil

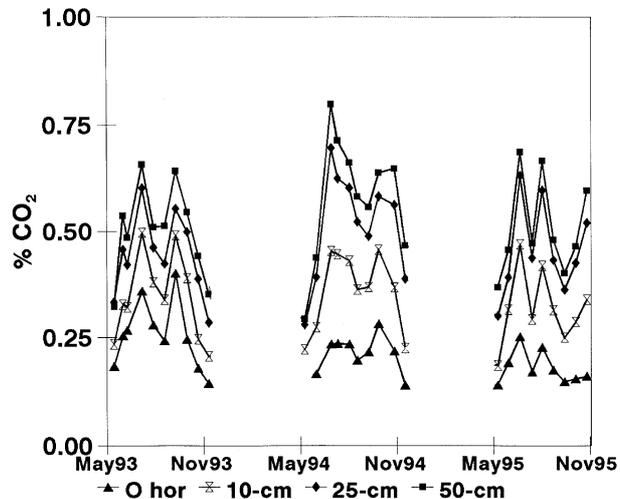
Table 1 Y-intercept, slope, r^2 , and $P > F$ of temperature and moisture response curves of CO₂ evolution, soil air CO₂ concentrations and CH₄ evolution at the Howland Integrated Forest Study Site, Maine

Increment	Intercept	Slope	r^2	$P > F$
<i>CO₂ evolution</i>				
Chamber method				
temperature	- 2.96	0.062	0.35	0.0001
moisture	—	—	—	—
Soda-lime method				
temperature	- 1.88	0.038	0.28	0.0001
moisture	—	—	—	—
<i>Soil air CO₂ concentrations</i>				
O Horizon				
temperature	- 1.91	0.024	0.06	0.0001
moisture	—	—	—	—
10-cm				
temperature	- 1.68	0.045	0.16	0.0001
moisture	- 1.20	0.001	0.008	0.0460
25-cm				
temperature	- 1.21	0.035	0.11	0.0001
moisture	- 0.88	0.002	0.03	0.0006
50-cm				
temperature	- 1.07	0.037	0.07	0.0001
moisture	—	—	—	—
<i>CH₄ evolution</i>				
temperature	—	—	—	—
moisture	- 3.18	- 0.05	0.01	0.0440

Table 2 Mean (\pm SD) CO₂ evolution, soil air CO₂ concentrations, and CH₄ flux for control and heated plots at the Howland Integrated Forest Study site, Maine. Lower case letters following means indicate significant differences between the treatments at the 0.05 level

Parameter	Control	Heated
CO ₂ evolution (g m ⁻² h ⁻¹)		
Chamber method	0.12 (0.04)a	0.15 (0.05)b
Soda-lime method	0.25 (0.07)a	0.35 (0.09)b
Soil air CO ₂ (% CO ₂)		
O horizon	0.22 (0.08)	0.20 (0.10)
10-cm	0.35 (0.15)	0.34 (0.12)
25-cm	0.50 (0.18)a	0.43 (0.20)b
50-cm	0.54 (0.18)	0.53 (0.28)
CH ₄ flux (ug m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	- 4.2 (17)	- 6.2 (27)

moisture was not limiting compared to the summer ($r^2 = 0.004$ – 0.04 ; nonsignificant), when soil moisture tensions were highest. Combining temperature and moisture as independent variables did little to improve the regression. The combination of temperature, moisture, station, and date explained 74–76% of the variation in soil air CO₂ concentrations for all depth increments. This suggests that the low r^2 s between soil air CO₂ concentrations and temperature and moisture are due, in part, to seasonal and interstation differences in quantity and quality of

**Fig. 5** Seasonal trends in soil air CO₂ concentrations with depth at the Howland Integrated Forest Study site from 1993 to 1995.

organic matter, soil moisture, microclimate, and diffusivity.

Despite the significant positive relationship between soil air CO₂ concentrations and soil temperature over the range of 0–25 °C, the 3–5 °C increase in soil temperature induced by the treatments (Fig. 2) was generally not sufficient to significantly raise soil air CO₂ concentrations in the heated plots compared with the controls (Table 2).

