



Dynamic C and N stocks – key factors controlling the C gas exchange of maize in heterogenous peatland

M. Pohl¹, M. Hoffmann², U. Hagemann¹, M. Giebel¹, E. Albiac Borraz¹, M. Sommer^{2,3}, and J. Augustin¹

¹Leibniz Centre for Agriculture Landscape Research (ZALF) e.V., Institute for Landscape Biogeochemistry, Eberswalder Str. 84, 15374 Müncheberg, Germany

²Leibniz Centre for Agriculture Landscape Research (ZALF) e.V., Institute of Soil Landscape Research, Eberswalder Str. 84, 15374 Müncheberg, Germany

³University of Potsdam, Institute of Earth and Environmental Sciences, 14476 Potsdam, Germany

Correspondence to: M. Pohl (madlen.pohl@zalf.de)

Received: 18 September 2014 – Published in Biogeosciences Discuss.: 26 November 2014

Revised: 1 April 2015 – Accepted: 4 April 2015 – Published: 11 May 2015

Abstract. The drainage and cultivation of fen peatlands create complex small-scale mosaics of soils with extremely variable soil organic carbon (SOC) stocks and groundwater levels (GWLs). To date, the significance of such sites as sources or sinks for greenhouse gases such as CO₂ and CH₄ is still unclear, especially if the sites are used for cropland. As individual control factors such as GWL fail to account for this complexity, holistic approaches combining gas fluxes with the underlying processes are required to understand the carbon (C) gas exchange of drained fens. It can be assumed that the stocks of SOC and N located above the variable GWL – defined as dynamic C and N stocks – play a key role in the regulation of the plant- and microbially mediated CO₂ fluxes in these soils and, inversely, for CH₄. To test this assumption, the present study analysed the C gas exchange (gross primary production – GPP; ecosystem respiration – R_{eco} ; net ecosystem exchange – NEE; CH₄) of maize using manual chambers for 4 years. The study sites were located near Paulinenaue, Germany, where we selected three soil types representing the full gradient of GWL and SOC stocks (0–1 m) of the landscape: (a) Haplic Arenosol (AR; 8 kg C m⁻²); (b) Mollic Gleysol (GL; 38 kg C m⁻²); and (c) Hemic Histosol (HS; 87 kg C m⁻²). Daily GWL data were used to calculate dynamic SOC (SOC_{dyn}) and N (N_{dyn}) stocks.

Average annual NEE differed considerably among sites, ranging from 47 ± 30 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ in AR to -305 ± 123 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ in GL and -127 ± 212 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ in HS. While static SOC and N stocks showed no significant effect on C fluxes, SOC_{dyn}

and N_{dyn} and their interaction with GWL strongly influenced the C gas exchange, particularly NEE and the GPP: R_{eco} ratio. Moreover, based on nonlinear regression analysis, 86 % of NEE variability was explained by GWL and SOC_{dyn}. The observed high relevance of dynamic SOC and N stocks in the aerobic zone for plant and soil gas exchange likely originates from the effects of GWL-dependent N availability on C formation and transformation processes in the plant–soil system, which promote CO₂ input via GPP more than CO₂ emission via R_{eco} .

The process-oriented approach of dynamic C and N stocks is a promising, potentially generalisable method for system-oriented investigations of the C gas exchange of groundwater-influenced soils and could be expanded to other nutrients and soil characteristics. However, in order to assess the climate impact of arable sites on drained peatlands, it is always necessary to consider the entire range of groundwater-influenced mineral and organic soils and their respective areal extent within the soil landscape.

1 Introduction

Peatlands are one of the most important ecosystems for the terrestrial carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) cycle, storing up to 500 Mg C ha⁻¹ and – particularly in nutrient-rich fens – 120 Mg N ha⁻¹ (Yu et al., 2011; McDonald et al., 2006; Kunze, 1993). Throughout the world, the drainage and subsequent agricultural cultivation of peatlands has increased

soil organic carbon (SOC) mineralisation rates and the associated CO₂ emissions (Couwenberg et al., 2010; Kasimir-Klemetsson et al., 1997; Nykänen et al., 1995), resulting in the creation of small-scale mosaics of soil types with extremely variable SOC stocks, especially in the case of fens. The respective soil types range from deep peat soils to humus-rich sandy soils, which are not classified as peat soils due to an SOC content of < 12 % (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2007). These individual soil types are typically found at similar relative elevations within an increasingly undulating landscape, and the groundwater level (GWL) is often subject to considerable short-term fluctuations. As a result of the tight coupling between soil types and elevation, mean GWL may differ considerably between individual soil types (Aich et al., 2013; Heller and Zeitz, 2012; Dawson et al., 2010; Teh et al., 2011; Dexler et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2007; Schindler et al., 2003). These sites are typically used as grassland or cropland (Joosten and Clark, 2002; Byrne et al., 2004).

The relevance of these soil type mosaics originating from drained fen peatlands as a source or sink for greenhouse gases such as CO₂ and CH₄, especially if the land is used for cropland, still cannot be exactly determined. In particular, knowledge about the influence of variable soil C stocks on the C gas exchange is still limited. In light of the extreme complexity of site conditions, it seems unlikely that the common focus on interactions between C stocks and particularly relevant control parameters such as groundwater and temperature (Adkinson et al., 2011; Berglund et al., 2010; Kluge et al., 2008; Jungkunst and Fiedler, 2007; Daulat et al., 1998) will result in reliable and generalisable conclusions about the C gas fluxes in degraded fens, mainly because this approach fails to account for the plant-induced C gas input counteracting the C gas emissions determined by soil characteristics and microorganisms.

Therefore, new insights are much more likely to be derived from system-oriented studies analysing all interrelated C gas fluxes, e.g. CH₄ exchange, CO₂ uptake during photosynthesis and CO₂ emission via respiration, together with the underlying processes and control mechanisms (Chapin III et al., 2009; Schmidt et al., 2011). Indeed, there are numerous indications suggesting that this approach may also be promising for the C gas exchange of drained fen sites.

Short- and long-term fluctuations in GWL and its interactions with soil and plants very likely also play a key role in the C cycle of other groundwater-influenced soil types similar to true peat soils (Couwenberg et al., 2011; Berglund and Berglund, 2011; Flanagan et al., 2002; Augustin et al., 1998; Martikainen et al., 1995; Nykänen et al., 1995). For peat soils, many studies have documented the impact of GWL on the interactions between soil C dynamics and gaseous C emissions in the form of CH₄ and CO₂, the latter originating from autotrophic root respiration and heterotrophic microbial respiration. Ultimately, these GWL effects are a result of the ratio between SOC stocks located in the aerobic, i.e. above-GWL, and the anaerobic, i.e. below-GWL, zone (Laine et al.,

1996). However, very few (Leiber-Sauheitl et al., 2014; Jans et al., 2010; Jungkunst et al., 2008; Jungkunst and Fiedler, 2007) studies have investigated Gleysols and groundwater-influenced sandy soils, which make up a significant portion of fen landscapes. It also remains unclear whether the impact of GWL on the gas exchange is modified by the highly variable density typical of the SOC-rich soil horizons of drained peatlands.

Knowledge gaps also limit the quantification of direct GWL effects on plant-mediated CO₂ uptake via photosynthesis. Site-adapted plants growing on undisturbed peat soils and perennial grasses cultivated on groundwater-influenced soils can tolerate changing GWL without considerable deterioration of photosynthetic performance (Farnsworth and Meyerson, 2003; Crawford and Braendle, 1996). In contrast, GWL fluctuations likely have a particularly strong impact on annual crops cultivated on drained peatlands, as most crops typically react to waterlogging, i.e. anoxic soil conditions as a result of high GWL, with reduced photosynthesis, plant respiration and growth (Zaidi et al., 2003; Asharf, 1999; Singh, 1984; Wenkert et al., 1981). Other studies indicate that crops cultivated on groundwater-influenced soils feature better growth when GWLs are low (Glaz et al., 2008), but it is unclear whether this is a direct result of improved aeration or an indirect effect of increased soil volume, allowing for better root development and thus increased nutrient uptake (Glaz et al., 2008; Livesley et al., 1999).

Despite the system-orientated approach mentioned above, it can therefore be assumed that the amounts of soil C and N located above the temporally variable GWL – hereafter referred to as dynamic C and N stocks – are of essential relevance to plant- and microbially mediated C gas fluxes on drained peatland soils. Moreover, investigations into the effects of dynamic C and N stocks may yield new insights into the mechanisms controlling the C dynamics at these sites. This would be a significant advancement with respect to a comprehensive and generalisable understanding of the CO₂ and CH₄ source and sink capacity of drained arable fen peatlands.

The present study tests the above-mentioned assumption by means of multiyear manual-chamber measurements, subsequent modelling and complex statistical analysis of all relevant C gas fluxes in maize cultivated on different groundwater-dependent soil types representing a steep SOC gradient; the gas fluxes are the net CO₂ exchange resulting from gross primary production (plant photosynthesis) and ecosystem respiration (sum of plant and soil respiration) and the CH₄ exchange. In particular, the study focuses on answering the following research questions:

1. Are there differences among soil types regarding the dynamics and the intensity of the C (CO₂ and CH₄) gas exchange of drained arable peatland soils?
2. (a) Which factors and factor interactions influence the C gas exchange of drained arable peatland soils? (b) In

Table 1. Characteristics of study sites: soil type, elevation and 0–1 m stocks of soil organic C and total N.

Site	Soil type ^a	Elevation (m a.s.l.)	SOC _{stocks} (kg SOC m ⁻²) ^b	Total N _{stocks} (kg N _t m ⁻²) ^b
AR	Haplic Arenosol	29.6	8.0	0.7
GL	Mollic Gleysol	29.0	37.8	3.1
HS	Hemic Histosol	28.8	86.9	5.4

^a WRB (2006); ^b 0–1 m soil depth.

particular, what is the influence of the amount and the dynamics of soil C and N stocks located in the aerobic zone above GWL on the C gas exchange of drained arable peatland soils?

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Site description and land use history

The study sites are located near the village of Paulinenaue, in the shallow and drained peatland complex “Havelländisches Luch” of NE Germany (51 km west of Berlin; 52°41′ N, 12°43′ E). This peatland was first drained at the beginning of the 14th century (Behrendt, 1988). A systematic amelioration for the entire Luch took place from 1718 until 1724 and included the construction of ditches and dams to drain the formerly swampy terrain and to provide access to the land. Grasslands with hay production dominated the Luch at that time. In order to prevent repeated flooding and to increase grassland productivity, a second amelioration with deeper drainage ditches was implemented between 1907 and 1925. A substantial increase in total ditch length occurred between 1958 and 1961, when approx. 1000 km of new ditches were established in the area (Behrendt, 1988). The next huge effort to increase productivity was started in the early 1970s by the so-called “Komplexmelioration”, which lasted until the late 1980s. The basic idea was to establish a system of pumping stations and related ditches in order to increase and lower the groundwater table dynamically throughout the vegetation period depending on the actual plant water demand. In addition, fertiliser application rates, including organic manure, increased and the acreage of arable land doubled at the expense of grassland. After the reunification of Germany in 1989, a substantial de-intensification took place, resulting in the reconversion of arable land to grassland, the reduction of fertiliser input and the abandonment of hydraulic technical devices for economic reasons.

The region is characterised by a continental climate with a mean annual air temperature of 9.2 °C and a mean annual precipitation of 530 mm (1982–2012).

