

Responses of soil nitrogen cycling to the interactive effects of elevated CO₂ and inorganic N supply

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Abstract Despite increasing interest in the effects of climate change on soil processes, the response of nitrification to elevated CO₂ remains unclear. Responses may depend on soil nitrogen (N) status,

and inferences may vary depending on the methodological approach used. We investigated the interactive effects of elevated CO₂ and inorganic N supply on gross nitrification (using ¹⁵N pool dilution) and potential nitrification (using nitrifying enzyme activity assays) in *Dactylis glomerata* mesocosms. We measured the responses of putative drivers of nitrification (NH₄⁺ production, NH₄⁺ consumption, and soil environmental conditions) and of potential denitrification, a process functionally linked to nitrification. Gross nitrification was insensitive to all treatments, whereas potential nitrification was higher in the high N treatment and was further stimulated by elevated CO₂ in the high N treatment. Gross mineralization and NH₄⁺ consumption rates were also significantly increased in response to elevated CO₂ in the high N treatment, while potential denitrification showed a significant increase in response to N addition. The discrepancy between the responses of gross and potential nitrification to elevated CO₂ and inorganic N supply suggest that these measurements provide different information, and should be used as complementary approaches to understand nitrification response to global change.

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Introduction

Increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations could strongly affect soil nitrogen (N) cycling, leading to potentially large feedbacks to climate: first, rising atmospheric CO₂ could alter N losses from terrestrial ecosystems including the production of nitrous oxide (N₂O) (Arnone and Bohlen 1998; Ineson et al. 1998), a potent greenhouse gas (Forster et al. 2007); second, by altering soil N availability (Diaz et al. 1993; Zak et al. 1993), elevated CO₂ could constrain net primary productivity and the long-term response of ecosystems to climate change (Hu et al. 2006; Hungate et al. 2003; Reich et al. 2006a). The response of nitrification to elevated CO₂ is of particular importance, since nitrification contributes to ecosystem N losses directly by releasing NO and N₂O in the atmosphere (Wrage et al. 2001), and indirectly by producing NO₃⁻ for leaching and denitrification (Tiedje 1988). However, the effects of rising atmospheric CO₂ on nitrification remain unclear (see review by Barnard et al. (2005)).

The response of nitrification to elevated CO₂ may depend on soil N status (Hungate et al. 1997), since the effects of elevated CO₂ on main factors controlling nitrification depend on soil N availability. Indeed, elevated CO₂ may alter soil substrate availability for nitrifiers by altering NH₄⁺ production rates as a consequence of higher labile carbon inputs to the soil, but the magnitude and direction of changes in mineralization vary considerably between studies (Hoosbeek et al. 2006; Hungate 1999; Reich et al. 2006b). In addition, elevated CO₂ may alter soil substrate availability for nitrifiers by altering competition for NH₄⁺ between nitrifiers and other NH₄⁺ consumers: CO₂ can stimulate plant and heterotrophic microbial growth and associated NH₄⁺ plant and microbial uptake (Barnard et al. 2006a; Hu et al. 2001). Such effects are likely to depend on soil N status, since plant and microbial growth are often N limited (Hu et al. 2006; Vitousek and Howarth 1991). Finally, elevated CO₂ could alter soil environmental conditions to which nitrifiers are sensitive, by increasing soil water content and thereby altering soil oxygen status (Barnard et al. 2006b). Given that changes in soil water are mediated by plants (Field et al. 1995), and that plant growth is often N limited (Vitousek and Howarth 1991), CO₂-induced effects on soil environmental conditions for nitrifiers are likely to depend on soil N availability. The large

range of responses of the drivers of nitrification to elevated CO₂ underscores the importance of experimentally manipulating soil N supply when assessing the impacts of elevated CO₂ on nitrification. Nevertheless, very few studies have examined the combined effects of elevated CO₂ and N addition on nitrification, and among the few studies conducted, contrasting responses have been reported (Barnard et al. 2006b; Hungate et al. 1997; Lagomarsino et al. 2008; Zak et al. 2000), which highlights the need for further investigation.

Inferences about the response of nitrification to elevated CO₂ may also depend on the methodological approach used to assess nitrification, as suggested by a recent meta-analysis on the effects of global change on nitrification, where elevated CO₂ was found to have no effect on gross nitrification, but to decrease potential nitrification (Barnard et al. 2005). The discrepancy between responses of gross and potential nitrification to elevated CO₂ could be due to qualitatively different responses among ecosystems sampled in the meta-analysis, or/and to differences in the information provided by gross and potential rate measurements on the response of nitrification to elevated CO₂. Indeed, gross nitrification is a measure of gross NO₃⁻ production rate in the soil, while potential nitrification is a measure of optimal NO₃⁻ production rate in the soil when all the factors potentially limiting nitrification are removed (Barnard et al. 2005; Hart et al. 1994). To reduce our uncertainty and improve our understanding of nitrification response to elevated CO₂, the responses of both gross and potential nitrification to elevated CO₂ should be assessed in the same study; however, to our knowledge, this has never been done.