In fact, contrary to expectation, soil air CO₂ concentrations were significantly lower ($P < 0.05$) in the heated plots compared to the controls at the 25-cm depth, despite the higher soil temperatures. We attribute this to higher CO₂ concentrations at several of the control stations, perhaps due to localized pockets of available labile substrates. Inter-station variability was generally high, and may have masked subtler differences in soil air CO₂ concentrations attributable to temperature alone. We also hypothesize that much of the soil respiration in these coniferous forest ecosystems occurs in the organic horizons, where both roots and labile organic materials are most abundant. The rapid diffusion of CO₂ from the soil to the atmosphere in these highly porous surface materials may, however, preclude our ability to detect significant differences between heated and control plot O horizon soil air CO₂ concentrations. The lack of treatment effects on soil air CO₂ concentrations at the 10-, 25-, and 50-cm depths, where both roots and soil organic matter are less prevalent, is logical.

CH₄ flux

Methane fluxes ranged from $-127 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (uptake) to $144 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (production), indicating that both methanotrophs (CH₄ oxidizing bacteria) and methanogens (CH₄ producing bacteria) were present in the soil microbial community at this site. Overall, oxidative processes dominated over production, with a mean flux rate (\pm SD) of $-4.8 \pm 21.1 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. This compares to a mean rate of $-5 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for a hardwood forest soil in West Virginia (Yavitt *et al.* 1990), $-10 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for a northern hardwood soil in the Adirondack Mountains, New York (Yavitt *et al.* 1995), and -12 (Keller *et al.* 1993), -68 (Crill 1991), and $-173 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (Stuedler *et al.* 1989) for northern hardwood soils in New Hampshire.

Overall, no clear seasonal trends were apparent for CH₄ flux (Fig. 6). Linear regression analysis indicated a weak relationship between CH₄ flux and soil moisture tensions, and no relationship between CH₄ flux and temperature (Table 1).

Over the two year period, no significant treatment effects were observed for CH₄ flux (Table 2). This is expected because mean CH₄ uptake was numerically greater in the control plots ($-5.8 \pm 16 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) compared to the heated plots ($-3.6 \pm 32 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) in 1994, but mean CH₄ uptake was significantly greater ($P < 0.03$) in the heated plots ($-8.4 \pm 22.4 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) compared to the control plots ($-2.4 \pm 18.1 \mu\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$) in 1995. Clearly, longer-term studies are needed to understand relationships between CH₄ flux, temperature, moisture, and other factors.

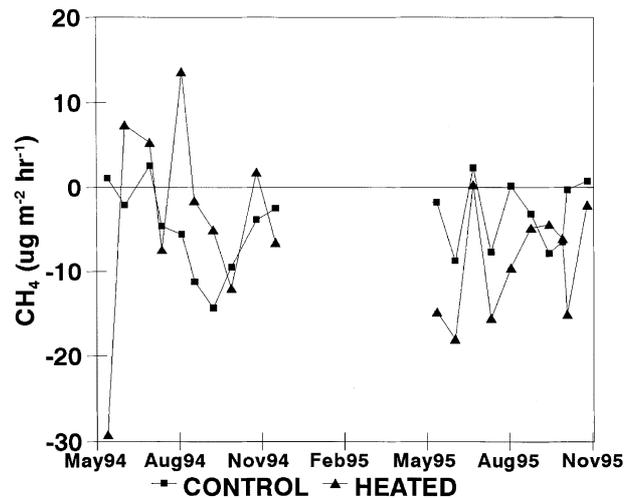


Fig. 6 Seasonal trends in CH₄ flux for the heated plots ($n = 6$ for each date) and the control plots ($n = 12$ for each date) at the Howland Integrated Forest Study site from 1993 to 1995.

Conclusions

Results from this study indicate that raising surface soil temperatures by $\sim 5^\circ\text{C}$ could significantly increase soil respiration by 25–40%. Assuming a mean respiration rate for the temperate coniferous forest biome of $681 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Raich & Schlesinger 1992) and an estimated area for this biome of $508 \times 10^6 \text{ ha}$ (Houghton 1995), a 25% increase in soil respiration could release an additional 3.5 Pg of C to the atmosphere from this biome alone, or approximately half that released by tropical rainforest deforestation, land-use changes, and fossil fuel combustion. The effect of this same increase in temperature on CH₄ dynamics is less clear, although data from the second year of this study as well as data from Peterjohn *et al.* (1994) suggest that an increased uptake of CH₄ from forest soils may compensate, in part, for the increased efflux of CO₂. A net increase in photosynthesis, due either to longer growing seasons or to elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, may also offset this increase in soil respiration. The ability of these forest soils to sustain increased rates of soil respiration is also questionable. Indeed, Peterjohn *et al.* (1994) suggest that the large increase in soil respiration in response to increased temperature at the Harvard Forest was only temporary, reflecting the depletion of a labile C pool. We suggest this is highly plausible, and that immediate changes in soil respiration due to warming are the result of the loss of labile C, whereas changes over longer time steps will ultimately reflect stages of altered litter quality and potentially forest species composition. Longer-term studies, particularly those that simultaneously assess moisture and substrate-related variables, will be important for ultimately determining the response of soil respiration to increases in soil temperature.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Dr Frank Bowles for his help with the technical design of this project, and Holly Hikel and Steve Scaturro for their invaluable assistance in the field. Funding for this study was provided by the U.S. Forest Service (Coop. Agree. #23-640) and the U.S.D.A. - C.S.R.S. (92-37101-7978).

