Plant transport and methane production as controls on methane flux from arctic wet meadow tundra

JOSHUA P. SCHIMEL*

Institute of Arctic Biology, University of Alaska Fairbanks, Fairbanks, AK 99775; * Current address: Dept. Biological Sciences, University of California Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara, CA 93106

Received 23 May 1994; accepted in revised form 16 December 1994

Key words: methane, methanogenesis, transport, tundra

Abstract. The roles of plant transport and CH₄ production in controlling CH₄ flux from wet meadow tundra communities were investigated. Plant transport was the dominant pathway of CH₄ flux from this ecosystem. Most CH₄ production (measured with *in situ* anaerobic incubations) occurred well below the water table, and C supply (estimated by anaerobic CO₂ production) was the best single predictor of CH₄ production rates. Plant transport of CH₄ was controlled both by CH₄ supply and the plant species. *Eriophorum angustifolium* transported substantially more CH₄ than did *Carex aquatilis*, due to differences in size and structure of the two species. The composition of the plant community was a greater control on CH₄ flux from the site than either water table height (which varied only slightly) or CH₄ production rates, indicating the importance of species-specific plant dynamics in controlling CH₄ flux from arctic wetlands.

Introduction

Most studies have indicated that high latitude wetlands are an important source of atmospheric CH₄, with fluxes from tundra of approximately 35 Tg/y; this is between 5% and 10% of the global total (Fung et al. 1991; Whalen & Reeburgh 1990; Roulet et al. 1994). Most of this flux is from sedge-dominated wet meadows (Whalen & Reeburgh 1988). Plant CH₄ transport, which effectively bypasses the aerobic zone of CH₄ oxidation, is an important process in CH₄ emissions from wetland ecosystems, including the tundra (Whalen & Reeburgh 1988; Schütz et al. 1991; Chanton & Dacey 1991; Morrisey & Livingston 1992; Chanton et al. 1992; Whiting & Chanton 1992). Plant species- or growth form-specific differences in transport rates may be an important control on CH₄ fluxes (Sebacher et al. 1985).

Transport, however, is but one way in which plants affect CH₄ dynamics (Schimel et al. 1993). Plants supply C to the soil methanogenic community both through production of soil organic matter and as fresh exudates and residues. Fresh plant material may be an important CH₄ precursor even in an organic matter-rich peat soil (Schütz et al. 1991; Whiting & Chanton 1992).

Strong correlations between net primary productivity and system-level CH₄ fluxes across a wide range of ecosystems highlights the importance of plant C inputs (Aselmann & Crutzen 1989; Whiting & Chanton 1993). A complete understanding of wetland CH₄ emissions therefore requires understanding how the different plant species in a wetland ecosystem affect both CH₄ production and CH₄ transport to determine the overall system-level effect on CH₄ flux.

This work examined the controls on CH₄ flux from an arctic wet meadow community. There were three goals: 1) determine how much of the CH₄ efflux was directly plant mediated, 2) determine whether total CH₄ efflux was controlled primarily by the CH₄ production rate or by plant transport kinetics and 3) determine how the different dominant sedge species affected these processes. The controls on CH₄ efflux were considered on both the individual plant tiller level and the plot level because the controls on CH₄ flux at these scales differed.

Methods

Site description

The research was done in a wet meadow community at the Toolik Lake Long Term Ecological Research (LTER) site on the North Slope of the Brooks Range in Alaska (68°38' N, 149°38' W)., The plant community was dominated by the sedges Eriophorum angustifolium and Carex aquatilis, with smaller amounts of E. scheuchzeri. Patches (up to ten meters across) were often dominated by a single species, though E. scheuchzeri rarely dominated the community and is more of an 'understory' species. Peak aboveground plant biomass averaged 185 g·m⁻², ranging between 130 and 260 g·m⁻², tiller density of E. angustifolium + C. aquatilis averaged 380/m². E. scheuchzeri averaged 100/m² but was very patchy. E. angustifolium had an average tiller mass of 1.05 g, tiller diameter of 7.9 mm, and total leaf area of 88 mm²/plant (measured in late July 1991). It is a large sedge with a low root/shoot ratio, its roots are unbranched and are produced annually. C. aquatilis had an average tiller mass of 0.64 g, tiller diameter of 3.8 mm and leaf area of 43 mm²/plant. It produces extremely large rhizomes and has a large root/shoot ratio with a mix of coarse perennial roots and fine, branching roots. The smallest plant in the study area was E. scheuchzeri, with an average tiller mass of 0.09 g and a diameter of 1.7 mm (leaf areas were not measured). The soils were peats overlying permafrost. There was a layer of stones at approximately 20 cm depth. The soils were generally saturated to the soil surface, though the actual

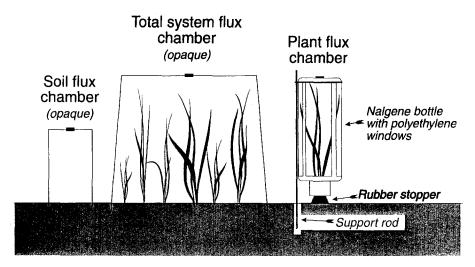


Fig. 1. Design of the different flux chambers.

water table depth ranged between 3 and 8 cm below the soil surface. Soil pH ranged between 6.3 and 7.2.