We investigated the interactive effects of elevated CO₂ and inorganic N supply on nitrification in *Dactylis glomerata* mesocosms, and used two complementary methodological approaches to measure nitrification (Hart et al. 1994): ¹⁵N isotope pool dilution technique (Kirkham and Bartholomew 1954), a tool for measuring gross nitrification; and nitrifying enzyme activity assays under optimal conditions for nitrifiers, a tool for studying the nitrification potential of the soil (Pinay et al. 2007). To provide insight into the mechanisms controlling the responses of gross and potential nitrification, we also measured the responses of the main drivers of nitrification by which elevated CO₂ and N could

affect nitrification: gross NH_4^+ production (i.e. gross mineralization) and gross NH_4^+ consumption rates; microbial and plant N contents, as indicators of microbial N immobilization and plant N uptake; soil respiration and root dry mass, as indicators of heterotrophic microbial and root activity; soil water content and soil respiration, as indicators of soil oxygen status. Finally, potential denitrification was measured as denitrification is functionally linked to nitrification (Hayatsu et al. 2008). Our objectives were: (i) to assess the interactive effects of elevated CO_2 and inorganic N supply on soil N cycling and in particular test whether gross and potential nitrification rates respond similarly to treatments; (ii) to identify the variables which could drive the response of gross and potential nitrification in our study.

Materials and methods

Experimental design and treatments

The experiment was conducted on grass monocultures of *Dactylis glomerata*, a fast-growing perennial grass common to a wide variety of grassland habitats. Deep PVC pots (15×20×50 cm) were filled with a layer of expanded clay pellets to improve drainage, and then with a reconstituted sandy-loam soil (see Bloor et al. (2009) for a full description). The soil/sand mix had a total N content of 0.23 g kg⁻¹, a total C content of 2.46 g kg⁻¹, an organic matter content of 4.26 g kg⁻¹ (determined by dry combustion), a cation exchange capacity of 1.81 cmol kg⁻¹, and a pH of 8.5 (INRA, Arras, France).

Seeds of *Dactylis glomerata* (obtained from Arbiotech, St Gilles, France) were sown on 23 February 2006 at a density of 2,000 m⁻² resulting in a total of 60 seeds per pot. Pots were assigned to one of 12 naturally-lit chambers (wooden frame and clear plastic walls, 65×65×100 cm high) set up inside a large glasshouse at the University of Paris XI (Orsay, France). One month later, when the seedlings had fully emerged, we initiated two CO_2 treatments (ambient and 645 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) crossed with two N treatments (ambient and +10 g N m⁻²). Six chambers were ventilated with ambient air taken from outside the glasshouse, and the six others with ambient air enriched with CO_2 . Average CO_2 concentration was 381±6 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ in the ambient treatment and 645±

9 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ in the elevated CO_2 treatment (CO_2 concentrations were monitored throughout the experiment using a portable carbon dioxide analyser (Carbo-cap, GM 70, Vaisala, Helsinki, Finland), see Bloor et al. (2008) for further details). Within each chamber, two N treatments were applied: pots in the high N treatment received six 200 ml applications of a 7.9 mM NH_4NO_3 I⁻¹ solution at 2-week intervals, whereas pots in the low N treatment received the equivalent amount of distilled water (four pots were present per chamber, two in the low N treatment and two in the high N treatment, resulting in a total of 48 pots). Plants grew under the four treatment combinations for 10 weeks, and pots were watered every 3 days throughout the experimental period.

Soil water content and soil respiration

Soil water content and soil respiration were measured in the layer in which soil was sampled for nitrification measurements. Volumetric soil water content was measured in each pot at three dates towards the end of the experimental period: 31 May 2006, 6 June 2006, and at the time of final harvest (7–9 June 2006). Measurements were made at a depth of 5 cm using a SM200 soil humidity probe (Delta-T, Burwell, UK). Immediately prior to final harvest, a soil core (0–6 cm) was taken from each pot and placed in a flask sealed with a septum to determine soil respiration rates. The flask was maintained at 15°C in a water bath and CO_2 accumulation was measured during two minutes using an IR analyser (EGM1, PP system, UK).

Plant harvesting and soil sampling

Plants were harvested 7–9 June 2006 and separated into below- and above-ground material. At this time, roots had fully colonized soil, and shoots were about 50 cm high. Root and shoot dry mass were measured after drying plant material at 60°C for at least 72 h. Soil from the top 10 cm was collected in each pot. Soil from the two equivalent pots of each chamber was pooled, homogenized and sieved using a 2 mm mesh, leading to a total of 24 samples (two CO_2 treatments × two N treatments × 6 replicates). The freshly sieved soil was used to determine microbial N pool, and gross and potential N transformation rates (see below).

Plant and microbial N pools

Total N concentration in roots and shoots was measured using an N elemental analyser (CNRS, Solaize, France), and plant N content was determined as the sum of root and shoot N contents. Soil microbial N was measured using the chloroform fumigation-extraction method (Brookes et al. 1985). Soil samples (5 g) were fumigated for 24 h with chloroform vapour, whereas control samples (5 g) were not fumigated. After extraction in 0.5 M K₂SO₄, total N in the extracts was analyzed by dry combustion (INRA, Arras, France), and microbial biomass N was estimated as: [(N in fumigated soil)–(N in non-fumigated soil)] / 0.54 (Brookes et al. 1985).

