

Three-source partitioning of CO₂ efflux from maize field soil by ¹³C natural abundance

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Abstract

A natural-¹³C-labeling approach—formerly observed under controlled conditions—was tested in the field to partition total soil CO₂ efflux into root respiration, rhizomicrobial respiration, and soil organic matter (SOM) decomposition. Different results were expected in the field due to different climate, site, and microbial properties in contrast to the laboratory. Within this isotopic method, maize was planted on soil with C₃-vegetation history and the total CO₂ efflux from soil was subdivided by isotopic mass balance. The C₄-derived C in soil microbial biomass was also determined. Additionally, in a root-exclusion approach, root- and SOM-derived CO₂ were determined by the total CO₂ effluxes from maize (*Zea mays* L.) and bare-fallow plots. In both approaches, maize-derived CO₂ contributed 22% to 35% to the total CO₂ efflux during the growth period, which was comparable to other field studies. In our laboratory study, this CO₂ fraction was tripled due to different climate, soil, and sampling conditions. In the natural-¹³C-labeling approach, rhizomicrobial respiration was low compared to other studies, which was related to a low amount of C₄-derived microbial biomass. At the end of the growth period, however, 64% root respiration and 36% rhizomicrobial respiration in relation to total root-derived CO₂ were calculated when considering high isotopic fractionations between SOM, microbial biomass, and CO₂. This relationship was closer to the 50% : 50% partitioning described in the literature than without fractionation (23% root respiration, 77% rhizomicrobial respiration). Fractionation processes of ¹³C must be taken into account when calculating CO₂ partitioning in soil. Both methods—natural ¹³C labeling and root exclusion—showed the same partitioning results when ¹³C isotopic fractionation during microbial respiration was considered and may therefore be used to separate plant- and SOM-derived CO₂ sources.

Key words: CO₂ efflux / rhizomicrobial respiration / root respiration / SOM decomposition / ¹³C isotopic fractionation / ¹³C natural abundance

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1 Introduction

Partitioning the total CO₂ efflux from soil is very important in order to identify individual C sinks or sources. This CO₂ efflux can be separated into five components (Kuzyakov, 2006): (1) root respiration, *i.e.*, respiration of assimilates by roots of autotrophic plants, (2) rhizomicrobial respiration, *i.e.*, respiration of rhizodeposits (exudates, lysates, mucilages, *etc.*) by heterotrophic microorganisms in the rhizosphere, (3) decomposition of dead plant residues by heterotrophic microorganisms, (4) priming effect, *i.e.*, plant-induced additional (or limited) decomposition of soil organic matter (SOM) by heterotrophic microorganisms, and (5) decomposition of SOM by heterotrophic microorganisms. In the absence of plant residues and assuming a low contribution of priming effects in fertilized agricultural soils (Cheng and Coleman, 1990; Pateron and Sim, 1999, 2000), the three main components of CO₂ efflux will be (1) root respiration, (2) rhizomicrobial respiration, and (3) SOM decomposition. The sum of CO₂ from root respiration and rhizomicrobial respiration is termed “root-derived CO₂” and the related process “root-derived respiration” (RDR).

Carbon dioxide derived from SOM decomposition (SOMD) and that derived from the roots can be quantified by isotopic

labeling of plants with ¹³C or ¹⁴C isotopes and tracing the label in root-derived CO₂ (*e.g.*, Andrews et al., 1999; Warembourg and Paul, 1977). The difference between this labeled fraction and the total CO₂ efflux represents SOMD. Nonisotopic methods to separate root- from SOM-derived CO₂, such as a combination of trenching and excised-root methods, have also been used (Chen et al., 2006; Kelting et al., 1998). The results vary strongly depending on plants, soils, and environmental and experimental conditions. By *in situ* ¹⁴C labeling of Canadian prairie grass, Warembourg and Paul (1977) found low contributions (19%) of root-derived CO₂ to the total CO₂ efflux from soil. On the other hand, under controlled conditions, Chen et al. (2006) reported very high contributions of root-derived CO₂ to the total CO₂ efflux, with values of up to 99% in a ryegrass (*Lolium perenne* L.) rhizosphere. Various studies with grass species have found results within this range of root-derived CO₂ (Tab. 1).

It is very difficult to further differentiate between the CO₂ directly derived from root respiration and that derived from mineralization of rhizodeposits (Killham and Yeomans, 2001). This separation of root respiration (RR) and rhizomicrobial respiration (RMR) is a major challenge in quantifying rhizo-



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Table 1: Contributions of root-derived respiration (RDR) and SOM decomposition (SOMD) to total CO₂ efflux and of root respiration (RR) and rhizomicrobial respiration (RMR) to root-derived respiration from various laboratory and field studies with grass species (means ± standard deviations).

Site	CO ₂ partitioning [%]		References
	RDR	SOMD	
CO₂ efflux			
Laboratory	70 ± 27	30 ± 27	<i>Chen et al. (2006), Robinson and Scrimgeour (1995), Qian et al. (1997), Kuzyakov and Cheng (2001), Midwood et al. (2006)</i>
Field	36 ± 15	64 ± 15	<i>Warembourg and Paul (1977), Gloser and Tesa (1978), Rochette and Flanagan (1997), Rochette et al. (1999b), Raich and Mora (2005)</i>
Total	53 ± 27	47 ± 27	see above
RDR	RR	RMR	
Laboratory	49 ± 10	51 ± 10	<i>Johansson (1992), Cheng et al. (1993), Kuzyakov et al. (1999, 2001), Kuzyakov (2002b), Kuzyakov and Domanski (2002), Sapronov and Kuzyakov (2004), Chen et al. (2006)</i>
Field	56 ± 7	44 ± 8	<i>Craine et al. (1999), Larionova et al. (2006)</i>
Total	50 ± 10	50 ± 10	see above

sphere C flows. Separation is important to quantify C sources for SOM and for rhizosphere microorganisms, to identify respiration of autotrophic and heterotrophic organisms, and to calculate C turnover by rhizosphere microorganisms (Kuzyakov, 2004). Recent studies on various grass species reveal that root-derived CO₂ consists of nearly equal RR and RMR contributions (Tab. 1).

Some attempts to separate root and rhizomicrobial respiration were tested with various success (reviewed by Kuzyakov and Larionova, 2005). Most of those studies were conducted under controlled conditions. The methods were based on pulse labeling of plants in a ¹⁴CO₂ atmosphere and tracing the ¹⁴CO₂ dynamics (Kuzyakov and Domanski, 2002; Kuzyakov et al., 1999, 2001), isotopic dilution (Cheng et al., 1993), or various treatments with ¹⁴C-labeled plants and rhizodeposits (Johansson, 1992; Swinnen, 1994). The only field studies that attempted to separate root and rhizomicrobial respiration were based on trenching and excised-roots (Kelting et al., 1998), on shading and clipping and excised-roots (Craine et al., 1999), or on root-exclusion and component-integration (Larionova et al., 2006) methods. All these approaches very strongly disturb the soil and/or the roots, making the relevance of these results questionable.

In the present study, the CO₂ efflux from soil was partitioned into two sources, *i.e.*, plant- and SOM-derived pools, by means of natural ¹³C labeling and root exclusion. A further partitioning of CO₂ into three sources, *i.e.*, root respiration, rhizomicrobial respiration, and SOM decomposition, was achieved by natural ¹³C labeling.

