

# Landscape and Watershed Processes

## Effects of Elevated Carbon Dioxide on Soils in a Florida Scrub Oak Ecosystem

D. W. Johnson,\* B. A. Hungate, P. Dijkstra, G. Hymus, and B. Drake

### ABSTRACT

The results of a 3-yr study on the effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on soil N and P, soil pCO<sub>2</sub>, and calculated CO<sub>2</sub> efflux in a fire-regenerated Florida scrub oak ecosystem are summarized. We hypothesized that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> would cause (i) increases in soil pCO<sub>2</sub> and soil respiration and (ii) reduced levels of soil-available N and P. The effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on soil N availability differed according to the method used. Results of resin lysimeter collections and anion exchange membrane tests in the field showed reduced NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in soils in Years 1 and 3. On the other hand, re-analysis of homogenized, buried soil bags after 1 yr suggested a relative increase in N availability (lower C to N ratio) under elevated CO<sub>2</sub>. In the case of P, the buried bags and membranes suggested a negative effect of CO<sub>2</sub> on P during the first year; this faded over time, however, as P availability declined overall, probably in response to P uptake. Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> had no effect on soil pCO<sub>2</sub> or calculated soil respiration at any time, further suggesting that plant rather than microbial uptake was the primary factor responsible for the observed changes in N and P availability with elevated CO<sub>2</sub>.

THE long-term effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on plant growth and ecosystem C sequestration may be constrained by the availability of limiting nutrients. While most studies show increased soil respiration under elevated CO<sub>2</sub>, suggesting increased allocation of C belowground (Hungate et al., 1997; Johnson et al., 1994; Körner and Arnone, 1992; Vose et al., 1995), the results of experiments examining the effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on soil nutrient availability have been mixed. Some studies have shown, for instance, that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> can cause (i) increased soil N availability (Zak et al., 1993; Körner and Arnone, 1992; Hungate et al., 1997); (ii) decreased N availability, because of N immobilization in high C to N ratio-litter and/or labile organic compounds (Bernston and Bazzaz, 1996; Cotrufo et al., 1994; Diaz et al., 1993); or (iii) either mixed or no effects (O'Neill, 1994; Randlett et al., 1996). The sensitivity of tests for N mineralization and immobilization may be a factor in some cases. For example, Johnson et al. (2000b) found that although elevated CO<sub>2</sub> caused no effect on litter mass loss or N concentration in a field litterbag study, abiotic (sterilized) <sup>15</sup>N immobilization in the senesced litter was lower in ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa* Laws.) fumigated with elevated CO<sub>2</sub> in a laboratory study. Johnson et al. (2000b) also noted higher natural

<sup>15</sup>N abundance in needles and litter from plants grown under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and hypothesized that this reflected N uptake from a recalcitrant soil N pool.

Studies on the effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on P also have produced conflicting results. Norby et al. (1986) found an increase in soil-extractable P with elevated CO<sub>2</sub> in a greenhouse study with white oak (*Quercus alba*) L. and speculated that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> increased phosphatase activity. On the other hand, Johnson et al. (1995) found reduced soil-extractable P levels under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> in a greenhouse study of ponderosa pine growing in a poor soil, but no effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> were found on either plant P uptake or soil-extractable P when the plants were grown on a richer soil. Johnson et al. (1995) concluded from these two studies that the effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on soil P "were inconsistent and no general conclusions can be drawn." In a field study of ponderosa pine, Johnson et al. (1997) found statistically significant effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on extractable P in various treatment combinations and at various times during the 6-yr experiment; however, these effects were inconsistent among treatments and years, and in part reflected pretreatment differences.

In this paper, we summarize the results of three years of investigation into the effects of CO<sub>2</sub> on soils from an open-top chamber study in a Florida scrub oak ecosystem. Previous results from this site have shown that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> caused increased fine root biomass and negative effects on soil C and N availability. In a pilot study that preceded the current study, Day et al. (1996) found that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> caused greater root length densities in a minirhizotron study. Hungate et al. (1999) found that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> had no effect on microbial biomass N, but caused decreased N mineralization, nitrate leaching, and increased specific NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> immobilization (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> immobilized per unit microbial N) in soils during the first 14 mo. The increased specific NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> immobilization was explained by increased root growth combined with decreased quality of C input to the soil (Hungate et al., 1999). Similarly, Shortemeyer et al. (2000) found no effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on microbial biomass C and N, but lower C accumulation in buried, homogenized soil bags during a 1-yr period. Shortemeyer et al. (2000) found lower soluble C, ninhydrin-reactive N, and microbial activity in rhizosphere soil at one sampling date, however, and hypothesized that this was caused by N limitations, which were in turn caused by increased N uptake by plants.

D.W. Johnson, Environmental and Resource Sciences, College of Agriculture, Univ. of Nevada, Reno, NV 89512; B.A. Hungate, Dep. of Biological Sciences, Northern Arizona Univ., Flagstaff, AZ 86011-5640; P. Dijkstra, Plant Protection Service, P.O. Box 9102, 6700 HC, Wageningen, the Netherlands; G. Hymus and B. Drake, Smithsonian Environmental Research Center, Edgewater, MD 21037. Received 17 May 2000. \*Corresponding author (dwj@unr.edu).

**Abbreviations:** OTC, open-top chamber; PRS, plant root simulator.

Based on the literature cited above and the fact that the soils at this site were very poor in nutrients, we hypothesized that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> would cause (i) increases in soil pCO<sub>2</sub> and soil respiration and (ii) reduced levels of soil-available N and P.

