

1 **Nitrous oxide consumption potentials of well-drained forest soils in**
2 **southern Québec, Canada**

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18 Running Title: N₂O consumption in forest soils

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21 denitrification; N₂O fluxes

22 **ABSTRACT**

23 To establish the major controls on N₂O consumption by forest soils, we conducted
24 laboratory incubations of sixteen samples from four soil types, two organic and two
25 mineral, varying in overlying forest vegetation (sugar maple, American beech and eastern
26 hemlock). The fastest potential consumption of N₂O occurred under anoxic conditions
27 with little soil nitrate and under elevated headspace N₂O concentration. Potential N₂O
28 consumption rates were fastest in organic soils under hemlock and beech trees (111 and
29 75 ng N₂O-N g⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively) compared to mineral soils under beech and maple trees
30 (45 and 41 ng N₂O-N g⁻¹ d⁻¹). Organic soils showed faster N₂O consumption rates than
31 mineral soils, possibly due to larger organic C levels and higher C:N ratios. Acetylene
32 treatment confirmed that denitrification was the process underlying N₂O consumption.
33 These results suggest that soils regularly consume N₂O with varying magnitude, most
34 likely in anoxic microsites throughout the soil profile and that the potential for N₂O
35 consumption is larger in organic than in mineral forest soils.

36

37 **INTRODUCTION**

38 Soils emit nitrous oxide (N₂O), a greenhouse gas, into the atmosphere and account
39 for 10 of the 16 Tg nitrogen (N) of the total N₂O released into the atmosphere each year
40 (IPCC 2001; IPCC 2007). Approximately 4 Tg comes from agricultural soils, thus of
41 anthropogenic origin, while the remaining 6 Tg are attributed to emissions from soils
42 under natural ecosystems (IPCC 2001; IPCC 2007). Although forest soils are net sources
43 of N₂O to the atmosphere, there is evidence that soils may also consume atmospheric
44 N₂O (Arah *et al.* 1991).

45 The capacity of soils to act as sources or sinks of N₂O is the result of dynamic
46 microbial processes of consumption and production occurring within the soil profile
47 (Chapuis-Lardy *et al.* 2007). Denitrification and nitrification are the two dominant
48 mechanisms of N₂O production; other biological and abiological processes (such as
49 assimilatory and dissimilatory nitrate reduction and chemodenitrification) are thought to
50 contribute < 1% of N₂O emissions (Chapuis-Lardy *et al.* 2007). The mechanisms of N₂O
51 consumption in soils are less well studied and both atmospheric N₂O and locally
52 produced N₂O can be taken up by soils and reduced to N₂ as the last step in the
53 denitrification process, owing to the N₂O reductase enzyme (named Nos; Chapuis-Lardy
54 *et al.* 2007). Nitrifiers have also been shown to play a role in N₂O consumption by
55 reducing NO₂ to N₂, a process called nitrifier denitrification (Megonigal *et al.* 2004).
56 Alternative processes of consumption have also been suggested, including aerobic
57 denitrification and assimilatory reduction to ammonia (NH₃) (Chapuis-Lardy *et al.* 2007,
58 Vieten *et al.* 2008).

59 There is a lack of knowledge of the potential for and the controllers of N₂O
60 consumption in forest soils, though mechanisms have been identified. Few studies have
61 investigated N₂O consumption directly, yet many focusing on emissions have
62 nevertheless cited negative fluxes (from the atmosphere to the soil), which have often
63 gone unexplained (Chapuis-Lardy *et al.* 2007). Additionally, even where net emission is
64 observed, consumption processes can exert a significant effect on its magnitude (Arah *et*
65 *al.* 1991). Much of the uncertainty leading to the large range in estimated forest soil
66 emissions is related to the possibility of an underestimation of the potential for N₂O
67 consumption, which could depress estimated emissions (Ullah *et al.* 2008).

