RESEARCH PAPER

Differential responses of two wetland graminoids to high ammonium at different pH values

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Keywords

Amino acids; ammonium toxicity; carbon allocation; graminoid dominance; nitrogen availability; pH; stress responses; wetlands.

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Editor

M. Hawkesford

Received: 23 December 2014; Accepted: 17 September 2015

doi:10.1111/plb.12398

ABSTRACT

Enhanced soil ammonium (NH₄⁺) concentrations in wetlands often lead to graminoid dominance, but species composition is highly variable. Although NH₄⁺ is readily taken up as a nutrient, several wetland species are known to be sensitive to high NH₄⁺ concentrations or even suffer toxicity, particularly at low soil pH. More knowledge about differential graminoid responses to high NH₄ availability in relation to soil pH can help to better understand vegetation changes. The responses of two wetland graminoids, Juncus acutiflorus and Carex disticha, to high (2 mmol l⁻¹) versus control (20 μmol·l⁻¹) NH₄ concentrations were tested in a controlled hydroponic set up, at two pH values (4 and 6). A high NH₄ concentration did not change total biomass for these species at either pH, but increased C allocation to shoots and increased P uptake, leading to K and Ca limitation, depending on pH treatment. More than 50% of N taken up by C. disticha was invested in N-rich amino acids with decreasing C:N ratio, but only 10% for J. acutiflorus. Although both species appeared to be well adapted to high NH₄ loadings in the short term, C. disticha showed higher classic detoxifying responses that are early warning indicators for decreased tolerance in the long term. In general, the efficient aboveground biomass allocation, P uptake and N detoxification explain the competitive strength of wetland graminoids at the expense of overall biodiversity at high NH₄⁺ loading. In addition, differential responses to enhanced NH₄ affect interspecific competition among graminoids and lead to a shift in vegetation composition.

INTRODUCTION

Increased nitrogen (N) availability is known lead to biodiversity loss and degradation of ecosystem functions, often related to enhanced dominance of N-limited graminoids (Bobbink et al. 1998). For several decades, N availability in wetlands has been greatly enhanced by the increased input of the mobile N-form nitrate (NO₃⁻) leaching from surrounding agricultural land (Britto & Kronzucker 2002; Miller & Cramer 2004; Sutton et al. 2011) and forests (Dise & Wright 1995) through enhanced atmospheric N deposition (Bobbink et al. 1998) and increased decomposition of organic soil with concomitant N mineralisation (Lamers et al. 2001; Geurts et al. 2010). In wetland soils, NO₃ is generally only present near the soil surface during relatively wet or waterlogged conditions. Instead, the more immobile NH₄⁺ is the dominant N form under anaerobic conditions due to limited oxygen availability, leading to low NH₄ oxidation rates, increased NO₃ losses through denitrification and dissimilatory NO₃ reduction to NH₄ (DNRA; Burgin & Hamilton 2008). A much increased N input may therefore lead to significantly increased NH₄⁺ concentrations in such wetland systems (Britto & Kronzucker 2002; Miller & Cramer 2004), affecting competition among species and leading to vegetation changes.

Although NH₄⁺ is readily taken up as a nutrient, various species from dry, moist and wetland ecosystems appear to be sensitive to high NH₄⁺ concentrations, and this N form can even become toxic (Van Katwijk *et al.* 1997; Britto & Kronzucker 2002; Stevens *et al.* 2011). Several typical sensitivity symptoms have regularly been found when plants were exposed to high NH₄⁺ concentrations, including suppressed growth (or even mortality), lower photosynthesis, a decrease in root–shoot ratio, decreased uptake of cations and increased uptake of anions, and increased metabolic costs due to assimilation of free amino acids (Britto & Kronzucker 2002; Tylová *et al.* 2008; Van der Heide *et al.* 2008; Christianen *et al.* 2011; Stevens *et al.* 2011; Fritz *et al.* 2014). However, tolerance to NH₄⁺ appears to differ widely among species and even among plants belonging to the same species (Cruz *et al.* 2011).

It is often assumed that plants naturally growing in NH₄⁺-rich, acidic systems are more tolerant to high NH₄⁺ concentrations, whereas acid-sensitive species from more buffered systems are more sensitive to NH₄⁺ (De Graaf *et al.* 1998; Britto *et al.* 2001; Britto & Kronzucker 2002; Van den Berg *et al.*

2005). Additionally, NH_4^+ toxicity is often found to be related to a low pH of the rhizosphere, while in more buffered conditions in the rhizosphere, toxicity symptoms are often minimised or even absent (Findenegg 1987; Lucassen *et al.* 2002; Van den Berg *et al.* 2005). Therefore, wetland species adapted to waterlogged, buffered conditions may be expected to cope well with strongly increased NH_4^+ levels in soil pore water (concentrations in the millimolar range) as long as the pH is in the neutral range. However, due to differences in their growth responses and tolerances, species (including graminoids) are expected to show differential responses.

