

2 **Tropical tree species composition affects the oxidation**
3 **of dissolved organic matter from litter**

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8 **Abstract** Plant species effects on soil nutrient
9 availability are relatively well documented, but the
10 effects of species differences in litter chemistry on
11 soil carbon cycling are less well understood, espe-
12 cially in the species-rich tropics. In many wet tropical
13 forest ecosystems, leaching of dissolved organic
14 matter (DOM) from the litter layer accounts for a
15 significant proportion of litter mass loss during
16 decomposition. Here we investigated how tree spe-
17 cies differences in soluble dissolved organic C (DOC)
18 and nutrients affected soil CO₂ fluxes in laboratory
19 incubations. We leached DOM from freshly fallen
20 litter of six canopy tree species collected from a
21 tropical rain forest in Costa Rica and measured
22 C-mineralization, and we found significant differ-
23 ences in litter solubility and nutrient availability.
24 Following leached DOM additions to soil, rates of
25 heterotrophic respiration varied by as much as an
26 order of magnitude between species, and overall
27 differences in total soil CO₂ efflux varied by more
28 than four-fold. Variation in the carbon: phosphorus
29 ratio accounted for 51% of the variation in total CO₂

flux between species. These results suggest that 30
tropical tree species composition may influence soil 31
C storage and mineralization via inter-specific 32
variation in plant litter chemistry. 33

Keywords Carbon · Decomposition · 34
Dissolved organic matter · Species composition · 35
Nutrient limitation · Soil respiration 36

Introduction 37 38

Litter decomposition controls both the quantity and 39
quality of carbon (C) and nutrients that enter soils, 40
and therefore plays a major role in regulating C and 41
nutrient cycling in terrestrial ecosystems. Two dis- 42
tinct processes, direct mineralization to CO₂ in the 43
litter layer and leaching of dissolved organic matter 44
(DOM), contribute to litter mass loss during litter 45
decomposition. While the first pathway may domi- 46
nate mass loss in many ecosystems, the second 47
pathway—DOM leaching—can be substantial in 48
others (Neff and Asner 2001; Cleveland et al. 49
2006). In any terrestrial ecosystem, the rates, sizes 50
and timing of DOM fluxes are directly related to the 51
solubility of the organic material being decomposed, 52
and the solubility of plant litter shows considerable 53
variability between species (Currie and Aber 1997; 54
Neff and Asner 2001; Allison and Vitousek 2004; 55
Cleveland et al. 2004a, b). In addition to litter 56

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57 solubility, however, high inputs of precipitation can
58 also promote large fluxes of DOM from litter to the
59 soil profile, and DOM leaching may represent a
60 dominant avenue for litter mass loss in mesic
61 ecosystems (Cleveland et al. 2006). For example, in
62 many tropical forests fine litterfall accounts for
63 ~60% of aboveground net primary productivity
64 (Clark et al. 2001) and rainfall is frequent and
65 plentiful. In these sites movement of litter-leached
66 DOM represents important flux of C that fuels
67 significant soil heterotrophic respiration and could
68 account for a large proportion of annual soil CO₂
69 fluxes (Townsend et al. 1997; Cleveland et al. 2006;
70 Cleveland et al. 2007).

71 The potential to generate large quantities of DOM
72 clearly exists in tropical rain forests, but the biode-
73 gradation of leached DOM is subject to a number of
74 important controls. These include climate, soil type,
75 quality of organic matter, and soil microbial com-
76 munity dynamics (Meentemeyer 1978; Swift et al.
77 1979; Chapin et al. 2002). Within a site, however, the
78 quality of organic matter is the most important
79 predictor of litter decomposition rates (Melillo et al.
80 1982). Similarly, while litter solubility and rainfall
81 interact to promote high DOM production in tropical
82 rain forests, the fate of leached DOM in soil also
83 depends on DOM chemistry. For example, heterotro-
84 phic organisms may quickly utilize labile, nutrient
85 rich DOM (Zsolnay and Steindl 1991; Qualls and
86 Haines 1991), while more refractory DOM com-
87 pounds may resist microbial degradation. Specific
88 variations in the carbon chemistry (i.e., quality) and
89 nutrient content of leached DOM are important in
90 regulating its biological decomposition.

91 Variations in the C chemistry of DOM not only
92 affect its decomposability, but also regulate abiotic
93 interactions in soil. Charged DOM molecules may
94 react to form physico-chemical complexes with soil
95 particles, and this process may effectively remove
96 otherwise biologically available DOM from the soil
97 solution (Qualls and Haines 1992a; McDowell and
98 Likens 1988). This “sorption” of DOM depends not
99 only on soil properties (e.g., soil structure and soil
100 texture; Kaiser and Guggenberger 2000; Kalbitz et al.
101 2000 and references therein), but also on the chemical
102 composition of DOM. Sorption reactions occur with
103 both labile and refractory DOM. Labile polysaccha-
104 rides from litter leachate may adsorb to soil particles,
105 although weakly, and ultimately become mineralized

by soil microbes (Dahm 1981), while hydrophobic, 106
high molecular weight, or aromatic DOM may adsorb 107
more strongly to soil minerals (Kalbitz et al. 2000). 108
Thus, while long-term DOM sorption and soil organic 109
matter stabilization may result primarily from the 110
accumulation of recalcitrant, lignin-derived DOM 111
onto soil mineral surfaces (Kaiser and Guggenberger 112
2000), sorption of more labile DOM may also 113
ultimately influence the proportion of DOM that is 114
respired or transported to deep soil via hydrological 115
flowpaths and stabilized (McDowell and Wood 1984, 116
1988). In any case, while the balance between 117
microbial DOM decomposition versus abiotic DOM 118
retention in soils remains unclear (Kalbitz et al. 119
2000), DOM chemistry has the potential to affect its 120
ultimate fate in soil. 121