68 In other work complementary to the present study, at two deciduous forest sites in
69 southern Quebec, Mont St. Hilaire (MSH) and Morgan Arboretum (MA), we measured
70 soil N₂O fluxes along hill slope catenas. While overall N₂O emission has been observed
71 from the forest soils over the growing season, net consumption of N₂O was observed
72 from well-drained soils at both sites during several summer sampling dates in 2006,
73 particularly in June and July, though the rates remained small (Unpublished data). N₂O
74 consumption rates ranged from 3.1 ± 1 to 6.0 ± 0.5 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ in well-drained
75 soils under American beech (*Fagus grandifolia*) and sugar maple (*Acer saccharum*) at the
76 MSH and MA sites, ranging from 0.1 to 22 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ in these soils. Overall, there
77 was a net emission of N₂O to the atmosphere from well-drained soils under American
78 beech and sugar maple, averaging 3.0 ± 0.7 and 5.4 ± 0.3 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively,
79 when N₂O consumption rates were included in the calculation. When consumption rates
80 were excluded from the calculation, net emissions rates averaged 5.5 ± 0.5 and 6.5 ± 0.6
81 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively (Unpublished data). Chapuis-Lardy *et al.* (2007) cited two
82 studies in which N₂O consumption was observed in temperate deciduous forests, with
83 rates ranging from 0.6 to 66 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ (Dong *et al.* 1998, Goossens *et al.* 2001).
84 This suggests that N₂O consumption through denitrification is occurring within soils and
85 can have significant impacts on net and average fluxes of N₂O from the soils.

86 The range of environmental factors influencing N₂O fluxes from these soils is
87 broad, including both biogeochemical factors, such as NO₃, NH₄, and organic C
88 availability, as well as physical factors such as soil texture, porosity, moisture, and
89 temperature (Megonigal *et al.* 2004, Chapuis-Lardy *et al.* 2007, Ullah *et al.* 2008). These
90 factors may affect the soil microbial populations, favoring certain functional groups and
91 processes over others (Megonigal *et al.* 2004), as well as differences among topographic
92 position and forest type (Ullah *et al.* 2008). Knowledge of the ways in which these
93 factors control N₂O fluxes in different soils is incomplete, particularly as related to
94 consumption processes (Chapuis-Lardy *et al.* 2007); in general, factors that limit N₂O
95 diffusion appear to encourage consumption, including low mineral N levels and high
96 moisture contents, suggesting denitrification as a principal mechanism for this
97 consumption (Bandibas *et al.* 1994, Megonigal *et al.* 2004). In addition, the enzyme
98 responsible for N₂O reduction in denitrifiers (Nos) is known to be particularly sensitive to

99 pH and oxygen (O₂) (Chapuis-Lardy *et al.* 2007).

100 We hypothesized that a) wet soil conditions and anaerobic processes impose N₂O
101 consumption in these forest soils through denitrification; b) that soils with low available
102 mineral N as substrate for N₂O production during denitrification under anoxic conditions
103 may force full reduction and uptake of atmospheric N₂O; and c) that high organic C
104 contents in the soil may increase microbially available energy stores and encourage
105 atmospheric N₂O consumption, when soils undergo NO₃ limitation. To test these
106 hypotheses, we measured potential N₂O consumption rates in sixteen soil samples
107 collected from 4 soil types [two organic and two mineral] in the MSH and MA sites in
108 laboratory incubations under elevated headspace N₂O concentrations to establish their
109 potentials for N₂O consumption and to identify key conditions that favor this
110 consumption.

111

112 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

113 **Study Sites**

114 The two sites used in this study are representative of southern Québec mixed
115 deciduous forest with a combination of tree species: American beech, sugar maple,
116 yellow birch (*Betula alleghaniensis*), striped maple (*Acer pensylvanicum*), white ash
117 (*Fraxinus americana*) and eastern hemlock (*Tsuga canadensis*). The Mont St. Hilaire site
118 is located within an old growth forest occurring on one of the Monteregian hills,
119 approximately 30 km east of Montreal. Two types of well-drained soils were sampled at
120 this site: a sandy loam Brunisol underlying beech-dominated stands and a Podzol
121 underlying hemlock-dominated stands, referred to as ‘beech’ and ‘hemlock’, respectively.
122 The Morgan Arboretum site occurs in semi-managed forest located on the western tip of
123 the island of Montreal. Sugar maple is the dominant tree species at this site, overlying
124 well-drained, sandy loam soils referred to as ‘maple’.

