

Abstract

Soil uptake of atmospheric hydrogen (H_2) and the associated hydrogen isotope effect were studied using soil chambers in a Western Washington second-growth coniferous forest. Chamber studies were conducted during both winter and summer seasons to account for large natural variability in soil moisture content (4–50%) and temperature (6–22°C). H_2 deposition velocities were found to range from 0.01–0.06 $cm\ s^{-1}$ with an average of $0.033 \pm 0.008\ cm\ s^{-1}$ (95% confidence interval). Consistent with prior studies, deposition velocities were correlated with soil moisture below 20% soil moisture content during the summer season. Considerable variability in deposition velocity observed during winter was not found to be closely related to soil moisture. The hydrogen kinetic isotope effect with H_2 uptake was found to range from –24‰ to –109‰. Aggregate analysis of experimental data results in an average KIE of $-57 \pm 5\%$ (95% CI). Some of the variability in KIE can be explained by larger isotope effects at lower (< 10%) and higher (> 30%) soil moisture contents. The measured KIE was also found to be correlated with deposition velocity, with smaller isotope effects occurring at higher deposition velocities. If correct, these findings will have an impact on the interpretation of atmospheric measurements and modeling of δD of H_2 .

1 Introduction

Molecular hydrogen (H_2) has a globally averaged mixing ratio of approximately 530 ppb and is the second most abundant reduced trace gas after methane (Novelli, 1999). The study of H_2 has warranted recent considerable attention due to its potential as a future energy source and its influences on the biogeochemical cycles of the atmospheric gases carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH_4), non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHC's) and water vapor (H_2O) (Schultz et al., 2003; Tromp et al., 2003; Warwick et al., 2004).

The major sources of H_2 , accounting for 90% of the global burden, are photochemical oxidation of CH_4 and NMHC's, fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning, whereas

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ocean degassing, volcanic emissions and production by legumes during N_2 fixation make up the remaining 10% (see review by Ehhalt and Rohrer, 2009). Soil uptake of H_2 is considered to account for $\sim 75\%$ of the global H_2 sink (Hauglustaine and Ehhalt, 2002; Price et al., 2007; Rahn et al., 2003; Sanderson et al., 2003) and the reason for the observed $\sim 3\%$ higher H_2 concentrations in the Southern Hemisphere compared to the Northern Hemisphere, which is atypical for an anthropogenically produced gas (Khalil and Rasmussen, 1989). Photochemical oxidation by the OH radical is responsible for the remaining $\sim 25\%$ of the H_2 sink (Novelli, 1999).

Despite a renewed research focus on the global H_2 cycle, there are still substantial uncertainties in the H_2 budget. Uncertainties in individual sources are commonly 25–50% (Ehhalt and Rohrer, 2009). Furthermore, there is not consensus on the magnitude of the soil sink; recent work by Rhee et al. (2006) and Xiao et al. (2007) indicates that the soil sink could be responsible for more than 80% of H_2 destruction. One of the primary reasons for this uncertainty in the sink, is the considerable variability that has been observed in the uptake rate of soils, much of which is not well characterized (Conrad and Seiler, 1985; Smith-Downey et al., 2008; Yonemura et al., 1999).

Measurements of the deuterium content of H_2 provide one way to reduce the uncertainty in the H_2 budget (Rice et al., 2010). Of particular potential, the difference between isotopic fractionations associated with H_2 uptake by soils and reaction with OH are large; the hydrogen kinetic isotope effect (KIE) in soil uptake is $k_{HD}/k_{H_2} \sim 0.94$ (Gerst and Quay, 2001) and in the reaction with OH is $k_{HD}/k_{H_2} \sim 0.70$ (Talukdar et al., 1996). Thus, HD can serve as a valuable tracer to distinguish between soil uptake and OH oxidation of H_2 at the global scale. However, this approach relies on extensive knowledge of the HD content of atmospheric H_2 and its spatial and temporal distribution combined with characterization of source HD/ H_2 signature ratios and isotopic fractionation from sinks to provide additional constraint of the H_2 budget (Price et al., 2007).

There have been few studies of the hydrogen KIE associated with soil uptake (Gerst and Quay, 2001; Rahn et al., 2002b) and none previous aimed at describing and

understanding processes determining its variability. Here we present a series of field chamber experiments conducted over two seasons in a forest ecosystem to determine the magnitude of the KIE during HD uptake by soils and focus the work on characterizing variability across a wide range of soil moisture content.

