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1 TITLE: Soil moisture as the key factor of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in forest soils under  
2 environmental change

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4 RUNNING TITLE: Atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> uptake by forest soils

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17 enrichment; Drought; Warming

18

19 **Abstract**

20 Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) is an important anthropogenic greenhouse gas that can be produced and  
21 consumed by microorganisms in soils. We present a meta-analysis of the potential  
22 effects of environmental change on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake by forest soils. Such effects have not  
23 been reliably estimated even though aerobic methanotrophs in forest soils are the largest  
24 biological sink for atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub>. Differences in the annual rate of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake  
25 between forests are likely caused by differences in vegetation, microbial communities,  
26 and the physic-chemistry of soil environments, but we found no clear different patterns  
27 at annual scale among tropical, temperate, and boreal forests. The meta-analysis  
28 indicated that the rates of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in forest ecosystems were significantly decreased  
29 under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and N enrichment, but the rates increased under drought. The  
30 effects of warming on the rates of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake were inconsistent in forest soils, and the  
31 response ratio accordingly suggested that a warmer climate would have no significant  
32 effect on the rate of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake. The seasonality of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in natural forest soils  
33 and the clear results of the drought experiments evidence the importance of soil  
34 moisture. However, our linear model did not unravel a clear negative effect of climatic  
35 water surplus nor mean annual precipitation on soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake. Therefore, process-  
36 based and ecosystem-specific models of CH<sub>4</sub> flux are also warranted for predicting the  
37 responses of ecosystemic CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes to climate change.

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) is an important greenhouse gas with a warming potential 25 times  
41 greater than that of CO<sub>2</sub> and is responsible for about 20% of the realized global warming  
42 (IPCC, 2007). Atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> concentration has been increasing from the pre-  
43 industrial value of around 715 ppb to the current value of near 1800 ppb (Heimann,  
44 2011). The global annual rate of the increase of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> caused by the  
45 imbalance between sources and sinks, decreased from an average of 3.3 ppb y<sup>-1</sup> in the  
46 1980s to 1.3 ppb y<sup>-1</sup> in the 2000s, although the rate began to increase again in 2007  
47 (Kirschke et al., 2013). The decadal and inter-annual variation of the rate of increase is  
48 not yet fully understood. Two alternative causes have been suggested to explain the  
49 reduction over the last three decades (Heimann, 2011): one suggests a decrease in fossil-  
50 fuel emissions (Aydin et al., 2011), and the other suggests a decrease in emissions from  
51 rice cultivation in Asia due to higher fertilizer application and reduction in water use  
52 (Kai et al., 2011).

53 Most of the atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> is oxidized in the troposphere by chemical reactions with  
54 hydroxyl radicals (OH), which comprises approximately 90% of the global sinks  
55 (Schlesinger and Bernhardt, 2013). The second largest global sink of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub>  
56 is the consumption by aerated soils. The amount of CH<sub>4</sub> oxidized by soil methane-  
57 oxidizing bacteria (MOB) was estimated to be between 26 and 42 Tg y<sup>-1</sup> for 2000-2009  
58 (Kirschke et al., 2013). Forest soils represent approximately 50% of this sink and coarse  
59 forest soils have the highest rates of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake (Dutaur and Verchot, 2007).

60 The main factor regulating the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake capacity of soils is the diffusion rate of gases

61 that regulates the availability of CH<sub>4</sub> to MOB across the soil profile. A number of soil  
62 characteristics, such as texture, structure, moisture content, temperature, and mineral-  
63 nitrogen (N) content, are important to CH<sub>4</sub> uptake. The diffusion of gases in soils  
64 structurally depends on the soil texture and degree of compaction (Castaldi and Fierro,  
65 2005) because they affect either the diffusion of gas through the soil or the activity and  
66 size of the soil microbial populations involved in CH<sub>4</sub> metabolism (Castaldi and Fierro,  
67 2005; King, 1997; Lin et al., 2015; Price et al., 2003; Verchot et al., 2000). Although  
68 the relationship between CH<sub>4</sub> uptake and soil moisture was identified decades ago  
69 (Bowden, 1998), uncertainty remains as to how future climate change will affect the  
70 CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in soils of forest ecosystems and their role in the global CH<sub>4</sub> cycle.

71 Several components of environmental change, such as altered precipitation, warming,  
72 rising atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and increased atmospheric N deposition, can  
73 potentially alter the soil properties or biology that control the uptake of CH<sub>4</sub> in forest  
74 soils and determine the size of their atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> sink (Blankinship et al., 2010).  
75 The effect of environmental change on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake by forest soils has not been reliably  
76 estimated, although forests have been responsible for most of the terrestrial uptake of  
77 atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub>. We reviewed the literature with three main aims: (1) to synthesize  
78 the information available on the rates of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in forest soils in different biomes,  
79 (2) to evaluate the response of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake to components of environmental change and  
80 to summarize the current state of our understanding of the mechanisms underlying the  
81 responses, and (3) to test for across-sites controls by climate and water balance in CH<sub>4</sub>  
82 uptake in forest soils. We also identify topics requiring further study.

