

Soil surface CO₂ flux in a Minnesota peatland¹

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Abstract. Soil surface CO₂ flux was measured in hollow and hummock microhabitats in a peatland in north central Minnesota from June to October in 1991. We used a closed infrared gas exchange system to measure soil CO₂ flux. The rates of CO₂ evolution from hummocks ($9.8 \pm 3.5 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, [mean \pm SE]) were consistently higher than those from hollows ($5.4 \pm 2.9 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) (the hummock values included the contribution of moss dark respiration, which may account for 10–20% of the total measured flux). The soil CO₂ flux was strongly temperature-dependent ($Q_{10} \approx 3.7$) and appeared to be linearly related to changes in water table depth. An empirical multiplicative model, using peat temperature and water table depth as independent variables, explained about 81% of the variance in the CO₂ flux data. Using the empirical model with measurements of peat temperature and estimates of hollow/hummock microtopographic distribution (relative to water table elevation), daily rates of “site-averaged” CO₂ evolution were calculated. For the six-month period (May–October), the total soil CO₂ released from this ecosystem was estimated to be about $1340 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}$.

Introduction

Major peatland areas occur in boreal, subarctic, and arctic regions and occupy approximately 25–50% of the earth's land surface in high latitudes (e.g., Moore 1986; Moore & Knowles 1987). Northern peatlands accumulate carbon in peat at an estimated rate of 0.076 Pg y^{-1} and consist of about one-third of the world pool of soil carbon (1395 Pg) (Billings, 1987; Oechel, 1989; Gorham, 1991). It is important to understand how these northern peatlands will respond to predicted changes in climate (e.g., temperature, precipitation). Several studies have demonstrated that the net ecosystem carbon balance in arctic tundra, for example, is sensitive to small changes in temperature and water table depth (Billings et al. 1982, 1983; Peterson et al. 1984; Moore & Knowles, 1989; Gorham, 1991; Oberbauer et al. 1992).

Previous studies have primarily concentrated on subarctic and arctic

peatlands (e.g., Peterson & Billings 1975; Svensson 1980; Poole & Miller 1982; Luken & Billings 1985; Moore 1986; Oberbauer et al. 1992). However, relatively little is known about the CO₂ evolution rates from peatlands in other areas. Here, we report on a study conducted in a peatland in north central Minnesota to (a) evaluate the diurnal and seasonal patterns of CO₂ flux from hollow/hummock microhabitats and (b) examine the dependence of the flux on peat temperature and water table depth. We employed a closed infrared gas exchange system (Norman et al. 1990, 1992), which is vented to the atmosphere to maintain pressure equilibrium. This small portable system has proven to provide rapid and reliable measurements of soil surface CO₂ flux.

Methods and materials

Study area

The study site, referred to as the Bog Lake Peatland, is located in the Chippewa National Forest, adjacent to the Marcell Experimental Forest (47°32'N, 93°28'W, 416 m above m.s.l.) in north central Minnesota. These peatlands cover 21% of the land area within the Chippewa National Forest, have deep (up to 12 m) peat deposits, and consist of *Sphagnum* peat at the surface with woody, sedge, and aquatic peats deeper in the solum (Verry 1975). The area receives an average annual precipitation of 770 mm. The mean annual temperature is 3 °C. The vegetation is dominated by *Sphagnum* moss, which forms a nearly continuous carpet throughout all of the peatlands, with some hummock-growing vascular plants such as *Scheuchzeria palustris*, *Carex* spp., and *Chamaedaphne calyculata*. Surface water pH values in the peatland range from 4.0 to 5.2.

Measurement of soil CO₂ flux

A closed gas exchange system (e.g., Nakayama 1990; Norman et al. 1990) was used to measure CO₂ evolution from the soil *in situ*. The soil CO₂ flux was obtained with a 0.75 L dark chamber (41.3 cm² circular cross section) attached to a LI-COR 6200 infrared gas exchange system (LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE). This system has been described in detail and evaluated by Norman et al. (1992). In our study, the chamber was used on thin-walled PVC collars (76.2 mm diameter and 50 mm long) that were inserted into the peat to a depth of about 30 mm. The chamber was vented to the atmosphere by a tube to maintain pressure equilibrium.