125

126 **Soil collection and preparation**

127 Four plots (1 m² each) were randomly selected for each of the three soils. In
128 November 2007, soil cores (10 cm diameter) were taken randomly from each of four
129 plots to a depth of 10 cm and bulked, transferred to the laboratory and refrigerated until

130 further analysis. While the upper 10 cm of the maple (mineral) and hemlock (organic)
131 soils showed no soil horizon change, the beech soils contained an organic horizon (O-
132 horizon) overlying the mineral soil horizon (A-horizon). For these beech cores, the soil
133 was separated into the organic (0 to 5 cm) and mineral (5 to 10 cm) horizons for separate
134 analysis. The four resulting soils used in this study are: beech mineral, beech organic,
135 hemlock organic and maple mineral. Each of the 16 soil samples (4 plots each for 4 soil
136 types) was homogenized manually and sieved (< 2 mm), then analyzed for soil moisture
137 and pH in water and extracted and analyzed for total dissolved N (TDN), dissolved
138 organic C (DOC), NO₃ and NH₄ contents, as described in Ullah *et al.* (2008). Samples
139 collected from 4 sampling points in each plot for N₂O consumption incubation and soil
140 analysis incorporated the spatial variability within each plot.

141

142 **Soil Leaching and Pre-incubations**

143 Soil leaching and pre-incubations were performed in January 2008 on field moist
144 soil samples collected from the four locations in the two watersheds to create conditions
145 that favor N₂O consumption hypothesized above, including NO₃ limitation and anoxic
146 conditions, before testing individual hypotheses under 8 treatments. To leach NO₃, 30 g
147 of a soil at a time was leached by gravity in 60 ml syringes with the plungers removed
148 and a Whatman GF/D filter placed at the tip. Three sequential washes of 15 ml de-ionized
149 water (DI) were passed through the soils before returning them to field moisture
150 conditions by applying pressure with the syringe plungers. Leachates were collected to
151 ensure that soils were returned to field moisture conditions; these leachates were
152 subsequently acidified and analyzed for DOC and TDN contents. After leaching, 15 g of
153 soils was weighed into 150 ml serum bottles and 20 ml of DI was added. The bottles were
154 capped tight, flushed with oxygen-free N₂ gas for 1 hour to induce anoxic conditions and
155 incubated at room temperature for 5 days to further exhaust soil NO₃ through
156 denitrification. Gas samples for N₂O concentration determination were collected from the
157 headspace of the pre-incubated leached soil samples at 0, 24, 72 and 120 hours for one set
158 of incubations, to test for the expected NO₃-depletion process occurring in the soils.

159 After leaching and pre-incubation, soils were incubated under 8 treatments,
160 including 6 treatments applied to the leached and pre-incubated soil samples, 1 treatment

161 to unleached but pre-incubated samples and 1 treatment to unleached and not pre-
162 incubated soil. A brief description and rationale of each treatment follows, with the
163 procedures used:

164 *1 Baseline*

165 This treatment involved incubation of leached and pre-incubated soils under
166 elevated headspace N₂O concentrations to investigate if NO₃ limitation and anoxic
167 conditions would result in larger potential N₂O consumption rates. 15 g of leached and
168 pre-incubated soil was weighed into a 150 ml serum bottle, followed by the addition of
169 20 ml of DI water. The bottles were capped with a gas-tight septa, flushed with oxygen-
170 free N₂ gas for 1 hour to induce anoxic condition. After flushing, the headspace N₂O
171 concentration in the bottles was raised to 2 ppm to ensure unlimited supply of N₂O and be
172 able to quantify potential N₂O consumption rates. The incubation was performed on soil
173 slurries on a rotary shaker at 75 rpm to encourage equilibrium solubility of the headspace
174 gases. The incubation period lasted 24 hours, with 5 cm³ gas samples taken at 0, 6, 12
175 and 24 hours, stored in pre-evacuated glass vials until analysis for N₂O concentration on
176 a Shimadzu 14-A gas chromatograph equipped with a 6 m long porapak Q column and
177 an electron capture detector. The end of the the GC column had a 4 valve electronic
178 Valco Valve attached to it, which was timed to vent off separated O₂ coming out of
179 column to avoid loss in the detector sensitivity for N₂O detection. Once the O₂ was vented
180 off, the valve switched back and directed the subsequently separated N₂O in the column
181 into the detector. The column temperature was adjusted to 60 °C and that of the detector
182 to 310 °C. Rate of N₂O consumption or emission was calculated from the change in
183 concentration over the sampling duration using a linear equation obtained through a
184 calibration curve of known N₂O standards.

