3	Atlantic forest
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Soil-atmosphere exchange of nitrous oxide, methane and carbon

dioxide in a gradient of elevation in the coastal Brazilian

21 Abstract

22 Soils of tropical forests are important to the global budgets of greenhouse gases. The 23 Brazilian Atlantic Forest is the second largest tropical moist forest area of South America, 24 after the vast Amazonian domain. This study aimed to investigate the emissions of nitrous oxide (N₂O), carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄) fluxes along an altitudinal transect 25 26 and the relation between these fluxes and other climatic, edaphic and biological variables 27 (temperature, fine roots, litterfall, and soil moisture). Annual means of N₂O flux were 3.9 (± 0.4) , 1.0 (± 0.1) , and 0.9 (± 0.2) ng N cm⁻² h⁻¹ at altitudes 100, 400, and 1000 m, 28 29 respectively. On an annual basis, soils consumed CH₄ at all altitudes with annual means of -1.0 (± 0.2), -1.8 (± 0.3), and -1.6 (± 0.1) mg m⁻² d⁻¹ at 100 m, 400 m and 1000 m, 30 respectively. Estimated mean annual fluxes of CO₂ were 3.5, 3.6, and 3.4 $\,\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$ at 31 32 altitudes 100, 400 and 1000 m, respectively. N₂O fluxes were significantly influenced by 33 soil moisture and temperature. Soil-atmosphere exchange of CH₄ responded to changes in 34 soil moisture. Carbon dioxide emissions were strongly influenced by soil temperature. 35 While the temperature gradient observed at our sites is only an imperfect proxy for climatic 36 warming, our results suggest that an increase in air and soil temperatures may result in 37 increases in decomposition rates and gross inorganic nitrogen fluxes that could support

38 consequent increases in soil N₂O and CO₂ emissions and soil CH₄ consumption.

39 1 Introduction

The Brazilian Atlantic Forest is a heterogeneous region that includes a large variety of forest physiognomies and compositions (plant and animal species) and is distributed in different topographic and climatic conditions such as areas of coastal flooded forest (restinga), lowland, submontane and montane forests (Metzger, 2009; Vieira et al., 2008). It originally covered an area of 148 million ha, corresponding approximately to 17.4% of the Brazilian territory, extending for over 3300 km along the eastern Brazilian coast 46 between the latitudes of 3 and 30°S (Metzger, 2009; Ribeiro et al., 2009). The Atlantic 47 forest represents the second largest tropical moist ecosystem of South America, after the 48 vast Amazonian domain (Oliveira-Filho and Fontes, 2000), and it is also considered a 49 hotspot in terms of biodiversity and endemism (Myers et al., 2000). Nevertheless, the 50 Atlantic Forest is among the most threatened tropical forests in the world because its 51 location coincides largely with the most populated areas of Brazil, where the settlement of 52 European pioneers and African slaves started four centuries ago (Oliveira-Filho and 53 Fontes, 2000). Currently the Atlantic Forest is reduced to only 12% of its original cover 54 (Metzger, 2009), and most remnants are small and disturbed fragments (< 50 ha) or larger areas sheltered on steep mountain slopes (Metzger, 2009; Ribeiro et al., 2009). 55

56 Despite the importance of the Atlantic Forest biome there are very few data concerning its 57 function (Maddock et al., 2001). Soils of tropical forests are considered as important contributors to the global gas budgets as source of atmospheric nitrous oxide (Bouwman et 58 59 al., 1995; Maddock et al., 2001), and carbon dioxide (Keller et al., 1986), and as sink of methane (Reiners et al., 1994; Reiners et al., 1997). Although considerable research has 60 61 been done for a long time aiming to quantify the main global sources and sinks of the main 62 greenhouse gases (N_2O , CH_4 , and CO_2) the uncertainties in the overall budgets of these gases remain large in part because of the limited spatial and temporal extent of the 63 sampling in tropical regions (Maddock et al., 2001; Purbopuspito et al., 2006). 64

