

1 **Plant controls over tropical wetland nitrous oxide dynamics: a review**

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13 **Keywords:**

14 Nitrous oxide; nitrogen; tropical wetlands; tropical peatlands; land use change; denitrification

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18 This paper is a non-peer reviewed preprint submitted to EarthArXiv.

19 **Abstract**

20 Tropical wetlands are an important global source of greenhouse gas emissions, including  
21 nitrous oxide, a potent and long-last greenhouse gas. Tropical wetland ecosystems can be  
22 highly heterogeneous, featuring a variety of vegetation types, from grasses through to palms  
23 and mangroves. A variety of plant-mediated processes can exert key controls over wetland  
24 plant/soil nitrogen transportation and transformations, including through litter inputs,  
25 rhizodeposition and root turnover regulating the size of the soil nitrogen pool, plant nitrogen  
26 uptake, rhizosphere biology, and plant-mediated nitrous oxide transportation all playing  
27 important roles, and in many cases varying between key wetland vegetation types. In this  
28 review, we summarise the importance of such processes in regulating tropical wetland nitrous  
29 oxide dynamics.

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Tropical wetlands are an important potential source of global greenhouse gas emissions,  
33 including carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O), potentially  
34 accounting for as much as two-thirds of the latter at a global scale (D'Amelio et al., 2009). N<sub>2</sub>O  
35 is a potent, long-lasting greenhouse gas (GHG), approximately 300 times more powerful at  
36 driving climate warming than CO<sub>2</sub> over 100 years and has caused 10% of total warming to  
37 date (Thompson et al., 2019). Concentrations have increased from 290 parts-per-billion (ppb)  
38 in 1940, to 330 ppb in 2017, and are rising annually by 0.3% (Thompson et al., 2019).  
39 Understanding the controls over N<sub>2</sub>O dynamics is therefore essential in recognising the future  
40 impacts of environmental change on emissions (e.g. alterations in precipitation and soil  
41 warming), and to identify potential mitigation strategies.

42 Estimates of tropical and sub-tropical wetlands extent range from 1.4 - 4.7 million km<sup>2</sup>  
43 (Gumbricht et al. 2017). Tropical wetlands are highly heterogeneous in terms of vegetation,  
44 ranging from the largely undisturbed palm and broadleaved evergreen tree dominated  
45 peatlands of the Central Congo basin (Dargie et al., 2017), to Caribbean mangroves (Phillips  
46 et al., 1997), managed grasslands and woodlands of the Pantanal (Lienggaard et al., 2014), to  
47 the extensively converted tropical peatlands of Southeast Asia (Cooper et al., 2020). This  
48 heterogeneity results in biogeochemical processes that can vary from the micro-scale (e.g.  
49 plant root aeration and exudation), meso-scale (e.g. plant type, and physiology), to the  
50 landscape scale (e.g. wetland ecotype and hydrology). The role of differences in vegetation in  
51 determining the production and emission of N<sub>2</sub>O from tropical wetlands have thus far have  
52 been largely overlooked.

53 Understanding the role of plants in regulating emissions is important in several contexts: first,  
54 evidence suggests that under certain circumstances, for example, specific combinations of  
55 high nitrogen inputs and optimal water content, tropical wetlands of various types may be  
56 substantial but poorly quantified contributors to global N<sub>2</sub>O budgets (D'Amelio et al., 2009).  
57 The importance of this is underlined by the limited flux measurements that have been made  
58 to date in globally important wetland systems, including the Pantanal (Lienggaard et al., 2014),  
59 and intact and degraded Southeast Asian peatlands (Cooper et al., 2020). Second, although  
60 emissions (by mass) are lower than those of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O has a substantially higher  
61 global warming potential, meaning that relatively small emissions will drive a disproportionate  
62 degree of warming (IPCC, 2021). Third, climate feedbacks, for example, the altering of  
63 precipitation patterns, and rising temperatures, may substantially alter plant productivity and  
64 inputs, and dominant vegetation types, altering N<sub>2</sub>O production and emissions. Fourth,  
65 exploitation of the potential of tropical wetland restoration as a nature-based solution to climate

66 change (Girkin & Davidson, 2024) will have implications for N<sub>2</sub>O budgets through direct and  
67 indirect impacts on carbon and nitrogen flows.