The study sites are located along a representative and steep landscape gradient in terms of soil organic carbon stocks (SOC_{stocks}; 0–1 m), which is related to topographic position (Table 1): AR, a Haplic Arenosol developed from

aeolian sands with low SOC_{stocks} (8 kg C m⁻² m⁻¹) in an elevated topographic position (29.6 m a.s.l.); GL, a Mollic Gleysol developed from peat overlying fluvial sands with medium SOC_{stocks} (38 kg C m⁻² m⁻¹) at 29.0 m a.s.l.; and HS, a Hemic Histosol developed from peat featuring high SOC_{stocks} (87 kg C m⁻² m⁻¹) at the edge of a local depression (28.8 m a.s.l.). Moreover, the vertical distribution of C and N differs between sites: at AR almost all SOC and N is concentrated in the plough layer (Ap horizon), whereas GL and HS show larger portions of SOC and N in subsoil horizons (Fig. S1 in Supplement).

All sites were identically managed during the study period (Table S1 in Supplement), i.e. cultivated with a monoculture of grain maize with annually changing varieties. The AR and HS sites are located 150 m apart within the same managed field, while GL is located 1.5 km from AR and HS. However, field operations such as tillage, sowing, fertilisation and harvest were conducted almost concurrently at all sites. Maize was fertilised with diammonium phosphate (DAP) containing 22 kg N ha⁻¹ and 24 kg P ha⁻¹ in the course of sowing, followed approx. 2 weeks later by fertilisation with calcium ammonium nitrate (CAN) containing 100 kg N ha⁻¹. During harvest, total plant biomass within the measurement plots was collected, chipped, dried at 60 °C to constant weight and weighed. Grain yield was not recorded due to technical complications. Total plant biomass subsamples were analysed for C content at the ZALF Central Laboratory. After harvesting, all sites were mulched and ploughed.

2.2 Environmental controls

Half-hourly values of air temperature (20 cm height), soil temperatures (2, 5 and 10 cm depth), PAR (photosynthetically active radiation) and precipitation were continuously recorded by a climate station installed within 1 km of the sites. Site-specific air and soil temperatures were manually measured simultaneously with CO₂ and CH₄ flux measurements. Site-specific half-hourly air and soil temperature models were derived from correlations between the respective climate station temperature records and site-specific manual temperature data. Sunshine hours and long-term climate data originate from the Potsdam station of the German Weather Service (DWD).

GWL at GL and HS was measured manually every 2 weeks using short 1.5 m dip wells. The measured piezometric heads are considered representative of the phreatic water levels in the peat layer because the organic soil layer directly overlies a sand aquifer without any major low-conductance soil horizons in between. At HS, GWL was additionally recorded every 15 min by a data logger (Minidiver, Schlumberger). Time series modelling was used to fill several small data gaps and to obtain continuous daily GWL data for the entire study period. The applied PIR-FICT (predefined impulse response function in continuous time) approach (von Asmuth et al., 2008) implemented in the Menyanthes software (von Asmuth et al., 2012a) is a physically based statistical time series model specifically developed to model hydrologic time series, including shallow GWL fluctuations. As input, the model requires continuous precipitation (DWD station Kleßen) and evapotranspiration data (FAO56 Penman-Monteith; DWD station Kyritz) and optional control parameters, e.g., in our case, deep GWL data recorded from a local dip well (Ministry of Rural Development, Environment and Agriculture – LUGV, Brandenburg). The calibrated model explained 80–87 % of the data variance, a good result for this data and model type (von Asmuth et al., 2012b). Confidence intervals of GWL time series predictions were obtained by means of stochastic simulation (see von Asmuth et al., 2012a). Due to the short distance between AR and HS and the highly significant correlation of GWL at these sites ($R^2 = 0.836$), daily GWL values for AR were calculated by shifting the modelled time series of HS with a constant offset of 0.9 m.

2.3 Concept and calculation of dynamic C and N stocks

The concept of “dynamic” groundwater-dependent C and N stocks was developed to account for the interaction of the most important drivers of the C gas fluxes in peatlands, namely GWL and soil C and N stocks. The underlying idea is to derive a quantitative, dynamic proxy for the aerated, unsaturated zone which determines the actual nutrient and O₂ availability and is therefore highly relevant for root and shoot growth, microbial activity and, consequently, all C gas fluxes. Using daily GWL data, it was determined for each 1 cm soil layer up to a depth of 1 m whether the respective layer was saturated with groundwater or not. In daily time steps, SOC and N stocks were then calculated for all non-saturated 1 cm layers and cumulated over the entire non-saturated soil profile, i.e. above GWL, to generate daily dynamic SOC (SOC_{dyn}) and N (N_{dyn}) stocks. For further analysis, daily SOC_{dyn} and N_{dyn} values were averaged monthly and annually.

2.4 Gas flux measurements

Periodic trace gas measurements were carried out at three permanently installed soil collars (0.75 × 0.75 m) at each

site. In the summer of 2007, due to flooding, soil collars at the HS site had to be relocated within a radius of 10 m to (i) technically allow for gas flux measurements and (ii) ensure that all soil collars contained flood-affected but viable plants in order to maintain comparability with the GL and AR sites, where maize mortality was not increased by flooding.

Throughout the entire study period, CH₄ measurements were conducted one to two times per month using static non-flow-through non-steady-state opaque chambers (vol. 0.296 m³; Livingston and Hutchinson, 1995; Drösler, 2005) for a total of 51–60 campaigns per site. At HS, CH₄ measurements were terminated already in October 2010 due to management constraints. The exchange of CH₄ was measured by taking four consecutive 100 mL gas samples from the chamber headspace at 20 min intervals (closure time 60 min), subsequently analysed using a gas chromatograph (Shimadzu GC 14B, Loftfield, Göttingen, Germany) equipped with a flame ionisation detector.

CO₂ exchange was measured using dynamic flow-through non-steady-state transparent (net ecosystem exchange – NEE; light transmission of 86 %) and opaque (ecosystem respiration – R_{eco}) chambers (Livingston and Hutchinson 1995, Drösler 2005) attached to an infrared gas analyzer (Li-820, Lincoln, NE, USA). Full-day CO₂ measurement campaigns with repeated (30–50) individual chamber measurements (closure time 3–5 min) were conducted regularly every 4–6 weeks from May 2007 to April 2011, for a total of 29–37 full campaigns per site. Further details on the CO₂ measurement methodology are given in Hoffmann et al. (2015).

2.5 Flux calculation and gap filling

Flux calculation for CO₂ and CH₄ was based on the ideal gas equation accounting for chamber volume and area, air pressure, and average air temperature during the measurement. CH₄ fluxes were calculated with the R package “flux 0.2-2” (Jurasinski et al., 2012), using linear regression analysis with stepwise backward elimination of outliers based on the normalised root mean square error (NRMSE ≥ 0.2) up to a minimum of three data points. Fluxes with NRMSE > 0.4 were rejected. The calculated flux rates were then averaged for the respective measurement day and linearly interpolated to determine annual CH₄ exchange.

For CO₂, the R script of Hoffmann et al. (2015) was used for flux calculation as well as the subsequent separation into and modelling of R_{eco} , gross primary production (GPP) and NEE. Measurements < 30 s were rejected and measurements > 1 min were shortened by a death band of 10 % at the beginning and end, respectively (Kutzbach et al., 2007). For each measurement, the final flux rate was selected from all potential flux rates generated by a moving window approach using a stepwise algorithm, numerous quality criteria and the Akaike information criterion (AIC; for details see Hoffmann et al., 2015). For R_{eco} , gap filling between measurement campaigns was performed using campaign-

specific temperature-dependent Arrhenius-type models by Lloyd and Taylor (1994). GPP fluxes were calculated by subtracting modelled R_{eco} fluxes from measured NEE fluxes, and then modelled using campaign-specific hyperbolic PAR-dependent models (Wang et al., 2013; Elsgaard et al., 2012; Michaelis–Menten, 1913). Average measured flux rates were used if no significant fit was achieved for campaign-specific R_{eco} or GPP models (Hoffmann et al., 2015). Half-hourly NEE values were calculated from modelled R_{eco} and GPP fluxes (Hoffmann et al., 2015; Drösler, 2005) and cumulated from 1 May to 30 April of the following year (Table S1), resulting in four consecutive annual CO_2 balances. Negative values represent a C gas flux from the atmosphere to the ecosystem; positive values a flux from the ecosystem to the atmosphere. The uncertainty of the annual CH_4 and CO_2 exchange was quantified using a comprehensive error prediction algorithm described in detail by Hoffmann et al. (2015).

2.6 Data analysis

Daily values for CH_4 efflux, GPP, R_{eco} and NEE were cumulated monthly for a total of 48 monthly data sets per site to reduce the effects of temporal autocorrelation. The respective environmental controls were cumulated (sunshine hours, precipitation and linear modelled biomass) or averaged (for GWL, SOC_{dyn} , N_{dyn} , and air and soil temperature) for each month. Gas flux balances for longer time periods may vary considerably depending on the duration of the respective cumulation period. As the wavelet analysis of daily NEE data for inherent signals revealed strong annual dynamics (Stoy et al., 2013; Fig. S2), a 365-day cumulation period was used to calculate gas flux balances. Additional variability in annual balances can result from arbitrarily chosen starting dates of the cumulation period. To account for this uncertainty in the calculation of annual balances, a 365-day moving window was shifted in monthly time steps through the entire study period, resulting in a total of 111 data sets (37 per site) for annual NEE, GPP, R_{eco} and CH_4 efflux and the respective environmental control parameters.

Subsequently, generalised linear model (GLM) analyses (SPSS generalised linear – GENLIN – procedure) were performed to determine the influence of environmental controls and their interactions on the cumulated annual CH_4 , R_{eco} , GPP and NEE balances as well as the GPP : R_{eco} ratio. Models were defined using a gamma probability distribution and a log link function and calculated in a stepwise backward elimination procedure, dropping non-significant variables until no further improvement of the AIC was achieved (correction for finite sample sizes: AIC_c). Parameter and interaction effects were evaluated based on the Wald χ^2 statistic, appropriate for non-normally distributed continuous variables. Prior to analysis, CH_4 data were log-transformed after adding the minimum CH_4 value to each data value in order to allow for the application of the GLM log link function. Analogously, absolute values of GPP were used for the analysis and NEE

data were transformed to positive values by adding the minimum NEE value to each data value.

Multiple nonlinear regression analyses were performed to derive a model for NEE based on GWL and SOC_{dyn} , N_{dyn} , $\text{SOC}_{\text{dyn}} : \text{N}_{\text{dyn}}$ ratio and biomass, representing the main GLM parameter groups. For model calculation, data were averaged for 12 site-specific GWL classes to account for uncertainty from GWL model data. The class number was determined using Sturges' rule, appropriate for $n < 200$ (Scott, 2009). All data analyses were performed using the R (R 3.0.3) and SPSS (SPSS 19.0.1, SPSS Inc.) software.

3 Results

3.1 Environmental controls

During the study period (May 2007–April 2011), weather conditions were somewhat cooler (8.7°C) and wetter (634 mm) compared to the long-term average (1982–2012; 9.2°C ; 530 mm). Particularly the 2010/11 measurement year considerably deviated from the long-term temperature average, with an annual air temperature that was 1.5°C below the long-term average – 1 SD (data not shown). While PAR and air temperature showed high daily and seasonal dynamics (Fig. 2a), no pronounced seasonal patterns were observed for precipitation (Fig. 1). Instead, precipitation featured an extremely high interannual variability with particularly heavy rainfalls during the summer months of 2007 (May–July; Fig. 1). The precipitation sum during this period (507 mm) exceeded the long-term average (179 mm) by $> 180\%$ (data not shown). Reflecting the precipitation dynamics, GWL showed similar temporal dynamics at the three sites, but at different levels. In summer, GWL remained generally low, with the exception of July–August 2007. The HS site, which consistently featured the highest average GWL (-0.5 m ; Fig. 1, Table S2), was flooded during this period (GWL $+0.2\text{ m}$; data not shown).