2 Experimental

2.1 Site description

Soil uptake experiments were conducted in the Washington Park Arboretum in Seattle, Washington (48° N, 122° W) during February, March and June 2006. The site is second growth coniferous forest with well-drained Indianola series soil formed in sandy glacial drift with minor amounts of volcanic ash. Indianola soils have neutral pH, contain 0–15% rock fragments with fine, coarse and medium roots, and are usually moist except for the 60–75 days following summer solstice (R. Harrison, personal communication, 2006). The forest floor typically has a covering of leaf litter during the winter/spring experiments and grass patches during the summer experiments. The experimental sites were roughly cleared of duff before experimentation. Upland and lowland soils were chosen to encompass a natural range of soil moisture within a season.

2.2 Sample collection

The soil uptake experiments were conducted using a 215 L rigid static flux chamber with a 0.57 m² footprint and an internal fan circulating the air inside. The chamber was placed over the soil and driven into the ground to an approximate depth of 1.5 cm. Air samples from within the chamber were collected using pre-evacuated 500 mL glass flasks at 0, 10 and 20 min after the start of the experiment. Flasks were allowed to equilibrate with the chamber air for 15 s. In total, 15 individual soil uptake experiments were performed. At the conclusion of each experiment, representative surface soil

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samples (~50–100 g) were collected and double bagged in Ziploc bags for moisture analysis.

2.3 Analysis

All H₂ concentrations were measured using a Trace Analytical Reduction Gas Analyzer RGA3, (Model E-001) gas chromatography system with a N₂ carrier gas as described previously (Gerst and Quay, 2000). Alternating sample/standard injections of 20 mL aliquots were passed through a 5 ml sample loop and measured on the RGA. The detection limit is 5 ppb. The software program Peak Simple calculates the peak heights and H₂ concentrations are determined against the standards of known concentration. The precision of the measurement is ±1.4%, determined by analyzing replicates of four manometrically prepared H₂ standards which ranged between 100 and 548 ppb.

To separate the H₂ for isotopic analysis we used a small volume technique previously described in detail (Rahn et al., 2002a; Rhee et al., 2004; Rice et al., 2010). Briefly, the air sample is allowed to transfer to a cryogenic trap at 40 K, which freezes out the major atmospheric gases but allows H₂ to remain in the gaseous state. Helium carrier gas is used to transfer the H₂ to a U-tube packed with molecular sieve immersed in liquid nitrogen, which has been super cooled to 63 K by lowering the headspace pressure. The molecular sieve trap is then transferred to a continuous-flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer for isotopic analysis using a simple inlet system. An Agilent 6890GC regulating a Restek MXT-5A PLOT column (15 m × 0.53 mm, isothermal at 30 °C, 1.5 bar helium carrier) cryofocuses, separates, and admits the H₂ to a ThermoFinnigan model 253 isotope ratio mass spectrometer through an open split interface to measure the D/H. The overall precision of the δD measurement is 5%, where $\delta D = [(D/H)_{\text{sample}} / (D/H)_{\text{VSMOW}} - 1] 1000$ and the standard is Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) (Coplen, 1995; Gonfiantini et al., 1995).

To measure soil moisture, soil samples of 20–40 g are weighed and then baked at 110 °C for 1 h. The dry mass is recorded and the sample is replaced in the oven for another 30 min and reweighed repeatedly until two consecutive weightings agree

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within 0.01 g. Percent moisture saturation equals $100(m_{\text{wet}} - m_{\text{dry}})/m_{\text{wet}}$, where m_{wet} is the initial wet soil mass and m_{dry} is the final dry soil mass.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 H₂ uptake rates

5 During the 15 experiments the H₂ concentration within the chamber decreased by a range of 58 to 95% over the 20 min chamber deployments (Fig. 1a). The rate of change of H₂ inside the chamber can be modeled by the balance between production and consumption:

$$\frac{dH_2}{dt} = P_{H_2} - k_{H_2} H_2 \quad (1)$$

10 where production of H₂ in the subsurface (P_{H_2}) is zero-order in H₂ and the consumption (k_{H_2}) is first order in H₂. We note the consumption term is first order in H₂ regardless if consumption is limited by diffusion (Fick's first law) or enzyme kinetics (Schmitt et al., 2009). Though in all experiments consumption outweighed production, evidence for a subsurface H₂ source is demonstrated by the decay of H₂ to non-zero asymptote
15 (Fig. 1a) and previously measured belowground non-zero H₂ concentrations (Conrad and Seiler, 1985; Smith-Downey et al., 2008; Yonemura et al., 2000). The solution to Eq. (1) is of the form:

