



Nitrate dynamics in natural plants: insights based on the concentration and natural isotope abundances of tissue nitrate

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The dynamics of nitrate (NO_3^-), a major nitrogen (N) source for natural plants, has been studied mostly through experimental N addition, enzymatic assay, isotope labeling, and genetic expression. However, artificial N supply may not reasonably reflect the N strategies in natural plants because NO_3^- uptake and reduction may vary with external N availability. Due to abrupt application and short operation time, field N addition, and isotopic labeling hinder the elucidation of *in situ* NO_3^- -use mechanisms. The concentration and natural isotopes of tissue NO_3^- can offer insights into the plant NO_3^- sources and dynamics in a natural context. Furthermore, they facilitate the exploration of plant NO_3^- utilization and its interaction with N pollution and ecosystem N cycles without disturbing the N pools. The present study was conducted to review the application of the denitrifier method for concentration and isotope analyses of NO_3^- in plants. Moreover, this study highlights the utility and advantages of these parameters in interpreting NO_3^- sources and dynamics in natural plants. We summarize the major sources and reduction processes of NO_3^- in plants, and discuss the implications of NO_3^- concentration in plant tissues based on existing data. Particular emphasis was laid on the regulation of soil NO_3^- and plant ecophysiological functions in interspecific and intra-plant NO_3^- variations. We introduce N and O isotope systematics of NO_3^- in plants and discuss the principles and feasibilities of using isotopic enrichment and fractionation factors; the correlation between concentration and isotopes (N and O isotopes: $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$); and isotope mass-balance calculations to constrain sources and reduction of NO_3^- in possible scenarios for natural plants are deliberated. Finally, we offer a preliminary framework of intraplant $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ - NO_3^- variation, and summarize the uncertainties in using tissue NO_3^- parameters to interpret plant NO_3^- utilization.

Keywords: atmospheric nitrate, denitrifier method, isotopic enrichment, isotopic fractionation, nitrate reductase, oxygen isotope, plant nitrate, soil nitrogen availability

PLANT NITRATE (NO_3^-) IN A NATURAL CONTEXT

Nitrogen (N) is a key factor in the control of the primary productivity in terrestrial plant ecosystems (Vitousek and Howarth, 1991; LeBauer and Treseder, 2008). Among the N species available to plants, ammonium (NH_4^+) is dominant in the inorganic N of unfertilized soils (Schimel and Bennett, 2004) and atmospheric N deposition (Stevens et al., 2011). Some plants prefer NH_4^+ (Britto and Kronzucker, 2013) while the roots of a few plants directly absorb organic N (Chapin et al., 1993; Näsholm et al., 2009; Hill et al., 2013). However, nitrate (NO_3^-) is an important N source for all plants because of its versatile functions in both plant nutrition and physiological regulations (Raven, 2003; Wang et al., 2012). The utilization of NO_3^- (mainly uptake and reduction/assimilation) has been investigated intensively in plants through characterization of related enzymes including nitrate reductase (NR) and nitrite reductase (NiR) and their activities (NRA and NiRA, respectively) in response to different

environmental conditions (Beevers and Hageman, 1969; Atkin et al., 1993; Kronzucker et al., 1995; Campbell, 1999). The framework of plant NO_3^- studies has expanded in the past few decades due to the availability of molecular techniques. A few model plants have been used in understanding the transporters responsible for NO_3^- uptake and transportation (Wang et al., 2012). Besides its function in nutrient supply, plant NO_3^- and its metabolism contain unique information related to the mediation of plant physiology, diversity, and the ecosystem N cycle (Crawford, 1995; Tischner, 2000). However, evolution has yielded diverse strategies by which plants acquire N and NO_3^- from natural environments to adapt to changes in ecosystem N availability (Chapin, 1980; Raven and Yin, 1998; Nacry et al., 2013). Therefore, there are considerable uncertainties in assessing the utilization of NO_3^- by plants in natural habitats, which cannot be explained fully by laboratory-based mechanisms because of methodological constraints. Consequently, a great need exists

for a straightforward estimation of plant NO_3^- availability and a mechanistic understanding of the processes controlling plant NO_3^- uptake and reduction. These can enhance our understanding of the role of plant NO_3^- utilization in the ecosystem N cycle and the changes of plant growth and diversity with ecosystem N status (Lambers et al., 2008; Bloom et al., 2010; Boudsoq et al., 2012).

