

CO₂ processes in an alpine grassland ecosystem on the Tibetan Plateau

PEI Zhiyong, OUYANG Hua, ZHOU Caiping, XU Xingliang

(Inst. of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research, CAS, Beijing 100101, China)

Abstract: In this paper, the CO₂ concentrations profile from 1.5 m depth in soil to 32 m height in atmosphere were measured from July 2000 to July 2001 in an alpine grassland ecosystem located in the permafrost area on the Tibetan Plateau, which revealed that CO₂ concentrations varied greatly during this study period. Mean concentrations during the whole experiment in the atmosphere were absolutely lower than the CO₂ concentrations in soil, which resulted in CO₂ emissions from the alpine steppe soil to the atmosphere. The highest CO₂ concentration was found at a depth of 1.5 m in soil while the lowest CO₂ concentration occurred in the atmosphere. Mean CO₂ concentrations in soil generally increased with depth. This was the composite influence of the increasing soil moistures and decreasing soil pH, which induced the increasing biological activities with depth. Temporally, the CO₂ concentrations at different layers in air remained a more steady state because of the atmospheric turbulent mixing. During the seasonal variations, CO₂ concentrations at surface soil interface showed symmetrical patterns, with the lowest accumulation of CO₂ occurring in the late winter and the highest CO₂ concentration in the growing seasons.

Key words: CO₂; soil; atmosphere; alpine grassland; Tibetan Plateau

CLC number: S153

1 Introduction

The current concern about global climate change has made it of great interest to find out the real causes of air temperature rising. Observations and further analyses suggest that greenhouse gas increases are responsible for the climate change (Tett *et al.*, 1999; Crowley, 2000). Among all the greenhouse gases in atmosphere, the increasing concentrations of carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) contribute more than 70% of the global warming (Lashof *et al.*, 1990; Rodhe, 1990). Carbon dioxide is the primary gas involved in the exchange for C between the atmosphere and the Earth, and it is responsible for 50% of all greenhouse forcing (Rodhe, 1990). The concentration of atmospheric CO₂ has increased from 280 p.p.m.v. since pre-industrial period (pre-1800) to current about 380 p.p.m.v. which is still increasing at a rate of 3 p.p.m.v. per year (Neftel *et al.*, 1985; Friedli *et al.*, 1986; Fan *et al.*, 1998; Monnin *et al.*, 2001). Beside anthropogenic changes, a large amount of C is returned to the biosphere from the atmosphere by plant photosynthesis and subsequently released from biota to the atmosphere by respiration or burning of plants, so the release of CO₂ from terrestrial biota has contributed significantly to the present atmospheric CO₂ concentration (Sommerfeld, 1993).

Carbon exchange between the terrestrial biosphere and the atmosphere is one of the key processes that need to be assessed in the context of the Tokyo Protocol (IGPB Terrestrial Carbon Working Group, 1998). Overview of the current state of the knowledge of global and regional patterns of C exchange by terrestrial ecosystems showed that much of the exchange is affected by human activities (including changing land use and more subtle management effects, such as reduced fire frequency leading to woody encroachment) and is coupled to other climatological and biogeochemical processes (Caspersen *et al.*, 2000; Falkowski *et al.*, 2000; Schimel *et al.*, 2001). The net C exchange of terrestrial ecosystems is the result of a delicate

Received date: 2003-02-20 **Accepted date:** 2003-05-22

Foundation item: National Key Project for Basic Research on Tibetan Plateau (G1998040800)

Author: Pei Zhiyong (1976-), Ph.D., E-mail: pei@cern.ac.cn

balance between uptake (photosynthesis) and loss (respiration), and shows strong diurnal, seasonal and annual variabilities (Valentini *et al.*, 2000). Soils store two or three times more C than exists in the atmosphere as CO₂, and it is thought that the temperature sensitivity of decomposing organic matter in soil partly determines how much C will be transferred to the atmosphere as a result of global warming (Davidson *et al.*, 2000). Environmental factors such as soil moistures and temperatures influence soil biological activity and CO₂ diffusion, and therefore they have pronounced influences on the seasonal dynamics of C exchange (Keeling *et al.*, 1995; Davidson *et al.*, 1998; Tufekcioglu *et al.*, 2001). According to the previous studies, some other factors such as nitrogen deposition, the availability of soil organic matter, soil pH, and density of plant roots, providing the substrates for soil biological activity, may also control the overall magnitudes of the soil-atmospheric CO₂ exchange (Kelting *et al.*, 1998; Nadelhoffer *et al.*, 1999; Tufekcioglu *et al.*, 1999; Rosenfeld, 2001). The above studies were all limited to the C sequences in soil, plant or atmosphere respectively. Few researches have been done about the C processes within the soil-biosphere-atmosphere profile in one unique site point. It is of great importance to improve the general understanding of C exchange in an integrated ecosystem throughout soil, biosphere and atmosphere.