The main objective of this paper is to quantify the soil emission rates of N_2O , CH_4 and CO_2 along a gradient of elevation in the Coastal Brazilian Atlantic Forest located in the northern coast of São Paulo state, southeast region of Brazil. Most studies related to tropical forests soil gas emissions are still strongly biased toward lowland tropical forests (Keller and Reiners, 1994; Davidson et al., 2000; Davidson et al., 2001).We chose to work along a gradient of elevation because of differences in climatic conditions, species composition 71 and structure (Marrs et al., 1988), nutrient supply (Grubb, 1977) and soil physical and chemical properties (Sollins, 1998; Tanner et al., 1998). Climate and soil properties are 72 73 well known factors that modulate the emission of trace gases by soils (Davidson, 1993; Steudler et al., 1996; Breuer et al., 2000; Davidson et al., 2000; Kiese and Butterbach-74 75 Bahl, 2002; Moreira and Sigueira, 2006). Therefore, we expected soil gas emissions to 76 vary with altitude responding to combinations of the factors described above. Although tropical forest soils are expected to respond to global warming few studies have 77 78 investigated soils from forests along a gradient of elevation that might provide some 79 insight into controls on future trace gas exchange (Riley and Vitousek, 1995; Purbopuspito 80 et al., 2006).

81 2 Material and methods

82 2.1 Study area

83 This study was conducted in the Coastal Brazilian Atlantic Forest, on the northern coast of 84 the São Paulo State, within the management units (nucleos) of Picinguaba (lowland, 23° 31' to $23^{\circ} 34$ 'S and $45^{\circ} 02$ ' to $45^{\circ} 05$ W) and Santa Virginia (montane, $23^{\circ} 17$ ' to $23^{\circ} 24$ 'S 85 and 45° 03' to 45° 11'W) of the Serra do Mar State Park. Three areas (treatments) were 86 selected at the altitudes of 100 m (lowland), 400 m (submontane), and 1000 m (montane) 87 88 (Alves et al., 2010). Historical monthly average temperatures of the study areas ranges 89 from 19.1 to 25.5 °C (Sentelhas et al., 1999). According to Oliveira-Filho and Fontes 90 (2000) and Talora et al. (2000), the lowland and submontane areas (100 m and 400 m) are characterized as tropical moist forests under a tropical climate (Af type in Köppen), 91 92 whereas the montane area (1000 m) is considered a tropical montane forest (Tabarelli and 93 Mantovani, 2000) under subtropical climate (Cfa according to Köppen). For a full 94 description of the forest classification and structure see Alves et al. (2010).

According to the meteorological stations of the Department of Water and Energy of São Paulo State (DAEE-SP) the historical annual mean precipitation (1973-2004) at the municipality of Ubatuba located at 220 m altitude is 3050 mm and in the municipality of Natividade da Serra, near altitude 1000 m, the annual mean precipitation decreases to approximately 2300 mm. During May through August, the total historical precipitation is 200 mm, about half as much as in other months. In this study we considered these four months as *dry season* and the other eight months as *rainy season*.

102 Soils of the study sites are mostly sandy, but with higher clay contents at 100 m (Table 1). 103 Soils at the three altitudes have low carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) contents and these 104 nutrients are concentrated in the upper soil layer (up to 10 cm depth), decreasing with 105 depth (Martins, 2010). Soil C and N concentrations and stocks progressively increase along 106 the altitudinal gradient (Table 1).

107 **2.2** Soil gas flux

108 At each altitude four plots (replicates) of 1 ha were delimited (Alves et al., 2010). Gas 109 samples were collected once a month from September 2006 through August 2007, in each 110 plot with a day of collection per altitude, generally between 08:00 and 18:00 h local time. 111 Fluxes of nitrous oxide (N₂O), carbon dioxide (CO₂), and methane (CH₄) were measured at 112 random points along 30 m transects that were initiated at randomized seed points in 113 randomized directions each month with eight cylindrical PVC chambers (8 sub-sample 114 chambers per plot) consisting of a pipe that served as a base (0.29 m diameter) and a cap 115 that fit snugly on the base (Keller et al., 2005). For N₂O and CH₄, four samples of 60 mL 116 of the air from the chambers were withdrawn at intervals of 1, 10, 20 and 30 min after 117 closing with 60 mL syringes and then transferred to previously evacuated glass serum vials 118 sealed with gas impermeable, butyl rubber septum stoppers. Samples were analyzed by gas 119 chromatography (SHIMADZU GC-14A Model) within five days of collection. Lab tests

120 showed that N_2O and CH_4 concentrations were unaffected by storage for up to thirty days. 121 Gas concentrations were calculated by comparing peak areas for samples to those of 122 commercially prepared standards (Scott-Marin) that had been calibrated against standards 123 prepared by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration/Climate Monitoring 124 and Diagnostic Laboratory (NOAA/CMDL). Fluxes were calculated from linear 125 regressions of concentration versus time.