Gas fluxes

In order to sample across the range of natural variations, while ensuring that sets of measurements within plots were representative of each other, measurements were done in 3 m \times 1.5 m plots distributed along a 0.5 km stretch of the shore of Toolik lake. Boardwalks were established to minimize site disturbance during sampling. Experiments were done 19–21 July 1991, 27–28 June 1992, 17–21 July 1993, and 7–8 August 1993. The sampling designs in 1991/92 and 1993 were slightly different. In 1991/92 one system-flux chamber was used per plot and the plant and soil fluxes measured closely around that to try to make all the measurements representative of that flux. In 1993 three system-flux chambers were used per plot.

Total ecosystem CH₄ flux was measured by placing chambers (29 cm diameter by 25 cm tall) approximately 2 cm into the saturated soil, just far enough to make a seal (Fig. 1). These were sampled every 10 minutes over 30 minutes. Next, the plants were collected, identified, tiller diameters measured and their biomass determined after drying at 60 °C. Flux from the soil surface was measured by placing a small chamber (a cut-off 500 ml Nalgene bottle fitted with a septum) between plants. The chambers were supported by a rod driven into the soil to limit disturbance while taking measurements.

Methane fluxes from plants were determined with chambers fitted around individual tillers of either E. angustifolium or C. aquatilis (Fig. 1). Three tillers of each species were used in each plot. Chambers were made from 1 L wide-mouth Nalgene bottles with large windows cut out of the sides and covered with clear polyethylene; a septum was put in the jar bottom for sampling. A hole was drilled in the lid to hold a rubber stopper. A rubber stopper with a hole drilled out and slit down the side was wrapped around the base of an individual tiller and seated on the soil. The chamber was then placed over the plant and onto the rubber stopper, sealing the system. To support the chamber a rod was driven into the soil before the chamber was placed over the plant. Gas samples (5 mL) were taken every 10 minutes for 30 minutes. In all measurements CH₄ concentrations increased linearly. After flux measurements, each plant was removed from the ground and its diameter at the tiller base, leaf area (in 1991 only), and dry mass were measured. Tiller cross-sectional area was calculated from the diameter measurement by assuming the tiller was cylindrical.

Gas samples were taken in individual syringes which were closed with a valve. They were returned to the lab and analyzed within 6 h. Samples were analyzed with a gas chromatograph equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (for CO₂) plumbed in series with a flame ionization detector (for CH₄).

Clipping experiments

Plant CH₄ flux was measured as above. Then the chamber was removed and the leaves were cut off with a razor between the blades and sheaths of the outermost leaves. This is the point at which the leaves open out from the tiller base and become green, and left approximately 5 cm standing. The chamber was then resealed and the flux measured again. This provided an estimate of the leaf resistance to CH₄ flux. Next, to determine whether the leaf blades, rather than pores on the leaf bases, were the pathway of CH₄ efflux from the plants, the chambers were opened and petroleum jelly was applied to the cut ends of the plants to block gas efflux. The chambers were then closed and the flux measured again.

Pore water CH₄ concentrations

In the 1993 samplings, immediately after a flux measurement was made on a tiller but before it was harvested, the pore water directly underneath the tiller was sampled at 5 cm and 15 cm depths. Using a syringe fitted with a valve and a 15 cm long, 18 gauge side-port needle, pore water (5–10 mL) was drawn and the valve was closed. The pore water sample was then transferred to a

previously evacuated serum bottle (70 mL). The bottle was shaken to extract CH₄, vented briefly to bring the headspace pressure up to atmospheric and the headspace analyzed for CH₄ concentration as described above. The bottles were weighted to determine the exact volume of pore water sampled.

Production rates of CO2 and CH4

Immediately after the tiller was harvested, a soil core (6.8 cm diameter) was taken where the plant had been. The cores were taken down to the stone layer, which was generally at approximately 20 cm. Each core was sectioned into the top 10 cm and the remaining depth, and the sections were placed intact into 1 L jars Mason Jars (Ball Inc.) fitted with septa. The jars were purged with N₂ for 20 minutes to make them anaerobic and let sit for approximately 30 minutes to allow dissolved gases to equilibrate with the headspace. The headspace was then sampled by syringe, and the jars were replaced in the ground for incubation. All the jars were placed into the soil until the jar tops were just below the soil surface (0-10 cm depth); it was impractical to try to place the core sections at the same depth they came from. Thus all the jar incubations within a plot were at the same temperature. The jars were sampled again 24 hours after being placed in the ground. Headspace gases were analyzed for CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations as described above. There were 6 measurements of pore water concentrations and CH₄ production potentials at each depth in each plot, 3 under E. angustifolium and 3 under C. aquatilis.