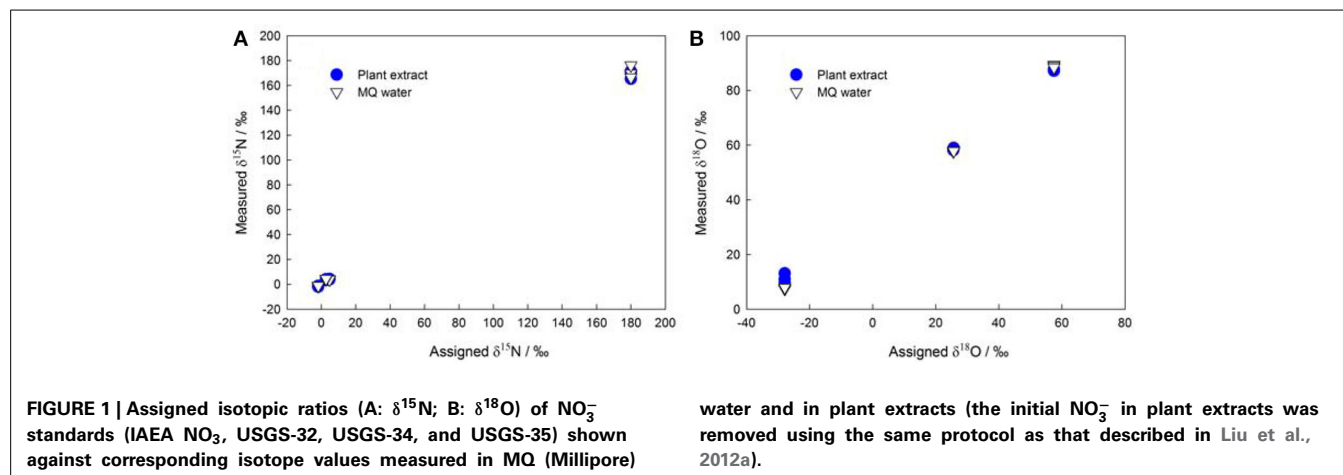
DENITRIFIER METHOD FOR NO_3^- IN NATURAL PLANTS

Natural abundance of stable isotopes in natural plants can integrate the information related to N sources and physiological processes (Högberg, 1997; Robinson, 2001; Craine et al., 2009). The stable isotopes include $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, and $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ for NO_3^- ; $^{15}\text{N}:^{14}\text{N}$, $^{18}\text{O}:^{16}\text{O}$, and $^{17}\text{O}:^{16}\text{O}$ ratios expressed relative to atmospheric N_2 and standardized mean ocean water (VSMOW), respectively (Coplen, 2011). These isotopes have been broadly used for studying plant N strategies and enzymatic dynamics in natural settings (Evans, 2001; Tcherkez and Farquhar, 2006; Granger et al., 2010). Nevertheless, it is difficult to measure the concentration and isotopes ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) of NO_3^- in plant tissues precisely using traditional methods (Liu et al., 2012a). The use of the denitrifier method for measuring low (sub-nanomole) concentrations of NO_3^- ($[\text{NO}_3^-]$) started during the mid-1980s (Lensi et al., 1985). The method has high sensitivity and is especially applicable for samples with low $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ but with high dissolved organic carbon (DOC) (Christensen and Tiedje, 1988; Binnerup and Sørensen, 1992; Aakra et al., 2000). The denitrifier method developed for both $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analysis is based on the isotopic analysis of nitrous oxide (N_2O). The N_2O is converted from sample NO_3^- by cultured denitrifying bacteria (*Pseudomonas aureofaciens*; ATCC 13985) that lack N_2O reductase activity (Sigman et al., 2001; Casciotti et al., 2002). The method was initially performed on seawater with 20–50 nmol NO_3^- . Since then, the application has been expanded widely to accommodate isotopic analysis of NO_3^- in fresh water (e.g., groundwater, stream water, precipitation), soil and sediment water, soil extracts, as well as dissolved organic N (DON) in seawater and DON bound to diatoms as described by Koba et al. (2010a) and McIlvin and Casciotti (2011), respectively. This method has recently been used for measurements of NO_3^- in natural plants and crops (Liu et al., 2012a, 2013a; Laursen

et al., 2013; Bloom et al., 2014; Mihailova et al., 2014). The established protocol facilitates the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ ($\Delta^{17}\text{O} = [1 + \delta^{17}\text{O}] / [1 + \delta^{18}\text{O}]^{0.5247} - 1$; Kaiser et al., 2007) analysis of leaf NO_3^- to diagnose atmosphere-derived NO_3^- in leaf uptake (Mukotaka, 2014).

The denitrifier method enables more precise measurements of subnanomole amounts of NO_3^- (Binnerup and Sørensen, 1992; Højberg et al., 1994) as compared to traditional methods that use flow injection analysis, ion chromatography, high-performance liquid chromatography, and Kjeldahl distillation. Thus, the denitrifier method overcomes the difficulties in determining NO_3^- in plant, soil, and sediment samples (Norwitz and Keliher, 1986; Anderson and Case, 1999; Alves et al., 2000). Moreover, it greatly simplifies the pretreatment procedures and reduces the risk of contamination during plant NO_3^- isotopic analysis (see the old $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ protocol in Volk et al., 1979 and Evans et al., 1996). The denitrifier method especially avoids the influence of DOC in plant extracts (Haberhauer and Blochberger, 1999) on the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of NO_3^- (Figure 1) that was previously measured as carbon monoxide with TC/EA-IRMS (Michalski, 2010).

Compared with NRA assays, concentrations and isotopic signatures of tissue NO_3^- provide more authentic evidence related to NO_3^- uptake and reduction under *in situ* N availability. *In vitro* and *in vivo* NRA measurements (Stewart et al., 1992, 1993) do not reflect the *in situ* ability of plant NO_3^- reduction. This is because firstly, the added amount of NO_3^- (often at the micromolar level) during NRA assays is uniform. Moreover it is much higher than normal NO_3^- availability and the endogenous NO_3^- in natural plants. The synthesis of the NR enzyme or the activation of NRA, however, is substrate-inducible (Beevers and Hageman, 1969; Somers et al., 1983; Campbell, 1999). Secondly, the reagents used in the assay can affect the estimation of NRA. Different analytical settings (e.g., with or without ethanol) can alter the fluxes of NO_3^- and photosynthate, resulting in different estimations (Ferrari and Varner, 1970; Aslam, 1981). Thirdly, NRA might be altered by pH adjustment and vacuum infiltration during the NRA analysis. High DOC concentrations in the plant extract also easily destroy the precision of the colorimetric determination of NO_3^- or nitrite (NO_2^-) (Alves et al., 2000).



Since natural isotope analysis does not require artificial N addition, it presents no risk of changing the soil N pools and plant N-uptake kinetics (Liu et al., 2012b). The natural abundance approach does not disturb the N pools in plants and provides information related to the NO_3^- behavior in plant tissues based on isotopic compositions and fractionations. In fact, the field application of $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ tracer is advantageous in terms of the total and short-term incorporation of NO_3^- into plants (e.g., McKane et al., 2002; Wanek and Zotz, 2011). However, the added tracer cannot bypass the influence of soil microbial activity, which can greatly change the picture of N uptake and preference over time (Harrison et al., 2007). Measurements of cytosolic and vacuolar NO_3^- concentrations have been conducted to explore factors controlling uptake, intracellular transport and assimilation. However, related techniques such as compartmental radiotracer (e.g., ^{13}N ; Kronzucker et al., 1995), efflux analysis, nuclear magnetic resonance, cell fractionation, and NO_3^- -selective microelectrodes showed high cost and low field operability (Zhen et al., 1991; Miller and Smith, 1996). The calculated $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ is especially sensitive to the small error of the estimation of cytosolic and vacuolar volumes, the precisions of which are difficult to ascertain.

MAJOR SOURCES AND PROCESSES OF NO_3^- IN NATURAL PLANTS

Root NO_3^- uptake from the soil is achieved by active transportation (Wang et al., 2012). The extracellular NO_3^- enters the cytosol of plant cells where it is either reduced by NR to NO_2^- or stored in the vacuoles (Figure 2). The NO_2^- will be transported into plastids (in root) or chloroplasts (in leaf) and reduced further by NiR to reduced N (Figure 2). Both NRA and NiRA are well known to be substrate-inducible, meaning that the *de novo* synthesis of the enzyme results from the presence and increase of the NO_3^- in plants (Beevers and Hageman, 1969; Campbell, 1999). The induction of NRA by both soil and airborne NO_3^- is an important mechanism to elucidate the interactions among NO_3^- uptake, translocation/allocation, and reduction dynamics (Norby et al., 1989; Scheible et al., 1997a; Tischner, 2000).