Gross N fluxes

Gross N transformation rates were determined using ¹⁵N pool dilution (Hart et al. 1994), and paired labelled treatments were conducted to assess gross mineralization and NH₄⁺ consumption rates, as well as gross nitrification and NO₃[–] consumption rates. ¹⁵NH₄NO₃ and NH₄¹⁵NO₃ solutions were used to ensure that the gross NH₄⁺ production and consumption rates estimated from the soil samples labelled with ¹⁵NH₄NO₃ could be used as reliable estimates of the gross NH₄⁺ production and consumption rates which occurred in the soil samples labelled with NH₄¹⁵NO₃ and used to assess gross nitrification rates (Murphy et al. 2003). Therefore, two 100-g subsamples from each soil sample were placed in two plastic bags, and 6 ml of either 7 μmol of ¹⁵NH₄NO₃ or 7 μmol of NH₄¹⁵NO₃ were applied to each (both 98 atom % ¹⁵N), resulting in an addition of 1 μg ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ per gram of soil in the samples labelled with ¹⁵NH₄NO₃, and of 1 μg ¹⁵N-NO₃[–] per gram of soil in the samples labelled with NH₄¹⁵NO₃. The application of NH₄¹⁵NO₃ to assess gross nitrification rates probably lead to an overestimation of in situ rates of nitrification, since 1 μg N-NH₄⁺ per gram of soil were provided as additional substrates for nitrifiers (Murphy et al. 2003). Just after the addition of the labelling solutions to the soil, the mixture was well homogenized to reduce sample heterogeneity and avoid preferential use of either the added label or the indigenous soil N (Barraclough 1995). A 15-g subsample was then immediately extracted with 40 ml of

1 M KCl. After a 24 h incubation period at 27°C, a second 15-g subsample was taken and equally extracted.

Extracts were filtered, pooled and analyzed colorimetrically for NH₄⁺ and NO₃[–] concentrations using an autoanalyzer (Lachat Quickchem FIA+8000). A diffusion procedure onto acid traps was used to separate NH₄⁺ and NO₃[–] in soil extracts for ¹⁵N analysis (Brooks et al. 1989). Acid traps were constructed of glass fiber discs, acidified with 20 ml 0.5 M KHSO₄, and then sealed between two pieces of Teflon tape. For the ammonium diffusion, one acid trap was placed in each KCl extract, floating on top of the solution; 300 mg MgO per 100 ml solution were then added and the extraction cup was sealed. Solutions were incubated at 30°C in a shaking incubator for 7 days. Acid traps were then removed, individually wrapped in labelled aluminium foil packets, and placed in a dessiccator to dry. New acid traps were added to each extract for the nitrate diffusion, along with 200 mg finely ground Devarda's alloy (which converts NO₃[–] into NH₄⁺), and were incubated, retrieved after 7 days, and dried in a dessiccator as above. Filter disks were analyzed for ¹⁵N content by isotope ratio mass spectrometry at the Colorado Plateau Stable Isotope Laboratory (www.isotope.nau.edu).

Gross mineralization (*m*) and gross NH₄⁺ consumption (*cA*) were calculated from the following equations (Hart et al. 1994) based on samples where NH₄⁺ concentrations and atom % ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ at time 0 and time 24 were detectable (*n*=5 instead of 6 in the control, the high N, and the high CO₂ treatments):

$$m = \frac{[NH_4^+]_{t0} - [NH_4^+]_{t24}}{t} x \frac{\log([^{15}NH_4^+]_{t0} x [NH_4^+]_{t24} / [^{15}NH_4^+]_{t24} x [NH_4^+]_{t0})}{\log([NH_4^+]_{t0} / [NH_4^+]_{t24})}$$

$$cA = m - \frac{[NH_4^+]_{t24} - [NH_4^+]_{t0}}{t}$$

where [NH₄⁺]_{t0} is the total NH₄⁺ concentrations at time 0; [NH₄⁺]_{t24} the total NH₄⁺ concentrations at the end of the 24-h incubation time; [¹⁵NH₄⁺]_{t0} the ¹⁵NH₄⁺ concentrations at time 0; [¹⁵NH₄⁺]_{t24} the ¹⁵NH₄⁺ concentrations at the end of the 24-h incubation time; and *t* the length of incubation time.

Gross nitrification (*n*) and gross NO₃[–] consumption (*cN*) were calculated from the following equations (Hart et al. 1994) based on samples where NO₃[–] concentrations and atom % ¹⁵N-NO₃[–] at time 0 and

time 24 were detectable ($n=5$ instead of 6 in high N and high CO_2 treatment):

$$n = \frac{[\text{NO}_3^-]_{t0} - [\text{NO}_3^-]_{t24}}{t} \times \frac{\log([\text{NO}_3^-]_{t0} / [\text{NO}_3^-]_{t24})}{\log([\text{NO}_3^-]_{t0} / [\text{NO}_3^-]_{t24})}$$

$$cN = n - \frac{[\text{NO}_3^-]_{t24} - [\text{NO}_3^-]_{t0}}{t}$$

where $[\text{NO}_3^-]_{t0}$ is the total NO_3^- concentrations at time 0; $[\text{NO}_3^-]_{t24}$ the total NO_3^- concentrations at the end of the 24-h incubation time; $[\text{NO}_3^-]_{t0}$ the $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ concentrations at time 0; $[\text{NO}_3^-]_{t24}$ the $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ concentrations at the end of the 24-h incubation time; and t the length of incubation time.

Potential N fluxes

Potential nitrification is a measure of the nitrifying enzyme concentration present in a soil sample. This measurement is based on the principle that nitrification rate is proportional to enzyme concentrations when all the factors potentially limiting nitrification are removed, and when no de novo enzyme synthesis occurred (Pinay et al. 2007). Similarly, potential denitrification is a measure of the denitrifying enzyme concentration present in a soil sample, where all factors affecting denitrification are made non-limiting, and where no de novo enzyme synthesis occurred (Tiedje 1982).

