




Forum

Incorporation of NPP into forest CH₄ efflux models

Xiaoqi Zhou ^{1,*},
Hanling Zuo ¹ and
Simeon J. Smail ^{2,*}



Forest soils are the largest atmospheric methane (CH₄) sinks in terrestrial ecosystems, but models simulating this uptake have considerable uncertainties. Soil organic matter derived from aboveground vegetation net primary productivity (NPP) significantly influences CH₄ uptake; therefore, we propose that the incorporation of NPP into global CH₄ uptake models will greatly improve model predictions.

Significance and uncertainty of forest methane sinks

CH₄ is the second most influential greenhouse gas, accounting for up to 25% of the global greenhouse effect. The single-molecule warming potential of CH₄ is 25–30 times that of carbon dioxide (CO₂) [1]. Consequently, small changes in the concentration of CH₄ in the atmosphere can have a disproportionately large impact on global warming [2]. Given that atmospheric CH₄ concentrations have increased by a factor of ~2.5 since the Industrial Revolution (722 parts per billion to 1866 parts per billion in 2019), there is considerable interest in tracking atmospheric CH₄ fluxes (e.g., FLUXNET-CH₄) [1]. There are many CH₄ sources (e.g., wetlands, biomass burning, landfills, etc. [3]), but only two sinks: (i) hydroxyl radicals in the troposphere reacting with CH₄ to produce carbon monoxide and CO₂, thereby absorbing ~90% of atmospheric CH₄; and (ii) upland terrestrial soils, which provide a niche for microorganisms that oxidize ~9–10% of atmospheric CH₄ [2].

Forests are the largest atmospheric CH₄ sinks among the terrestrial ecosystems, comprising 52% of the total terrestrial CH₄ sink [2,4].

Models predicting the extent of CH₄ oxidation in forested areas currently produce estimates that can differ substantially when compared with both each other and the observed data [5]. This inconsistency both between models and with observed data is potentially driven by the impact of localized or transitory extreme climate events (e.g., forest fires and drought) that cannot be reliably simulated [2,6], and by the spatial variability of various environmental factors that influence the relative oxidative capacity of a forest soil, confounding extrapolation of local studies to wider scales [4,6]. More importantly, our understanding of the microbial processes that underpin forest CH₄ sink capacity remains incomplete, and the impact of potentially important factors, such as the availability of organic matter to support methanogenesis, is not accounted for [7,8]. Consequently, models simulating the rates and extent of forest CH₄ sinks have limited accuracy, and this uncertainty has substantial flow-on effects for efforts to understand global atmospheric CH₄ balances [5,6].

Microbial processes driving the soil methane balance

The extent of the potential CH₄ sink of a given soil is determined by the balance between two processes: CH₄ production by soil methanogens, which use materials produced during plant decomposition under anaerobic conditions [8], and CH₄ oxidation under aerobic conditions by methanotrophs [7,8] (Figure 1). Substrates for methanogenesis are derived from the decomposition of plant-derived organic matter. Under anaerobic conditions, complex organic matter is converted to monosaccharides and then fermented into fatty acids, CO₂, and hydrogen gas (H₂); the fatty acids are then oxidized by syntrophs

to produce acetic acid, CO₂, and H₂. The CO₂ and H₂ produced throughout this process are used by hydrogenotrophic methanogens to generate CH₄, whereas acetic acid is used as a substrate by acetoclastic methanogens [9]. Although anaerobic conditions are essential for this pathway to occur, the availability of suitable substrates is also a critical determinant. The oxidation of CH₄ is mediated by methanotrophs, which are Gram-negative bacteria within the *Verrucomicrobia*, *Proteobacteria*, and novel *NC10* phylum [7]. The key step in soil CH₄ oxidation is catalyzed by CH₄ monooxygenase, which converts CH₄ into methanol, which is then further broken down by the bacteria to produce energy [7,8]. Aerobic conditions facilitate gas exchange between the aboveground and soil atmospheres, allowing methanotrophs access to CH₄.

The balance between CH₄ production and oxidation is dictated by soil moisture because of its impact on gas diffusion through the soil; however, it is also affected by soil temperature and texture [7,8]. In general, forest soils are dry and well aerated, creating an aerobic environment that favors methanotrophs; nevertheless, *in situ* observations have demonstrated that transient increases in soil moisture content caused by heavy rain can create anaerobic conditions that cause the soil to become a source of CH₄ [6,10]. Other events, such as compaction, can also reduce aeration, creating anaerobic sites. Direct interactions may also be possible, because soil methanotrophs can use the CH₄ produced by methanogens before it leaves the soil atmosphere (Figure 1).