$$H_2 = H_{2i} \exp(-k_{H_2} t) + H_{2e} (1 - \exp(-k_{H_2} t)) \quad (2)$$

20 where k_{H_2} is the first order loss coefficient and H_2 is the mixing ratio at time t (H_{2t}), initially (H_{2i}), and at equilibrium (H_{2e}). In this work we report net uptake as a deposition velocity (cm s^{-1}), $v_d = k_{H_2} \times H$ where H is the effective chamber height (12 ± 1 cm) (Conrad and Seiler, 1985).

This approach was applied by iteratively fitting our experimental data until convergence was reached ($r^2 > 0.99$) (Fig. 1a). Results of the 15 field chamber experiments

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are shown in Table 1. Results from one chamber experiment (experiment 7) was also excluded from our pooled analyses (see below) as it contains a sample that was lost prior to analysis; the reported uptake rate for this experiment is based on a strict first order loss rate. Including uptake rates from experiment 7 in pooled uptake rates does not change the conclusions, though it may bias the quantitative result.

Measured deposition velocities ranged from 0.012 to 0.058 cm s⁻¹ with a mean of 0.033 ± 0.008 cm s⁻¹ (95% confidence interval) (Table 1). This range of deposition velocity is wider than but overlaps with previous experimental determinations of deposition velocity at this site during summer which ranged from 0.03 to 0.06 cm s⁻¹ (Gerst and Quay, 2001). Additional comparison can be made to a number of studies of H₂ uptake rate including those in: desert and grassland (0.01 to 0.14 cm s⁻¹, Conrad and Seiler, 1985); agricultural and forested sites in Japan (0.01 to 0.09 cm s⁻¹, Yonemura et al., 1999, 2000); forested sites in Alaska (0.04 to 0.07 cm s⁻¹, Rahn et al., 2002b); forest, desert, and marsh sites in Southern California (0.02 to 0.10 cm s⁻¹, Smith-Downey et al., 2008); boreal forests in Finland (0.04 to 0.07 cm s⁻¹, Lallo et al., 2008), and agricultural fields in Germany (0.009 to 0.08 cm s⁻¹, Schmitt et al., 2009).

Over two seasons, soil temperature ranged 6–22 °C. Over this range, there was no significant correlation found between deposition velocity and soil temperature, which is consistent with a broad maximum in uptake rate above freezing temperatures observed previously (Conrad and Seiler, 1985; Lallo et al., 2008; Smith-Downey et al., 2006; Yonemura et al., 1999). Soil moistures ranged from 5–50%, with lower soil moistures during summer months. At lower soil moisture contents (0–20%) during the summer experiments, we found a significant positive correlation between deposition velocity and soil moisture (Fig. 2a, $r^2 = 0.61$, p -value < 0.05). This finding is consistent with previous field experiments and laboratory studies of H₂ uptake rates which indicate lower microbial activity at low soil moisture contents (Conrad and Seiler, 1985; Smith-Downey et al., 2006). Winter experiments had considerably higher variability in deposition velocity that was not statistically linked to soil moisture content (Fig. 2a, $r^2 = 0.20$, p -value > 0.1). Previous work has shown a decrease in deposition velocities

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associated with higher soil moisture contents > 40% due to the decrease in H₂ diffusivity at higher saturations (Lallo et al., 2008; Smith-Downey et al., 2006; Yonemura et al., 1999). Other potential factors controlling H₂ deposition velocities include soil porosity and microbial populations, variables which may help explain additional variability observed in these results (Conrad, 1996; Schmitt et al., 2009).

3.2 Kinetic isotope effect

The δD of H₂ within the chamber increased by a range of 20 to 200‰ over the 20 min chamber deployment during the 15 experiments. In all experiments, the δD increase was associated with a decrease in the H₂ concentration, indicating that the loss rate of HD was slower than the loss rate of H₂ in the chamber. The ratio of these loss rates defines the KIE for the process ($\alpha = k_{H_2}/k_{HD}$). In a closed system, the Rayleigh distillation relationship describes the change in D/H ratio during consumption of H₂:

$$\frac{(D/H)}{(D/H)_i} = \left(\frac{H_2}{H_{2i}} \right)^{\alpha-1} \quad (3)$$

where the D/H of H₂ at time t is a function of the initial D/H ratio, the H₂ concentration at initial and time t , and α . The KIE can be determined by linear regression of a log–log plot. This approach has been used in two previous studies of the KIE associated with soil uptake of H₂ (Gerst and Quay, 2001; Rahn et al., 2002b).