84 **2. Materials and methods**

85 We gathered data on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rates in the forests and under different treatments to  
86 thereafter conduct a meta-analysis and accomplish the first two aims. For the third aim  
87 we also gathered data on climate and soil moisture from world databases and used them  
88 to model their relations with the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake by forest soils.

89 *2.1. Data source.*

90 We systematically searched all peer-reviewed journal articles and those that  
91 investigated CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in forest ecosystems. The literature search was done through  
92 the Web of Science seeking for the keywords “methane or CH<sub>4</sub>” and “forest”. We  
93 reviewed all the found articles and selected those that met the following two criterias:  
94 (1) the study was conducted in situ field measurements for several months; (2) the CH<sub>4</sub>  
95 uptake could be extracted directly from the texts, tables, and figures. When several  
96 publications include data from the same locations we obtained the data as annual  
97 average. When one publication includes several experiments under different abiotic  
98 conditions, such as different locations, tree species, or stand ages, we considered them  
99 different observations. In total we found 134 datasets for forest soils at 134 sites from  
100 110 papers in 26 countries (Table S1). Most of the studies used static chambers, but  
101 some used stable isotopes. The mean annual CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rates published in the primary  
102 or secondary literature were used when provided and when annual averages were not  
103 provided they were calculated based on figures. We used Plot Digitizer version online  
104 to digitally extract data from figures when the results were graphically reported. CH<sub>4</sub>

105 uptake rates were standardized to  $\text{kg CH}_4 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ . The study sites comprise tropical  
106 forests, coniferous-, deciduous-, or mixed-temperate forests and boreal forests (Fig. 1).  
107 For each site identified by the latitude and longitude coordinates, we extracted monthly  
108 average temperature and precipitation from the WorldClim database  
109 (<http://www.worldclim.org/>) with a spatial resolution of around 1 km at the equator, and  
110 aggregated them to mean annual temperature (MAT) and mean annual precipitation  
111 (MAP). Sites were climatically characterized by MAT, MAP, temperature and  
112 precipitation during the summer month (Tsum and Psum) and potential  
113 evapotranspiration (PET). We defined summer month as July in the Northern  
114 hemisphere and January in the Southern hemisphere. PET was estimated on a monthly  
115 basis from monthly average temperature and latitude with the function “thornthwaite”  
116 from the R package:*spei*.  
117 In addition to  $\text{CH}_4$  uptake, we estimated soil water-holding capacity (SWHC) from soil  
118 moisture data obtained from the Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity (SMOS) database  
119 (<https://smos-ds-02.eo.esa.int/oads/access/>). For every site and from June 2010 to June  
120 2017, we gathered the products that comprise soil moisture measurements geo-located  
121 in an equal-area grid system ISEA 4H9 as percent of water-filled soil volume in “SMOS  
122 level 1 and 2 Science data” collection and with a spatial resolution in the range of 30-  
123 50 km. We assumed that during the period 2010-2017 maximum and minimum soil  
124 moisture levels were reached and we proceeded to obtain maximum and minimum soil  
125 water content after removing the 5% extremely low or high values. For each site, we  
126 calculated SWHC as maximum minus minimum soil water content and extended it as

127 the soil was 50 cm deep. In total, SWHC was available for 124 sites. Afterwards, soil  
128 moisture data from satellite was standardized to the site amplitude in the historical  
129 record and expressed as a percent of the estimated site SWHC which we coined as  
130 standardized soil moisture (SSM). The mean annual SSM (MASSM), summer SSM  
131 (SSMsum) and winter SSM (SSMwin) were also included in the database. We defined  
132 summer month as July or January and winter month as January or July respectively for  
133 the Northern or the Southern hemisphere.

134 For each site, we used Stephenson's bucket (1990) approach to adjust a climatic water  
135 balance using average monthly values of PET, precipitation and site SWHC to estimate  
136 monthly values of actual evapotranspiration (AET), water deficit (WD), water surplus  
137 (WS) and mean annual soil water content (SWC) (details for the estimation of water  
138 balance variables are in the Appendix.). Water balance variables indicate how much  
139 energy and water are available at the same time (AET), how much evaporative demand  
140 is not met by available water (WD) and how much water is unusable surplus (WS)  
141 (Stephenson, 1990).