In the present study, we therefore tested the responses and tolerances to greatly enhanced NH₄⁺ availability for two graminoid species that often dominate vegetation in wet grasslands and marshes, sharp-flowered rush (Juncus acutiflorus) and brown sedge (Carex disticha). First, we tested whether these wetland species indeed prefer uptake of NH₄⁺ rather than NO₃⁻. Second, their responses and tolerances to strongly increased NH₄ concentrations were tested under neutral and acidic conditions, by quantifying several factors that control NH₄⁺ tolerance of wetland graminoids. As both species naturally occur on buffered soils, we expected high NH₄ loadings to become toxic only at low pH, while at neutral pH a fertilising effect was expected. J. acutiflorus is often found in more nutrient-rich conditions than C. disticha, and increased dominance of J. acutiflorus at the expense of smaller sedges such as C. disticha has been regularly observed in wet meadows affected by increased N input (personal observations). As dominance of graminoids often affects biodiversity in wetlands, more knowledge of differential responses to highly increased NH₄⁺ availability may help to understand interspecific competition among graminoids and related changes in vegetation composition.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Test species

Two very common graminoid species for Europe, sharp-flowered rush (*J. acutiflorus*) and brown sedge (*C. disticha*), which usually occur on moist or wet soils in grasslands, sedge fens and dune valleys were used. The soils in these habitats are generally buffered at pH 5–6, and can be characterised as mesotrophic to moderately eutrophic. In the Netherlands, the soils of well-developed vegetation, in which both species are present but not dominant, contain NH_4^+ concentrations ranging from 10 to 20 μ mol·l⁻¹ (unpublished field data). Both species are known to have special adaptations, such as root aerenchyma and radial oxygen loss (ROL) from the roots, to function well in waterlogged conditions, although the spatial ROL pattern differs between the species (Lamers *et al.* 2013).

Plant collection

Before the start of the experiments, sods containing *C. disticha* and *J. acutiflorus* were collected from a wet meadow in a nature reserve near Nijmegen, the Netherlands (De Bruuk, 51°46′ N, 5°53′ E) in mid-June 2009 (N sensitivity experiment) and 2011 (N uptake experiment). Ramets of both species were carefully taken from the sods. The roots of equal-sized individuals (10–15 cm shoot length for both species) were cut off and the remaining shoots were put into an aerated ¹/₈ Hoagland nutri-

ent solution (Hoagland & Arnon 1950) for 4 weeks, in order to develop new roots to a length of approximately 2 cm, after which the experiments described below were initiated.

Nitrogen uptake experiment

The preferential N form (NO₃ or NH₄⁺) for both plant species was explored in an N uptake experiment. For this experiment, a hydroponic system was used with 1.5 l opaque plastic containers. After an acclimatisation period of 7 days in aerated ¹/₈ Hoagland nutrient solution at either pH 4 or pH 6 (containing both NO_3^- and NH_4^+), plants were provided with the following nutrient solution: $100 \ \mu mol \cdot l^{-1} \ Ca^{2+}$, $100 \ \mu mol \cdot l^{-1} \ Mg^{2+}$, $200 \ \mu mol \cdot l^{-1} \ K^+$, $100 \ \mu mol \cdot l^{-1} \ SO_4^2 -$, $200 \ \mu mol \cdot l^{-1} \ PO_4^{3-}$, $0.8 \ \mu mol \cdot l^{-1} \ Mn^{2+}$, $0.8 \ \mu mol \cdot l^{-1} \ H_3BO_3$, $0.7 \ \mu mol \cdot l^{-1} \ Zn^{2+}$, $0.27 \ \mu mol \ l^{-1}$ Fe (applied as Fe-EDTA), $0.2 \ \mu mol \ l^{-1}$ Cu²⁺, $0.008 \, \mu \text{mol} \cdot l^{-1}$ Mo (De Graaf et al. 1998), with both $NO_3^ (20 \ \mu\text{mol} \cdot l^{-1})$ and NH_4^+ $(20 \ \mu\text{mol} \cdot l^{-1})$ at either pH 4 or pH 6 (n = 5). A permanent air-flow through the nutrient solution prevented anaerobic conditions, and 1-cyanguanidine (1% molar concentration of the N concentration) was added to the nutrient solution to inhibit nitrification (Van den Berg et al. 2005). The experiment was performed in a climate-controlled room with a 16:8 h day:night regime, at an average temperature of 20 °C during the day and 17 °C at night, a relative humidity of 50-70% and photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) of 300–400 μ mol photons m⁻²·s⁻¹. Three individuals of the same species were placed in each plant container, using polystyrene trays for flotation. After 21 days, either Na¹⁵NO₃ or ¹⁵NH₄Cl (1% molar concentration of total N) was added to determine uptake rates of both N forms by the different species. After 2 h of labelling, plants were harvested and uptake rates calculated from the accumulation of enriched N in this period.

Nitrogen sensitivity experiment

After an acclimatisation period of 3 weeks in aerated ¹/₈ Hoagland nutrient solution, plants of both species were exposed to four different treatments in a full factorial designed hydroponic system, differing in N concentration and pH (n = 4). Two individuals of the same species were placed in each plant container using polystyrene trays for flotation and to prevent algal growth. A permanent air-flow through the nutrient solution prevented anaerobic conditions. In total, 32 plant containers were used. The experiment was performed in a climate-controlled room with similar conditions as described above, and lasted for 8 weeks. Two different nutrient solutions were used as treatments: 20 μ mol·l⁻¹ NH₄⁺ and 2 mmol·l⁻¹ NH₄⁺ at either pH 4 or pH 6. Concentrations of micronutrients were similar to those in the former experiment (see above) for all four solutions. The pH of the nutrient solution was set using 1.2 $\text{mol} \cdot \text{l}^{-1}$ HCl and 1 mol·l⁻¹ NaOH, pH was checked daily and adjusted when required. The nutrient solution in each container was continuously refreshed by pumping at a rate of 1.5 l·day⁻¹ from a separate 25-l opaque storage tank, filled with weekly-refreshed nutrient solution. In order to prevent nitrification, 1cyanguanidine (1% molar concentration of NH₄) was added to all storage tanks (Van den Berg et al. 2005). During the experiment, growth rates of roots and shoots were monitored by measuring their maximum length. After 8 weeks, all plants were harvested.