Calculations and statistics

Total plant flux on an areal basis (mg $C \cdot m^{-2}d^{-1}$) was calculated by multiplying the average flux for each species in the plot by the number of tillers of each species in the chamber. Plant CH₄ fluxes were measured simultaneously with the system-flux chamber measurements. *E. scheuchzeri* was not measured directly but was assumed to transport, on average, the same amount of CH₄ per unit tiller cross-sectional area as *E. angustifolium*. I used cross sectional area to scale CH₄ tiller fluxes because flux through *E. angustifolium* correlated better with cross sectional area than with tiller mass. The estimated flux due to *E. scheuchzeri* was always a small component of the total and this was unlikely to change based on the estimation method.

The balance of CH₄ production and flux was calculated for each of the six study plots examined in 1993. Production was calculated as the sum of production in both depth increments and extrapolated to a mg $C \cdot m^{-2} d^{-1}$ basis. Total flux was estimated by the system-flux chambers.

Clipping and sealing effects were determined by paired *t*-test of the treatment against the non-clipped control. The effects of the different plant species

Table 1. Methane fluxes and plant CH₄ transport in wet meadow tundra. In 1991/92 total flux was measured by one chamber per plot, in 1993 total flux was measured by three chambers per plot. Except where noted in the community composition column, *E. scheuchzeri* biomass was insignificant and the remaining biomass was *E. angustifolium*. Error ranges are standard errors.

Sampling date	Community composition C. aquatilis as % of total biomass		Bare soil	Estimated plant transport ¹ n ⁻² d ⁻¹)	transport ²
July 1991	0	150.3	-1.0 ± 0.9	94.3	63–100
July 1991	100	10.5	0.1 ± 0.3	5.8	55-99
July 1991	$26(60)^3$	65.6	0.6 ± 0.2	66.1	99-100
July 1991	88	75.8	0.4 ± 0.9	61.8	81–99
July 1992	0	27.7	8.0 ± 6.6^{4}	10.5	38–71
July 1992	50 (50)	20.6	8.0 ± 6.6^{4}	14.6	63-68
July 1992	70	16.7	8.0 ± 6.6^4	10.3	52–62
July 1993	36	119.1 ± 13.1	N.D. ⁵	57.1	48
July 1993	52	65.9 ± 22.2	N.D.	67.9	103
July 1993	47 (20)	65.5 ± 20.6	N.D.	24.3	37
July 1993	82	21.1 ± 3.9	N.D.	18.1	86
August 1993	3	102.6 ± 19.5	N.D.	107.4	70–150
August 1993	25	47.4 ± 8.6	N.D.	45.4	80-130

¹ Total plant flux was estimated by multiplying the average flux for each species by the number of tillers in the chamber. *E. scheuchzeri* was assumed to transport the same amount of CH₄ per unit tiller cross-sectional area as *E. angustifolium*

on CH₄ transport, pore water concentrations, and production rates were determined by 2-way ANOVA with species and plot as the independent variables. The effect of plant community composition across sampling was determined by MANOVA with sampling date as a categorical variable and % of total biomass as *Carex* in the plot as a covariate (Systat, Inc. 1992).

² The range was estimated both from direct plant flux measurements and from the flux unaccounted for the total flux minus the soil flux.

³ Percent biomass as E. scheuchzeri.

⁴ In 1992, soil flux measurements were not associated with individual total flux chambers.

⁵ Not Determined.

Results

Ecosystem CH₄ fluxes

Methane emissions from wet meadow tundra were variable both spatially and temporally (Table 1). The highest rate (150 mg CH₄-C·m⁻²d⁻¹) and the lowest (10.5 mg CH₄-C·m⁻²d⁻¹) occurred on the same day within 100 m of each other. Within plots, however, the coefficients of variation averaged only 36%. The lowest rates generally occurred in 1992, but these were early in the season. Flux generally increases over the season as the active layer thickens and soil temperatures increase (Whalen & Reeburgh 1988).

Methane fluxes were strongly controlled by the composition of the plant community, with greater fluxes associated with E. angustifolium domination. Methane flux correlated with species composition measured as % total biomass as C. aquatilis with an $r^2 = 0.68$ (p = 0.014). Species composition was a stronger predictor of CH₄ flux than either water table depth or total aboveground plant biomass, neither of which correlated with flux ($r^2 < 0.3$, p > 0.45).

Plant-mediated flux

The estimated CH_4 flux through plants always accounted for at least 37% of the total CH_4 flux to the atmosphere and averaged approximately 75% of total flux (Table 1). In some plots, plant transport could account for the entire measured CH_4 flux. With the exception of occasional hot spots of soil efflux (1 measurement in 20), very little CH_4 was released from the soil surface (< 5 mg $C \cdot m^{-2} d^{-1}$).