The SOC_{dyn} and N_{dyn} stocks calculated based on the modelled GWL showed the highest fluctuations at the HS site (Fig. 1). During times of high GWL, such as in summer 2007, the HS and GL site featured drastically lowered SOC_{dyn} and N_{dyn} values, amounting to only 6.2 kg C m^{-2} and 0.5 kg N m^{-2} , respectively, with SOC_{dyn} and N_{dyn} reduced to 0 during flooded periods. In contrast, pronounced peak values at HS were calculated for the low-GWL summer months during the rest of the study period, with monthly averages of $21\text{--}86\text{ kg C m}^{-2}$ and of $2\text{--}5\text{ kg N m}^{-2}$. The HS site always featured the highest annual SOC_{dyn} (52 kg C m^{-2}) and N_{dyn} (4 kg N m^{-2}) stocks, except in 2007/08 (Fig. 1; Table S2).

3.2 Daily and annual carbon gas exchange

All sites generally featured very low daily CH_4 fluxes (-0.01 to $0.01\text{ g CH}_4\text{-C m}^{-2}\text{ d}^{-1}$) throughout the study pe-

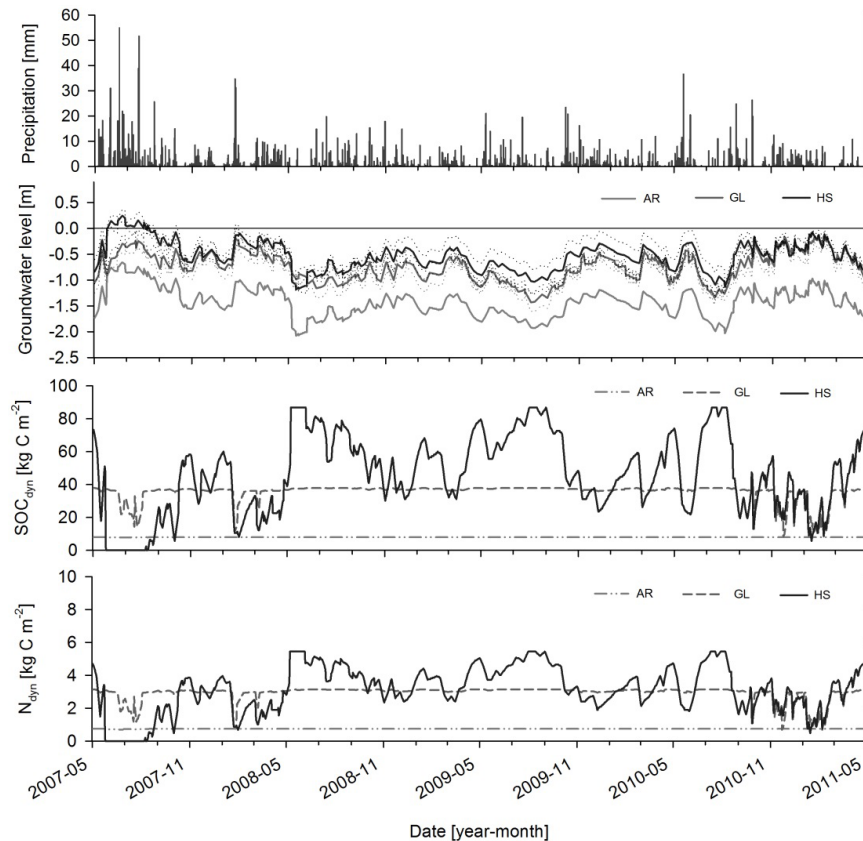


Figure 1. Seasonal dynamics of (from top to bottom) daily precipitation, average daily GWL including 95 % confidence intervals (dotted lines), and daily dynamic SOC_{dyn} and N_{dyn} stocks by site (for 0–1 m depth).

riod (Fig. S3). However, considerable CH₄ emission peaks were observed at the HS and GL sites during times of flooding or high GWL, e.g. during summer 2007 and spring 2008. At HS, this resulted in a maximum CH₄ flux of 1.2 g CH₄-C m⁻² d⁻¹ on 1 August 2007, which is approx. 60 times higher than the median flux (0.02 g CH₄-C m⁻² d⁻¹) at this site. As a result of the flooding, annual CH₄ emissions in 2007/08 at HS amounted to 28 ± 4 g CH₄-C m⁻² yr⁻¹ and were thus nearly 100 times higher than observed for HS in the following years (0.3 ± 0.5 and ± 0.2 g CH₄-C m⁻² yr⁻¹) and at least 25 times higher than observed for AR and GL (< 1.2 ± 0.6 g CH₄-C m⁻² yr⁻¹; Table 2). However, as the high annual CH₄ emissions at HS in 2007/08 result from a peak described by three measurement campaigns during the flooded period (Fig. S3), they are also associated with a higher uncertainty (± 3.7 in 2007/08 vs. ± 0.5 and ± 0.2 g CH₄-C m⁻² yr⁻¹ in 2008/09 and 2009/10; Table 2).

The modelled CO₂ exchange rates (for model evaluation statistics, see Table S3) reflected the daily and seasonal dynamics of air temperature and PAR, with generally higher fluxes in the growing season compared to fall and winter (Fig. 2a, b). In summer, peak GPP fluxes considerably exceeded the amplitude of R_{eco} fluxes. At all sites, the CO₂ ex-

change was also influenced by management events, with particularly pronounced peaks of R_{eco} following tillage. In addition, GPP was immediately reduced to 0 after maize harvest due to the removal of the photosynthetically active above-ground plant biomass. In general, the organic GL and HS sites showed the highest CO₂ exchange intensity, with maximum R_{eco} and GPP fluxes of 23 and -46 g CO₂-C m⁻² d⁻¹, respectively, observed at the HS site (Fig. 2a, b). However, during the wet summer of 2007, the mineral AR site featured the highest intensity of CO₂ exchange, resulting in cumulated annual R_{eco} and GPP fluxes that were 25–44 and 52–61 % higher, respectively, than in the following years (2008–2011, Table 2). In contrast, at HS, the 2007 flooding resulted in strongly reduced CO₂ flux intensities and large net annual CO₂-C losses (NEE of 493 ± 83 g CO₂-C m⁻²) compared to the following years. Although the CO₂ fluxes measured during the flooded period are associated with higher error values compared to periods without flooding (Table 2), the modelled results are plausible, clearly reflecting the negative effects of flooding on plant growth and thus plant C exchange. Hence, in 2007/08, cumulated annual R_{eco} and GPP fluxes at AR were 76 and 49 % higher than at the HS site (Table 2).

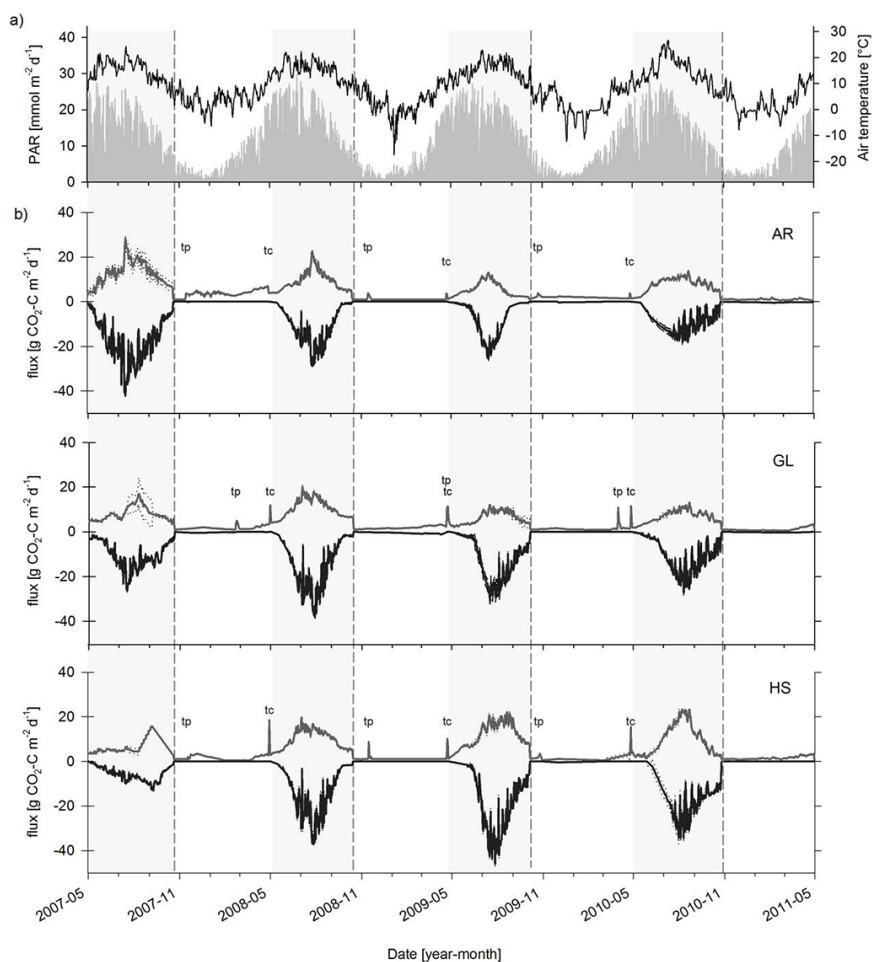


Figure 2. Dynamics of daily (a) cumulated PAR (grey vertical bars) and average air temperature at 20 cm height (black line) and (b) modelled $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ fluxes (grey line: R_{eco} ; black line: GPP), including 95 % confidence intervals (dotted lines) by site. Shaded areas indicate the period between maize sowing and harvest (dashed vertical line); tp indicates ploughing, and tc indicates cultivation (sowing, fertilisation).

Excluding 2007/08, the average NEE during the study period at the mineral AR site was close to 0, with $50 \pm 32 \text{ g CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Table 2), whereas the organic sites were net $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ sinks, with -385 ± 133 (GL) and $-334 \pm 61 \text{ g CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (HS). Including the flood-dominated year of 2007/08 resulted in a 62 and 21 % reduction in the overall NEE at the HS and GL sites, respectively. In contrast, when 2007/08 is included in the overall 2007–2011 average for the AR site, cumulated R_{eco} and GPP increase by 63 and 67 %, respectively, while NEE remains unaffected.

3.3 Impact of environmental controls on carbon gas exchange

Despite the wide range of control parameters included in the complex analysis, site (i.e. soil) had a significant (p value ≤ 0.05) effect on all gas fluxes (Table 3). The generally highly significant (p value ≤ 0.001) interactions between

site and controls such as biomass, GWL and soil parameters show that the selected study sites represented a wide range of the respective control parameters. Especially annual $\text{CH}_4\text{-C}$ emissions were dominated by site, suggesting the presence of additional important control factors not considered in this analysis. However, little residual variability indicates that most of the variability in annual R_{eco} and GPP was explained by the factors included in the GLM analyses, with more residual variability remaining for NEE and the GPP : R_{eco} ratio.

While climate played a minor role in determining annual $\text{CH}_4\text{-C}$ emissions via the effect of precipitation on GWL, climate controls were more relevant for CO_2 exchange (Table 3). There, the importance of climate was higher for cumulated GPP and R_{eco} than for NEE and the GPP : R_{eco} ratio. The impact of climate variability on CO_2 exchange was even more pronounced on the monthly scale, as indicated by highly significant interactions between climate controls and month of year (data not shown). Biomass was as im-

Table 2. Annual fluxes of CO₂ (R_{eco} , GPP and NEE) and CH₄ by site and year (\pm model error; 95 % confidence interval) and average fluxes (± 1 SD) for the entire study period (2007/08–2010/11) excluding the flooded year 2007/08.