Chemical analysis

For both experiments, fresh weight of all root and shoot material was determined directly after harvesting, and for the N sensitivity experiment roots were scanned to determine total root length using WinRHIZO (Regent Instruments, Quebec, Canada). In addition, the number of leaves was counted for each individual plant. In the N sensitivity experiment, a fresh subsample (1 g) of all shoots was directly frozen at -80 °C for amino acid analysis. Free amino acids were extracted using ethanol according to Van Dijk & Roelofs (1988). Twenty amino acids were quantified by measuring fluorescence after pre-column derivation with 9-fluorenylmethyl-chloroformate (FMOC-Cl) and measured with Norvaline as internal standard using HPLC (Model 920-LC; Varian Liquid Chromatography, Palo Alto, CA, USA). Another fresh subsample of the shoot (2 cm²) was used to determine chlorophyll concentrations directly after harvest, using ethanol extraction (Wintermans & De Mots 1965) and a spectrophotometer (Model UV-1205; Shimadzu, Tokyo, Japan).

Root and shoot material was dried for 24 h at 70 °C to determine dry weight (biomass). Total concentrations of macroand micronutrients in roots and shoots were measured by digesting 200 mg dried, homogenised material in sealed Teflon vessels in an Ethos D microwave lab station Terminal 20 (Milestone Pharmatech, New Brunswick, NJ, USA) with 4 ml nitric acid (65% v/v) and 1 ml hydrogen peroxide (30% v/v). This material was then analysed for total concentrations of P, Ca, K, Mg, Fe and S using Inductively Coupled Plasma emission spectrophotometry (ICP, Iris Intrepid II; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). In order to measure C and N concentrations, 4 mg dried, homogenised root and shoot material were transferred to tin cups and combusted in a CNS elemental analyser (Model EA NA1500; Carlo Erba Instruments, Milan, Italy). For the N uptake experiment, isotopic N composition in the dry plant tissue was determined using an elemental analyser (Model EA 1110; Thermo Fisher Scientific) coupled to an Isotopic Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS, Model Finnigan Delta Plus; Thermo Fisher Scientific). Total uptake rates were calculated from enrichment of ¹⁵N in plant tissue, after correction of the ¹⁵N background due to natural abundance and the dilution factor of the added amount of ¹⁵N.

Statistical analysis

Data of sub-replicates from the two or three plants growing in one container were pooled by calculating average values for each container, leaving four or five replicates per treatment (sensitivity experiment and uptake experiment, respectively). Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM. If necessary, data were

transformed logarithmically to meet the criteria of ANOVA testing and all data were analysed using the SPSS 16.0 package (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). A one-way ANOVA was carried out to test for possible differences in chemical composition, root: shoot ratio and biomass, using treatment types as class variables. A two-way ANOVA was used to test for interactions between pH and N treatments.

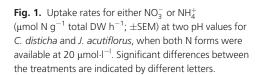
RESULTS

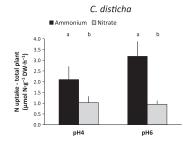
Uptake of NH₄⁺ versus NO₃⁻

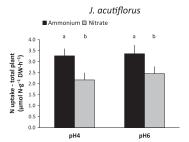
Both *C. disticha* and *J. acutiflorus* were able to take up NH_4^+ as well as NO_3^- at both pH 4 and pH 6 when the two N forms were available (Fig. 1). Due to high variation in root biomass, there were no significant differences between the uptake of NH_4^+ or NO_3^- when expressed per gram root dry weight (data not shown). Expressed per gram total biomass of the plants, however, both species showed higher uptake rates for NH_4^+ than for NO_3^- (P < 0.05; Fig. 1). The rates for NH_4^+ uptake were two times (pH 4) and three times (pH 6) those for NO_3^- in *C. disticha*, and only 1.5 times in *J. acutiflorus*. In this experiment, pH neither affected N uptake nor N allocation (results not shown) in the two species.

Effects of low versus high NH₄ on biomass production

The initial total plant biomass was $0.7\pm0.3\,\mathrm{g}$ FW $(0.12 \pm 0.05 \, g \,$ DW) for *C. disticha* and $1.2 \pm 0.6 \, g \,$ FW $(0.11 \pm 0.05 \text{ g} \text{ DW})$ for *J. acutiflorus*, without differences between treatments (data not shown). None of the treatments in the N sensitivity experiment led to mortality of individual plants. For both species, increased NH₄⁺ concentrations did not enhance total plant biomass (Fig. 2). For C. disticha, shoot biomass significantly (P < 0.001) increased at 2 mmol·l⁻¹ NH₄, while root biomass decreased (P < 0.001). Shoot biomass showed a higher increase at pH 6 than at pH 4 (P < 0.03). As a result, root:shoot ratios of *C. disticha* were lower (P < 0.001) at 2 mmol·l⁻¹ NH₄⁺, and lower at pH 6 (P < 0.01). For J. acutiflorus, an interaction (P < 0.03) between pH and high NH₄⁺ was found in shoot biomass. This led to an increase of shoot biomass in the high NH₄⁺ treatment compared to the low NH₄⁺ treatment at pH 4, while at pH 6 no significant differences were found. Root biomass was lower (P < 0.001) at high NH₄⁺ concentrations, both at pH 4 and pH 6. As a result, an interaction (P = 0.05) between high NH₄⁺ and pH was found for the root:shoot ratio, which was mostly caused by a decrease of root biomass (pH 4 and pH 6), and to a lesser extent by the increase in shoot biomass (pH 4). Moreover, for J. acutiflorus, lower total biomass at pH 6 than at pH 4 was reached (P < 0.05),