The natural-¹³C-labeling approach was recently suggested by Kuzyakov (2004, 2005) and was practically tested under controlled conditions by Werth et al. (2006). The method is based on the natural-¹³C-labeling technique (Balesdent and Mariotti, 1996), *i.e.*, ¹³C natural abundance is used by growing C₄ plants on a soil developed under C₃ vegetation ("C₃ soil") or *vice versa*. Hence, the ^δ¹³C values of SOM, roots, microbial biomass, and total CO₂ efflux from the soil are used to deter-

mine the three fractions of CO₂. These contributions of RR, RMR, and SOMD to total soil CO₂ efflux can be calculated according to the isotopic mass balance of microbial biomass and CO₂ (Kuzyakov, 2004, 2005). Contributions of root-derived CO₂ (RDR) and of SOM-derived CO₂ (SOMD) were compared to the results of the root-exclusion approach. Total CO₂ effluxes from maize (*Zea mays*) and bare-fallow plots were considered to estimate root- and SOM-derived CO₂ in the root-exclusion approach used in our study. The same type of root-exclusion technique was used earlier, *e.g.*, by Rochette et al. (1999b).

The main differences between the two approaches are: (1) in the natural-¹³C-labeling approach, the ^δ¹³C values of CO₂ and microbial biomass are measured on the maize plot only and (2) in the root-exclusion approach, total CO₂ effluxes are measured from two different plots (maize and bare fallow). Hence, the natural-¹³C-labeling approach has some disadvantages—the two most important are isotopic fractionation and activity of rhizosphere microorganisms. Natural ¹³C labeling involves two assumptions concerning ¹³C isotopic effects during root and microbial respiration (Kuzyakov, 2004, 2005):

- (1) The ^δ¹³C isotope signature of root-derived CO₂ is the same as the ^δ¹³C value of the roots.
- (2) The ^δ¹³C isotope signature of CO₂ respired by microorganisms corresponds to the ^δ¹³C value of microbial biomass.

The first assumption has been accepted by Werth et al. (2006), since ¹³C depletion of root-derived CO₂ ranges from 0.2‰ in sand (Cheng, 1996) to 0.7‰ in nutrient-rich hydroculture (Werth and Kuzyakov, 2006) compared to the ^δ¹³C value of the roots. The second assumption, however, cannot be accepted and hence, changes of ^δ¹³C (*i.e.*, "fractionations") between microbial biomass and microbial CO₂ have to be considered (Werth et al., 2006). Additionally, isotopic fractionations between substrate (SOM or exudates) and microbial biomass are important and have to be determined.

Only a minor part of microbial biomass is metabolically active in soil (Stenström et al., 2001), i.e., consuming rhizodeposits from plants. Some studies have reported this active fraction between 6% and 23% of total microbial biomass after a single growing season (Bruulsema and Duxbury, 1996; Qian and Doran, 1996; Rochette et al., 1999a). Hence, activity versus dormancy of soil microorganisms is crucial when calculating RMR using the natural-¹³C-labeling technique, since the method of Kuzyakov (2004, 2005) uses the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of microbial biomass itself as a substitute for the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of microbial CO₂ (the sum of RMR and SOMD). It is not possible to separate microbial CO₂ directly. In order to determine the C₄-derived C-consuming active microorganisms contributing to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of total microbial biomass, we used a calculated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value by mass balance of C₄- and C₃-source contributions and back-calculated the CO₂-efflux partitioning obtained by the natural-¹³C-labeling technique including isotopic fractionations (Werth et al., 2006).

Compared to the natural-¹³C-labeling approach, the root-exclusion method has its own limitations: (1) the water regime and temperature balance may differ considerably between planted and unplanted soil (Fisher and Gosz, 1986; Jones et al., 2004; Rochette et al., 1999b; Ross et al., 2001), (2) the cycling of nutrients such as N, which affects the C cycle, also varies between vegetated and nonvegetated soil (Hinsinger et al., 2005; Rochette et al., 1999b), and (3) the decomposition of SOM and other plant residues is dependent on both the physical effects (water regime and temperature balance) of vegetation on soil and the direct biological effects of living roots (reviewed by Cheng and Kuzyakov, 2005; Dormaar, 1990; Kuzyakov, 2002a, b; Paterson, 2003). Consequently, exudation from maize roots could either increase (or decrease) SOM decomposition by priming effects (Kuzyakov et al., 2000). Since we calculated SOM decomposition only from the bare-fallow plot, priming effects cannot be considered in the root-exclusion approach, but by direct comparison of SOM-derived CO₂ from bare-fallow and maize plots.

In both approaches, seasonal effects in CO₂-efflux partitioning could occur. In the root-exclusion approach, site properties like soil moisture content, soil temperature, or soil C : N ratio may change in planted and bare-fallow plots in space and also in time. In the natural-¹³C-labeling approach, isotopic fractionation and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values could differ during a growing season especially in plant parts, soil microbial biomass, and CO₂ (Pate and Arthur, 1998; Scartazza et al., 2004).

The objective of this study was to test the natural-¹³C-labeling approach under field conditions in order to separate SOM- and root-derived CO₂, and to further split up the latter into root and rhizomicrobial respiration. This method was not successful under laboratory conditions, since fewer microorganisms were consuming C₄ than were consuming C₃ source (Werth et al., 2006). We therefore hypothesize:

- (1) In the field, the root system can develop during a whole growth period and there is no limitation of rhizosphere development by plant-container size. Hence, the active microbial community feeding on maize rhizodeposits could be much larger than in the laboratory.

- (2) This larger rhizosphere and also natural climate and site conditions (e.g., soil moisture and temperature) in contrast to controlled laboratory conditions could have changed the CO₂-partitioning results in contrast to the short laboratory period.
- (3) Accounting for ¹³C fractionation between substrates and products could increase the amount of rhizomicrobial respiration.
- (4) We expected that natural ¹³C labeling rather than root exclusion could better reproduce root- and SOM-derived CO₂ pools of former field studies (Tab. 1), since in natural ¹³C labeling, all samples were taken from the same plot, whereas root exclusion depended on two different plots.
- (5) Finally, CO₂ partitioning could be affected by seasonal climate differences.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Experimental set-up

In May 2004, a maize (*Zea mays* L., cv. Tassilo) plot (10 m², seed distance: 30 cm within rows, 75 cm between rows) was established on a loamy Haplic Luvisol from loess with C₃-vegetation history (grasses with dominance of *Lolium perenne* L.), located on the University of Hohenheim's research farm "Heidfeldhof" in Stuttgart, Germany (48°42'50" N, 9°11'21" E). No C₄ plants have ever been grown on this plot before, which was crucial to the use of the natural-¹³C-labeling technique, since it works only in the first year of C₃-C₄ vegetation change. Nine steel collars were installed on the plot, each collar 10 cm away from a maize shoot. The steel collars (11 cm Ø, 10 cm height) were inserted 5 cm deep into the soil to trap CO₂ from the soil. Additional nine steel collars were established on a bare-fallow plot located next to the maize plot. Both plots were fertilized with 202 kg N ha⁻¹, equally provided as NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻. The plots were kept free of weeds by the pesticide dimethenid-P (900 g ha⁻¹) and by manual weeding.

