Provided for non-commercial research and education use. Not for reproduction, distribution or commercial use.



This article appeared in a journal published by Elsevier. The attached copy is furnished to the author for internal non-commercial research and education use, including for instruction at the authors institution and sharing with colleagues.

Other uses, including reproduction and distribution, or selling or licensing copies, or posting to personal, institutional or third party websites are prohibited.

In most cases authors are permitted to post their version of the article (e.g. in Word or Tex form) to their personal website or institutional repository. Authors requiring further information regarding Elsevier's archiving and manuscript policies are encouraged to visit:

http://www.elsevier.com/copyright

Soil Biology & Biochemistry 40 (2008) 2835-2842

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect



Soil Biology & Biochemistry



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/soilbio

Ammonium versus nitrate nutrition of *Zea mays* and *Lupinus albus*: Effect on root-derived CO₂ efflux

Olga Gavrichkova^{a,*}, Yakov Kuzyakov^b

^a Department of Forest Environment and Resources, University of Tuscia, via S. Camillo de Lellis, 01100 Viterbo, Italy ^b Department of Agroecosystem Research, University of Bayreuth, 95440 Bayreuth, Germany

A R T I C L E I N F O

Article history: Received 21 January 2008 Received in revised form 29 July 2008 Accepted 2 August 2008 Available online 30 August 2008

Keywords: Lupinus albus Zea mays CO₂ efflux Nitrogen fertilization Nitrate reduction ¹⁴C labeling Root respiration Rhizosphere

ABSTRACT

Identification of the mechanisms contributing to nitrogen (N) fertilizer-induced changes in CO_2 efflux from soil under agricultural crops has been extremely challenging because of difficulties in separating root and microbial contribution to total CO_2 efflux. In this study we present the evidence that high costs of nitrate reduction result in a strong increase of root-derived respiration and the magnitude of an increase differs between the species with various contribution of shoots and roots to the nitrate reduction process.

Fertilization of *Lupinus albus* and *Zea mays* with nitrate or ammonium and pulse labeling of plants in $^{14}CO_2$ atmosphere allowed evaluation of the effect of N type on total and recently assimilated CO_2 efflux from soil. Addition of nitrate to planted soil increased recently assimilated CO_2 efflux by 168% in *Lupinus albus* (nitrate reduction site – in roots) and by 121% in *Zea mays* (nitrate reduction site both, in shoots and roots) in comparison with control. Ammonium-induced CO_2 increase amounted for 82% in *Lupinus albus* and for 73% in *Zea mays*. Clear diurnal changes in CO_2 efflux from planted soil at constant day/night temperature showed fast response of below-ground processes to photosynthesis. Both approaches for root-derived CO_2 assessment: ¹⁴C pulse labeling and difference of CO_2 from planted and unplanted soil showed similar results: the form of N supply and the location of the nitrate reduction site have a strong significant effect on the amount of root-derived CO_2 respiration.

© 2008 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

The nitrogen (N) requirements of plants can be met by both nitrate (NO_3^-) and ammonium (NH_4^+) ion assimilation (Lasa et al., 2002). Utilization of nitrogen in either form may affect the carbohydrate metabolism and energy economy of the plant (Blacquiere, 1987). NO_3^- ions can be accumulated in vacuoles, and so most plant species can transport nitrates to leaves for reduction and assimilation and are able to tolerate high nitrate concentrations without any sign of toxicity. However, NH_4^+ salts absorbed by the plant must be rapidly metabolized into organic nitrogen compounds as many plants tolerate few or no excess ammonium ions (Barker et al., 1996; Chaillou et al., 1994). So almost all NH_4^+ ions are assimilated in roots. This difference in the site for N assimilation leads to a difference in the demand of carbon (C) skeletons, which are provided in part by the phosphorylating cytochrome (TCA) cycle, and hence to a difference in the respiration rate (Lasa et al., 2002).

However, there are still active debates on the effect of the N source on root respiration, as attempts to explain it experimentally

have led to arguable results supporting different hypotheses. Some authors suggest that, when compared to NO_3^- nutrition, NH_4^+ nutrition stimulates the rate of root respiration, attributing this increase to the stimulation of alternative pathway activity (Barneix et al., 1984; Blacquiere, 1987; Lasa et al., 2002). There are two pathways involved in respiration: the phosphorylating cytochrome and the non-phosphorylating alternative pathway. The physiological role of the latter is not clear but several authors suggest that this alternative pathway could avoid the overreduction of the electron transport chain and the subsequent production of reactive oxygen species (Purvis and Shewfelt, 1993). Thus, this pathway could allow oxidation of TCA cycle reductant, maintaining TCA cycle carbon flow for provision of biosynthetic intermediates for NH $_4^+$ ion assimilation.

On the other hand, NO_3^- coming to the plant before assimilation have to be firstly reduced to NH_4^+ , and this process, together with assimilation, is among the most energy-intensive processes in plants, in some cases followed by an additional CO_2 evolution (Atkins et al., 1979; Aslam and Huffacker, 1982; Ninomiya and Sato, 1984; Warner and Kleinhofs, 1992; Blacquiere, 1987; Tischner, 2000). The process proceeds in two steppes: conversion of NO_3^- to NO_2^- and the following conversion of NO_2^- to NH_4^+ . In illuminated

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +39 0761 357 251; fax: +39 0761 357 389. *E-mail address:* olchik@unitus.it (O. Gavrichkova).

^{0038-0717/\$ –} see front matter @ 2008 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2008.08.003

leaves, these processes are coupled to photosynthetic electron transport. However, in roots and during darkness, reducing equivalents are generated by oxidation of carbohydrates with subsequent evolution of CO₂ (Aslam and Huffacker, 1982; Ninomiya and Sato, 1984).