The thin-walled PVC collars were placed on a hollow and on an

adjacent hummock at six locations at the site. The use of collars helped minimize surface disturbance for repeated measurements at a given location. To minimize the contribution of dark respiration of aboveground vegetation, vascular plants growing inside collars on the moss carpeted hummocks were clipped. We did not remove the moss on the hummocks to avoid causing damage to the hummock microtopography. Generally, there was no green vegetation inside collars on the hollows.

Sampling was done generally at 90 min. intervals between 0800 and 2000 hrs. for about 40 days from June to October 1991. Boardwalks were used during the sampling to minimize any disturbance. Each measurement of soil CO_2 flux took 5–10 min. depending on the magnitude of the flux. Although a foam gasket was placed around the flange of the soil chamber to provide a seal between the soil chamber and the collar, small leaks were unavoidable. Thus, an ambient CO_2 concentration near the collar was measured before measurements were started. Then the soil chamber was placed on the collar carefully and the CO_2 concentration inside the chamber was drawn down about 20 ppmv below the ambient value. Following stabilization, the concentration inside the chamber steadily increased, and then we measured the rate of change of concentration with time from 10 ppmv below to 10 ppmv above the ambient value. From these measurements the CO_2 flux was calculated.

Bar platinum resistance thermometers (0.2 m long) were installed horizontally to measure average peat temperatures (T) at a depth of 0.1 m from the peat surface under hollows and hummocks. Also, the peat temperature inside each collar (at 0.1 m depth below the peat surface) was measured with a hand-held platinum resistance thermometer. Mean air temperature (T_a) was measured with aspirated ceramic wick psychrometers (Hartman & Gay 1981). Solar radiation (R_s) was measured with a pyranometer (Eppley Laboratories, Newport, RI). The water table elevation was monitored using a recording well installed near the measurement area.

Modeling soil CO_2 flux

Bunnell et al. (1977) proposed a multiplicative model for the computation of soil respiration as:

$$F_s(T, M) = [M/(a_1 + M)] [a_2/(a_2 + M)] a_3 a_4^{(T - 10)/10} \quad (1)$$

where F_s is the respiration rate at temperature T ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) and moisture level M (percent moisture content on a dry weight basis), a_3 is optimum respiration rate (i.e., at 10°C), and a_4 is the temperature Q_{10} coefficient. The coefficients a_1 and a_2 are empirical constants related to metabolic water

requirements and to oxygen availability, respectively. Equation (1) has been shown to be applicable to various ecosystems (e.g., Bunnell et al. 1977; Heal 1979; Schlentner & Van Cleve 1985; Carlyle & Than 1988).

The first term, $[M/(a_1 + M)]$, on the right side of Eq. (1) indicates that metabolic water requirements of decomposer organisms become less limiting as water content increases [for details, see Bunnell & Tait (1974), Bunnell et al. (1977)]. Peat water content was not measured in our study. However, we monitored the water table depth. Luken and Billings (1985) indicated that water table depth, when it is close to the peat surface, is a better predictor of soil CO_2 flux than is peat moisture content. Verry (1988) also reported that peatlands evapotranspire at potential rates when the water table is within about 0.3–0.4 m of hollow surfaces, and at a fraction of potential rates when the water table is below this level. In our study, water table was within 0.2 m of the hollow surface throughout the season. The moisture content of the surface peat was, therefore, considered to be at field capacity, and the effect of the first term was assumed to be negligible (i.e., $M/(a_1 + M) \approx 1$ when $M \gg a_1$).