Factors predicting methane sink capacity in forest soils

To estimate the balance between aerobic and anaerobic conditions, models such as the Methanotrophy Model (MeMo v1.0), focus on climate, soil physical and chemical

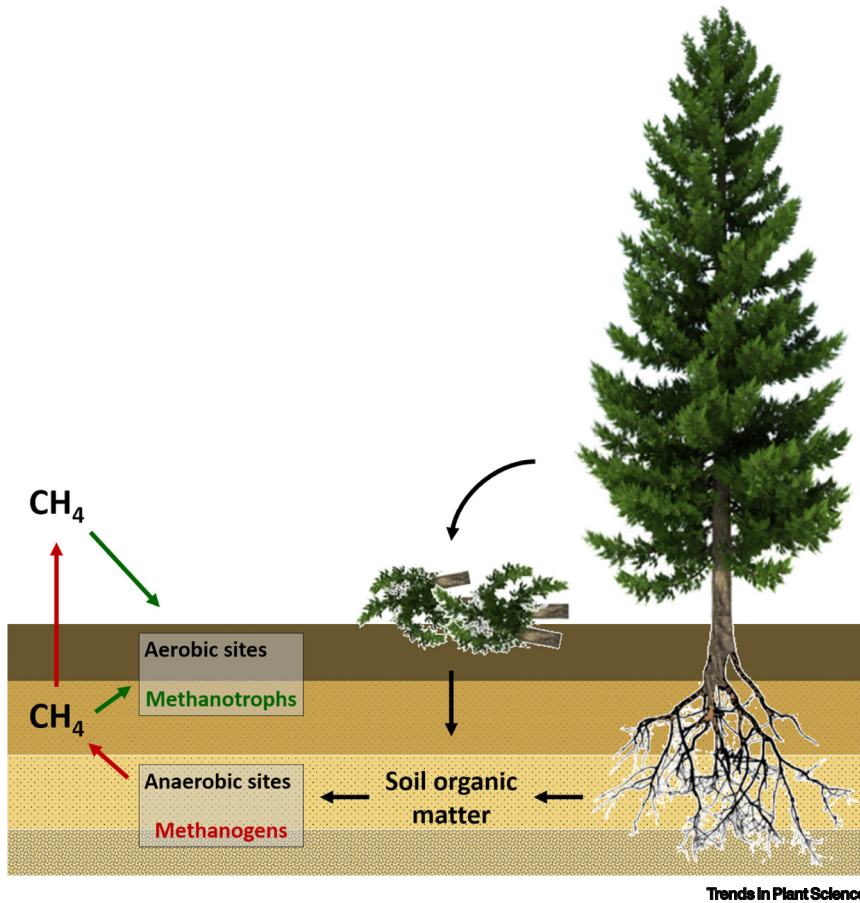


Figure 1. Schematic showing the pathway by which plant productivity can affect soil methane (CH_4) efflux via organic matter production in forest ecosystems. The CH_4 efflux across the soil–atmosphere interface is determined by production and oxidation processes in the anaerobic and aerobic soil sites, with soil organic matter providing the resources required for methanogenic activity.

properties, the diffusion of CH_4 in the soil, and the kinetics of CH_4 monooxygenase as the key drivers of CH_4 dynamics [5]. However, the impact of available organic matter on CH_4 production is not as thoroughly considered. Given the fundamental importance of soil organic matter as the raw material for methanogenic activity [9], we suggest that the NPP of the aboveground vegetation should also be integrated in models, such as MeMo, to improve estimates of forest CH_4 sink size [4–6].

This viewpoint is supported by consideration of the fate of carbon captured through

plant growth. It has been established that 30–60% of photosynthetically fixed carbon is allocated to plant roots, more than half of which is eventually transferred to the soil in various forms [11]; the aboveground plant litter adds further to this pool. Under anaerobic conditions, a large proportion of this carbon is rapidly transformed and emitted as CH_4 [9,12]. In a recent wetland CH_4 emission model, the researchers explored NPP as a predictor and found that it explained variations in CH_4 flux better than did established climatic factors, improving the overall accuracy of model predictions [13]. On the basis of this outcome, it is reasonable to consider that, with greater

NPP from a given soil, the pool of organic matter available to support methanogenesis is also proportionally greater. Therefore, when conditions are suitable for methanogens to become active, the rate of methanogenesis will be greater than for soils in which organic matter is less available. If the availability of organic matter becomes a rate-limiting step in methanogenesis, this could lead to variations in the CH_4 balance that can be predicted by NPP.

Concluding remarks and perspective

Direct measurement of NPP at the level of precision required to support improvements to broad-scale models of the forest soil CH_4 balance are unlikely, but the advent of remote-sensing capabilities provides a new opportunity to develop and apply useful proxies. For example, calculations of vegetation index values from remotely captured spectral characteristics have been used to support the normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI), which has become an established tool for modeling NPP effectively [14]. This offers the potential to generate NPP estimates rapidly and accurately at scalable levels of spatial resolution for forest ecosystems and, thus, explore the relationships among forest NPP, NDVI, and CH_4 balance at the ecosystem level (Figure 2). Examination of these relationships will confirm the potential value of integrating NPP values into forest CH_4 sink models and verify whether they can provide additional parameters to improve the accuracy and, therefore, the utility of these models.