122 DOM processing in soil is linked to its C
123 chemistry, but nutrients delivered with DOM pulses
124 also control its fate. For example, species variations
125 in litter C quality and nutrient availability are
126 important in determining rates of decomposition in
127 agricultural systems (Johnson et al. 2007) and in
128 forest ecosystems (Hobbie et al. 2006). Similarly,
129 Cleveland and Townsend (2006) showed that the
130 mineralization of leached DOM is linked to soil
131 nutrient availability, and that higher soil CO₂ losses
132 occur when additions of DOM are combined with
133 nutrient fertilizations. While landscape-level pro-
134 cesses control soil nutrient availability at large
135 scales (Walker and Syers 1976), variations in plant
136 foliar nutrient content could drive variations in soil
137 biogeochemistry and soil microbial processes at small
138 scales (Schimel et al. 1998; Bowman et al. 2004).
139 For example, even within a common soil type,
140 individual tree species in the tropics show tremen-
141 dous variation in foliar nutrients (Townsend et al.
142 2007), and species-specific differences in litter solu-
143 bility (Allison and Vitousek 2004) and chemistry
144 (Burghouts et al. 1998) suggest that tree species may
145 regulate fluxes of both C and nutrients into soils.
146 Species driven differences in DOM solubility, com-
147 bined with the fact that variations in DOM chemistry
148 can influence DOM processing in soil, suggest
149 that canopy species composition may regulate soil
150 processes, at least at local scales.

151 Here, our objective was to assess the potential
152 effects of plant species composition on biogeochem-
153 ical processes in tropical rain forest soil using a series
154 of laboratory incubation experiments. Plant species 154

155 diversity and composition play important roles in
 156 ecosystem function (Hooper and Vitousek 1997;
 157 McGrady-Steed et al. 1997; Chapin et al. 2000;
 158 Loreau et al. 2001; Heemsbergen et al. 2004). How-
 159 ever, field studies examining species affects on litter
 160 decomposition dynamics and soil C sequestration in
 161 tropical forests typically use plantation studies or
 162 other low diversity systems (Spain and Lefeuvre
 163 1987; Bashkin and Binkley 1998; Vitousek 1998;
 164 Goma-Tchimbakala and Bernhard-Reversat 2006;
 165 Lemma et al. 2006), and thus provide only limited
 166 insight into the potential affects of canopy species
 167 composition on soil processes in species-rich forests.
 168 Our goal was to explore how species-specific differ-
 169 ences in litter chemistry affect DOM quantity and
 170 quality—and how such differences regulate rates of C
 171 mineralization in soil—in a site where leaching of
 172 DOM is a dominant mass loss vector during litter
 173 decomposition. Under these conditions high species
 174 diversity may combine with significant inter-specific
 175 variation in foliar chemistry and solubility to drive
 176 considerable spatial variation in soil C and nutrient
 177 cycling. We hypothesized that species-specific vari-
 178 ations will regulate rates of microbial C
 179 mineralization through: (1) nutrient availability in
 180 the DOM, and (2) difference in C-quality.

181 Methods

182 Site description and field sampling

183 The research site is a diverse, mature, lowland tropical
 184 rainforest located on the Osa Peninsula in the Golfo
 185 Dulce Forest Reserve in southwest Costa Rica
 186 (8°43' N, 83°37' W). Annual temperature at the site
 187 is 26.5°C, and rainfall averages >5000 mm year⁻¹.
 188 A short dry season occurs between December and
 189 April, coinciding with high leaf senescence and
 190 maximum annual litterfall (Cleveland et al. 2006).
 191 Soils at the site have been classified as ultisols (for
 192 more detail see Bern et al. 2005; Cleveland et al. 2006;
 193 Cleveland and Townsend 2006).

194 Recently senesced litter from six canopy tree species
 195 [*Brosimum utile* (Moraceae), *Caryocar costaricense*
 196 (Caryocaraceae), *Manilkara staminodella* (Sapota-
 197 ceae), *Qualea paraensis* (Vochysiaceae), *Schizolobium*
 198 *parahyba* (Fabaceae/Caes.), and *Symphonia globulifera*
 199 (Clusiaceae)] was collected from under at least four

200 individuals of each species in June 2006 and bulked by
 201 species. At the same time, we collected one 5 × 10 cm
 202 soil core directly beneath the crowns of eight individual
 203 trees of each species (i.e., within a 2 m radius of the tree
 204 trunk). Within 72 h of collection, samples were trans-
 205 ported in a cooler to the laboratory at the University of
 206 Colorado, and field moist soil samples were sieved
 207 to 4 mm to remove rocks and organic debris.
 208 Approximately 25 g of field moist soil from each
 209 species-specific soil sample was bulked to form a single,
 210 composite soil sample, and homogenized for immediate
 211 use in sorption experiments and DOC decompo-
 212 sition incubations. Sub-samples of all individual soils
 213 and composite soil samples were dried at 105°C for 72 h
 214 to determine field moist water content. Remaining soils
 215 were stored at 5°C until use. Leaf litter was air-dried and
 216 total litter P was extracted using sulfuric acid/hydrogen
 217 peroxide digest; extracts were analyzed colorimetrically
 218 on an Alpkem autoanalyzer (OI Analytical, College
 219 Station, TX).