The NO_3^- transported by the xylem flow, either directly from soil or partially processed by root NR, is the initial NO_3^- reaching leaves and shoots (Peuke et al., 2013). This is especially true for plants growing at some pristine sites (e.g., arctic tundra

where the atmospheric NO_3^- availability is negligible. However, in regions with substantial NO_3^- deposition, both atmospheric NO_x and NO_3^- serve as potential sources of NO_3^- in leaves (Wellburn, 1990; Raven and Yin, 1998; Sparks et al., 2001), especially for non-vascular plants such as mosses, which rely more on atmospheric nutrients (Liu et al., 2012c). Leaf NO_3^- acquisition from the atmosphere is conducted through passive diffusion mechanisms wherein uptake through the stomata is dominant (Wellburn, 1990; Raven et al., 1992; Gessler et al., 2002) (Figure 2). The leaf-accessible NO_3^- in the atmosphere includes an array of inorganic and organic ions and compounds (Wellburn, 1998; Teklemariam and Sparks, 2004; Vallano and Sparks, 2008). Although, previous tracer studies have described their incorporation into leaves (Hanson and Garten, 1992; Yoneyama et al., 2003; Lockwood et al., 2008), it is rather difficult to apply the natural abundance method for estimating field contributions of atmospheric NO_3^- . This can be attributed to the heterogeneity in chemical and deposition forms, and temporal and spatial distributions (Sievering et al., 2007; Sparks, 2009).

CONCENTRATION LEVELS AND IMPLICATIONS OF NO_3^- IN NATURAL PLANTS

Nitrate cannot be produced in photoautotrophic plants, except in a few legumes (Hipkin et al., 2004). The presence of NO_3^- in any part of a plant constitutes evidence of NO_3^- uptake by the plant and reflects that external NO_3^- is available; and that the rate of uptake is higher than the rate of reduction. The NO_3^- that is extractable from a plant organ is often a sum of the amounts from the extracellular pool, cytosolic pool, and vacuolar pool (Figure 2). These pool sizes and turnover rates are regulated by both environmental and physiological factors (Zhen et al., 1991; Miller and Smith, 1996), which determine the isotopic signatures of the extracted NO_3^- . Generally, the concentration level and distribution of NO_3^- in vascular plants and the variations among species is a complex result of two important factors: external availability (previously often evaluated through NO_3^- concentration and net nitrification rate in soil) and physiological strategies (mainly including uptake, translocation, and reduction dynamics). Moreover, the external factors also consider the availability of NO_3^- relative to NH_4^+ or other N sources because it can influence both plant NO_3^- uptake and assimilation (Boudsocq et al.,

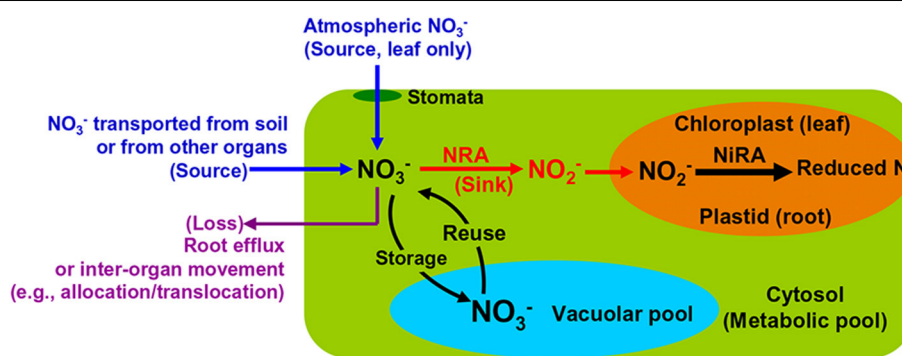


FIGURE 2 | Schematic map showing major NO_3^- sources and processes in leaves and roots of natural plants.

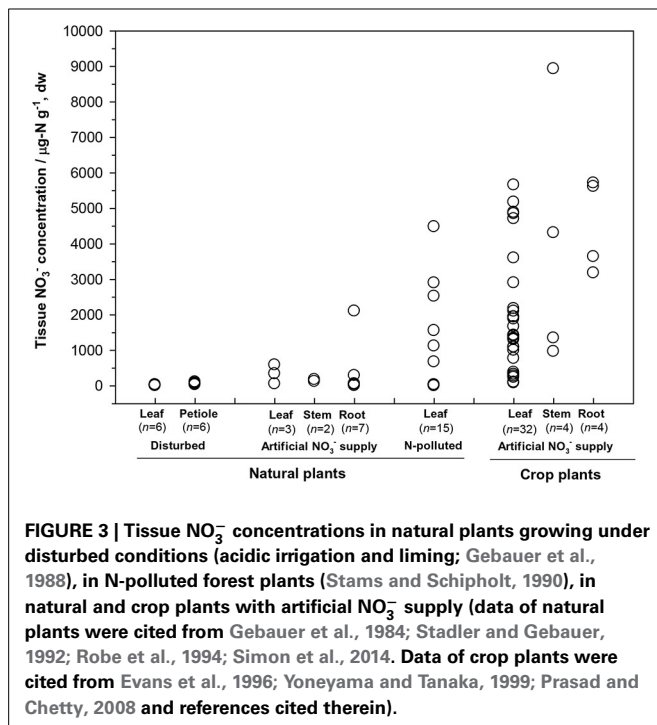
2012; Liu et al., 2012c; Britto and Kronzucker, 2013) while the physiological factors include the affinity of plants to different soil NO_3^- levels (Wang et al., 2012; Kalcsits and Guy, 2013).

First, the distribution of organ-specific NO_3^- concentrations among plants under different growing conditions (Figures 3, 4A) showed that plants growing in natural soils might also have a high NO_3^- accumulation. In natural forests, leaf NO_3^- concentrations of some species can be as high as 1000–10000 $\mu\text{g-N g}^{-1}$ dw (Figure 4A; Gebauer et al., 1988; Koyama et al., 2013), which was even higher than those of some crops (e.g., Bloom et al., 2014) and N-polluted natural plants (Figure 3). Plant NO_3^- concentrations are indicators or predictors of the soil N cycle (e.g., soil nitrification and soil NO_3^-) and forest N pollution (Stams and Schipholt, 1990; Aber et al., 1998; Fenn and Poth, 1998; Koba et al., 2003). Such concentrations show higher sensitivities than bulk N and NRA parameters in revealing species-level responses to N enrichment (Fenn et al., 1996; Jones et al., 2008; Tang et al., 2012). The increase in NO_3^- concentration in roots and/or leaves with external NO_3^- was observed under both natural soil conditions and experimental N addition (e.g., Stewart et al., 1993; Lexa and Cheeseman, 1997; Wang and Schjoerring, 2012). However, the level of leaf NO_3^- and its response to soil NO_3^- variation differ among species with distinct uptake or accumulation rates. For example, the NO_3^- concentrations in plants (mostly as mosses) we recently investigated (Liu et al., 2012a,c, 2013a) were much lower than those reported by Gebauer et al. (1988) or Koyama et al. (2013) on vascular plants (Figure 4A) when compared within a similar soil $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ range (e.g., 0–15 mg-N kg^{-1} soil, dw). Besides, the correlation between leaf NO_3^- and soil NO_3^- is apparent for plants with low NO_3^- concentrations (Figure 4A). However, synthesis or extrapolation to different plants with distinct NO_3^-

accumulation abilities should be done carefully when evaluating soil N enrichment or N saturation.