## METHODS AND MATERIALS

### Site

The study site is located on Merritt Island, a barrier island off the east coast of central Florida and part of the Kennedy Space Center (28°38' N, 80°42' W). The substrates are well-drained Pomello (sandy, siliceous, hyperthermic Oxyaquic Alorthod) and Poala (Spodic Quartzipsamments) sands. Both soils are acidic and low in nutrients, and nutrients tend to be concentrated in the standing biomass and in the O and A horizons (Schmaltzer and Hinkle, 1992). The experimental site is representative of a fire-maintained, scrub-oak palmetto community. The shrub layer was comprised of rhizomatous sclerophyllous evergreen oaks, which resprouted from belowground after fire. Three oak species, myrtle oak (*Quercus myrtifolia* Willd), sand live oak (*Q. geminata* Small), and Chapman oak (*Q. chapmanii* Sarg.) typically constitute up to 85% of aboveground biomass in these system (Schmaltzer and Hinkle, 1992). Also present is the saw palmetto [*Serenia repens* (W. Bartram) Small], which typically contains considerable biomass in its rhizomes (Schmaltzer and Hinkle, 1996). The climate is subtropical, warm and humid, with the 100-yr average annual precipitation total of 1310 mm masking high year-to-year variability. One-hundred-year average mean maximum and minimum temperatures in July, the hottest month, are 33.3°C and 21.8°C, respectively, and in January, the coldest month, are 22.3°C and 9.5°C, respectively (Mailander, 1990).

### Experimental Design

The study site was burned in August 1995 with a few remaining areas burned in January 1996 prior to siting of 16 open-top chambers (OTCs). Of the 16 OTCs, 8 were maintained at current ambient CO<sub>2</sub> and 8 at ambient plus 350 μL L<sup>-1</sup> (elevated). The OTCs were octagonal in design with the largest diameter 3.66 m and the sides 1.4 m long. Each chamber was 3.3 m high with the frustum at the midpoint providing a chamber volume of 18.9 m<sup>3</sup>. Eight unchambered control plots of identical surface area were also established. The plots were blocked according to preburn aboveground biomass, species composition, and proximity. Each block consisted of one of each of the eight ambient OTCs, eight elevated OTCs, and eight unchambered control plots.

### Soil Leaching Measurements

Two methods to measure soil nutrient leaching were employed during the experiment, but only one proved viable. Initially (January 1996), we installed ceramic cup lysimeters to collect soil solution. However, we found that damage due to intensive solar radiation and animals precluded the reliable operation of these lysimeters, and after approximately 4 mo without complete collections, they were abandoned. Beginning in February 1997, resin lysimeters were used to collect cumulative soil N and P leaching. Resin lysimeters have decided advantages over traditional soil solution collection lysimeters in terms of cost and maintenance, especially under harsh field conditions such as those encountered in this study. Questions have been raised as to the effects of collection efficiency, effects on soil water flow, and microbial transforma-

tions on resin flux estimates (Kjønass, 1999; Schnabel, 1983; Schnabel et al., 1993; Susfalk, 2000; Torbert and Elkins, 1992). Nonetheless, resin lysimeters have been used successfully to obtain indices of leaching in several previous studies, and microbial transformations have generally been found to be minimal (Kjønass, 1999; Schnabel et al., 1993; Susfalk, 2000). The resin lysimeters used in this study consisted of a 5.5-cm-long, 4-cm-i.d. PVC pipe within which a resin bag was sandwiched between layers of washed silica sand. Ten grams of oven-dried Rexyn I-300 (H-OH) resin (Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, NJ) were placed in a section of nylon pantyhose, using cable ties to secure each end. This resin bag was placed on a 20-g layer of moist, washed silica sand at the bottom of the tube and covered with another 20-g layer of silica sand. In order to keep the sand in the tube until installation, the bottom of each PVC tube was covered with cheesecloth held in place with a rubber band. The lysimeters were installed by excavating a small hole and tunneling beneath the A horizons at approximately 15 cm depth. The resin lysimeters were installed in February 1997, and removed and replaced in December 1997, December 1998, and December 1999. After collection, resins were removed from the lysimeters, placed into 250-mL Erlenmeyer flasks, and extracted with 100 mL of 1.0 M KCl with shaking for 1 h. The extract was filtered (Whatman No. 1) and stored at 4°C until analysis. The extracts were analyzed for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and ortho-P by automated colorimetric analysis at the Desert Research Institute (Reno, NV). Three 10-g replicates of untreated resins were extracted in the same way and served as blanks. Fluxes were calculated from the amount of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and ortho-P extracted from the resins (minus blanks) divided by the surface area of the lysimeters (12.6 cm<sup>2</sup>). The flux for Year 1 was annualized by assuming that fluxes for the month of January 1997 were equal to one-twelfth those for the entire year (i.e., measured flux was multiplied by 1.091). The data for 1997 were reported previously (Hungate et al., 1999); here we update the data set with data from 1998 and 1999.