The second term, $[a_2/(a_2 + M)]$, on the right side of Eq. (1) describes the effect of water on effective path length available for diffusion of oxygen at high moisture content. Peterson et al. (1984) found that soil CO_2 flux was sensitive to changes in water table depth due to changes in oxygen availability for microbial respiration in the aerated zone between the water table and the hollow/hummock surface. We assumed a linear relationship between F_s and water table depth at high moisture content (i.e., when the water table was within 0.4 m of the hollow surface). Therefore, we rewrite Eq. (1) in terms of peat temperature (T) and water table depth (D) as:

$$F_s(T, D) = [(b_1 + b_2 D)/(b_1 + 0.4 b_2)] a_3 a_4^{[T - 10]/10} \text{ for } 0 \leq D \leq 0.4 \text{ m} \quad (2)$$

where b_1 is a nondimensional constant, b_2 is a constant with unit of m^{-1} , and D is the distance (in m) from the water table to the average hollow/hummock surface.

Results and discussion

Diurnal trends

The diurnal courses of the soil CO_2 flux and peat temperature (at 0.1 m depth) for three selected days in 1991 are presented in Figs. 1A–C. The CO_2 flux from the hollow/hummock microhabitats seemed to gradually

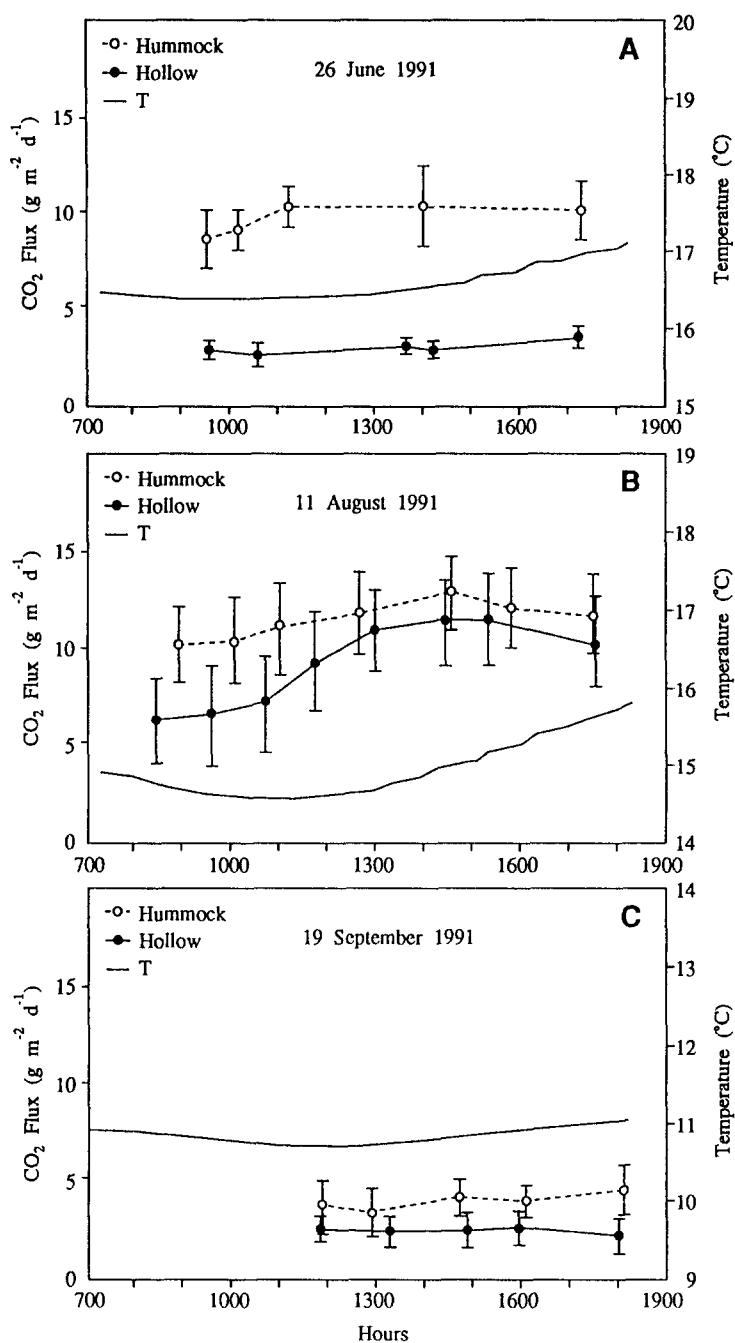


Fig. 1. Diurnal courses of soil CO₂ flux and peat temperature (at 0.1 m depth) on three selected days in a Minnesota peatland: (A) 26 June, (B) 11 August, and (C) 19 September, 1991 ($1 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \approx 22.7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$).