As "the third pole" of the earth, the Tibetan Plateau is one and the only active continental collision area in the world, with a mean altitude of the plateau is more than 4000 m above the sea level and an area of about 2,500,000 km². Great uplift of the plateau since Late Cenozoic has been strongly affecting the physical environment of the plateau itself and its neighboring regions. Meanwhile, the plateau is also a sensitive monitor of climate change in the Asian monsoon region, which is closely related to the global change (Zheng *et al.*, 2000). Due to the topographic features and the characteristics of the atmospheric circulation, typical alpine zones of forest, meadow, grassland and desert appear in succession from southeast to northwest in the plateau (Zheng *et al.*, 1979). Alpine grassland is one of the most important ecosystems on the Tibetan Plateau, which occupied almost 1/3 of the whole plateau area. Besides, the area is special for its lacking of human activities, so this is an ideal place to examine the C exchange within the whole soil-biosphere-atmosphere system.

The aim of the present study was (1) to measure CO₂ concentrations within the layers near ground to determine the C exchange in the alpine grassland ecosystem on the Tibetan Plateau; and (2) to analyse the relationships between C exchange and environmental factors.

2 Experimental design

We hypothesized that C exchange would happen between different layers near ground, and the exchange should be controlled by the environmental factors, such as temperatures, moistures and soil pH and so on. To check up the above hypotheses, we carried out the CO₂ concentration profile measurements in a typical alpine grassland ecosystem on the Tibetan Plateau.

2.1 Sampling site

The study was carried out on the top of the hill in Wudaoliang, Qinghai Province, China (35.13°N, 93.05°E). The altitude of the study site is 4767 m above the sea level. The climate in this area is the sub-frigid and semi-arid zone. The average monthly air temperatures were all below 0°C except growing seasons (from June to September), and the mean annual temperature was -5.6°C (Sun *et al.*, 1997). The annual mean precipitation in the study area ranged between 200 mm and 400 mm, with 84% of the annual precipitation occurring in growing seasons. There was permafrost soil in the study area. The soil type was the alpine steppe soil. The ecosystem was classified as an alpine grassland ecosystem, and the majority of the vegetation was *Stipa* lawn community dominated by *Stipa purpurea* (Zheng *et al.*, 1979). The leaf area index at site was about 0.63 (from T X Luo, personal communication).

2.2 Materials and methods

CO₂ concentrations at different layers both in soil and in the atmosphere were examined from July 2000 to July 2001. The concentration measurements were made one day for two weeks during the growing season and one day for non-growing seasons. In each measuring day, CO₂ concentrations were measured three times between 10:00 and 16:00 during growing seasons, and only two times between 11:00 and 15:00 during non-growing seasons.

A 32-meter-iron-tower was used to gather the gas samples from the near ground horizons in atmosphere. Four polyvinyl chloride (PVC) pipes (4 mm in diameter) were fixed from the heights of 4, 8, 16 and 32 meters to the ground, respectively. We pumped out all the remaining gas from the pipes before each sampling time in order to get the actual gas concentration at each horizon in the atmosphere. All gas samples were taken with 100 ml polypropylene syringes equipped with three-way stopcocks into polyethylene-coated aluminum bags for further CO₂ concentration analyses (Maljanen *et al.*, 2001). Unfortunately, the CO₂ concentrations at the heights of 16 and 32 meters in atmosphere on December 14, 2000 were missed because the PVC pipes were damaged by a snowstorm.

We gathered the soil gas samples at depths of 0.2, 0.5, 1.0 and 1.5 m from the soil surface. The below-ground gas samples were gathered through soil gas samplers, which were similar with Burton's facilities (1994). Our gas samplers were made of stainless steel tubes. The outside tube has a diameter of 10 cm, and the diameter of the inside pipes was 8 mm. The top of the inside pipes were tightened with three-way stopcocks, thereby dividing the inner soil gas from the outer atmosphere without a direct contact (Figure 1). Three sampling plots were selected on different vegetation biomass of the study site, and three sample wells were dug on July 20, 2000. The samplers were put in each well occluded to the soil profile in order to get the exact CO₂ concentrations at different soil layers. During the sampling time, gas samples were gathered from each air tightened pipes with polypropylene syringes into polyethylene-coated aluminum bags. Furthermore, the soil surface CO₂ fluxes were also measured using static chamber technique (Maljanen *et al.*, 2001). At the same time of gas sampling, a soil temperature profile at depths of 0.05, 0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.5, 1.0 and 1.5 m was measured, in order to relate the soil gas concentrations to prevailing environmental conditions (Tuittila *et al.*, 2000). Soil temperatures at depths of 0.5 m, 1.0 m, and 1.5 m were measured all the experimental time, and others were measured only during the growing seasons. Soil samples from layers of 0-10, 10-20 and 20-30 cm were taken using a soil core (3.2 cm diameter) at the end of each measuring day during the growing seasons. Plant samples (including above-ground vegetation and root) were taken at the end of the experiments.