Flux through individual plant tillers

Methane flux through individual tillers of E. angustifolium was significantly greater than flux through C. aquatilis (p < 0.05), even in sites where they co-existed. In the 1993 measurements, flux through C. aquatilis correlated significantly with tiller mass (Table 2), but not with tiller cross-sectional area, which is consistent with 1991 and 1992 measurements (data not shown). Flux through E. angustifolium didn't correlate with either measure of plant size in the 1993 sampling though in 1991 samplings there was a weak correlation with tiller cross-sectional area ($r^2 = 0.25$, p < 0.1).

For each species, there was a significant correlation between CH₄ flux and CH₄ pore water concentration, and for *C. aquatilis*, with production rate as well (Table 2). Flux through tillers of both species correlated better with CH₄ concentration and production rate in the surface than in the deep layer.

Table 2. Correlation between flux through individual tillers of C. aquatilis and E. angustifolium and different plant parameters and aspects of soil CH₄ supply in the July 1993 sampling. Significant levels of correlations: *<0.1, **<0.05, ****<0.01, ****<0.005. 12 plants of each species were measured across 4 plots.

	C. aquatilis	E. angustifolium
	Tiller fl	ux (μg C·h ⁻¹)
	4.98	9.53
	Correlat	ion coefficients
	r^2	r^2
Plant characteristics		
Tiller cross-sectional area	0.07	0.06
Tiller mass	0.54***	0.07
Soil CH4		
Surface layer		
Pore water	0.79****	0.33*
Production rate	0.35**	0.24
Deep layer		
Pore water	0.48**	0.08
Production rate	0.22	0.11

Table 3. Effect on CH₄ flux of clipping plants and of sealing the clipped ends. All values are shown relative to the specific control plant. ns means that the treatment effect was not significant (p > 0.1); * indicates the effect was significant at p = 0.05. Measurements were done in June 1992. 6 plants of each species were measured; ranges are standard errors.

	% of flux in c	ontrol plants
Species	Clipped	Sealed
E. angustifolium	106 ± 22 ^{ns}	35 ± 9*
C. aquatilis	159 ± 16*	$36 \pm 13*$

Clipping the leaf blades significantly increased flux in *C. aquatilis* (Table 3), but not in *E. angustifolium*. Sealing the cut ends with Vaseline greatly reduced CH₄ flux in both species (Table 3), suggesting that leaves were the dominant pathway of CH₄ efflux in both plant species. Morrissey et al. (1993) came to a similar conclusion for *Carex*, but in most other wetland

plants, including *Oryza* (rice), *Pontedaria*, and *Sagittaria*, the main path of CH₄ efflux is micropores on the leaf sheath or petiole (Nouchi et al. 1990; Harden & Chanton 1994).

Soil carbon dynamics

Both CH₄ production rates and pore water concentrations varied significantly between plots (p < 0.01; Table 4), but the variation within plots was less. Pore water concentration coefficients of variation (C.V.) averaged 92% and 66% in the surface and deep layers respectively (Table 4). Methane production rates in the surface layer varied between plots from 0.2 μ g C·g⁻¹d⁻¹ to 14.0 μ g C·g⁻¹d⁻¹, and in the deep layer from 2.9 μ g C·g⁻¹d⁻¹ to 21.6 μ g C·g⁻¹d⁻¹. Again, within-plot variation was lower than between-plot variation (average within-plot C.V. were 85% and 73% for the surface and deep layers respectively). There was no significant association between any measure of soil CH₄ supply and the plant species dominating a plot (Table 5).

Methane production rates and pore water concentrations increased significantly with depth (Tables 4, 5). Methane concentration in the surface pore water averaged only 20% of the concentration in the deep layer. Methane production rate (per gram soil) in the surface layer averaged 58% of that in the deep layer, though this varied from 2% to 180% on individual cores. Due to greater soil bulk density at depth, however, production in the surface layer (per m²) averaged only 25% of the production at depth.

There were significant correlations between all measures of CH₄ dynamics at both depths across plots. Production rates and pore water concentrations within a layer correlated with $r^2 = 0.31$ and 0.39 for the surface and deep measurements respectively (p < 0.001 in both cases). Pore water concentration in the surface and deep layers correlated with each other with $r^2 = 0.38$ (p < 0.001); production rate in the surface and deep layers correlated with each other with $r^2 = 0.14$ (p = 0.03). Thus, both pore water CH₄ concentration and production rate are indicators of CH₄ supply.

Carbon dioxide production rates were an estimate of total microbial activity, as CO_2 is a major product of most forms of anaerobic metabolism. Under controlled conditions with an undisturbed microbial community, CO_2 production rate is therefore an index of soil organic matter quality. Since the incubations were anaerobic, root respiration was not a component of CO_2 production, though carbon released from roots damaged by the coring could have contributed to microbial respiration. The CO_2 production rates were less variables than CH_4 production rates, though there were still significant differences between plots. The CO_2 production rates in the surface layer averaged 240 μ g $C \cdot g^{-1} d^{-1}$ (plot averages ranged from 135 μ g $C \cdot g^{-1} d^{-1}$ to 414 μ g·g⁻¹d⁻¹), while in the deep layer, the average was 137 μ g $C \cdot g^{-1} d^{-1}$

Table 4. Methane pore water concentrations, methane production rates, methane flux and unaccounted for flux in the six plots sampled in 1993. Plots 1 through 4 were sampled in July 1993, while plots 5 and 6 were sampled in early August 1993. Error ranges are standard errors of the 6 replicate samples taken in each plot.