Depending on the species, the site of NO₃⁻ reduction could be located in shoots or roots (Andrews, 1986; Oaks and Hirel, 1985; Pate and Layzell, 1990; Schilling et al., 2006; Silveira et al., 2001; Vuylsteker et al., 1997). By this property, plants are divided into three groups: species reducing NO₃⁻ predominantly in roots, species reducing NO₃⁻ predominantly in shoots, and those that do both. The C costs for reduction of NO₃⁻ to NH₄⁺ depend on the site of nitrate reduction in plants.

In this study we use the term "root-derived CO₂" for the sum of actual root respiration and CO₂ derived from microbial activity in the immediate vicinity of the root (rhizomicrobial respiration) and "SOM-derived respiration" for CO₂ evolved after microbial decomposition of soil organic matter in root free soil. We selected maize and lupine since the two species have different sites of nitrate reduction: Zea mays reduces half of the NO_{3} in shoots and half in roots and *Lupinus albus* reduces the major part of the $NO_{\overline{3}}$ in roots (Pate, 1973). The objective of the present work was to confirm or refute that feeding lupine and maize with NH⁺₄ reduces rootderived efflux from soil compared to feeding with NO_3^- . Three nitrogen treatments were applied to each species: nitrate fertilizer, ammonium fertilizer, and a control treatment without any N fertilizer. A nitrification inhibitor was used to prevent microbial conversion of NH_4^+ to NO_3^- in soil. Pulse labeling of plants in a ${}^{14}CO_2$ atmosphere was applied to quantify the effect of both fertilizers on recently (14C) and total assimilated C. The difference between total CO₂ efflux from the plant-soil system and microbial respiration from bare soil incubated at the same conditions was compared with the results of the principal method of labeling for root-derived CO₂ quantification.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Soil

The soil, a loamy Haplic Luvisol, was taken from the top 10 cm (Ap horizon) of the Karlshof long-term field experimental station of the University of Hohenheim. Soil samples were air dried, mixed and passed through 5 mm sieve. The soil contained 1.5% C_{tot} and 0.14% N_{tot} , with 2.9% sand, 74.5% silt and 22.6% clay; its pH was 6.5.

2.2. Plants and growth conditions

Centrifuge tubes of 50 ml were filled with 50 g of soil each and were used for growing the plants. Twenty four pots remained unplanted to measure microbial respiration from bare soil.

Seeds of maize (Zea mays L.) and lupine (Lupinus albus L.) were germinated on moist filter paper in Petri dishes for 2 days. Germinated seedlings were transplanted to the PVC pots, with one seedling per pot, and were grown under controlled laboratory conditions with a 12 h/12 h day/night period at a constant day and night temperature of 25 \pm 0.5 °C, and with a photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) intensity of approximately 800 μ mol m⁻¹ s⁻¹ at the top of the plant canopy. A constant day/night temperature was chosen to avoid the effects of changing temperature on CO₂ fluxes. During the experiment, soil water content in each pot was maintained gravimetrically at about 60% of the available field capacity by checking its weight daily. Before the labeling, the weakest plants were eliminated and only twenty-four plants similar in development and height were chosen for the following treatments. Pots with bare soil were exposed to the same incubating conditions.

2.3. ¹⁴C labeling and N application

Two species were labeled with ¹⁴C: 12 plants of maize were chosen and labeled in the morning on the 20th day after germination; 12 plants of lupine were labeled on the 36th day after germination.

One day before the labeling, the top of each pot was sealed with a silicone paste (NG 3170 from Thauer and Co., Dresden, Germany). The seal was tested for air leaks. Pumping the air through the soil column flushed out the CO_2 accumulated in the soil during the plant's growth.

Three nitrogen treatments were applied 4 h before ¹⁴C labeling: (a) a nitrate treatment, with ¹⁵N as K¹⁵NO₃; (b) an ammonium treatment, with ¹⁵N as (¹⁵NH₄)₂SO₄; and (c) a control variant without any added nitrogen. Four plants of each species were exposed to each N treatment (¹⁵N enrichment 50 atom %). Dicyandiamide (DCD) at 20 mg kg⁻¹ soil was applied in solution with ¹⁵N fertilizer to all the treatments in order to achieve an effective nitrification inhibition throughout the soil column (in the ammonium treatment) and to balance the side effects of the inhibitor (in the nitrate and control treatments). The amount of ¹⁵N applied to a pot was calculated to produce an average concentration of 60 mg of N kg⁻¹ for each N species added. Four unplanted pots were fertilized with half amount of nitrate or ammonium to estimate the effect of N fertilization on respiration of soil microorganisms.

The ¹⁴C labeling process has been described in detail by Kuzyakov et al. (1999) and Kuzyakov and Cheng (2001) and Domanski et al. (2001). Briefly, sealed pots with plants were put in a plexiglas chamber, ¹⁴CO₂ was introduced to the chamber by adding 1 mL of 5 M H_2SO_4 to a $Na_2^{14}CO_3$ (1.5 MBq) solution. This allowed complete evolution of ¹⁴CO₂ into the chamber atmosphere. After a 2 h-labeling period, trapping of CO₂ from the chamber through 10 mL of 1 M NaOH solution was started to remove the remaining unassimilated ¹⁴CO₂. Then the chamber was opened. Pots with the plants were connected to an output of membrane pumps by tubes: air was pumped through every single pot from bottom to top. Another tube was connecting each pot to a CO₂ trapping tube, filled with 3 mL of 1 M sodium hydroxide (NaOH) solution. The output of the trapping tube was connected to the input of the membrane pump. Therefore, the air containing CO₂ evolved from the soil respiration was circulating in a closed system: from the plant-soil system to the trapping solution to the membrane pump and back to the plant-soil system.

2.4. Sampling and analyses

NaOH in the trapping tubes was changed for the first time 6 h after the labeling and then twice a day, in the morning and in the evening, for 6 days after the labeling, with the aim of collecting CO_2 evolved in the rhizosphere during day- and night-periods. NaOH traps were analyzed for total carbonate content and for ¹⁴C activity.