185 *2 Glucose-amended*

186 This treatment repeats the baseline conditions, with an additional amendment of
187 glucose (approx. 0.8 mg C/g dry soil) to identify the effects of increased C availability,
188 delivered through a needle-fitted syringe to distribute the solution evenly throughout the
189 soil slurry.

190 *3 NO₃-amended*

191 This treatment repeats the baseline conditions, with an additional amendment of KNO₃

192 solution (approx. 15 $\mu\text{g NO}_3\text{-N /g dry soil}$), delivered through a needle-fitted syringe.
193 This treatment is a test of whether N_2O consumption is reduced when inorganic N is
194 readily available.

195 *4 Unleached*

196 This treatment repeats the baseline conditions on soils, which were unleached, but pre-
197 incubated to isolate the effects of this method of N-limitation.

198 *5 No N_2O amendment*

199 This treatment repeats the baseline conditions, excluding amendment of bottle
200 headspaces with N_2O , with headspace composed entirely of N_2 gas.

201 *6 Field moisture, aerobic*

202 This treatment is designed to remove the gas diffusion limitation imposed in the baseline
203 incubation. This was done by incubating the soils at field moisture instead of under slurry
204 conditions and under aerobic headspace conditions (but still amended with N_2O). Soils in
205 this treatment were unleached and not pre-incubated.

206 *7 Unleached, field moisture, no N_2O amendment*

207 This treatment represents field conditions, with unleached soils incubated at field
208 moisture under aerobic and unamended conditions with ambient air headspace.

209 *8 Acetylene-amended*

210 This treatment repeats the baseline conditions but with the additional amendment of 10%
211 acetylene in the headspace to inhibit the reduction of N_2O to N_2 and block nitrification,
212 thereby isolating the role of denitrification and confirming that N_2O consumption
213 occurred through denitrification and not nitrification.

214

215 **Statistical analysis**

216 The gas flux from each bottle was calculated as the slope of the linear regression
217 line best fitting the sample points over 24 hours. Average consumption or emission rates
218 and standard errors were calculated based on the four replicates for each soil type and
219 treatment. A small constant (the value of the largest emission) was added to each one to
220 render all values positive; values were then log-transformed to meet the assumption of
221 normality. These values were compared by ANOVA and Fisher LSD using Statistica 6,
222 both for differences in fluxes within soil type, by treatment, and among soil types, for

223 each treatment. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated in SAS 9.1.

224

225 **RESULTS**

226 The hemlock organic soil sample had the highest DOC content ($321 \mu\text{g C g}^{-1}$ dry
227 soil), followed by beech organic ($180 \mu\text{g C g}^{-1}$ dry soil), with beech and maple mineral
228 samples having the lowest DOC content (49 and $41 \mu\text{g C g}^{-1}$ dry soil, respectively; Table
229 1). The same trend is observed for TDN, with the hemlock organic soil having the highest
230 content ($17.8 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ dry soil) and maple the lowest ($5.7 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ dry soil). In terms of
231 NO_3 and NH_4 contents, however, the hemlock organic soil had the lowest values (0.9 and
232 $3.1 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ dry soil, respectively), with beech mineral (3.7 and $5.9 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ dry soil) and
233 organic (3.4 and $5.6 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ dry soil) exhibiting the highest contents of both ions, trailed
234 by maple mineral, which showed slightly lower contents (2.7 and $5.0 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ dry soil).
235 Leaching slightly reduced DOC and TDN contents for all soils, though the hemlock
236 organic soil showed a large reduction in DOC content ($80 \mu\text{g C g}^{-1}$ dry soil) with leaching
237 (Table 1).

238 N_2O exchange from pre-incubated soils was low, ranging from a net emission of
239 $0.22 \text{ ng N}_2\text{O-N g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ from the hemlock soil to a net consumption of $1.8 \text{ ng N}_2\text{O-N g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$
240 from the beech mineral soil. Pre-incubated leached soils showed significantly smaller
241 N_2O fluxes than those incubated under elevated headspace N_2O (Fig. 1). Substantial net
242 N_2O consumption was observed in the soils under the conditions hypothesized to
243 facilitate N_2O reduction: treatment 1 with anoxic conditions and with 2 ppm N_2O -
244 amended headspace (Fig. 1). The greatest potential for N_2O consumption was found in
245 the hemlock organic soil, with a consumption of $111 \text{ ng N}_2\text{O-N g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Fig. 1c),
246 significantly larger ($p < 0.05$) than the beech organic soil with $74.5 \text{ ng N}_2\text{O-N g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Fig.
247 1 b). The N_2O consumption rate was significantly slower in the two mineral soils: beech
248 ($45.2 \text{ ng N}_2\text{O-N g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) and maple ($40.7 \text{ ng N}_2\text{O-N g}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$, Fig. 1a, d).