DOM extraction and chemical characterization 220

221 DOM from each species was extracted by leaching
 222 25 g of air-dried, species-specific litter in 500 ml of
 223 de-ionized water for 24 h at 25°C. Following
 224 extraction, leachate was prefiltered through a 0.5-
 225 mm-mesh sieve and sterile filtered using Gelman A/
 226 E glass fiber filters (Cleveland et al. 2004a). DOC
 227 and total dissolved nitrogen (TDN) content of the
 228 leached DOM were measured using a high temper-
 229 ature combustion total carbon and nitrogen analyzer
 230 (Shimadzu TOCvcpn, Kyoto, Japan). We measured
 231 the pH of leachate samples and sub-samples of from
 232 each species were diluted with de-ionized water (DI)
 233 to standard DOC concentrations of 250 mg C l⁻¹
 234 (used in soil decomposition incubations) and
 235 100 mg C l⁻¹ (used in sorption isotherms); the
 236 remainder of the leached DOC was frozen for
 237 further analyses and incubations. To assess the P
 238 content of leached DOM, 5 ml of undiluted DOM
 239 was digested with potassium persulfate and sulfuric
 240 acid (Tiessen and Moir 1993), and extracts were
 241 analyzed on an Alpkem autoanalyzer. Finally, to
 242 measure DOM aromaticity (McKnight et al. 1997),
 243 we measured UV absorbance at 280 nm on DOM
 244 samples diluted to 2 mg C l⁻¹ with an Agilent 8453
 245 UV spectrophotometer (Agilent Technologies, Santa
 246 Clara, CA).

247	Soil sorption isotherms		
248	We conducted 2 h sorption isotherm experiments		292
249	following the Initial Mass (IM) method using DOM		293
250	leached from species-specific litter on bulked soil		294
251	samples as outlined by Nodvin et al. (1986). Briefly,		295
252	solutions of 0, 10, 25, 50, and 100 mg C l ⁻¹ were		296
253	added to two sub-samples of bulked soil in a 10:1		297
254	ratio of solution to soils and shaken continuously at		298
255	150 rpm at 5°C for 2 h. Samples were centrifuged		299
256	and filtered through pre-combusted glass fiber filters		300
257	to obtain a sample solution to be measured for TOC.		301
258	For each species we plotted the concentration of		302
259	DOC added g ⁻¹ (dry weight) of soil against the DOC		303
260	absorbed. The slope (<i>m</i>) of the linear regression		304
261	RE = $mX_i - b$ gives the sorption affinity coefficient		305
262	of the DOM to the soil (Kaiser et al. 2001).		306
263	DOM decomposition experiments		307
264	We assessed the effects of species-specific differ-		308
265	ences in DOM chemistry on DOC sorption and		309
266	decomposition by conducting three separate decom-		310
267	position incubations. First, we added DOM to soil		
268	samples to assess how chemical differences in		
269	species-specific DOM affect the overall fate of that		
270	DOM in soil (i.e., net DOM losses through both		
271	physical sorption and biological decomposition pro-		
272	cesses). We standardized concentrations of DOC		
273	added to each treatment to minimize concentration		
274	effects on DOC mineralization (Zsolnay 2003) and to		
275	avoid excessive microbial growth (Hongve et al.		
276	2000). In soil treatments, 7 ml of 250 mg C l ⁻¹		
277	DOM was added to 25 g of field moist soil in 1 l		
278	glass vessels jars (<i>N</i> = 5 replicates per species).		
279	Samples were incubated in the dark at 23°C and DOC		
280	decomposition was determined by sampling CO ₂		
281	concentrations in the vessel head spaces at regular		
282	intervals. The CO ₂ concentration was measured with		
283	a GC-14A gas chromatograph equipped with a		
284	thermal conductivity detector (Shimadzu Corpora-		
285	tion, Kyoto, Japan). After each sampling, incubation		
286	vessels were purged with room air. Mean background		
287	soil respiration was determined from five control		
288	samples (25 g soil and 7 ml DI). We concluded		
289	sampling after 34 days, when CO ₂ fluxes from		
290	control samples were greater than 75% of samples		
291	receiving DOM.		
		To assess the effects of variation in DOM on	292
		biological decomposition (absent the influence of	293
		sorption) we conducted two additional DOM incuba-	294
		tions using liquid media. First, to assess the overall	295
		effects of DOM variation on decomposition rates,	296
		70 ml of 20 mg C l ⁻¹ DOM was added to 125 ml	297
		flasks and inoculated with 1 ml of a water diluted	298
		(10 ⁻³) soil sample (Kalbitz et al. 2003; Cleveland	299
		et al. 2004a). Flasks were sealed and incubated in the	300
		dark at 23°C while continuously shaken on an orbital	301
		shaker. DOC mineralization was sampled and calcu-	302
		lated as previously described for soil treatments,	303
		although terminated 21 days after inoculation. Simi-	304
		larly, to separate the effects of DOM nutrient versus	305
		C-chemistry between species, a parallel liquid incu-	306
		bation was conducted in which the C:N:P ratio was	307
		adjusted to 100:10:1 (mass basis) in the liquid + nutri-	308
		ent treatments by adding NH ₄ NO ₃ and K ₂ HPO ₄ (Don	309
		and Kalbitz 2005).	310
		Data analysis	311
		We calculated total net C mineralization in DOM-	312
		amended samples by multiplying average rates of C-	313
		efflux at each sampling interval by time and subtracting	314
		total C mineralization values from the control samples.	315
		The ratio of total net C mineralization to the total C	316
		added provided percent C mineralization. Differences	317
		between rates and percent C fluxes in the incubations	318
		were tested using one-way ANOVA and differences	319
		between species were determined using Tukey's B post	320
		hoc test (SPSS, Chicago, IL). Relationships between	321
		DOM chemical characteristics and respiration were	322
		determined with linear regressions. Differences	323
		between DOM soil sorption coefficients were deter-	324
		mined by analysis of covariance (ANCOVA, Zar	325
		1999). The effects of nutrient additions to liquid	326
		incubations were analyzed with ANOVA. All results	327
		are reported as significant when <i>P</i> < 0.05.	328
		Results	329
		DOM solubility and chemistry	330
		A single leaching event elicited a more than eight-fold	331
		difference in soluble DOC fluxes from litter from the	332
		six tree species. DOC fluxes ranged from 0.5% of dry	333