The ¹⁴C activity was measured in 1 mL aliquots of NaOH with 2 mL of the scintillation cocktail EcoLite⁺ (ICN) after the decay of chemiluminescence by a liquid scintillation counter (MicroBeta, TriLux). Total assimilated ¹⁴CO₂ was determined as a difference between the ¹⁴CO₂ added to the labeling chamber and the ¹⁴CO₂ recovered from the solution with the remaining unassimilated ¹⁴CO₂.

To estimate total CO₂ efflux from the soil, CO₂ trapped in NaOH solution was precipitated with a 0.5 M barium chloride (BaCl₂) solution and then NaOH was titrated with 0.1 M hydrochloric acid (HCl) against phenolphthalein indicator (Zibilske, 1994).

On the 6th day after each labeling, all the plants were harvested: each shoot was cut at the base, the lid of the pot was opened, and each root-soil column was pulled out of the pot. Roots were carefully washed with deionized water to remove soil particles. Shoots and roots were dried at 70 °C, weighed and ground with ball mill (Fa Retsch) for analysis of C_{tot} , N_{tot} , and ¹⁵N content. A total of 3 g of soil were taken from each soil sample, dried at 70 °C and grounded for the same purposes. C_{tot} , N_{tot} , and the isotope ratio ¹⁵N/¹⁴N in plant and soil samples were determined using Carlo Erba NA 1500 gas chromatograph (Carlo Erba Instruments, Milano, Italy) coupled on isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Delta plus IRMS 251, Finnigan Mat, Bremen, Germany).

2.5. Statistics

The experiment was conducted with four replicates. All replicates were analyzed for ¹⁴C, C- and N-contents in shoots and roots. ¹⁴C data are presented as the percentage of ¹⁴C assimilated during exposure of plants to the pulse labeling. All data were analyzed with SYSTAT 11.0 (SPSS Inc.). Effects of different N treatment (no N, NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N) and sampling time (day and night) were tested using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). We have calculated the least significant difference (LSD 0.05) in a post hoc Newman-Keuls test to identify differing treatments.

3. Results

3.1. Dynamics of $^{14}CO_2$ efflux from a soil compartment with Lupinus albus and Zea mays

3.1.1. Lupinus albus

The maximum of isotopically enriched respiration was registered within the first 6 h after the start of the labeling (Fig. 1a). Soon after, the emission rate declined from the maximum levels of 3.4% for control, 5.8% for NH₄⁺-N, and 7.3% for NO₃⁻-N of total assimilated ¹⁴C d⁻¹ to 0.9% C d⁻¹ on the 3rd day.

Rhizosphere respiration of recently assimilated C (¹⁴C) from the soil in all N treatments showed clear diurnal dynamics. The diurnal dynamics of recently assimilated ¹⁴C in respired CO₂ were strongly pronounced for non-fertilized plants. This is especially obvious after calculation of the differences between N and control treatments. The maximum difference between control and soil with added N was found during the night periods and minimum values were found during the day (Fig. 1b).

The difference between plants fertilized by NO_3^-N and NH_4^+-N in the quantity of ¹⁴C respired, was highest during the first 2 days after the labeling. After 2 days already no significant differences between N treatments were measured (Fig. 1a).

Cumulative ¹⁴C respiration of roots and rhizosphere microorganisms during 6 days after the labeling reached 6.8% of assimilated ¹⁴C in soil without N fertilization, 8.3% for the NH⁴₄-N treatment, and 9.3% for the NO₃⁻-N treatment (Fig. 1c), and was significantly different (p < 0.001) between all N treatments.

The ¹⁴C losses from the soil were recalculated per unit of root biomass (Fig. 2b) measured 6 days after the labeling. Differences between the maximum ¹⁴CO₂ emissions were chosen for the comparison between the N treatments, as it relates directly to the root-derived respiration. Although there were no significant differences in root biomass between treatments (p = 0.1) (Fig. 2a), strong effects of N fertilization on recently assimilated C in CO₂ were observed. Taking the control treatment without N as a 100% reference, the respiration losses of ¹⁴C from the plant-soil system with lupine after 6 days amounted to 182% under NH⁴₄-N and 268% under NO³₃-N (p < 0.001).

3.1.2. Zea mays

For all N treatments, the maximum intensity of ${}^{14}CO_2$ efflux was reached between 26 and 30 h after ${}^{14}CO_2$ application (Fig. 3a). The emission rate declined rapidly from the maximum levels of 3.2% for NH⁺₄-N and control, and 5.6% for NO³₃-N of total assimilated ${}^{14}Cd^{-1}$,



Fig. 1. (a) Dynamics of ¹⁴CO₂ from the soil (\pm SE) with *Lupinus albus* under three N treatments: control, NH₄⁺-N, and NO₃⁻-N for 5.5 days after ¹⁴CO₂ pulse labeling of shoots; (b) differences between control without N and soil with NO₃⁻-N and NH₄⁺-N applied, as % of control. Day (white) and night (gray) periods are shown; (c) cumulative ¹⁴CO₂ efflux (\pm SE) from the soil with *Lupinus albus* under different N treatments.

to the value of about 0.9% C d⁻¹ on the 4th day. The diurnal dynamic of respired ¹⁴C was more clearly observed than in the case of lupine. The differences between control and soil with applied N repeated the shape of the lupine curve (Figs. 1b and 3b), with maximum values at night and minima during the day. The absolute difference in the quantity of ¹⁴C respired between plants fertilized by NO₃⁻-N and NH₄⁺-N was again highest during the first days after the labeling (Fig. 3a).