2.3 Sample analyses

The plant samples (both above and below ground) were all dried at 60 °C over 48 hours. After the amount of biomass was estimated, the samples were used to measure organic carbon by digestion with potassium dichromate and back-titrating with 0.025 M ferrous ammonium sulphate (Kalembasa *et al.*, 1973) and total nitrogen by Kjeldahl (Bremner, 1965). The soil moisture was determined by oven dry method at 60 °C for 48 hours. Soil pH was measured using a glass electrode by a 1:2 soil-to-water ratio. Soil organic carbon and total nitrogen were measured using the same method with the plant samples. CO₂ concentrations were measured by a CO₂ infrared analyzer (LI-COR6252). The CO₂ flux was calculated from the concentration change over the sampling period (Pei *et al.*, 2003).

Mean values, standard deviations, significance and correlations coefficients were estimated using an Excel spreadsheet (Microsoft Corp., USA).

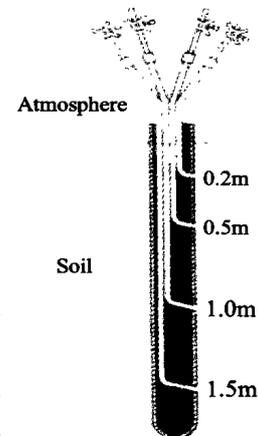


Figure 1 Diagram of the sampler used to measure soil CO₂ at different depths

3 Results

3.1 Soil and vegetation characteristics

The alpine steppe soil at our study site had a lighter texture (sandy loam), and the other physical and chemical characteristics of surface soil were showed in Table 1. Higher C storage was found in 20-30 cm depth of this sandy loam soil. Soil moisture increased with depth, while soil pH decreased gradually with depth. Deeper layer's soil temperature ranged from about -10 to 11 °C, and the variation of upper layer's temperature varied more widely (Figure 2). Among these three layers, the lowest temperature was found in January at a depth of 50 cm and the highest in July at the same depth. The variation of deeper layer temperatures had a distinct time lag following the temperature variations of the upper horizons. These deeper soil temperatures indicated that soil remained frozen throughout the year at a depth of 1.5 m. The vegetation biomass of the study site was slightly lower than other grasslands in the plain areas (Table 2). The ratio of biomass between below-ground and above-ground was about 16:1, which was higher than those of plain areas (Chen *et al.*, 2000). The vegetation root system here was likely stronger than the plain areas due to the frigid climate.

3.2 CO₂ concentration profile

CO₂ concentrations showed great variations within the soil-atmosphere profile during the study period. The lowest CO₂ concentration occurred in the atmosphere. In general, the mean concentrations in the atmosphere were all much lower than the CO₂ concentrations in soil. The largest accumulation of CO₂ was found at a depth of 1.5 m in soil. Variation of soil CO₂ concentrations showed a significant pattern with depth. Soil CO₂ concentrations in our study increased with depth, which is similar to the studies at the Canadian Agriculture Research Station, Delhi, Ontario (Burton *et al.*, 1994). Furthermore, the standard deviations of CO₂ concentrations in atmosphere were all much lower than those in soil, so the CO₂ concentrations in air showed better stabilities than CO₂ concentrations below-ground (Figure 3).

3.3 Temporal variations of CO₂ concentrations

Soil-atmospheric CO₂ concentration profiles varied significantly during the study period, both temporally and with depth. Seasonal variation of CO₂ concentrations at

Table 1 Soil characteristics in Wudaoliang, Qinghai

Depth (cm)	Moisture (%)	pH	Organic C (%)	Total N (%)
0 - 10	3.61	9.02	0.15	0.04
10 - 20	5.05	9.03	0.15	0.04
20 - 30	7.28	8.90	0.32	0.07
30 - 40	7.49	8.90	0.26	0.06
40 - 50	8.17	8.78	0.25	0.06
50 - 70	8.36	8.96	0.15	0.05
70 - 100	9.47	8.96	0.17	0.05
100 - 120	10.67	8.87	0.17	0.05
120 - 150	13.75	9.00	0.11	0.04

Table 2 Vegetation characteristics in Wudaoliang, Qinghai

	Biomass (g/m ²)	Total C (%)	Total N (%)
Fresh	50.52	39.39	1.51
Litter	4.85	35.69	0.82
Root	871.18	25.04	0.93