Acknowledging the non-zero asymptotic behavior of H₂ and HD in the chamber here, it is more accurate to model HD in the approach of Eq. (2):

$$HD = HD_i \exp(-k_{HD}t) + HD_e(1 - \exp(-k_{HD}t)) \quad (4)$$

which accounts for nonlinearity in a log–log Rayleigh plot (Eq. 3) due to the small H₂ and HD belowground source (Eq. 1). This more exact approach is applied here for HD concentrations in the chamber and shown in Fig. 1b. The KIE associated with soil uptake is a ratio of the coefficients ($\alpha = k_{H_2}/k_{HD}$) obtained from fitting H₂ and HD data

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with Eqs. (2) and (4), respectively. Results of this analysis are shown for each field chamber experiment in Table 1.

Based on this approach, the KIE associated with soil uptake is found to range from $\alpha = 0.891$ to 0.977 with an average of $\alpha = 0.934 \pm 0.03$ (1σ). This corresponds to an average fractionation factor, $\varepsilon = -66 \pm 30\text{‰}$, where $\varepsilon = (\alpha - 1)(1000)$. Additionally, we use normalized aggregate data for an estimation of the average observed KIE, combining Eqs. (3) and (4):

$$\ln\left(\frac{\text{HD} - \text{HD}_e}{\text{H}_{2i} - \text{HD}_e}\right) = \alpha \ln\left(\frac{\text{H}_2 - \text{H}_{2e}}{\text{H}_{2i} - \text{H}_{2e}}\right) \quad (5)$$

Robust least squares regression (bisquare) for data from the 14 experiments (Fig. 3), considering uncertainty in both H_2 and HD variables, results in an average $\alpha = 0.943 \pm 0.005$, which corresponds to an $\varepsilon = -57 \pm 5\text{‰}$ ($r^2 = 0.9994$, 95% CI). We assume this approach for estimating the average KIE is most accurate since it is less susceptible to outliers. This mean result is indistinguishable from a previous study at this same experimental site during summer ($-57 \pm 24\text{‰}$) (Gerst and Quay, 2001) and from a forested site in Alaska ($-60 \pm 10\text{‰}$) (Rahn et al., 2002b).

Following behavior in deposition velocity, no correlation was found between soil temperature and KIE but there is evidence that the KIE is related to soil moisture content (Fig. 2b). In particular, we observe a significant correlation between soil moisture and KIE at $<20\%$ soil moisture content during summer months ($r^2 = 0.55$, p -value < 0.05 , two-sided t -test). Over this interval, larger KIE is found at lower soil moisture content. Results also indicate that the KIE may be smallest at intermediate soil moisture contents 10 – 30% (mean difference 26‰ , p -value < 0.1 , two sided t -test), an interval where H_2 deposition velocities are high. The results also show a significant correlation between deposition velocity and KIE, with a larger isotope effect observed at lower deposition velocity (Fig. 4, $r^2 = 0.27$, p -value < 0.05). Over the range of measured deposition velocity 0.012 to 0.058 cm s^{-1} , we find a $\sim 10\text{‰}$ decrease in the magnitude of ε for an increase of 0.01 cm s^{-1} .

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If correct, these two findings are significant towards quantifying variability in the KIE associated with soil uptake of H_2 . Since the uptake rate of H_2 in these experiments reflects both diffusion and consumption, the net KIE is considered to be a function of both processes, $\alpha_{\text{net}} = (\alpha_{\text{diffusion}}\alpha_{\text{consumption}})^{1/2}$ (Bender, 1990; Snover and Quay, 2000). The KIE of H_2 diffusing in air can be estimated by the ratio of the square root of the reduced masses of H_2 and HD in air, $\varepsilon = -170\text{‰}$. We assume that microbial consumption has a relatively small KIE (it is unknown) so that α_{net} falls in between their limits, consistent with observations here and previously. It is plausible that in the mid-moisture regime (10–30%), where H_2 uptake rate is typically greatest due to a low moisture barrier and higher microbial activity, consumption is not diffusion-limited and α_{net} approaches the bacterial limit ($\alpha_{\text{consumption}}$). Finally, since soil moisture and deposition velocity only determine a fraction of the observed variability in KIE, additional variability may be controlled by different reaction kinetics of microbial populations (Conrad, 1996).