Cumulative ¹⁴C respired by roots and rhizosphere microorganisms during the 6 days of the experiment reached 6.0% for the control, and 5.6% and 7.2% for the NH⁴₄-N and NO³₃-N treatments respectively (Fig. 3c). The difference in cumulative respiration between the two types of N applied was significant (p < 0.001), but no difference was observed between NH⁴₄-N and the control (p > 0.05).

Different N fertilizers significantly affected (p < 0.01) root biomass of maize with a lowest values being 0.23 g for NH₄⁺-N fertilized plants and the highest being 0.38 g for the control (Fig. 4b). The ratio between treatments in the quantity of respired ¹⁴C, as related per unit of root biomass (Fig. 4a), was similar to that O. Gavrichkova, Y. Kuzyakov / Soil Biology & Biochemistry 40 (2008) 2835-2842



Fig. 2. (a) Belowground biomass of *Lupinus albus* (±SE) at the end of the experiment: 5.5 days after the labeling; (b) ¹⁴C (peak values) respired from root-soil system with *Lupinus albus* in % of control without N, related for the unit of root biomass. Letters above indicate the significance of the differences at p = 0.05 between treatments.

of lupine. Losses of ¹⁴C from the plant-soil system with maize reached 173% under the NH₄⁺-N treatment and 221% under the NO₃⁻-N treatment (p < 0.001), again relative to the control.

3.2. Total CO_2 efflux from planted soil with Lupinus albus and Zea mays

The difference between total CO_2 efflux from the root-soil system and microbial respiration from bare soil incubated at the same conditions was used to calculate the CO_2 respired by roots and associated rhizosphere microorganisms (root-derived respiration) and to compare with the results from ¹⁴C labeling for root-derived CO_2 .

3.2.1. Lupinus albus

Total and root-derived CO₂ efflux from the soil in all planted treatments showed a clear diurnal dynamic (Fig. 5a,b). Average total CO₂ respired from the plant-soil system was lowest for the control (3.13 mg C d⁻¹ pot⁻¹), and amounted to 4.36 mg C d⁻¹ pot⁻¹ for NH⁴₄-N and 5.58 mg C d⁻¹ pot⁻¹ for NO₃⁻-N. The difference in total CO₂ respired from soils with different types of N applied was significant during the whole measurement period (p < 0.05) (Fig. 5a). On the average, the largest root-derived respiration during the day and during the night was observed under NO₃⁻-N even if the difference with NH⁴₄-N was not significant (Fig. 5b).

 CO_2 efflux from unplanted soil had no diurnal changes and the difference between N treatments was not significant (p = 0.74) (Fig. 5b).

The value of root-derived CO₂, calculated as a difference between total CO₂ efflux from soil with roots and microbial respiration from bare soil, was recalculated per units of root biomass and presented as a percent of the control (Fig. 5c): root-derived CO₂ from the plantsoil system with lupine was found to be 233% for the NH₄⁺-N treatment and 318% for the NO₃⁻-N treatment (p < 0.001).



Fig. 3. (a) Dynamics of ¹⁴CO₂ from the soil (±SE) with *Zea mays* under three N treatments: control, NH⁺₄-N and NO⁻₃-N for 6 days after ¹⁴CO₂ pulse labeling of shoots; (b) differences between control without N and soil with NO⁻₃-N and NH⁺₄-N applied, as % of control. Day (white) and night (gray) periods are shown; (c) cumulative ¹⁴CO₂ efflux (±SE) from the soil with *Zea mays* under different N treatments.

3.2.2. Zea mays

A clear diurnal dynamic of total and root-derived CO₂ from the soil for all N treatments was observed also for the plant-soil system with maize (Fig. 6a,b). Average total CO₂ respired from the plant-soil system was lowest for the control (3.94 mg C d⁻¹ pot⁻¹), while under NH⁺₄-N, the efflux rate was 4.79 mg C d⁻¹ pot⁻¹ and under NO⁻₃-N, it was 5.31 mg C d⁻¹ pot⁻¹. However, the difference between the two N treatments was not significant (p > 0.05) (Fig. 6a). The largest average root-derived respiration in the day and in the night was observed under nitrate N (Fig. 6b).

Relative to the control, the losses of CO_2 from the plant-soil system were 122% under the NH⁴₄-N treatment and 164% under the NO³₃-N treatment (Fig. 4c). However the difference between the two N treatments was not found to be significant.

O. Gavrichkova, Y. Kuzyakov / Soil Biology & Biochemistry 40 (2008) 2835-2842

14

12

а

0.48 а а 0.4 а root biomass, g 0.32 b 0.24 0.16 0.08 0 NH4-N NO3-N Control 250 ¹⁴C losses (% of control without N) а b b 200 150 с 100 50 0 NH4-N NO3-N Control

Fig. 4. (a) Belowground biomass of Zea mays (±SE) at the end of the experiment: 6 days after the labeling; (b) ¹⁴C (peak values) respired from root-soil system with Zea mays in % of control without N, related for the unit of root biomass. Letters above indicate the significance of the differences at p = 0.05 between treatments.

3.3. ¹⁵N uptake by plants

Significantly more ¹⁵N was recovered from shoots and roots of lupine plants under NH⁺-N (p < 0.001) (Fig. 7). The major part of the ^{15}N remained in roots (58% for NH₄⁺-N and 64% for NO₃⁻-N).

Zea mays took up twice as much ¹⁵N as the lupine, the distribution of ¹⁵N also differed: around 70% of ¹⁵N was allocated in aboveground biomass (Fig. 7). Significantly more ¹⁵N was recovered from plants grown under NH₄⁺-N (p < 0.001).

Maximum ¹⁴CO₂ efflux from plant-soil systems was related to the unit of N uptake (Fig. 7, in the corner). ¹⁴C respiration under NO_3^--N was 2.6 times higher than the one under NH_4^+-N for lupine and 1.6 times higher for maize.