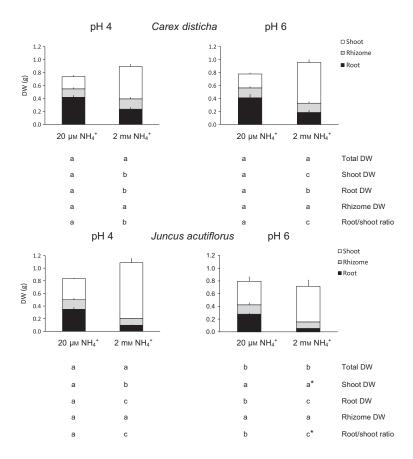


Fig. 2. Total biomass (g DW; \pm SEM) of *C. disticha* and *J. acutiflorus* after growing on 20 μmol·l⁻¹ NH₄⁺ or 2 mmol·l⁻¹ NH₄⁺, at either pH 4 or pH 6, divided into shoot biomass, rhizome biomass and root biomass. Significant differences are indicated by different letters, *indicates a significant interaction between pH and N effects.

regardless of the N treatment. No differences in rhizome biomass were found for either species.

Macro- and micro-nutrient content in plant tissue

As a result of the high NH₄ treatment, a significant increase in N concentration (P < 0.001) was found in shoot and root tissue of both species at both pH values, without interaction with pH (Table 1). Consequently, the C:N ratio in both root and shoot tissue was significantly reduced in the 2 mmol·l⁻¹ NH₄⁺ treatment from 50 to 10 and from 22 to 9 in the root and shoot, respectively (data not shown). The P concentration showed an increase (P < 0.01) in shoot tissue of both species at high NH₄, and also in root tissue for *J. acutiflorus* (P < 0.001). As a result of the relatively higher increase in N than in P concentration, N:P ratios still doubled at the high NH₄⁺ treatment in shoot and root tissue of both species (P < 0.001 and P < 0.05, respectively). The K concentration, in contrast, was lower (P < 0.001)in shoots of *C. disticha* treated with high NH₄⁺. In root biomass of C. disticha, interacting effects (P < 0.05) were found, indicating lower K concentrations at high NH₄ and high pH. Consequently, N:K ratios in roots of C. disticha showed an interaction effect (P < 0.05) between NH₄ and pH, and an increase in shoots only with high NH₄ (P < 0.001). For J. acutiflorus, pH and NH₄⁺ showed an interaction (P < 0.0015) in shoot tissue, with the lowest K concentrations at high NH₄⁺ and low pH. In root tissue of J. acutiflorus, K concentrations were also lower (P < 0.001) at high NH₄⁺, regardless of pH. This led to increased N:K ratios (P < 0.001) in roots of *J. acuti*florus, with an interaction effect (P = 0.05) between increased NH_4^+ and low pH.

The Fe concentrations in shoot and root tissue of C. disticha showed no differences between treatments (Table 1). Also J. acutiflorus showed no differences in Fe concentrations in roots. Although an interaction (P < 0.05) between N and pH treatments was found for shoots of this species, no clear pattern could be observed. In shoots of both species, lower concentrations of Ca were found at high NH₄ (P < 0.001) and at low pH (P < 0.01). In root tissue, lower (P < 0.001) Ca concentrations were found only for C. disticha at low pH, regardless of the N treatment. The Mg concentrations in root tissue of both species were also reduced (P < 0.001) at high NH₄⁺ and at a low pH (P < 0.001). In shoot tissue, lower (P < 0.05) Mg concentrations were only found at a low pH, but no differences between NH₄ treatments were found. In the high NH₄ treatment, sulphur (S) concentrations increased (P < 0.005) in root tissue at both pH values, while for shoot tissue this was only found at pH 6 (P < 0.05). When the dilution effect due to an increase in shoot biomass at high NH₄ was considered, calculations might show whether certain cations became limited for this treatment during the experiment (Timmer & Stone 1978; De Graaf et al. 1998). According to these calculations, Ca became limited at pH 4 for both species, and K became limited only for J. acutiflorus at both pH values.