249 When soils were incubated at field moisture or under aerobic conditions, the N_2O
250 consumption rate decreased greatly in all soils, even in the presence of high
251 concentrations of N_2O in the headspace (treatments 6 and 7, Fig. 1). When the headspace
252 remained unamended with N_2O , most soils switched to slow rates of N_2O emission,
253 despite saturated and anoxic conditions (Treatment 5). For the incubation at field

254 moisture, under aerobic, unamended conditions, the average fluxes were near-zero for all
255 soils (Incubation 7). Leaching with H₂O appeared to slightly increase the potential for
256 N₂O consumption for most soils, but the average flux was significantly different from
257 that of the unleached soils only for the beech mineral soil (Treatment 4, Fig. 1a).

258 The addition of organic C in the form of glucose (treatment 2) yielded a slightly
259 faster N₂O consumption rate in the two beech soils, but was statistically indistinguishable
260 from the baseline treatment 1 for all soils (Fig. 1). The addition of NO₃ solution to the
261 soils clearly decreased the N₂O consumption rate for all soils, though not significantly
262 (treatment 3). The addition of headspace acetylene (treatment 8) resulted in near-zero
263 N₂O fluxes in all soils, canceling the strong consumption observed in treatment 1 and was
264 statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) in all cases.

265 There were few significant differences in N₂O fluxes among the four soils for
266 each treatment: significant ($p < 0.05$) differences occurred only in treatments 1, 2 and 4,
267 with the hemlock and beech organic soils generally with the largest potential
268 consumption rates (Fig. 1).

269 A correlation analysis revealed that the potential N₂O consumption rates under
270 treatment 1 are significantly and negatively correlated with both DOC and original soil
271 moisture, suggesting that soils with higher C contents and field moisture levels have a
272 greater capacity to consume N₂O (Table 2). In addition, TDN showed a similar negative
273 correlation with N₂O fluxes, though only significant at the 10% level.

274

275 **DISCUSSION**

276 The strong potential N₂O consumption rates obtained from the baseline incubation
277 reveal that these well-drained forest soils have a significant capacity for N₂O reduction
278 under conditions of anoxia and N limitation. Though conditions in this laboratory study
279 are incomparable in many ways to field conditions, the occurrence of potential N₂O
280 consumption rates at such magnitude suggests that these processes could play a
281 significant role in determining net fluxes of N₂O from the soils, even though these soils
282 are weak net sources of N₂O throughout most of the growing season. This result suggest a
283 need for *in situ* N₂O consumption studies and the inclusion of N₂O reduction processes in
284 the consideration of N cycling and gas fluxes in these soils, and forest soils in general.

285 The conditions which facilitated N₂O reduction in this study included: a) the
286 imposition of enhanced N₂O consumption, through anaerobiosis and soil water
287 saturation; b) low availability of electron acceptors, notably NO₃, achieved by leaching
288 and pre-incubating soils; and c) high organic C contents to encourage reduction of N₂O as
289 an alternate electron acceptor. The baseline incubation (treatment 1) showed that the
290 combination of these factors yielded significant consumption in all four soils, both
291 mineral and organic. The near-zero N₂O fluxes obtained under conditions similar to those
292 in the field (treatment 7) represented a clear contrast to the baseline incubation. The
293 remaining six treatments served to identify the effect of the different variables on
294 potential N₂O consumption.