Second, considerable differences (up to 4–5 orders) exist in the level of NO_3^- among plant organs and species (Figures 3, 4A). The organ-specific patterns of NO_3^- accumulation among coexisting plants can differ with soil N availability and the plant growing stage (Gebauer et al., 1984; Stewart et al., 1993; Liu et al., 2013a). However, this has complicated the use and selection of proper organs and species to evaluate ecosystem N availability based on tissue NO_3^- analysis. McKane et al. (2002) used ^{15}N tracers in the field to show that NO_3^- uptake in the tundra plants did not passively follow external availability, but depended on specific ecophysiological traits. NO_3^- preference in *Carex* was determined by the appearance of ^{15}N tracer in *Carex* biomass, which showed that the NO_3^- preference might reflect only the $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ -acquiring efficiency associated with root traits, but not NO_3^- assimilation given significantly lower NRA in *Carex* than in other species (Nadelhoffer et al., 1996). Therefore, additional studies should be conducted to determine the extent of organ-specific and species-specific variability of NO_3^- concentration that reflects plant NO_3^- strategy, and the heterogeneity of NO_3^- available to roots. The available data for natural plants revealed a clear increase in NO_3^- concentration with bulk N while a decrease with C/N (a clear turning at the C/N of 20–30) in different organs or tissue types (Figure 4B). Similarly, Zhen and Leigh (1990) reported that shoot NO_3^- accumulated as a linear function of bulk N in wheat plants once a threshold N was exceeded. These results reflected the regulation of overall physiological N demand on the NO_3^- utilization in natural plants (Imsande and Touraine, 1994). The regulation might be unidirectional because the contribution of NO_3^- to bulk N assimilation appears to be much lower than that for other N forms in plants (portrayed in Figure 4B). The complexity of the mutual regulations behind the inverse relation between NO_3^- and C/N might be comparable with the multi-scale inverse relation prevailing between NO_3^- and organic C observed in different ecosystems (Taylor and Townsend, 2010). So far, little direct and simple evidence has been obtained for the driving mechanisms of C and N metabolism on NO_3^- uptake, allocation, and accumulation in natural plants. A clearer relation is that even when external NO_3^- is uniform, the NO_3^- concentration is often higher in organs (especially for growing leaves) of species with higher NRA than in those with lower NRA (Gebauer et al., 1988; Cruz et al., 1991; Widmann et al., 1993; Min et al., 1998). Mutual induction between the maintenance of high NO_3^- concentration and that of NR synthesis or NRA activation were elucidated in view of C metabolism and N demand in response to availability and growing conditions (Stewart et al., 1993; Scheible et al., 1997a,b; Scheurwater et al., 2002). The lower NO_3^- concentration and NRA might be associated with lower N metabolism and demand in organs and plants with higher C/N and vice versa. Therefore, except regulation by soil NO_3^- concentration, the uptake and distribution of NO_3^- in a plant might follow the regime of organ-specific or whole-plant metabolic activities.

Other factors such as light and water regimes might also influence plant NO_3^- accumulation through the pathway of photosynthetic regulation (Widmann et al., 1993; Simon et al., 2014). Cárdenas-Navarro et al. (1999) found concurrent and



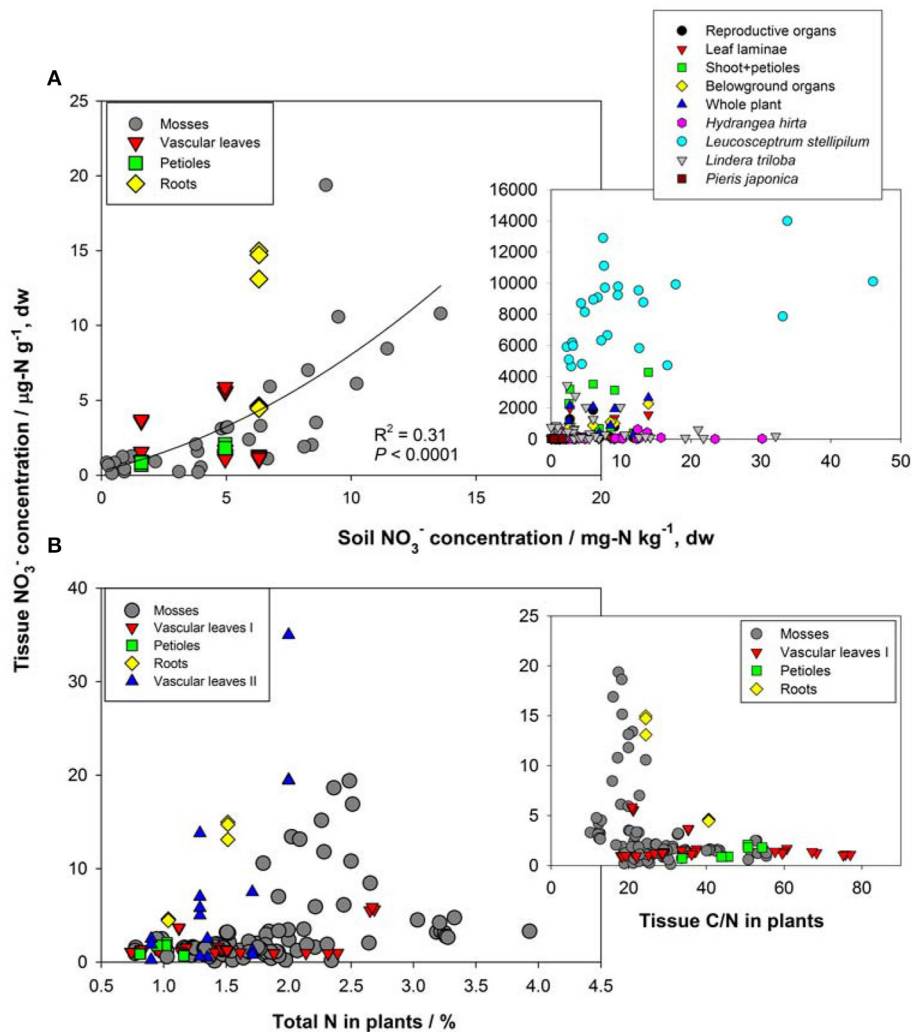


FIGURE 4 | (A) Relation between NO_3^- concentrations in soil and natural plants. Plant NO_3^- data in the left panel are shown for individual samples in Guiyang, southwestern China and western Tokyo, Japan reported by Liu et al. (2012a; 2012c, 2013a; 2013b). Plant NO_3^- data in the right panel show organ-specific and whole-plant concentrations (averages of different species) in ecosystems of Central Europe (see details in Gebauer et al., 1988), and leaf NO_3^- of different species (*H. hirta*, *P. japonica*, *L. stellipilum*, *L. triloba*) in a temperate forest of central Japan (Koyama et al., 2013). **(B)** Relations