Potential nitrification was measured using the method described by Lensi et al. (1986). Two 5-g soil subsamples were placed in 150 ml plasma flasks. One subsample was used to estimate the initial NO_3^- content, and the second to determine NO_3^- accumulation under optimal conditions for nitrification. The first subsample was immediately supplied with a suspension of a denitrifying strain of *Pseudomonas fluorescens*, a solution containing 1 mg C-glucose g^{-1} dry soil and 1 mg C-glutamic acid g^{-1} dry soil, and an atmosphere of He and C_2H_2 (90 : 10) to ensure anaerobic conditions and inhibition of N_2O reductase. This subsample was set to denitrify during four days at 27°C to allow the complete conversion of the initial soil NO_3^- present in the soil into N_2O , and N_2O concentration was measured by gas chromatography (Agilent Micro GC, P200). The second subsample was enriched with 1.4 ml of a $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ solution in order to ensure moisture content equivalent to 80% water-holding capacity, and no limitation by ammonium (final soil N-NH_4^+ concentration 200 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dry

soil). After an aerobic incubation at 27°C for 24 h in a horizontal position to ensure good aeration of the soil, samples were inoculated and incubated under denitrifying conditions as described above, and N_2O concentration was measured by gas chromatography (Agilent Micro GC, P200). Potential nitrification was calculated by subtracting the amount of nitrate initially present in the soil from that accumulated after aerobic incubation.

Potential denitrification was measured using the procedure described by Smith and Tiedje (1979). Five grams equivalent dry soil were placed in 150 ml plasma flasks sealed with rubber stoppers. All the factors affecting denitrification were made non-limiting by adding a solution containing 1 mg C-glucose g^{-1} dry soil, 1 mg C-glutamic acid g^{-1} dry soil and 0.1 mg $\text{N-NO}_3^- \text{g}^{-1}$ dry soil, and the atmosphere of the flask was replaced by a He : C_2H_2 mixture (90 : 10) to ensure anaerobic conditions and inhibition of N_2O reductase. Flasks were incubated at 27°C for 8 h, and the N_2O concentration was measured every 2 h on a gas chromatograph equipped with an electron capture detector (Agilent Micro GC, P200).

Statistical analysis

Treatment effects were analyzed with a full factorial split-plot model using the PROC MIXED in SAS 9.1 (SAS institute, Cary, NC). Elevated CO_2 was included as a whole-plot effect, and N addition as a split-plot effect. For analyses of repeated measurements in time for soil water content, we used PROC MIXED to run a repeated version of the split-plot model. Unless otherwise indicated, values were not transformed (soil water content data were log-transformed to correct non-normality and unequal variances). Effects with $p < 0.05$ are referred to as significant, and effects with $0.05 \leq p < 0.1$ as marginally significant. Relative treatment effects were calculated as: % effect = $100\% \times [\text{elevated} - \text{ambient}] / \text{ambient}$.

Linear regressions were carried out using PROC REG in SAS, and were used to investigate relationships between gross and potential nitrification and putative drivers, including gross mineralization, plant dry mass, plant N content, microbial biomass N, soil respiration and soil water content (average of soil water content data collected on the week preceding the harvest). Relationships between gross and potential nitrification and potential denitrification were also

examined. In addition, we conducted paired comparisons for NH_4^+ contents at both time 0 and time 24 in the paired treatments using the paired statement of PROC TTEST in SAS. This was done to verify that our paired treatments were similar in their NH_4^+ contents at both time 0 and time 24, so that the gross NH_4^+ production and consumption rates calculated from the soil samples labelled with $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ could be used as reliable estimates of the gross NH_4^+ production and consumption rates that occurred in the soil samples labelled with $\text{NH}_4^{15}\text{NO}_3$.

Results

Plant growth, plant and microbial N pools

Elevated CO_2 significantly increased *Dactylis* root and shoot dry mass, but only in the high N treatment (significant $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$ interactions, Table 1, Fig. 1). *Dactylis* root and shoot dry mass were also significantly increased by N addition (Table 1, Fig. 1). Elevated CO_2 had no significant effect on total plant, root, or shoot N content (Table 1). In contrast, N addition strongly increased both root and shoot N contents, resulting in a 274% increase of total plant N content (Table 1, Fig. 1). Similarly, microbial biomass N was not affected by CO_2 enrichment but increased significantly in response to N addition (Table 1, Fig. 1). No significant $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$ interactions were found on plant and microbial N pools (Table 1).

Table 1 Summary of *p*-values from two-way split-plot analyses of variance testing for the effects of treatments (elevated CO_2 , N addition, and their combination, $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$)

	CO_2		N		$\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$
	% effect	<i>p</i> -value	% effect	<i>p</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value
Root dry mass	+22	0.02*	+181	<0.0001***	0.02*
Shoot dry mass	+13	0.006**	+287	<0.0001***	0.003**
Root N content	-26	0.55	+128	<0.0001***	0.10
Shoot N content	+10	0.94	+382	<0.0001***	0.26
Plant N content	-3	0.91	+274	0.0007***	0.46
Microbial biomass N	+6	0.44	+25	0.01*	0.96
Soil respiration	+48	0.03*	+103	0.0003***	0.06#
Soil water content	+10	0.11	-11	0.03*	0.02*

Significant and marginally significant responses are indicated in bold ([#], $p < 0.1$; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$). Relative treatment effects were calculated as: % effect = $100\% \times [\text{elevated} - \text{ambient}] / \text{ambient}$

Soil water content and soil respiration

Elevated CO_2 tended to increase soil water content (repeated measures analysis; +8%, $p = 0.06$), whereas N addition decreased soil water content (repeated measures analysis; -16%, $p < 0.0001$). The CO_2 -induced effects on soil water content differed depending on N (significant $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$ interaction, repeated measures analysis; $p = 0.0003$): elevated CO_2 mitigated the negative effect of N addition on soil water content, but had no apparent effect in the low N treatment (Fig. 1). Treatment effects on soil water content were similar for the three dates of measurements ($\text{CO}_2 \times \text{Time}$, $p = 0.93$, $\text{N} \times \text{Time}$, $p = 0.52$, $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N} \times \text{Time}$, $p = 0.97$).