295 The glucose addition (treatment 2) increased N₂O consumption levels only (and
296 then not statistically significant) in the beech soils, both organic and mineral. Soil C:N
297 ratios (Table 1) influenced N₂O consumption, where beech and hemlock showed faster
298 consumption rates and their C:N ratios were larger than those of soils under sugar maple.
299 Cavigelli and Robertson (2001) also noted that the Nos enzyme is particularly sensitive to
300 a low C:N ratio and stated that the organic C level in a soil is an important factor for soil
301 denitrifier populations. This might explain the low baseline N₂O consumption of the
302 maple mineral soil, as well as the absence of an increase in consumption upon glucose
303 amendment. The hemlock organic soil may not have shown increased N₂O consumption
304 upon glucose addition, owing to the high DOC levels of organic C in these soils. Larger
305 nitrification rates in soils under the sugar maple compared to those under American beech
306 and hemlock in these plots may have led to the evolution of denitrifiers with low affinity
307 for N₂O consumption in soils under sugar maple trees (Ullah and Moore, 2009).
308 Additionally, *in situ* N₂O consumption rates in soils under American beech were 2 times
309 larger than under sugar maple in these sites (Ullah and Moore, in prep). We hypothesize
310 that soils with larger soil C content and C:N ratio in deciduous forests consume more
311 N₂O than soils under smaller C:N ratios. We suggest further microbial studies to validate
312 this hypothesis under field conditions.

313 Our strong correlation between N₂O consumption and extractable DOC
314 concentration, within the limited range of soils, is consistent with reports on the
315 importance of organic C (as well as moisture, oxygen, disturbance and pH levels) in

316 determining N₂O consumption potentials, which may also reflect differences in microbial
317 communities among soil types (Parkin 1987, Cavigelli and Robertson 2001, Wallenstein
318 *et al.* 2006). Given the limited, non-significant increases in N₂O consumption upon
319 glucose amendment in the beech soils, further experiments are needed to determine
320 whether different and larger organic C amendments would have a significant effect, or
321 whether the microbial populations present in the soils limit the response over the 24-hour
322 incubation period.

323 The addition of NO₃ (treatment 3) and the incubation of unleached soils
324 (treatment 4) were performed to contrast N₂O consumption with those of the baseline
325 incubation (treatment 1), where an effort was made to eliminate as much NO₃ from the
326 soils as possible. This was to test whether denitrifiers will turn to an alternate, though less
327 energetically favorable electron acceptor, the N₂O provided through headspace
328 amendment (Bandibas *et al.* 1994), a technique of limiting the availability of electron
329 acceptors successfully employed in other studies (e.g. Firestone *et al.* 1980, Holtan-
330 Hartwig *et al.* 2000). This hypothesis was supported by our results, showing a decreasing
331 trend, although not statistically significant at $p < 0.05$, in treatments 3 and 4 (Figure 1).
332 The near-zero N₂O fluxes in pre-incubation conditions support the hypothesis that this
333 treatment lowered NO₃ in the soil, allowing the uptake and reduction of N₂O as an
334 alternate electron acceptor in the following treatments. Leaching the soils clearly
335 depressed total N levels in all cases (Table 1). The differences in N₂O consumption
336 between the leached, pre-incubated soils and the same soils with NO₃ added, reflect the
337 control of NO₃-availability: adding NO₃ after leaching and pre-incubating the soils
338 effectively cancels out the effect of the initial leaching. There was a decrease in N₂O
339 consumption by about one third upon NO₃ addition in the beech soils, whereas the effect
340 was less pronounced in the hemlock and maple soils.

341 Thus, while NO₃ availability is significant, other conditions such as anaerobiosis,
342 moisture and N₂O play key roles in determining whether N₂O consumption will occur.
343 The correlation between low NO₃ levels and N₂O consumption is widely cited, but most
344 studies go on to describe the conditions of anaerobiosis and saturation as predominantly
345 important (Blackmer and Bremner 1976, Firestone *et al.* 1980, Bandibas *et al.* 1994,
346 Holtan-Hartwig *et al.* 2000, Rosenkranz *et al.* 2006, Wallenstein *et al.* 2006). A possible

347 reason why a major decrease in N₂O consumption was not observed in treatments 3 and 4
348 is that the NO₃ was quickly exhausted, leading to a NO₃-limitation similar to that of the
349 baseline and creating larger N₂O consumption later during the 24-hour incubation.
350 Firestone *et al.* (1980) suggested that Nos enzyme could be sequentially produced during
351 the incubation, resulting first in an increase and then a decrease in headspace N₂O
352 concentration. We recommend further studies with ¹⁵N tracers to validate this hypothesis.