between total N, C/N, and tissue NO_3^- concentration in natural plants. Mosses include different species in different habitats of Guiyang, Southwestern China, and Western Tokyo, Japan (cited from Liu et al., 2012a,c). Vascular leaves I, petioles and roots were reported for a coniferous and a broadleaved plant in western Tokyo, Japan (cited from Liu et al., 2013a). Vascular leaves II included fern, oak, and pine species at the Camp Paivika and Camp Osceola forest sites in the San Bernardino Mountains of southern California, USA (cited from Fenn et al., 1996).

linearly correlated changes in whole-plant NO_3^- and water content during the day–night cycle, reflecting a homeostasis effect of endogenous NO_3^- concentration. Besides, as discussed above, the heterogeneity of soil NO_3^- available to roots of coexisting species should not be excluded considering the differences in root morphology and spatial distribution. Given the difficulties in determining rhizospheric soil NO_3^- concentration and flux, it would be promising to measure NO_3^- concentrations in roots to evaluate NO_3^- availability to the whole plant or aboveground organs.

ISOTOPIC SYSTEMATICS OF NO_3^- IN PLANTS

Stable isotopes of NO_3^- in plants are controlled mainly by NO_3^- sources and isotopic effects involved in NO_3^- acquisition and

reduction processes (Robinson et al., 1998; Comstock, 2001; Evans, 2001; Cernusak et al., 2009).

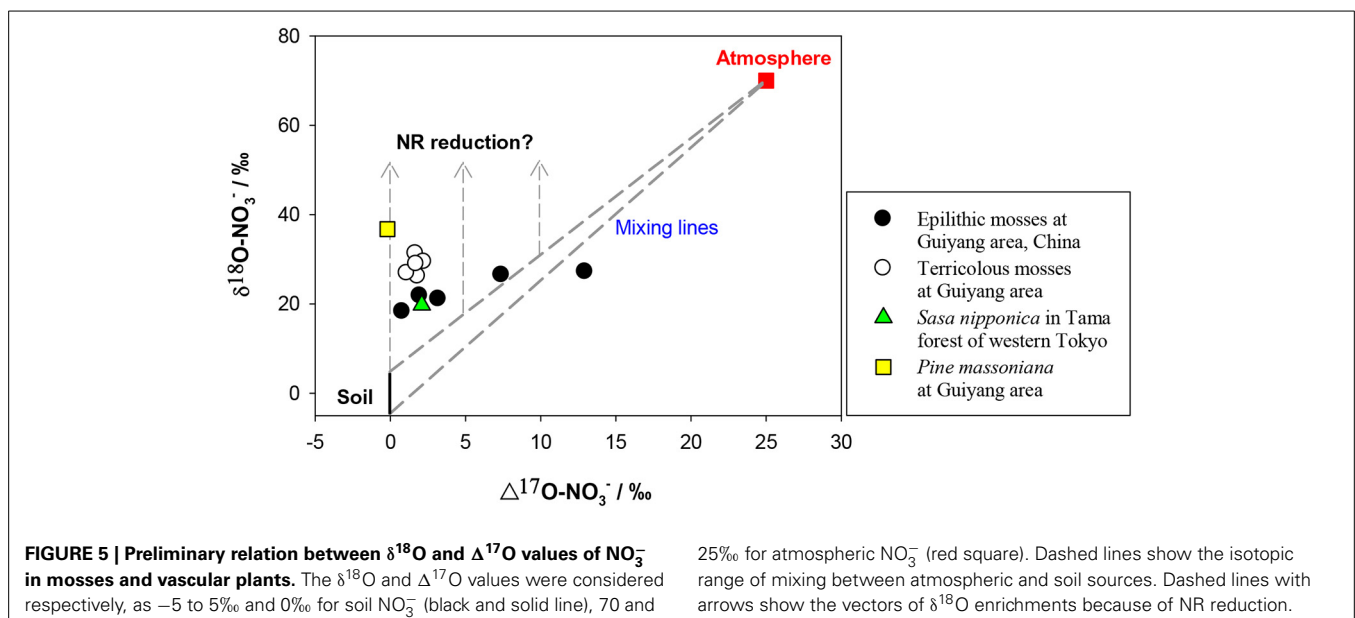
The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of NO_3^- in soil is reported mostly within -10 to $+10\text{‰}$; however, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of newly-produced NO_3^- in soil is usually low because of strong isotopic effects of nitrification, on the other hand, the values can be elevated at sites with marked denitrification (Mariotti et al., 1981; Högberg, 1997; Koba et al., 1998, 2003, 2010b; Houlton et al., 2006; Takebayashi et al., 2010). Atmospheric NO_3^- has a wider $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ range (-15 – $+15\text{‰}$) because of its complex production pathways and sources (Heaton, 1990; Felix et al., 2012; Altieri et al., 2013). The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of NO_3^- is generally lower in wet than in dry deposition (Heaton et al., 1997; Elliott et al., 2009), but both often show a $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ range

overlapping with that of soil NO_3^- . The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of initial NO_3^- produced in soil is usually estimated using the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of *in situ* H_2O (normally $-25 - 4\text{‰}$) and atmospheric O_2 (ca. 23.5‰) in a 2:1 ratio, assuming no exchange and fractionation of oxygen (O) isotopes occurs during nitrification and the NO_3^- is produced solely through chemolithoautotrophic nitrification (Amberger and Schmidt, 1987). However, kinetic isotopic fractionation and O exchange between NO_2^- and H_2O often occur during nitrification, which can eliminate the isotopic signal of O_2 effecting lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ than the predicted values (Fang et al., 2012). The O of NO_3^- in atmospheric deposition is derived mainly from O_2 and O_3 , which have distinctly higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ signatures than those of soil NO_3^- . In contrast to the overlapping $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for different NO_3^- sources, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and or $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ provide a clear separation between soil and atmospheric NO_3^- sources. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of soil NO_3^- produced by nitrification is distinctly lower (mean = -4.0‰ ; -7.3 to -0.9‰ ; Fang et al., 2012) than that of atmospheric NO_3^- ($60 - 100\text{‰}$). The latter has high $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values (around 25‰) in contrast to 0‰ of soil-derived NO_3^- (Kendall et al., 2007; Michalski, 2010; Costa et al., 2011) (Figure 5).