	CH ₄ pore water concentration	CH ₄ pore water concentration	CH ₄ production rate	CH ₄ production rate	CH ₄ production rate		
Plot	at 5 cm depth mg C/L	at 15 cm depth mg C/L	Surface	Deep	Total - mg C·m ⁻² d ⁻¹	CH4 flux rate	Difference
-	0.27 ± 0.10	1.45 ± 0.49	6.6 ± 3.4	47.4 ± 7.5	54.0 ± 8.1	119.1 ± 13.0	-65.1
7	1.00 ± 0.13	2.24 ± 0.17	34.8 ± 9.9	102.6 ± 15.0	137.4 ± 8.3	65.9 ± 22.0	71.5
3	0.09 ± 0.02	0.93 ± 0.28	48.2 ± 12.0	53.9 ± 11.0	102.1 ± 18.0	65.6 ± 20.0	-36.5
4	0.04 ± 0.02	0.26 ± 0.10	0.3 ± 0.1	9.7 ± 5.0	10.0 ± 5.1	21.1 ± 3.9	-11.1
S	0.08 ± 0.03	1.63 ± 0.29	2.0 ± 1.0	27.0 ± 10.0	29.0 ± 11.0	102.6 ± 19.0	-73.6
9	0.16 ± 0.11	0.69 ± 0.23	0.8 ± 0.2	15.6 ± 5.7	16.3 ± 5.8	47.4 ± 8.6	-31.1

Table 5. Plant effects on CH₄ dynamics in arctic wet meadow tundra. Data are averages of 12 plants of each species across the 4 plots sampled in July 1993.

		Average pore water CH4	Average pore water CH ₄ CH ₄ production	CH ₄ production	CH ₄ production
		concentration	concentration	potential	potential
	Tiller flux	Surface	Deep	Surface	Deep
Species	μg C·h ^{−1}	mg C/L	mg C/L	$\mu g C \cdot g^{-2} d^{-1}$	$\mu g C \cdot g^{-2} g^{-1}$
E. angustifolium	9.5 ± 1.5	9.5 ± 1.5 0.31 ± 0.11	1.23 ± 0.27	7.5 ± 2.2	11.4 ± 2.3
C. aquatilis	5.0 ± 1.8	5.0 ± 1.8 0.40 ± 0.15	1.21 ± 0.33	7.9 ± 2.8	11.2 ± 2.8
p = 1	0.008	0.27	0.94	0.89	0.93

¹ Significance of species effect.

(ranging from 73 μ g·g⁻¹d⁻¹ to 192 μ g·g⁻¹d⁻¹). The average within-plot C.V. were 51% and 35% for the surface and deep layers respectively.

The CO₂ production rate in the surface layer averaged 175% of the rate in the deep layer (significantly different at p = 0.001). There was, however, no correlation between CO₂ production in the surface and deep layers ($r^2 = 0.04$, p = 0.25).

There were strong indications that C. aquatilis domination increased CO_2 production rates in the surface layer. Carbon dioxide production (per m^2) correlated with the percent biomass of C. aquatilis in a plot ($r^2 = 0.83$, p = 0.012) over both 1993 samplings. In the July sampling CO_2 production per gram soil correlated with percent C. aquatilis ($r^2 = 0.98$, p = 0.01), but including the August samples in this analysis reduced the r^2 to 0.39 (p = 0.19).

Methane production correlation with CO_2 production in the deep layer (r^2 = 0.27, p = 0.001) but not in the surface layer (r^2 = 0.01). The average ratio of CO_2/CH_4 produced in the surface layer (518) was significantly higher (p = 0.001) than in the deep layer (68), though median values were only 128 and 15 for the surface and deep layers, respectively due to some very large values. In both layers, the minimum CO_2/CH_4 ratio was between 5 and 6. There were no significant effects of plant species on the CO_2/CH_4 ratio.

Discussion

Ecosystem CH₄ fluxes

The greatest fluxes from arctic tundra are from wet, sedge-dominated meadows (Whalen & Reeburgh 1990; Nadelhoffer et al. 1993). The flux rates I measured were comparable to those other studies. Fluxes from wet meadow sites have often been characterized as extremely variable, but the greatest variation I observed was between discrete, identifiable patches, rather than being purely random microsite variability. Within individual patches, variability in CH₄ production rates, pore water concentrations, and flux rates was relatively low. Patches were defined primarily by the composition of the plant community, rather than total plant biomass, water table height or other environmental parameters.