Site	C flux (g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Year				Periodic average	
		2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2007/08–2010/11	2008/09–2010/11
AR	CH ₄	0.17 (0.07)	0.15 (0.32)	-0.10 (0.06)	0.00 (0.04)	0.06 (0.06)	0.01 (0.07)
	R_{eco}	2880 (183)	1729 (32)	1267 (21)	1547 (40)	1856 (354)	1514 (134)
	GPP	-2889 (52)	-1670 (34)	-1143 (34)	-1534 (58)	-1810 (377)	-1449 (158)
	NEE	-9 (190)	59 (47)	125 (40)	13 (70)	47 (30)	66 (32)
GL	CH ₄	1.19 (0.61)	-0.10 (0.03)	-0.04 (0.10)	-0.17 (0.08)	0.22 (0.32)	-0.10 (0.04)
	R_{eco}	1733 (191)	2131 (30)	1288 (51)	1409 (36)	1640 (189)	1609 (263)
	GPP	-1799 (43)	-2279 (43)	-1895 (97)	-1809 (40)	-1946 (113)	-1994 (144)
	NEE	-65 (196)	-148 (52)	-607 (110)	-400 (54)	-305 (123)	-385 (133)
HS	CH ₄	27.57 (3.70)	0.26 (0.51)	0.30 (0.20)	n.a. ^a	n.a. ^a	n.a. ^a
	R_{eco}	1479 (55)	1853 (33)	2131 (68)	1995 (52)	1864 (141)	1993 (80)
	GPP	-985 (62)	-2065 (61)	-2535 (53)	-2382 (122)	-1992 (350)	-2327 (139)
	NEE	493 (83)	-212 (70)	-404 (86)	-387 (133)	-127 (212)	-334 (62)

^a Data not available.**Table 3.** Summary statistics of generalised linear model (GLM) analysis describing the influence of site and environmental controls (GWL, climate, soil, plants) on cumulative annual CH₄ efflux, R_{eco} , GPP, NEE and the ratio of GPP : R_{eco} .

		CH ₄ [g CH ₄ -C m ⁻² a ⁻¹]		R_{eco} [g CO ₂ -C m ⁻² a ⁻¹]		GPP [g CO ₂ -C m ⁻² a ⁻¹]		NEE [g CO ₂ -C m ⁻² a ⁻¹]		GPP : R_{eco}	
		Wald χ^2	<i>p</i>	Wald χ^2	<i>p</i>	Wald χ^2	<i>p</i>	Wald χ^2	<i>p</i>	Wald χ^2	<i>p</i>
	Intercept	1.312	0.252	7.626	0.006^a	14.311	$\leq 0.001^a$	96.005	$\leq 0.001^a$	29.743	$\leq 0.001^a$
	Site	72.812	$\leq 0.001^a$	25.571	$\leq 0.001^a$	26.040	$\leq 0.001^a$	90.685	$\leq 0.001^a$	65.869	$\leq 0.001^a$
Climate	Air temperature	11.218	0.001^a	33.135	$\leq 0.001^a$	18.706	$\leq 0.001^a$	30.960	$\leq 0.001^a$	17.566	$\leq 0.001^a$
	Soil temperature	1.666	0.197	14.456	$\leq 0.001^a$	5.927	0.015^a	36.618	$\leq 0.001^a$	18.096	$\leq 0.001^a$
	Precipitation	19.008	$\leq 0.001^a$	9.093	0.003^a	4.827	0.028^a	11.562	0.001^a	17.588	$\leq 0.001^a$
	Sunshine hours	10.201	0.001^a	21.158	$\leq 0.001^a$	9.646	0.002^a	b	b	b	b
	Year	b	b	6.004	$\leq 0.001^a$	8.210	0.004^a	7.629	0.006^a	4.650	0.031^a
	Year \times Air temp.	b	b	50.403	$\leq 0.001^a$	37.758	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b	9.919	0.002^a
	Year \times Sunshine hours	b	b	37.816	$\leq 0.001^a$	24.348	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b	b	b
	Soil temp. \times Air temp.	12.791	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b	b	b	29.049	$\leq 0.001^a$	12.913	$\leq 0.001^a$
	Soil temp. \times Sunshine h.	11.667	0.001^a	20.182	$\leq 0.001^a$	11.059	0.001^a	29.049	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b
Plants	Biomass	b	b	17.810	$\leq 0.001^a$	23.071	$\leq 0.001^a$	49.537	$\leq 0.001^a$	7.361	0.007^a
	Biomass \times Site	b	b	72.633	$\leq 0.001^a$	70.273	$\leq 0.001^a$	80.039	$\leq 0.001^a$	33.074	$\leq 0.001^a$
	Biomass \times Sunshine h.	b	b	16.733	$\leq 0.001^a$	23.268	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b	b	b
GWL	GWL	3.173	0.075	273.627	$\leq 0.001^a$	13.516	$\leq 0.001^a$	2.667	0.102	38.940	$\leq 0.001^a$
	GWL \times Site	27.256	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b	17.779	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b	61.005	$\leq 0.001^a$
	GWL \times Precipitation	b	b	b	b	b	b	6.653	0.010^a	23.737	$\leq 0.001^a$
Soil	SOC _{dyn}	5.843	0.016^a	15.668	$\leq 0.001^a$	8.330	0.004^a	32.101	$\leq 0.001^a$	18.340	$\leq 0.001^a$
	N _{dyn}	8.683	0.003^a	26.541	$\leq 0.001^a$	8.479	0.004^a	23.224	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b
	SOC _{dyn} : N _{dyn}	0.869	0.351	b	b	13.120	$\leq 0.001^a$	106.424	$\leq 0.001^a$	4.146	0.042^a
	SOC _{dyn} \times Site	24.005	$\leq 0.001^a$	93.546	$\leq 0.001^a$	25.348	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b	13.538	0.001^a
	N _{dyn} \times Site	b	b	93.868	$\leq 0.001^a$	25.267	$\leq 0.001^a$	8.349	0.004^a	b	b
	SOC _{dyn} : N _{dyn} \times Site	73.365	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b	26.078	$\leq 0.001^a$	92.340	$\leq 0.001^a$	66.370	$\leq 0.001^a$
	SOC _{dyn} \times GWL	17.551	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b
	N _{dyn} \times GWL	22.532	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b	9.169	0.002^a	64.724	$\leq 0.001^a$	b	b

^a Significant factors ($\alpha = 0.05$). ^b Redundant parameter–parameter interaction.

portant as climate in determining annual GPP, whereas for R_{eco} , biomass and its interactions were less relevant than climate (Table 3). In contrast, the derived variables NEE and GPP : R_{eco} were less influenced by biomass than the individual fluxes R_{eco} and GPP.

Direct groundwater influence was particularly pronounced for R_{eco} , GWL being by far the most important GLM parameter (Table 3). Groundwater influence on CH₄-C emissions and the GPP : R_{eco} ratio was expressed mainly through the interaction between GWL and site.

Table 4. Summary statistics of multiple nonlinear regression analysis of the form $NEE = \text{poly}(\text{GWL}) + \text{liny}^{(1;2;3 \text{ or } 4)}$ describing the influence of GWL and one environmental parameter, either (1) SOC_{dyn} , (2) N_{dyn} , (3) $\text{SOC}_{\text{dyn}} : N_{\text{dyn}}$ or (4) biomass, on cumulative annual NEE: mean absolute error (MAE), RMSE observations standard deviation ratio (RSR), adjusted coefficient of determination (Adj. R^2), modified index of agreement (md), percent bias (PBIAS), Nash–Sutcliffe's model efficiency (NSE), Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC).

Summary statistic	Environmental parameter			
	¹ SOC_{dyn}	² N_{dyn}	³ $\text{SOC}_{\text{dyn}} : N_{\text{dyn}}$	⁴ Biomass
MAE [$\text{g m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$]	80.99	83.86	78.99	84.78
RSR	0.353	0.362	0.355	0.354
Adj. R^2	0.869	0.862	0.867	0.868
md	0.847	0.842	0.850	0.840
PBIAS [%]	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
NSE	0.872	0.866	0.871	0.871
AIC	503.38	505.37	503.88	503.67
BIC	515.20	517.20	515.70	515.49

Note: bold values highlight the best value for each summary statistic across the four models.

Groundwater-dependent soil parameters and their interactions with site and GWL dominated annual $\text{CH}_4\text{-C}$ emissions (Table 3). Soil parameters were also the main controls on NEE, particularly the $\text{SOC}_{\text{dyn}} : N_{\text{dyn}}$ ratio and its interactions with site. Dynamic soil parameters and their associated interactions thus were of higher relevance for the derived variables NEE and $\text{GPP} : R_{\text{eco}}$ than for the NEE flux components R_{eco} and GPP. This indicates differences between R_{eco} and GPP with respect to their reaction to changing GWL and soil parameters, i.e. a shift in the ratio between R_{eco} , and GPP throughout the range of GWL, SOC_{dyn} and N_{dyn} stocks. In contrast, static $\text{SOC}_{\text{stocks}}$ and N_{stocks} showed no significant (p value ≥ 0.05) effect on cumulated annual or monthly fluxes of either R_{eco} , GPP or NEE (data not shown).

Nonlinear regression analysis of annual NEE versus GWL and either SOC_{dyn} , N_{dyn} , $\text{SOC}_{\text{dyn}} : N_{\text{dyn}}$ or biomass across all sites resulted in highly significant two-parameter models (Table 4; Fig. 3). While all models explained $> 86\%$ of the overall variability of annual NEE, model fit was best for GWL and SOC_{dyn} , likely because the study sites represent a wide range of SOC_{dyn} . For all sites, the model shows a negative NEE optimum for a GWL of 0.8–1.0 m below the soil surface, with NEE increasing at higher or lower GWL (Fig. 3). In contrast, the model reflects a linear effect of SOC_{dyn} on NEE with more negative NEE for higher SOC_{dyn} . Depending on SOC_{dyn} , NEE changes to positive values at a GWL above -0.43 m (for $\text{SOC}_{\text{dyn}} = 60 \text{ kg C m}^{-2}$) or -0.61 m ($\text{SOC}_{\text{dyn}} = 30 \text{ kg C m}^{-2}$). However, the relations shown cannot be assumed as valid outside the measured ranges of SOC_{dyn} and GWL.

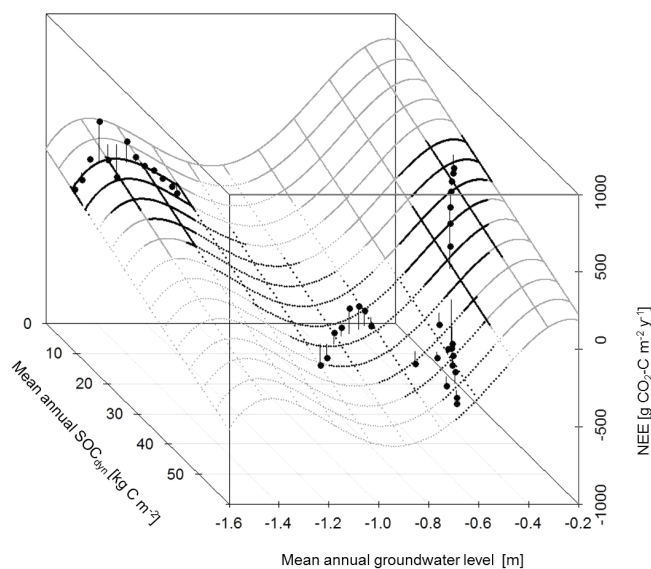


Figure 3. Result of nonlinear regression analysis between NEE, GWL and SOC_{dyn} originating from 365-day moving-window analysis averaged over 12 GWL classes per site (for model statistics, see Table 4). Displayed grid represents the derived model surface with (i) estimated model area covered by direct measurements (solid black) and (ii) non-empirically approved model area computed by extrapolation (grey). Modelled NEE is separated according to positive (solid lines) and negative (dashed lines) values.