4. Discussion

4.1. Root-derived CO₂ – comparison of two methods

Two methods for estimating root-derived CO₂ efflux were used in this study: (1) pulse labeling in a ¹⁴C atmosphere with subsequent tracing of recently assimilated ¹⁴CO₂ from soil; and (2) comparison between the CO₂ efflux from soil with plants and that from bare soil, the difference being accepted here as equal to the contribution of plant roots to the total CO₂ efflux.

In our experiment, both methods showed very similar results, with plants grown under NO3-N respiring more C than those grown under NH⁺₄-N: for lupine the method based on ¹⁴C gave an 47% increase in respiration for NO₃⁻-N relative to NH₄⁺-N while the second method gave an 37% increase (Figs. 2b and 5c). For maize, both methods were also similar in magnitude: the ¹⁴C method



treatments: control, NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N, day (white) and night (gray) periods are shown (b) positive values: root-derived CO2 (as a difference between total and microbial respiration from bulk soil) (light gray), and negative values: microbial CO2 (dark gray) efflux from the soil under Lupinus albus by three N treatments: averages for day and night periods. Letters above indicate the significance of the differences at p = 0.05 between the treatments, separately for root-derived and soil-derived CO₂; (c) root-derived CO₂ (as a difference between total and microbial respiration) from plantsoil system with Lupinus albus in % of control without N, recalculated for unit of root biomass. Letters above indicate the significance of the differences at p = 0.05 between the treatments.

giving a 27% difference between the two N fertilizer types and the second method giving 33% (Figs. 4b and 6c). The suitability of ¹⁴C or ¹³C labeling and the following tracing of

recently assimilated C in order to quantify root-originated CO₂ has been confirmed by many studies (Rygiewicz and Andersen, 1994; Kuzyakov and Cheng, 2001; Kuzyakov, 2006; Wang et al., 2005; Carbone and Trumbore, 2007). Labeling of plants is one of few approaches which potentially permit estimation of root-originated respiration minimizing the soil disturbance.

The second approach, comparing planted and unplanted soil, is a cheap and simple one, but it gives only a crude estimate of rootderived CO₂ and SOM-derived CO₂ from planted soil (Kuzyakov,

- Control

– NH4-N

NO3-N

O. Gavrichkova, Y. Kuzyakov / Soil Biology & Biochemistry 40 (2008) 2835-2842



Fig. 6. (a) Total CO₂ efflux (±SE) from the soil with *Zea mays* under three N treatments: control, NH₄⁴-N and NO₃-N, day (white) and night (gray) periods are shown; (b) positive values: root-derived CO₂ (as difference between total and microbial respiration) (light gray), and negative values: microbial CO₂ (dark gray) efflux from the soil under *Zea mays* by three N treatments: averages for day and night periods. Letters above indicate the significance of the differences at p = 0.05 between the treatments, separately for root-derived and soil-derived respiration; (c) root-derived CO₂ (as a difference between total and microbial respiration) is % of control without N, recalculated for the unit of root biomass. Letters above indicate the significance of the differences at p = 0.05 between treatments.

2006). Possible errors in the method come from the fact that it does not consider possible interactions between growing roots and SOM decomposition (Cheng et al., 2003), the so-called rhizosphere priming effects (Kuzyakov, 2002). The cycling of nutrients, the water regime, and temperature balance in the planted soil are also different from that in the unplanted soil (Fisher and Gosz, 1986; Ross et al., 2001; Paterson, 2003; Cheng and Kuzyakov, 2005). Additionally, it does not allow separating the rhizomicrobial respiration, associated with microbial decomposition of rhizodeposits and dead roots from the root respiration, which can be estimated using pulse labeling in the form of the first CO₂ evolved after the pulse, assuming the temporal difference between the CO₂ evolved from different sources.



Fig. 7. ¹⁵N content (±SE) in shoots (positive values, light gray bars) and roots (negative values, dark gray bars) of *Lupinus albus* and *Zea mays* under two types of N fertilizers applied: NH₄⁻-N and NO₃⁻⁻N. Letters above indicate the significance of the differences at p = 0.05 between the treatments, separately for shoots and roots. In the upper corner: ¹⁴C (peak values) respired from plant-soil system with *Zea may and Lupinus albus* per unit of ¹⁵N recovered from roots. Letters above indicate the significance of the differences at p = 0.05 between treatments.

In our study, we did not use the absolute values of ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2$ and unlabeled CO₂, but instead related them to the changes in root-derived CO₂ induced by the change in the form of N fertilization. Therefore, despite their mentioned differences, both approaches for estimating the root-derived CO₂ showed similar results.