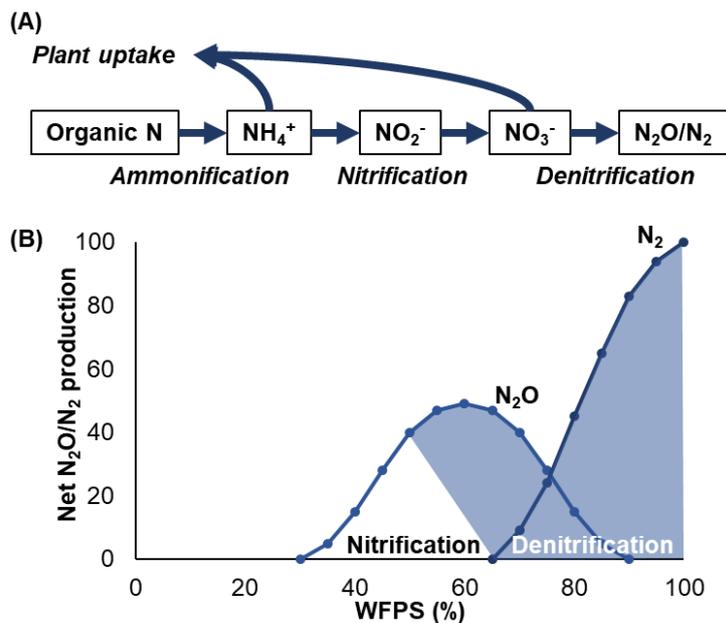
68 Although many of the fundamental ecological and biogeochemical processes are similar, data  
69 from relatively well-studied temperate and boreal wetland systems cannot be readily applied  
70 to the tropics, due to substantial differences in plant species and plant functional types,  
71 ecosystem productivity, and climate (Sjögersten et al., 2014). This hampers the further  
72 development of process-based models that can accurately scale fluxes or test their sensitivity  
73 to future environmental perturbations (Farmer et al., 2011). Understanding the role of plants  
74 is therefore important to the task of identifying local and regional emissions hotspots, develop  
75 management practices that might mitigate emissions, and to understand potential impacts  
76 from global environmental change processes, including climate impacts and land use change  
77 that will affect dominant vegetation types (Girkin and Cooper, 2022). In this review, we assess  
78 the direct and indirect mechanisms by which plants and plant inputs may be regulating soil  
79 and sediment N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. In so doing, we identify the dominant pathways and processes  
80 underpinning production to understand potential feedbacks from ongoing global environmental  
81 change processes and aim to highlight the critical need for better quantification of the scale of  
82 tropical wetland N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.

83

## 84 **2. Nitrous oxide emissions from tropical wetlands**

85 Approximately two-thirds of biological nitrogen fixation occurs in tropical wetlands (Maltby and  
86 Barker, 2009). Nitrogen losses are predominantly driven by denitrification forming N<sub>2</sub>O and/or  
87 atmospheric nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) in a series of microbially-mediated processes. However, rates of  
88 nitrogen loss are generally much lower than inputs, making wetlands an important pool of  
89 nitrogen, with the majority stored in the organic pool in the microbial biomass, as recalcitrant  
90 organic matter, in macrophytes, and in plant litter (Reddy and DeLaune, 2008). Key  
91 environmental controls over wetland soil and sediment nitrogen cycling have been elucidated,  
92 and range from soil moisture, temperature, and pH (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013).