## 142 *2.2 Meta-analysis.*

143 To examine the effects of environmental-change components on the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rate in  
144 forest ecosystems, among the 134 datasets gathered previously, we selected the datasets  
145 including experimental treatments simulating the following components of the  
146 environmental change: elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, warming, drought or water addition,  
147 and N enrichment. To increase the number of datasets, we also included studies with a  
148 reduced number of field measurements as well as data from laboratory incubations with



149 warming treatment or with N addition. Details of the studies are summarized in  
150 supplementary Table S2. We calculated the response ratios from each study as described  
151 by Hedges *et al.* (1999). Briefly, the natural-log response ratio ( $\ln RR$ ) was calculated  
152 as:

$$153 \quad \ln (X_i/X_n) = \ln X_i - \ln X_n$$

154 where  $X_i$  and  $X_n$  are the values of each observation in the treatment and corresponding  
155 control plots, respectively. The sampling variance for each  $\ln RR$  was calculated as:

$$156 \quad \ln[(1/n_i) \times (S_i/X_i)^2 + (1/n_n) \times (S_n/X_n)^2]$$

157 where  $n_i$  and  $n_n$ ,  $S_i$  and  $S_n$ , and  $X_i$ , and  $X_n$  are the treatment and control sample sizes,  
158 standard deviations, and mean responses, respectively. The natural-log response ratios  
159 (from here onwards simplified as response ratios) were determined by specifying  
160 studies as random factors using the *rma* model in the R metafor package. The effects  
161 on  $\text{CH}_4$  uptake rates and the differences between the treatment and control plots were  
162 considered significant if the 95% confidence interval (CI) of  $\ln RR$  did not overlap zero.  
163 All statistical analyses were performed in RStudio 3.1.2 (R Core Team 2015) using the  
164 R package metafor 1.9–2.

### 165 *2.3 Linear modelling of $\text{CH}_4$ uptake*

166 We built linear models to explain forest annual  $\text{CH}_4$  uptake at site level from climatic  
167 variables, standardized soil moisture variables and derived water balance variables.  
168 Water balance variables are a lineal combination of MAP and PET (e.g  $\text{PET} =$   
169  $\text{AET} + \text{WD}$ ;  $\text{MAP} = \text{AET} + \text{WS}$ ), so MAP and PET were excluded when water balance  
170 variables were allowed to enter the models.

171 Model selection was performed using procedures based on AIC implemented in the  
172 *Mumin* package in R environment Partial residual plots of the models were obtained  
173 using the *visreg* package to evaluate the effect of each variable on the model.

### 174 **3. Results**

#### 175 *3.1 CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in forest soils*

176 The mean uptake rate for all studies was 4 kg CH<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>, with bootstrapped 95% CIs  
177 between 1.77 and 5.85. Ninety percent of a total of 134 observations were between  
178 0.119 and 15.82 kg CH<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>. The highest reported uptake rate was 40.52 kg CH<sub>4</sub>  
179 ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> in a tropical forest in India. The lowest reported rate was -120 kg CH<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>  
180 in a boreal forest, but this was an unusually low value. Only five of the observations  
181 were net CH<sub>4</sub> sources, representing 3.7% of all observations, whereas the remaining  
182 129 observations were net sinks, with 13.4% of the values between 0 and 1 kg CH<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup>  
183 y<sup>-1</sup> and 81.3% above 1 kg CH<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>. No clear differences among forest types were  
184 detected. Mean and bootstrapped 95% CIs were 4.08 (2.42, 6.89), 5.1 (3.96, 6.34), and  
185 -2.74 (-21.5, 8.16) for tropical, temperate, and boreal forests, respectively, with the low  
186 rates of the boreal forests driven by a single site with an extremely low rate, without  
187 which the mean increased to 5.64 (2.61, 9.22). Median rates were 2.82, 3.32, and 2.62  
188 kg CH<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> for tropical, temperate, and boreal forests respectively (Fig. 1).

189

#### 190 *3.2 Soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake across sites*

191 After removing two sites with the lowest and the highest CH<sub>4</sub> uptake, the database used  
192 for the modelling included 132 sites and included climatic data for all of them. The best  
193 linear model fitted to the soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in the 132 sites and including only climate as  
194 explanatory variables was MAT\*MAP (adj R<sup>2</sup>= 0.10). There was almost no variance  
195 explained (adj R<sup>2</sup> = 0.02) if the interaction was not included.