4.2. Diurnal changes of total and ${}^{14}C-CO_2$ efflux from the soil

Many studies confirm that assimilation of CO₂ and the downward transport of C in plants, as well as the utilization of assimilated C by root respiration, are very rapid processes (Weixin et al., 1993; Gregory and Atwell, 1991; Kuzyakov et al., 1999, 2002; Kuzyakov and Cheng, 2001; Nguyen et al., 1999; Swinnen et al., 1994). The time lag between photosynthetic CO₂ uptake and the ensuing release of C through root respiration varies among studies from minutes to days. For example, Kuzyakov and Cheng (2001) found the first CO₂ evolution from soil with Lolium perenne within the first 4 h after labeling while Weixin et al. (1993) found the beginning of emission of CO₂ from winter wheat and rye to occur within the first 30 min. Field studies usually report lags higher than found in the laboratory; Tang et al. (2005) found evidence for time lags from 7 to 12 h up to 5-6 days, Horwath et al. (1994) reported a lag of 2–3 days for tree-soil systems. We found the maximum ¹⁴C efflux from soil within 6 h after the labeling for lupine and within 26-30 h for maize. As the growing conditions, which could influence the soil CO₂ production rate and soil air vertical flow through the soil pot (soil water content, soil temperature) (Tang et al., 2003), were equal for both species, the difference in lags is connected to species-specific or growth-stage-specific differences in the transport rates of assimilates in lupine and maize. The difference in the lags cannot be ascribed to differences in path length or plant size (Farrar and Jones, 2000; Carbone and Trumbore, 2007) as both species were of a similar height at the labeling. The lupine plants were labeled on the eleventh leaf stage (v11) and maize on the fifth (v5). The growth stage could influence the metabolic orientation of plants, influencing source (photosynthetically active leaves, which supply a new C) - sink (developing organs of plants, which compete for the new C) interactions. The flow of C to sinks depends on the strength of the sink, the sink size, and the growth rate (Dickson, 1991; Farrar and Jones, 2000). In the case of maize in the present growth stage, intensively growing shoot cells could have preference over roots in the competition for recently assimilated C. The root/ shoot ratio of lupine was 0.3, indicating a possible intensive rootgrowing process, compared to 1.0 for maize with an already wellestablished root system. Its worth noting that the difference in the N acquisition strategy between lupine and maize makes the comparison between these species particularly complex. As an example other studies showed that symbiosis of lupine with rhizobacteria increases the C sink and so may accelerate downward transport of assimilates compared to non-legume plants like maize (Layzell et al., 1979), however the nodulation of lupine was not quantified here.

Diurnal changes in ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2$ and total efflux from planted soil were observed for both species and all N treatments (Figs. 1a, 3a, 5a and 6a). In our experiment, plants were grown at a single constant temperature during both day and night. As CO₂ efflux from unplanted soil was independent of a day/night changes (Figs. 5b and 6b), the daytime increase in ${}^{14}\text{C}$ evolution is attributed to the assimilation of C by photosynthesis and the ensuing rapid translocation to roots, with an associated signal in the root-derived CO₂. This observation was confirmed also by Kuzyakov and Cheng (2001).

4.3. Carbon costs of nitrate reduction – comparison between species and different N supplies

We chose two species with different sites of nitrate reduction. According to Pate (1973), Lupinus albus reduces the major part of incoming nitrate in roots. On the contrary, Zea mays reduce only half of the nitrate in roots and the other half translocates to the shoots for reduction. This difference in the reduction site could lead to differences in the quantity of CO₂ respired per unit of N absorbed, given that in non-green root cells and in darkness, the process of nitrate reduction is supplied by reducing equivalents from the degradation of carbohydrates with an additional CO₂ production (Aslam and Huffacker, 1982; Ninomiya and Sato, 1984), whereas the same process performed in leaves during the day is coupled directly with photosynthetic electron transport (Aslam and Huffacker, 1982; Atkins et al., 1979; Warner and Kleinhofs, 1992) without additional CO₂ evolution. Following these observations, we expected to observe differences in the quantity of CO₂ respired by a given species for different types of N supply and between two different species grown using either NO₃⁻-N or NH₄⁺-N fertilizer.

As no effect of N form was observed on the respiration from unplanted soil we can conclude that the form of N (NO₃⁻ or NH₄⁺) affected mainly root-derived respiration and not SOM-derived one. But, a major question in this work is whether the differences in respiration reflect actual root respiration rather than exudation and microbial respiration in the rhizosphere. Its clear that N form affects respired C, but both plants and microbes have to reduce NO₃⁻ to NH₄⁺ before assimilating it, and the C costs might be similar, making it difficult to simply conclude that any extra C respired has a rootorigin. Thus, while we cannot establish the answer to the question definitively, we believe that the time course of respiration, as viewed in the light of previous studies, strongly suggests the observed differences are due to changes in root respiration rather than microbial one. After Kuzyakov et al. (1999) and Kuzyakov and Domanski (2002) the $^{14}CO_2$ efflux after pulse labeling originating from different sources appears at different time after the labeling: ¹⁴CO₂ from root respiration occurs earlier than ¹⁴CO₂ from microbial respiration by decomposition of root exudates because the latter consists of a chain of successive processes: exudation from the root, intake by microorganisms, and only then respiration by microorganisms. It was shown on Lolium perenne that the actual root respiration affects the ¹⁴CO₂ efflux curve only during the first 24 h after pulse labeling and the maximum effect of exudation on rhizomicrobial respiration predominates in the ¹⁴CO₂ efflux only after about 1–2 days after the pulse labeling (Kuzyakov et al., 2001; Kuzyakov and Domanski, 2002). In our study, for both plant species, N treatment affected ¹⁴CO₂ efflux most during periods when the dominant source of ¹⁴CO₂ was likely root respiration. Therefore, the results are consistent with N form having a significant effect on respiratory costs of plants which is associated with NO₃⁻-N reduction and assimilation.

Additionally, the results of the ¹⁵N analyses in shoots and roots demonstrated that all plants took up much more ¹⁵N under NH \ddagger -N than under NO₃-N, making the difference between two types of N applied in the quantity of the respired C even more dramatic. This could be used as an extra prove of the costliness of nitrate reduction. Adding this, its worth to note that we are operating with a total amount of recovered ¹⁵N, the plants were harvested on the 6th day after the fertilizing and the distribution of ¹⁵N between shoots and roots during this period could change significantly.

Between species comparisons demonstrated a significant difference in the amount of CO₂ evolved under NO₃⁻-N and NH₄⁺-N supply: respiration under NO₃⁻-N relative to that under NH₄⁺-N was 2.6 times higher for lupine and 1.6 times higher for maize. Although microbes also pay the cost for assimilation of NO₃-N and might cause an increase in ¹⁴C respired, the effect would be the same across plant species and so we consider the observed variation in respired ¹⁴C to be determined by plant physiology. A higher difference between the two N fertilizers in the case of lupine could be explained by the fact that lupine is referred to the plants reducing the major quantity of nitrates in roots, resulting in an enhanced demand for reducing equivalents of the carbohydrates degradation-origin with a subsequent evolution of CO_2 (Pate, 1973; Ninomiya and Sato, 1984). The result achieved by ¹⁴C pulse labeling was supported also by an independent method based on the measurements of unlabeled total CO₂ respired from planted and unplanted soil, although between species variation was not so pronounced (Figs. 5c and 6c).