The association of flux rates with identifiable patches should be useful in spatial modeling of CH₄ fluxes, scaling from individual plots to larger areas (Burke et al. 1991) and in predicting response of wet meadow tundra to changing conditions and plant distribution. Temporally, CH₄ fluxes varied such that samplings made just a few weeks apart in 1993 had different fluxes and associations of flux with measured controlling factors.

Most other studies evaluating the role of plants on CH₄ flux have found that biomass or productivity are good predictors of CH₄ flux either across a wide range of systems (Whiting & Chanton 1993) or within a single species (Schütz et al. 1989; Sass et al. 1990; Whiting et al. 1991; Whiting & Chanton 1992). Sebacher et al. (1985) found large differences in transport capacity between aquatic plant growth forms (e.g. species with soft root epidermal layers and extensive aerenchyma vs. species with hard epidermal layers and less developed aerenchyma), but did not carefully examine differences within growth form. My study was done at a tighter scale of plant differences than Sebacher et al. (1985) and of space than Whiting & Chanton (1993). I found that even within an area with a uniform growth form and productivity, species differences caused significant differences in CH₄ flux. Plots dominated by E. angustifolium effluxed more CH₄ than those dominated by C. aquatilis, and these differences were not due to differences in plant biomass.

Water table height was probably not a major factor in this study as it never dropped below 8 cm. Water table height is a critical control on CH₄ flux (Moore & Roulet 1993; Funk et al. 1994), but it generally must drop to 10–20 cm below the soil surface to significantly decrease flux.

The balance of production vs. flux was variable among the different plots (Table 4). Some plots had higher CH_4 production than flux, suggesting substantial CH_4 oxidation in either the rhizosphere (Gerard & Chanton 1993) or the surface soil. Most of the plots, however, had greater flux than total CH_4 production. These data suggest that either dissolved CH_4 was outgassing, there was CH_4 present in gas bubbles that was not measured, or that that substantial CH_4 production occurred deeper in the soil profile. Total dissolved CH_4 storage in the top 20 cm averaged 130 mg $C \cdot m^{-2}$, while the unaccounted-for flux (flux – production) ranged from 11 to 70 mg $C \cdot m^{-2} d^{-1}$. These data therefore cannot determine the source of the excess flux.

The very small fluxes from the soil surface indicate that either CH₄ diffusion out of the soil was slow, or that CH₄ was oxidized in the aerobic surface soil. The CH₄ balance data (Table 4), do not suggest the high rates of CH₄ oxidation that occur in some wetland systems (e.g. 90% of the CH₄ produced; Schütz et al. 1991). Limited diffusion combined with moderate levels of total oxidation probably explain the low flux from the soil surface. Field work using methyl fluoride to inhibit CH₄ oxidation at a similar site also suggests relatively limited oxidation (<25% of production; S. Moosavi & P. M. Crill pers. comm.). Since plant community composition did not appear to affect CH₄ production (Table 5), but did control CH₄ flux, community composition may be an important control on CH₄ oxidation and the balance of production to oxidation as well.

Soil carbon dynamics

The interactions of plant community, soil horizon, soil carbon dynamics, and CH₄ production were complex. Carbon dioxide production decreased with depth, while CH₄ production increased; these patterns suggest different C substrates in the two layers and different controls on CH₄ production. In the surface soil, fresh plant material was likely to be a major C source. Rooting density is high in the surface layer, particularly for *C. aquatilis* (Shaver & Billings 1975), and so root C inputs should be substantial. The relationship between *C. aquatilis* domination of a site and CO₂ production in the surface soil is consistent with the importance of plant inputs for C dynamics in this layer. In the surface layer, there was no relationship between CO₂ and CH₄ production, indicating that redox, the absence of methanogenic bacteria, or some other factor (probably related to soil aeration) was a greater proximate control on total CH₄ production than C availability in short-term incubations.

In the deep layer, where roughly 85% of the CH₄ was produced, C availability was an important control on CH₄ production as indicated by the relationship between CO₂ and CH₄ production. In this layer, soil organic matter (SOM) may be an important C source for methanogenesis. The lower rate of CO₂ production per gram soil in the deep layer relative to the surface indicated a lower average organic matter quality in the deep layer, suggesting greater importance of soil organic matter relative to fresh root inputs in soil C dynamics. Production of CO₂ showed no relationship to the dominant plant community, which also suggests less direct root influence at depth. In a lab study, CO₂ and CH₄ production by these soils did not significantly decrease even after several months anaerobic incubation at 15 °C, indicating the presence of a large pool of decomposable soil organic matter (E. A. Holland & J. P. Schimel, data not shown).

The relationship between CO₂ and CH₄ production in the deep layer also suggests that redox was consistently low and other factors were relatively constant; otherwise redox differences would have masked the effects of C supply. Dissolved CH₄ storage in the deep layer was only great enough to account for approximately 2 days CH₄ flux, suggesting relatively rapid CH₄ diffusion out of this zone.