increase during the day, generally following the diurnal pattern in peat temperature. Such a trend is evident when there was peat temperature variation of more than 1 °C (Fig. 1B) and less obvious when temperature changes were smaller (Fig. 1A and 1C). It was partly cloudy on 26 June and the mean daytime peat temperature was around 17 °C. The CO₂ evolution rate from hummocks (average $\approx 11.3 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) was considerably higher (Fig. 1A) than the rates from hollows (average $\approx 3.4 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). On this day, the water table was located near the hollow surface ($D < 0.1 \text{ m}$). The water table depth ($D \approx 0.26 \text{ m}$) relative to a hummock was greater, which allowed a larger zone for aerobic microbial respiration (The average distance between hollow and hummock surfaces was approximately 0.16 m). The CO₂ flux measured from hummocks includes the contribution of dark respiration of *Sphagnum* moss. Based on a few sets of nocturnal canopy CO₂ flux (soil + plant respiration) measurements from June to August, we estimate that the contribution of moss respiration is about 1 to 3 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (approximately 10–20% of the total CO₂ flux measured in hummocks during this period). Oechel (1976) reported respiration rates of 0.1 to 1.3 mg g^{-1} (dry weight) h^{-1} (roughly equivalent to about 0 to 2 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, based on the dry weight per unit of ground area measured at our study site) from arctic mosses at temperatures ranging from 0 to 20 °C. The observed midday variations in the CO₂ flux in hummocks may have resulted from variations in air temperature (Fig. 1A). Also, warmer temperature during the midday in the unsaturated zone of the hummocks may have enhanced decomposition, thereby contributing to the observed daytime variation in the CO₂ flux from hummocks. The environmental conditions (i.e., peat and air temperature, radiation) on 11 August were similar to those on 26 June. The depth to water table, however, was substantially greater ($D = 0.19 \text{ m}$ for hollows and 0.35 m for hummocks). On this day, mean daytime soil CO₂ flux from hollows was nearly three times the value on 26 June and the CO₂ flux for hummocks was 20% greater than the value on 26 June (Fig. 1B). September 19 was substantially cooler (mean daytime peat temperature $\approx 11 \text{ °C}$) and the vegetation was senescing. The elevation of water table rose and the average values of D for hollows and hummocks were 0.14 and 0.30 m, respectively. The mean daytime CO₂ evolution rates from both hollows and hummocks were low ($2\text{--}5 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) throughout the day (Fig. 1C).

Seasonal trends

Daily averaged soil CO₂ flux during June–October, 1991 is shown in Fig. 2. Also shown are the corresponding values of peat and air temperature, and water table depth. The soil CO₂ flux from hollows and hummocks