The process of NO_3^- entry into root cells and subsequent transport processes within plants *per se* cause no isotope effect because of the lack of bond breakage. However, the acquisition of NO_3^- through mycorrhizae to root cells potentially causes an isotopic difference between tissue NO_3^- in roots and NO_3^- in soil. Root NO_3^- may be enriched in heavier isotopes relative to soil NO_3^- if the NO_3^- has experienced reduction during the N assimilation of mycorrhizae associated with the roots. Mycorrhizal fungi have substantial NO_3^- reduction capacity (Ho and Trappe, 1975), but the fungal NR is present only in the presence of NO_3^- and absence of NH_4^+ (Cove, 1966). So far, the isotopic effect of NO_3^- acquisition through mycorrhizae on tissue NO_3^- in natural plants has not been estimated or differentiated. Pate et al. (1993) demonstrated that the bulk $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ differences between non-mycorrhizal and mycorrhizal species (with significant NO_3^- storage and NRA)

reflected the utilization of different N sources. There appears to be little or no isotopic discrimination within the plant during or subsequent to uptake of NO_3^- . Mycorrhizal fungi are expected to show higher bulk $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ than available N sources [potentially including NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , and DON (at least amino acids)] in soil and bulk N of host plants. However, the isotopic mechanism differed from that of tissue NO_3^- and the isotope effect differed among mycorrhizal types (Högberg, 1997; Craine et al., 2009; Hobbie and Högberg, 2012). Högberg et al. (1999) showed that the ECM fungus had higher bulk $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ relative to the *Pinus sylvestris* plant, and the fractionation against ^{15}N was smaller when NO_3^- was the source than when NH_4^+ . It caused a marginal decrease in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the N passing from the substrate through the fungus to the host, which is explained by the small size of the fungal N pool relative to the total N of the plant, i.e., the high efficiency of transfer (Emmertson et al., 2001; Hobbie and Högberg, 2012). The significant shift in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of fungal species was a function of fungal physiology; thus, it is difficult to constrain the N sources (using bulk $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) by mycorrhizal fungi or their plant partners in natural conditions (Emmertson et al., 2001).

The efflux of NO_3^- from root to soil or the subsequent transport of NO_3^- within plants is not expected to discriminate ^{15}N as with the entry of soil NO_3^- into root cells (Mariotti et al., 1982; Shearer et al., 1991). This can be attributed to that the diffusion of NO_3^- through the membrane carriers of plant cells does not cause bonding breakage or consumption (Werner and Schmidt, 2002; Granger et al., 2004; Needoba et al., 2004). However, isotopic differences can occur between organs if partial NO_3^- reduction occurs in roots before transportation. The transport of NR-processed NO_3^- from roots to leaves might be misunderstood as isotopic fractionations of NO_3^- transport or NO_3^- reduction in shoots. So far, isotopic fractionations ($\epsilon = ({}^l k / {}^h k - 1) \times 1000$, where ${}^l k$ and ${}^h k$ respectively stand for the reaction rate constants for lighter and heavier isotopes) during the reduction of NO_3^- by NR in leaves were reported as 15‰ for



both N in spinach (Ledgard et al., 1985; Tcherkez and Farquhar, 2006) and O in wheat (Olleros-Izard, 1983) (Table 1). Direct measurement of endogenous NO_3^- reduction in mosses after N deprivation showed similar values (Liu et al., 2012b) (Table 1). Although, NR isotopic fractionations have not been directly measured in roots, predictions can be made about the net enrichment of NO_3^- isotopes in roots relative to those of soil NO_3^- (Δ_{root} ; expressed as $\delta_{\text{root}} - \delta_{\text{soil}}$). These values should be either negligible if substantial NO_3^- reduction did not occur (Scenario 1; $\Delta_{\text{root}} = \delta_{\text{root}} - \delta_{\text{soil}} \approx 0$), or be close to the reported ϵ values of NRA in leaves (ϵ_{NR}) ($0 - 27\%$; Table 1) if NO_3^- reduction occurred in the root (Scenario 2; $\Delta_{\text{root}} = \delta_{\text{root}} - \delta_{\text{soil}} \approx \epsilon_{\text{NR}} > 0$) (Figure 6). However, if the modification of soil NO_3^- isotopes by soil microbial activities such as denitrification occurred later than root uptake, the observed isotopic values of root NO_3^- can also be slightly lower than those of soil NO_3^- despite reduction in roots (e.g., in the fine roots of a conifer investigated in Liu et al., 2013a). Furthermore, the variation of NO_3^- isotopes with soil depth directly caused isotopic differences in initial NO_3^- sources available to co-existing plants with different root depths. Therefore, considering this fact, soil reference samples should be collected corresponding to root distribution for characterizing the soil NO_3^- isotopes available to specific plants.

In a closed system, isotopic enrichment occurs with the enzymatic consumption of substrate NO_3^- and ϵ_{NR} is expressed as $\Delta/\ln[\text{NO}_3^-]_{\text{remaining}}$ fitted to the Rayleigh isotope fractionation model, where Δ represents the isotopic difference of remaining NO_3^- from the initial NO_3^- ($\delta_{\text{remaining}} - \delta_{\text{initial}}$) (e.g., Granger et al., 2004, 2010). Isotopic enrichment also takes place for NO_3^- remaining in plants after deprivation of NO_3^- or N supply, because the tissue NO_3^- pool is only changed by the NRA in a closed system (e.g., Liu et al., 2012b). Thus far, no experimental work has been done to explain the variability of $^{18}\epsilon_{\text{NR}}$ in and among vascular plants. In NO_3^- -supply studies, shoots tend to have higher $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values because of the allocation of root NR-processed NO_3^- from roots to shoots (Kalcsits and Guy, 2013) or significantly higher $^{15}\epsilon_{\text{NR}}$ (by 3.3–6.9‰) than roots (Yoneyama and Kaneko, 1989; Evans et al., 1996; Yoneyama et al., 2001).