Elevated CO_2 significantly increased soil respiration (Table 1, Fig. 1), especially at high N (+19% in the low N treatment vs. +57% in the high N treatment, marginally significant $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$ interaction, Table 1, Fig. 1). Soil respiration was also strongly increased by N addition (Table 1, Fig. 1). Root dry mass explained 36% of the variation in soil respiration (positive correlation, $p = 0.002$).

Gross N fluxes

Gross mineralization and NH_4^+ consumption rates were determined based on the NH_4^+ concentrations and atom % $^{15}\text{N-NH}_4^+$ given in Table 2A, and gross nitrification and NO_3^- consumption rates based on the NO_3^- concentrations and atom % $^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ given in

on plant dry mass; plant and microbial N pools; soil respiration and soil water content at harvest date

Fig. 1 Root and shoot dry mass, plant N content, microbial biomass N, soil respiration and volumetric soil water content at harvest date for each treatment combination. Treatments are CO₂ (ambient CO₂: open bars, elevated CO₂: closed bars) and Nitrogen (low N: low Nitrogen treatment, high N: high Nitrogen treatment). Means and standard error are presented

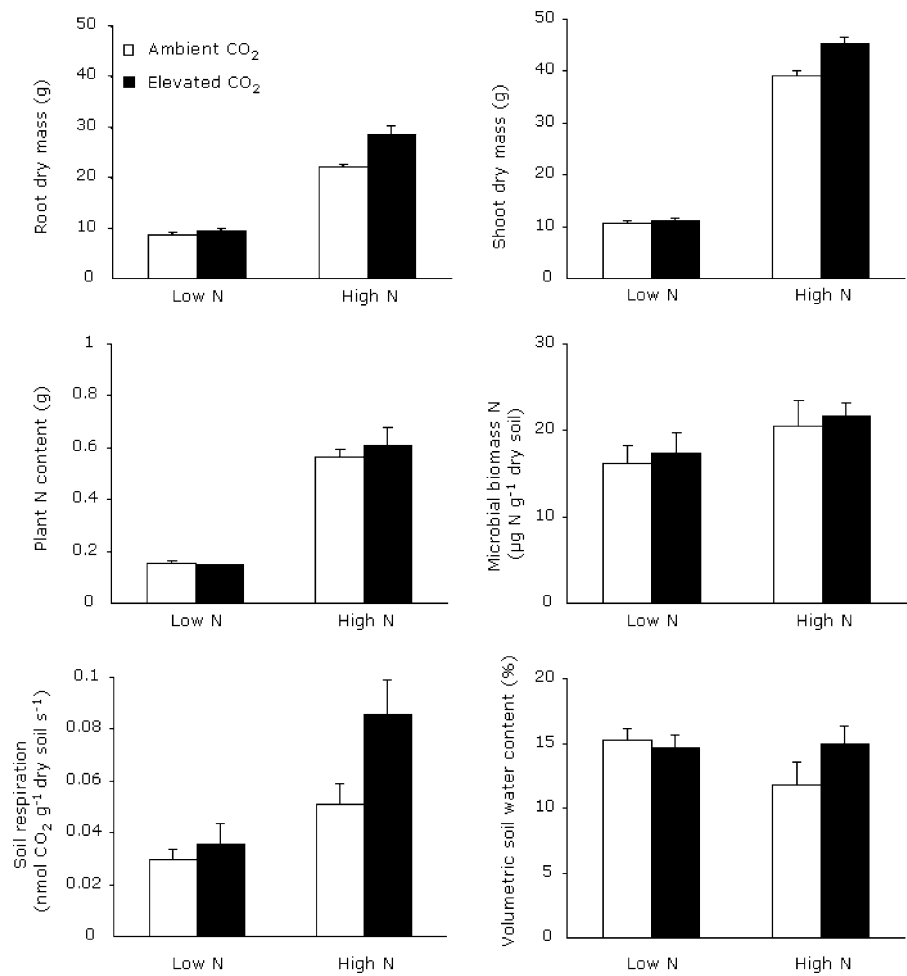


Table 2 (A) NH₄⁺ concentrations and atom % ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ at time 0 (t₀) and after the 24-h incubation time (t₂₄) in the soil samples labelled with ¹⁵NH₄NO₃ and used to determine gross mineralization and gross NH₄⁺ consumption rates in each treatment combination (+ N: high N treatment; + CO₂: elevated CO₂ treatment) (B) NO₃⁻ concentrations and atom % ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻

at time 0 (t₀) and after the 24-h incubation time (t₂₄) in the soil samples labelled with NH₄¹⁵NO₃ and used to determine gross nitrification and gross NO₃⁻ consumption rates in each treatment combination (+ N: high N treatment; + CO₂: elevated CO₂ treatment)