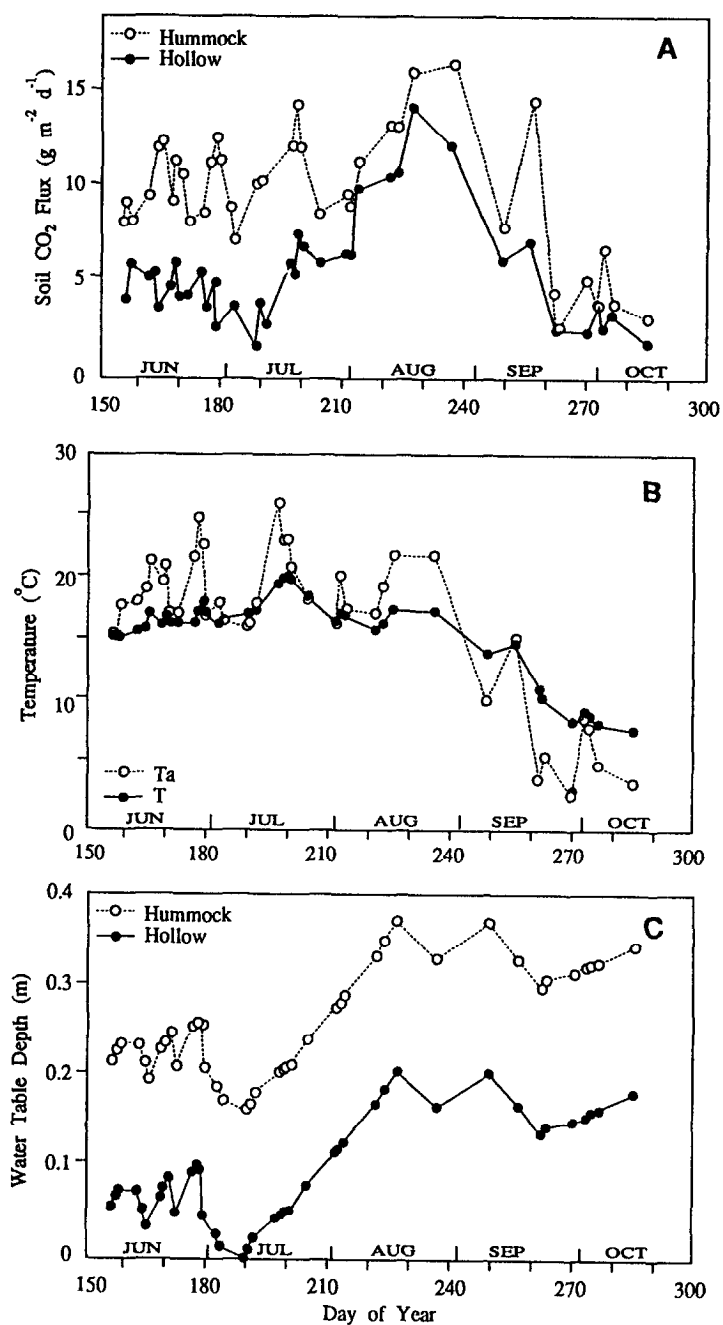


Fig. 2. Seasonal trends in (A) soil CO₂ flux, (B) peat and air temperatures, and (C) average water table depth (D = distance from the water table to the average hollow/hummock surface) during June to October in 1991.

exhibited marked seasonal variations. Maximum CO_2 fluxes ($14.5 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ for hollows and $16.7 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ for hummocks) were observed in mid August when the water table depth was greatest and peat temperature was high. The CO_2 flux declined rapidly with falling temperatures in September. The flux values during October were $2.7 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in hummocks and $1.9 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in hollows.

The overall mean CO_2 flux from hummocks ($9.8 \pm 3.5 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, [mean \pm SE]) was higher than that from hollows ($5.4 \pm 2.9 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). The variations in the hummock CO_2 flux may at least be partly attributable to changes in air temperature affecting both the moss dark respiration and the decomposition in the larger unsaturated zone of the hummocks (Fig. 2B). The water table was close (within 0.1 m) to the hollow surface in June and July (Fig. 2C), decreasing the availability of oxygen for aerobic microbial respiration in hollows. For example, on day 189 when the water table rose slightly above the hollow surface (Fig. 2C) due to frequent rainfall, CO_2 flux reached a seasonal minimum of $1.5 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. During this period of shallow water table depth (June—mid July), there was a substantial difference (about $8 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) in CO_2 flux between hollows and hummocks. The water table receded rapidly in late July due to low precipitation and the difference in CO_2 flux between hummocks and hollows decreased to about $4 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. For the period from 5 June to 12 October, the cumulative soil CO_2 flux from the hollow and hummock microhabitats was estimated to be about 700 and 1300 $\text{g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}$, respectively.