4 Discussion

4.1 Soil influence on C gas exchange

As indicated in the introduction, data about the CO_2 exchange of groundwater-influenced arable soils are generally scarce, particularly for maize, although some data are available for organic soils. Although the maximum CO_2 fluxes

observed during a 1-year study of maize cultivated on a Haplic Gleysol in the Netherlands (Jans et al., 2010) are $\sim 25\%$ lower compared to the Gleysol studied (Fig. 2), the flux dynamics and the cumulative net CO_2 exchange of the organic soil types are relatively similar in both studies, with a mean annual NEE of -385 (Gleysol) and $-334 \text{ g CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Histosol) in this study (Table 2) vs. $-332 \text{ g CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Jans et al., 2010). Moreover, the dynamics and the intensity of the CO_2 exchange observed for the groundwater-influenced soils in this study are of the same order of magnitude as reported for maize cultivated on soils without groundwater influence (Gilmanov et al., 2013; Kalfas et al., 2011; Zeri et al., 2011; Ceschia et al., 2010). The observed biomass yield of maize ($257\text{--}3117 \text{ g DM m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; DM – dry matter) is also in line with previous studies ($500\text{--}2800 \text{ g DM m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; Zeri et al., 2011; Verma et al., 2005). According to Gilmanov et al. (2013) and Ceschia et al. (2010), maize cultivation generally resulted in a net annual CO_2 sink across a wide range of sites in America and Europe but – like in this study – with considerable variability between sites and years ($+89$ to $-573 \text{ g CO}_2\text{-C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$).

The results of this study demonstrate for the first time a considerable influence of groundwater-influenced soils on crop CO_2 exchange, particularly on cumulative NEE (Tables 3, 4, Fig. 3), thus clearly providing a positive answer to research question (1) regarding the soil effect. Surprisingly, the C-rich drained organic soils showed a strong net CO_2 uptake (Table 2), while the C-poor Arenosol was a small net CO_2 source. This observation cannot be entirely explained by the interaction between GWL and the potentially mineralisable soil C stocks. Hence, an integrated consideration of all relevant C gas fluxes and their regulation within the plant–soil system is required, which is discussed in detail below. We are unaware of any previous study ever reporting such an effect, likely because any systematic effects may only be observed in longer-term studies due to the high interannual variability of C gas fluxes. This strongly supports the high relevance of such investigations for the accurate evaluation of the C dynamics of groundwater-influenced arable soils.

4.2 Relevance of interactions between GWL and maize ecophysiology

Apart from soil type and SOC content, the study sites are mainly differentiated by different average GWL, which our study results show to be a crucial factor determining the high short- and long-term variability of maize C gas exchange across the entire range of groundwater-influenced soils. Previous studies have mainly shown an influence of GWL on CH_4 fluxes from peat soils, mainly reporting an exponential increase in CH_4 fluxes for rising GWL with particularly high CH_4 losses for $\text{GWL} \geq -0.2 \text{ m}$ (Couwenberg et al., 2011; Jungkunst and Fiedler, 2007; Drösler, 2005; Fiedler and Sommer, 2000). Annual CH_4 emissions (-0.2 to

$1.2 \text{ g CH}_4\text{-C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) for GWL between -1.6 and -0.6 m and peak fluxes during flooding ($\leq 28 \text{ g CH}_4\text{-C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; GWL of -0.3 m) observed at the HS site are similar to values of Couwenberg et al. (2011) and Drösler (2005). However, for crops cultivated on groundwater-influenced mineral soils, little data are available on the impact of GWL on CH_4 fluxes (e.g. Pennock et al., 2010).

CO_2 exchange has also been intensively studied for organic soils, but mostly for pristine peatlands and grasslands on peat soils (e.g. Leiber-Sauheitl et al., 2014; Berglund and Berglund, 2011; Couwenberg et al., 2011), while data on maize are lacking. For peatland NEE, one study reports a linear decrease with rising GWL over a range of -0.4 to -0.1 m , with maximum NEE observed at -0.4 m (Leiber-Sauheitl et al., 2014). Couwenberg et al. (2011) also observed decreasing NEE when GWL rose above -0.5 m , but net $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ uptake was only reported for very high GWL above -0.1 m . In contrast, in this study, maize NEE was largely negative across the entire range of GWL recorded in the groundwater-influenced soils studied (-2.1 m to $+0.2 \text{ m}$), changing to positive values when GWL rose above -0.4 m to -0.6 m . Moreover, the GWL–NEE relationship for maize shows a clearly nonlinear relationship to GWL, with a distinct optimum at considerably lower GWL (between -0.8 and -1.0 m ; Fig. 3) than observed for grasslands. Further studies are required to determine whether this is a general pattern applicable to other groundwater-influenced soil types and crops.

Our study results further indicate that R_{eco} and GPP also feature specific GWL optima (data not shown). For example, maximum R_{eco} fluxes were observed for GWL of -0.8 to -1.0 m , similar to data from grassland on four GWL-influenced soil types (Fiedler et al., 1998). Similar to the R_{eco} of maize at the organic HS and GL sites, R_{eco} fluxes in grasslands on organic soils typically decrease with rising GWL (Leiber-Sauheitl et al., 2014; Berglund and Berglund, 2011; Laine et al., 1996; Silvola et al., 1996), particularly if GWL rises above the soil surface (Koebsch et al., 2013). The impact of GWL on GPP was relatively small in this study (Table 3), except for the effect of the 2007 flooding, which resulted in a drastic reduction in GPP (Table 2) as also observed by Koebsch et al. (2013) after rewetting.

Most of the study results concerning the individual CO_2 fluxes can be explained by the interactions between GWL and maize plant activity because the magnitude and the variability of GPP and R_{eco} are most pronounced during the short period from May to September, which corresponds to the growing period of maize (Fig. 2). For example, the drastic reduction in the CO_2 fluxes during the flooding in 2007 at HS and GL (Figs. 1, 2) was very likely caused by the previously mentioned negative effect of anoxic soil conditions on maize metabolism. On the other hand, the lower CO_2 fluxes during the summer of 2009, especially at the AR site, probably result from an inhibition of maize gas exchange due to drought stress (Vitale et al., 2008; Jones et al., 1986), i.e.

long periods of very low GWL (Figs. 1, 2). Apart from these extreme situations, GWLs were mostly at soil depths which were favourable to the metabolism and the productivity of a C₄ plant such as maize (Tollenaar and Dwyer, 1999).

For example, maize features considerably higher gas exchange activity under maximum PAR and temperature conditions than all C₃ grasses and crops (Zeri et al., 2011; Kutsch et al., 2010). As a consequence, although the main growing period of maize (~ 2 months) is much shorter than that of most C₃ plants (3–4 months), the CO₂ flux intensity of maize throughout this short active period is large enough to result in higher annual cumulative R_{eco} and GPP values compared to C₃ crops (Beetz et al., 2013; Klumpp et al., 2011; Zeri et al., 2011; Flanagan et al., 2002). It is very likely that the GWL optima of GPP and R_{eco} can be traced back to this fact, e.g. as indicated by the enhanced amplitudes of the GPP as well as the R_{eco} fluxes at the AR site during the wet summer 2007 compared to years with lower GWL (Fig. 2). However, the interactions between GWL and maize growth do not offer explanations for the observed differences in cumulative NEE among sites and the functional relationship between NEE and GWL.

4.3 Relevance of interactions between GWL and dynamic soil C and N stocks

The strong effect of GWL on the C gas exchange is likely also the reason for the lack of any effect of total, i.e. static, soil C and N stocks on daily, monthly or annual C gas exchange. In the few existing studies on this subject, an impact of soil C and N stocks on C gas fluxes was only found if GWL was either constant (Mundel, 1976) or irrelevant to the soil water regime (Lohila et al., 2003). Moreover, in agreement with the results of this study, Leiber-Sauheitl et al. (2014) found no relationships between static soil C and N stocks and the C gas exchange of Gleysols with highly variable GWL during a 1-year study. In contrast, our study revealed a very strong effect of mainly GWL-determined dynamic soil C and N stocks on C gas dynamics (Table 3), thus indicating a higher relevance of SOC and N stocks located in the aerobic zone above the GWL for plant and soil gas exchange than of total soil SOC_{stocks} and N_{stocks} in the soil profile.

However, the functional GWL-related mechanisms mentioned in the introduction cannot fully explain the results of this study. Several observations indicate that the influence of the dynamic soil C and N stocks on the C gas exchange extends beyond the mere GWL effect:

1. All C gas fluxes are differently and specifically influenced by the dynamic soil C and N stocks (Tables 3, 4).
2. Compared to the GWL, the effects of dynamic soil C and N stocks on NEE are considerably stronger than on the individual R_{eco} and GPP fluxes, also reflected by the associated shift in the GPP : R_{eco} ratio (Table 3). It must be pointed out that these two parameters differ

in their informational value: while NEE is the absolute difference between the opposing CO₂ fluxes R_{eco} and GPP, the GPP : R_{eco} ratio reflects the relative proportion of these fluxes, thus giving indications for the reasons for changing NEE values. Interestingly, the dynamic C : N ratio shows a similarly strong effect on these two parameters. The potential relevance of these observations for explaining the study results is also discussed in Sect. 4.2.

3. The effects of the GWL and the dynamic soil C or N stocks on the cumulative CO₂ fluxes clearly differ with respect to their type and direction (Fig. 3, Table 4).

Despite a limited number of sites, clustering of sites with respect to GWL range and a single crop, the results of this study are considered consistent and plausible for the range of measured GWL and soil C stocks, as the results from several very different statistical methods point to the same conclusions. Still, subsequent studies which consider other sites and plants are required to determine whether the discussed conclusions regarding the type and intensity of the effect of dynamic soil C and N stocks on cumulative NEE, their differentiated effects on GPP and R_{eco} as well as their interactions with GWL are generally valid. A reassessment of data from previous studies using continuous GWL data (if available) for the calculation of dynamic soil C and N stocks could be helpful to determine whether similarly strong effects of dynamic soil C and N stocks on C gas dynamics exist for other sites and plants. System-oriented investigations, which aim to understand the underlying processes and mechanisms, might reveal whether and how the observed phenomena are related and from which underlying processes they originate.

4.4 The nature and relevance of mechanisms causing the effect of the dynamic soil C and N stocks

4.4.1 Potential mechanisms

A common observation may be used as a starting point for a comprehensive explanation: crop growth on groundwater-influenced soils is mainly influenced by rooting depth, which in turn is mostly influenced by GWL (e.g. for maize, see Kondo et al., 2000). In this context, stress due to O₂ deprivation only plays a minor role, i.e. via the GWL-defined lower limit of the rootable soil volume (Glaz et al., 2008; Livesley et al., 1999). More importantly, larger root systems enable the improved supply of plants with nutrients and water (especially at the AR site), likely resulting in increased photosynthetic capacity and thus higher primary productivity. The link between increasing N content and increased GPP was previously documented in studies by Flanagan et al. (2002) and Ashraf et al. (1999). Interestingly, several long-term field trials with crops grown on mineral soils also show that changing SOC stocks not only depend on crop rotation and organic fertiliser amount but also on the nutrient supply to the crops

per se. In these trials, the mere application of mineral fertiliser results in a significant increase in soil organic matter compared to non-fertilised treatments (Jung and Lal, 2011; Banger et al., 2010; Thomas et al., 2010; Christopher and Lal, 2007; Sainju et al., 2006). In addition to other crops, this also applies to maize (Kaur et al., 2007).