### Measurement of Soil Nutrient Availability

To avoid the unacceptable effects of destructive soil sampling, less intrusive methods were used. In 1997, soil-available P was measured using anion exchange membranes (Cooperband and Logan, 1994). A 39-cm<sup>2</sup> square of anion exchange membrane (BDH [Darmstadt, Germany] Product no. 55164) was converted into the bicarbonate form, which is known to adsorb more orthophosphate than the chloride form (Sibbesen, 1978). This was accomplished by four 1-h sequential rinses of 200 mL 0.5 M NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (pH adjusted to 8.5) with intermittent stirring in a 250-mL flask. The membrane was placed into a slit in the surface soils (two replicates per chamber) in February 1997. A length of fishing line was sewn through each membrane and tied to guy wires in the chambers to facilitate relocation. The membranes were retrieved in December 1997 and extracted with 30 mL of 0.5 M NaCl by shaking for 1 h. The NaCl solution was then decanted, and replaced with a fresh 30 mL of 0.5 M NaCl and shaken for another hour. After this extraction process, the NaCl solutions were combined and analyzed for orthophosphate on an Alpkem RFA 300 colorimeter (OI Corp., College Station, TX) using EPA600/479020, a molybdate and ascorbic acid method (Fishman and Friedman, 1985). Because of the loss of some membrane material during removal from the soil, the extractable P values were expressed as milligrams P per gram of membrane material. Due to the considerable difficulties encountered in installing and relocating membranes as well as the loss of membrane

material during retrieval, the use of membranes was discontinued after this collection.

In July 1999, soil N and P availability were measured using plant root simulator (PRS) probes (Western Ag Innovations, Saskatoon, SK, Canada), which consist of either anion- or cation-exchange membranes conveniently imbedded in plastic stakes for easy installation and recovery. In this case, the probes were installed for a period of 2 wk before recovery. Upon recovery, the probes were extracted with 40 mL of 1 M KCl by shaking for 1 h. Extractant from the cation exchange probe was analyzed for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and the extractant from the anion exchange probe was extracted for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and ortho-P using automated colorimetric analysis.

Homogenized soil bags (David et al., 1990; Johnson et al., 2000a) were buried in the chambers to assess changes in soil C, N, and P with greater precision and less disturbance than would be possible with conventional soil sampling. Homogenized samples from the C horizon were placed in 1-mm mesh bags, labeled, and inserted in the A horizons of each chamber (three per chamber) in February 1997. One bag from each chamber was retrieved in December 1997, and the rest were left for later recovery. Soils from the bags were analyzed for C and N on a Perkin-Elmer (Norwalk, CT) CHN Analyzer for C and N and for extractable P with 0.5 M HCl plus 1 M NH<sub>4</sub>F (Olsen and Sommers, 1982). The homogenized bags were not intended to provide estimates of actual rates of soil change (because the disturbance of homogenizing soils precludes this), but rather to provide a means of measuring relative treatment effects on soil chemical properties. David et al. (1990) used this technique to detect very small changes in soil chemical properties in response to acidification treatments to a Spodosol in Maine.

### Measurement of Soil pCO<sub>2</sub> and Calculation of Soil Carbon Dioxide Efflux

The measurement of soil pCO<sub>2</sub> and calculation of soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux were performed according to the methods outlined by Johnson et al. (2000a). Between April 1997 and January 2000, soil pCO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were monitored approximately monthly from gas wells established at 15 cm depth in each chamber (in triplicate). There was a sampling gap between November 1998 and June 1999 due to personnel changes and various logistical considerations. The gas wells consisted of 4-mm Tygon tubing inserted to the proper depth in the soil and fitted at the surface with a stoppered, female end of a plastic union. The three tubes all exited the OTC at 20 cm above the soil surface through an acrylic panel, removing any need to open or enter the OTCs during sampling. Samples for CO<sub>2</sub> analyses were obtained with Hamilton gas syringes (50 mL; Wilmad Corp., Buena, NJ) from the section of tubing between the large syringe and the union. During gas collections, stoppers were removed and 15 mL of soil gas were withdrawn from each well, completely evacuating the tubing. A second 50-mL sample was then removed for analysis. Carbon dioxide concentrations were measured on a LiCOR (Lincoln, NE) 6262 infrared gas analyzer using peak heights compared with a CO<sub>2</sub> standard gas (Boggs Gases, Titusville, FL). These measurements were made between three and five 5-mL volumes from each 50-mL sample. For each sampling period, soil temperature was recorded at 1-, 10-, and 50-cm depths in one OTC and one unchambered control plot. Soil moisture was recorded between 0 and 15 cm in each OTC and control plot.

Soil moisture was measured by time domain reflectometry in each plot using Campbell (Logan, UT) CS615 soil moisture reflectometers. Probes were calibrated individually by measur-

ing probe output at four known soil moisture contents ranging from field capacity to residual water content. We placed A horizon soil in four 30-cm-diam. × 60-cm-deep PVC cylinders, adjusted water content in each (residual, 25%, 75%, and 100% of field capacity), and then measured the output of each probe when placed in each cylinder. We then developed a third-degree polynomial to describe the relationship between probe output and volumetric water content. Probes were connected to a multiplexer-datalogger array programmed to record volumetric water content every 11 min. For calculating soil CO<sub>2</sub> flux, we used the average water content for the days in which soil pCO<sub>2</sub> was measured, as described below. Cumulative soil respiration was estimated using the profile method (De Jong and Schappert, 1972; De Jong et al., 1974; Johnson et al., 1994, 2000a; Mattson, 1995). For the diffusion coefficient, we used the Moldrup et al. (1996) formulation, which depends upon commonly measured soil properties (total soil porosity, moisture content, percent clay, and percent fine sand). Cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> flux was calculated by trapezoidal integration of respiration values (Cotrufo et al., 1994; Johnson et al., 2000a) for the periods April 1997 through November 1998 and June 1999 through January 2000.