It should be mentioned also that the location of the nitrate reduction site is not species- but rather cultivars-dependent (Schilling et al., 2006; Silveira et al., 2001). Moreover, environmental conditions and the quantity of N could also affect and change the proportion of nitrate reduced in root and shoots. Atkins et al. (1979, 1980) and Oscarson and Larsson (1986) observed an increased portion of nitrate reduction in shoots when more NO_3 became available. So, attention must be paid when choosing the species and cultivation conditions.

We conclude that the form of N supply has a strong effect on the amount of root-derived CO_2 respired from two plants characterized by different nitrate reduction sites. This was determined from two plant species using two independent methods based on recently assimilated (¹⁴C labeled) and total (unlabeled) CO_2 .

4.4. Conclusions

Fertilization of lupine and maize with labeled nitrate ($K^{15}NO_3$) and ammonium (($^{15}NH_4$)₂SO₄), combined with pulse labeling of plants in $^{14}CO_2$ atmosphere allowed evaluating the effect of N form on recently respired CO₂ efflux from the rhizosphere. In respect to ammonium, nitrate addition significantly augments root-derived respiration from both plants, influencing also the contribution of autotrophic respiration to the total CO₂ efflux. This makes essential to account for the form in which the soil N was available for plant uptake and for the location of nitrate reduction site in plants in modeling and while separating estimation of individual CO₂ sources which contribute to total soil CO₂ efflux.

Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. Rick Wehr for reviewing the manuscript and useful comments which improved the original variant.

Author's personal copy

2842

O. Gavrichkova, Y. Kuzyakov / Soil Biology & Biochemistry 40 (2008) 2835-2842

References

- Andrews, M., 1986. The partitioning of nitrate assimilation between root and shoot of higher plants. Plant Cell Environment 9, 511-519.
- Aslam, M., Huffacker, R.C., 1982. In vivo nitrate reduction in roots and shoots of barley (Hordeum vulgare L.) seedlings in light and darkness. Plant Physiology 70, 1009 - 1013.
- Atkins, C.A., Pate, J.S., Layzell, D.B., 1979. Assimilation and transport of nitrogen in non nodulated (NO_3 grown) Lupinus albus L. Plant Physiology 64, 1078-1082.
- Atkins, C.A., Pate, J.S., Griffiths, G.J., White, S.T., 1980. Economy of carbon and nitrogen in nodulated and non nodulated (NO_3 grown) cow pea [Vigna unguiculata (L.) Walp. Plant Physiology 66, 978–983. Barker, A.V., Volk, R.J., Jackson, W.A., 1996. Growth and nitrogen distribution
- patterns in bean plants Phaseolus vulgaris L. subjected to ammonium nutrition: I Effects of carbonates and acidity control. Soil Science Society of America Proceedings 30, 228-232.
- Barneix, A.J., Breteler, H., Siebe, C., Van de Geijn, S.C., 1984. Gas and ion exchanges in wheat roots after nitrogen supply. Physiologia Plantarum 61, 357–362. Blacquiere, T., 1987, Ammonium and nitrate nutrition in Plantago lanceolata and
- P. major ssp. major. II: Efficiency of root respiration and growth. Comparison of measured and theoretical values of growth respiration. Plant Physiology and Biochemistry 25, 775-785.
- Carbone, M.S., Trumbore, S.E., 2007. Contribution of new photosynthetic assimilates to respiration by perennial grasses and shrubs: residence times and allocation patterns. New Phytologist 126, 124-135.
- Chaillou, S., Rideout, J.W., Raper, C.D., Morot-Gaudry, J.F., 1994. Responses of soy bean to ammonium and nitrate supplied in combination to the whole root system or separately in a split root system. Physiologia Plantarum 90, 259-268.
- Cheng, W., Kuzyakov, Y., 2005. Root effects on soil organic matter decomposition. In: Wright, S., Zobel, R. (Eds.), Roots and Soil Management: Interactions between Roots and the Soil. Agronomy Monograph 48, American Society of Agronomy, Madison, Wisconsin, USA, pp. 119–143. Cheng, W., Johnson, D.W., Fu, S., 2003. Rhizosphere effects on decomposition
- controls of plant species, phenology and fertilization. Soil Science Society of American Journal 67, 1418-1427.
- Dickson, R.E., 1991. Assimilate distribution and storage. In: Raghavendra, A.S. (Ed.), Physiology of Trees. Wiley, J. and Sons. Inc., New York, USA, pp. 51–85. Domanski, G., Kuzyakov, Y., Siniakina, S.V., Stahr, K., 2001. Carbon flows in the
- rhizosphere of Lolium perenne. Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil Science 164, 381-387.
- Farrar, J.F., Jones, D.L., 2000. The control of carbon acquisition by roots. New Phytologist 147, 43-53.
- Fisher, F.M., Gosz, J.R., 1986. Effects of trenching on soil processes and properties in a New Mexico mixed-conifer forest. Biology and Fertility of Soils 2, 35-42.
- Gregory, P.J., Atwell, B.J., 1991. The fate of carbon in pulse labeled crops of barley and wheat. Plant Soil 136, 205-213.
- Horwath, W.R., Pretziger, K.S., Paul, E.A., 1994. C allocation in tree-soil systems. Tree Physiology 14, 1163-1176.
- Kuzyakov, Y., 2002. Review: factors affecting rhizosphere priming effects. Journal of
- Plant Nutrition and Soil Science 165, 382–396.
 Kuzyakov, Y., 2006. Sources of CO₂ efflux from soil and review of partitioning methods. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 38, 425–448.
 Kuzyakov, Y., Cheng, W., 2001. Photosynthesis controls of rhizosphere respiration
- and organic matter decomposition. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 14, 1915-1925.
- Kuzyakov, Y., Domanski, G., 2002. Model of rhizodeposition and CO₂ efflux from planted soil and its validation by ¹⁴C pulse labeling of ryegrass. Plant and Soil 239. 87-102.
- Kuzyakov, Y., Kretzschmar, A., Stahr, K., 1999. Contribution of Lolium perenne rhizodeposition to carbon turnover of pasture soil. Plant and Soil 213, 127-136.
- Kuzyakov, Y., Ehrensberger, H., Stahr, K., 2001. Carbon partitioning and belowground translocation by Lolium perenne. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 33, 61 - 74