2.2 Sampling and analyses

On day 39 (July 6, 2004) after germination of the maize, a glass dish filled with 20 mL 1 M NaOH solution was placed into every collar of the maize and bare-fallow plots, and the collars were sealed with a plastic lid. The CO₂ efflux from the soil was trapped for 7 d in NaOH, then the NaOH was collected from the traps, and the glass dishes were rinsed with 20 mL deionized water, which was mixed with the NaOH samples. The trapping and sampling procedure was repeated at day 117 of maize growth (September 22, 2004).

On the first day of each CO₂-trapping period, soil samples were taken from 0 to 5 cm depth next to the steel collars. The moist soil samples were immediately frozen until preparation for microbial-biomass analyses. We assume that there is no significant difference between microbial C and N concentrations of field-moist and frozen soil, which was approved by

Stenberg et al. (1998). The maize was harvested in mid-October, when the plants were 146 d old. The roots were carefully washed with deionized water to remove adhering soil particles. Shoots and roots were dried at 40°C.

To estimate the total CO₂ efflux, the CO₂ trapped in NaOH solution was precipitated with 0.5 M BaCl₂ solution, and then the NaOH was titrated with 0.2 M HCl against phenolphthalein indicator (Zibilske, 1994). Soil microbial biomass was determined by the chloroform-fumigation extraction method (Vance et al., 1987), in which the typical extractant concentration of 0.5 M K₂SO₄ solution was reduced to 0.05 M in order to increase the ratio of extracted C and N to salt to facilitate analysis by direct combustion prior to mass-spectrometer analyses. Bruulsema and Duxbury (1996) have shown that the same extraction-efficiency factors (k_{EC} and k_{EN}) can be used in this modified method compared to the original method. Aggregates of the unfrozen soil were destroyed with tweezers, and roots were carefully removed from the sample by handpicking. An amount of 10 g of soil was extracted with 40 mL of the K₂SO₄ solution. Another 10 g of soil were firstly fumigated with chloroform for 24 h and then extracted in the same way. The K₂SO₄ and soil mixtures were shaken for 1 h on a horizontal shaker, centrifuged at 1449 g for 10 min, and then filtrated through a ceramic vacuum filter. The extracts were frozen until analyses for total C and N concentrations were done with a Dimatoc-100 TOC/TIC analyzer (Dimatec, Germany). Microbial biomass C and N concentrations were calculated from these results using a k_{EC} value of 0.45 (Wu et al., 1990) and a k_{EN} value of 0.54 (Brookes et al., 1985) and are presented in percent of dry soil. The soil water content was determined in another 10 g of soil, which was dried at 105°C. These soil samples and an aliquot of the leaf or root samples were ground with a ball mill before analysis. The total C and N content in leaves, roots, and soil was measured with a Euro EA C/N analyzer (EuroVector, Italy).

A Thermo Finnigan MAT Delta plus Advantage isotope-ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) was coupled to this C/N analyzer to measure $\delta^{13}C$ values in shoots, roots, and soil. Since the IRMS unit could analyze only solid samples, the CO₂ and microbial biomass samples had to be specifically prepared. Any CO₂ trapped as Na₂CO₃ in an aliquot of 4 mL of NaOH was precipitated with 5 mL of 0.5 M SrCl₂ aqueous solution. The NaOH solutions containing the SrCO₃ precipitants were then centrifuged three times at 1449 g for 10 min and washed in between with deionized and degassed water to remove NaOH and to reach a pH of 7.0. After washing, the remaining water was removed from the vials and the SrCO₃ was dried at 105°C. The SrCO₃ was analyzed using the IRMS for $\delta^{13}C$ values. For the microbial biomass, an aliquot of the K₂SO₄ samples was pipetted directly into tin capsules and dried at 60°C prior to IRMS analyses (according to Brant et al., 2006).

2.3 Calculations

In the root-exclusion approach, root- and SOM-derived CO₂ were separated by measuring the total CO₂ efflux from maize and bare-fallow plots and by subtracting the latter from the former. This difference between the two kinds of plots was taken to be the contribution of root-derived CO₂ to the total

CO₂ efflux from the maize plot. The contribution of SOM decomposition on the maize plot was considered to be equal to the total CO₂ efflux from the bare-fallow plot, since no plant residues remained on the latter from the previous crop. Contributions of root-derived respiration (RDR_{re}) and SOM decomposition ($SOMD_{re}$) to the total CO₂ efflux from soil planted with maize in the root exclusion approach were calculated by the following equations:

$$RDR_{re} = \frac{C_m - C_{bf}}{C_m} \cdot 100\%, \quad (1)$$

$$SOMD_{re} = \frac{C_{bf}}{C_m} \cdot 100\%, \quad (2)$$

where C_m and C_{bf} are the amounts of C from maize and bare-fallow plot CO₂ effluxes, respectively.

In the second—the natural ¹³C labeling—approach, the method proposed by Kuzyakov (2004, 2005) was used to separate RR, RMR, and SOMD. The following equations were used to calculate $\delta^{13}C$ values and CO₂-efflux partitioning. A mass-balance equation was used to determine the $\delta^{13}C$ value of microbial biomass ($\delta^{13}C_{MB}$):

$$\delta^{13}C_{MB} = \frac{\delta^{13}C_{fum} \cdot C_{fum} - \delta^{13}C_{nf} \cdot C_{nf}}{C_{fum} - C_{nf}}, \quad (3)$$

where $\delta^{13}C_{fum}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{nf}$ are the $\delta^{13}C$ values of the fumigated and nonfumigated samples, respectively, and C_{fum} and C_{nf} are the amounts of C in the fumigated and nonfumigated K₂SO₄ samples, respectively.

In the beginning of every CO₂ trapping, there was a small volume of atmospheric CO₂ inside the steel collar. We considered this atmospheric CO₂ in relation to the measured $\delta^{13}C$ value by a mass-balance equation:

$$\delta^{13}C_{CO_2} = \frac{\delta^{13}C_{total} \cdot C_{total} - \delta^{13}C_{air} \cdot C_{air}}{C_{total} - C_{air}}, \quad (4)$$

where $\delta^{13}C_{CO_2}$ is the $\delta^{13}C$ value of soil air without atmospheric air, $\delta^{13}C_{total}$ is the measured $\delta^{13}C$ value of CO₂, $\delta^{13}C_{air}$ is the $\delta^{13}C$ value of ambient air (as an approximation -7.8‰ was taken from Boutton, 1991), C_{total} is the amount of CO₂-C trapped in NaOH, and C_{air} is the amount of C inside the steel collar (0.08 mg C) calculated from a CO₂ concentration of 345 ppm (Boutton, 1991) and the aboveground volume of air inside the steel collar.