### Statistical Analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using Microsoft Excel (Microsoft, 1998) for Student's *t*-tests and DataDesk (DataDesk, 1997) software for repeated measures ANOVA. For treatment effects on soil bags, membranes, PRS probes, and pCO<sub>2</sub>, Student's *t*-tests were used. For the resin lysimeter leaching data, repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used.

## RESULTS

### Soil Leaching

The soil leaching rates for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and ortho-P for the three sampled years are summarized in Fig. 1. We found no statistically significant differences in the leaching rates of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> + NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, or ortho-P in any year or overall; however, there was a trend toward lower ortho-P leaching in 1997 and 1998 under elevated CO<sub>2</sub>. Nitrate leaching was significantly lower under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> in 1997, as noted previously (Hungate et al., 1999). This pattern did not continue, however, and there were no significant differences in NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> leaching in 1998 or 1999. We found significant effects of year for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> + NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and ortho-P but no significant interactions between treatment and year for any measured ion. In the case of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, we found a substantial decrease in leaching in 1998 and an increase in 1999. The same pattern also occurred for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, but the changes were not as large. In the case of ortho-P, we found a steady decrease in fluxes during the 3-yr sampling period.

### Soil Nutrient Availability

The anion membrane test in 1997 indicated significantly lower available P in the elevated CO<sub>2</sub> treatment (Table 1). Similarly, the results of the buried bag study showed significantly lower extractable P in 1997 (Fig. 2). The PRS probe tests in 1999 showed no significant treatment effect on ortho-P or NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> but significantly lower available NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and mineral N (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> + NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>)

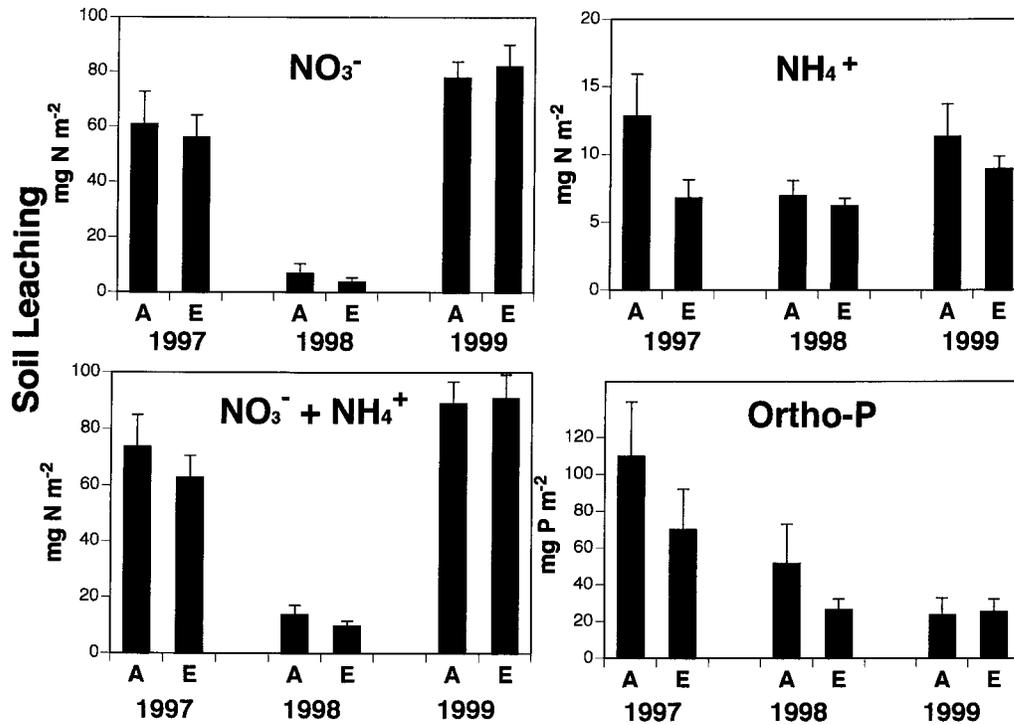


Fig. 1. Leaching rates of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and orthophosphate in 1997, 1998, and 1999 as measured by resin lysimeters. (A = ambient CO<sub>2</sub>, E = elevated CO<sub>2</sub>).

under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (Table 1). As noted previously (Shortemeyer et al., 2000), the buried bag tests also showed a reduction in total C in both treatments compared with initial values, but the reduction in the elevated CO<sub>2</sub> treatment was significantly greater than in the ambient CO<sub>2</sub> treatment (Fig. 2). Total N also decreased substantially in the buried bags, but we found no statistically significant differences due to treatment. As a result of this, the C to N ratio was significantly lower in the elevated CO<sub>2</sub> treatment than in the ambient CO<sub>2</sub> treatment.

**Soil pCO<sub>2</sub> and Calculated Carbon Dioxide Efflux**

Figure 3 summarizes pCO<sub>2</sub> measurements between April 1997 and January 2000. In this figure, the values for pCO<sub>2</sub> under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> are shown as measured and with the additional CO<sub>2</sub> treatment (+350 μL L<sup>-1</sup>) subtracted from the values. This comparison was made so that the effects of treatment on soil respiration-driven

pCO<sub>2</sub> (as opposed to the direct effects of chamber pCO<sub>2</sub>) could be more easily assessed. We found considerable variation in pCO<sub>2</sub> between seasons and years, as would be expected, but at no time during the course of these measurements were there statistically significant differences in pCO<sub>2</sub> between the ambient and elevated CO<sub>2</sub> treatments. Similarly, the calculated cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> efflux values (not shown) were virtually identical, indicating no treatment effects on soil respiration. Independent measures of soil respiration at the soil surface also show no treatment effect on soil respiration (G. Hymus, unpublished data, 2000).