334 litter mass (*Brosimum*; 5.46 mg C g⁻¹) to 4.4% of dry
335 biomass (*Caryocar*; 44.31 mg C g⁻¹, Table 1). TDN
336 and dissolved organic P (DOP) concentrations in the
337 leachate also varied widely between species; TDN
338 values ranged from 0.10 mg N g⁻¹ in *Brosimum* to
339 1.31 mg N g⁻¹ in *Caryocar*, and DOP varied by more
340 than a factor of 30 between species (Table 1). Conse-
341 quently, nutrient availability in DOM leached from the
342 six species also varied greatly (Table 1). When
343 adjusted for C solubility, litter P was an exceptionally
344 strong predictor for DOP ($P < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.967$).

345 Similarly, measures of C chemistry varied signif-
346 icantly between species. Soil sorption coefficients (m)
347 for DOM leached from different tree species in 2 h
348 sorption isotherms and were significantly different
349 (analysis of covariance $F = 4.65$, $P < 0.002$); rang-
350 ing from 0.247 (*Schizolobium*) to 0.362 (*Manilkara*)
351 and fit the isotherm model well ($R^2 \geq 0.92$). UV
352 absorbance (SUVA₂₈₀) of DOM leached from differ-
353 ent species also varied greatly, with values between
354 0.56 (*Schizolobium*) and 2.33 (*Caryocar*, see
355 Table 1).

356 Soil incubation experiment: species-specific
357 effects on DOM decomposition

358 Rates of CO₂ efflux from soil incubations were
359 significantly different between species at all sampling
360 times through 360 h after DOM additions (one-way
361 ANOVA, $P < 0.02$, Fig. 1). Rates of CO₂ flux were
362 greatest in the first days following DOM additions
363 and decreased by an order of magnitude after 3 days.
364 For example, initial (28 h) CO₂ respiration rates
365 ranged from 55.48 ± 0.65 μgCO₂-C h⁻¹ (*Qualea*) to
366 65.40 ± 1.39 μgCO₂-C h⁻¹ (*Schizolobium*). After
367 360 h soil respiration rates ranged from 26.62 ±

0.86 μgCO₂-C h⁻¹ (*Qualea*) to 29.42 ± 0.83 μg
368 CO₂-C h⁻¹ (*Schizolobium*). Three weeks after DOM
369 additions, between-species differences in soil respi-
370 ration rates were no longer significantly different
371 from one another, or background rates of soil
372 respiration (one-way ANOVA, $P = 0.39$).
373

374 Species-driven differences in soil respiration rates
375 were also strongly correlated with total C respired
376 over the course of the soil incubation (one-way
377 ANOVA, $P < 0.01$; Fig. 2). Twenty-eight h after the
378 soil incubations began, samples receiving *Schizolo-*
379 *bium* DOM had respired nearly half of the DOC
380 added and significantly more CO₂ than any other
381 species (one-way ANOVA, $P < 0.001$; Tukey's B,
382 $\alpha < 0.05$). Similarly, 360 h after inoculation soils
383 receiving *Schizolobium* DOM respired signifi-
384 cantly more CO₂ (141.6% ± 27.6 of initial DOC
385 added) than soils receiving DOM leached from
386 either *Qualea* (50.6% ± 18.8) or *Manilkara* litter
387 (63.7% ± 10.1; one-way ANOVA, $P = 0.009$;
388 Tukey's B, $\alpha < 0.05$).