Nitrogen allocation to free amino acids

Both species responded to enhanced $\mathrm{NH_4^+}$ concentrations by significantly (P < 0.001) increasing their total free amino acid concentrations in shoot tissue (Table 2). The strong correlation ($\mathrm{R^2} = 0.87$) between the total free amino acid concentration and the total N concentration in shoot tissue (Fig. 3) highlights

		Shoot							Root						
		NH ₄ 20 μM		NH ₄ 2 mM		P value			NH ₄ 20 μΜ		NH ₄ 2 mM		P value		
		pH 4	9 Hd	pH 4	9 Hd	z	Hd	Hd*N	pH 4	9 Hd	pH 4	9 Hd	z	Hd	N*pH
Carex disticha															
U	mmol·g ⁻¹ DW	35 ± 1.1	35 ± 0.4	36 ± 1.2	38 ± 1.1	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	38 ± 0.9	36 ± 0.7	38 ± 1.2	37 ± 0.4	n.s.	n.s.	n.S.
Z	mmol·g ⁻¹ DW	1.5 ± 0.1	1.4 ± 0.1	3.4 ± 0.1	3.7 ± 0.1	0.00	n.s.	n.s.	0.6 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.1	3.6 ± 0.2	3.2 ± 0.1	0.00	n.s.	n.S.
۵	µmol⋅g ⁻¹ DW	113 ± 5	128 ± 7	144 ± 9	141 ± 9	0.01	n.s.	n.s.	61 ± 3	86 ± 9	93 ± 14	93 ± 11	n.s.	n.s.	n.S.
\checkmark	µmol⋅g ⁻¹ DW	551 ± 17	547 ± 12	389 ± 68	309 ± 24	00.00	n.s.	n.s.	470 ± 28	345 ± 17	96 ± 13	56 ± 7	0.00	00.00	0.04
Fe	µmol·g ^{−1} DW	1.2 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.2	1.1 ± 0.1	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	5.9 ± 2.2	4.7 ± 0.9	3.2 ± 1.0	5.5 ± 1.1	n.s.	n.s.	n.S.
Са	µmol⋅g ⁻¹ DW	203 ± 8	279 ± 31	96 ± 13	130 ± 11	00.00	0.01	n.s.	34 ± 1	47 ± 4	32 ± 3	59 ± 5	n.s.	00.00	n.s.
Mg	µmol·g ^{−1} DW	101 ± 6	138 ± 18	101 ± 9	174 ± 12	n.s.	00.00	n.s.	61 ± 2	107 ± 5	27 ± 3	42 ± 2	0.00	00.00	0.00
S	µmol⋅g ⁻¹ DW	66 ± 5	61 ± 5	9 + 29	91 ± 8	0.02	n.s.	0.03	49 ± 4	41 ± 4	64 ± 4	70 ± 8	0.00	n.s.	n.s.
N:P ratio	g·g ⁻¹	6.0 ± 0.3	5.0 ± 0.5	10.8 ± 0.9	12.2 ± 0.5	0.00	n.s.	n.s.	+	3.8 ± 0.4	18.6 ± 1.9	16.9 ± 2.0	0.00	n.s.	n.s.
N:K ratio	g·g_1	1.0 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	3.4 ± 0.5	4.4 ± 0.3	0.00	n.s.	n.s.	0.5 ± 0.0	0.7 ± 0.1	14.2 ± 1.8	23.8 ± 2.3	0.00	00.00	0.01
Juncus acutiflorus	lorus														
U	mmol·g ⁻¹ DW	33 ± 0.7	32 ± 0.5	+	33 ± 0.9	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	36 ± 0.7	37 ± 1.1	36 ± 0.6	33 ± 2.2	n.s.	n.s.	n.S.
z	mmol·g ⁻¹ DW	1.6 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1	+	2.9 ± 0.1	0.00	n.s.	n.s.	0.4 ± 0.0	0.8 ± 0.1	1.9 ± 0.2	1.8 ± 0.2	0.00	n.s.	n.s.
Ь	μmol⋅g ^{−1} DW	143 ± 6	119 ± 12	+	175 ± 15	0.01	n.s.	n.s.	72 ± 4	66 ± 5	129 ± 6	163 ± 19	0.00	n.s.	n.s.
\checkmark	μmol⋅g ⁻¹ DW	947 ± 6	854 ± 51	239 ± 44	423 ± 44	0.00	n.s.	0.01	269 ± 16	226 ± 13	103 ± 15	117 ± 27	0.00	n.s.	n.s.
Fe	μmol⋅g ^{−1} DW	1.5 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.1	+	1.4 ± 0.2	n.s.	n.s.	0.03	19 ± 7	20 ± 9	54 ± 17	33 ± 15	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Са	µmol⋅g ⁻¹ DW	91 ± 7	148 ± 17	+	83 ± 10	0.00	0.00	n.s.	68 ± 2	89 ± 2	71 ± 5	81 ± 14	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Mg	μmol⋅g ^{−1} DW	160 ± 5	159 ± 11	113 ± 11	182 ± 21	n.s.	0.02	0.01	45 ± 2	80 ± 3	25 ± 2	43 ± 2	0.00	00.00	n.s.
S	μmol⋅g ^{−1} DW	104 ± 2	117 ± 8	+	145 ± 15	n.s.	0.02	n.s.	42 ± 2	45 ± 2	81 ± 6	86 ± 10	0.00	n.s.	n.s.
N:P ratio	g·g_1	5.1 ± 0.4	4.8 ± 0.1	+	+	00.00	n.s.	n.s.	2.6 ± 0.2	5.4 ± 0.1	7.1 ± 0.5	6.5 ± 1.6	0.00	n.s.	0.02
N:K ratio	g·g_1	0.6 ± 0.0	0.5 ± 0.0	+	3.0 ± 0.6	0.00	0.03	0.05	0.6 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1	8.6 ± 1.4	7.7 ± 1.8	00.00	n.s.	n.s.