**DISCUSSION**

The resin membrane and buried soil bag data suggest that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> caused reduced soil P availability in the early stages of treatment. The reduced P leaching suggested by the resin lysimeter data, while not statistically significant, corresponds well with the significantly lower P in the resin membranes of the buried soil bags during this initial period. In the case of the resin lysimeters, the differences in P leaching could have been due to both differences in P availability and soil water flux. Soil water flux was probably greater in the elevated CO<sub>2</sub> treatment because of an observed 20% reduction in evapotranspiration (B. Hungate et al., unpublished data, 2000). This would cause the opposite effect on P leaching from that observed, and may have muted the response in P leaching.

Treatments could have caused reduced P availability in soils initially as a result of (i) increased P immobilization by microbes, (ii) increased P adsorption to soils, (iii) increased P uptake by vegetation, or (iv) any combi-

Table 1. Results of membrane analyses for soil-available P in 1997 and for soil-available P, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in 1999.

Nutrient	Ambient		Elevated	
	μg 10 cm <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup>			
<b>1997 (Anion membrane)</b>				
Ortho-P	1.13 ± 0.31		5.17 ± 0.84***	
<b>1999 (PRS probes)</b>				
Ortho-P	0.37 ± 0.10		0.48 ± 0.13	
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N	0.28 ± 0.03		0.22 ± 0.02*	
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N	0.18 ± 0.03		0.09 ± 0.02**	
(NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> + NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> )-N	0.46 ± 0.05		0.32 ± 0.02**	

\* Significant at the 0.10 probability level for Student's *t*-test.  
 \*\* Significant at the 0.05 probability level for Student's *t*-test.  
 \*\*\* Significant at the 0.01 probability level for Student's *t*-test.

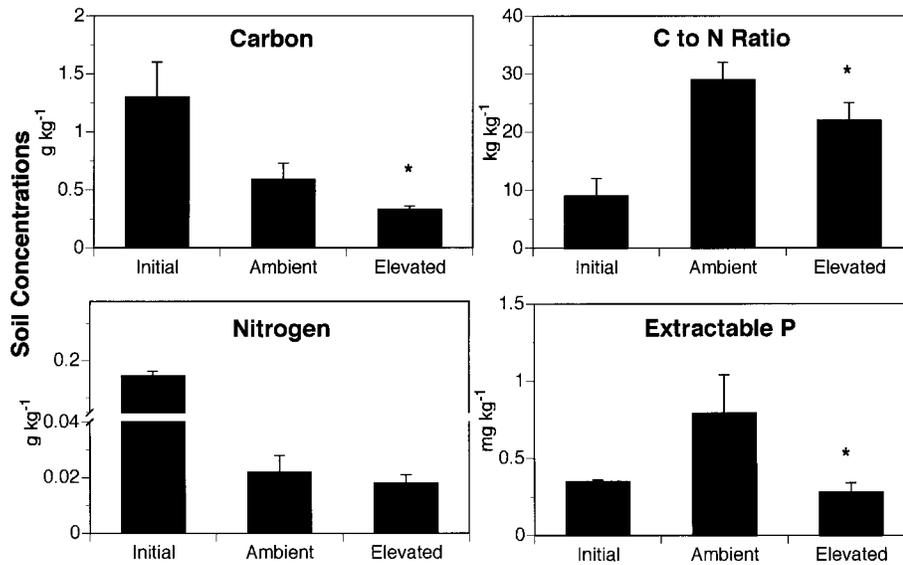


Fig. 2. Total C, total N, C to N ratio, and extractable P in homogenized buried bags retrieved after 1 yr (in 1997). \*, \*\*, and \*\*\* indicate significance at the 0.10, 0.05, and 0.01 probability levels for single factor analysis of variance (ANOVA), respectively.

nation of the above. We do not believe that microbial immobilization was a factor, given the results of Hungate et al. (1999) and Shortemeyer et al. (2000). They collectively found that there is either no effect or a reduction in microbial activity and soluble organic C with elevated CO<sub>2</sub>. As suggested by Shortemeyer et al. (2000), increased plant uptake of N under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> may have reduced the supply of N to microbes, thereby reducing microbial activity due to N limitation. Microbial P uptake would, therefore, be expected to be lower under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> as well. Certainly, the pCO<sub>2</sub> and soil respiration data gave no indication of higher microbial

activity under elevated CO<sub>2</sub>. Adsorption of P to soils could have changed if pH decreased under elevated CO<sub>2</sub>; unfortunately, we have no data to test this hypothesis but consider it unlikely. We do not as yet have data on P uptake by the biomass, but have made preliminary calculations based on biomass estimates thus far and weighted-average P concentrations from Schmalzer and Hinkle (1996) for the same vegetation type. These calculations suggest that P accumulation in above-ground vegetation at the end of the 1999 growing season was approximately 7 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> in the elevated CO<sub>2</sub> treatment and approximately 4 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> in the ambient CO<sub>2</sub>