126 A dynamic flow system was used for measurements of CO_2 . Air flowed from the soil 127 enclosure through a Teflon-lined polyethylene sample line 5 m in length and then it entered 128 an infrared gas analyzer (Li-Cor 820). Data was stored in a palmtop computer and fluxes 129 were calculated from the linear increase of concentration versus time adjusted for the ratio 130 of chamber volume to area and the air density within the chamber (Keller et al., 2005). 131 Because of instrument malfunctions, CO_2 fluxes were not available for several months of 132 the year (see Results).

133 **2.3 Litterfall and fine roots**

134 Litterfall data were obtained by thirty 80 cm diameter litterfall traps per plot deployed at 135 randomized points in two plots at each elevation and samples were collected every fifteen 136 days, kept in paper bags, labeled, and dried at 60°C. After drying, samples were weighed. 137 In addition, surface litter layer mass was weighed to assess litterfall stocks simultaneously 138 with litterfall. Thirty surface litter samples were collected from randomly located 0.3 x 0.3 139 m plots marked by a rigid frame for two plots at each altitude, every thirty days. Samples 140 were kept in paper bags, dried at 60°C and weighed to determine stocks of litter on soil 141 surface. Litterfall and surface litter collections started six months after gas sampling 142 (March 2007) and therefore overlapped the gas collections for only 6 months (March 143 through August 2007). Decomposition rates were calculated according to the model proposed by Olson (1963) and decomposition time was determined according to Shanksand Olson (1961).

Five fine root soil cores samples were randomly collected from 0 to 10 cm depth in every plot of each altitude, and treated according to Vogt and Persson (1991). Fine root samples were analyzed for total C and N concentration using a Carlo Erba elemental analyzer at the Laboratory of Isotope Ecology, CENA-USP. For statistical tests, the mean of the five root samples collected at each plot was considered as one of the four replicates per gradient of elevation.

152 2.4 Soil water filled pore space (WFPS) and N contents

153 Once a month during one year of collection, and after soil gas collection, the surface litter 154 was removed from each chamber location and a soil core about 5 cm diameter and 10 cm 155 deep was collected. After collection, soil samples were transported on ice in an insulated 156 cooler to the Laboratory of Isotope Ecology at CENA-USP and stored at ~4°C until 157 analysis. Soil samples were sieved (sieve 2 mm mesh) to remove roots and large stones, 158 and a ten grams subsample was oven-dried at 105°C for 24 h to determine water content gravimetrically and N contents (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻), and N-mineralization and N-nitrification 159 processes as the procedures described by Piccolo et al. (1994). Water filled pore space 160 161 (WFPS) was obtained from soil core samples collected once a month from each chamber 162 location and calculated according to Carmo et al. (2007). Additionally, we recorded air and 163 soil temperatures (2 cm depth) using electronic thermometers.

164 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

165 All data were first tested for normal distribution and for homoscedasticity by the 166 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Because of the non-normal distribution of the fluxes for CH_4 167 and N₂O, these data were log-transformed to homogenize variances. We analyzed gas 168 fluxes and other variables in a 2-way ANOVA design using altitude and month as 169 treatments. Four plots served as replicates at each altitude. Months could be considered as 170 treatments because the collection points for chambers were randomized every month. 171 Tukey's *post-hoc* analysis was used to make comparisons among altitudes. Pearson 172 correlation coefficients between N₂O, CO₂, and CH₄ fluxes, soil N contents, soil 173 temperature, and soil moisture also were calculated. Statistical analyses were performed 174 using Minitab version 15 software (Minitab Inc., 2006).

175 Cumulative annual flux of N_2O and CH_4 were calculated by linear interpolation and 176 integration of fluxes among the sampling dates. The difference among cumulative annual 177 fluxes by altitude was also tested by one-way-ANOVA. We estimated the missing CO_2 178 fluxes by fitting an exponential relation between soil temperature and CO_2 flux (Doff Sotta 179 et al., 2004). After filling the missing CO_2 data, the accumulative annual CO_2 flux was also 180 estimated.

181 **3 Results**

182 **3.1** Soil temperature and soil chemical-physical properties

183 As expected, lower soil temperatures (P < 0.05) were found at higher altitude (1000 m) and 184 soil temperature increased downwards (Figure 1).

Soil moisture expressed as WFPS was significantly higher (P<0.05) in the plots at 100 m and 400 m than in soils located at 1000 m (Figure 2). The trends in WFPS reflect in part the soil porosity and packing (Beare et al., 2009). Soil bulk densities at 5 cm depth were greater at the lower elevations (0.98 g m³ at 100 m and 1.06 Mg m³ at 400 m) compared to the montane site (0.8 g m³ at 1000 m).