Liquid incubation experiment: carbon
and nutrient effects on DOM decomposition

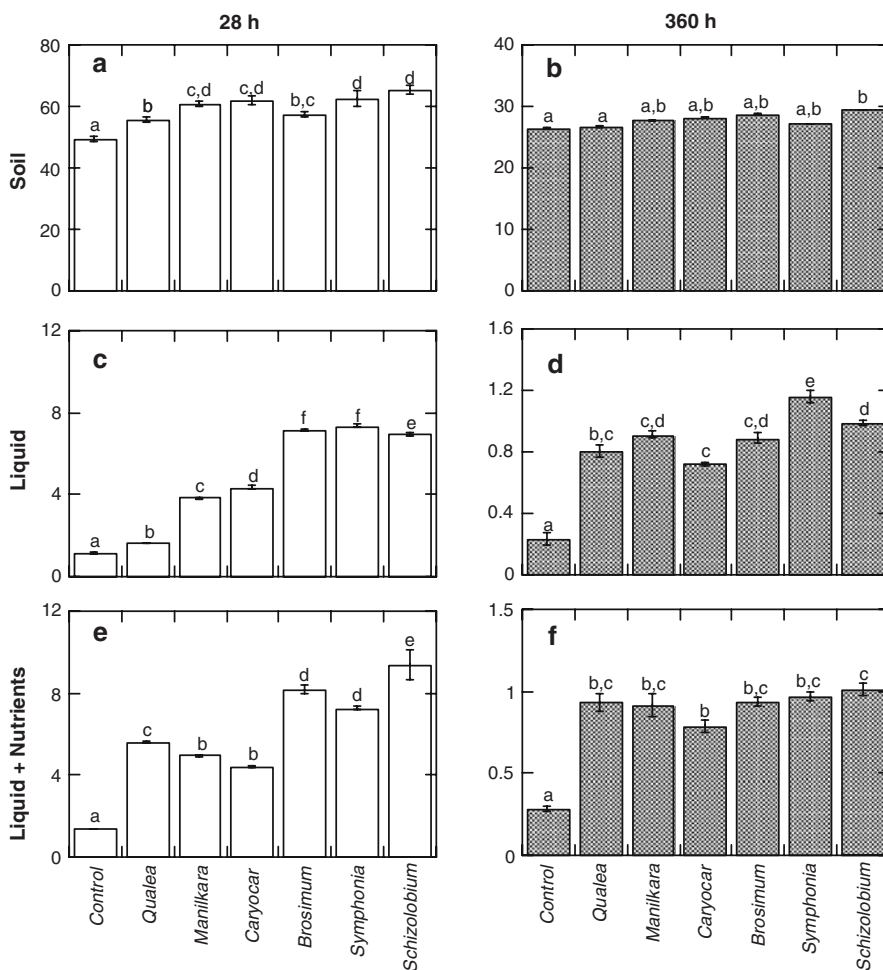
391 While CO₂ fluxes were considerably lower in liquid
392 and liquid + nutrient treatments, we observed
393 the same relationship between species; generally
394 *Caryocar*, *Manilkara*, and *Qualea* had low rates of
395 respiration while *Symphonia* and *Schizolobium*
396 had significantly higher rates of respiration (Fig. 1;
397 Tukey's B, $\alpha < 0.05$). Trends in total species DOC
398 mineralization observed in soil incubations were
399 consistent in liquid incubations as well. Total CO₂
400 fluxes were significantly different between all species
401 28 h following liquid inoculations (one-way ANOVA,

Table 1 Initial DOM characterization following leaching of 25 g leaves in 500 ml of water

Species	Solubility		Sorption (m)	C:N	C:P	UV absorbance ^a	pH
	C (mg/g)	P (μg/g)					
<i>Qualea</i>	6.44	14.2	0.339	50.61	452.72	0.92	5.07
<i>Manilkara</i>	18.85	69.0	0.362	37.64	273.16	0.78	5.31
<i>Caryocar</i>	44.31	483.0	0.336	33.94	91.75	2.33	4.28
<i>Brosimum</i>	5.46	64.6	0.294	57.12	84.51	1.13	5.31
<i>Symphonia</i>	8.07	42.2	0.289	20.59	191.31	0.97	6.59
<i>Schizolobium</i>	16.80	260.0	0.247	22.97	64.62	0.56	5.95

^a SUVA₂₈₀

Fig. 1 Mean DOC mineralization rates ($\mu\text{gCO}_2\text{-C h}^{-1} \pm \text{SE}$) for soils (a, b), liquid DOM (c, d), and liquid DOM + nutrient incubations (e, f) after 28 h (open bars) and 360 h (shaded bars). Significant differences between species denoted by lower case letters (Tukey's B, $\alpha < 0.05$)



402 $P < 0.001$; Tukey's B, $\alpha < 0.05$). Similarly, 360 h
 403 after inoculation significantly more *Schizolobium* and
 404 *Symphonia* DOC was mineralized than all other
 405 species ($48.2\% \pm 1.0$, $49.1\% \pm 0.6$ respectively).
 406 Total CO_2 fluxes were significantly different between
 407 all other species, with only $16.6\% \pm 0.9$ of *Qualea*
 408 DOC mineralized (one-way ANOVA, $P < 0.001$;
 409 Tukey's B, $\alpha < 0.05$).

410 Experimentally removing nutrient differences
 411 between species significantly altered cross-species
 412 patterns of C mineralization. Nutrient additions to
 413 liquid incubations caused dramatic increases in to
 414 total CO_2 fluxes in some species, notably *Qualea* and
 415 *Manilkara*. Total C fluxes after 360 h ranged from
 416 $26.9\% \pm 0.5$ (*Caryocar*) to $48\% \pm 1.7$ of initial
 417 DOC added (*Schizolobium* and *Manilkara*, one-way
 418 ANOVA, $P < 0.001$; Tukey's B, $\alpha < 0.05$). When
 419 comparing effects of species and treatments (liquid

DOM and DOM + nutrients) after 360 h we
 420 observed significant differences in total DOC miner-
 421 alized based on species, treatment, and an interaction
 422 between species and treatments (two-way ANOVA,
 423 $P < 0.001$).
 424

425 Discussion

426 In this experiment, we investigated how tropical tree
 427 species composition could drive spatial variation in
 428 soil C dynamics. We focused on two potential
 429 mechanisms that could elicit this effect: (1) the
 430 quantity of C delivered to soil (driven by differences
 431 in plant litter solubility); and (2) the decomposability
 432 of soluble C (driven by differences in plant litter
 433 chemistry). After a single experimental leaching, we
 434 observed a more than eight-fold difference in DOC