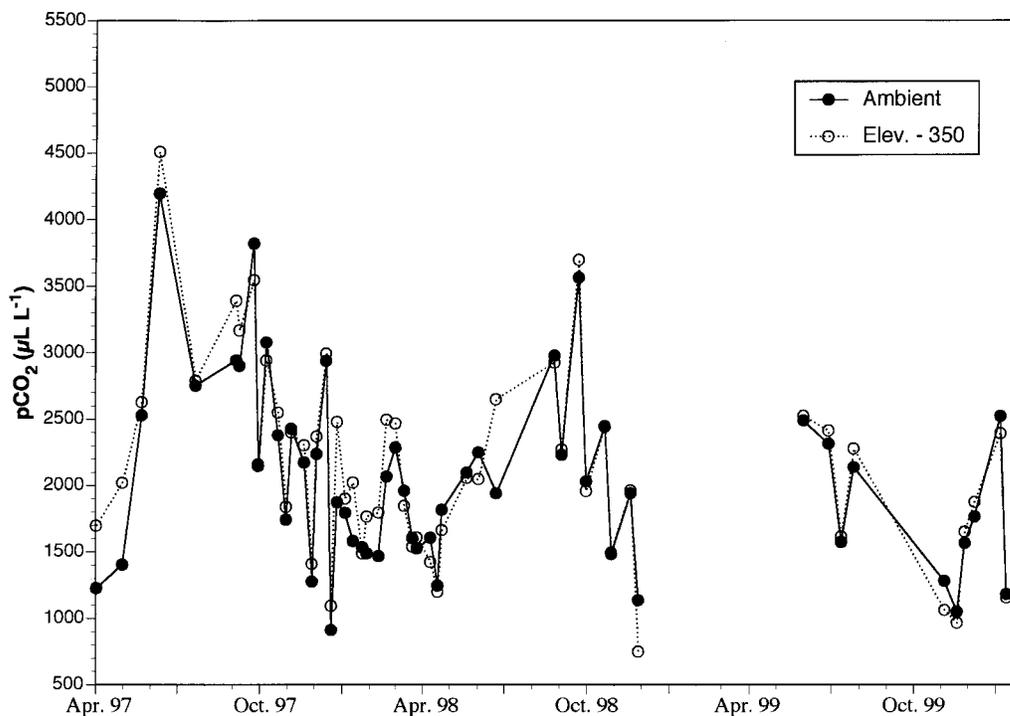


Fig. 3. Soil pCO<sub>2</sub> analyses from gas wells between April 1997 and January 2000.

treatment. Initial values for soil-extractable P (to a depth of 60 cm) combined with bulk density values from Schmalzer and Hinkle (1996) yield values of 7 to 8 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (B. Hungate, unpublished data, 2000). Some of the P accumulated in aboveground biomass could have been mobilized from surviving roots; on the other hand, roots themselves may have accumulated P from soil sources. Thus, these values suggest that plant uptake could have caused a substantial decline in soil-available P levels over this period. Belowground P uptake would add very substantially: Schmalzer and Hinkle (1996) estimated that saw palmetto rhizomes contained approximately twice as much biomass, N, and P as aboveground biomass in 2- to 4-yr-old scrub oak stands similar to the one studied here. Although plant P uptake during the first year of growth would have been very low (on the order of 1 and 2 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> in the ambient and elevated treatments, respectively), it still could have contributed to the observed treatment effects on soil-available P pools when belowground uptake is included. Thus, we hypothesize that plant uptake was the primary factor accounting for the initial treatment effects on soil-available P and for the observed overall declines in P leaching in all treatments.

The results reported in this and previous papers from this site suggest that soil-available N under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> is either equal to or (more often) lower than under ambient CO<sub>2</sub>. Hungate et al. (1999) reported that soil exchangeable NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was lower under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> in March 1997. Shortemeyer et al. (2000) reported lower N availability under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> in the summer of 1998, and the PRS probe data reported here clearly indicate lower N availability in 1999. As discussed earlier, N leaching is a function of both N availability and water flux, the latter of which may have been greater with elevated CO<sub>2</sub> because of reduced evapotranspiration (B. Hungate, personal communication, 2000). Lower NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> leaching under the elevated CO<sub>2</sub> treatment in 1997 was probably due to lower soil-available N, and the lack of differences in N leaching in other cases may have been due to the offsetting effects of N availability and soil water flux. The greatly reduced NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> leaching in 1998 (compared with 1997 and 1999) may have been due to the drought that year: total precipitation in 1998 was 839 mm compared with 1380 mm in 1997 and 1403 mm in 1999. No reductions in the leaching of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or ortho-P during 1998 were noted, however.

The results for N and P leaching in this study contrast to those obtained by Körner and Arnone (1992) for artificial tropical ecosystems. These authors found increased N and P leaching with elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and attributed this to stimulated microbial activity, causing nutrient release in excess of plant demand. On the other hand, Torbert et al. (1996) found reduced NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> leaching with elevated CO<sub>2</sub> in agroecosystems, and attributed it to reduced N release from crop residues and increased N retention in soil organic matter. In this study, we hypothesize that differences in N uptake (which would have amounted to approximately 10 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> during the first season and accumulated to a difference of approximately 90 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> by the end of the third growing season)

were the major factor causing the reduction in N leaching (which amounted to less than 0.01 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>) and availability.