Acknowledgments

We thank Dr Susanne C Brink and an anonymous reviewer for their constructive comments on the early version of the manuscript. This study was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 32171635 and No. 31870497), the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities, the East China Normal University Multifunctional Platform for Innovation (008) and Scion in conjunction with the Forest Growers Levy Trust (QT-7272).

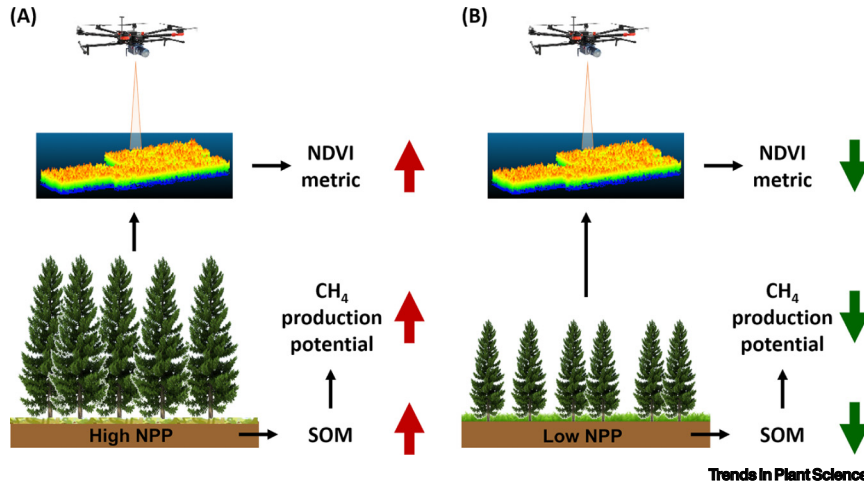


Figure 2. Schematic showing the relationships between forest net primary productivity (NPP), normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI), and methane (CH₄) production potential at the ecosystem scale. We can use NDVI based on remote sensing to estimate the NPP of forest ecosystems: when forest NPP is high, the soil CH₄ production potential is higher and vice versa. Abbreviation: SOM, soil organic matter.

Declaration of interests

No interests are declared.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tplants.2021.09.007>

© 2021 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

¹Zhejiang Tiantong Forest Ecosystem National Observation and Research Station, Shanghai Key Lab for Urban Ecological Processes and Eco-restoration, School of Ecological and Environmental Sciences, East China Normal University, Shanghai 200241, China

²Scion, PO Box 29237, Riccarton, Christchurch 8440, New Zealand

*Correspondence: xqzhou@des.ecnu.edu.cn (X. Zhou) and Simeon.Smail@scionresearch.com (S.J. Smail).

References

1. IPCC (2021) *Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, Cambridge University Press
2. Kirschke, S. *et al.* (2013) Three decades of global methane sources and sinks. *Nat. Geosci.* 6, 813–823
3. Le Mer, J. and Roger, P. (2001) Production, oxidation, emission and consumption of methane by soils: a review. *Eur. J. Soil Biol.* 37, 25–50

4. Ni, X.Y. and Groffman, P.M. (2018) Declines in methane uptake in forest soils. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 115, 8587–8590
5. Murguía-Flores, F. *et al.* (2018) Soil Methanotrophy Model (MeMo v1.0): a process-based model to quantify global uptake of atmospheric methane by soil. *Geosci. Model Dev.* 11, 2009–2032
6. Feng, H. *et al.* (2020) A review of the mechanisms and controlling factors of methane dynamics in forest ecosystems. *For. Ecol. Manag.* 455, 117702
7. Tate, K.R. (2015) Soil methane oxidation and land-use change – from process to mitigation. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 80, 260–272
8. Kolb, S. (2009) The quest for atmospheric methane oxidizers in forest soils. *Environ. Microbiol. Rep.* 1, 336–346
9. Conrad, R. (2009) The global methane cycle: recent advances in understanding the microbial processes involved. *Environ. Microbiol. Rep.* 1, 285–292
10. Zhou, X.Q. *et al.* (2021) Soil aeration rather than methanotrophic community drives methane uptake under drought in a subtropical forest. *Sci. Total Environ.* 792, 148292
11. Badri, D.V. and Vivanco, J.M. (2009) Regulation and function of root exudates. *Plant Cell Environ.* 32, 666–681
12. Lu, Y. and Conrad, R. (2005) In situ stable isotope probing of methanogenic archaea in the rice rhizosphere. *Science* 309, 1088–1090
13. Li, T. *et al.* (2019) Prediction of CH₄ emissions from potential natural wetlands on the Tibetan Plateau during the 21st century. *Sci. Tot. Environ.* 657, 498–508
14. Paruelo, J.M. *et al.* (1997) ANPP estimates from NDVI for the central grassland region of the United States. *Ecology* 78, 953–958