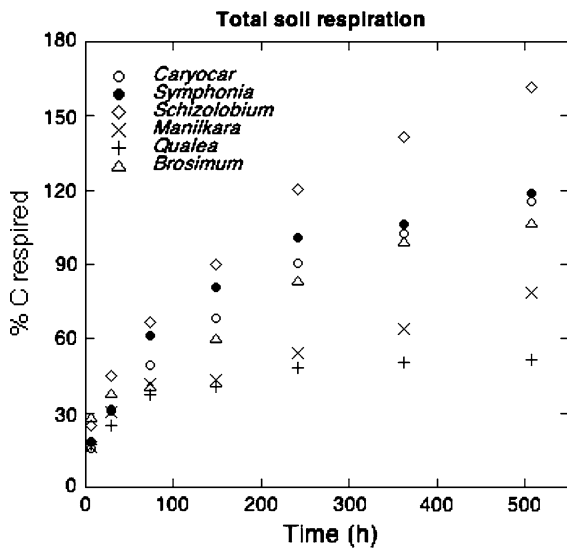


Fig. 2 DOC mineralized for each species throughout the soil incubation experiment. Values represent mean % DOC mineralized

concentrations, and a more than 30-fold difference in DOP concentrations between species (Table 1). In many temperate ecosystems seasonal pulses of DOM are thought to represent a transient phenomena (see Neff and Asner 2001 and references therein). In contrast, at our field site litter decomposition occurs extremely rapidly and litter solubility remains high throughout all stages of litter decomposition (Cleveland et al. 2006), although seasonal differences in DOM leached from the litter layer are not considered here. In the field, peak soil CO₂ fluxes occur at times when DOM pulses are highest (i.e., the wet-to-dry season transition; Cleveland et al. 2006). Between-species differences in the quantity of litter-leached DOM leached indicate that between-species differences in litter solubility alone may exert significant control over the timing and quantity of DOM delivered to the soil profile. Such differences suggest that species composition may strongly regulate rates of soil respiration (and possibly other important soil biogeochemical processes), at least at small scales.

Not only do species vary with respect to DOM quantity, but DOM quality. After adding standardized concentrations of species-specific DOC to soils, we observed ten-fold variations in rates of CO₂ efflux and three-fold differences in total C-mineralization from soils receiving DOM leached from different

species (Figs. 1, 2). Notably, *Schizolobium* DOM exhibited a priming effect on soils, respiring more than 160% of C added over the course of the three-week incubation, whereas only 51% of *Qualea* DOM was mineralized over the same time period. These data suggest that chemical variation of DOM leached from different plant species could have important effects on the processing and ultimate fate of that DOM, as well as on more labile soil C pools. Plant litter chemistry could affect soil processing of DOM in two ways: (1) via differences in the proportion of DOM that is susceptible to physical sorption onto soil particles; or (2) via differences in the decomposability of DOM leached from different species.

Physical sorption has important consequences for soil nutrient availability and soil organic C (SOC) dynamics (Neff and Asner 2001; Schwendenmann and Veldkamp 2005; Jimenez and Lal 2006). We observed an inverse relationship between DOM sorption coefficients (m) and total CO₂ fluxes throughout the incubation (28 h $P < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.51$; 360 h $P = 0.001$; $R^2 = 0.343$). Sorption removes DOM from the soil solution almost immediately (Qualls and Haines 1992b). After 2 h, 25–35% of DOM added to sorption isotherms sorbed to soil particles (Table 1). By comparison, only 16–29% of DOC was mineralized 6 h into the incubation, but 25–45% of DOC was mineralized after 28 h (Fig. 2). Sorption processes may effectively remove DOC from biologically accessible pools and contribute to long-term soil C storage, especially at depth in tropical soils (Schwendenmann and Veldkamp 2005). Our data suggest that species differences may influence soil C dynamics through differential sorption interactions with soil particles.

Models of DOC dynamics in temperate forests indicate that sorption plays an important role in regulating DOC losses from terrestrial systems, but that microbial decomposition of DOC is also important in regulating CO₂ fluxes from surface soils (Neff and Asner 2001). Moreover, biotic processing of leached DOC may be more important in tropical soils, where high annual temperatures allow substantial microbial activity throughout the year, thus promoting lower rates of C sequestration (Lal 2002). Biological decomposition of leached DOC may also depend on the availability of nutrients, especially N and P, to fuel rapid microbial growth (Kalbitz et al. 2000; Marschner and Kalbitz 2003). Widespread

511 P-limitation is assumed for large areas of lowland
512 tropical forests that grow on highly weathered
513 Oxisols and Ultisols (Walker and Syers 1976;
514 Vitousek 1984; Reich and Oleksyn 2004), and
515 previous in situ measurements of soil respiration
516 showed that both N and P additions drove substantial
517 CO₂ losses from our study site, but that P fertilization
518 had a greater net effect on heterotrophic respiration
519 (Cleveland and Townsend 2006).

520 In the present study, the nutrient content of
521 leached DOM varied widely between species
522 (Table 1), and rates of soil respiration were strongly
523 related to the nutrient content of the added DOM
524 (Table 2). Specifically, the P concentration of leached
525 DOM was positively related to the total CO₂ respired
526 over the course of the soil incubation in all
527 treatments; soils receiving species specific DOM
528 with lower C:P ratios had higher CO₂ efflux
529 throughout the incubation ($P \leq 0.001$, 28 h $R^2 =$
530 0.41, 360 h $R^2 = 0.34$, Table 2). In general, CO₂
531 fluxes from soil samples receiving species DOM with
532 C:P < 250:1 represented nearly 100% of the added
533 DOC, whereas samples receiving DOM with
534 C:P > 250:1 respired less than 65% of initial DOC
535 over the same time period (Fig. 2). Typically, soil
536 microbial communities are thought to be C limited
537 (Lynch 1982), but these data suggest an interesting
538 hypothesis: species delivering DOM with greater
539 P availability lessen a key nutrient constraint
540 (Cleveland et al. 2002; Marschner and Kalbitz
541 2003), thus promoting rapid mineralization of
542 relatively abundant, labile DOC and SOC.