190 There was no difference (P>0.05) in annual net mineralization and net nitrification rates 191 among altitudes. However, ammonium (NH_4^+) and nitrate (NO_3^-) concentrations were

192 significantly higher (P<0.05) at altitude 1000 m (9.7±0.6 and 19.1±1.0 µg g⁻¹,

193 respectively). No significant correlations were found between soil nitrate or ammonium 194 concentrations and flux of soil gases during the sampling period nor was soil net N, net 195 mineralization and net nitrification rates significantly correlated to soil gas emissions.

196 3.2

Fine root and litter production

197 On average total fine root biomass (0-10 cm depth) was greater (P < 0.05) in the dry season 198 than in the rainy season. During the rainy season fine roots had larger live mass (P < 0.05) 199 than dead mass and fine root mass (live and dead) was larger (P < 0.05) at 1000 m (Table 200 2). In the dry season, there was no significant difference (P>0.05) between live and dead 201 mass along the altitudes but greater root mass (P < 0.05) was again found at 1000 m 202 altitude.

203 Carbon to nitrogen (C:N) ratio of fine roots (live and dead) collected during the rainy 204 season was significantly higher (P < 0.05) than in the dry season (Table 3). In both seasons, 205 the C:N ratio of live roots was significantly (P < 0.05) higher than dead roots. There was no 206 significant difference of C:N ratio of fine roots among altitudes (Table 3).

207 Although a decrease in litterfall was observed at higher altitudes, there was no significant 208 difference among altitudes (Table 4). Litterfall stocks on soil surface were significantly 209 higher (P<0.05) at 1000 m (Table 4). Calculations using Shanks and Olson's model (1961), 210 showed that litter decay rate decreases as altitude increases (P < 0.05, Table 4); litter takes 211 18 months for 95% loss at 100 m and about 50% more time at 400 and 1000 m.

212 3.3 Soil-atmosphere emissions of trace gases

213 Annual means of soil N₂O flux decreased (P < 0.05) with the increase of altitude (Table 5). 214 At all altitudes, we observed consumption of soil CH₄ with the smallest consumption 215 (P < 0.05) observed at 100 m (Table 5). CO₂ fluxes do not correspond to a full year and 216 valid data correspond to the months from March, 2007 through August, 2007. For these months, soil CO₂ fluxes averaged 3.1 (± 0.3) μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ at 1000 m and were significantly lower (*P*<0.05) than at 400 m and 100 m (3.3 (± 0.3) and 3.6 (± 0.2) μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ respectively), which were not distinguishable from one another.

The cumulative annual fluxes of N_2O and CH_4 for the three altitudes were calculated and the ANOVA results for N_2O were similar to the simple averages (Table 5). In contrast, for the cumulative fluxes of CH_4 we found no significant difference among altitudes. We note that the simple data provide a more powerful test than the cumulative data because they include more degrees of freedom.

Higher fluxes of CO₂ were observed in all altitudes between February and April, 2007, during the rainy season, and lower fluxes were measured between May and August, 2007, during dry season (Figure 3c). Carbon dioxide emissions increased with soil temperature $(r^2 = 0.7 \text{ at } 100 \text{ m}, r^2 = 0.9 \text{ at } 400 \text{ m} \text{ and } 1000 \text{ m}, \text{ respectively}, P<0.05), but no correlation$ was observed with WFPS.

Using an exponential model for CO₂ flux with temperature (Doff Sotta et al., 2004), we estimated the missing CO₂ data (October, 2006 through April, 2007) and then interpolated the data as we did for N₂O and CH₄ to estimate annual fluxes. The cumulative annual fluxes of CO₂ were also estimated and values were 3.5, 3.6 and 3.4 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ at altitudes 100 m, 400 m, and 1000 m altitudes respectively. Based on the exponential model we also calculated Q₁₀ values of 1.6, 2.3, and 2.1 at altitudes 100 m, 400 m and 1000 m, respectively.

238 **3.4** Altitudinal and monthly variations of soil gas fluxes and their dependency on

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changes in soil temperature and WFPS

At 100 m there was a significant (P<0.05) variation in N₂O fluxes during sampling period, with the highest fluxes measured in the rainy months of December, 2006 and January, 2007 (Figure 3a). A significant positive correlation ($r^2=0.86$, P<0.05) between soil moisture (WFPS) and N₂O flux was observed exclusively at 100 m while there was no correlation between soil temperature and N₂O flux at the same altitude.