93 Microbial processes drive approximately 90% of global N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Butterbach-Bahl et al.,  
94 2013). Nitrification, the sequential oxidation of ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) to nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) and nitrate  
95 (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), and denitrification, the reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to N<sub>2</sub>O and dinitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>), are recognised as  
96 the dominant processes in wetland soil nitrogen dynamics (Reddy and DeLaune, 2008). While  
97 the balance of these processes is determined by substrate supply, oxygen availability,  
98 moisture, and pH, both processes can occur simultaneously in soil microsites due to  
99 differences in oxygen availability. Nitrifiers can release N<sub>2</sub>O at low oxygen availability when  
100 moisture content is equivalent to 60% water filled pore space (WFPS) (**Figure 1**) (Bateman  
101 and Baggs, 2005). Similarly, denitrifiers preferentially produce N<sub>2</sub>O under low oxygen  
102 conditions. The proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O as the end of product of denitrification increases at lower  
103 pH and may thus represent the dominant gaseous nitrogen production pathway in tropical  
104 wetlands (Reddy and DeLaune, 2008). Other processes may also contribute to emissions, but  
105 the balance of pathways is largely unknown. For example, in tropical peatlands, dissimilatory  
106 nitrate reduction can occur under NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> limiting conditions (Espenberg et al., 2018), as can  
107 anaerobic ammonium oxidation (ANAMOX) (Hu et al., 2011). Flooded wetland areas often  
108 emit little N<sub>2</sub>O and can even be periodic N<sub>2</sub>O sinks, while drier non-ponded areas may  
109 represent more substantial sources (Tangen & Bansal, 2022).



110

111 **Figure 1:** (A) Dominant nitrogen transformations in wetland soils, and (B) relationship between  
 112 WFPS and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}/\text{N}_2$  production, adapted from van Lent et al. 2015. Shaded blue areas indicate  
 113 the dominance of denitrification versus nitrification.

114

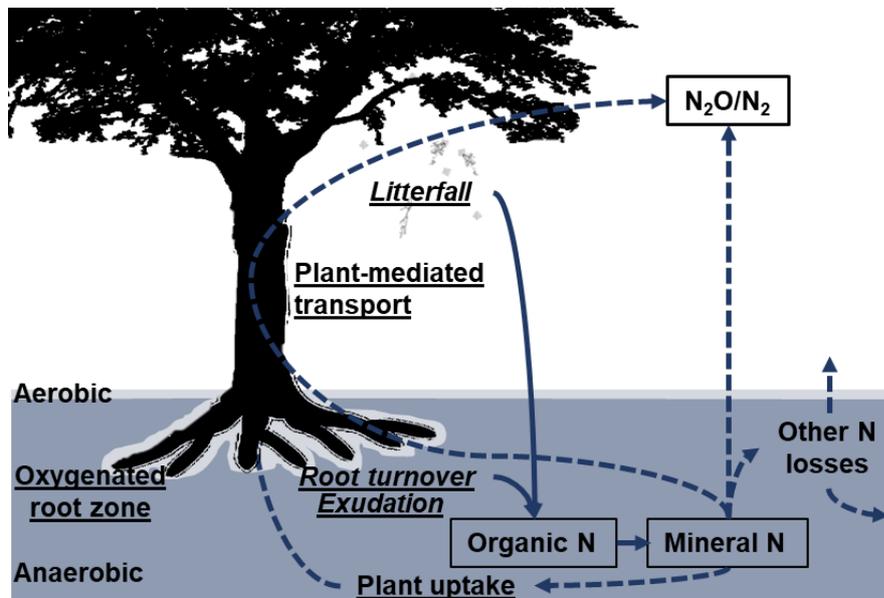
115 Collectively, these, and other nitrogen transformation pathways can be influenced by plants  
 116 and their inputs via several mechanisms. These include plant nitrogen uptake, leaf, root and  
 117 shoot inputs that determine soil and sediment biogeochemistry and thus decomposition  
 118 (Wieder et al., 2011; Girkin et al., 2019) with root exudates regulating rhizosphere properties  
 119 and representing an important substrate for denitrification (Girkin et al., 2018). Root oxygen  
 120 inputs control rhizosphere redox conditions (Girkin et al., 2020), and plant vascular tissues act  
 121 as a potential soil to atmosphere egress pathway for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  produced in soils and sediments (Yu  
 122 et al., 1997; Yamulki and Holt, 2017) (**Figure 1**). The interplay between these processes  
 123 occurs within a spatially and temporally heterogeneous ecosystem and is further mediated by  
 124 environmental variables including micro- and macro- topography, land use, and hydrology.