After calculating the $\delta^{13}C$ of microbial biomass (by Eq. 3) and the corrected $\delta^{13}C$ of total CO₂ efflux (by Eq. 4), it was possible to calculate belowground CO₂ partitioning. The development of the equations used to calculate the three-sources-CO₂ partitioning is presented in detail by Kuzyakov (2004, 2005). The equations for the contributions of SOM decomposition ($SOMD_{nl}$) and rhizomicrobial respiration (RMR_{nl}) used in the ¹³C-natural-labeling (hence the subscript *nl*) approach are:

$$SOMD_{nl} = \frac{\delta^{13}C_{CO_2} - \delta^{13}C_{Rhiz}}{\delta^{13}C_{SOM} - \delta^{13}C_{Rhiz}} \cdot 100\%, \quad (5)$$

$$RMR_{nl} = \frac{(\delta^{13}C_{MB} - \delta^{13}C_{SOM}) \cdot (\delta^{13}C_{CO_2} - \delta^{13}C_{Rhiz})}{(\delta^{13}C_{Rhiz} - \delta^{13}C_{SOM}) \cdot (\delta^{13}C_{MB} - \delta^{13}C_{Rhiz})} \cdot 100\%, \quad (6)$$

where $\delta^{13}C_{CO_2}$ is the $\delta^{13}C$ value of the total CO₂ efflux from planted soil (Eq. 4), $\delta^{13}C_{Rhiz}$ is the $\delta^{13}C$ value of C₄ plant roots, $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$ is the $\delta^{13}C$ value of SOM from unplanted soil, and $\delta^{13}C_{MB}$ is the $\delta^{13}C$ value of microorganisms from planted soil (Eq. 3). Having calculated these two contributions to the belowground CO₂ efflux, the remaining part would be root respiration (RR_{nl}):

$$RR_{nl} = 100\% - SOMD_{nl} - RMR_{nl}. \quad (7)$$

When isotopic fractionation was considered between SOM and CO₂ derived from SOM and between microbial biomass and microbially derived CO₂, $\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{MB}$ were replaced in Eq. 5 and 6 by $\delta^{13}C_{SOM-CO_2}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{MB-CO_2}$:

$$\delta^{13}C_{SOM-CO_2} = \delta^{13}C_{SOM} + \varepsilon_{SOM-CO_2}, \quad (8)$$

$$\delta^{13}C_{MB-CO_2} = \delta^{13}C_{MB} + \varepsilon_{MB-CO_2}, \quad (9)$$

where ε_{SOM-CO_2} and ε_{MB-CO_2} are ¹³C isotopic fractionations as absolute values in ‰ between SOM and CO₂ and between microbial biomass and CO₂, respectively.

A calculated $\delta^{13}C$ value was used to determine the influence of rhizodeposits- and SOM-consuming microorganisms on $\delta^{13}C$ of total microbial biomass according to Werth et al. (2006). This $\delta^{13}C$ value ($\delta^{13}C_{calcMB}$) was calculated by a mass-balance equation using $\delta^{13}C$ values of maize roots ($\delta^{13}C_{Rhiz}$) for rhizodeposits-consuming ($\delta^{13}C_{C_4}$) and $\delta^{13}C$ values of SOM ($\delta^{13}C_{SOM}$) from unplanted soil for SOM-consuming ($\delta^{13}C_{C_3}$) portions of microbial biomass including the fractionation ε_{SOM-CO_2} between the substrate and the CO₂:

$$\delta^{13}C_{calcMB} = \frac{\delta^{13}C_{C_4} \cdot C_{C_4} + \delta^{13}C_{C_3} \cdot C_{C_3}}{100\%}, \quad (10)$$

$$\delta^{13}C_{C_4} = \delta^{13}C_{Rhiz} + \varepsilon_{SOM-CO_2}, \quad (11)$$

$$\delta^{13}C_{C_3} = \delta^{13}C_{SOM} + \varepsilon_{SOM-CO_2}, \quad (12)$$

where C_{C_4} and C_{C_3} are C proportions of microbial biomass consuming maize rhizodeposits or SOM, respectively. C_{C_4} was adjusted to match measured results of belowground CO₂ partitioning (see section 3), and C_{C_3} was 100% - C_{C_4} . The fractionation between maize rhizodeposits and CO₂ was assumed to be the same as the fractionation between SOM and CO₂ (compare Balesdent and Mariotti, 1996; Bol et al., 2003; Boutton, 1996).

The total CO₂ efflux (in g m⁻²) from the maize plot was split up into different sources by multiplying with the percentage contributions gained from Eqs. 1, 2, 5, 6, and 7. The means of all results were calculated for maize and bare-fallow plots,

and standard deviations (SD) were calculated as a variability parameter. Outliers in the CO₂ trapping were excluded from the calculation of the mean CO₂ efflux (and its SD), which led to a total of six collars (instead of nine). For calculations of mean $\delta^{13}C$ values, we used only three replicates, since we sampled three plants randomly. We determined the $\delta^{13}C$ values only in the three corresponding soil and microbial-biomass samples. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to identify differences between total C concentrations, total N concentrations, or C : N ratios of various plant or soil pools. The ANOVA was conducted in pairs between plant parts, between sampling dates of an individual plot, or between plots for individual sampling dates. For the $\delta^{13}C$ values, a one-way ANOVA was used to find differences between sampling dates of an individual plot, between plots for an individual sampling date, or between carbon pools for an individual sampling date and plot. For the latter, a Fisher-LSD test was used as *post hoc* test to identify differences in $\delta^{13}C$ values of individual C-pool pairs. Since variances were not equal for maize-plot C pools on the September sampling, a Studentized-maximum-modulus test had to be used as *post hoc* test here. One-way ANOVA was also used when the contributions to the total CO₂ efflux were compared between the root-exclusion and natural-¹³C-labeling approaches. Statistics were calculated with the SPSS 10.0 package.

3 Results

3.1 Carbon and nitrogen concentrations, C : N ratios, and soil water content

No significant difference in total C concentration was determined between shoots and roots; it averaged approx. 44% (Tab. 2). The shoots' total N concentration was about twice as high as that in the roots ($p < 0.01$), doubling the C : N ratio in roots *versus* shoots ($p < 0.01$). The total C concentration in the soil (Tab. 2) remained constant between the two sampling dates at 1.2% and 1.1% for the maize and bare-fallow plots, respectively. On the maize plot, the total soil N concentration declined between summer and autumn samplings ($p < 0.001$). This decline significantly increased the soil C : N ratio by 4 between the two sampling dates ($p < 0.001$). In July, the total C concentration in the microbial biomass was approx. 0.008% of soil weight on the maize plot and 0.012% of soil weight on the bare-fallow plot (Tab. 2). This between-plot difference ($p < 0.05$) and a nearly constant N concentration in microbial biomass of 0.003% of soil weight on both plots led to smaller C : N ratios on the maize *versus* bare-fallow plot. Due to the high SD on the bare-fallow plot, this difference was not significant. There was no difference in soil water contents between maize and bare-fallow plots in July (Tab. 2). In September, however, the water content of the bare-fallow plot was significantly higher compared to the maize plot ($p < 0.01$).

3.2 Values of $\delta^{13}C$

In none of three C pools (*i.e.*, SOM, microbial biomass, and soil-derived CO₂) on the maize plot did $\delta^{13}C$ values change significantly between sampling dates (Fig. 1a). On the Sep-

Table 2: Total C and N concentrations and C : N ratios of shoots, roots, soil, and microbial biomass and soil water content of maize and bare-fallow plots (means \pm SD, $2 \leq n \leq 9$, n.d. = not determined), based on plant part or soil dry matter. Values followed by the same first letter within columns are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$) between plant parts or between soil and microbial biomass sampling dates of an individual plot. Values followed by the same second letter within columns are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$) between plots for individual sampling dates.