245 Fluxes measured at 400 m showed significant differences along the sampling period, with 246 the largest N_2O emissions (P<0.05) measured during the rainy season, between August 247 2006 and January 2007 (Figure 3a). At 1000 m there was a weak but significant (P < 0.05) monthly variation of N₂O fluxes, and the largest emissions were observed between the 248 249 rainy months of November, 2006 and January, 2007 (Figure 3a) whereas significantly 250 (P<0.05) lower fluxes were found in the dry months of July and August, 2007. A weak but significant correlation ($r^2 = 0.52$, P<0.05) between soil temperature and N₂O fluxes was 251 252 observed at altitude 1000 m.

At 100 m soil-atmosphere exchange of CH_4 showed only negative fluxes (soil consumption of atmospheric methane) and consumption varied significantly (*P*<0.05) among months. The largest consumption occurred in August, 2006 (transition between rainy and dry seasons) and in the hot and wet period between February and March 2007 (rainy season). Smaller consumption was measured during the cool and dry months of June, July and August 2007 (Figure 3b).

259 Methane consumption varied significantly (P<0.05) among months at 400 m altitude. More 260 consumption (P<0.05) occurred in the rainy months of September, 2006 and March, 2007 261 and less consumption was measured during November, 2006 and December, 2006 (rainy 262 season) and in the dry month of June, 2007 (Figure 3b). At 1000 m consumption of CH₄ also varied among months (P<0.05). The pattern was similar to the pattern at 400 m with less consumption (P<0.05) in the rainy months of November and December, 2006 and more (P<0.05) consumption in September 2006, and August 2007 (Figure 3b).

266 In general, there was no significant correlation between CH_4 fluxes and soil temperature at

any altitude. In contrast, CH₄ correlated weakly ($r^2=0.40$, P<0.05) with WFPS at 100 m.

268 **4 Discussion**

269 4.1 Soil-atmosphere emissions of N₂O

270 In order to understand the decrease in soil N₂O emissions with altitude we evaluate our 271 data in relation to the hole-in-the-pipe (HIP) model (Firestone and Davidson, 1989; 272 Davidson et al., 2000). According to this model, at a broad scale, N₂O emissions increase 273 with the nitrogen availability (gross inorganic nitrogen fluxes) in the system. Comparing different tropical regions, Davidson et al. (2000) found specifically that N₂O emissions 274 275 were correlated with soil nitrate concentrations, N-mineralization and nitrification, and 276 were inversely correlated with the soil ammonium concentrations or the ratio of 277 ammonium to nitrate.

Our data contain some anomalies compared to the findings of Davidson et al. (2000) and 278 279 other studies. At the 1000 m forest site, soil concentrations of ammonium and nitrate were 280 higher than at other sites and average nitrate concentrations were 30% higher than average 281 ammonium concentrations. Soil pools of ammonium and nitrate reflect a balance in 282 production and consumption processes and do not necessarily correlate with gas fluxes. 283 Nonetheless, the low N₂O fluxes at the montane site are at odds with the trends for higher 284 N₂O emissions where soil nitrate pools exceeded soil ammonium pools (Davidson et al., 285 2000). Despite the high nitrate to ammonium ratio, N_2O fluxes were significantly lower at 286 the montane site than they were in the lowlands. In part, we speculate that the low N₂O

fluxes resulted from the limitation of denitrification by easy drainage in the sandy soil and the consequent good aeration and perhaps from low gross fluxes of inorganic nitrogen owing to the lower temperatures. WFPS was significantly lower at 1000 m than at 100 and 400 m.

The pace of decomposition is also important. High rates of decomposition consume oxygen promoting low-oxygen conditions that promote greater N_2O emissions in tropical forest soils (Keller and Reiners 1994). The data on litter stocks (Table 4) show that the rate of decomposition (promoted by higher temperatures) is nearly twice as great in the lowlands as in the montane sites. Thus, low N_2O emissions at montane sites could be related to low decomposition rates through the limitation in gross nitrogen transformations and through the limitation on oxygen consumption.