References

- Bolin B, Doos BR, Jager J, Warrick R (eds) (1986) *The Greenhouse Effect, Climatic Change and Ecosystems*, SCOPE 29. Wiley, Chichester, 541pp.
- Born M, Dorr H, Levin I (1990) Methane consumption in aerated soils of the temperate zone. *Tellus*, **42B**, 2-8.
- Bouwman AF (ed.) (1990) *Soils and the Greenhouse Effect*. Wiley, Chichester, United Kingdom, 575pp.
- Crill PM (1991) Seasonal patterns of methane uptake and carbon dioxide release by a temperate woodland soil. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, **5**, 319-334.
- Crill PM, Bartlett KB, Hariss RC, Gorham E, Verry ES, Sebacher DI, Madzar L, Sanner W (1988) Methane flux from Minnesota peatlands. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, **2**, 371-384.
- Denmead OT (1991) Sources and sinks of greenhouse gases in the soil-plant environment. *Vegetatio*, **91**, 73-86.
- Edwards NT (1982) The use of soda-lime for measuring respiration rates in terrestrial ecosystems. *Pedobiologia*, **23**, 321-330.
- Edwards NT, Harris WF (1977) Carbon cycling in a mixed deciduous forest floor. *Ecology*, **58**, 431-437.
- Erikson H, Rustad LE, Nodvin SC (1990) *Watershed Manipulation Project: Field Implementation Plan for 1986-89*. EPA Report Number PB91-148403, Environmental Research Laboratory, Office of Research and Development, U.S. EPA, Corvallis, OR.
- Fernandez IJ, Kosian PA (1987) Soil air CO₂ concentrations in a forested New England spruce-fir forest. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, **51**, 262-263.
- Fung I, John J, Lerner J, Matthews E, Prather M, Steele L, Fraser P (1991) Global budgets of atmospheric methane: results from a three-dimensional model synthesis. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, **96**, 13033-13065.
- Hansen J, Fung I, Rind A, Lebedeff S, Ruedy R, Russell G (1988) Global climate change as forecast by Goddard Institute for Space Studies three dimensional model. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, **93**, 9341-9364.
- Hantschel R, Kamp T, Beese F (1995) Increasing soil temperature to study global warming effects on the soil nitrogen cycle in agroecosystems. *Journal of Biogeography*, **22**, 375-380.
- Harte J, Torn M, Chang F (1995) Global warming and soil microclimate: results from a meadow warming experiment. *Ecological Applications*, **5**, 132-150.
- Houghton RA (1995) Changes in the storage of terrestrial carbon since 1850. In: *Soils and Global Change* (eds Lal R, Kimble J, Levine E, Whitman C), Chapter 4, pp. 45-65. Lewis Publishers, Boca Raton, FL.
- Houghton JT, Jenkins T, Ephraums JJ (eds) (1990) *Climate Change. The IPCC Scientific Assessment*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 365pp.
- Houghton RA, Woodwell GM (1989) Global Climate Change. *Scientific American*, **260**, 36-44.
- IPCC (1990) *Scientific Assessments of Climate Change. the Policymaker's Summary of Working Group 1 to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. WMO/UNEP, 26 pp.
- Jensen LS, Mueller T, Tate KR, Ross DJ, Magid J, Nielsen NJ (1996) Soil surface CO₂ flux as an index of soil respiration in situ: a comparison of two chamber methods. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, **28**, 1297-1306.
- Johnson L, Shaver G, Giblin A, Nadelhoffer K, Rastetter E, Laundre J, Murray G (1996) Effects of drainage and temperature on carbon balance of tussock tundra microcosms. *Oecologia*, **108**, 737-748.
- de Jong E, Redman RE, Ripley EA (1979) A comparison of methods to measure soil respiration. *Soil Science*, **127**, 300-306.
- Keeling CD, Whorf TP (1992) Atmospheric CO₂ - Modern Record, Mauna Loa. In: *Trends 91: A Compendium of Data on Global Change, ORNL/CDIAC-46* (eds Boden TA, Sepanski RJ, Stoss FW), pp. 12-15. Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN, USA.
- Keller M, Goreau TJ, Wofsy SW, Kaplan WA, McElroy WB (1993) Production of nitrous oxide and consumption of CH₄ by forest soils. *Geophysical Research Letters*, **10**, 1156-1159.
- Kirschbaum M (1995) The temperature dependence of soil organic matter decomposition, and the effect of global warming on soil organic C storage. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, **27**, 753-760.
- Lal R, Kimble J, Levine E, Whitman C (1995) *Soils and Global Change*. Lewis Publishers, Boca Raton, FL, 440pp.
- Lautzenheizer RE (1972) The Climate of Maine. In: *Climate of the States*, Vol. 1, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Washington, DC.
- Musselman RC, Fox DG (1991) A review of the role of temperate forests in the global CO₂ balance. *Journal of Air and Waste Management Association*, **41**, 798-807.
- Pajari B (1995) Soil respiration in a poor upland site of Scots pine stand subjected to elevated temperatures and atmospheric carbon concentration. *Plant and Soil*, **168-169**, 563-570.
- Peterjohn WT, Melillo JM, Bowles FP, Steudler PA (1993) Soil warming and trace gas fluxes: experimental design and preliminary fluxes. *Oecologia*, **93**, 18-24.
- Peterjohn WT, Melillo JM, Steudler PA, Newkirk KM, Bowles ST, Aber JD (1994) Responses of trace gas fluxes and N availability to experimentally elevated soil temperatures. *Ecological Applications*, **4**, 617-625.
- Raich JW, Nadelhoffer KJ (1989) Belowground carbon allocation in forest ecosystems: global trends. *Ecology*, **70**, 1346-1354.
- Raich JW, Potter CS (1995) Global patterns of carbon dioxide emissions from soils. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, **9**, 23-36.
- Raich JW, Schlesinger WH (1992) The global carbon dioxide flux in soil respiration and its relationship to vegetation and climate. *Tellus*, **44**, 81-89.
- Rochette P, Gregorich EG, Des Jardins RL (1992) Comparison of static and dynamic closed chambers for measurement of soil respiration under field conditions. *Canadian Journal of Soil Science*, **72**, 605-609.
- Rustad LE, Fernandez IJ (1997) Soil warming: consequences for foliar litter decay in a spruce-fir forest in Maine, USA. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, in review.