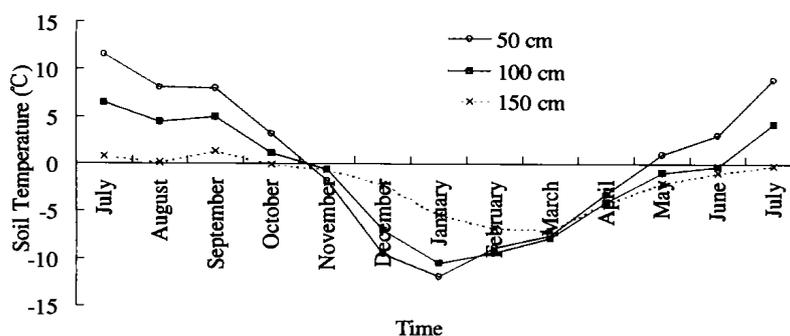


Figure 2 Seasonal variation of soil temperatures (°C) in Wudaoliang, Qinghai

upper layers in soil showed very distinct patterns (Figure 4). Soil CO₂ concentrations at upper layers decreased gradually in the fall, and the lowest accumulation of CO₂ occurred in the late winter. Soil CO₂ concentrations increased to the highest point in the growing season. This phenomenon was similar with the results at the Canadian Agriculture Research Station, Delhi, Ontario (Burton *et al.*, 1994). However, the accumulation of CO₂ concentrations at 1.5 m depth did not exhibit the same trend, the high accumulations of CO₂ were found during the non-growing season. CO₂ concentrations at different heights in air showed more steady-states, but the variations at all horizons did not show any distinct trends during the study period.

3.4 CO₂ fluxes between soil and atmosphere

The mean CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere were all much lower than the CO₂ concentrations in the soil, which would introduce CO₂ emissions from the alpine steppe soil to the atmosphere in our study area. Measured fluxes of CO₂ in site from the soil to the atmosphere was about 0.17 μmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. The CO₂ contribution from soil to the atmospheric CO₂ was lower than other grasslands in plain areas (Dugas *et al.*, 1997; Dong *et al.*, 2000; Mielnick *et al.*, 2001). The CO₂ emissions showed a very distinct trend, which decreased in the autumn and increased in the spring (Figure 5). CO₂ emissions during the growing seasons were much higher than those during the non-growing seasons, which accounted for almost 90% of the whole year emissions. The highest mean CO₂ emission occurred in August.

4 Discussion

The net carbon exchange of terrestrial ecosystems is the result of a delicate balance between uptake (photosynthesis) and loss (respiration), and shows a strong diurnal, seasonal and annual variability (Valentini *et al.*, 2000). Soils store two or three times more carbon than exists in the atmosphere as CO₂, and it is thought that the temperature sensitivity of decomposing organic