the investment of both species into N-rich amino acids to store available N. The strongest response was shown by C. disticha, with 73-75% of the total amino acid concentration, consisting of N-rich amino acids at the high NH₄⁺ treatment. The dominant N-rich free amino acid was asparagine, which accounted for 71-73% of the total free amino acid concentration. At the same time, other free amino acids, such as glutamine and aspartic acid, showed a decrease (P < 0.001) in the shoot tissue of C. disticha. Although J. acutiflorus showed a similar response to enhanced NH₄⁺, this was much less extreme than in C. dis*ticha. J. acutiflorus* also showed an increase (P < 0.001) in total free amino acid concentration (Table 2). However, only 29-41% of the total free amino acid concentration was invested in N-rich amino acids (P < 0.01), mostly of asparagine (14–28%) and glutamine (11-12%). The total N concentration and the free amino acid concentration in J. acutiflorus increased less than in C. disticha (Fig. 3). Most of the total N is located in the shoot tissue of both species (Fig. 4), showing strong and significant interactions (P < 0.01) between high NH₄⁺ and pH. However, C. disticha distributed more N (P < 0.001) towards the roots in response to high NH₄⁺, while this response was absent for J. acutiflorus.

DISCUSSION

Nutrient and C allocation

The use of NO₃ is an energy-demanding process for plants, because it has to be reduced to NH₄⁺ before assimilation (Marschner 1995; Miller & Cramer 2004). Because NH₄⁺ uptake is energetically more favourable, and both species often occur in wet, relatively NH₄⁺-rich environments, a preference for NH₄ was to be expected. We indeed found that particularly C. disticha, and to a lesser extent also J. acutiflorus, preferentially took up NH₄⁺. Although NH₄⁺ uptake was higher, NO₃⁻ was also taken up readily, especially by J. acutiflorus. In anoxic wetland soils, NH₄⁺ is the most common N species present, but radial oxygen loss enhances oxidation of the rhizosphere (Visser et al. 2000; Colmer 2003), leading to enhanced nitrification around root surfaces (Engelaar et al. 1995; Armstrong & Armstrong 2001). With this rhizosphere modifying strategy, wetland plants might facilitate the uptake of either NO₃ or NH₄⁺ (Chang et al. 2010; Konnerup & Brix 2010). Interestingly, J. acutiflorus, which showed the highest affinity for NO₃, also has the highest radial oxygen loss (Lamers et al. 2013). In addition, high affinities for NO₃⁻ in addition to NH₄⁺ are also beneficial for both species when occurring in riparian wetlands.

Surprisingly, total biomass of both species was not affected at the high NH₄⁺ treatment (2 mmol·l⁻¹), while total biomass of other wetland species, such as *Acorus calamus* (Vojtísková *et al.* 2004) and *Glyceria maxima* (Tylová *et al.* 2008), decreased as a result of sensitivity to high NH₄⁺ loadings (respectively, 14.8 and 3.7 mmol·l⁻¹). In our experiments, there was neither a negative (toxic) nor a positive (nutrient) effect. Instead, *J. acutiflorus* and *C. disticha* only showed modified biomass allocation, in the form of a decreased root:shoot ratio, as result of high NH₄⁺. This ability to change only biomass allocation, without decreasing total biomass, suggests high NH₄⁺ tolerance. Such a tolerance to high NH₄⁺ loadings in wetland graminoids was so far only found for *Phragmites australis* (Tylová *et al.* 2008; Engloner 2009). Given the low N:P ratios in the aboveground

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		Carex disticha	æ						Juncus acutiflorus	orus					
		NH ₄ 20 μΜ		NH ₄ 2 mM		P value	_		ИН₄ 20 μм		NH ₄ 2 mM		P value		
		pH 4	9 Hd	pH 4	9 Hd	z	Hd	Hd*N	pH 4	9 Hd	pH 4	9 Hd	z	Hd	N*pH
Total AAs	μmol N g ⁻¹ DW	51±8	53 ± 7	680 ± 81	497 ± 70	00.00	n.s.	n.s.	84 ± 9	64 ± 5	164 ± 19	217 ± 21	00.00	n.s.	0.03
N-rich AAs	μ mol N g ⁻¹ DW	2.9 ± 1.0	7.1 ± 3.1	497 ± 74	371 ± 66	00.00	n.s.	n.s.	8.2 ± 1.1	6.5 ± 1.2	49 ± 9	91 ± 11	00.00	n.s.	0.01
Asparagine	μ mol N g ⁻¹ DW	0.8 ± 0.4	4.0 ± 3.1	487 ± 73	365 ± 65	00.00	n.s.	n.s.	1.0 ± 0.3	0.8 ± 0.4	23 ± 5	61 ± 5	00.00	0.03	0.01
Aspartic acid	μ mol N g ⁻¹ DW	3.3 ± 0.3	3.3 ± 0.5	0.5 ± 0.5	1.2 ± 0.7	00.00	n.s.	n.s.	5.1 ± 0.5	3.9 ± 0.2	9.3 ± 1.2	8.3 ± 1.5	00.00	n.s.	n.s.
Glutamine	μ mol N g ⁻¹ DW	0.9 ± 0.3	1.2 ± 0.3	0 + 0	0 # 0	00.00	n.s.	n.s.	2.5 ± 0.8	1.7 ± 0.4	21 ± 5	24 ± 12	00.00	n.s.	n.s.
Glutamic acid	μ mol N g ⁻¹ DW	12.6 ± 0.8	11.8 ± 1.8	11.1 ± 1.5	9.4 ± 1.2	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	12.9 ± 1.3	12.1 ± 0.7	20 ± 4	23 ± 2	00.00	n.s.	n.s.
Arginine	μ mol N g ⁻¹ DW	0.2 ± 0.1	0.3 ± 0.1	6.2 ± 1.0	3.2 ± 1.3	00.00	n.s.	0.05	0.6 ± 0.2	0.3 ± 0.0	1.0 ± 0.4	1.7 ± 1.1	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Alanine	µmol N g ⁻¹ DW	4.5 ± 0.5	4.1 ± 0.6	18.4 ± 2.9	14.4 ± 1.8	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	4.8 ± 0.6	2.9 ± 0.1	10.0 ± 0.8	12.2 ± 3.2	0.01	n.s.	n.s.
Serine	µmol N g ⁻¹ DW	6.0 ± 1.3	5.8 ± 1.3	83.3 ± 7.5	46.4 ± 8.9	00.00	n.s.	n.s.	5.2 ± 0.6	4.0 ± 0.6	11.9 ± 2.4	14.1 ± 1.8	0.00	n.s.	n.s.