	(A) ¹⁵ NH ₄ ⁺ pool dilution				(B) ¹⁵ NO ₃ ⁻ pool dilution			
	[NH ₄ ⁺] _{t0} µg N-NH ₄ ⁺ g ⁻¹ dry soil	¹⁵ N-NH ₄ ⁺ atom %	[NH ₄ ⁺] _{t24} µg N-NH ₄ ⁺ g ⁻¹ dry soil	¹⁵ N-NH ₄ ⁺ atom %	[NO ₃ ⁻] _{t0} µg N-NO ₃ ⁻ g ⁻¹ dry soil	¹⁵ N-NO ₃ ⁻ atom %	[NO ₃ ⁻] _{t24} µg N-NO ₃ ⁻ g ⁻¹ dry soil	¹⁵ N-NO ₃ ⁻ atom %
Control	0.82±0.06	40.64±0.85	0.16±0.03	1.83±0.18	1.02±0.03	43.52±2.07	1.74±0.06	25.19±1.61
+ N	0.65±0.07	39.96±1.82	0.17±0.04	1.20±0.13	1.04±0.12	45.33±0.94	0.42±0.15	15.05±3.22
+ CO ₂	0.84±0.09	40.58±2.35	0.14±0.04	1.84±0.11	1.02±0.03	44.77±5.04	1.75±0.11	24.93±1.72
+ CO ₂ , + N	0.92±0.09	32.53±2.02	0.22±0.06	1.29±0.18	1.03±0.05	45.82±1.75	0.53± 0.19	18.09±4.85

Values are means ± standard errors

Table 2B. Paired labellings were similar in their ammonium contents at both time 0 and time 24 ($p=0.11$ and 0.75 respectively), so that the gross mineralization and NH_4^+ consumption rates determined in the samples labelled with $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ are indicative of these same rates in the samples labelled with $\text{NH}_4^{15}\text{NO}_3$.

Elevated CO_2 had no effect on gross mineralization in the low N treatment, but increased gross mineralization in the high N treatment (+25%, significant $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$ interaction, Table 3, Fig. 2). Thus, in the low N treatment, gross mineralization averaged $1.24 \pm 0.13 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ under ambient CO_2 and $1.18 \pm 0.13 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ under elevated CO_2 , while in the high N treatment, gross mineralization averaged $1.21 \pm 0.05 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ under ambient CO_2 but $1.51 \pm 0.14 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ under elevated CO_2 . Similarly, elevated CO_2 increased gross NH_4^+ consumption but only in the high N treatment (+31%, significant $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$ interaction, Table 3, Fig. 2): in the low N treatment, gross NH_4^+ consumption averaged $1.89 \pm 0.14 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ under ambient CO_2 and $1.88 \pm 0.16 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ under elevated CO_2 , while in the high N treatment gross NH_4^+ consumption averaged $1.69 \pm 0.09 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ under ambient CO_2 but $2.21 \pm 0.17 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ under elevated CO_2 .

In contrast, gross nitrification was not affected by any of the treatments (Table 3, Fig. 2), and averaged $0.73 \pm 0.07 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ across all treatments. Gross NO_3^- consumption was not affected by elevated CO_2 , but strongly increased with N addition (Table 3, Fig. 2), averaging $0.02 \pm 0.12 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ at low N and $1.28 \pm 0.18 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ at high N.

Table 3 Summary of p -values from two-way split-plot analyses of variance testing for the effects of treatments (elevated CO_2 , N addition, and their combination, $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$) on gross and potential N transformation rates

	CO_2		N		$\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$
	% effect	p -value	% effect	p -value	p -value
Gross nitrification	+3	0.93	-5	0.52	0.68
Potential nitrification	+28	0.15	+60	0.005**	0.09#
Gross mineralization	+11	0.13	+14	0.07#	0.03*
Potential denitrification	+21	0.22	+260	<0.0001***	0.34
Gross NH_4^+ consumption	+15	0.12	+5	0.66	0.05*
Gross NO_3^- consumption	-14	0.74	+5485	0.0002***	0.63

Significant and marginally significant responses are indicated in bold (#, $p < 0.1$; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$). Relative treatment effects were calculated as: % effect = $100\% \times [\text{elevated} - \text{ambient}] / \text{ambient}$