298 No single factor promoted the greatest N₂O fluxes found in months of December 2006 and 299 January 2007 at elevation 100 m. We speculate that the high fluxes result from a 300 combination of high temperature, elevated soil WFPS, and high rates of decomposition 301 what could result low-oxygen conditions. In addition, we note that methane consumption is diminished at the same time. In this case, the association of low oxygen conditions with 302 high N₂O fluxes is corroborated by the correlation between N₂O and WFPS ($r^2=0.86$; P =303 304 0.05) at 100 m (McSwiney et al., 2001). The influence of soil temperature over gas 305 emissions is corroborated by the significant positive relation between N₂O and soil temperature at 1000 m ($r^2 = 0.5$, *P*<0.05). 306

We compare our N_2O emissions with the survey made by Breuer et al. (2000) adding recent emissions measurements made in tropical forests, mainly in the Amazon region (Garcia-Montiel et al., 2001; Garcia-Montiel et al., 2002; Keller et al., 2005). The median value of all these measurements was approximately 2.0 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Emissions measured at 400 m and 1000 m forest sites were lower than these values, and near the lower end of the spectrum of emissions. On the other hand, N₂O emissions at the 100 m forest sites were larger (2.2 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) than the median value, but approximately half as great as the highest observed emissions from tropical forests (6 to 7 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). N₂O emissions measured at 100 m were similar to the mean fluxes found in the only other study that measured annual N₂O emissions in the coastal Atlantic Forest of Brazil (Tianguá Biological Reserve, Rio de Janeiro, 170 to 300 m *asl*) (Maddock et al., 2001).

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4.2 Soil-atmosphere exchange of CH₄

319 Tropical rain forests can function as a significant sink for atmospheric CH₄ and most 320 studies have reported negative fluxes (Verchot et al., 1999; Breuer et al., 2000; Gut et al., 321 2002, Kiese et al., 2003). In the Atlantic forest, we observed, on average, only negative 322 fluxes (consumption) of CH₄ at all altitudes, and the annual mean fluxes of CH₄ found in 323 this study are similar to fluxes reported by other studies conducted in tropical forests 324 (Keller et al., 2005). Well-drained soils generally consume CH_4 from the atmosphere and 325 soil water content regulates the flux through its control on the diffusion of CH₄ in the soil 326 (Crill, 1991; Born et al., 1990). Butterbach-Bahl et al. (2004) in a study in an Australian tropical rainforests have shown that CH₄ uptake was correlated with WFPS. Although 327 328 weak, there was a significant (P < 0.05) positive correlation between WFPS and CH₄ flux at 100 m forest site ($r^2 = 0.4$, P<0.05) there was no correlation between WFPS and CH₄ flux 329 330 at the higher altitudes. We note that temperature and moisture correlate in these systems 331 and that when soil moisture conditions are optimal for CH₄ consumption in the cooler sites 332 (400 m and 1000 m), low soil temperatures probably limit the microbial activity 333 responsible for CH₄ consumption.

334 4.3 Soil-atmosphere emissions of CO₂

335 Because of equipment malfunctions, the temporal CO_2 extent of emissions measured in our 336 study was limited to only about one-half year. Using the exponential model of flux by 337 altitude, the integrated carbon dioxide emissions were similar at all altitudes despite the 338 higher temperatures (Figure 3) and the greater rates of decomposition (Table 4) in the 339 lowlands. We may have failed to capture the true dynamics of soil CO_2 flux because we 340 did not sample in the early part of the Austral summer (Figure 3c) when the combination of 341 hot and wet conditions coincided with an abundant forest floor litter stock. As noted in 342 most studies, soil CO₂ emissions are tightly related to temperature and labile substrate 343 (Joergensen et al., 1990; Kiese and Butterbach-Bahl, 2002; Davidson and Janssens, 2006; 344 Moreira and Siqueira, 2006). In our limited observations, the largest soil CO₂ emissions 345 were observed between February and April, 2007 (Figure 3c) when observed soil and air 346 temperatures were highest (Figure 1), reinforcing the evidence for a strong temperature 347 effect.

348 **5** Conclusion

349 Overall we found that the emissions of N₂O and the uptake of CH₄ by soils of the coastal 350 Atlantic Forest of Brazil are within the range of other tropical forests of the world. We 351 observed that N_2O and CO_2 emissions were lower at higher altitudes, although the nitrogen 352 and carbon stocks were greater at higher altitudes. According to our results, we speculate 353 this contrast cannot be explained by an isolated factor but by an association of factors 354 including air and soil temperatures, species composition (van Haren et al., 2010), soil 355 physical and chemical properties, decomposition rates and nutrient supply. Amongst all 356 those factors, the temperature gradient was most obvious. An apparently non-linear 357 response of both decomposition and nitrogen cycling to elevated temperature leads to 358 strong seasonal N₂O emissions in the lowlands whereas emissions are relatively low at 359 submontane and montane sites throughout the year. Climate change associated with 360 increasing temperatures may result in increased in microbial activity with a consequent 361 increase in soil N₂O and CO₂ emissions and soil CH₄ consumption. While the responses

along the elevation gradient associated with temperature are provocative, we recognize that
no single factor in this complex system can adequately predict the response of greenhouse
gas fluxes to climate change.