The lack of response in soil pCO<sub>2</sub> or calculated respiration at any time during this study is unusual for elevated CO<sub>2</sub> experiments (Allen et al., 2000; Canadell et al., 1996; Edwards and Norby, 1999; Hungate et al., 1999; Johnson et al., 1994; Körner and Arnone, 1992; Verburg et al., 1998; Vose et al., 1995), and difficult to explain in view of the probable increase in root biomass (Day et al., 1996). Part of the reason for the lack of response in soil pCO<sub>2</sub> and respiration may have been the presence of a substantial amount of live root biomass that survived the fire and remained basically intact as the experiment began (especially saw palmetto rhizomes), masking any current treatment effects on fine root biomass or microbial activity. These surviving root systems may not yet have been affected by elevated CO<sub>2</sub>, and respiration from them could still reflect prefire biomass. On the other hand, the results of Hungate et al. (1999) and Shortemeyer et al. (2000) for this site suggest that treatment effects on microbial activity were either negligible or negative, and thus an increase in soil respiration from microbial sources does not seem likely. Further investigation is needed to reconcile the lack of soil pCO<sub>2</sub> and respiration response with other findings in this study.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Hypothesis 1 (elevated CO<sub>2</sub> would cause increased soil pCO<sub>2</sub> and soil respiration) was not supported by the results of this study: there were no treatment effects on soil pCO<sub>2</sub> or calculated soil respiration at any time. This may have been due to the presence of roots and detritus in the soil from before the fire that immediately preceded the initiation of treatment. Hypothesis 2 (elevated CO<sub>2</sub> would cause reduced levels of soil-available N and P) was only partially supported by the results of this study. Resin lysimeter data and membrane analyses suggested reduced NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in soils; however, the results of the buried bag analyses suggested the opposite (lower C to N ratios in bags buried under elevated CO<sub>2</sub>). In the case of P, both the buried bags and the membranes suggested that CO<sub>2</sub> had a negative effect of CO<sub>2</sub> on P during the first year but that this faded over time. Correspondingly, P leaching measured by resin lysimeters declined substantially over time, probably in response to increased P uptake over time in both treatments.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank David Johnson, Debra Colavito, and Julie Tripp of the Smithsonian Institution for assistance with field work and Valerie Yturiaga and Donn Geisinger of the Desert Research Institute for assistance with laboratory work. This research was supported by the Department of Energy's Terrestrial Carbon Program and by the National Science Foundation (DEB-9873715). Dr. William Knott, Chief Specialist of the NASA Kennedy Space Center Biomedical Office, is gratefully acknowledged for his continuing support of this research.