Evidence from marine biota showed that both $^{15}\epsilon_{\text{NR}}$ and $^{18}\epsilon_{\text{NR}}$ can vary with growing conditions and that significantly different ϵ values exist among species (Table 1). In field conditions, NO_3^- in an organ is more likely to be an open system with continuous source inputs (uptake), sinks (reduction), and outputs (translocation) (Figure 2). The uptake and allocation often occur according to the reduction ability and the distribution of NR, for example, a higher concentration and more NR are likely to exist in growing leaves (Gebauer et al., 1988; Cruz et al., 1991; Widmann et al., 1993). Passive or high accumulation as in mosses (Liu et al., 2012c) can happen in some organs such as conifer roots that are unable to reduce it (Liu et al., 2013a). Therefore, δ values of tissue NO_3^- might not always follow the normal “Rayleigh type” relation, instead might increase with the increase in tissue $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ or show a non-significant correlation with $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ in the tissues (Liu et al., 2012c, 2013a). In fact, experimental studies have also shown the interplay of plant NO_3^- uptake and reduction activity. The ^{15}N discrimination during NO_3^- assimilation in several higher plants was positively correlated with the supplied and tissue NO_3^- concentrations, and negatively correlated with plant age (Kohl and Shearer, 1980; Mariotti et al., 1980, 1982; Bergersen et al., 1988; Liu et al., 2013a). Accordingly, the Rayleigh relation between NO_3^- and its isotopes is not always applicable to examine ϵ_{NR} values and NO_3^- reduction in organs of natural plants.

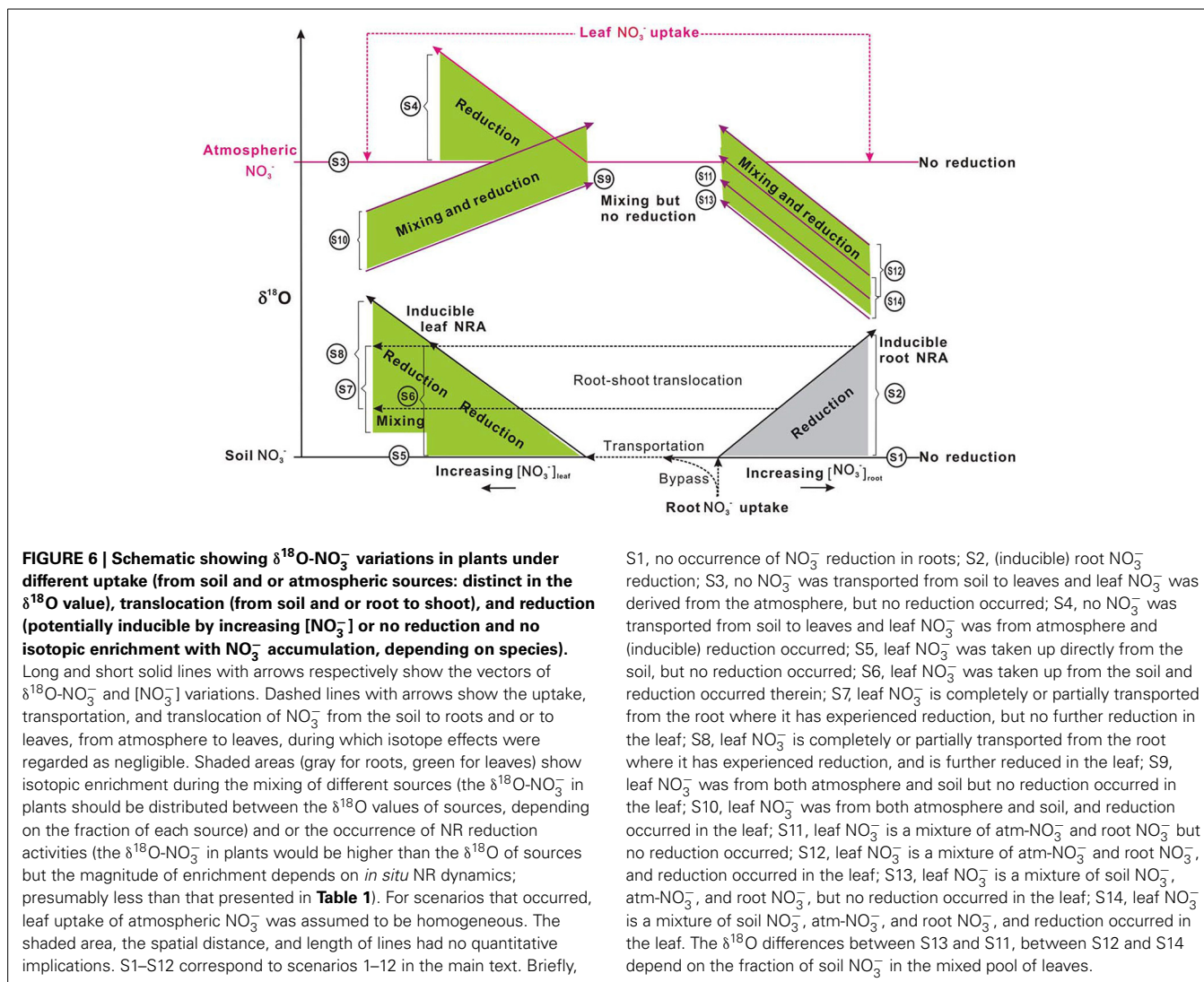
For some plants, NO_3^- is not available in soil substrates. It can only be acquired from deposition (e.g., non-vascular plants or epiphytes). Alternatively, it is not available in deposition but can only be taken up from the soil (e.g., plants growing in arctic pristine ecosystems with negligible NO_3^- deposition). In these plants, it is also feasible to diagnose leaf NO_3^- reduction using Δ_{leaf} (the net enrichment of NO_3^- isotopes in leaves relative to those of source NO_3^-) (Scenarios 3–6; Figure 6).

Scenario 3: If no NO_3^- was transported from soil to leaves, and leaf NO_3^- if any, was completely derived from atmosphere, but no reduction occurred, then:

$$\Delta_{\text{leaf}} = \delta_{\text{leaf}} - \delta_{\text{atm}} \approx 0.$$

Table 1 | Isotopic effects reported for NO_3^- reduction (*) or net NO_3^- assimilation in different biota.

Biota	$^{15}\epsilon$ / ‰	$^{18}\epsilon$ / ‰	References
Eukaryotic NR enzymes (from fungus and marine diatoms)	26.6*	24.9*	Karsh et al., 2012
Moss	12.1*	14.4*	Liu et al., 2012b
Strains of prokaryotic plankton	0.4–8.6	0.9–8.1	Granger et al., 2010
Spinach and wheat	15.0*	15.0*	Olleros-Izard, 1983; Ledgard et al., 1985; Tcherkez and Farquhar, 2006
Eukaryotic algae	5.6–20.4	5.1–21.0	Granger et al., 2004
Marine phytoplankton	2.7–15.2	–	Needoba and Harrison, 2004
	4–9 (field) 2.2–6.2 (lab)	–	Needoba et al., 2003
Tomato	11.3–12.9	–	Evans et al., 1996
Leafy vegetable	14.2–18.1	–	Yoneyama and Kaneko, 1989; Yoneyama et al., 2003
Grasses	0.0–3.3	–	Mariotti et al., 1982
Pearl Millet and soybeans	0.0–9.5	–	Mariotti et al., 1980, 1982; Bergersen et al., 1988
Red clover	1.7–6.5	–	Kohl and Shearer, 1980