biomass (<14 g·g⁻¹) that we found for both species, it seems likely that growth was N-limited in the low NH₄⁺ treatments (Wassen et al. 1995; Koerselman & Meuleman 1996; Verhoeven et al. 1996; Olde Venterink et al. 2002; Güsewell 2004, 2005). However, at the high NH₄⁺ treatments, this seems very unlikely. In addition, as higher NH₄⁺ availability increased P uptake, and N:P ratios remained below this critical value, P limitation was even more unlikely. However, high NH₄⁺ levels decreased K concentrations in the shoot, leading to increased N:K ratios. The fact that these ratios were >2.1 indicate that growth may have become (co-)limited by K at high NH₄ (Olde Venterink et al. 2002), as confirmed for J. acutiflorus using the method of Timmer & Stone (1978) and De Graaf et al. (1998). These results are in agreement with Tylová et al. (2008), who also found induced K shortage in the wetland species G. maxima as a result of high NH₄⁺ levels. Although total biomass was not affected, J. acutiflorus had lower shoot biomass, as might be expected with high NH₄ at pH 6. Although it is difficult to explain this response from our results, previous research suggests that cation deficiency might indeed be responsible for reduced growth of J. acutiflorus (Smolders et al. 1997).

Effects of pH

A low pH was expected to have a negative effect on cation uptake at increasing NH₄⁺ levels (Findenegg 1987; Lucassen

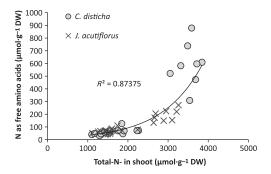


Fig. 3. Correlation between total N concentrations (μ mol N g⁻¹ DW) in shoots of *C. disticha* and *J. acutiflorus*, and their N concentrations as free amino acids (μ mol N g⁻¹ DW).

et al. 2002; Van den Berg et al. 2005). A higher proton concentration impairs the uptake of NH₄ because it is accompanied by the release of protons to the rhizosphere (Miller & Cramer 2004). Lucassen et al. (2002) found that the wetland species Cirsium dissectum suffered from severe growth reduction and even mortality at high NH₄ and pH 4, but not at pH 6, due to internal acidification of the roots. In contrast, neither growth nor NH₄ uptake rates of both tested graminoids was significantly affected by low pH in our study. It has been suggested that the uptake of NH₄⁺ is most favourable when cotransported with anions, since the assimilation of these anions could enhance rhizosphere alkalinisation (Britto & Kronzucker 2002). Although increasing S concentrations with increasing NH₄ concentration were found earlier for Gentiana pneumonanthe, Calluna vulgaris, Deschampsia flexuosa (Van den Berg et al. 2005) and Ricinus communis (Van Beusichem et al. 1988), we found this effect mainly for root tissue. Uptake of other anions, such as bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻), could have caused a similar effect. Since we used a nitrification inhibitor, NO₃ concentrations are unlikely to have induced this response.

Nutrient or toxin?

Biomass and resource allocation reflects the plasticity of plants to adapt to new situations, and to be able to compete with other fast-growing species under more nutrient-rich conditions. Both species were able to increase their competitive strength with respect to light acquisition, at a lower root biomass, showing high C efficiency. Investing less C, while additional N is demanded for chlorophyll synthesis during biomass allocation to the shoot (Van Dijk & Roelofs 1988), seems adaptively beneficial with highly increased NH₄⁺ levels. This result shows that N eutrophication does not have to lead to higher total biomass production of plants per se in order to increase their competitive strength. It also suggests that the positive aboveground response that is generally found as a result of eutrophication, without considering belowground responses, may reflect changed biomass allocation rather than growth stimulation; especially if other nutrients such as K may have become (co-)limited as a result of enhanced uptake of NH₄⁺. On the other hand, such changes in plant morphology and physiology as a result of increased NH₄ might still negatively

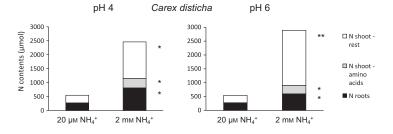
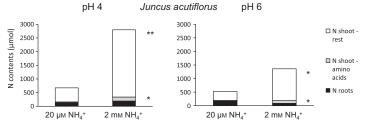