Potential N fluxes

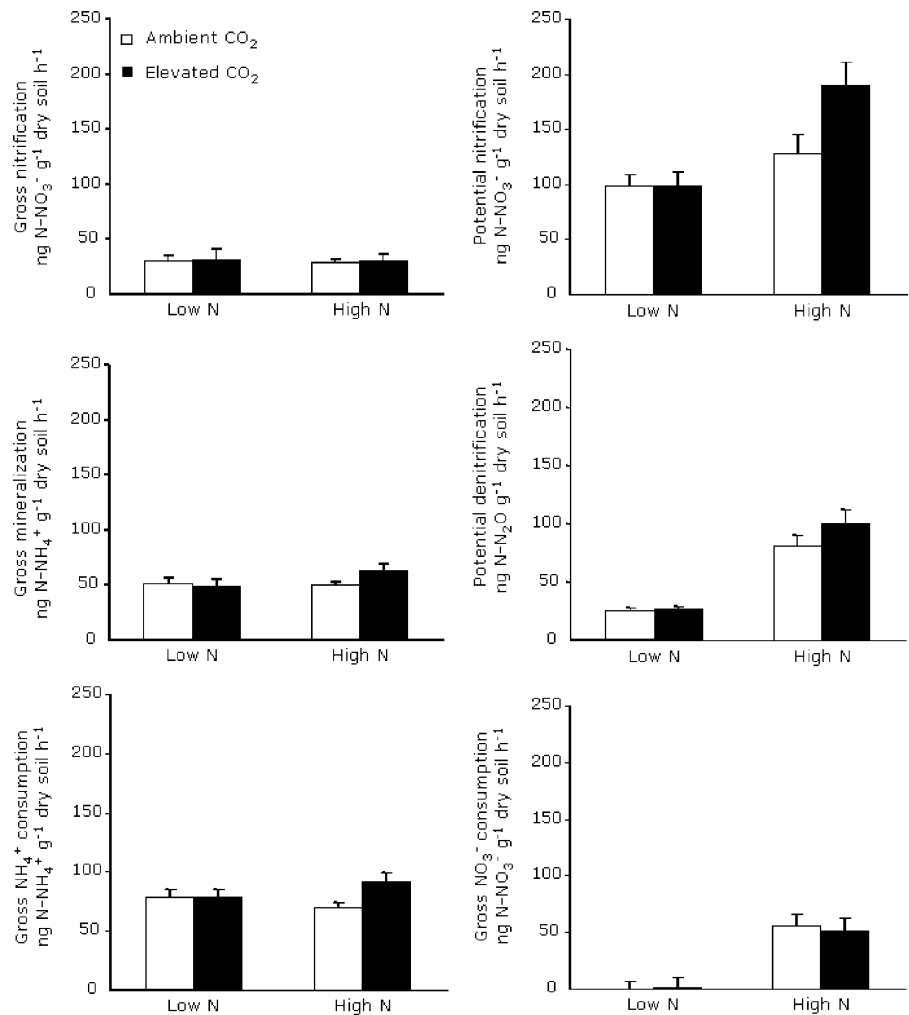
Elevated CO_2 alone had no effect on potential nitrification (Table 3, Fig. 2), but tended to increase potential nitrification when combined with N addition from $3.06 \pm 0.42 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ under ambient CO_2 to $4.55 \pm 0.53 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ under elevated CO_2 (+49%, marginally significant $\text{CO}_2 \times \text{N}$ interaction, Table 3, Fig. 2). N addition increased potential nitrification (Table 3, Fig. 2) from $2.37 \pm 0.18 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ at low N to $3.80 \pm 0.39 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ at high N.

Potential denitrification was not affected by elevated CO_2 irrespective of N treatment, but strongly increased with N addition (Table 3, Fig. 2), averaging $0.62 \pm 0.04 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ at low N and $2.17 \pm 0.19 \text{ mg N kg}^{-1} \text{ dry soil d}^{-1}$ at high N.

Correlations between gross and potential nitrification, putative drivers of nitrification, and potential denitrification

Gross and potential nitrification were not correlated ($p=0.88$). Gross nitrification was not significantly correlated with any of the variables measured as putative drivers of nitrification (including gross mineralization, plant dry mass and N content, microbial biomass N, soil respiration and soil water content)—and was not correlated with potential denitrification. In contrast, potential nitrification was positively correlated with plant dry mass ($R^2=0.36$, $p=0.002$), plant N content ($R^2=0.26$, $p=0.01$), soil respiration ($R^2=0.24$, $p=0.02$), and potential denitrification ($R^2=0.25$, $p=0.03$).

Fig. 2 Gross and potential N transformation rates for each treatment combination. Treatments are CO₂ (ambient CO₂: open bars, elevated CO₂: closed bars) and Nitrogen (low N: low Nitrogen treatment, high N: high Nitrogen treatment). Means and standard error are presented



Discussion

The responses of potential and gross nitrification to CO₂ and N treatments differed substantially. We compare these responses to previous work, examine their relationship to drivers of nitrification and to denitrification, and discuss explanations for strong differences between potential and gross nitrification.

Potential nitrification responded positively to inorganic N supply in agreement with numerous other studies (Barnard et al. 2005, 2006b). Also consistent with past work, potential denitrification increased in response to N addition (Barnard et al. 2005, 2006b), and was positively correlated to potential nitrification. Our finding that potential nitrification responded positively to elevated CO₂, but only with added N, contrasts with those of

previous studies where the effect of elevated CO₂ on nitrification was negative, both without (Hungate et al. 1997; Lagomarsino et al. 2008) or with N addition (Barnard et al. 2006b). Negative responses of nitrification to rising atmospheric CO₂ have been attributed to increased competition for NH₄⁺ (Hungate et al. 1997; Lagomarsino et al. 2008) or to lower soil O₂ concentrations (Barnard et al. 2005, 2006b). Our measurements of gross NH₄⁺ consumption rates and soil respiration are consistent with the idea of increased competition for NH₄⁺ in the elevated CO₂ and high N treatment, but this may have been offset by concomitant increases in gross mineralization. Indeed, we found that gross mineralization was increased in the elevated CO₂ treatment at high N. This increase in gross mineralization in the high CO₂ and high N treatment was likely driven by higher C

inputs by roots to the soil (Dijkstra et al. 2005; Hoosbeek et al. 2006), since we found that the high CO₂ and high N treatment stimulated root growth and soil respiration, both indicating higher C availability. Higher soil labile C may have stimulated growth of C-limited microbes (Hu et al. 2006), and led to an increase in organic matter mineralization (Fontaine et al. 2003). This hypothesis is also supported by the positive correlation between potential nitrification and indicators of C availability in the soil (root dry mass and soil respiration). In addition, since soil moisture in the high CO₂ and high N treatment was similar to the ambient treatment, a decrease in soil oxygen content resulting from higher soil water content under elevated CO₂ might not have occurred. Thus, our study supports previous work suggesting that potential nitrification is a sensitive means of detecting the effects of environmental constraints on nitrifying bacteria (Barnard et al. 2004; Le Roux et al. 2008; Pinay et al. 2007). However, the most serious shortcoming of potential nitrification measurements is that we do not know how to relate them to nitrate production in situations where ammonium availability is controlled by in situ processes such as gross mineralization rates and competition with other microbial processes that consume ammonium. Simultaneous measurements of gross nitrification could potentially provide insight into the role of these in situ processes in controlling nitrification, but these measurements have rarely been directly compared.