4 Conclusions

The uptake of H_2 by soils was found to have an average KIE of $\varepsilon = -57 \pm 5\text{‰}$ in close agreement with previous studies. However, over a wide range of temperature, soil moisture content, and deposition velocity, the KIE was found to have considerable variability, -24‰ to -109‰ . Some of this variability may be associated with soil moisture content. A correlation between deposition velocity and KIE was also found, with the observed isotope effect larger at low deposition velocity. Additional field studies of the KIE during H_2 soil uptake will be needed to confirm this result. Laboratory studies to measure the KIE during bacterial H_2 oxidation would also be particularly useful for interpreting field data and distinguishing between physical and biological processes. However, if correct, KIE dependencies on soil moisture and uptake rate will affect both seasonal and meridional trends in the δD of atmospheric H_2 (Rice et al., 2010), especially in situations where high rates of H_2 soil uptake affect atmospheric H_2 concentrations (e.g., forest air). As the δD of H_2 is incorporated into models, including these KIE dependencies in soil uptake will be critical to correctly modeling the δD of atmospheric

H₂ and using it as an additional constraint on the global H₂ budget (Price et al., 2007).

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Table 1. Selected data from field experiments including experiment number, soil temperature, soil moisture content, deposition velocity (v_d), and the calculated kinetic isotope effect (ε).

Exp#	Date and time	T (°C)	Moisture (%)	v_d^a (cm/s)	KIE (ε) ^b (‰)
1	16 Feb 2006 17:25	6	47	0.013	−90
2	29 Mar 2006 11:10	9	50	0.058	−44
3	29 Mar 2006 11:30	9	44	0.048	−76
4	29 Mar 2006 12:00	9	29	0.016	−75
5	29 Mar 2006 12:30	9	32	0.012	−109
6	29 Mar 2006 12:45	9	33	0.048	−25
7	29 Mar 2006 13:20	9	32	0.022	−50
8	29 Mar 2006 13:50	10	30	0.031	−39
9	28 Jun 2006 10:50	20	5	0.015	−59
10	28 Jun 2006 12:00	16	20	0.043	−57
11	28 Jun 2006 12:45	17	20	0.045	−24
12	28 Jun 2006 13:20	18	9	0.043	−88
13	28 Jun 2006 13:45	18	14	0.030	−54
14	28 Jun 2006 14:15	22	4	0.019	−93
15	28 Jun 2006 14:50	21	8	0.028	−97

^a Deposition velocities (v_d) were calculated using Eq. (2) and have an error of ~8% primarily as a result of the error in effective chamber height, H .

^b Kinetic isotope effects (ε) were calculated using Eqs. (2) and (4) which permit H_2 and HD to decay to non-zero asymptotic concentrations.