The suggestion that SOM may be an important CH₄ source is at odds with several other studies that have indicated fresh plant material (either the current or previous year's production) as the dominant CH₄ source (Whiting et al. 1991; Whiting & Chanton 1992; Whiting & Chanton 1993). One difference between this study and those done in lower latitudes, is that peat quality at depth (where low redox allows significant CH₄ production) is generally higher in high-latitude systems than in warmer climates (Wieder & Starr

1994). Thus, SOM may be a more important CH₄ source in the arctic than in lower latitudes.

Flux through individual plant tillers

Most of the CH₄ efflux occurred through plant tillers. Similarly, several other studies in arctic tundra suggested that plant transport accounted for 90% of the total CH₄ efflux (Torn & Chapin 1992; Morrisey & Livingston 1992; Whiting & Chanton 1992).

The amount of CH₄ transported by a plant tiller may depend on three processes: the CH₄ supply to the roots, the rate at which CH₄ is transported into the root air spaces (aerenchyma), and the rate at which CH₄ can move through, and out of the plant (Schütz et al. 1991; Chanton & Dacey 1991). All three processes controlled CH₄ flux in this site, though on different spatial scales and to differing degrees between species.

The two plant species had different transport kinetics, as indicated by the greater flux through *E. angustifolium* even though the roots were exposed to the same bulk soil CH₄ supply (Table 5). For each species there were significant correlations of flux with some measure of CH₄ supply, thus, CH₄ supply was an important control of plant transport, though apparently more immediately so for *C. aquatilis*.

Methane efflux appeared to occur through the leaf blades in both species, though clipping increased flux only in *C. aquatilis*. Thus, transport through leaves and stomata was a rate-limiting step for CH₄ transport in *C. aquatilis*, but not for *E. angustifolium*. In *E. angustifolium* the rate-limiting step was probably transfer between the rhizosphere and the aerenchyma, as is common among most other plant species (Armstrong 1979; Chanton & Dacey 1991). The different transport controls in *C. aquatilis* and *E. angustifolium* may be related to plant architecture rather than to any physiological differences between the species. *E. angustifolium* is larger than *C. aquatilis* (1.7 times greater tiller mass and 2.5 times greater tiller cross-sectional area). *E. angustifolium* also has a low root/shoot ratio and unbranched roots, while *C. aquatilis*, has a high root/shoot ratio and extensively branched roots (Shaver & Billings 1975).

Conclusions

Methane dynamics in the arctic wet meadow tundra are controlled by several factors that interact to produce complex spatial patterns. Soil organic matter quality, plant community distribution, and water table depth may all play major roles in controlling CH₄ production and flux in wetland systems. The

relative importance of these factors may vary independently and on different spatial scales. Within individual patches, defined by the intersections of these factors, the variability in CH₄ dynamics was relatively limited.

My results suggested that soil organic matter was an important C source for CH₄ production and that SOM quality was an important control on CH₄ production. While this is consistent with some other experimental and modeling work (Valentine et al. 1994), it disagrees with studies indicating fresh plant material as the source of CH₄ (Whiting & Chanton 1992). Regardless, total CH₄ production was not a good predictor of actual flux. Flux was controlled primarily by the composition of the plant community and its ability to transport CH₄. The controls on CH₄ flux through *E. angustifolium* and *C. aquatilis* differed, apparently due to differences in plant size, architecture, and inherent transport capacity. These results indicate that to understand and predict CH₄ flux from arctic wet meadow tundra, the composition of the plant community needs to be considered. Additionally plant species shifts resulting from disturbance, development, or climate change could substantially affect the total CH₄ flux from the ecosystem, beyond any direct effects from changing CH₄ production.

Acknowledgments

I thank Allen Doyle, Jay Gulledge, and Rob MacLean for assistance in the field, and Terry Chapin, Knut Kielland, and Knute Nadelhoffer for advice on the work and the manuscript. I thank the Institute of Arctic Biology, University of Alaska Fairbanks for support at the Toolik Field Station. This work was supported by a grant through the Athens Environmental Research Lab of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency.

References

- Armstrong W (1979). Aeration in higher plants. In: Woolhouse HW (Ed) Advances in Botanical Research (pp 226-333). Academic Press, New York
- Aselmann I & Crutzen PJ (1989) global distribution of natural freshwater wetlands and rice paddies, and their net primary productivity, seasonality and possible methane emissions. J. Atmos. Chem. 8: 307-358
- Burke IC, Kittel TGF, Lauenroth WK, Snook P, Yonker CM & Parton WJ (1991) Regional analysis of the central Great Plains. BioScience 41: 685–692
- Chanton JP & Dacey JWH (1991). Effects of vegetation on methane flux, reservoirs, and carbon isotopic composition. In: Sharkey TD, Holland EA & Mooney HA (Eds) Trace Gas Emissions by Plants (pp 65-89). Academic Press, San Diego
- Chanton JP, Martens CS, Kelley CA, Crill PM & Showers WJ (1992) Methane transport mechanisms and isotopic fractionation in emergent macrophytes of an Alaskan tundra lake. J. Geophys. Res. 97: 16,681–16,688

