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Water-extractable soil carbon in relation to the belowground carbon cycle

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Abstract We investigated the role of water-extractable carbon (C-extr) as potential substrate for forest soil microorganisms by comparing belowground C fluxes at a plot with the forest floor removed (no-litter) and at a control plot. One-third lower soil respiration rates at the no-litter plot gave evidence that the forest floor was the source of considerable amounts of microbially degradable C. Laboratory incubation of C-extr, fractionated into neutral and acid moieties, showed that part of the C-extr was degraded rapidly, and that the high-molecular-weight acid fraction was much less degradable than the neutral C. To the extent that the degradable portion of the water-extractable C can be regenerated quickly, it may supply much of the substrate for heterotrophic soil respiration.

Key words Water-extractable carbon fractions · Biodegradation · Belowground carbon dynamics · Soil respiration · Dissolved organic carbon

Introduction

Although a role is well established for dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in soil formation (Ugolini and Dahlgren 1987; Pohlman and McColl 1988) and in nutrient and heavy-metal transport (Qualls and Haines 1991; Guggenberger et al. 1994), its role in the belowground C economy remains less clear. Fluxes of organic C downward in solution are generally small relative to inputs in litterfall and root death (Sollins and McCorison 1981; Cronan

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Seckendorff – Gudent Weg 8, A-1131 Vienna, Austria Fax: (1) 877 5907; e-mail: rjandl@mail.boku.ac.at 1985; McDowell and Likens 1988; Guggenberger 1992). Even levels of water-extractable C, typically larger than the amount of C transported downward in solution through the soil profile but of similar chemical composition (Jardine et al. 1989), are small compared to that respired over the course of a 7-day incubation (Davidson et al. 1987). Despite several recent studies on the role of DOC as substrate for soil microbial respiration (McGill et al. 1986; Zsolnay and Steindl 1991; Cook and Allan 1992 a, b; Nelson et al. 1994), the degradability of DOC remains unclear (Qualls and Haines 1992; Boissier and Fontvielle 1993). None of these results, moreover, rule out the possibility that some portion of the water-extractable C is both degraded quickly and regenerated rapidly from particulate organic matter (OM). If true, then water-extractable C could still be a significant substrate for microbial metabolism.

Here was measured amounts and composition of waterextractable C (C-extr) in two forest plots from which the forest floor and leaf litter inputs were or were not excluded. We also measured rates of CO_2 evolution from the forest floor, and soil pCO_2 levels. In a laboratory incubation experiment we determined rates of degradation of the C-extr. We hoped to understand better the dynamics of Cextr in relation to inputs and losses of C from the soil.

Materials and methods

Site description

The study site is at an elevation of 630 m in the Andrews Experimental Forest in the central Cascade Mountains of Oregon, United States, on a gently north-facing slope (Table 1). The stand, designated L 108 A, consists of dense Douglas fir planted and established naturally after old-growth was clear cut and the site slash-burned in 1952. The site was replanted in fall.

Litter removal

In June 1993, the entire O horizon (referred to hereafter as litter layer) was removed from a rectangular 4-m^2 area (the no-litter plot) chosen to be clear of stumps and coarse woody debris. The nearest

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similar area, about 10 m distant, served as a control plot. Freshly fallen litter was collected manually and removed from the no-litter plot every 2 weeks for 1 year. Respiration, soil CO_2 concentration, and Cextr were measured periodically at both plots during the year.

Respiration from forest floor

Glass jars (diameter=10 cm, n=3 plot⁻¹) containing about 30 g ovendried soda lime were placed under a bucket (23-cm diameter) and exposed to CO₂ outgassing from the soil for 24 h (Edwards 1982). The jars were then closed, oven dried, and reweighed. The released C (mol·m⁻²) was then calculated from the increase in weight of CaCO₃. Monthly respiration was calculated assuming that the measured respiration represents the average respiration rate for the entire month. Work published after our field work was completed (Nay et al. 1994) indicates that the method underestimates values at high flux rates, but the error is small relative to the differences that we found between plots.