- Rustad LE, Fernandez IJ, Arnold S (1995) Experimental soil warming effects on C, N and major element cycling in a low elevation spruce-fir forest soil. In: *Proceedings of the 1995 Meeting of the Northern Global Climate Change Program. Pittsburgh, PA, March 14–16, 1995* (eds Hom J, Birdsey R, O'Brien K). General technical Report NE NE-214. USDA Forest Service, Radnor, PA.
- SAS Institute Inc. (1985) *SAS User's Guide: Statistics, Version 5*. SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC.
- Shaver GR, Johnson LC, Cades DH, Murray G, Laundre JA, Rastetter EB, Nadelhoffer KJ, Giblin AE (1998) Biomass accumulation and CO₂ flux in three Alaskan wet sedge tundras: response to nutrients, temperature, and light. *Ecological Monographs*, **68**, 75–97.
- Simmons JA, Fernandez IJ, Briggs RD, Delaney MT (1996) Forest floor carbon and fluxes along a regional climate gradient in Maine. *Forest Ecology and Management*, **84**, 81–96.
- Son YH, Fernandez IJ, Kim Z (1992) Soil air CO₂ concentrations in a spruce-fir forest in Maine, USA. *Journal of the Korean Forestry Society*, **81**, 177–182.
- Steudler PA, Bowden RD, Melillo JM, Aber JD (1989) Influence of nitrogen fertilization experiments on methane uptake in temperate forest ecosystems. *Nature*, **341**, 314–316.
- Toland DE, Zak DR (1994) Seasonal patterns of soil respiration in intact and clear-cut northern hardwood forests. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research*, **24**, 1711–1716.
- Yavitt JB, Fahey TJ, Simmons JA (1995) Methane and carbon dioxide dynamics in a northern hardwood ecosystem. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, **59**, 796–804.
- Yavitt JB, Lang GE, Sexstone AJ (1990) Methane fluxes in wetland and forest soils, beaver ponds, and low-order streams of a temperate forest ecosystem. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, **95**, 463–474.