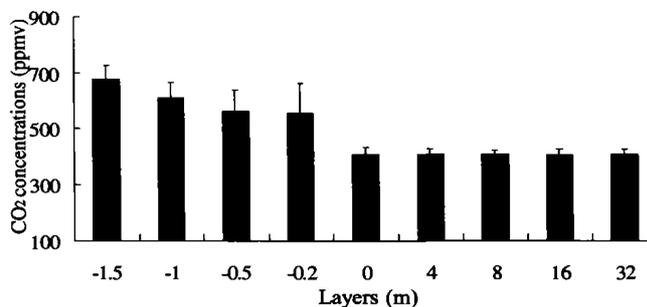


Figure 3 CO₂ concentration profile from soil to atmosphere

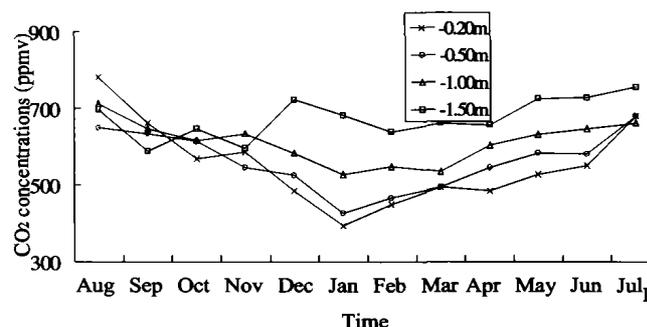


Figure 4 Temporal variations of CO₂ concentrations in the soil

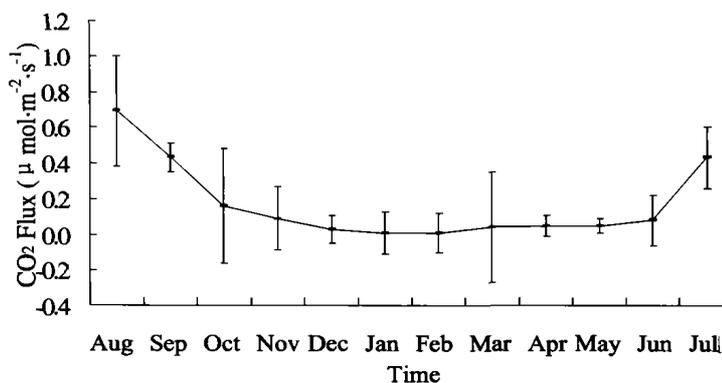


Figure 5 Temporal variation of CO₂ fluxes

matter in soil partly determines how much carbon will be transferred to the atmosphere as a result of global warming (Davidson *et al.*, 2000). Generally, concentrations of CO₂ in the soil atmosphere are controlled primarily by the rate of soil respiration (including root respiration and microbial respiration), which is also modified by the rate of CO₂ production by biota within soils (Raich *et al.*, 1992; Kelting *et al.*, 1998).

4.1 Variations between CO₂ concentrations and fluxes

Although mean CO₂ concentrations varied greatly with depth in soil, the seasonal variations of CO₂ concentrations showed significant correlations ($R^2 > 0.85$, $p < 0.001$) between the upper layers in the soil. The variation of soil CO₂ concentrations at 1.5 m depth exhibited a different seasonal pattern with those of the other horizons, and the correlation between 1 m and 1.5 m was relatively weak. A significant correlation ($R^2 = 0.63$, $p < 0.001$) was also found between CO₂ at soil surface fluxes and soil CO₂ concentrations at -0.2 m depth during the study period (Figure 6). This implies the variation of CO₂ concentrations in the surface horizon was the most direct driving force of CO₂ emissions from the soil to the atmosphere.

The variations of atmospheric CO₂ concentrations at 4 m, 8 m, 16 m and 32 m heights above ground did not show any distinct relationships ($R^2 < 0.4$) between each other. CO₂ transferred quickly and unpredictably between different layers in the air due to the atmospheric turbulence. The atmospheric CO₂ concentrations varied randomly during the experimental period, and their variations between layers hardly have any significant correlations in the atmosphere.

Compared with the turbulent concentrations in the atmosphere, soil CO₂ diffusions from deeper layers to upper layers were generally slow and durative.

4.2 Relationships between temperature and CO₂ variations

Soil temperature has often been described as the dominant independent variable determining the carbon uptake and ecosystem respiration rate (Braswell *et al.*, 1997; Tian *et al.*, 1998; Valentini *et al.*, 2000). In the present study, soil CO₂ concentrations at the upper horizons had a seasonal pattern that closely resembled that of the soil temperature (Figures 2 and 4). The temporal variations of CO₂ concentrations at upper layers can be well explained by the seasonal pattern of soil temperature in our study. Significant correlations between CO₂ concentrations and soil temperatures were also found at depths of 0.5 m and 1.0 m ($R^2 = 0.70$, $p < 0.001$) (Figure 7). The annual soil respiration rates were closely correlated with soil temperatures, which agrees well with results of several previous studies that warmer temperatures enhance CO₂ production in different types of soil (Rochette *et al.*, 1999; Waddington *et al.*, 2001).

In our study, soil CO₂ efflux showed an asymmetric pattern during the whole year experiment, which was almost the same as the pattern in northern California forest (Xu *et al.*, 2001). The maximum CO₂ emission occurred in summer, and CO₂ emission decreased to the minimum in the winter. Regression analyses showed that the variation in CO₂ fluxes was positively related to air temperature (Figure 8).

Root respiration and microbial respiration were the main source of soil CO₂. According to Zogg's study (1996), root respiration rates increased sharply with soil temperature in northern hardwood forests, and the similar relationship between root respiration rates and soil temperatures was also found in many kinds of ecosystems (Bowden *et al.*, 1993; Kelting *et al.*, 1998; Tufekcioglu *et al.*, 2001; Burton *et al.*, 2002). As another important component of soil respiration, microbial decomposition and respiration rates were also strongly affected by soil