	Sampling date in 2004	C [% of dry matter]	N [% of dry matter]	C : N	Soil water content [mass-%]
<i>maize</i>					
shoots	Oct. 22	42.16 ^a \pm 1.54	2.43 ^a \pm 0.19	17.4 ^a \pm 0.8	n.d.
roots	Oct. 22	45.27 ^a \pm 8.70	1.26 ^b \pm 0.18	36.0 ^b \pm 5.3	n.d.
<i>soil</i>					
maize plot	July 7	1.19 ^{b,d} \pm 0.05	0.27 ^{c,f} \pm 0.01	4.5 ^{c,f} \pm 0.4	6.4 ^{a,d} \pm 1.8
	Sept. 22	1.09 ^{b,e} \pm 0.17	0.13 ^{d,h} \pm 0.01	8.3 ^{d,h} \pm 0.4	5.9 ^{a,e} \pm 1.1
bare-fallow plot	July 7	1.09 ^{c,d} \pm 0.09	0.16 ^{e,g} \pm 0.01	7.0 ^{e,g} \pm 0.9	6.3 ^{b,d} \pm 1.0
	Sept. 22	1.13 ^{c,e} \pm 0.05	0.14 ^{e,h} \pm 0.01	8.0 ^{e,h} \pm 0.1	8.7 ^{c,f} \pm 1.8
<i>microbial biomass</i>					
maize plot	July 7	0.008 ^{f,h} \pm 0.002	0.004 ^{i,j} \pm 0.001	3.1 ^{i,j} \pm 0.8	n.d.
	Sept. 22	0.011 ^{f,i} \pm 0.006	0.003 ⁱ \pm 0.002	6.9 ⁱ \pm 4.2	n.d.
bare-fallow plot	July 7	0.012 ^{g,i} \pm 0.004	0.003 ^j \pm 0.002	7.4 ^j \pm 4.2	n.d.
	Sept. 22	0.012 ^{g,j} \pm 0.002	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.

tember sampling date, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of microbial biomass on the maize plot was significantly less negative (by 1.5‰) than that of SOM (-25.5‰ , $p < 0.05$). On both sampling dates, CO_2 from soil respiration was significantly enriched in ^{13}C (by approx. 5.0‰) compared to microbial biomass ($p < 0.05$). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of maize roots (-12.2‰) was less negative than the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO_2 (-18.6‰ , $p < 0.05$). Maize roots were significantly more enriched in ^{13}C than leaves (-13.2‰ , $p < 0.01$).

On the bare-fallow plot, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of CO_2 from soil respiration was less negative in September than in July (by 3.8‰, $p < 0.001$, Fig. 1b). Only the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of SOM and CO_2 differed significantly (by 1.6‰) on the first sampling ($p < 0.01$). In July, the difference between microbial biomass and CO_2 was only 0.7‰, which was not significant. On the second sampling, all $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were significantly different. Soil organic matter was depleted by 1.6‰ ($p < 0.01$), and CO_2 was enriched by 3.7‰ ($p < 0.001$) compared to microbial biomass ($\delta^{13}\text{C} = -24.0$).

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of SOM and microbial biomass did not differ between the two plots. The CO_2 efflux from soil, however, was significantly enriched in ^{13}C on the maize *versus* bare-fallow plot ($p < 0.05$).

3.3 CO_2 -efflux partitioning

The comparison of total CO_2 effluxes from maize and bare-fallow plots revealed that the value from the maize plot was derived 71% to 78% from SOM decomposition and 29% to 22% from roots (Fig. 2a). This increase of the SOMD contribution was not significant between the two sampling dates.

In contrast to the root-exclusion approach, the contribution of SOMD to the total CO_2 efflux estimated by the natural- ^{13}C -

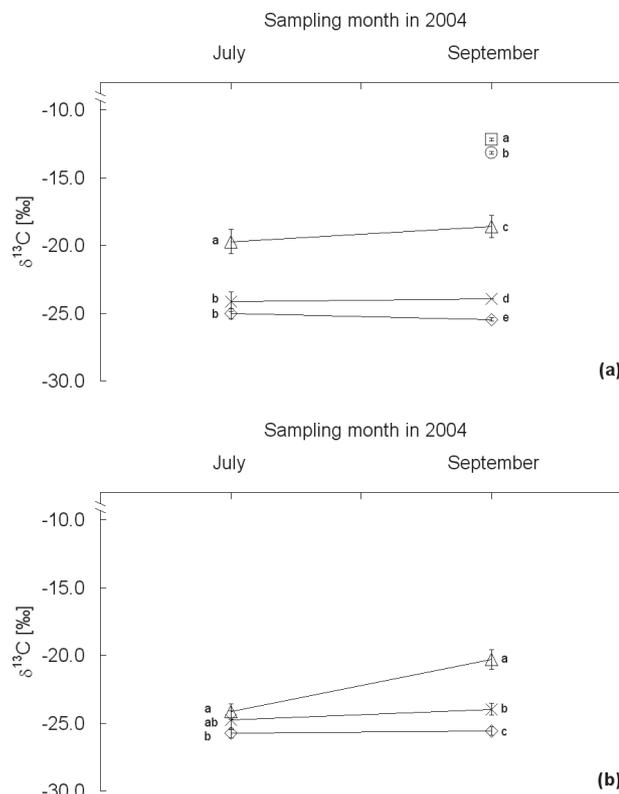


Figure 1: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C-pools from (a) maize and (b) bare-fallow plots; C pools are maize leaves (○), maize roots (□), soil organic matter (◇), total CO_2 efflux (△), and microbial biomass (×); error bars show standard deviation ($n = 3$). Values followed by the same letter within one sampling month are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$).