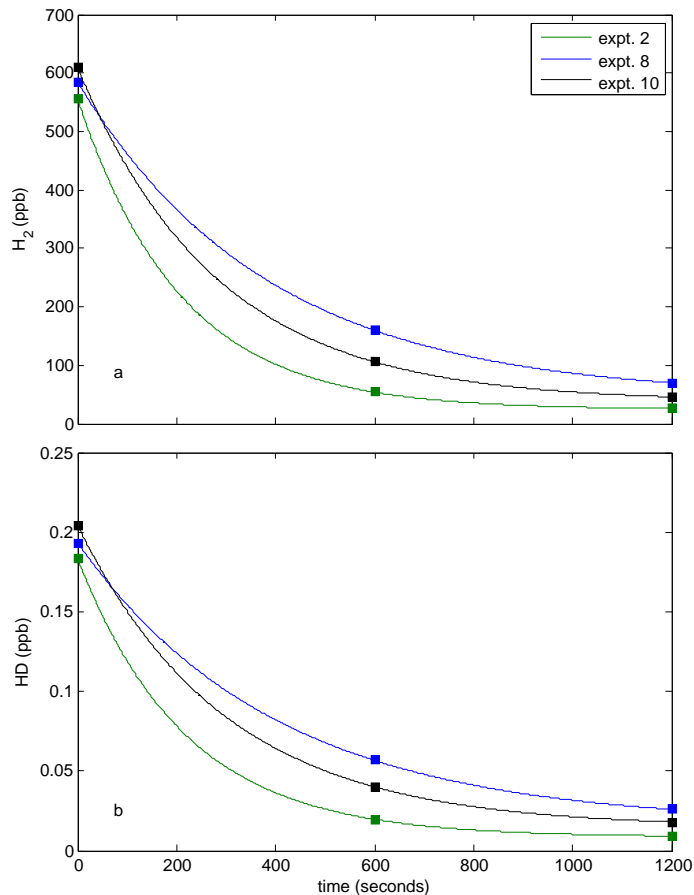


Fig. 1. Observed chamber concentrations of H₂ (a) and HD (b) during three representative experiments: experiment 2 (green squares), experiment 8 (blue squares), experiment 10 (black squares). Fits shown are based on Eqs. (2) and (4). Measurement uncertainties are smaller than individual symbols.

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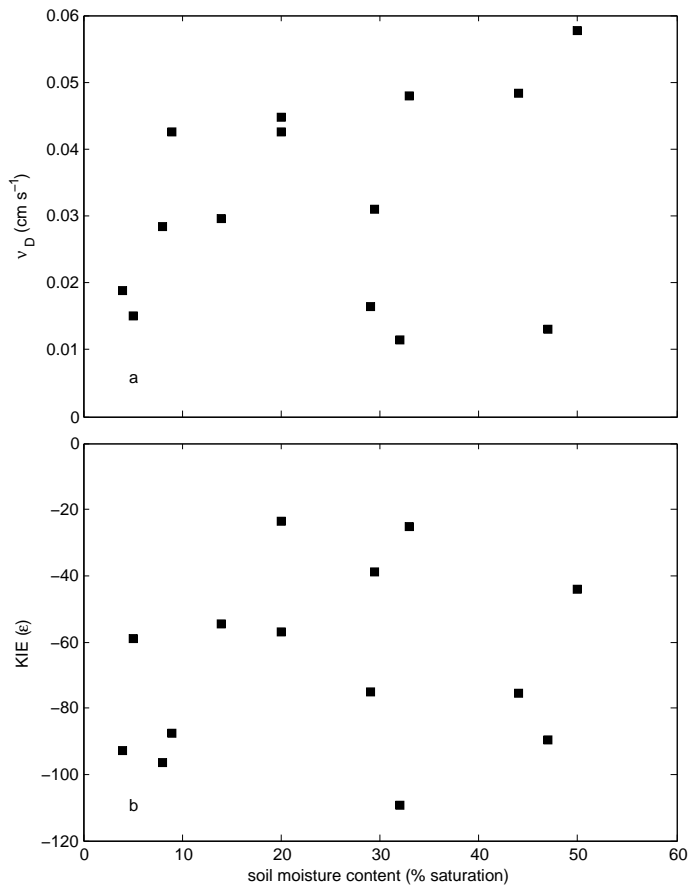


Fig. 2. Deposition velocity **(a)** and kinetic isotope effect **(b)** plotted versus soil moisture measured during the chamber experiments (Table 1).