353 Excess N₂O appears to be critical in its consumption as an alternate electron
354 receptor upon NO₃-limitation (Mei *et al.* 2004). This is reflected in treatment 5, without
355 the N₂O headspace amendment, where, for all but the hemlock soil, there was a small
356 N₂O production (Fig. 1) indicating that, all other conditions being equal, when N₂O is not
357 abundantly available in the soil pore spaces, N₂O consumption will likely be small, or is
358 severely limited. The leaching and pre-incubation is effective at reducing available NO₃
359 as a substrate for denitrification but the small rates of N₂O indicate that complete
360 reduction to N₂ (and thus N₂O consumption) may be limited due to lower soil pore space
361 N₂O concentrations. Indeed, the lack of substrates for denitrifiers under treatment 5 likely
362 limited their activity in either the production or consumption, resulting in the fluxes. For
363 the hemlock soil, the large standard error makes the interpretation of the small
364 consumption rates for this incubation ambiguous, but perhaps suggests that complete
365 reduction can occur under these circumstances, if enough organic C is available to
366 encourage microbial activity, but this is variable and ephemeral. Fast denitrification rates
367 are often associated with high organic C in soils (Parkin 1987, Wrage *et al.* 2001) and
368 more work could be done to establish the effect of varying the headspace N₂O
369 concentrations, from 2 ppm (treatment 1) to ambient.

370 In treatment 6, soils were incubated aerobically and at field moisture to identify
371 the effect of anoxic conditions, resulting in a significant decrease in N₂O consumption.
372 Anoxic conditions play a critical role in N₂O consumption in soils, for which there is
373 support in the literature:

374 a) When oxygen is allowed to diffuse into the soil, denitrifier activity and Nos activity in
375 particular are impeded and restricted to microsites of anoxia (Firestone *et al.* 1979,
376 Bandibas *et al.* 1994, Cavigelli and Robertson 2001).

377 b) Low moisture allows greater gas diffusion into and out of the soil profile and any

378 remaining NO_3 reduced to N_2O is able to diffuse out of the soil without further reduction
379 to N_2 , whereas higher moisture content facilitates N_2O entrapment and reduction to N_2
380 (Clough *et al.* 2005; Ullah *et al.* 2005).

381 c) N_2O present in the headspace diffuses into the soil profile more easily under low
382 moisture conditions, which paradoxically may tend to encourage consumption in the drier
383 soils by increasing the availability of the N_2O as a substrate in the redox chain (Bandibas
384 *et al.* 2004). This could be the reason why N_2O fluxes remained negative, though reduced
385 in magnitude, in treatment 6. This effect is evidenced further in treatment 7, where in
386 addition to the removal of the gas diffusion limitation, the N_2O headspace amendment is
387 removed (as well as leaching), and fluxes diminish to near-zero or slight production.
388 Clough *et al.* (2005) suggest that this is due to the decreased time in which potential
389 reduction can occur under low moisture conditions because of increased gas diffusion and
390 prevalence of oxic conditions in soil profile.

391 d) Though the presence of anoxic conditions appears to exert a stronger control over N_2O
392 consumption than NO_3 availability, the NO_3 -limitation is likely required initially to
393 encourage N_2O consumption as the predominant denitrifier activity in anoxic, saturated
394 conditions, as suggested in treatments 3 and 4. The two controls are interdependent, and
395 their importance can both be traced to the availability of the various reactants in the
396 denitrification redox chain, which in all cases is concentration and diffusion-dependent.

397 The addition of acetylene in treatment 8 inhibited the reduction of N_2O to N_2 and
398 removed the strong N_2O consumption under treatment 1 (Schuster and Conrad 1992).
399 This eliminates the possibility that other factors, such as simple diffusion into soil water,
400 is causing the decrease in concentration of N_2O in the headspace over the incubation
401 period, confirming that the N_2O is in fact being reduced to N_2 through denitrification.
402 Denitrification is clearly implicated as the process by which this reduction occurs under
403 baseline conditions since the acetylene amendment also inhibits nitrification processes.
404 N_2O is not accumulating in the headspace, implying that the N_2O being reduced in
405 treatment 1 was primarily amended headspace N_2O through denitrification.

406 These well-drained soils are capable of consuming N_2O , so the summer field
407 consumption that first motivated this study are likely not anomalous. Although great care
408 needs to be taken in extrapolating these results to field conditions, the potential for N_2O

409 consumption in the field likely results from denitrification processes occurring in isolated
410 anoxic, wet microsites within the soil, where locally produced N₂O can be retained and
411 reduced to N₂. This N₂O consumption is usually not detectable in the field as emission
412 rates are slow emissions, though the emission rate may be decreased by N₂O
413 consumption (Ullah *et al.* in prep.). Net field N₂O consumption could be anticipated after
414 heavy rainfall, where soils are strongly NO₃-limited and with large organic C contents
415 (Seitzinger *et al.* 2006).