125

### 126 3. Plant regulation of tropical wetland $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ emissions

127 Plants directly affect nitrogen availability in soils through root uptake of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . In  
 128 wetlands soils, nitrification can occur in surface soils under aerobic (non-flooded conditions)  
 129 and close to roots that provide oxygen inputs (**Figure 2**) (Girkin et al., 2020). However, wetland  
 130 plants have often been considered to mainly take up  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , as  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is often rapidly lost through  
 131 denitrification. The precise balance of these processes varies between soil types,  
 132 management and vegetation type (Kirk and Kronzucker, 2005). In general, tropical climates  
 133 feature distinct dry and wet seasons which can result in flooding pulses in wetlands (Lienggaard  
 134 et al., 2013). This remains important for plants, as lowered water tables will aerate soils, driving  
 135 nitrification, and thereby affecting the forms of nitrogen available for uptake (Barrios and  
 136 Herrera, 1994). Plant litter inputs represent an important driver of soil  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions, but  
 137 precise effects vary based on litter properties and the environment in which decomposition  
 138 occurs (Wieder et al., 2011). Seasonally flooded soils in the Amazon have previously been  
 139 shown to be rich in inorganic nitrogen, although much is subsequently lost during water table

140 drawdown (Koschorreck, 2005). With the lowering of water tables, aquatic macrophytes can  
 141 be left to decompose on draining wetland soils. In the Pantanal, Brazil, floating mats of *E.*  
 142 *crassipes* have been proposed to release 300 – 1,000 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, approximately 10 times  
 143 as much as carbon (Koschorreck, 2005; Sun et al., 2011). Phosphorus is often limiting in  
 144 wetland soils (Cheesman et al. 2012), and low availability can limit the activity of nitrifying and  
 145 denitrifying microbial communities (Yi et al. 2024). Combined, plant aboveground inputs  
 146 therefore represent a major seasonal driver of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, equivalent to fertiliser  
 147 applications in agroecosystems.



148  
 149 **Figure 2:** Plant-mediated controls over tropical wetland N<sub>2</sub>O production, including plant-  
 150 uptake of mineral nitrogen (N), plant litter inputs (leaf litterfall, root turnover), root  
 151 exudation/rhizodeposition, plant-mediated transportation, and localised oxic zones around  
 152 roots. Many key processes have been shown to be plant-species dependent.

153  
 154 Rhizodeposition can both directly, through providing carbon substrates required for  
 155 denitrification, and indirectly, by determining rhizosphere properties, affect N<sub>2</sub>O production.  
 156 The largest component of rhizodeposition are root exudates, the composition of which  
 157 depends on plant species, stage of development, soil properties, and prevailing environmental  
 158 conditions (Badri and Vivanco, 2009). This is important as the extent of denitrification is known  
 159 to depend on both the quality and quantity of the carbon input, with labile sugars driving  
 160 generally greater rates of denitrification than more complex organic molecules (Dodla et al.,  
 161 2008). Root exudate profiles for most tropical wetland tree species are entirely unknown, but  
 162 in general evidence suggests that organic acids are present in 2:1 or 3:1 ratios with sugars for  
 163 many tree species, with different ratios reported for other plant functional types (Girkin et al.,  
 164 2018). Diurnal trends in N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes have previously been reported in wetland ecosystems  
 165 (Oktarita et al., 2017; Teh et al., 2017), and may be due to increases in plant inputs of carbon  
 166 derived from photosynthesis during daylight hours, or due to changes in temperature between  
 167 night and day, but this latter contrast is reduced in tropical ecosystems compared to temperate  
 168 latitudes (Jauhiainen et al., 2014).