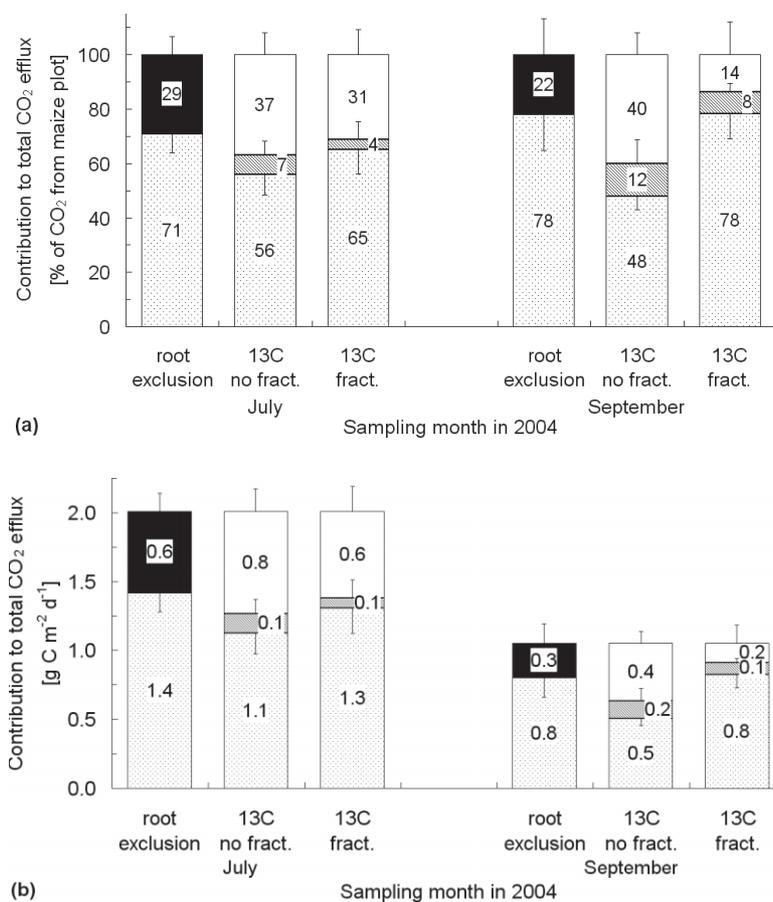


Figure 2: Carbon dioxide-efflux partitioning of the maize plot calculated by the root-exclusion ($n = 6$) and natural-¹³C-labeling approaches ($n = 3$) without and with ¹³C fractionation between microbial biomass and CO₂ (1‰ in July, 4‰ in September) and between SOM and CO₂ (2‰ in July, 5‰ in September). Results are shown in (a) percentage and (b) absolute values. Contributions are root respiration (no shading), rhizomicrobial respiration (hatched shading), total root-derived respiration (black shading), and soil organic matter (SOM) decomposition (dotted shading). Error bars show standard deviation.

labeling technique decreased between sampling dates from 56% to 48% (Fig. 2a). Between dates, the contributions of RR and RMR increased from 37% to 40% and from 7% to 12%, respectively. None of these changes between sampling dates were significant. ¹³C fractionations between SOM and CO₂ as well as between microbial biomass and CO₂ were obtained from the respective $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the bare-fallow plot (Fig. 1b) and were used for further calculations. The fractionations between microbial biomass and CO₂ ($\epsilon_{\text{MB-CO}_2}$) were 1.0‰ and 4.0‰ in July and September, respectively. At both dates, fractionations between SOM and CO₂ ($\epsilon_{\text{SOM-CO}_2}$) were 1.0‰ higher than between microbial biomass and CO₂. Using these values, we calculated belowground CO₂ partitioning for three CO₂ sources (Fig. 2a: right column in each month). In September, we found significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between calculations with and without ¹³C fractionation (Fig. 2a) for SOMD and for the total root-derived respiration (RDR).

In the comparison of the root-exclusion and the natural-¹³C-labeling approaches (including ¹³C fractionation), root-derived CO₂ (and accordingly SOM-derived CO₂) was the same ($p > 0.05$) between approaches in both months, July and September (Fig. 2a). Converted into g C m⁻² d⁻¹, root-derived CO₂-C was only 0.1 g m⁻² d⁻¹ more in July and even equal in September in the natural-¹³C-labeling *versus* the root-exclusion approach (Fig. 2b).

3.4 Influence of rhizodeposits-feeding microbial biomass on belowground CO₂ partitioning

We have redrawn the CO₂-efflux partitioning by the natural-¹³C-labeling technique including fractionations between SOM and CO₂ and between the microbial biomass and CO₂ from Fig. 2a (right column in each month) into Fig. 3 (left column in each month). In order to simulate the influence of rhizodeposits- and SOM-feeding fractions of the microbial biomass on CO₂ partitioning, we used calculated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for the microbial biomass that considered both fractions (see Eq. 10). Percentages of these fractions in Eq. 10 were adjusted to match the CO₂-partitioning results obtained in this study (Fig. 3: middle column in each month) and literature results (Fig. 3: right column in each month). Values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for roots (-12.2‰) and for SOM (-25.8‰ in July, -25.6‰ in September) were used to represent $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for rhizodeposits- and SOM-consuming microorganisms, respectively. Fractionations of 2‰ in July and 5‰ in September between the substrates (*i.e.*, roots or SOM) and the CO₂ were included in the calculations.

Maize-derived portions of the total microbial biomass of approx. 5% in July and 6% in September (Fig. 3: middle column in each month) were determined to reflect the results observed in this study (Fig. 3: left column in each month). Hypothetical rhizodeposits-consuming portions of the total microbial biomass of 18% in July and 8% in September (Fig. 3: right column in each month), however, would have

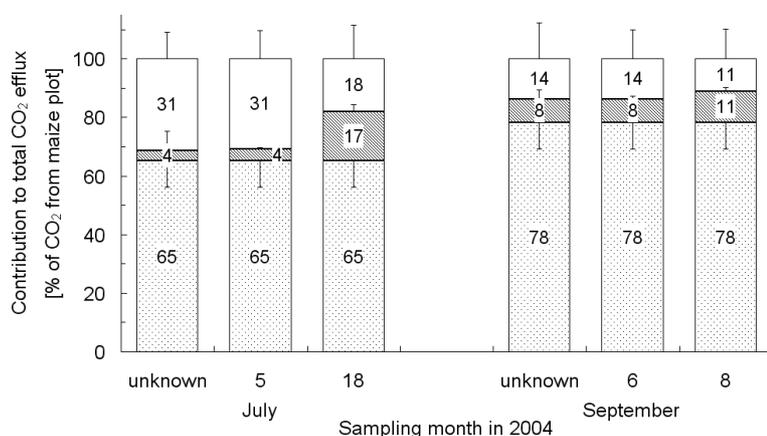


Figure 3: Influence of the C₄-derived portion (in percentage on the x-axis) of total microbial biomass on belowground CO₂ partitioning. In the middle column in each month, the C₄-derived microbial biomass was adjusted to achieve calculated CO₂-partitioning results of this present study (left column, including isotopic fractionation according to Fig. 2). In the right column in each month, the C₄-derived microbial biomass was adjusted to achieve CO₂-partitioning results of literature studies (Tab. 1). Patterns are: contributions of root respiration (no shading), rhizomicrobial respiration (hatched shading), and SOM decomposition (dotted shading) to total CO₂ efflux from a C₃ soil planted with maize; error bars show standard deviation ($n = 3$).

been necessary to yield a 50% contribution each for RR and RMR related to total RDR as reported in various studies (Tab. 1).

4 Discussion

Two approaches on CO₂-efflux partitioning were used in this field study—natural ¹³C labeling and root exclusion. In root exclusion, total CO₂ effluxes from maize and bare-fallow soils were used to determine two CO₂ sources, *i.e.*, root- and SOM-derived CO₂. In natural ¹³C labeling by conversion of a C₃ field to maize, the CO₂ efflux was split up into three sources, *i.e.*, root respiration, rhizomicrobial respiration, and SOM decomposition. Although the rhizosphere was larger in the field than in the laboratory, the active microbial biomass consuming maize rhizodeposits did not increase, which does not support the first hypothesis (*cf.*, section 4.3). In contrast to the laboratory, climate and site properties and the method of CO₂ sampling rather than the larger rhizosphere changed CO₂-efflux partitioning, *i.e.*, mainly increased SOMD and decreased RR. The effect of site properties on CO₂ partitioning in part supported the second hypothesis (*cf.*, section 4.2). In the third hypothesis, it was expected that accounting for ¹³C fractionation between substrates and products would increase the amount of rhizomicrobial respiration, and this was confirmed (*cf.*, section 4.1). Both approaches—natural ¹³C labeling and root exclusion—approximated literature results of 36% RDR and 64% SOMD (Tab. 1) discarding the fourth hypothesis (*cf.*, section 4.2). Finally, it was expected that seasonal climatic differences would influence CO₂ partitioning, but this was not supported. Seasonal climatic differences had no significant effect on CO₂ partitioning (*cf.*, section 4.4), and seasonal differences were only found in the ¹³C fractionation.