In particular, the N supply plays a key role: up to a threshold, the gradual increase in mineral N fertiliser amount generally results in higher SOC and SON stocks (e.g. for maize, see Kaur et al., 2007; Blair et al., 2006a, b). Pot experiments with maize indicate that N fertilisation increases the input of newly assimilated C more than CO₂ emissions from root respiration and the mineralisation of soil organic matter (Gong et al., 2012; Conde et al., 2005), thus resulting in the accumulation of SOC. Moreover, in field trials, mineral N fertilisation reduced the decomposition rate of maize residues in the soil (Grandy et al., 2013). Therefore – apart from the impact of C export (removal during harvesting) and import (input through organic fertilisation) on the soil C budget – it seems highly likely that the N fertilisation of arable crops contributes to an increase in SOC stocks by promoting C input through gross and net primary productivity more than C loss via ecosystem respiration. Although this has not yet been experimentally confirmed in its entirety, scientific evidence on the individual effects of N fertilisation on the SOC stocks of arable soils without groundwater influence makes this hypothesis plausible.

4.4.2 Indications of similar mechanisms on groundwater-influenced soils

Several results of this study suggest a strong N influence on C gas fluxes. All sites received a total of 122 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ throughout the entire study period, providing sufficient N for plant growth. The dynamic soil N stocks and the SOC_{dyn} : N_{dyn} ratio had strong effects on cumulative NEE and the GPP : R_{eco} ratio (Table 3). Formally, this also holds true for the dynamic SOC stocks, but – unlike for N – this effect results from the tight correlation of soil C and N contents rather than from direct effects of organic-matter production or decomposition. The large influence of GWL on dynamic soil N stocks, reflected by strong interaction, indicates that both parameters control N mineralisation. It has been repeatedly observed both for organic and mineral soils that the lowering of GWL, i.e. an increase in the dynamic N stocks due to improved soil aeration, increases N mineralisation, while a rising GWL, i.e. decreasing dynamic N stocks, results in the opposite (Eickenscheid et al., 2014; McIntyre et al., 2009; Venterink et al., 2002; Hacin et al., 2001; Goettlich, 1990; Reddy and Patrick, 1975).

Increased dynamic soil N stocks are equivalent to an improved N supply to plants and microorganisms, which should be similar in effect to the N fertilisation in the above-mentioned long-term field trials. In this study, the tight correlation between the dynamic soil N stocks and the

maize biomass development during the vegetation period ($r^2 = 0.817$; data not shown) indicates that most of the N that was mineralised when GWLs were low and root systems deep likely played a significant role in plant N supply and thus plant development – regardless of the fertilisation-induced N impulse and the fact that the monthly biomass values were not measured but calculated using a simple linear approach. Similarly strong biomass and dynamic C and N stock effects on cumulative NEE (Table 3) further support this line of thought, as an increased biomass production stimulated by higher N availability is always associated with increased CO₂ input into the plant–soil system via gross primary production.

In other words, the N supply in the plant–soil system and its effects on C formation and transformation processes likely also play a key role in the C gas exchange of groundwater-influenced soils by promoting CO₂ input via gross primary production more than CO₂ emission via ecosystem respiration. The observed effects of the dynamic soil C and N stocks on cumulative NEE can thus be plausibly explained. However, the relatively low optimum GWL for minimising NEE (Fig. 3) likely requires additional explanatory mechanisms. For example, an improved plant water and nutrient supply, e.g. with macronutrients such as P and K, could increase root and shoot growth and thus CO₂ input, as observed for soils without groundwater influence (Ladha et al., 2011; Poirier et al., 2009; Al-Kaisi et al., 2008; Reay et al., 2008; Kaur et al., 2007).

4.4.3 Future improvements of the dynamic stocks concept

Most of the functional mechanisms discussed above are somewhat speculative and require subsequent validation by means of experiments which consider all mentioned processes of the plant–soil system and their respective regulating factors. Special attention should be paid to the determination of the scope of all relevant processes, as several studies state that the input of N and other nutrients does not always have only positive effects on net CO₂ exchange and the C sink function of arable soils (Thangarajan et al., 2013; Hofmann et al., 2009; Mulvaney et al., 2009; Al-Kaisi et al., 2008; Khan et al., 2007).

Moreover, the concept of dynamic soil C and N stocks is only an indicator of real dynamic stocks because in this study dynamic stocks were modelled exclusively based on GWL dynamics. Further developments might include precipitation-related topsoil water dynamics or soil hydraulic properties (e.g. capillary fringes), which might considerably reduce dynamic soil C and N stocks. The concept of dynamic stocks could also be expanded to other plant nutrients such as plant-available P or K. However, these suggested refinements require very detailed high-resolution data on soil and plant properties and processes, including their vertical variability

in the soil profile, and were thus beyond the scope of this study.

5 Conclusions

Results clearly showed that the soils studied differ considerably with respect to the intensity and dynamics of C gas exchange. In order to accurately assess the climate impact of arable sites on drained peatlands, it is therefore necessary to consider the entire range of groundwater-influenced mineral and organic soil types and their respective areal extent within a heterogeneous soil landscape.

While climatic controls such as PAR, temperature and precipitation mainly have short-term effects on C gas fluxes, the effects of dynamic soil C and N stocks are clearly observable on all temporal scales. It is to be determined by future studies in how far this also applies to (i) crops other than maize, (ii) other land use forms such as grasslands and (iii) other groundwater-influenced sites. Dynamic soil C and N stocks may be major controlling factors of C gas fluxes and of the CO₂ source or sink function of the entire range of wetlands, and they may potentially be of higher and more global relevance than GWL and vegetation, which are the main factors favoured to date (Couwenberg et al., 2011; Byrne et al., 2004). The insight that the effect of the dynamic soil C and N stocks very likely results from the regulation of C formation and transformation processes by N and – potentially – the nutrient and water supply as such may be of particular importance. This mechanism would be a favourable prerequisite for the development of generalisable process-based models, which would be very useful in providing more precise estimates of the impact of important factors such as climate, site conditions and land use on the C gas fluxes in wetlands.

Overall, the results presented and subsequent analyses show the enormous potential of combining long-term measurements of C gas fluxes with process-oriented analyses of the functional mechanisms and their regulation within the soil–plant system when aiming for an improved understanding of the biogeochemistry of wetlands.

The Supplement related to this article is available online at doi:10.5194/bg-12-2737-2015-supplement.

Acknowledgements. Funding for this study was provided by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF, project: “Climate protection by peatland protection – Strategies for peatland management”, 01LS05049), the Thünen Institute for Climate-Smart Agriculture (TI, joint research project “Organic soils”), the European Union (project “EU-IP NitroEurope”, 017841) and the Leibniz Centre for Agricultural Landscape Research (ZALF) e.V. (interdisciplinary research project “CarboZALF”). We thank M. Bechtold (Thünen-Institute

of Climate-Smart Agriculture, Braunschweig, Germany) for the calculation of groundwater models and discussions. Additionally, we thank A. Behrendt and the other employees of the ZALF research station in Paulinenaue and G. Goßmann for assistance in the field, M. Schmidt for technical support and N. Jurisch, N. Pehle, M. Sanchez, E. Mendez, A. Fuertes, M. Minke, A. Burlo, H. Chuvashova, R. Juszczak, T. Yarmashuk and numerous international and national students, in particular E. Halle, E. Leithold, B. Ehrig, M. Mees, M. Liebe, J. Acebron and J. Jäger, for measurement support.

Edited by: Y. Kuzyakov

References

- Adkinson, A. C., Syed, K. H., and Flanagan, L. B.: Contrasting responses of growing season ecosystem CO₂ exchange to variation in temperature and water table depth in two peatlands in northern Alberta, Canada, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 116, G01004, doi:10.1029/2010jg001512, 2011.
- Aich, S., McVoy, C. W., Dreschel, T. W., and Santamaria, F.: Estimating soil subsidence and carbon loss in the Everglades Agricultural Area, Florida using geospatial techniques, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 171, 124–133, 2013.
- Al-Kaisi, M. M., Kruse, M. L., and Sawyer, J. E.: Effect of nitrogen fertilizer application on growing season soil carbon dioxide emission in a corn-soybean rotation, *J. Environ. Qual.*, 37, 325–332, 2008.
- Ashraf, M. and Habib-ur-Rehman: Interactive effects of nitrate and long-term waterlogging on growth, water relations, and gaseous exchange properties of maize (*Zea mays L.*), *Plant Sci.*, 144, 35–43, 1999.
- Augustin, J., Merbach, W., and Rogasik, J.: Factors influencing nitrous oxide and methane emissions from minerotrophic fens in northeast Germany, *Biol. Fertil. Soils*, 28, 1–4, 1998.
- Balesdent, J. and Balabane, M.: Short communication- Major contribution of roots to soil carbon storage inferred from maize cultivated soils, *Soil Biol. Biochem.*, 28, 1261–1263, 1996.
- Banger, K., Toor, G. S., Biswas, A., Sidhu, S. S., and Sudhir, K.: Soil organic carbon fractions after 16-years of applications of fertilizers and organic manure in a Typic Rhodalfs in semi-arid tropics, *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosys.*, 86, 391–399, 2010.
- Beetz, S., Liebersbach, H., Glatzel, S., Jurasinski, G., Buczek, U., and Hoper, H.: Effects of land use intensity on the full greenhouse gas balance in an Atlantic peat bog, *Biogeosciences*, 10, 1067–1082, doi:10.5194/bg-10-1067-2013, 2013.
- Behrendt, A.: Die Entwicklung des Graslandanteiles im Haveländischen Luch im Gefolge von Meliorationen unter Berücksichtigung der Relief- und Bodenverhältnisse, Unpubl. Diploma Thesis, Martin-Luther-University of Halle-Wittenberg, 64, 1988 (in German).
- Berglund, O. and Berglund, K.: Influence of water table level and soil properties on emissions of greenhouse gases from cultivated peat soil, *Soil Biol. Biochem.*, 43, 923–931, 2011.
- Berglund, O., Berglund, K., and Klemedtsson, L.: A lysimeter study on the effect of temperature on CO₂ emission from cultivated peat soils, *Geoderma*, 154, 211–218, 2010.