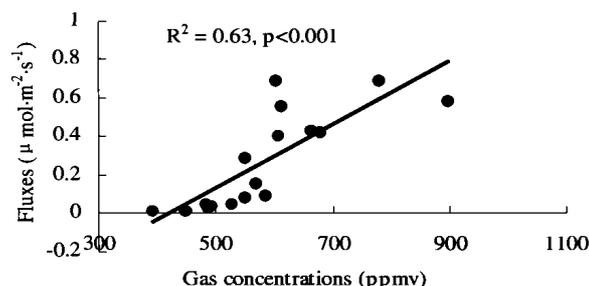


Figure 6 Relationship between CO₂ fluxes and concentrations

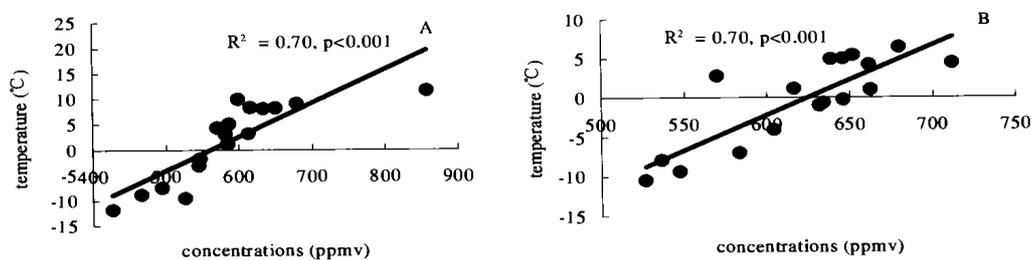


Figure 7 Soil temperatures and CO₂ concentrations at depths of 0.5 m (A) and 1.0 m (B)

temperature (Whalen *et al.*, 1990; Updegraff *et al.*, 1998). Microbial populations may adapt better to changing conditions and warmer temperatures. This is supported by studies that have shown that microbial efficiency is affected by the response of the micro-organisms to temperature and that different microbial communities dominate CO₂ production as temperature increases (Lekkerkerk *et al.*, 1990; Zak *et al.*, 1999; Waddington *et al.*, 2001). So soil temperature was the most important factor driving seasonal variation in soil respiration, and this temperature sensitivity of soil respiration has a profound effect on seasonal variation in soil CO₂ concentrations and soil surface CO₂ fluxes.

4.3 Influence of soil moisture

It is well known that soil moisture plays a major role in regulating soil atmosphere CO₂ concentrations through the influence on rates of biological activity and gas diffusion (Parfitt *et al.*, 1997). As documented by Tufekcioglu *et al.* (2001), a positive linear relationship between soil moistures and soil respiration rates was found among sites. It means that CO₂ production rates generally increased with soil moisture. Orchard *et al.* (1992) attributed this relationship to the effects of water content on soil microbial communities. While soil temperature was the most important factor driving seasonal variation in soil CO₂ concentrations, it was not significant in terms of explaining variations in depths. Soil CO₂ concentrations increased with depth in our study site, while the soil moistures also increased with depth due to the high surface evaporation in the study site (Gao *et al.*, 1995). According to the previous studies, available moisture exerts a great influence on soil microbial activity, and low soil moisture probably reduces microbial populations (Tester, 1988; Ellert *et al.*, 1999; Xu *et al.*, 2001). Furthermore, gas transfer coefficient was determined by soil physical properties, while the increasing soil moisture represented as a diffusion barrier of soil gas (Ellert *et al.*, 1999). So the concentration gradient of soil atmosphere CO₂ could be explained by the increasing of soil moisture with depth in our study.

During the seasonal pattern, variation of CO₂ concentration at 1.5 m depth showed a contrary trend to the other horizons (Figure 4). Tufekcioglu *et al.* (1999) has studied the root biomass distribution in a private farm, and no roots were observed below 1.25 m depth in dry grassland ecosystems. So the microbial respiration occupied all the soil respiration at 1.5 m depth. Why should soil respiration be higher during the cold winter? According to Grace's explanation, perhaps it was because the soil at 1.5 m depth was wetter for longer, and so microbes that were adapted to work at low temperatures were active for most of the year

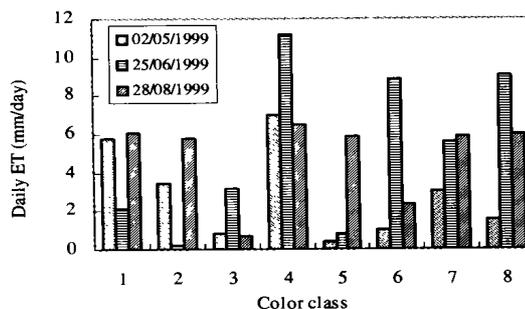


Figure 8 Relationships between soil CO₂ fluxes and temperatures in Wudaoliang, Qinghai

(Grace *et al.*, 2000).

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Liu Yunfen, Ma Zhixue and Shi Buhong for their assistance in field sampling, and we are grateful to Qi Yuchun for the help in laboratory. Thanks also should be given to Luo Tianxiang and Niu Haishan for their suggestions during the data analyses.