- Flung I, John J, Lemer J, Matthews E, Prather M, Steele LP & Fraser PJ (1991) Three dimensional model synthesis of the global methane cycle. J. Geophys. Res. 96: 13,033–13.065
- Funk DW, Pullman ER, Peterson KM, Crill PM & Billings WD (1994) The influence of water table on carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide and methane fluxes from taiga bog microcosms. Global Biogeochem. Cycles. In press
- Gerard G & Chanton J (1993) Quantification of methane oxidation in the rhizosphere of emergent aquatic macrophytes: defining upper limits. Biogeochemistry 23: 79–97
- Harden HS & Chanton JP (1994) Locus of methane release and mass-dependent fractionation from two wetland macrophytes. Limnol. Oceanogr. 39: 148–154
- Moore TR & Roulet NT (1993) Methane flux: water table relations in northern wetlands. Geophys. Res. Lett. 20: 587-590
- Morrisey LA, Zobel DB & Livingston GP (1993) Significance of stomatal control on methane release from *Carex*-dominated wetlands. Chemosphere 26: 339–355
- Morrisey LA & Livingston GP (1992) Methane emission from Alaska Arctic tundra: an assessment of local spatial variability. J. Geophys. Res. 97: 16,661–16,670
- Nadelhoffer KJ, Giblin AE, Shaver GR, Murray G, Laundre J & Schimel JP (1993) Ecosystem respiration and methane fluxes in warmed and fertilized tundra ecosystems along a moisture gradient in northern Alaska. EOS 74: 151
- Nouchi I, Mariko S & Aoki K (1990) Mechanism of methane transport from the rhizosphere to the atmosphere through rice plants. Plant Physiol 94: 59-66
- Roulet NT, Jano A, Kelly CA, Klinger LF, Moore TR, Protz R, Ritter JA & Rouse WR (1994) Role of the Hudson Bay lowland as a source of atmospheric methane. J. Geophys. Res. 99: 1439–1454
- Sass RL, Fisher FM & Harcombe PA (1990) Methane production and emission in a Texas rice field. Global Biogeochem. Cycles 4: 47–68
- Schimel JP, Holland EA & Valentine D (1993) Controls on methane flux from terrestrial ecosystems. In: Mosier AR, Duxbury J & Harper L (Eds) Agroecosystem effects on radiatively active trace gasses and global climate change (pp 167–182). Am. Soc. Agronomy, Madison
- Schütz H, Holzapfel-Pschorn A, Rennenberg H, Seiler W & Conrad R (1989) A three year continuous record of the influence of daytime, season, and fertilizer treatment on methane emission rates from an Italian Rice paddy. J. Geophys. Res. 94: 16,405–16,416
- Schütz H, Schröder P & Rennenberg H (1991) Role of plants in regulating the methane flux to the atmosphere. In: Sharkey TD, Holland EA & Mooney HA (Eds) Trace Gas Emissions by Plants (pp 29–63). Academic Press, San Diego
- Sebacher DI, Harriss RC & Bartlett KB (1985) Methane emissions to the atmosphere through aquatic plants. J. Environ. Qual. 14: 40–46
- Shaver GR & Billings W (1975) Root production and root turnover in a wet tundra ecosystem, Barrow, Alaska. Ecology 56: 401-410
- Systat Inc. (1992) Systat for Windows, Version 5 edition. Systat, Inc. Evanston, Ill
- Torn MS & Chapin FS, III (1992) Environmental and biotic controls over methane flux from arctic tundra. Chemosphere 26: 357–368
- Valentine DW, Holland EA & Schimel DS (1993) Ecosystem and physiological control over methane production in northern wetlands. J. Geophys. Res. 99: 1563–1571
- Whalen SC & Reeburgh WS (1988) A methane flux time series for tundra environments. Global Biogeochem. Cycles 2: 399-409
- Whalen SC & Reeburgh WS (1990) A methane flux transect along the trans-Alaska pipeline haul road. Tellus 42B: 237-249
- Whiting GJ, Chanton JP, Bartlett DS & Happell JD (1991) Relationships between CH₄ emission, biomass, and CO₂ exchange in a subtropical grassland. J. Geophys. Res. 96: 13,067–13,071
- Whiting GJ & Chanton JP (1992) Plant-development CH₄ emission in a subarctic Canadian fen. Global Biogeochem. Cycles. 6: 225–231

- Whiting GJ & Chanton JP (1993) Primary production control of methane emissions from wetlands. Nature 364: 794–795
- Wieder RK & Starr ST (1994) Organic matter quality depth profiles in northern (Ontario, Minnesota) and southern (Pennsylvania, West Virginia) Sphagnum peat deposits. Bull. Ecol. Soc. Am. Supplement 75: 248