- Blair, N., Faulkner, R. D., Till, A. R., and Poulton, P. R.: Long-term management impacts on soil C, N and physical fertility – Part I: Broadbalk experiment, *Soil Tillage Res.*, 91, 30–38, 2006a.
- Blair, N., Faulkner, R. D., Till, A. R., Korschens, M., and Schultz, E.: Long-term management impacts on soil C, N and physical fertility – Part II: Bad Lauchstadt static and extreme FYM experiments, *Soil Tillage Res.*, 91, 39–47, 2006b.
- Byrne, K. A., Chojnicki, B., Christensen, T. R., Drösler, M., Freibauer, A., Friborg, T., Frolking, S., Lindroth, A., Mailhammer, J., Malmer, N., Selin, P., Turunen, J., Valentini, R., and Zetterberg, L.: Concerted action: Synthesis of the European Greenhouse Gas Budget, European Union University of Lund, Sweden GeoBiosphere Sci. Centre Lund, Sweden, 2004.
- Ceschia, E., Béziat, P., Dejoux, J. F., Aubinet, M., Bernhofer, C., Bodson, B., Buchmann, N., Carrara, A., Cellier, P., Di Tommasi, P., Elbers, J. A., Eugster, W., Grünwald, T., Jacobs, C. M. J., Jans, W. W. P., Jones, M., Kutsch, W., Lanigan, G., Magliulo, E., Marloie, O., Moors, E. J., Moureaux, C., Olioso, A., Osborne, B., Sanz, M. J., Saunders, M., Smith, P., Soegaard, H., and Wattenbach, M.: Management effects on net ecosystem carbon and GHG budgets at European crop sites, *Agriculture, Ecosys. Environ.*, 139, 363–383, 2010.
- Chapin III, F. S., McFarland, J., David McGuire, A., Euskirchen, E. S., Ruess, R. W., and Kielland, K.: The changing global carbon cycle: linking plant–soil carbon dynamics to global consequences, *J. Ecology*, 97, 840–850, 2009.
- Christopher, S. F. and Lal, R.: Nitrogen Management Affects Carbon Sequestration in North American Cropland Soils, *Crit. Rev. Plant Sci.*, 26, 45–64, 2007.
- Conde, E., Cardenas, M., Poncemendoza, A., Lunaguido, M., Cruzmondragon, C., and Dendooven, L.: The impacts of inorganic nitrogen application on mineralization of C-labelled maize and glucose, and on priming effect in saline alkaline soil, *Soil Biol. Biochem.*, 37, 681–691, 2005.
- Couwenberg, J., Dommain, R., and Joosten, H.: Greenhouse gas fluxes from tropical peatlands in south-east Asia, *Glob. Change Biol.*, 16, 1715–1732, 2010.
- Couwenberg, J., Thiele, A., Tanneberger, F., Augustin, J., Bärish, S., Dubovik, D., Liashchynskaya, N., Michaelis, D., Minke, M., Skuratovich, A., and Joosten, H.: Assessing greenhouse gas emissions from peatlands using vegetation as a proxy, *Hydrobiologia*, 674, 67–89, doi:10.1007/s10750-011-0729-x, 2011.
- Crawford, R. M. M. and Braendle, R.: Oxygen deprivation stress in a changing environment, *J. Experiment. Bot.*, 47, 145–159, 1996.
- Daulat, W. E. and Clymo, R. S.: Effects of temperature and watertable on the efflux of methane from peatland surface cores, *Atmos. Environ.*, 32, 3207–3218, 1998.
- Dawson, Q., Kechavarzi, C., Leeds-Harrison, P. B., Burton, R. G. O.: Subsidence and degradation of agricultural peatlands in the Fenlands of Norfolk, UK, *Geoderma*, 154, 181–187, 2010.
- Drexler J. Z., de Fontaine, C. S., and Deverel, S. J.: The legacy of wetland drainage on the remaining peat in the Sacramento – San Joaquin Delta, California, USA, *Wetlands*, 29, 372–386, 2009.
- Drösler, M.: Trace gas exchange and climatic relevance of bog ecosystems, Southern Germany, Department for Ecology, Technische Universität München, München, 182 pp., 2005.
- Eickenscheidt, T., Heinichen, J., Augustin, J., Freibauer, A., and Drösler, M.: Nitrogen mineralization and gaseous nitrogen losses from waterlogged and drained organic soils in a black alder (*Alnus glutinosa* (L.) Gaertn.) forest, *Biogeosciences*, 11, 2961–2976, doi:10.5194/bg-11-2961-2014, 2014.
- Elsgaard, L., Görres, C.-M., Hoffmann, C. C., Blicher-Mathiesen, G., Schelde, K., and Petersen, S. O.: Net ecosystem exchange of CO₂ and C balance for eight temperate organic soils under agricultural management, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 162, 52–67, 2012.
- Farnsworth, J. E. and Meyerson, L. A.: Comparative ecophysiology of four wetland plant species along a continuum of invasiveness, *Wetlands*, 23, 750–762, 2003.
- Fiedler, S. and Sommer, M.: Methane emissions, groundwater levels and redox potentials of common wetland soils in a temperate-humid climate, *Global Biogeochem. Cy.*, 14, 1081–1093, 2000.
- Fiedler S., Adam, K., Sommer, M., and Stahr, K.: CO₂ und CH₄ Emissionen aus Böden entlang eines Feuchtegradienten im südwestdeutschen Alpenvorland, *Mitteilungen Deutsche Bodenkundliche Gesellschaft*, 88, 15–18, 1998 (in German).
- Flanagan, L. B., Wever, L. A., and Carlson, P. J.: Seasonal and inter-annual variation in carbon dioxide exchange and carbon balance in a northern temperate grassland, *Global Change Biol.*, 8, 599–615, 2002.
- Flessa, H., Amelung, W., Helfrich, M., Wiesenberg, G. L. B., Gleixner, G., Brodowski, S., Rethemeyer, J., Kramer, C., and Grootes, P. M.: Storage and stability of organic matter and fossil carbon in a Luvisol and Phaeozem with continuous maize cropping: A synthesis, *J. Plant Nutr. Soil Sci.*, 171, 36–51, 2008.
- Gilmanov, T. G., Wylie, B. K., Tieszen, L. L., Meyers, T. P., Baron, V. S., Bernacchi, C. J., Billesbach, D. P., Burba, G. G., Fischer, M. L., Glenn, A. J., Hanan, N. P., Hatfield, J. L., Heuer, M. W., Hollinger, S. E., Howard, D. M., Matamala, R., Prueger, J. H., Tenuta, M., and Young, D. G.: CO₂ uptake and ecophysiological parameters of the grain crops of midcontinent North America: estimates from flux tower measurements, *Agriculture, Ecosys. Environ.*, 164, 162–175, 2013.
- Glaz, B., Reed, S. T., and Albano, J. P.: Sugarcane response to nitrogen fertilization on a Histosol with shallow water table and periodic flooding, *J. Agron. Crop. Sci.*, 194, 369–379, 2008.
- Goettlich, K.: *Moor- und Torfkunde*, E. Schweizerbartsche Verlagsbuchhandlung, Stuttgart, 1990 (in German).
- Gong, W., Yan, X., and Wang, J.: The effect of chemical fertilizer on soil organic carbon renewal and CO₂ emission – a pot experiment with maize, *Plant Soil*, 353, 85–94, 2012.
- Grandy, A. S., Salam, D. S., Wickings, K., McDaniel, M. D., Cushman, S. W., and Snapp, S. S.: Soil respiration and litter decomposition responses to nitrogen fertilization rate in no-till corn systems, *Agriculture, Ecosyst. Environ.*, 179, 35–40, 2013.
- Hacin, J., Cop, J., and Mahne, I.: Nitrogen mineralization in marsh meadows in relation to soil organic matter content and watertable level, *J. Plant Nutr. Soil Sci.*, 164, 503–509, 2001.
- Heller, C. and Zeitz, J.: Stability of soil organic matter in two north-eastern German fen soils: the influence of site and soil development, *J. Soils Sedim.*, 12, 1231–1240, 2012.
- Hofmann, A., Heim, A., Gioacchini, P., Miltner, A., Gehre, M., and Schmidt, M. W. I.: Mineral fertilization did not affect decay of old lignin and SOC in a ¹³C-labeled arable soil over 36 years, *Biogeosciences*, 6, 1139–1148, doi:10.5194/bg-6-1139-2009, 2009.
- Hoffmann, M., Jurisch, N., Albiac, B., E., Hagemann, U., Drösler, M., Sommer, M., and Augustin, J.: Automated modeling of ecosystem CO₂ fluxes based on periodic closed chamber mea-

- surements: A standardized conceptual and practical approach, *Agr. Forest Meteorol.*, 200, 30–45, 2015.
- IUSS Working Group WRB: World Reference Base for Soil Resources 2006- first update 2007, *World Soil Resources Rep.*, No 103, FAO, Rome, 2007.
- Jans, W. W. P., Jacobs, C. M. J., Kruijt, B., Elbers, J. A., Barendse, S., and Moors, E. J.: Carbon exchange of a maize (*Zea mays* L.) crop: Influence of phenology, *Agriculture, Ecosys. Environ.*, 139, 316–324, 2010.
- Jones, J. W., Zur, B., and Bennett, J. M.: Interactive effects of water and nitrogen stresses on carbon and water vapor exchange of corn canopies, *Agricul. Forest Meteo.*, 38, 113–126, 1986.
- Joosten, H. and Clarke, D.: Wise use of mires and peatlands – background and principles including a framework for decision-making, International Mire Conservation Group and International Peat Society, ISBN 951-97744-8-3, 2002
- Jung, J. Y. and Lal, R.: Impacts of nitrogen fertilization on biomass production of switchgrass (*Panicum Virgatum* L.) and changes in soil organic carbon in Ohio, *Geoderma*, 166, 145–152, 2011
- Jungkunst, H. F. and Fiedler, S.: Latitudinal differentiated water table control of carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide fluxes from hydromorphic soils: feedbacks to climate change, *Global Change Biol.*, 13, 2668–2683, 2007.
- Jungkunst, H. F., Flessa, H., Scherber, C., and Fiedler, S.: Groundwater level controls CO₂, N₂O and CH₄ fluxes of three different hydromorphic soil types of a temperate forest ecosystem, *Soil Biol. Biochem.*, 40, 2047–2054, 2008.
- Jurasinski, G., Koebsch, F. and Hagemann, U.: Flux rate calculation from dynamic closed chamber measurements, R package version 0.2-1, available at: <http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=flux>, 2012.
- Kalfas, J. L., Xiao, X. M., Vanegas, D. X., Verma, S. B., and Suyker, A. E.: Modeling gross primary production of irrigated and rain-fed maize using MODIS imagery and CO₂ flux tower data, *Agricult. Forest Meteo.*, 151, 1514–1528, 2011.
- Kasimir-Klemedtsson, Å., Klemedtsson, L., Berglund, K., Martikainen, P., Silvola, J., and Oenema, O.: Greenhouse gas emissions from farmed organic soils: a review, *Soil Use Manage.*, 13, 245–250, 1997.
- Kaur, T., Brar, B. S., and Dhillon, N. S.: Soil organic matter dynamics as affected by long-term use of organic and inorganic fertilizers under maize–wheat cropping system, *Nutr. Cyc. Agroecosys.*, 81, 59–69, 2007.
- Khan, S. A., Mulvaney, R. L., Ellsworth, T. R., and Boast, C. W.: The myth of nitrogen fertilization for soil carbon sequestration, *J. Environ. Qual.*, 36, 1821–1832, 2007.
- Kluge, B., Wessolek, G., Facklam, M., Lorenz, M., and Schwärzel, K.: Long-term carbon loss and CO₂-C release of drained peatland soils in northeast Germany, *European J. Soil Sci.*, 59, 1076–1086, 2008.
- Klumpp, K., Tallec, T., Guix, N., and Soussana, J. F.: Long-term impacts of agricultural practices and climatic variability on carbon storage in a permanent pasture, *Global Change Biol.*, 17, 3534–3545, 2011.
- Koebsch, F., Glatzel, S., Hofmann, J., Forbrich, I., and Jurasinski, G.: CO₂ exchange of a temperate fen during the conversion from moderately rewetting to flooding, *J. Geophysical Res.*, 118, 940–950, 2013.
- Kondo, M., Murty, M. V. R., and Aragones, D. V.: Characteristics of root growth and water uptake from soil in upland rice and maize under water stress, *Soil Sci. Plant Nutr.*, 46, 721–732, 2000.
- Kuntze, H.: Moore als Senken und Quellen für C und N, *Mitteilungen Deutsche Bodenkundliche Gesellschaft*, 69, 277–280, 1993 (in German).
- Kutsch, W. L., Aubinet, M., Buchmann, N., Smith, P., Osborne, B., Eugster, W., Wattenbach, M., Schrupf, M., Schulze, E. D., Tomelleri, E., Ceschia, E., Bernhofer, C., Beziat, P., Carrara, A., Di Tommasi, P., Grunwald, T., Jones, M., Magliulo, V., Marloie, O., Moureaux, C., Olioso, A., Sanz, M. J., Saunders, M., Søgaard, H., and Ziegler, W.: The net biome production of full crop rotations in Europe, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 139, 336–345, 2010.
- Kutzbach, L., Schneider, J., Sachs, T., Giebels, M., Nykänen, H., Shurpali, N. J., Martikainen, P. J., Alm, J., and Wilkming, M.: CO₂ flux determination by closed-chamber methods can be seriously biased by inappropriate application of linear regression, *Biogeosciences*, 4, 1005–1025, doi:10.5194/bg-4-1005-2007, 2007.
- Ladha, J. K., Reddy, C. K., Padre, A. T., and van Kessel, C.: Role of nitrogen fertilization in sustaining organic matter in cultivated soils, *J. Environ. Qual.*, 40, 1756–1766, 2011.
- Laine, J., Silvola, J., Tolonen, K., Alm, J., Nykänen, H., Vasander, H., Sallantausta, T., Savolainen, I., Sinisalo, J., and Martikainen, P. J.: Effect of Water-Level Drawdown on Global Climatic Warming: Northern Peatlands, *Ambio*, 25, 179–184, 1996.
- Leiber-Sauheitl, K., Fuß, R., Voigt, C., and Freibauer, A.: High CO₂ fluxes from grassland on histic Gleysol along soil carbon and drainage gradients, *Biogeosciences*, 11, 749–761, doi:10.5194/bg-11-749-2014, 2014.
- Livesley, S. J., Stacey, C. L., Gregory, P. J., and Buresh, R. J.: Sieve size effects on root length and biomass measurements of maize (*Zea mays*) and *Grevillea robusta*, *Plant Soil*, 207, 183–193, 1999.
- Livingston, G. P. and Hutchinson, G. L.: Enclosure-based measurement of trace gas exchange: Applications and sources of error, in: *Methods in ecology, biogenic trace gases: measuring emissions from soil and water*, edited by: Matson, P. A. and Harris, R. C., Blackwell Science, Malden, 14–51, 1995.
- Lloyd, J. and Taylor, J. A.: On the Temperature Dependence of Soil Respiration, *Functional Ecol.*, 8, 315–323, 1994.
- Ludwig, B., John, B., Ellerbrock, R., Kaiser, M., and Flessa, H.: Stabilization of carbon from maize in a sandy soil in a long-term experiment, *European J. Soil Sci.*, 54, 117–126, 2003
- Martikainen, P. J., Nykänen, H., Alm, J., and Silvola, J.: Change in fluxes of carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide due to forest drainage of mire sites of different trophic, *Plant Soil*, 168–169, 571–577, 1995.
- McDonald, A. J., Riha, S. J., Duxbury, J. M., and Lauren, J. G.: Wheat responses to novel rice cultural practices and soil moisture conditions in the rice-wheat rotation of Nepal, *Field Crops Res.*, 98, 116–126, 2006.
- McIntyre, R. E. S., Adams, M. A., and Grierson, P. F.: Nitrogen mineralization potential in rewetted soils from a semi-arid stream landscape, north-west Australia, *J. Arid. Environ.*, 73, 48–54, 2009.
- Mendez-Millan, M., Dignac, M. F., Rumpel, C., Rasse, D. P., Bardoux, G., and Derenne, S.: Contribution of maize root derived C to soil organic carbon throughout an agricultural soil profile as-