365

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Depth	Ν	С	Sand	Clay	Bulk Density
(cm)	(g kg ⁻¹)		(%)		(g m ⁻³)
100 m					
0-5	3.4 ± 1.4	45.9 ± 19.4	60.4 ± 9.7	31.5 ± 8.0	0.9 ± 0.1
5-10	2.4 ± 1.1	31.8 ± 15.3	56.5 ± 9.3	35.1 ± 8.6	1.1 ± 0.1
10-20	1.9 ± 0.7	25.9 ± 10.1	56.8 ± 9.9	35.3 ± 9.7	1.3 ± 0.1
20-30	1.2 ± 0.4	16.5 ± 5.9	55.8 ±9.6	37.4 ± 9.7	1.4 ± 0.1
400 m					
0-5	4.6 ± 1.1	58.9 ± 15.5	66.7 ± 6.6	16.4 ± 3.8	1.0 ± 0.0
5-10	3.6 ± 0.8	45.8 ± 12.7	62.2 ± 3.8	20.5 ± 3.7	1.1 ± 0.1
10-20	2.7 ± 0.5	34.7 ± 8.8	61.4 ± 6.0	22.1 ± 4.5	1.2 ± 0.1
20-30	2.0 ± 0.3	26.0 ± 5.9	59.5 ± 5.9	23.4 ± 4.2	1.3 ± 0.1
1000 m					
0-5	6.8 ± 3.1	91.5 ± 45.3	57.3 ± 12.2	20.3 ± 8.5	0.8 ± 0.2
5-10	4.5 ± 1.5	58.8 ± 21.2	53.9 ± 14.3	22.3 ± 10.8	0.8 ± 0.2
10-20	3.8 ± 1.2	49.6 ± 17.1	54.0 ± 12.2	19.8 ± 10.7	1.0 ± 0.2
20-30	3.1 ± 1.2	44.4 ± 22.5	53.5 ± 12.3	20.6 ± 11.5	1.1 ± 0.2

Table 1. Physical-Chemical characterization of the soil layers (0.3 m depth) sampled at the studied

sites (mean \pm standard error; n=32 for each altitude and depth). Data source: Martins, 2010.

Altitude	Rainy sea	son (g m ⁻²)	Dry sease	$\frac{1}{(g m^2)}$
(m) Live		Dead	Live	Dead
100 m	204.2 (±28.1)a	82.1 (±16.0)b	433.8 (±119.1)a	275.4 (±131.9)a
400 m	293.1 (±38.1)a	143.34 (±17.4)b	310.6 (±87.6)a	219.5 (±98.2)a

464.0 (±80.2)a 220.7 (±44.5)b 1098.3 (±89.8)a 896.2 (±82.3)a

Table 2. Fine root biomass (live and dead) at different altitudes in the rainy and in the dry season. Values represent mean and standard error of four replicates per altitude.

Lower case letters indicate difference between columns within seasons.

519

1000 m

Season	Altitude (m)	Category	C (%)	N (%)	C:N
	100 m	Live	42.8 (±1.2)	1.4 (±0.1)	32.6 (±2.7)a,A
	100 11	Dead	37.8 (±1.4)	1.5 (±0.1)	26.5 (0.1)b,A
	Auo m				
		Live	42.9 (±0.3)	1.5 (±0.1)	31.1 (±2.2)a,A
tainy		Dead	38.0 (±2.4)	1.4 (±0.1)	27.1 (±0.5)b,A
Ц					
	1000 m	Live	45.4 (±1.0)	1.3 (±0.1)	35.7 (±2.1)a,A
	1000 m	Dead	44.0 (±1.2)	1.5 (±0.1)	29.9 (±0.9)b,A
	100 m	Live	41.4 (±1.2)	1.7 (±0.2)	25.6 (±1.8)a,B
	100 III	Dead	37.4 (±0.5)	1.7 (±0.1)	22.1 (±1.5)b,B
~	400 m 1000 m	Live	39.4 (±0.5)	1.6 (±0.1)	26.4 (±1.0)a,B
Dr.		Dead	37.2 (±1.0)	1.7 (±0.2)	22.3 (±1.7)b,B
		Live	43.6 (±0.8)	1.7 (±0.1)	27.1 (±1.6)a,B
		Dead	39.6 (±0.9)	1.7 (±0.1)	23.3 (±1.4)b,B

Table 3. Concentrations of carbon and nitrogen and C:N ratio of fine roots (<2 mm) at different altitudes in rainy (January,2007) and dry (August, 2007) months. Values represent mean and standard error (in parenthesis) of four replicates per altitude.