References

- Bowden R D, 1993. Contributions of aboveground litter, belowground litter, and root respiration to total soil respiration in a temperate mixed hardwood forest. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research*, 23: 1402-1407.
- Braswell B H, Schimel D S, Linder E *et al.*, 1997. The response of global terrestrial ecosystems to interannual temperature variability. *Science*, 278: 870-872.
- Bremner J M, 1965. Inorganic forms of nitrogen. In: Black C A (ed.), *Methods of Soil Analysis Vol.2.*, 1179-1237. American Society of Agronomy, Madison.
- Burton D L, Beauchamp E G, 1994. Profile nitrous oxide and carbon dioxide concentrations in a soil subject to freezing. *Soil Science Society of American Journal*, 58: 115-122.
- Burton A J, Pregitzer K S, Ruess R W, 2002. Root respiration in North American forests: effects of nitrogen concentration and temperature across biomes. *Oecologia*, 131: 559-568.
- Caspersen J P, Pacala S W, Jenkins J C *et al.*, 2000. Contributions of land-use history to carbon accumulation in U.S. forests. *Science*, 290: 1148-1151.
- Chen Z, Wang S, 2000. *The Typical Grassland Ecosystems in China*. Beijing: Science Press. (in Chinese)
- Crowley T J, 2000. Causes of climate change over the past 1000 years. *Science*, 298: 270-277.
- Davidson E A, Belk E, Boone R D, 1998. Soil water content and temperature as independent or confounded factors controlling soil respiration in a temperate mixed hardwood forest. *Global Change Biology*, 4: 217-227.
- Davidson E A, Trumbore S E, Amundson R *et al.*, 2000. Soil warming and organic carbon content. *Nature*, 408: 789-790.
- Dugas W A, Reicosky D C, Kiniry J R, 1997. Chamber and micrometeorological measurements of CO₂ and H₂O fluxes for three C-4 grasses. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 83(1-2): 113-133.
- Ellert B H, Janzen H H, 1999. Short-term influence of tillage on CO₂ fluxes from a semi-arid soil on the Canadian Prairies. *Soil Biology & Biochemistry*, 30: 21-32.
- Falkowski P, Scholes R J, Boyle E *et al.*, 2000. The global carbon cycle: a test of our knowledge of Earth as a system. *Science*, 290: 291-296.
- Fans S, Gloor M, Mahlman J *et al.*, 1998. A large terrestrial carbon sink in North America implied by atmospheric and oceanic carbon dioxide data and models. *Science*, 282: 442-446.
- Friedli H, Lotscher H, Oeschger H *et al.*, 1986. Ice core record of ¹³C/¹²C ratio of atmospheric CO₂ in the past two centuries. *Nature*, 324: 237-238.
- Gao Y, 1995. Soil regionalization of the Qinghai-Xizang Plateau. *Mountain Res.*, 13(4): 203-211. (in Chinese)
- Grace J, Rayment M, 2000. Respiration in the balance. *Nature*, 404: 819-820.
- IGBP, 1998. The terrestrial carbon cycle: implication for the Kyoto Protocol. *Science*, 280: 1393-1394.
- Kalembasa S J, Jenkinson D S, 1973. A comparative study of titrimetric and gravimetric methods for determination of organic carbon in soil. *Journal of Science of Food and Agriculture*, 24: 1085-1090.
- Keeling C D, Whorf T P, Wahlen M *et al.*, 1995. Interannual extremes in the rate of rise of atmospheric carbon dioxide since 1980. *Nature*, 375: 666-670.
- Kelting D L, Burger J A, Edwards G S, 1998. Estimating root respiration, microbial respiration in the rhizosphere, and root-free soil respiration in forest soils. *Soil Biology & Biochemistry*, 30(7): 961-968.
- Lashof D A, Ahuja D R, 1990. Relative contributions of greenhouse gas emissions to global warming. *Nature*, 344: 529-531.
- Lekkerkerk L, Lundkvist H, 1990. Decomposition of heterogeneous substrates: An experimental investigation of hypothesis on substrate and microbial properties. *Soil Biology & Biochemistry*, 22(2): 161-167.
- Maljanen M, Hytönen J, Martikainen P J, 2001. Fluxes of N₂O, CH₄ and CO₂ on afforested boreal agricultural soils. *Plant and Soil*, 231: 113-121.
- Mielnick P C, Dugas W A, Johnson H B *et al.*, 2001. Net grassland carbon flux over a subambient to superambient CO₂ gradient. *Global Change Biology*, 7: 747-754.
- Monnin E, 2001. Atmospheric CO₂ concentrations over the last glacial termination. *Science*, 291: 112-114.
- Nadelhoffer K J, Emmett B A, Gundersen P *et al.*, 1999. Nitrogen deposition makes a minor contribution to carbon sequestration in temperate forests. *Nature*, 398: 145-148.
- Neftel A, Moor E, Oeschger H *et al.*, 1985. Evidence from polar ice cores for the increase in atmosphere CO₂ in