543 Our liquid incubations support this hypothesis.
544 Between species differences in DOC mineralization
545 rates were even more pronounced than in the soil
546 incubation, but they generally followed trends seen
547 with soils (Fig. 1c, d). Total C-mineralization in
548 liquid incubations was inversely related with initial
549 C:P and C:N ratios throughout the incubation
550 (Table 2). Within 1 day of inoculation (when labile
551 C is most available and CO₂ fluxes reached their
552 maximum) rates of CO₂ flux in liquid media were
553 strongly constrained by P availability ($P < 0.001$,
554 $R^2 = 0.64$), further suggesting that between-species
555 differences in the nutrient content of leached DOM
556 are critical in regulating rates microbial DOM
557 decomposition. While evidence for P-limitation could
558 be an unintended consequence of the liquid inoculum
559 treatment where microbial growth may be necessary

Table 2 Linear regression table of total %DOC mineralized after 28 h and 360 h incubation versus initial C:N, C:P, and UV absorbance values for all treatments

	C:N		C:P		UV absorbance	
	R ²	F	R ²	F	R ²	F
Soil						
28	0.10	3.23*	0.41	19.42***	0.06	1.89 ^{NS}
360	0.17	5.62*	0.34	14.26***	0.00	0.00 ^{NS}
Liquid DOM						
28	0.04	1.28 ^{NS}	0.58	38.49***	0.02	0.70 ^{NS}
360	0.29	11.20**	0.53	31.18***	0.09	2.68 ^{NS}
Liquid DOM + nutrients _a						
28	0.13	4.30*	0.24	8.775**	0.32	13.34***
360	0.04	1.23 ^{NS}	0.002	0.05 ^{NS}	0.70	68.75***

^a Based on C:N and C:P ratios that reflect medium matrix following fertilizer additions

* $P < 0.05$

** $P < 0.01$

*** $P < 0.001$

560 before DOC mineralization (e.g. Marschner and
561 Kalbitz 2003), the consistency of data from liquid
562 and soil incubations, along with other field data (e.g.
563 Cleveland and Townsend 2006) strongly suggest
564 nutrient limitation over DOC mineralization.

565 To assess the overall importance of nutrients on
566 DOC mineralization, we calculated a nutrient
567 response ratio by dividing total DOC mineralized
568 after 360 h for each species in the DOM + nutrient
569 addition treatment by the total CO₂ flux in the liquid
570 DOM treatment. We observed a significant relation-
571 ship between nutrient response ratios and species'
572 initial C:P ratios, best explained by a quadratic
573 relationship ($P < 0.03$, $R^2 = 0.91$; Fig. 3). We did
574 not observe a relationship between response ratios
575 and initial C:N ratios ($P > 0.14$). Nutrient additions
576 released P limitation in species with initial DOM-C:P
577 ratios greater than 250:1 (Fig. 3). Cleveland et al.
578 (2004b) reported microbial C:P > 200:1 during the
579 rainy season at our site. Results from this study
580 suggest that microbes rapidly mineralized labile DOC
581 leached from species delivering relatively P-rich
582 DOM, whereas P limitation constrained mineraliza-
583 tion of labile DOC in samples receiving P-poor
584 DOM. Elsewhere, exotic plant species have been
585 shown to drive changes in ecosystem processes like
586 litter decomposition and nutrient cycling by altering

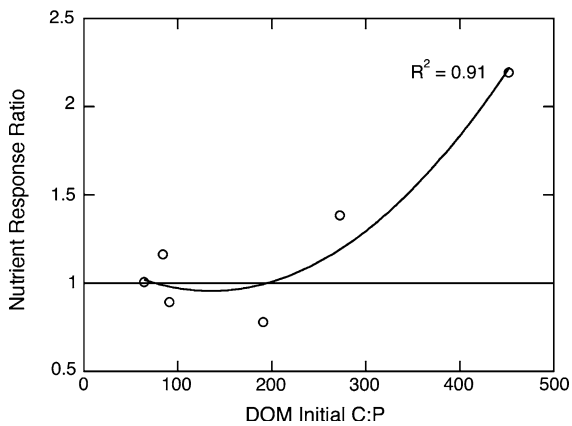


Fig. 3 Nutrient response ratios (calculated by dividing total DOC mineralization after 360 h from liquid DOM + nutrient incubations by total DOC mineralization from liquid DOM incubations for each species) vs. initial DOM C:P ratio ($n = 5$ for each species in each treatment). When fertilization has no effect on total DOC mineralization the response ratio = 1. The relationship between nutrient response ratios and initial C:P is best explained by a quadratic formula ($P = 0.003$). Microbial C:P > 200:1 during the rainy season at our site (Cleveland et al. 2004b)

587 N and P availability in litter fall (e.g. Ehrenfeld et al.
588 2001; Rothstein et al. 2004; Hughes and Denslow
589 2005). Within many natural communities across the
590 tropics, foliar N:P ratios in canopy trees exhibit
591 substantial variation, even between species growing
592 on the same soils (Townsend et al. 2007). Our results
593 suggest that wide inter-specific variation in litter
594 nutrient availability, especially P, controls DOC
595 mineralization, and that soil CO₂ fluxes may be
596 strongly influenced by above ground tree species
597 composition.