196 We used the subset of 107 sites having SMOS data for all the twelve months to include  
197 the SMOS derived soil moisture. (Table S3). The addition of SMOS derived soil  
198 moisture variables (MASSM, SSMsum SSMwin) did not change the model selection  
199 and the MAP\*MAT model behaved similarly with the subset including 107 sites (adj  
200  $R^2= 0.09$ ). When water balance variables substituted MAP and PET the best model was  
201 MAT\*WS (adj.  $R^2 = 0.12$ ). Including Tsum yielded a model with lower AICc (and adj  
202  $R^2 = 0.14$ ) but Tsum was discarded because it was non-significant after model averaging.  
203 Partial residual plots (Fig. 2) show the interaction effect of MAT and WS on soil CH<sub>4</sub>  
204 uptake. Higher WS occurs only at the warmer sites of the dataset and low and mild WS  
205 occurred at forests within the three temperature intervals. Soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake did not  
206 respond to WS across the warmer sites, which presented uptake values in the low range.  
207 In the milder and colder sites CH<sub>4</sub> uptake tended to increase from low to mild WS sites.  
208 A slight effect of MAT was present only at the wetter sites.

209

### 210 *3.3 Alteration of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in forest soils by environmental-change* 211 *components*

212 The meta-analysis of 10 experiments indicated that the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake by soils in forest  
213 ecosystems significantly increased an average of 150% under drought conditions. In  
214 contrast, the meta-analysis of 7 experiments showed that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> significantly  
215 decreased an average of 33% the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in temperate forests, the only forest type  
216 where data on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake on CO<sub>2</sub>-enrichment experiments have been reported.  
217 Similarly, the meta-analysis of 29 experiments showed that N-enrichment significantly

218 decreased CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rates an average of 36% (Fig. 3). Our meta-analysis of 6  
219 experiments did not identify a clear effect of ecosystem warming on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake by  
220 forest soils (Fig. 3).  
221

#### 222 **4. Discussion**

223 Previous work with a dataset including all terrestrial ecosystems found that MAP and  
224 MAT explained about 3% and 2% of the global CH<sub>4</sub> uptake variation (Dutaur and  
225 Verchot 2007). Our modelling for forest ecosystems explained a bit more of the  
226 variance but neither showed a strong climatic control across forests in spite of  
227 differences in vegetation. Different tree species likely produce litter of different quality  
228 and soils differing in organic matter content and in chemical, physical and biological  
229 characteristics that are important for CH<sub>4</sub> uptake (Barrena et al., 2013; Borken and  
230 Beese, 2006). Lower rates of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake were found in coniferous than in deciduous  
231 forest soils (Borken et al., 2003), suggesting the occurrence of differences among broad  
232 forest types. Differences in CH<sub>4</sub> uptake are also related to differences in the structure  
233 and function of the soil microbial community (Aronson et al., 2013; Nazaries et al.,  
234 2011) and communities may differ among forests. For instance, lower diversity and  
235 abundance of methane-oxidizing bacteria in spruce than in beech forest soils  
236 (Degelmann et al. 2010) suggests that tree species may influence the activity of soil  
237 methane-oxidizers. Nevertheless, the lack of clear differences in CH<sub>4</sub> uptake among  
238 forest types indicates low climatic control.

239 Beyond climate, at the biome scale soil-textural class is an important determinant of  
240 soil CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes (Verchot et al., 2000), with coarse and medium-textured soils  
241 consuming more CH<sub>4</sub> than fine-textured soils (Dutaur and Verchot, 2007). Soil texture  
242 is a local characteristic and the proportion of mineral particles is not going to be altered  
243 by environmental change. Soil aeration depends on the soil water content that fills the

244 networks of small pores and impedes the transport of gases (Hartmann et al., 2011;  
245 Hiltbrunner et al., 2012) and is most likely going to be altered by climate change.  
246 Similarly soil temperature and nutrient content will also be altered. Actually, moisture  
247 and temperature are temporally variable under natural conditions and are underlying  
248 the seasonality in CH<sub>4</sub> uptake by forest soils. For example, some tropical forests shift  
249 between sources in wet seasons to sinks in dry seasons or increase the sink strength  
250 from wet to dry seasons (Teh et al., 2014). Temperate and boreal forests may also  
251 release CH<sub>4</sub> under wet or water-saturated conditions (Gundersen et al., 2012). Similarly,  
252 differences in CH<sub>4</sub> uptake among years in the same forest are also dependent on  
253 differences in precipitation (Matson et al., 2009).

254 The meta-analysis of drought experiments confirmed short term effects of moisture on  
255 soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake. Increases in CH<sub>4</sub> uptake under experimental *drought* have been  
256 described in tropical, temperate and boreal forests (Billings et al., 2000; Borken et al.,  
257 2006; Davidson et al., 2008, 2004). Most effects of drought are likely due to improved  
258 diffusion of atmospheric gases into the soil, although very low moisture can have direct  
259 effects on microbial activity. A lower diffusion alters the CH<sub>4</sub> source-sink balance of  
260 soils because reduces the supply of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> into the soil leading to substrate  
261 limitation of the activity of methanotrophic organisms (Blankinship et al., 2010), and  
262 reduces the supply of O<sub>2</sub>, which may increase methanogenesis (Borken et al., 2006).