4.1 Isotopic fractionation within the natural-¹³C-labeling approach

Isotopic fractionations between substrate (SOM or exudates), microbial biomass, and microbial CO₂ have to be considered when using the natural-¹³C-labeling approach. The first fractionation step leading to a ¹³C-enriched microbial biomass compared to SOM can be explained by isotope discrimination

during biosynthesis of new microbial biomass (Potthoff et al., 2003). Compared to SOM, water-soluble organic compounds with a heavier isotopic composition are preferentially used by soil microorganisms (Pelz et al., 2005). The second fractionation step results in more ¹³C-enriched microbial CO₂ compared to the microbial biomass and the substrate. Usually, CO₂ from microbial respiration is ¹³C-depleted compared to the feeding substrate (Blair et al., 1985; Mary et al., 1992; Potthoff et al., 2003). Our experimental results showed, therefore, that the shift of C isotope composition of microbial biomass towards increasing $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values was mainly caused by microbial selective utilization (Piao et al., 2006). The microbial population uses compounds preferentially, such as cellulose, starch, and protein, that have larger $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values than the average of soil organic C (SOC) (Bird et al., 2002). This selection was more pronounced than the ¹³C-depletion effect of the metabolism itself (Šantrůčková et al., 2000), resulting in ¹³C-enriched CO₂ (1‰ in July and 4‰ in September) compared to microbial biomass. Total fractionation between SOM and CO₂ and between microbial biomass and CO₂ including kinetic and biological processes is important, when using the method proposed by Kuzyakov (2004, 2005). Fractionations will also be of importance in studies that use similar ¹³C—natural abundance methods including mass-balance equations with soil or microbial biomass substitutes to soil or microbial CO₂.

Henn and Chapela (2000) have shown that the ¹³C fractionation differs during decomposition of C₃- and C₄-derived sucrose by three specific fungi. We assumed the fractionation between maize rhizodeposits and microbial CO₂ in Eq. 11, however, to be equal to the fractionation between SOM and microbial CO₂ (2‰ in July and 5‰ in September). In line with earlier studies (Balesdent and Mariotti, 1996; Bol et al., 2003; Boutton, 1996), we accepted this assumption because we had no direct measure to determine the actual fractionation between rhizodeposits and microbial CO₂. This determination is a future challenge, requiring that rhizodeposits be decomposed by exactly the same microbial community as developed on the maize plot. In the present study, however, we assumed equal fractionations for C₃- and C₄-derived substrates because the root-derived contributions to the microbial biomass calculated with and without ¹³C fractionation for the C₄ substrate were not significantly different. Omitting C₄-

substrate fractionation, the middle columns in Fig. 3 would also read a rhizodeposits-feeding microbial biomass fraction of 5% in July and 6% in September on the x-axis.

4.2 CO₂-efflux partitioning by the natural-¹³C-labeling and root-exclusion approaches

Consideration of ¹³C fractionations led to CO₂-partitioning results that were much closer to the root-exclusion method than those calculated without fractionations (Fig. 2a). Several other studies reported ¹³C fractionations in this range (1‰–5‰) (Formánek and Ambus, 2004; Rochette et al., 1999a; Šantrůčková et al., 2000). In September, CO₂ contributions calculated by the ¹³C-labeling approach (taking fractionation into account) match the root-exclusion results very well (Fig. 2a). This correspondence, however, might be coincidental since both approaches have their shortcomings.

In other field studies with grass species, the root-derived CO₂ contribution was lower and the SOM-derived CO₂ contribution was higher than in the laboratory (Tab. 1). These results were comparable to our study. This difference between laboratory and field can be explained by different environmental influences (soil moisture, temperature, etc.) in experiments under controlled and field conditions. Additionally, in our field either a possible severance of the roots by the CO₂-trap installation, the distance of the CO₂ trap to the shoot, or a combination of both effects could have led to lower contributions of root-derived CO₂ than in the laboratory. On the contrary, the SOMD contribution to the total CO₂ efflux could have been overestimated due to contributions of root-free soil. Hence, further studies should prefer to use CO₂-trapping collars, which encompass the complete rhizosphere. In such studies, it would also be possible to relate CO₂ emissions to the root density under the trapping collar.

In the calculations for CO₂-efflux partitioning (Fig. 2a) without considering isotopic fractionation and in July, when a low fractionation between SOM and CO₂ and between microbial biomass and CO₂ was considered, 4% to 12% RMR were remarkably low compared to the mean of 24% of other studies (Chen et al., 2006; Crow and Wieder, 2005; Kelting et al., 1998). Literature results have shown nearly equal contributions of RR and RMR to root-derived CO₂ (Tab. 1). Even the smallest contributions of RMR determined by combining root-exclusion and component-integration methods on a maize and spring barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) field amounted approx. 40% of total root-derived CO₂ (Larionova et al., 2006) and were between double to four times as high as in our field experiment. In our maize plot, low RMR could result from nonrepresentative soil sampling for microbial-biomass determination. Soil samples were taken 10 cm apart from the stem and from 0 to 5 cm depth. Although these samples definitely contained maize roots, the root density was probably not representative for the maize rhizosphere. In future studies, maize plants should be removed from the soil and samples should be taken directly from the soil adhering to the roots.

Regarding general disadvantages of the root-exclusion approach mentioned in the introduction, it has to be tested under which conditions the approach is reliable. We can assume that both plots—maize and bare fallow—had similar site properties in July. There was no significant difference in soil moisture (Tab. 2) and due to the small size of the plants (approx. 1 m shoot length) and their loose growing (30 cm distance within rows, 75 cm distance between rows), we can also assume no difference in soil temperature. In July, the soil C : N ratio on the maize plot was lower than on the fallow plot (Tab. 2), which implies a higher SOM decomposition on the maize plot. Simply applying the root-exclusion method would then underestimate the CO₂ from SOM decomposition on the maize plot.

In September, C : N ratios were similar on both plots. Soil moisture, however, was significantly higher on the bare-fallow plot. In planted soil, the SOM mineralization may have been lower due to lower soil moisture than in bare soil. Consequently, assuming an equal SOM mineralization on the two plots leads to underestimated root-respiration contribution in the root-exclusion approach in September. As an overall result, CO₂ partitioning of the root-exclusion method was uncertain in July due to differing C : N ratios between plots and in September due to differing soil moisture. These parameters as well as soil temperature should be determined in future studies on CO₂ partitioning in the field when using the root-exclusion method.