169 As well as being a substrate for the soil microbial community, litterfall, rhizodeposition and  
 170 oxygen inputs can modify microbial community structure (Girkin et al. 2020), and thereby  
 171 indirectly regulate the extent of N<sub>2</sub>O production (Zhuang et al., 2020). The rhizosphere of

172 wetland plant has previously been described as “oxic islands” which feature distinct microbial  
173 communities and diversity compared to bulk soils (Neori and Agami, 2016). However, few  
174 studies have investigated the abundance and function of tropical wetland plant rhizosphere  
175 microbial communities beyond rice. In general, nitrogen depletion in the rhizosphere, through  
176 uptake or loss of nitrate, and the exudation of low nitrogen compounds can work alongside  
177 optimising pH and redox potential to promote nitrogen fixation (Husson, 2012). The extent to  
178 which these processes differ between tropical wetland ecotypes, and different species,  
179 remains unclear.

180 Plant-mediated CH<sub>4</sub> transport has been widely reported in tropical wetland ecosystems,  
181 resulting in stem and canopy emissions, thereby contributing substantially to ecosystem scale  
182 dynamics (Pangala et al., 2017), but N<sub>2</sub>O transport are less frequently assessed. Kreuzwieser  
183 et al., (2003) reported that the prop roots of *Rhizophora stylosa* emitted N<sub>2</sub>O at a rate of 3.3  
184 µg m<sup>-2</sup> root h<sup>-1</sup>. Studies in temperate forested wetlands (Yamulki and Holt, 2017), and tropical  
185 dry forests (Welch et al. 2019) support the notion that some tree stems can be net N<sub>2</sub>O emitters  
186 but highlight that soil emissions tend to dominate ecosystem fluxes. N<sub>2</sub>O produced in the soil  
187 or dissolved in the porewater can be absorbed through the roots and transported through  
188 aerenchyma to aboveground tissues, where it is subsequently exchanged with the  
189 atmosphere. Evidence from studies of tropical wetland tree-emitted CH<sub>4</sub> suggest this process  
190 is mediated by a range of aboveground adaptations, including lenticels, and prop and knee-  
191 roots, with high and low emitting species further differentiated through contrasts in root inputs  
192 (driving GHG production), aerenchyma volume, and wood density (Sjögersten et al., 2019).

193 N<sub>2</sub>O may also be produced during photosynthesis, from the reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and during  
194 photo-assimilation of nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) in chloroplasts (Smart and Bloom, 2001). Upper estimates  
195 suggest this may account for 5-6% of total N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in agroecosystems, but there  
196 appears to be limited evidence of the importance of this process in wetland species (Yamulki  
197 and Holt, 2017).

198

#### 199 **4. Species-specific and ecotype controls**

200 We have presented a range of sources of evidence that plants can exert multiple controls over  
201 the N<sub>2</sub>O dynamics in tropical wetlands, but the extent to which processes differ between plant  
202 species and/or plant functional types, and the degree to which plant controls over fluxes are  
203 important relative to other processes, remains unclear. Few studies have assessed species-  
204 specific controls over N<sub>2</sub>O emissions while controlling for other important regulatory processes  
205 (e.g. degree of flooding, management, and soil properties), and studies that have assessed  
206 such processes often have small sample sizes. Were and Hein (2021) reported no significant  
207 differences in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the wet or dry season within a single Ugandan wetland site  
208 featuring *Typha latifolia*, *Phragmites mauritianus*, and *Cyperus papyrus*, with similar results  
209 reported elsewhere (Marín-Muñiz et al., 2015; Hernández and Junca-Gómez, 2020).  
210 However, such results may be because the studied species exhibit relatively similar  
211 adaptations to their environment, and therefore the relative differences in species-specific  
212 controls are small. Contrasting plant functional types (for example broadleaved evergreen  
213 trees, palms and mangroves in coastal wetlands) are possibly a more appropriate level at  
214 which to investigate differences in plant controls over emissions. Comer-Warner et al., (2022)  
215 reported significant differences in denitrification-derived N<sub>2</sub>O from Melaleuca forest soils  
216 compared to mangrove soils in Vietnam, but greater potential rates of total denitrification (N<sub>2</sub>O  
217 and N<sub>2</sub>) in mangroves (8.1 ng N g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>) than Melaleuca forest soils (6.8 ng N g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>).