263 When soil moisture is too low, gases diffuse without restriction but microbes are  
264 physiologically stressed and its activity, including methanotrophs, is reduced, which  
265 reduces the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake (Price et al., 2004). The stimulation of methanotrophic activity

266 after rains in deserts and semiarid regions provides evidence of the stress imposed on  
267 methanotrophs in very dry soils (McLain and Martens, 2005). Therefore, the sensitivity  
268 of soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake to soil moisture can be described by a parabolic curve reflecting that  
269 CH<sub>4</sub> uptake is limited at very low moisture by biological activity and is limited by CH<sub>4</sub>  
270 diffusion at high moisture (Fest et al., 2017).

271 The seasonality of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in forest soils and the clear results of the drought  
272 experiments evidence the importance of soil moisture. Recent studies show that a  
273 decline in CH<sub>4</sub> uptake at a global scale coincides with increases in precipitation in forest  
274 soils (Ni and Groffman, 2018; Yu et al., 2017). Accordingly, we expected wetter soils,  
275 less aeration and lower CH<sub>4</sub> uptake at high MAP and, specially, at high climatic WS  
276 (note that MAP and WS are highly correlated). However, satellite-derived soil moisture  
277 and climatic water balance variables did not increase much the explanation of the  
278 variance in CH<sub>4</sub> uptake. The modelling did not unravel a clear negative effect of  
279 climatic WS nor MAP on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake. Certainly, the uncertainties introduced by the  
280 type of data used could partly account for the poor fit. The spatial resolution of the  
281 satellite data in the range of 30-50 km can introduce large errors because soil  
282 characteristics can vary at a much smaller scale. Moreover, precipitation may also vary  
283 at relatively small scales.

284 The possible effects of the other environmental change components addressed by our  
285 meta-analysis on soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake were less evident than for drought. Meta-analysis did  
286 not reveal *warming* effects on soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake, although the low number of reviewed  
287 experiments prevents considering it a definitive result. We must keep in mind that



288 warming in the field often leads not only to warmer but also to drier soils (Luo et al.,  
289 2013), which may increase gas diffusion and CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rates (Price et al., 2003).  
290 Warming may also accelerate soil N mineralization, leading to higher NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>  
291 concentrations that might suppress CH<sub>4</sub> uptake (Karbin et al., 2015). The opposite  
292 effects of improved gas diffusion and of increased soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (Lüke and Frenzel, 2011)  
293 may explain that warming in field experiments has shown scarce effects on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake  
294 (Karbin et al., 2015; Price et al., 2004).

295 The meta-analysis provided more clear evidence of the effects of *elevated atmospheric*  
296 *CO<sub>2</sub>* despite the number of experiments was as low as for warming. Dijkstra et al. (2012)  
297 reported that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> tended to increase CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in wetlands, peat lands,  
298 and rice paddy fields, but the effects were highly variable in upland soils. We found an  
299 average of 33% decrease (Fig. 3) in the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake by soils of temperate forests, the  
300 only forest type where CO<sub>2</sub>-enrichment experiments have been reported. The decrease  
301 was very clear at some sites (Dubbs and Whalen, 2010; Phillips et al., 2001) and was  
302 associated to increases in soil moisture. The lower CH<sub>4</sub> uptake could be due to a reduced  
303 CH<sub>4</sub> diffusion into moister soils, although increases in CH<sub>4</sub> production by methanogens  
304 were also likely (Dubbs and Whalen, 2010; Phillips et al., 2001). The reduction in CH<sub>4</sub>  
305 uptake under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> is relevant because 20% of the world's forests are temperate  
306 (Pan et al., 2013). However, tropical forests represent 51% and boreal forests 29% of  
307 the world's forests so research on the response of their soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake to atmospheric  
308 CO<sub>2</sub> increase is warranted.

309 *Anthropogenic N enrichment* has a suite of detrimental effects on ecosystem services

310 and the meta-analysis confirmed the decrease in CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rates. Some experiments  
311 reported a very clear inhibitory effect of the fertilization with N on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake  
312 (Adamsen and King, 1993; Fender et al., 2012; Steinkamp et al., 2001; Wang and Ineson,  
313 2003) although a synthesis of studies in non-wetland ecosystems reported dose-  
314 dependent effects, with smaller N enrichments tending to stimulate soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake and  
315 larger ones tending to inhibit it (Aronson and Helliker, 2010). These opposite N dose-  
316 dependent effects suggest that the historical N status of soils is the most important  
317 predictor of the response of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake to future N inputs (Aronson and Helliker, 2010).  
318 Increase in soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> may reduce soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake because NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> competes with CH<sub>4</sub> at  
319 the reaction site of the enzyme methane monooxygenase, the first step of the CH<sub>4</sub>  
320 oxidation pathway (Bodelier and Laanbroek, 2004). The non-competitive inhibition of  
321 CH<sub>4</sub> uptake by NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> have been attributed to the increase in NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations caused  
322 by NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Fender et al., 2012). Furthermore, nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) has also been reported to  
323 have direct inhibitory effects on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake (Fender et al., 2012; Mochizuki et al., 2012;  
324 Wang and Ineson, 2003).