Soil atmosphere $p \operatorname{CO}_2$

We sampled soil air using steel tubes with an inner diameter of 6 mm and numerous perforations of 2 mm diameter in the side walls about 2 cm from the bottom. We pushed the tubes 15 and 30 cm into the soil, then drew soil air through a rubber septum at the top. We assumed that the atmosphere in the steel tube was in equilibrium with the soil atmosphere. Gas samples were injected into Vacutationers and analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) (HP 5730 A GC with an HP 3380 A integrator and a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) within 6 h. To account for losses of CO₂ during transport, we drew three to five samples from a container with standard gas, which were handled and analyzed the same as those from the experimental plots.

Carbon extraction and fractionation

Material from the entire forest floor and mineral soil (0-5, 5-10, 10-20, and 20-30 cm) was collected at the end of each season (June, September, and December 1993; March and June 1994). Field moist soil (50 g) was extracted with 150 ml distilled water. Soils were shaken overnight, centrifuged (Sorvall centrifuge, GSA rotor, 6500 g, 30 min), then sterilized by filtration through 0.2-µm polycarbonate membranes (Poretics). The threshold of 0.2-µm was chosen instead of the more commonly used 0.45 µm to exclude microbes and submicron organomineral particles. Viruses were presumably not excluded. DOC was measured on an aliquot with a Dohrman DC-80 carbon analyzer after acidification to $p\dot{H}\,2$ with phosphoric acid to purge inorganic C. Carbon compounds in the water extracts were fractionated by a modification of methods of Leenheer (1981), which separate acids, bases and neutrals with hydrophilic (Hi) and hydrophobic (Ho) groups. Following Guggenberger et al. (1994), who summarized earlier work (Thurman 1985; Qualls and Haines 1991; Vance and David 1991 a), we assumed that hydrophobic acids (HoAs) are derived from plant biomass and include "ligno-cellulose degradation products and a mixture of complex polyfunctional aliphatic and aromatic acids." The hydrophilic acids (HiAs) are similar to hydrophobic acids but contain more aliphatic acids (e.g., fatty acids), more carboxyl groups per C atom and more microbially derived polysaccharides. Hydrophilic neutrals (HiNs) are a mixture of carbohydrates, polyfunctional alcohols, and simple sugars and ketones, all of both microbial and plant origin.

Solutions were concentrated with a rotary evaporator at 45 °C to obtain a 150-ml sample volume with a concentration of ca. 20 mg C Γ^{-1} . Samples were then acidified to pH 2 and passed through a sequence of four columns with different macroreticular exchange resins. Resins were industrial grade and had to be cleaned by Soxhlet extraction (Leenheer 1981; Aiken 1988; Malcolm 1990). Amberlite XAD-8 retains hydrophobic acids (HoAs), Amberlite XAD-4 retains hydrophilic acids (HiAs), Bio-RAD (AG MP-50) scavenges cations, and Duolite retains any remaining anions. Hydrophilic neutrals (HiNs) are the C compounds that pass through all four resins. The HoA and HiA

fractions were desorbed from the XAD columns with 0.1 *M* NaOH, after which the eluent was pumped through the Bio-RAD resin to remove salts. Since hydrophobic acids (XAD-8), hydrophilic acids (XAD-4) and hydrophilic neutrals commonly compose up to 90% of the C-extr in soil (Donald et al. 1993; Vance and David 1991b), minor components such as hydrophobic neutrals and hydrophobic and hydrophilic bases were neglected. Although the XAD-8 is quite efficient, the XAD-4 is not, so we tried to use the Duolite column as a back-up. The Duolite tended to bleed organics during desorption, however, so data were not included.