Fig. 4. Total-N content (μ mol) in plants of *C. disticha* or *J. acutiflorus*, in roots, in free amino acids in the shoot and in the rest of the shoot, after growing on low (20 μ mol·l⁻¹) or high (2 mmol·l⁻¹) NH₄ concentrations at either pH 4 or pH 6. *Indicates a significant increase due to the N treatment, **indicates a significant increase due to an interacting effect of the N and pH treatment



affect plant fitness in the long term. The observed low root: shoot ratio in combination with impaired uptake per unit root biomass may reduce the uptake rates of other essential nutrients, and make plants more vulnerable to desiccation (Marschner 1995; De Graaf et al. 1998). In addition, N enrichment of plant tissue may enhance herbivory (Mattson 1980). Although a reduced root:shoot ratio is recognised as a symptom of NH₄⁺ toxicity (Britto & Kronzucker 2002; Stevens et al. 2011), its occurrence alone may not certify actual toxicity. However, deficient plant Ca and K concentrations found for both graminoids in response to enhanced NH₄⁺ uptake (Van Beusichem et al. 1988; Britto & Kronzucker 2002; Tylová et al. 2008; Stevens et al. 2011), and strongly increased concentrations of free (Nrich) amino acids in their shoot tissue (Marschner 1995; Smolders et al. 2000; Britto & Kronzucker 2002; Miller & Cramer 2004; Stevens et al. 2011), do indicate that both species suffer from N overload. NH₄ is taken up through passive diffusion, but it also has to be assimilated immediately because of its toxicity when accumulating in plant tissue. Consequently, uptake of NH₄ directly results in a high demand for C skeletons during assimilation (Miller & Cramer 2004).

Differential responses

High accumulation of free N-rich amino acids can be a good indicator for N saturation in plants (Van Dijk & Roelofs 1988; Rabe 1990; Näsholm et al. 1994; Smolders et al. 2000; Tomassen et al. 2003). In our study, C. disticha stored much more total N (up to 50%) in the form of free amino acids in aboveground biomass than J. acutiflorus (10%). Smolders et al. (1996) found extremely high accumulation of total N (82-97%) as free amino acids, mostly as asparagine, in P-deficient Stratiotes aloides subjected to high NH₄⁺ levels. In our study, C. disticha also predominantly invested in the amino acid asparagine, which is known to be a storage compound and the major transport compound of N from the root to the leaves (Miflin & Lea 1977; Lam et al. 1996; Lea et al. 2007); its amide group can be used in the assimilation of proteins, contributing to different metabolic pathways (Miflin & Lea 1977). Asparagine can readily accumulate at high rates when plants are growing in a N-rich medium, especially when another mineral ion, probably K or Ca in our study, becomes limited for growth (Rabe 1990; Lea et al. 2007). In contrast, J. acutiflorus did accumulate a wider variety of free amino acids in addition to asparagine, including glutamine, glutamic acid, alanine and serine. Glutamine synthesis is the initial step from which other amino acids that are used in the metabolism of developing plant parts are synthesised (Miflin & Lea 1977). This might indicate that although free amino acid concentrations are increasing, J. acutiflorus still seems to be coping relatively well with increased NH₄⁺ uptake, while *C. disticha* appears to be more sensitive. As total biomass was not enhanced, however, J. acutiflorus might

additionally have accumulated non-amino acid N compounds that were not measured in our study. Cruz et al. (2011) suggested that plant tolerance to NH₄⁺ might differ among species. Our results indeed showed differential responses between specific wetland-adapted graminoids. Tylová et al. (2008) suggested that different responses between wetland species upon high NH₄⁺ could be related to their rooting strategy in hypoxic soils. The deeper rooting strategy and higher ROL (Lamers et al. 2013) might enhance NH₄⁺ tolerance of J. acutiflorus, although this was not studied here. Our results imply that in addition to increased growth rates, differential tolerances to high NH₄⁺ concentrations among graminoids might lead to changes in composition; in our case higher competitive strength of J. acutiflorus and lower competitive strength of C. disticha in the long term.

CONCLUSIONS

The wetland graminoids *J. acutiflorus* and *C. disticha* appeared to be well adapted to a highly increased NH₄⁺ concentration, and showed high tolerance in the short term. They both showed high C efficiency, allocating biomass towards aboveground plant tissue without any change in total biomass. This efficient C allocation response enhances the competitive strength of graminoids upon N enrichment, which will lead to changes in plant composition at the expense of wetland biodiversity. In addition, both species showed several well-known response mechanisms in order to detoxify high NH₄ loadings, including decreased root: shoot ratios, increased allocation of N into free amino acids and indications of cation (K, Ca) deficiency. However, differential responses were found, as C. disticha showed a higher classic detoxifying responses than J. acutiflorus, which are early warning indicators for decreased tolerance to high NH₄⁺ loadings in the long term. The differential responses of graminoid species will also affect their interspecific competition when NH₄ availability increases. Even though high tolerance was observed in the short term, it can be expected that the plasticity and adaptive ability with respect to high NH₄⁺ loadings might decrease the competitive strength of C. disticha, and presumably also of J. acutiflorus, in the long term.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank Jeroen Graafland for assistance in experimental set up, plant measurements and final harvest, Paul van der Ven for assistance in chemical analyses and Jelle Eygensteyn for assistance with amino acid and stable isotopes analyses. We would also like to thank Harry Woesthuis (State Forestry) for giving his kind permission to collect plants from wetland reserve De Bruuk (the Netherlands) and Roland Bobbink for valuable suggestions after pre-reviewing our manuscript.

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