325 We reviewed individual components of global environmental change, but it is still  
326 unknown whether the effects of multiple components are additive, cancel each other, or  
327 synergistically increase the individual effects. Ambus and Robertson (1999) reported  
328 that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> reduced CH<sub>4</sub> uptake only when no N was deposited. Another study  
329 found no interaction between altered precipitation and warming in four ecosystems  
330 along a 50-km climatic gradient from warm and dry to cold and wet, although the  
331 authors suggested that a wet and warm climate would cause the largest reduction in

332 terrestrial CH<sub>4</sub> uptake (Blankinship et al., 2010). The lack of interactive effects from  
333 these experiments may be due to inadequate statistical power or because the time  
334 required by the interactive effects to appear was longer than the duration of the  
335 experiments (Norby and Luo, 2004). Longer field experiments are therefore needed to  
336 unravel the interactive effects of climate change on soil CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes.

337 Moreover, modeling complements field experiments, thus overcoming the difficulties  
338 associated with long-term studies and identifying important interactive effects among  
339 multiple factors of climate change on ecosystemic processes (Luo et al., 2008). For  
340 example, the Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model, a process-based model, unraveled that  
341 the interaction between environmental-change components (including climatic  
342 variability, N deposition, elevated levels of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and application of N  
343 fertilizer) led to a decrease in CH<sub>4</sub> uptake over the last three decades in North America  
344 (Xu et al., 2010).

345 The drought experiments show the key position of soil moisture in the short-term  
346 control of CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in forest soils. The weak control of climatic (i.e. long term)  
347 precipitation on soil CH<sub>4</sub> uptake across sites contrasts notoriously with the clear short-  
348 term effects of experimental reduction in precipitation. It suggests that despite the  
349 immediate effects of weather, the CH<sub>4</sub> consumption is determined in the long term, after  
350 texture is considered, by characteristics derived from vegetation, soil nutrients and  
351 microbial communities that are weakly controlled by climate but strongly by local  
352 conditions. The importance of the structural properties of ecosystems on soil CH<sub>4</sub>  
353 uptake is evidenced when changing the tree-species or after transformation of forests

354 into grasslands (Hiltbrunner et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2000). Despite the absence of  
355 evidences of warming effects, we cannot discard alterations in the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake if  
356 warming causes structural changes in the long term. The possible long term effects  
357 mediated by soil and vegetation changes challenge the modelling and the prediction of  
358 CH<sub>4</sub> consumption and an effort is needed to disentangle which are the vegetation-  
359 dependant soil traits governing CH<sub>4</sub> uptake rates.

## 360 **5. Conclusions and outlook**

361 Our in-depth review of the effects of particular environmental-change components on  
362 CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in forest soils reveals that the rates were significantly reduced by elevated  
363 CO<sub>2</sub> and N enrichment, that were increased by drought and that were not consistently  
364 altered by warming. Very few studies, however, have analyzed the interactive effects of  
365 multiple environmental-change components due to the challenge of the complexity of  
366 forests. More field experiments are, therefore, required to expand our knowledge of the  
367 impacts of these multiple factors on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake and CH<sub>4</sub>-cycling microbial  
368 communities. The poor relation between climatic variables and CH<sub>4</sub> uptake unveiled by  
369 linear modelling may be influenced by uncertainties of the data sources, but it also  
370 indicates that process-based and ecosystem-specific models of CH<sub>4</sub> flux are necessary  
371 for predicting the response of ecosystemic CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes to climate change.

372 The studies on CH<sub>4</sub> uptake in natural soils have ignored the environmental importance  
373 of phosphorus, which is becoming unbalanced due to increased C and N availabilities  
374 (Peñuelas et al., 2013). It is urgent to incorporate P on the agenda to provide data on its  
375 possible significance for the CH<sub>4</sub> uptake and for the abundance, activity and structure

376 of methanotrophic communities. Attention should also be paid to the indirect effect of  
377 climate change on plant communities and the decomposition of litterfall in forest  
378 ecosystems because potential changes can directly affect factors important for CH<sub>4</sub>  
379 uptake in forest ecosystems such as moisture content, temperature and gas diffusion in  
380 soils.