Relationships with temperature and water table depth

Soil CO_2 flux in the field is affected by a number of environmental variables (e.g., temperature, moisture content, water table depth). Thus, when only one of the controlling variables is considered, a scatter diagram results (Fig. 3). Daily values of soil CO_2 flux from the entire measurement period are plotted against those of peat temperature (T at 0.1 m depth) in Fig. 3A. To minimize the confounding effect of water table depth (D), data are grouped in different intervals of D . As expected, the rate of CO_2 evolution was temperature-dependent, and this dependence was stronger when D was large. Under similar ranges of D (0.12–0.24 m), the temperature dependence of CO_2 flux from hummocks and hollows was comparable. The relationship between the soil CO_2 flux and water table depth for three intervals of T is shown in Fig. 3B. It is difficult to discern any distinct relationship at low to moderate temperatures ($5 < T < 15^\circ\text{C}$). However, when T exceeded 15°C , the soil CO_2 flux was nearly linearly related with D . This relationship is consistent with the results of

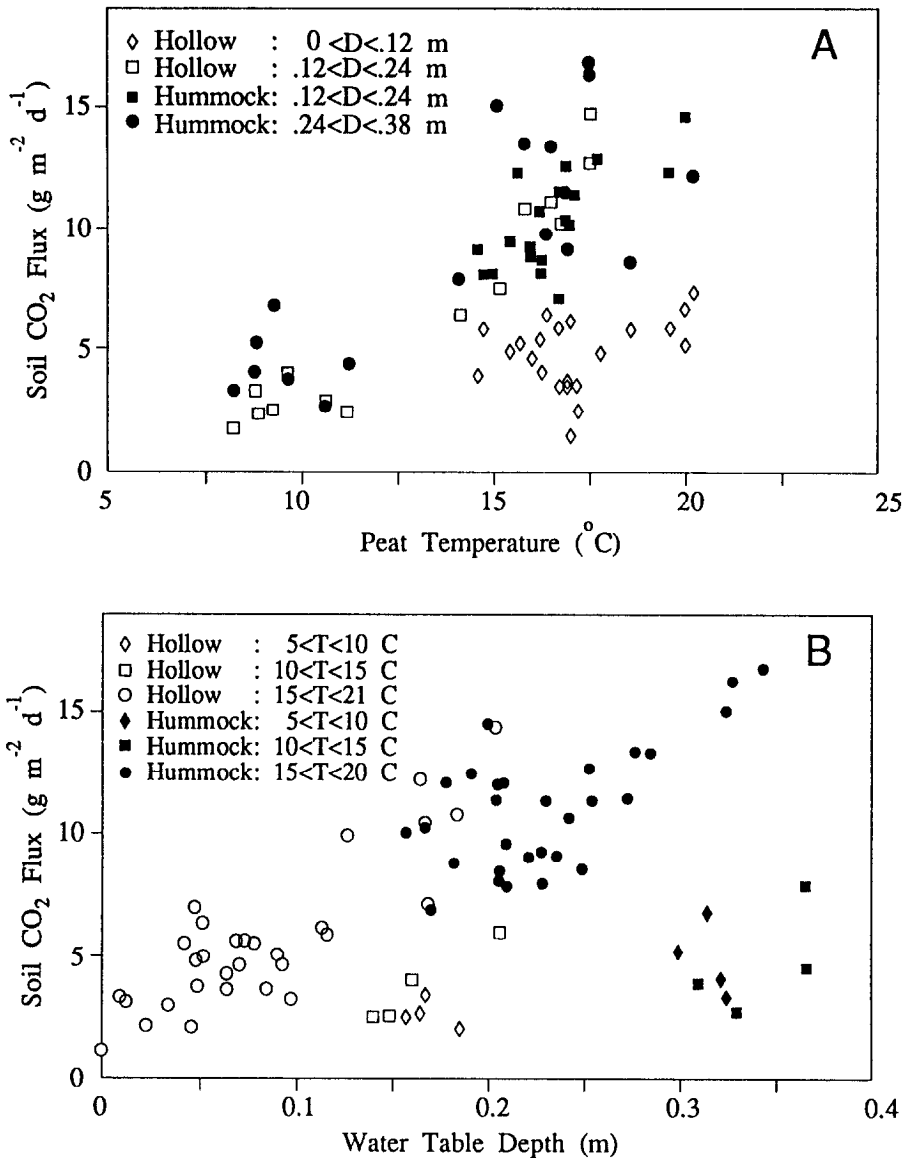


Fig. 3. Relationships between (A) soil CO₂ flux and peat temperature and (B) soil CO₂ flux and water table depth for the hollow and hummock microhabitats.

laboratory studies on field-collected microcosm cores in the arctic tundra (e.g., Billings et al. 1982; Peterson et al. 1984).