- Lasa, B., Frechilla, S., Aparicio-Tejo, P.M., Lamsfus, C., 2002. Alternative pathway respiration is associated with ammonium ion sensitivity in spinach and pea plants. Plant Growth Regulation 37, 49-55.
- Layzell, D.B., Rainbird, R.M., Atkins, C.A., Pate, J.S., 1979. Economy of photosynthate use in nitrogen fixing legume nodules. Observations on two contrasting symbioses. Plant Physiology 64, 888–891. Nguyen, C., Todorovic, C., Robin, C., Christophe, A., Guckert, A., 1999. Continuous
- monitoring of rhizosphere respiration after labelling of plant shoots with ¹⁴CO₂. Plant Soil 212, 191-201.
- Ninomiya, Y., Sato, S., 1984. A ferredoxin-like electron carrier from non-green cultured tobacco cells. Plant Cell Physiology 25, 453-458.
- Oaks, A., Hirel, B., 1985. Nitrogen metabolism in roots. Annual Review of Plant Physiology 36, 345–365.
- Oscarson, P., Larsson, C.M., 1986. Relations between uptake and utilization of NO_3 in Pisum growing exponentially under nitrogen limitation. Physiologia Plantarum 67, 109–117.
- Pate, J.S., 1973. Uptake, assimilation and transport of nitrogen compounds by plants. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 5, 109-119.
- Pate, J.S., Layzell, D.B., 1990. Energetic and biological costs of nitrogen assimilation. In: Miflin, B.J., Lea, P.J. (Eds.), The Biochemistry of Plants. A Comprehensive Treatise. Academic Press, San Diego, New York, Boston, London, Sydney, Tokyo, Toronto, pp. 1-42.
- Paterson, E., 2003. Importance of rhizodeposition in the coupling of plant and microbial productivity. European Journal of Soil Science 54, 741–750. Purvis, A.C., Shewfelt, R.L., 1993. Does the alternative pathway ameliorate chilling
- injury in sensitive plant tissues? Physiologia Plantarum 88, 712–718.
- Ross, D.J., Scott, N.A., Tate, K.R., Rodda, N.J., Townsend, J.A., 2001. Root effects on soil carbon and nitrogen cycling in a Pinus radiata D.Don plantation on coastal sand. Australian Journal of Soil Research 39, 1027-1039.
- Rygiewicz, P.T., Andersen, C.P., 1994. Mycorrhizae alter quality and quantity of carbon allocated below ground. Nature 369, 58–60. Schilling, G., Adgo, E., Schulze, J., 2006. Carbon costs of nitrate reduction in broad
- been (Vicia faba L.) and pea (Pisum sativum L.) plants. Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil Science 169, 691–698.
- Silveira, J.A.G., Matos, J.C.S., Cecatto, V.M., Viegas, R.A., Oliveira, J.T.A., 2001. Nitrate reductase activity, distribution, and response to nitrate in two contrasting Phaseolus species inoculated with *Rhizobium* spp. Environmental and Experimental Botany 46, 37-46.
- Swinnen, J., Van Veen, J.A., Merckx, R., 1994. ¹⁴C pulse labeling of field-grown spring wheat: an evaluation of its use in rhizosphere carbon budget estimation. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 26, 161-170.
- Tang, J., Baldocchi, D., Qi, Y., Xu, L., 2003. Assessing soil CO2 efflux using continuous measurements of CO_2 profiles in soils with small solid-state sensors. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 118, 207–220.
- Tang, J., Baldocchi, D.D., Xu, L., 2005. Tree photosynthesis modulates soil respiration on a diurnal time scale. Global Change Biology 11, 1298-1304.
- Tischner, R., 2000. Nitrate uptake and reduction in higher and lower plants. Invited review. Plant. Cell and Environment 23, 1005-1024.
- Vuylsteker, C., Leleu, O., Rambour, S., 1997. Influence of BAP and NAA on the expression of nitrate reductase in excised chicory roots. Journal of Experimental Botany 48, 1079-1085.
- Wang, Z.P., Li, L.H., Han, X.G., Li, Z.Q., Chen, Q.S., 2005. Dynamics and allocation of recently photo-assimilated carbon in an Inner Mongolia temperate steppe. Environmental and Experimental Botany 59, 1-10.
- Warner, R.L., Kleinhofs, A., 1992. Genetics and molecular biology of nitrate metabolism in higher plants. Physiologia Plantarum 85, 245-252.
- Weixin, C., Coleman, D.C., Carroll, C.R., Hoffman, C.A., 1993. In situ measurement of root respiration and soluble C concentrations in the rhizosphere. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 25, 1189–1196.
- Zibilske, L.M., 1994. Carbon mineralization. In: Weaver, R.W., Angle, S., Bottomley, P., Bezdicek, D., Smith, S., Tabatabai, A., Wollum, A. (Eds.), Methods of Soil Analysis, Part 2. Microbiological and Biochemical Properties. Soil Science Society of America, Madison, pp. 835-864.