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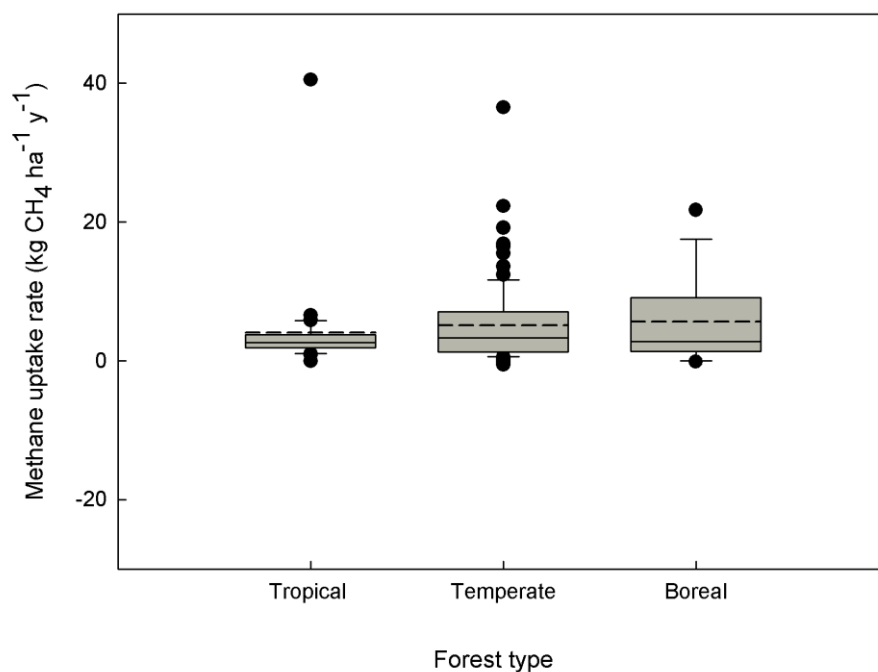
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587



588 **Figure 1.** Boxplots of the rate of methane uptake in soils of tropical (n=30), temperate  
589 (n=89), and boreal (n=15) forests. Short dashes represent means, solid lines represent  
590 medians, and error bars indicate the 90<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> percentiles. An extreme outlier at -  
591 120 kg CH<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> in boreal forests has been omitted.  
592