Degradation of water-extractable C

Biodegradability of C fractions from litter and soil extracts was tested in a laboratory experiment. Fractions (HoA, HiA, and HiN) from the no-litter and control samples were combined to obtain sufficient volume. Solutions (30 ml) with a DOC concentration of ca. 20 mg l^{-1} were placed in autoclaved 50-ml glass bottles sealed with rubber septa. Solutions had already been filtered (0.2 µm) so resupply of dissolved C from POC was prevented. Air present initially in the headspace was replaced with commercially available CO₂-free air, which was bubbled through the liquid for several minutes at low pressure and allowed to escape through a cannula. Because the filtration had excluded most organisms, 20 μ l inoculum containing 10 mg l⁻¹ DOC was added. The inoculum was prepared from a water extract of litter and mineral soil material from which we separated a 0.2- to 5-µmsize fraction, which should include bacteria and some fungal spores and hyphal fragments but exclude most grazers (Frey et al. 1985). We sequentially passed the water extract through a 5-µm and a 0.2-µm membrane filter. The material trapped on the 0.2-µm filter was resuspended in water and used as inoculum. The amount of C added as inoculum was negligible relative to the amount of C in the XAD-fractionated sample, so degradation of the inoculum should not have confounded results.

Carbon degradation was found to be strongly N limited in an initial of incubations, which was to be expected as our fractionation method yielded organics free of inorganic N. To prevent N limitation, we lowered the C:N ratio to a favorable level (~10) by adding NH₄NO₃. We added no other nutrients. Samples were incubated at 22 °C for 120 days. CO₂ was drawn from the headspace after 3 days, then every 2 weeks thereafter, and analyzed by GC. Supersaturation of the sample solution with CO₂ was minimized by shaking the bottle gently for 30 min before gas sampling. An asymptotically increasing exponential function was fit to cumulative respiration over time with the SAS statistical package (Proc NLIN, DUD method). One replicate of each incubated fraction was left uninoculated; we observed no CO₂ evolution from these sterile samples.

Determination of microbial biomass

Biomass of soil bacteria and soil fungi was determined 1 year after litter removal on litter-layer samples from the control plot and on mineral soil (0- to 5-cm) samples from both plots. Total and active biomass of fungi and bacteria, and length of hyphae, were determined by microscopy (Frey et al. 1985; Ingham et al. 1991).

Results and discussion

Litter removal

Litter material removed initially amounted to 500 g OM m^{-2} (150 g C m⁻²). Subsequent periodic litter removal accounted for an additional 213 g C m⁻² over the course of the 13-month study, with the majority consisting of needles removed in March 1994.



Fig. 1 Soil CO₂ partial pressure at two depths in the no-litter and control plots. Air and soil temperature shown at bottom



Fig. 2 Soil respiration at no-litter and control plots and dry weight of Douglas fir litter removed. Error bars denote 1 SD (omitted where SD was small), n=3

Soil respiration and soil atmosphere $p CO_2$

Soil atmosphere $p \operatorname{CO}_2$ varied with season and depth at the control plot (Fig. 1). The $p \operatorname{CO}_2$ was consistently higher in the lower horizon and declined in both horizons during the cold months, due presumably to reduced root and microbial activity. Initially $p \operatorname{CO}_2$ was somewhat higher in the no-litter plot, likely a result of the disturbance. Later $p \operatorname{CO}_2$ declined. Unexpectedly high concentrations of CO_2 built up in the soil atmosphere in the no-litter plot in spring 1994, suggesting reduced diffusivity. A possible explanation is that the soil surface, unprotected by a litter layer, became sealed by clay particles during the moist winter and spring months. Unlike Hart and Firestone



Fig. 3 Water-extractable C by fraction at several depths in mineral soil in the no-litter and control plots

(1991), we observed no differences in soil water content between the two plots.

Total soil respiration measured with soda lime between June 1993 and June 1994 summed to 380 g C m^{-2} at the control plot vs 226 g C m⁻² at the no-litter plot. The respiration rate was initially quite high at the no-litter plot (Fig. 2), possibly an effect of site disturbance, but then decreased rapidly. Given that soil $p CO_2$ built up at the nolitter plot, we suspect that considerable CO₂ may have escaped around the sides of the disturbed area. We are unable to estimate how much though; thus we do not draw inferences from the differences in CO2 flux between the plots. CO₂ evolution rates were low in August, likely due to soil dryness, and during the cool winter months. Measured field respiration rates and soil CO₂ levels fell within ranges reported previously (Castelle and Galloway 1990; Bowden et al. 1993; Fernandez et al. 1993; Mattson and Smith 1993).