218

## 219 **5. Impacts of global environmental change on N<sub>2</sub>O dynamics**

220 Tropical wetland ecosystems, and plant processes, are already significantly affected by  
221 climate and land use change. Across all tropical ecosystems, temperatures are likely to  
222 increase (IPCC, 2021), and more extreme weather events are predicted, including increased  
223 precipitation intensity (Endo et al., 2009), and more pronounced seasonality with lower  
224 precipitation during dry seasons but increases in wet seasons (Li et al., 2007). Collectively  
225 changes in precipitation will have significant consequences directly for N<sub>2</sub>O production,  
226 primarily by affecting WFPS (van Lent et al., 2015). Climate change is also likely to have a  
227 significant impact on tropical wetland ecosystem productivity through CO<sub>2</sub> fertilisation effects  
228 impacting substrate availability, increased temperatures (also impacting the rate of microbial  
229 processes regulating N<sub>2</sub>O pathways) (Raturi et al., 2022), and drought/extreme flooding (Malhi  
230 et al., 2014). The impacts of this combination of processes have rarely been investigated in  
231 tropical wetlands compared to other ecosystems, and at present limited tools and models are  
232 available which can account for the relevant processes and predict likely responses (Farmer  
233 et al. 2011). In general, N<sub>2</sub>O emissions increase in line with primary productivity (Piñeiro-  
234 Guerra et al., 2019) of which temperature and moisture availability are major controls.

235 Land conversion has substantial consequences for GHG emissions from wetland ecosystems,  
236 by disturbing soils, changes in plant inputs, and alterations in management (van Lent et al.,  
237 2015). Drained peat soils can be a significant source of greenhouse gases (Girkin et al. 2023),  
238 including a substantial N<sub>2</sub>O source due to lower pH, which inhibits N<sub>2</sub>O reductase resulting in  
239 increased N<sub>2</sub>O as the end product of denitrification rather than N<sub>2</sub> (Reddy & DeLaune, 2008).  
240 Measurements of N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes from natural swamp forests can be up to 10 times lower than  
241 converted oil palm plantations due to plant fertiliser requirements and organic matter  
242 decomposition (Hergoualc'h and Verchot, 2014; Oktarita et al., 2017). Similarly, Iram et al.,  
243 (2021) highlight substantial changes in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from land use change in coastal  
244 wetlands, with increased fluxes in drained pastures and adjacent sugarcane fields, particularly  
245 following fertilisation events (Iram et al., 2021). Castillo et al., (2017) demonstrated that N<sub>2</sub>O  
246 emissions from deforested mangrove areas were up to 34 times greater than those from intact  
247 forest.

248

## 249 **Conclusions**

250 Tropical wetlands are a critical component of the global nitrogen cycle, representing a  
251 substantial organic nitrogen pool, but also a major source of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Many of the  
252 underlying mechanisms driving emissions remain unclear, including how alterations in  
253 fundamental ecosystem processes (changes in vegetation type and inputs, including litter and  
254 rhizodeposition) and shifts in management will interact with climate change to affect  
255 emissions. Collectively, this hampers the ability to generate a new generation of models for  
256 determining and upscaling dynamics. Growing evidence suggests a high potential for  
257 feedbacks, from both land use and climate change, giving an urgent need for quantifying  
258 remaining underlying mechanisms of regulation, and identifying potential pathways for  
259 mitigation.

260

## 261 **Acknowledgements**

262 This work was supported by the Natural Environment Research Council [grant number  
263 NE/X015238/1], the Royal Geographical Society (RBEA 02.21), the Royal Society  
264 (RGS\R2\202229).

265

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