416

417 **CONCLUSIONS**

418 Well-drained forest soils in southern Québec exhibited potential N₂O
419 consumption through denitrification when incubated under anoxic and saturated moisture
420 conditions, and when amended with high levels of atmospheric N₂O. Mineral N
421 limitation within the soils likely stimulated the reduction of N₂O to N₂. Organic soils
422 showed generally greater N₂O consumption potentials than mineral soils. Conditions
423 favoring N₂O consumption may occur in wet, anaerobic microsites within the soil profile,
424 and such consumption processes could bear significantly on the net flux of N₂O from
425 these soils. Our results also suggest that soil with larger soil C:N ratios exhibiting lower
426 nitrification rates may possess higher affinity for N₂O consumption than soils with
427 smaller ratios.

428

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516 **TABLES**

517 Table 1. Chemical properties of the 4 soil types and leaf litter input and litter C:N ratio.

Variables	Beech mineral	Beech organic	Hemlock organic	Maple mineral
pH	4.7 ± 0.5	4.7 ± 0.5	4.5 ± 0.39	5.5 ± 0.03
Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)	0.99 ± 0.21	0.56 ± 0.10	0.48 ± 0.1	1.19 ± 0.04
DOC (µg C g ⁻¹ dry soil)	49 ± 2	180 ± 18	321 ± 29	41 ± 2
DOC leached (µg C g ⁻¹ dry soil)	45 ± 2	150 ± 14	241 ± 18	36 ± 2
TDN (µg N g ⁻¹ dry soil)	8.5 ± 2.4	15.6 ± 2.3	17.7 ± 0.9	5.7 ± 2.3
TDN leached (µg N g ⁻¹ dry soil)	8 ± 2.3	12.1 ± 1.1	14.4 ± 0.7	4.8 ± 1.3
NO ₃ (µg N g ⁻¹ dry soil)	3.7	3.4	0.9	2.7
NH ₄ (µg N g ⁻¹ dry soil)	5.9	5.6	3.1	5
Soil C:N ratio (0-10 cm depth)		26 ± 1.3*	25 ± 1.5	16 ± 0.7
Leaf litter N input (g m ⁻²)		4.6 ± 1.4**	1.9 ± 0.3	4.9 ± 0.1
Leaf litter fall C:N ratio		61 ± 6**	71 ± 3	52 ± 0

518

519 * C:N ratio in soils under beech trees represent an average of both organic and mineral layer as only a 0-10 cm depth sample was
520 taken for this purpose. ** Represents total litter N input on the soil surface and its C:N ratio.

521 Table 2. Pearson correlation coefficient (r) between the properties of the four soils (see
 522 Table 1) and the N₂O consumption rate under treatment 1. Coefficients with p -values that
 523 are significant at the 5% level are listed in **bold** text and those at the 10% level are
 524 *italicized*.
 525

	N ₂ O flux	DOC	TDN	NO ₃	NH ₄	pH	Bulk density
N ₂ O flux	-						
DOC	-1.00	-					
TDN	<i>-0.92</i>	<i>0.94</i>	-				
NO ₃	0.82	-0.78	-0.52	-			
NH ₄	0.83	-0.80	-0.55	1.00	-		
pH	0.63	-0.67	-0.85	0.10	0.13	-	
Bulk density	0.71	-0.73	-0.83	0.30	0.34	<i>0.94</i>	-
Field soil moisture	-0.97	0.98	0.97	-0.68	-0.70	-0.79	-0.85

526

527

528 **FIGURES**

529 **Figure 1.** Average N₂O exchange rates (\pm standard error) for the four soil samples under
530 the Pre-incubation and the 8 treatments: 1 Baseline; 2 Glucose-amended; 3 NO₃-
531 amended; 4 Unleached; 5 No N₂O amendment; 6 Field moisture, aerobic; 7 Unleached,
532 field moisture, no N₂O amendment; 8 Acetylene-amended. Negative values indicate
533 consumption by the soil. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among treatments
534 for each soil for are indicated by lower case lettering and among the four soils under
535 treatments 1, 2, 3 and 4 are indicated by bold upper case lettering.