Lower case letters indicate difference between altitudes within seasons and upper case letters indicate difference between seasons.

Table 4. Litterfall inputs and stocks in different altitudes and litter decomposition rates (k) and time (months) for decay of 50% (t $_{0.5}$) and 95% (t $_{0.05}$). Data represents six months of sampling (March through August 2007). Different letters represent statistically significant differences among altitudes.

Litterfall		Forest Floor		
Inputs	Stocks	$\mathbf{DC}^{1}(\mathbf{I})$	t _{0.5}	4
(t ha ⁻¹ y ⁻¹)	(t ha ⁻¹)	DC (K)		L0.05
$8.4 (\pm 1.5)^{a}$	$4.3 (\pm 0.8)^{a}$	2 ^a	3	18
$7.4 (\pm 1.8)^{a}$	$4.4 (\pm 0.4)^{a}$	1.4 ^b	5	25
5.5 (±0.9) ^a	4.8 (±0.6) ^b	1.3 ^b	5	27
	Litte Inputs (t ha ⁻¹ y ⁻¹) 8.4 (±1.5) ^a 7.4 (±1.8) ^a 5.5 (±0.9) ^a	LitterfallInputsStocks(t ha ⁻¹ y ⁻¹)(t ha ⁻¹) $8.4 (\pm 1.5)^a$ $4.3 (\pm 0.8)^a$ $7.4 (\pm 1.8)^a$ $4.4 (\pm 0.4)^a$ $5.5 (\pm 0.9)^a$ $4.8 (\pm 0.6)^b$	Litterfall Inputs Stocks DC^{1} (k) (t ha ⁻¹ y ⁻¹) (t ha ⁻¹) DC^{1} (k) $8.4 (\pm 1.5)^{a}$ $4.3 (\pm 0.8)^{a}$ 2^{a} $7.4 (\pm 1.8)^{a}$ $4.4 (\pm 0.4)^{a}$ 1.4^{b} $5.5 (\pm 0.9)^{a}$ $4.8 (\pm 0.6)^{b}$ 1.3^{b}	LitterfallForest FloorInputsStocks (t ha ⁻¹ y ⁻¹) DC^1 (k) $t_{0.5}$ $(t ha^{-1} y^{-1})$ $(t ha^{-1})$ DC^1 (k) $t_{0.5}$ $8.4 (\pm 1.5)^a$ $4.3 (\pm 0.8)^a$ 2^a 3 $7.4 (\pm 1.8)^a$ $4.4 (\pm 0.4)^a$ 1.4^b 5 $5.5 (\pm 0.9)^a$ $4.8 (\pm 0.6)^b$ 1.3^b 5

¹DC= Decomposition coefficient

Table 5. Simple annual mean (SA) and integrated (Int.) fluxes of N_2O and CH_4 for different altitudes. Different letters represent statistically significant differences among the altitudes. See text for a description of the averaging and integration approaches.

Altitude (m)	N₂O (ng N cm ⁻² h ⁻¹)		CH ₄ (mg CH ₄ m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	
	SA	Int.	SA	Int.
100	$3.9^{a}(\pm 0.4)$	4.4^{a} (±0.5)	- 1.0 ^a (±0.2)	-1.0^{a} (±0.2)
400	$1.0^{b} (\pm 0.1)$	1.1 ^b (±0.1)	- 1.8^{b} (±0.3)	-1.7 ^a (±0.3)
1000	$0.9^{c} (\pm 0.2)$	1.1 ^b (±0.3)	- 1.6 ^b (±0.1)	-1.4 ^a (±0.1)



Figure 1. Monthly soil temperatures (2 cm depth) at the three different elevations. Values represent the mean of four replicate plots per elevation, and error bars represent the standard error. Because of weather conditions it was not possible to access the sites at altitude 1000 m in February 2007.



Figure 2. Monthly variation of Water Filled Pore Space (WFPS) at different elevations. Values represent means of four replicates per elevation and bars represent standard errors. Because of weather conditions it was not possible to access the sites at altitude 1000 m in February 2007.





Figure 3. Monthly soil-atmosphere gas flux of (**A**) nitrous oxide (N₂O), (**B**) methane (CH₄), and (**C**) carbon dioxide (CO₂) at different altitudes. Values represent the mean of four replicates per elevation and bars represent standard errors.