Another shortcoming of the root-exclusion method is the disregarding of priming effects in the approach *per se*. The CO₂ efflux from the bare-fallow plot, however, can be used to determine priming effects on the maize plot. Without consideration of ¹³C fractionation, a negative priming effect has been calculated by a reduction of SOM decomposition from 11.1 to 8.8 g C m⁻² in July and from 5.6 to 3.5 g C m⁻² in September (Fig. 2b). This negative priming diminishes or even disappears completely when we account for ¹³C fractionation. Therefore, exact determination of isotope fractionation is of major importance when calculating priming effects with ¹³C–natural abundance methods.

4.3 Influence of rhizodeposits-feeding microbial biomass on belowground CO₂ partitioning

A maximum of a 6% C₄-derived microbial biomass contributing to the microbial CO₂ efflux was calculated in this field study (Fig. 3). In a laboratory study with maize grown on the same soil as in the field study, we showed that—without fractionation between the substrate and the CO₂ in the calculation of the δ¹³C value of microbial CO₂—approx. 37% of the microbial biomass in the rhizosphere was C₄-derived (Werth et al., 2006). Considering also a fractionation in the microbial substrate respiration of 5‰ when calculating the δ¹³C of microbial respiration (according to Eq. 10) would reduce the rhizodeposits-consuming microbial biomass in the laboratory study to 9%. This still higher activity compared to the field study can be explained by the controlled conditions (water content, temperature, etc.), the small size of the plant-growing containers, and the resulting sampling of rhizosphere soil

closely related to the plants. On the contrary, the lower activity in the field can be explained by suboptimal weather conditions for microbial growth, the longer distance of the soil-sampling location to the center of the root system, a contribution of surface-near dry soil with generally low microbial activity to the soil sample, and a resulting stronger contribution of SOM-feeding microorganisms to the total microbial biomass.

In both experiments, substituting the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of microbial CO_2 with the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of microbial biomass was problematic. We assumed two C sources for microbial biomass, *i.e.*, C_4 - and C_3 -derived C. The same sources with the same ratio were expected in soil CO_2 . In contrast to our assumption, however, microbial biomass consists of three pools: (1) a large active CO_2 -respiring fraction consuming C_4 -derived substances, (2) a small active CO_2 -respiring fraction consuming C_3 -derived substances, and (3) a very large nonrespiring fraction with microorganisms in dormant states. Therefore, microbial CO_2 should consist to a major part of C_4 -derived C and to a minor part of C_3 -derived C. Due to the large contribution of dormant microorganisms, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of microbial biomass is not an appropriate substitute for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of microbial respiration. Besides isotopic fractionation between microbial biomass and CO_2 , the discrepancy between active microbial contributions in the biomass itself and in the CO_2 enforces us to disprove the assumption of equal $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of microbial biomass and CO_2 when using the natural- ^{13}C -labeling technique. Consequently, a new method has to be found to determine the activity of the microbial biomass independently from our mass-balance calculations and then to calculate the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of microbial respiration with the proportion obtained from that method in mass balance Eq. 10. Subsequent calculations of CO_2 partitioning could lead to results much closer to former experiments (Tab. 1).

4.4 Seasonal effect on belowground CO_2 partitioning

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of plant parts were only measured on the autumn sampling. In our 40-days experiment under controlled conditions (Werth et al., 2006), we did not find any differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of plant parts from different sampling dates. During a whole plant-growth period like in this field experiment, however, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of different plant tissues could change with plant growth. Giesemann et al. (2006) have reported no significant changes in shoots $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values during the growth period of winter barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) and winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.). They found, however, a depletion of 1.5‰ in the shoots of sugar beet (*Beta vulgaris* L.) during plant growth. According to this, ^{13}C -enriched roots in our maize plants in July would have a significant impact on the results of CO_2 -efflux partitioning. Consequently, in future studies $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in plant tissues should be measured on each sampling date.

On both plots, the total CO_2 efflux in September was half as high as in July (Fig. 2b). This typical decline in autumn has been reported by several studies under comparable climate conditions (Amos et al., 2005; Han et al., 2007; Kutsch et al., 2001; Rochette et al., 1999b). This decline reflects lower air

and soil temperatures in September and, thus, lower total respiration of plant roots and soil microorganisms. Low root-respiration rates late in the season can be explained by a decrease of the mass ratio of respiring fine roots to structural, coarse roots as roots age (Lipp and Andersen, 2003). Whereas absolute soil respiration declined in our field experiment (Fig. 2b), the contribution of SOMD to the total CO_2 efflux increased from 65% to 78% whilst the contribution of RMR increased from 4% to 8% (Fig. 2a). Maize plants were already in the senescence stage in September, *i.e.*, parts of the roots were dying and became decomposed by rhizosphere microorganisms. Consequently, the contribution of SOMD was higher in September than in July due to less root-derived CO_2 ; the contribution of RMR increased due to reduced root respiration and decomposition of dead root cells by rhizosphere microorganisms. Total RDR in September, however, may have been underestimated due to higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of CO_2 from SOM decomposition than in July. Similar studies have reported an increased $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of CO_2 from bare-soil respiration late in the season (Rochette and Flanagan, 1997; Rochette et al., 1999b). One interpretation is that this late-season $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ increase reflects a reduced soil-respiration rate. The change in weather conditions in early autumn may also have led to a convective transfer of CO_2 downward from the aboveground atmosphere into the soil when the temperature is lower at the soil surface than below (Rochette et al., 1999b). Consequently, the higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of CO_2 from bare soil in autumn (Fig. 1b) might be less a result of fractionation than of weather-induced mixing of soil CO_2 and atmospheric CO_2 . The fractionations of 4‰ between microbial biomass and CO_2 —and of 5‰ between SOM and CO_2 —in September would then be overestimations. Lower fractionations would lead to a higher contribution of root-derived CO_2 to the total CO_2 efflux from the maize plot than shown in Fig. 2a. This calls for further clarification as to whether the higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of CO_2 from bare-soil respiration in autumn reflects fractionation or changing weather conditions.

5 Conclusions

In contrast to our assumptions, the active microbial biomass consuming maize rhizodeposits did not increase in the field compared to our former laboratory study. Accordingly, RMR was not considerably higher in the field, which could also be related to surface-near soil sampling from marginal rhizosphere. Due to different climate, site, and sampling conditions in the field, RR decreased and SOMD increased compared to our former laboratory study. Accounting for high ^{13}C fractionation during microbial uptake and respiration in autumn increased the relative amount of RMR in comparison to RR, which approximated to former studies. Therefore, isotopic fractionations in the natural- ^{13}C -labeling approach should be further investigated. Considering fractionations also led to equal RDR and SOMD contributions in natural- ^{13}C -labeling and root-exclusion approaches. Consequently, both approaches can be used to separate two CO_2 sources. The natural- ^{13}C -labeling method, however, remains problematic for the separation of three CO_2 sources due to different $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of microbial-biomass extracts and microbial respiration.

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Abbreviations

IRMS, isotope-ratio mass spectrometer; RDR, root-derived respiration; RMR, rhizomicrobial respiration; RR, root respiration; SD, standard deviation; SOM, soil organic matter; SOMD, soil organic matter decomposition

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