Assuming that the temperature dependence is comparable for hollow and hummock microhabitats (as indicated in Fig. 3A), it appears that the difference in water table depth can explain most of the observed contrast

in rates of soil CO₂ evolution measured in the two microhabitats (Fig. 3B). We, therefore, fitted (using non-linear least squares) Eq. (2) to the values of soil CO₂ flux from hollows and hummocks (combined data set) and respective peat temperature and water table depths. The resulting equation is

$$F_s(T, D) = [(0.002 + 0.025D)/0.012] (6.97) (3.7)^{[(T - 10)/10]} \quad (3)$$

The values of the asymptotic standard errors of the parameters (b_1 , b_2 , a_3 and a_4) and r^2 are listed in Table 1. Equation (3) accounted for about 81% of the variations in data. The Q_{10} value (a_4) of 3.7 is within the range (2–5) reported for various peatland ecosystems (e.g., Flanagan & Veum 1974; Svensson 1980).

Table 1. The values of the parameters in equation (3) with their asymptotic standard errors and r^2 .

	Values
Number of data points	76
b_1	0.002 ± 0.000
b_2, m^{-1}	0.025 ± 0.005
$a_3, g\ m^{-2}\ d^{-1}$	6.97 ± 0.53
a_4	3.70 ± 0.40
r^2	0.81

Estimating ecosystem soil CO₂ flux

To estimate “site-averaged” soil CO₂ flux in this ecosystem, we need to consider the distribution of hollow/hummock microtopography relative to the water table elevation. On 18 October 1991, the study site was surveyed along five transects (each approximately 200 m long) using a laser range finder/theodolite (Leitz/Sokkia Company, Overland Park, KS, Set #2 – total station). The elevations of the hollow/hummock surfaces and the water table were measured every 2 m and 10 m, respectively. The frequency of water table depth (distance from the hollow/hummock surfaces to the water table) is presented in Table 2. The “site-averaged” water table depth calculated from the data in Table 2 was about 0.26 m. Using this value, in conjunction with the data on water table elevation² measured at a reference station throughout the season, we calculated daily values of “site-averaged” water table depth for the entire season. These estimates, along with measurements of peat temperature, were then used

Table 2. Frequency distribution of water table depth (m) at the study site measured on 18 October 1991.

Water table depth (m)	Frequency (%)
0.00–0.05	1.4
0.05–0.10	5.2
0.10–0.15	8.6
0.15–0.20	10.8
0.20–0.25	19.9
0.25–0.30	25.1
0.30–0.35	13.1
0.35–0.40	7.2
0.40–0.45	4.6
0.45–0.50	1.8
0.50–0.55	1.6
0.55–0.60	0.6

in Eq. (3) to calculate daily rates of “site-averaged” CO_2 evolution. The estimated CO_2 flux ranged from 3 to $18 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Fig. 4). For the six-month period (May–October), the total soil CO_2 released from this ecosystem was estimated to be about $1340 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}$ (note that moss dark respiration was included in measurements in hummocks and may