598 Finally, while species-specific differences in DOM
599 nutrient content clearly regulate DOM decomposition
600 rates, variations in DOC chemistry between species
601 also appear important. UV absorbance predicts the
602 aromaticity of DOC and is a simple tool useful in
603 predicting DOC biodegradability (McKnight et al.
604 1997; Kalbitz et al. 2003; Don and Kalbitz 2005).
605 For example, DOM rich in phenolics leached from
606 freshly fallen litter will have high UV absorbance and
607 inhibit microbial enzyme activity and metabolism
608 (Hättenschwiler and Vitousek 2000). We did not
609 observe a significant relationship between UV absor-
610 bance and CO₂ efflux in either soil or liquid incubations
611 (Table 2); although at the end of the liquid incubation
612 rates of CO₂ flux were negatively correlated with this

measure of C-chemistry (360 h $P = 0.001$, $R^2 =$ 613
0.32). This suggests that more DOC was mineralized 614
from species with less aromatic DOM, but that sorption 615
and nutrient availability likely exert stronger control 616
over heterotrophic respiration. Subsequent liquid + 617
nutrient incubations removed effects of both sorption 618
and nutrient limitation. Species' variation in UV 619
absorbance explained a significant amount of total 620
CO₂ flux ($P < 0.001$, $R^2 > 0.70$ after 360 h incuba- 621
tion). Other studies report similar findings, with lower 622
biodegradability of more aromatic DOC (e.g. Kalbitz 623
et al. 2003; Marschner and Kalbitz 2003; Don and 624
Kalbitz 2005). Chemical differences in DOM leached 625
from different species likely influence microbial C 626
availability through physical sorption and biological 627
accessibility. 628

Conceptual model 629

Based on these data, we propose a conceptual model 630
that depicts potential species effects on the fate of 631
litter-leached DOM (Fig. 4). Variations in species 632
litter chemistry and solubility directly influence the 633
quantity and quality of DOM delivered to the soil 634
profile. DOC leached into the soil can be physically 635
sorbed to soil particles, microbially mineralized into 636
CO₂, or remain unaltered in the soil; our conceptual 637
model only considers physical and biotic processes 638
that transform DOC. The C chemistry of DOM 639
leached from different species' litter exerts strong 640
influence over both physical sorption through chem- 641
ical interactions with clay particles, and microbial 642
decomposition by chemically determining the biode- 643
gradability of DOM. Nutrients available in DOM, 644
especially P, help determine the rate and extent of 645
labile C mineralization. Thus, nutrient availability 646
and UV absorbance of DOM may determine whether 647
labile DOC undergoes rapid decomposition, is stabi- 648
lized in soils, or is leached from terrestrial systems. 649

Species driven differences in DOM processing 650
could strongly affect overall soil C dynamics. In 651
species-rich tropical forests, variations in the sorption 652
or biodegradability of leached DOM may drive small- 653
scale variability in net soil C storage, net C losses 654
from terrestrial to aquatic ecosystems, or both. For 655
example, litterfall is an important source of both C 656
and P inputs to soil in lowland tropical systems 657
(Burghouts et al. 1998; Campo et al. 2001), and P 658
additions drive substantial C losses from tropical soils 659

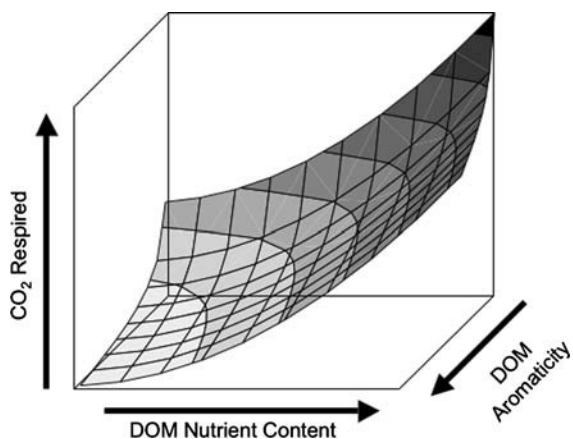


Fig. 4 Conceptual model showing the combined effects of DOM nutrient content and aromaticity on CO_2 flux from soils. In this study we demonstrate that inter-specific variation in litter chemistry influences DOM quantity and chemistry; this variability determines the fate of DOC via physical sorption and microbial decomposition

660 (Cleveland and Townsend 2006). Our data suggest
661 that inter-specific variation in litter chemistry and
662 litterfall, demonstrated here and elsewhere (Goma-
663 Tchimbakala and Bernhard-Reversat 2006; Hobbie
664 et al. 2006; Townsend et al. 2007), may lead to
665 highly heterogeneous soil C and nutrient distribution
666 at small spatial scales (Burghouts et al. 1998; John
667 et al. 2007). However, data from Powers et al. (2004)
668 contradict this hypothesis, indicating that further
669 research is needed to determine the influence of
670 above ground species composition on soil processes
671 and C-dynamics, especially under field conditions.

672 These results highlight the potential importance of
673 species composition in regulating terrestrial C-cycling
674 in tropical forests (Bunker et al. 2005). Selective
675 logging operations in the Brazilian Amazon meet or
676 exceed rates of deforestation (Asner et al. 2005a,
677 2006), resulting in a net loss of goods and services
678 provided by the ecosystem, including C-sequestration
679 (Foley et al. 2007). Results from this study indicate
680 that shifts in above ground species composition may
681 also drive changes in below ground C cycling. For
682 example, removing species that deliver more recalcitrant,
683 nutrient-poor forms of DOM to the soil profile
684 may decrease overall soil C-storage. Such species-
685 level effects may be especially pronounced at larger
686 scales in the context of plantation forestry; here,
687 overall carbon storage in tropical plantations may

depend not only on aboveground dynamics, but also on
the foliar DOM properties of the species being grown.
Finally, we note that while extrapolating species-level
effects to larger scales in highly diverse tropical
ecosystems can seem daunting, relationships between
foliar chemical properties and effects such as those
reported here provide some hope. For example, the
strong relationship between bulk foliar P and DOP
availability suggests that knowledge of foliar chem-
istry, which is increasingly possible at high resolution
over larger areas via new remote sensing methods
(Asner et al. 2005b), may allow predictions of species-
level influences on soil biogeochemistry even at
regional scales.

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