## REFERENCES

- Allen, A.A., J.A. Andrews, A.C. Finzi, R. Matamala, D.D. Richter, and W.A. Schlesinger. 2000. Effects of free-air CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment (FACE) on belowground processes in a *Pinus taeda* forest. *Ecol. Applic.* 10:437–448.
- Bernston, G.M., and F.A. Bazzaz. 1996. Belowground positive and negative feedbacks on CO<sub>2</sub> and growth enhancement. *Plant Soil* 187:119–134.
- Canadell, J.P., L.F. Pitelka, and J.S.I. Ingram. 1996. The effects of elevated [CO<sub>2</sub>] on plant–soil belowground: A summary and synthesis. *Plant Soil* 187:391–400.
- Cooperband, L.R., and T.J. Logan. 1994. Measuring in situ changes in labile phosphorus with anion-exchange membranes. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 58:105–114.
- Cotrufo, M.F., P. Ineson, and A.P. Rowland. 1994. Decomposition of tree leaf litters grown under elevated CO<sub>2</sub>: Effect of litter quality. *Plant Soil* 163:121–130.
- DataDesk. 1997. DataDesk V.6.1. DataDesk, Ithaca, NY.
- David, M.B., R.D. Fuller, I.J. Fernandez, M.J. Mitchell, L.E. Rustad, G.F. Vance, A.C. Stam, and S.C. Nodvin. 1990. Spodosol variability and assessment of response to acidic deposition. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 54:541–548.
- Day, F.P., E.P. Weber, C.R. Hinkle, and B.G. Drake. 1996. Effects of elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on fine root length and distribution in an oak-palmetto scrub ecosystem in central Florida. *Global Change Biol.* 2:143–148.
- De Jong, E., and H.J.V. Schappert. 1972. Calculation of soil respiration and activity from CO<sub>2</sub> profiles in the soil. *Soil Sci.* 119:328–333.
- De Jong, E., H.J.V. Schappert, and K.B. MacDonald. 1974. Carbon dioxide evolution from virgin and cultivated soil as affected by management practices and climate. *Can. J. Soil Sci.* 54:299–307.
- Diaz, S., J.P. Grime, J. Harris, and E. McPherson. 1993. Evidence for feedback mechanism limiting plant response to elevated carbon dioxide. *Nature* 365:616–617.
- Edwards, N.T., and R.J. Norby. 1999. Below-ground respiratory responses of sugar maple and red maple saplings to atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment and elevated air temperature. *Plant Soil* 206:85–97.
- Fishmann, M.J., and L.C. Friedman. 1985. Techniques of water-resources investigations of the United States Geological Survey. Methods for the determination of inorganic substances in water and fluvial sediments. U.S. Gov. Print. Office, Washington, DC.
- Hungate, B.A., P. Dijkstra, D.W. Johnson, C.R. Hinkle, and B.G. Drake. 1999. Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> increases nitrogen fixation and decreases soil nitrogen mineralization in Florida scrub oak. *Global Change Biol.* 5:1–9.
- Hungate, B.A., E.A. Holland, R.B. Jackson, F.S. Chapin III, C.B. Field, H.A. Mooney, and C.B. Field. 1997. The fate of carbon in grasslands under carbon dioxide enrichment. *Nature* 388:576–579.
- Johnson, D.W., J.T. Ball, and R.F. Walker. 1997. Effects of CO<sub>2</sub> and nitrogen fertilization on vegetation and soil nutrient content in juvenile ponderosa pine. *Plant Soil* 190:29–40.
- Johnson, D.W., W. Cheng, and J.T. Ball. 2000a. Effects of CO<sub>2</sub> and N fertilization on decomposition and N immobilization in ponderosa pine litter. *Plant Soil* 224:115–122.
- Johnson, D.W., W. Cheng, and J.T. Ball. 2000b. Effects of [CO<sub>2</sub>] and nitrogen fertilization on soils planted with ponderosa pine. *Plant Soil* 224:99–113.
- Johnson, D.W., D.R. Geisinger, R.F. Walker, J. Newman, J.M. Vose, K.J. Elliot, and J.T. Ball. 1994. Soil pCO<sub>2</sub>, soil respiration, and root activity in CO<sub>2</sub>-fumigated and nitrogen-fertilized ponderosa pine. *Plant Soil* 165:111–121.
- Johnson, D.W., R.F. Walker, and J.T. Ball. 1995. Combined effects of nitrogen and elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on forest soils. *Water Air Soil Pollut.* 85:1551–1556.
- Kjønass, O.A. 1999. In situ efficiency of ion exchange resins in studies of nitrogen transformation. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 63:399–409.
- Körner, C., and J.A. Arnone. 1992. Responses to elevated carbon dioxide in artificial tropical ecosystems. *Science* 257:1672–1675.
- Mailander, J.L. 1990. Climate of the Kennedy Space Center and vicinity. NASA Tech. Memorandum 103498. NASA, Kennedy Space Center, FL.
- Mattson, K.G. 1995. CO<sub>2</sub> efflux from coniferous forest soils: Comparison of measurement methods and effects of added nitrogen. p. 329–341. *In* R. Lal et al. (ed.) *Soils and global change*. Lewis Publ., Boca Raton, FL.
- Microsoft. 1998. Excel 98. Microsoft Corp., Redmond, WA.
- Moldrup, P., C.W. Kruse, D.E. Rolston, and T. Yamaguchi. 1996. Modeling diffusion and reaction in soils: III. Predicting gas diffusivity from the Campbell soil–water model. *Soil Sci.* 161:366–375.
- Norby, R.J., E.G. O'Neill, and R.J. Luxmoore. 1986. Effects of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment on the growth and mineral nutrition of *Quercus alba* seedlings in nutrient-poor soil. *Plant Physiol.* 82:83–89.
- Olsen, S.R., and L.E. Sommers. 1982. Phosphorus. p. 403–430. *In* A.L. Page et al. (ed.) *Methods of soil analysis*. Part 2. Chemical and microbiological properties. 2nd ed. Agron. Monogr. 9. ASA and SSSA, Madison, WI.
- O'Neill, E.G. 1994. Responses of soil biota to elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide. *Plant Soil* 165:55–65.
- Randlett, D.L., D.R. Zak, K.S. Pregitzer, and P.S. Curtis. 1996. Elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide and leaf litter chemistry: Influences on microbial respiration and net nitrogen mineralization. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 60:1571–1577.
- Schmaltzer, P.A., and C.R. Hinkle. 1992. Species composition and structure of oak-saw palmetto scrub vegetation. *Castanea* 57:220–251.
- Schmaltzer, P.A., and C.R. Hinkle. 1996. Biomass and nutrients in aboveground vegetation and soils of Florida oak-saw palmetto scrub. *Castanea* 61:168–193.
- Schnabel, R.R. 1983. Measuring nitrogen leaching with ion exchange resin: A laboratory assessment. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 47:1041–1042.
- Schnabel, R.R., S.R. Messier, and R.F. Purnell. 1993. An evaluation of anion exchange resin used to measure nitrate movement through soil. *Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal.* 24:863–879.
- Shortemeyer, M., P. Dijkstra, D.W. Johnson, and B.G. Drake. 2000. Effects of elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on C and N pools and rhizosphere processes in a Florida scrub oak community. *Global Change Biol.* 6:383–391.
- Sibbesen, E. 1978. An investigation of the anion-exchange resin method for soil phosphate extraction. *Plant Soil.* 50:305–321.
- Susfalk, R.B. 2000. Relationships of soil-extractable and plant-available phosphorus in forest soils of the eastern Sierra Nevada. Ph.D. diss. Univ. of Nevada, Reno.
- Torbert, H.A., and C.B. Elkins. 1992. Determining differential water movement through ion exchange resin for nitrate leaching measurements. *Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal.* 23:1043–1052.
- Torbert, H.A., S.A. Prior, H.H. Rogers, W.H. Schlesinger, G.L. Mullins, and G.B. Runion. 1996. Elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide in agroecosystems affects groundwater quality. *J. Environ. Qual.* 25:720–726.
- Verburg, P.S.J., A. Gorissen, and W.J. Arp. 1998. Carbon allocation and decomposition of root-derived organic matter in a plant–soil system of *Calluna vulgaris* as affected by elevated CO<sub>2</sub>. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 30:2151–2158.
- Vose, J.M., K.J. Elliot, D.W. Johnson, F.R. Walker, M.G. Johnson, and D.T. Tingey. 1995. Effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and N fertilization on soil respiration from ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa* Dougl. ex Laws). *Can. J. For. Res.* 25:1243–1251.
- Zak, D.R., K.S. Pregitzer, P.S. Curtis, J.A. Teeri, R. Fogel, and D.L. Randlett. 1993. Elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and feedback between carbon and nitrogen cycles. *Plant Soil* 151:105–117.