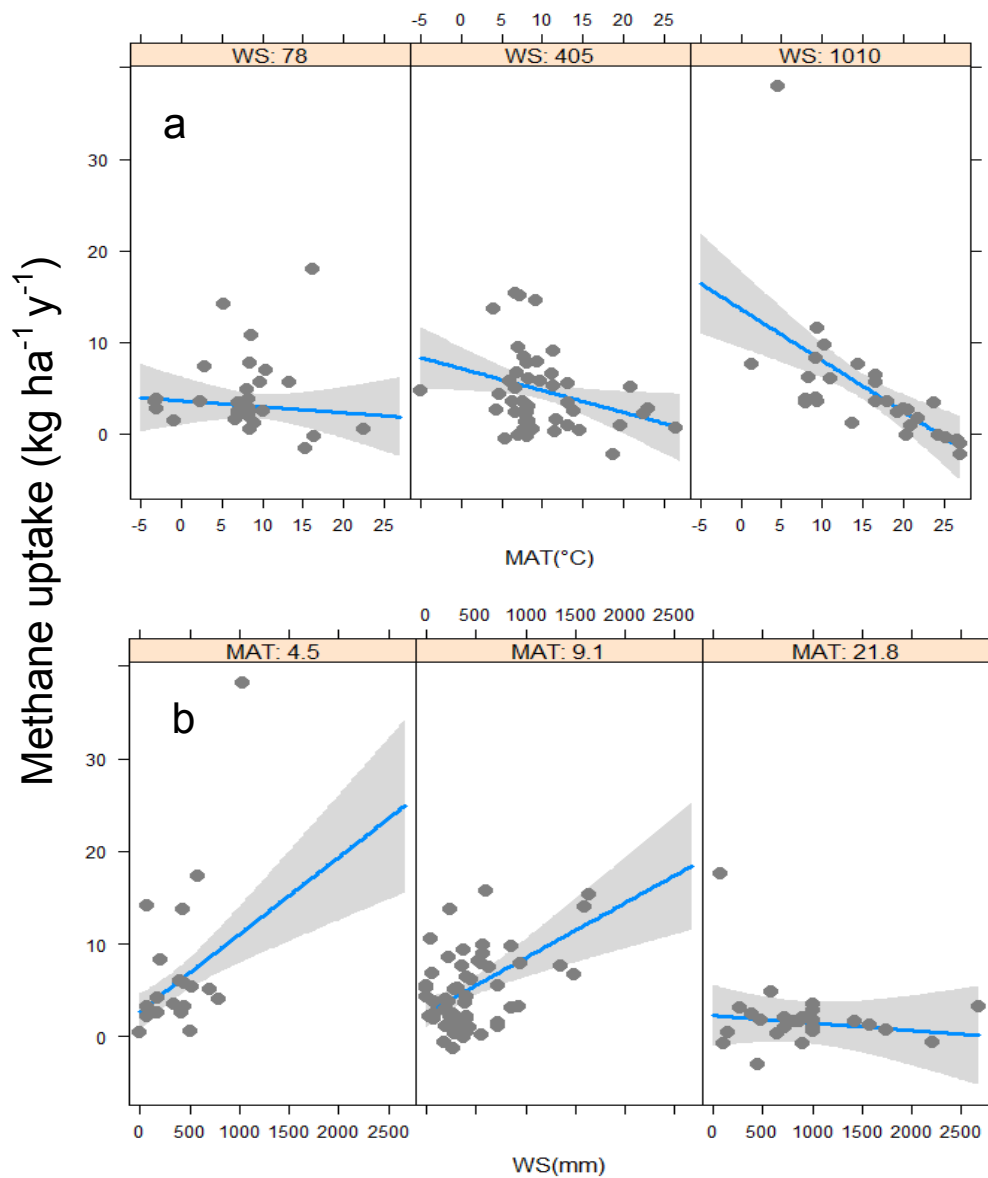


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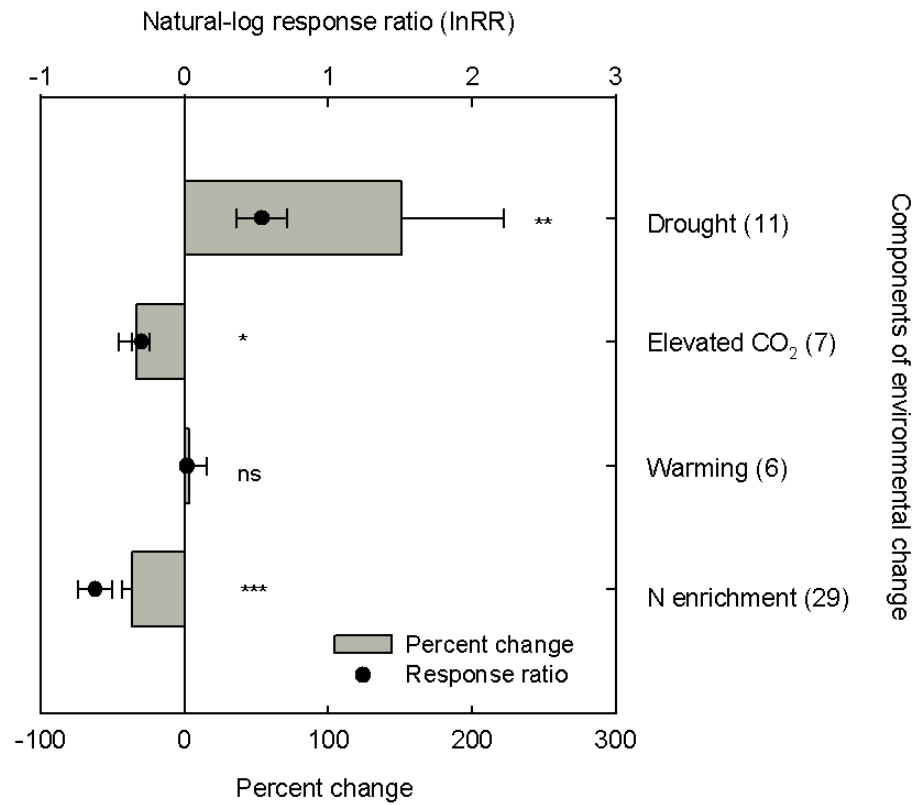
594

595 **Figure 2.** Partial residual plot. Partial residual plot of the variability of methane  
 596 uptake explained by MAT (°C), WS (water surplus (mm)) and the interaction between  
 597 them. 2a) the relationship between methane uptake and MAT under low, medium and  
 598 high WS (78, 405, 1010 mm); 2b) the relationship between methane uptake and WS  
 599 under low, medium and high MAT (4.5, 9.1, 21.8 °C) (*visreg* R package).

600



601 **Figure 3.** Effect of the environmental-change components drought, warming, elevated  
 602 CO<sub>2</sub>, and N enrichment on the rates of methane uptake represented as percent of  
 603 change of the treatment versus the control values (horizontal bars, lower x-axis) and  
 604 the natural-log response ratios associated with each treatment (filled circles). \*  $p <$   
 605 0.05, \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , ns not significant. Numbers in brackets after the environmental-  
 606 change components indicate the number of experiments reviewed for each  
 607 component.  
 608



609