Carbon extractions and fractionations

Extractable carbon averaged about 17–34 g C g⁻¹ in the mineral soil (averaging across both plots, Fig. 3), but about 370 g C g⁻¹ in the litter layer (control plot only – Fig. 4). These values represent about 1.5% of total C in the litter layer, but only 0.05% of total C in mineral soil.



Fig. 4 Amount and composition of water-extractable C in the litter layer (control plot only) through time. Values are means of two replicates which differed by <10%

Amounts of all three C fractions decreased between litter and mineral soil and with depth in the mineral soil. For all samples, regardless of depth, time, or plot, HoA was the largest contributor to C-extr (Figs. 3,4). The trend through time was inconsistent. Extracts from litter and mineral soil differed markedly in percentage composition: 62.9% HoA, 20.6% HiA, and 16.4% HiN for litter vs 42.3%, 25.5%, and 32.2% averaging over all mineral soil samples. Pairwise *t*-tests of the percentages showed that differences were significant (P < 0.05) for HoA and HiA only. Figure 3 suggests that there was proportionately less HoA and more HiN in the upper mineral soil of the no-litter plot than the control plot. We consider this to be treatment effect, because litter leachate is dominated by HoA (Easthouse et al. 1992; Pohlman and McColl 1988; Vance and David 1991b) whereas the other sources of C (microbial tissues, root exudates, and decaying roots) yield more microbially derived polysaccharides, which appear in HiA and HiN (Guggenberger et al. 1994).

To assess differences in C composition between plots, we divided proportion of C in each fraction in the no-litter plot by proportion of C accounted for by that particular fraction in the control plot (e.g. percentage of HoA at the no-litter plot divided by percentage of HoA at the control plot). By horizon, such ratios were widest for the uppermost mineral-soil layer. By fraction, the ratios were widest for HoA and narrowest for HiN. For the HiA fraction, the ratio widened initially, but returned to near 1 a year after litter removal.

Incubation experiment

As little hyphal growth was noted, the incubations reflect mainly bacterial activity and thus may be a conservative estimate of C degradability. Cumulative respiration differed between litter and mineral soil extracts and between the three fractions (Fig. 5). For both the litter and mineral soil extracts, HoA was slightly less degradable than HiA, whereas HiN degraded the fastest. An exponential function generally failed to describe the early part of the incubation, which suggests a two-stage process of C degradation



Fig. 5 Cumulative C respired from water-extractable C fractions during a laboratory incubation

Table 1 Description of the soil profile (by Dr. T. Dyrness)

Oi	4–3 cm	twigs, needles
Oa	3–0 cm	humus layer
A	0–23 cm	silty loam, moist 10 YR, stones medium
		gravel, friable, non-sticky, non-plastic, many
		fine and medium roots, clear wavy boundary
B_{w1}	23–55 cm	silty loam, friable, weak medium subangular
		blocks, slightly sticky, plastic, common fine,
		medium, and coarse roots, gradual smooth
		boundary
B _{w3}	55–120 cm	silty clay loam, friable, weak coarse sub-
		angular blocks, sticky, very plastic

with the majority of the degradation occurring within the first 2 or 3 days. That amounts of C in the three fractions vary more over time in the absence of litter is to be expected: the overriding effect of leaf leachate (HoA) is missing; thus the contribution of other sources of C-extr should become more apparent. Faster degradation of HiN than HoA is reasonable because the former is mainly carbohydrate (largely microbial in origin), whereas the latter derives mainly from leaf tissue rich in structural materials. The amounts and degradation rate of HiA are less easily interpreted as both its nature and source are unclear. Degradation rates measured in this study are very rapid for the portion of the pool dominated in carbohydrates (HiN), whereas the acidic macromolecular remnants of lignin and cellulose (HiA, HoA) were more recalcitrant. Thus, even though HiN is not the dominant C-extr fraction, it contributes the largest part of respired C.