Gross nitrification was unresponsive to N and CO₂ treatments despite significant effects of one or both of these treatments on virtually all of our other measures of pools and fluxes in the N cycle, including potential nitrification. Furthermore, gross nitrification was neither correlated to known drivers of nitrification, nor to potential nitrification. This lack of response is especially surprising in the high N treatment since we added substantial quantities of the substrate for nitrification (NH₄⁺) in this treatment and since significant increases in gross nitrification with N additions are well documented (Barnard et al. 2005; Booth et al. 2005; Hungate et al. 1997). The unresponsiveness of gross nitrification is also surprising in the high CO₂ and high N treatment since our results indicate higher NH₄⁺ production rates in this treatment, and since positive relationships between gross mineralization and gross nitrification are often

reported (Booth et al. 2005). There are several possible explanations for this: some related to characteristics of the measurement and others related to mechanisms that may have led to homeostasis in gross nitrification rates.

One possible explanation is that ¹⁵N pool dilution measurements do not account for remineralization of added ¹⁵N (i.e., rapid recycling of ¹⁵N by soil microorganisms). There is good evidence that remineralization occurs over very short time scales and can lead to substantial underestimations of gross N fluxes measured using pool dilution methods (Mary et al. 1998; Murphy et al. 2003). In gross nitrification measurements, this underestimation is strongest when there is substantial microbial uptake and recycling of ¹⁵N labelled NO₃⁻ (Mary et al. 1998). Our measurements of gross NO₃⁻ consumption show that NO₃⁻ uptake was negligible in the low N treatment, so that remineralization was likewise insignificant; but NO₃⁻ uptake was large in the high N treatment, so that remineralization may have led to a substantial underestimation of gross nitrification under high N conditions. This could explain the lack of responsiveness of gross nitrification to N addition in our experiment. A second possible explanation for the lack of responsiveness of gross nitrification to treatments is that in situ nitrification rates may have been limited by NH₄⁺ availability and that we may have overwhelmed treatment differences by adding NH₄⁺ at concentrations that were substantial compared to the native NH₄⁺ concentrations at the time of measurement and to the amount of NH₄⁺ produced by mineralization during the 24-h incubation time. Based on the NH₄⁺ concentrations at the initial and final extraction time and on the rates of gross mineralization, we estimated that about two thirds of the NH₄⁺ consumed during the incubation came from gross mineralization and the remainder from draw down of soil NH₄⁺ concentrations. Thus, the addition of NH₄⁺ in the gross nitrification measurements made them less representative of in situ nitrification rates and might have diminished treatment effects driven by gross mineralization.

There are, however, several lines of evidence that other mechanisms may explain the discrepancy between potential and gross nitrification responses to CO₂ and N treatments. First in their review, Barnard et al. (2005) reported marked differences in the effects of elevated CO₂ on gross nitrification (non-respon-

sive) and potential nitrification (responsive), so the patterns we find are also reflected in this broader analysis. Second, our potential nitrification measurements suggest that more nitrifying enzymes were present in the soil at high N, especially in the elevated CO₂ and high N treatment. These differences in the amount of functionally active nitrifying enzymes between the treatments were not expressed in the gross nitrification measurements, suggesting that either environmental factors (e.g. O₂) or substrate availability (e.g. NH₄⁺) were limiting. There is evidence for the latter: higher soil microbial biomass N in the high N treatment may be indicative of stronger competition for NH₄⁺ during the gross nitrification incubations, potentially offsetting higher nitrifying enzyme activities. Similarly, higher gross NH₄⁺ consumption in the elevated CO₂ and high N treatment might have counteracted higher gross NH₄⁺ production in this treatment, resulting in no changes in gross nitrification even though more nitrifying enzymes were present. Our gross nitrification measurements thus provide evidence that large differences in enzyme activities do not necessarily alter nitrification rates.

This difference in potential and gross nitrification responses may also be related to differences in the temporal scale over which potential and gross assays of nitrification operate. Potential nitrification appears to respond to environmental drivers on the time scale of weeks to months (Le Roux et al. 2008; Pinay et al. 2007), in part due to the slow growth rates of nitrifying bacteria (Hayatsu et al. 2008), while gross nitrification is a short-term measurement (24 h in our study) providing information on NO₃⁻ production over the incubation period. Hence, potential nitrification in our study provides insight into the integrated responses of nitrifiers to N and CO₂ treatments over periods when NH₄⁺ limitations most certainly varied greatly as a result of N flushes following fertilization events and increasing competition for N with plants and heterotrophic bacteria over the course of the experiment. In contrast, gross nitrification measurements in our experiment may provide insight into the effects of N and CO₂ treatments on NO₃⁻ production at a time when competition for NH₄⁺ was particularly intense. The complementary information provided by these two types of measurements clearly merits further exploration focusing on their temporal dynamics.

Conclusions

We found that gross and potential nitrification showed contrasting responses to elevated CO₂ and N addition. Gross nitrification was insensitive to all treatments, whereas potential nitrification was higher in the high N treatment and was further stimulated by elevated CO₂ in the high N treatment. Gross nitrification and potential nitrification measurements appear to provide very different information on nitrification and should be used as complementary approaches. Further studies of both gross and potential nitrification responses to future environmental changes and with multiple measurements in time are necessary if we wish to improve our understanding of the nitrification response to global change.

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