- the past two centuries. *Nature*, 315: 45-47.
- Orchard V A, Cook F J, Corderoy D M, 1992. Field and laboratory studies on the relationships between respiration and moisture for two soils of contrasting fertility status. *Pedobiologia*, 36: 21-33.
- Parfitt R L, Percival H J, Dahlgren R A *et al.*, 1997. Soil and solution chemistry under pasture and radiata pine in New Zealand. *Plant and Soil*, 191: 279-290.
- Pei Z, Ouyang H, Zhou C *et al.*, 2003. Fluxes of CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O from alpine grassland in the Tibetan Plateau. *Journal of Geographical Sciences*, 13(1): 27-34.
- Raich J W, Schlesinger W H, 1992. The global carbon dioxide flux in soil respiration and its relationship to vegetation and climate. *Tellus*, 44B: 81-99.
- Rochette P, Flanagan L B, 1999. Separating soil respiration into plant and soil components using analyses of the natural abundance of carbon-13. *Soil Science Society of American Journal*, 63: 1207-1213.
- Rodhe H, 1990. A comparison of the contribution of various gases to the greenhouse effect. *Science*, 248: 1217-1219.
- Rosenfeld P E, 2001. Effect of high carbon ash on biosolids odor emissions and microbial activity. *Water, Air and Soil Pollution*, 131: 245-260.
- Schimel D S, Melillo J, Tian H *et al.*, 2000. Contribution of increasing CO₂ and climate to carbon storage by ecosystems in United States. *Science*, 287: 2004-2006.
- Sommerfeld R A, Mosier A R, Musselman R C, 1993. CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O flux through a Wyoming snowpack and implications for global budgets. *Nature*, 361: 140-142.
- Sun H, Zheng D, 1998. Formation and Evolution of the Qinghai-Xizang Plateau. Shanghai: Shanghai Science and Technology Press; Guangzhou: Guangdong Press. (in Chinese)
- Tester C F, 1988. Role of soil and residue microorganisms in determining the extent of residue decomposition in soil. *Soil Biology & Biochemistry*, 20: 915-919.
- Tett S F B, Stott P A, Allen M R *et al.*, 1999. Causes of twentieth-century temperature change near the Earth's surface. *Nature*, 399: 569-572.
- Tian H, Melillo J M, Kicklighter D W *et al.*, 1998. Effect of interannual climate variability on carbon storage in Amazonian ecosystems. *Nature*, 396: 664-667.
- Tufekcioglu A, Raich J W, Isenhardt T M *et al.*, 2001. Soil respiration within riparian buffers and adjacent crop fields. *Plant and Soil*, 229: 117-124.
- Tufekcioglu A, Raich J W, 1999. Fine root dynamics, coarse root biomass, root distribution, and soil respiration in a multispecies riparian buffer in central Iowa, USA. *Agroforestry Systems*, 44: 163-174.
- Tuittila E S, Komulainen V M, Vasander H *et al.*, 2000. Methane dynamics of a restored cut-away peatland. *Global Change Biology*, 6: 569-581.
- Updegraff K, Bridgman S D, Pastor J *et al.*, 1998. Hysteresis in the temperature response of carbon dioxide and methane production in peat soils. *Biogeochemistry*, 43: 253-272.
- Valentini R, Matteucci G, Dolman A J *et al.*, 2000. Respiration as the main determinant of carbon balance in European forests. *Nature*, 404: 861-865.
- Waddington J M, Rotenberg P A, Warren F J, 2001. Peat CO₂ production in a natural and cutover peatland: Implications for restoration. *Biogeochemistry*, 54: 115-130.
- Whalen S C, Reeburgh W S, 1990. Consumption of atmospheric methane to subambient concentration by tundra soils. *Nature*, 346: 160-162.
- Xu M, Qi Y, 2001. Soil-surface CO₂ efflux and its spatial and temporal variations in a young ponderosa pine plantation in northern California. *Global Change Biology*, 7: 667-677.
- Zak D R, Holmes W E, MacDonald N W *et al.*, 1999. Soil temperature, matric potential, and the kinetics of microbial respiration and nitrogen mineralization. *Soil Science Society of American Journal*, 63: 575-584.
- Zheng D, Zhang R, Yang Q, 1979. On the natural zonation in the Qinghai-Xizang Plateau. *Acta Geographica Sinica*, 34(1):1-11. (in Chinese)
- Zheng D, Zhu L, 2000. Formation and Evolution, Environmental Changes and Sustainable Development on the Tibetan Plateau. Beijing: Science Press.
- Zogg G P, Zak D R, Burton A J *et al.*, 1996. Fine root respiration in northern hardwood forests in relation to temperature and nitrogen availability. *Tree Physiology*, 16: 719-729.