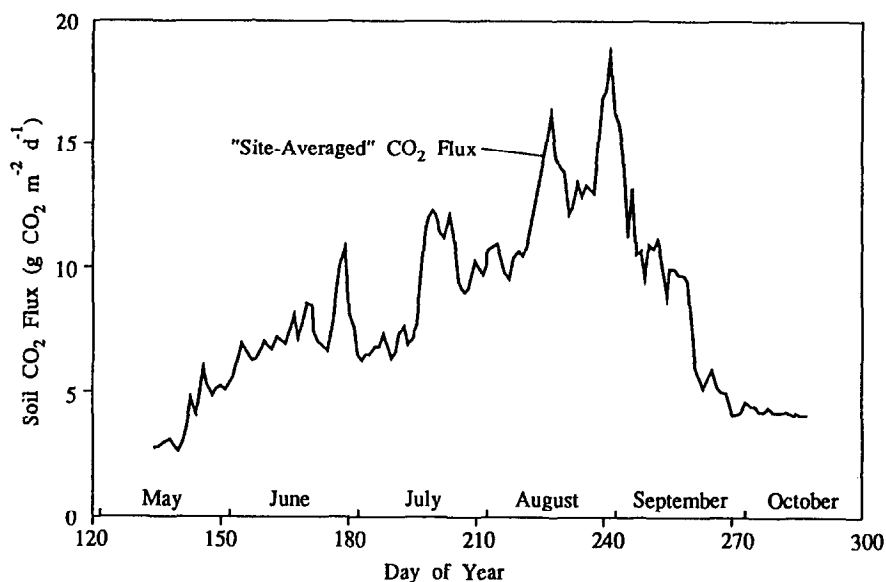


Fig. 4. Estimated “site-averaged” soil CO_2 flux in a Minnesota peatland during May–October 1991.

account for 10–20% of the values from hummocks). The range of soil CO₂ flux encountered in this study is similar to that reported (1 to 16 g m⁻² d⁻¹) through the year for a marginal fen in Minnesota by Reiners (1968).

Comparison with other ecosystems

The range of soil CO₂ flux observed in this study, 3–18 g m⁻² d⁻¹, is higher than the reported values from subarctic peatlands. Daily evolution rates for various subarctic peatlands range from 0.1 to 10 g CO₂ M⁻² (Peterson & Billings 1975; Schlesinger 1977; Billings et al. 1977; Svensson 1980; Poole & Miller 1982; Luken & Billings 1985; Moore 1986). Our values, however, are comparable to those (0–15.8 g m⁻² d⁻¹) observed in a boreal forest in interior Alaska (e.g., Flanagan & Van Cleve 1977; Schlentner & Van Cleve 1985; Bonan 1991). Higher values have been reported from temperate deciduous and coniferous forests (0–24.5 g m⁻² d⁻¹ — Reiners 1968; Anderson 1973; Edwards 1975; Singh & Gupta 1977; Baldocchi et al. 1986; Carlyle & Than 1988) and from grasslands (1–35 g m⁻² d⁻¹ — Kucera & Kirkham 1971; Singh & Gupta 1977; Grahammer 1989; Norman et al. 1992). The magnitudes of CO₂ from tropical rain forests are even higher, ranging from 3 to 38 g m⁻² d⁻¹ (e.g., Schulze 1967; Wanner 1970; Medina & Zelwer 1972; Keller et al. 1986; Fan et al. 1990).

Some of the variability in CO₂ flux arises from differences in measurement periods and measurement techniques. The results, however, reflect the impact of biological activity on the rates of soil CO₂ evolution in various ecosystem types. Higher rates of CO₂ evolution are associated with higher net primary production such as in wet tropical ecosystems (Singh & Gupta 1977); while lowest rates are observed in ecosystems located in colder regions.

Summary

Peatland soil respiration showed diurnal and seasonal variations that were related to changes in peat temperature and water table elevation. The maximum rate of CO₂ release, which occurred in mid to late August, was associated with the lowest water table elevation and high peat temperature. The CO₂ release decreased rapidly during September and October as the peat temperature fell below 10 °C. The magnitudes of CO₂ flux differed significantly between hollows and hummocks, indicating the importance of the microtopographic heterogeneity. Our data indicate that,

under high moisture conditions, soil CO₂ release and water table depth are strongly correlated. These results are similar to the previously observed effects in the laboratory of water table on CO₂ exchange of field-collected microcosm cores. Future studies should include measurements of moss dark respiration and peat moisture content to investigate the effect of water table depth on soil CO₂ exchange under limiting moisture conditions.

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Notes

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² Water table elevations measured at approximately 100 locations across the study site indicated the standard deviation value of 0.025 m. We, therefore, assume that the water table elevation is relatively uniform at the site.

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