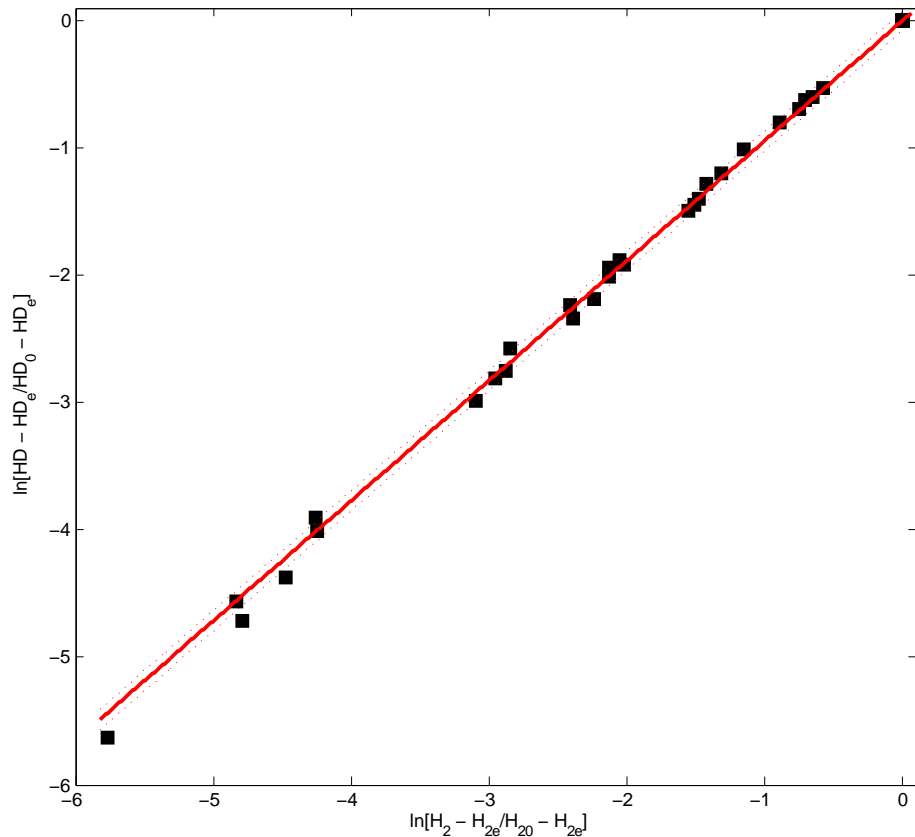


Fig. 3. Aggregate data analysis for the calculation of the mean kinetic isotope effect based on the equilibrium model from all experiments (Table 1). Least squares regression of these data, considering errors in both H₂ and HD variables, results in a value of $\epsilon = -57 \pm 5\%$ ($r^2 = 0.9994$, 95% CI).

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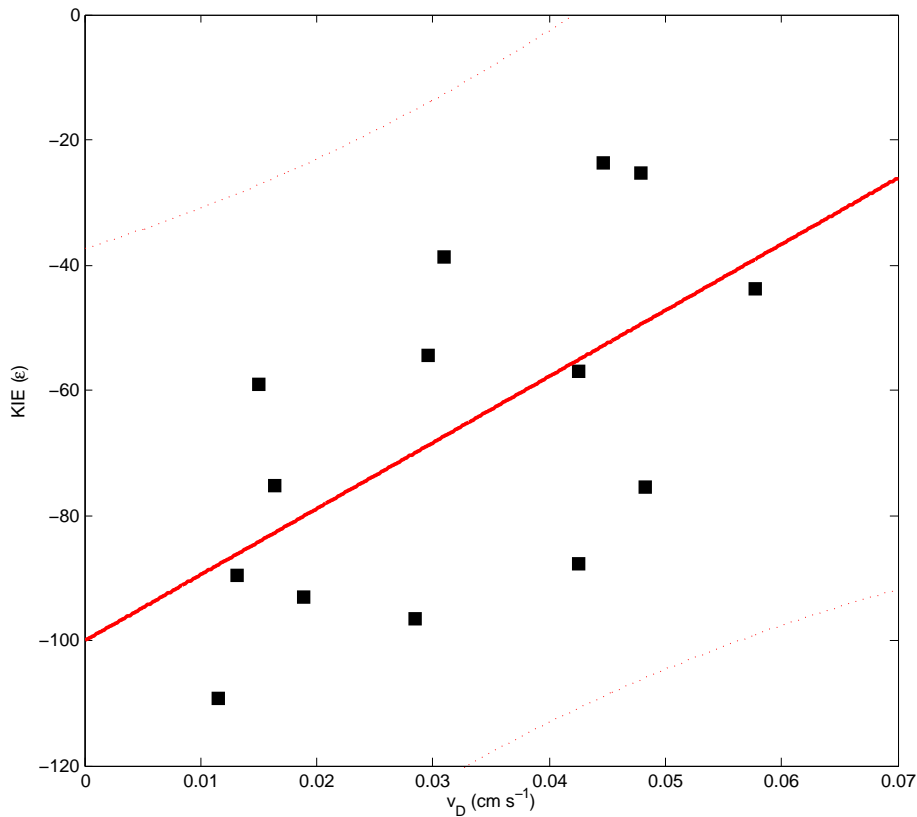


Fig. 4. The correlation of deposition velocity and kinetic isotope effect for chamber experiments (Table 1). Linear fit shown (solid line) with 95% confidence interval (dotted line) is suggestive of a relationship between the two variables ($r^2 = 0.27$, p -value < 0.05).

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