- essed by compound specific ^{13}C analysis, *Org. Geochem.*, 42, 1502–1511, 2012.
- Michaelis, L. and Menten, M.L.: Die Kinetik der Invertinwirkung, *Biochem. Z.*, 49, 333–369, 1913 (in German).
- Müller, L., Wirth S., Schulz, E., Behrendt, A., Hoehn, A., and Schindler, U.: Implications of soil substrate and land use for properties of fen soils in North-East Germany Part I: Basic soil conditions, chemical and biological properties of topsoils, *Archiv. Ag. Soil Sci.*, 53, 113–126, 2007.
- Mulvaney, R. L., Khan, S. A., and Ellsworth, T. R.: Synthetic nitrogen fertilizers deplete soil nitrogen: a global dilemma for sustainable cereal production, *J. Environ. Qual.*, 38, 2295–2314, 2009.
- Mundel, G.: Untersuchungen zur Torfmineralisation in Niedermooren. *Archiv Ackerbau Pflanzenbau Bodenkunde*, 20, 669–679, 1976 (in German).
- Nykänen, H., Alm, J., Lang, K., Silvola, J., and Martikainen, P. J.: Emissions of CH_4 , N_2O and CO_2 from a Virgin Fen and a Fen Drained for Grassland in Finland, *J. Biogeography*, 22, 351–357, 1995.
- Pennock, D., Yates, T., Bedard-Haughn, A., Phipps, K., Farrell, R., and McDougal, R.: Landscape controls on N_2O and CH_4 emissions from freshwater mineral soil wetlands of the Canadian Prairie Pothole region, *Geoderma*, 155, 308–319, 2010.
- Poirier, V., Angers, D. A., Rochette, P., Chantigny, M. H., Ziadi, N., Tremblay, G., and Fortin, J.: Interactive effects of tillage and mineral fertilization on soil carbon profiles, *Soil Sci. Soci. America J.*, 73, 255–261, 2009.
- Reay, D. S., Dentener, F., Smith, P., Grace, J., and Feely, R. A.: Global nitrogen deposition and carbon sinks, *Natl. Geosci.*, 1, 430–437, 2008.
- Reddy, K. R. and Patrick J., W. H.: Effect of alternate aerobic and anaerobic conditions on redox potential, organic matter decomposition and nitrogen loss in a flooded soil, *Soil Biol. Biochem.*, 7, 87–94, 1975.
- Sainju, U. M., Singh, B. P., Whitehead, W. F., and Wang, S.: Carbon supply and storage in tilled and nontilled soils as influenced by cover crops and nitrogen fertilization, *J. Environ. Qual.*, 35, 1507–1517, 2006.
- Schindler, U., Mueller, L., and Behrendt, A.: Field investigations of soil hydrological properties of fen soils in North-East Germany, *J. Plant Nutr. Soil Sci.*, 166, 364–369, 2003.
- Schmidt, M. W. I., Torn, M. S., Abiven, S., Dittmar, T., Guggenberger, G., Janssens, I. A., Kleber, M., Kogel-Knabner, I., Lehmann, J., Manning, D. A. C., Nannipieri, P., Rasse, D. P., Weiner, S., and Trumbore, S. E.: Persistence of soil organic matter as an ecosystem property, *Nature*, 478, 49–56, 2011.
- Scott, D. W.: Sturges' rule, *WIREs Comp. Stat.*, 1, 303–306, 2009.
- Silvola, J., Alm, J., Ahlholm, U., Nykanen, H., and Martikainen, P. J.: CO_2 Fluxes from Peat in Boreal Mires under Varying Temperature and Moisture Conditions, *J. Ecol.*, 84, 219–228, 1996.
- Singh, N. T., Vig, A. C., and Singh, R.: Nitrogen response of maize under temporary flooding, *Fertilizer Res.*, 6, 111–120, 1984
- Stoy, P. C., Williams, M., Evans, J. G., Prieto-Blanco, A., Disney, M., Hill, T. C., Ward, H. C., Wade, T. J., and Street, L. E.: Upscaling Tundra CO_2 exchange from chamber to eddy covariance tower, *Arc. Antarc. Alpine Res.*, 45, 275–284, 2013
- Teh, J. A., Silver, W. L., Sonnentag, O., Detto, M., Kelly M., and Baldocchi, D. D.: Large greenhouse gas emissions from a temperate peatland pasture, *Ecosys.*, 14, 311–325, 2011.
- Thangarajan, R., Bolan, N. S., Tian G., Naidu, R., and Kunhikrishnan, A.: Role of organic amendment application on greenhouse gas emission from soil, *Sci.Total Environ.*, 465, 72–96, 2013.
- Thomas, R. Q., Canham, C. D., Weathers, K. C., and Goodale, C. L.: Increased tree carbon storage in response to nitrogen deposition in the US, *Nat. Geosci.*, 3, 13–17, 2010.
- Tollenaar, M. and Dwyer, L. M.: Physiology of maize, in: *Crop yield- physiology and processes*, edited by: Smith, D. L. and Hamel, C., Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, New York, 169–199, 1999.
- Venterink, H. O., Davidsson, T. E., Kiehl, K., and Leonardson, L.: Impact of drying and re-wetting on N, P and K dynamics in a wetland soil, *Plant Soil*, 243, 119–130, 2002.
- Verma, S. B., Dobermann, A., Cassman, K. G., Walters, D. T., Knops, J. M., Arkebauer, T. J., Suyker, A. E., Burba, G. G., Amos, B., Yang, H., Ginting, D., Hubbard, K. G., Gitelson, A. A., and Walter-Shea, E. A.: Annual carbon dioxide exchange in irrigated and rainfed maize-based agroecosystems, *Agricult. Forest Meteorol.*, 131, 77–96, 2005.
- Vitale, L., Di Tommasi, P., Arena, C., Riondino, M., Forte, A., Verlotta, A., Fierro, A., Virzo De Santo, A., Fuggi, A., and Magliulo, V.: Growth and gas exchange response to water shortage of a maize crop on different soil types, *Acta. Physiol. Plant.*, 31, 331–341, 2008.
- von Asmuth, J. R., Maas, K., Bakker, M., and Pertersen, J.: Modeling time series of ground water head fluctuations subjected to multiple stresses, *Ground Water*, 46, 30–40, 2008.
- von Asmuth J. R., Maas, K., Knotters, M., Bierkens, M. F. P., Bakker, M., Olsthoorn, T. N., Cirkel, D. G., Leunk, I., Schaars, F., and von Asmuth, D. C.: Software for hydrogeologic time series analysis, interfacing data with physicalinsight, *Environ. Modell. Soft.*, 38, 178–190, 2012a.
- von Asmuth, J. R., Maas, K., Knotters, M., Leunk, I., and Zadnoordijk, W. J.: *Menyanthes user manual*, version 2.x.c., Nieuwegein, Netherlands, 2012b.
- Wang, K., Liu, C., Zheng, X., Pihlatie, M., Li, B., Haapanala, S., Vesala, T., Liu, H., Wang, Y., Liu, G., and Hu, F.: Comparison between eddy covariance and automatic chamber techniques for measuring net ecosystem exchange of carbon dioxide in cotton and wheat fields, *Biogeosciences*, 10, 6865–6877, doi:10.5194/bg-10-6865-2013, 2013.
- Wenkert, W., Fausey, N. R., and Watters H. D.: Flooding responses in *Zea Mays* L., *Plant Soil*, 62, 351–366, 1981.
- Yu, Z.: Holocene carbon flux histories of the world's peatlands: Global carbon-cycle implications, *Holocene*, 21, 761–774, 2011.
- Zaidi, P. H., Rafique, S., and Singh, N. N.: Response of maize (*Zea mays* L.) genotypes to excess soil moisture stress: morphophysiological effects and basis of tolerance, *Europ. J. Agronomy*, 19, 383–399, 2003.
- Zeri, M., Anderson-Teixeira, K., Hickman, G., Masters, M., DeLucia, E., and Bernacchi, C. J.: Carbon exchange by establishing biofuel crops in Central Illinois, *Agr. Ecosyst. Environ.*, 144, 319–329, 2011.