Microbial biomass

Biomass of fungi and bacteria was higher in the control plot than in the no-litter plot, due entirely to the microbial content of the litter layer (Table 2). For the mineral soil alone, values were slightly in the no-litter plot, especially for bacterial biomass and length of fungal hyphae. The higher microbial biomass in the mineral soil at the no-lit-

 Table 2
 Bacterial and fungal biomass and fungal hyphal length

Parameter	Control		No litter	
	Forest floor	0–5 cm	0–5 cm	
Fungal biomass	2000	500	(00)	
Total ($\mu g g^{-1}$) Active ($\mu g g^{-1}$)	2000 59	520 3	690 8	
Length of hyphae Total (cm g^{-1} soil) Active (cm g^{-1} soil)	69500 2000	17 900 100	17400 200	
Bacterial biomass Total ($\mu g g^{-1}$) Active ($\mu g g^{-1}$)	7.7 7.4	3.7 3.0	7.4 4.3	
Carbon in fungi Total ($\mu g C g^{-1}$) Active ($\mu g C g^{-1}$)	538 16	138 0.8	184 2.1	
Carbon in bacteria Total (μ g C g ⁻¹) Active (μ g C g ⁻¹)	3.2 3.1	1.3 1.3	1.8 1.8	

ter plot (Table 2) is also consistent with the higher proportions of HiN at that plot.

General discussion

To what extent could C-extr constitute the substrate for microbial respiration in soil and litter? For C-extr to be the main source for microbial respiration and assuming that litter layer and mineral soil contribute equally to soil respiration, C-extr would have to turn over about 1000 times annually in the litter layer and 4500 times in the mineral soil. Degradation of freshly extracted C has rarely been measured. Dahm (1981) reported that some 20% of the C freshly leached from alder foliage was respired within 48 h, after an initial lag of about 6 h, during which no respiration occurred. Rapid degradation of C freshly desorbed from marine sediments has also been reported (Keil et al. 1994). Qualls and Haines (1992) incubated DOC collected with soil lysimeters and found loss of only 5-10% in the first 2 days. The highest degradation rates were reported in the few experiments in which degradation of desorbed C was followed sequentially during the first few days after desorption (Qualls and Haines 1992; Keil et al. 1994; this study).

Seto and Yanagiya (1983) found a very close relation (r=0.95) between C-extr and respiration for 65 forest and agricultural soils. Although the C-extr was sufficient to supply only 3 h of respiration, it was replaced rapidly; weekly extractions showed no detectable decrease in C-extr over a 6-week period once an initial loss phase had ended after the 1st week. More recently, Cook and Allan (1992a) incubated sieved (root-free) soil for 210 days. They found close correlations between levels of C-extr and soil respiration at 14 and 35 days into the incubation, but not thereafter.

On the control plot, C-extr averaged about 7.8 g m⁻² counting both litter and mineral soil (to 30 cm depth). Our degradation results suggest that only about 15% of this is degradable, but that most of the degradation takes place within 3 days. This degradation rate extrapolates to respiration of about 360 mg C m⁻² day⁻¹, or about 120 g m⁻² day⁻¹, quite close to the soil respiration rate we measured at the control plot. The measured value, however, includes CO₂ produced by roots, which may account for as much as half of soil respiration (Ewel et al. 1987; Bonan 1993; Bowden et al. 1993).

Critical is the rate at which the C-extr might be replenished by dissolution of particulate OM and thus become available for microbial degradation. To determine this replenishment rate is difficult, however, because virtually any sort of laboratory experiment creates highly artificial conditions. In most such experiments, water was added regularly to leach the soil of C-extr. Vance and David (1991b) added artificial throughfall to intact litter/soil profiles weekly for a full year and measured the DOC leached. Total over 1 year ranged from 4.8 to 144 g C m^{-2} depending on the type of soil and the soil horizons included in the profile. Cronan (1985), in a similar experiment, found slightly lower rates of DOC leaching. The total soluble C available for degradation thus does seem to be of the same order as the measured respiration rate, suggesting that soluble C might in fact account for a significant proportion of the microbial substrate. Obviously, however, combining results from laboratory experiments on New England soils with data from our study cannot provide definitive answers, but the evidence suggests that the role of water-extractable C as a substrate for microbial respiration merits further attention.

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