Scenario 4: If no NO_3^- was transported from soil to leaves and leaf NO_3^- was acquired from atmosphere; and reduction occurred, then:

$$\Delta_{\text{leaf}} = \delta_{\text{leaf}} - \delta_{\text{atm}} > 0.$$

Scenario 5: If all leaf NO_3^- was taken up directly from the soil and no reduction occurred in roots or leaves, then:

$$\Delta_{\text{leaf}} = \delta_{\text{leaf}} - \delta_{\text{soil}} \approx 0.$$

Scenario 6: If leaf NO_3^- was transported completely from the soil and reduction occurred only in the leaves, then

$$\Delta_{\text{leaf}} = \delta_{\text{leaf}} - \delta_{\text{soil}} > 0.$$

The induction of NR by atmospheric-derived NO_3^- has been shown in plants exposed to airborne N oxides (e.g., Norby et al., 1989; Wellburn, 1990). Scenarios 3–4 are expected to be true for

mosses because atmospheric NO_3^- has been assumed as the sole source (Liu et al., 2012a). Nevertheless, isotopic partitioning of N sources (Liu et al., 2013b) and further $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ analysis (Figure 5) suggests that moss NO_3^- , even at epilithic habitats, is actually a mixture of atmospheric NO_3^- and soil-derived NO_3^- . Thus, it is becoming clear that mosses can acquire substantial N from substrates; and moss NO_3^- is a valid atmospheric bio-monitor only for species growing on rare N-free substrates. Scenarios 5–6 demonstrated NO_3^- dynamics of vascular plants in the tundra of northern Alaska, where the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of NO_3^- in plants with surprisingly high $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ was found as ‰ (e.g., *Polygonum bistorta*). However, examining only Δ_{leaf} seems insufficient to determine NO_3^- reduction location, since, isotopic enrichments of leaf NO_3^- might result from root reduction activities before moving up to leaves (Scenario 7).

Scenario 7: If the leaf NO_3^- is completely or partly transported from the root where it has experienced reduction, but no reduction has occurred in the leaf; then an isotope mass-balance calculation can be conducted to quantify the amount of leaf NO_3^-

accumulated directly from soil and indirectly from roots:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta_{\text{root}} &= \delta_{\text{leaf}} - \delta_{\text{soil}} \approx \delta_{\text{root}} - \delta_{\text{soil}} > 0, \\ \Delta_{\text{leaf}} &= \delta_{\text{leaf}} - \delta_{\text{root}} < 0, \text{ and} \\ \delta_{\text{leaf}} &= (1 - f_{\text{root}}) \times \delta_{\text{soil}} + f_{\text{root}} \times \delta_{\text{root}}.\end{aligned}$$

The reduction of NO_3^- that has experienced reduction in roots can further increase the isotopic enrichment of leaf NO_3^- relative to soil NO_3^- (Scenario 8) (**Figure 6**). This has been demonstrated by the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ difference between roots and leaves in plants growing with NO_3^- with known $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (Yoneyama and Kaneko, 1989; Evans et al., 1996; Yoneyama et al., 2001). This NO_3^- reduction occurs especially in plants that are capable of reducing NO_3^- in both shoots and roots (Stewart et al., 1992).

Scenario 8: If the leaf NO_3^- is completely or partially transported from roots where it has experienced reduction; and if it is further reduced in the leaf. In this case, a partitioning similar to scenario 7 can be done by considering the Δ_{leaf} in the isotope mass-balance calculation:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta_{\text{root}} &= \delta_{\text{root}} - \delta_{\text{soil}} > 0 \text{ and} \\ \delta_{\text{leaf}} &= [(1 - f_{\text{root}}) \times \delta_{\text{soil}} + f_{\text{root}} \times \delta_{\text{root}}] + \Delta_{\text{leaf}}.\end{aligned}$$

Plant NO_3^- in scenarios 1–8 was derived either from the soil or atmosphere (**Figure 6**). A supplemental diagnosis of NR dynamics was to examine the covariance of $\Delta\delta^{18}\text{O}:\Delta\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ratios (Δ is the isotopic enrichment of plant NO_3^- relative to source NO_3^- ; $\Delta = \delta_{\text{plant}} - \delta_{\text{source}}$). This diagnosis helped determine whether the N–O bond breakage attributable to NO_3^- reduction was the single process driving NO_3^- ^{15}N and ^{18}O enrichments. Theoretically, the dissociation of an O atom from NO_3^- predicted that NO_3^- isotopes would be fractionated in an O-to-N ratio of ca. 0.6 (Brown and Drury, 1967). However, the NR often had the same O-to-N isotopic imprint on substrate NO_3^- in experimental studies. Consequently, the 1:1 trend was considered ubiquitous for biological NO_3^- reduction (Granger et al., 2004, 2010). However, for leaves of vascular plants that acquire NO_3^- from both atmosphere and soil, it is difficult to constrain leaf NO_3^- reduction based only on the Δ_{leaf} ($\delta_{\text{leaf}} - \delta_{\text{source}}$) and ϵ_{NR} , because the mixing of atmospheric NO_3^- can raise the δ values (especially $\delta^{18}\text{O}$). Liu et al. (2013a) observed that the $\delta^{18}\text{O}:\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ratios in roots of a conifer generally followed the 1:1 rule; although leaf NO_3^- showed distinctly higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}:\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ratios (2.5:1) because of the mixing of atmospheric NO_3^- .

As described above, the fraction of atmospheric-derived NO_3^- (F_{atm}) in leaves can be estimated using $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ mass-balance calculation ($F_{\text{atm}} = \Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{leaf}} / \Delta^{17}\text{O}_{\text{atm}} < 1$). Thereafter, the leaf NO_3^- sources and NR dynamics can be further constrained.

Scenario 9: If leaf NO_3^- was absorbed from both the atmosphere and soil, but no reduction occurred in the leaf, then the fraction of atmospheric-derived NO_3^- calculated using $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ or $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (f_{atm}) is expected to be similar to F_{atm} , as

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_{\text{leaf}} &= (1 - f_{\text{atm}}) \times \delta_{\text{soil}} + f_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}}, \\ \text{and } f_{\text{atm}} &\approx F_{\text{atm}} < 1.\end{aligned}$$

Scenario 10: If leaf NO_3^- was absorbed from both the atmosphere and soil, and reduction occurred in the leaf, then:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_{\text{leaf}} &= [(1 - f_{\text{atm}}) \times \delta_{\text{soil}} + f_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}}] + \Delta_{\text{leaf}}, \\ f_{\text{atm}} &\approx F_{\text{atm}} < 1,\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } \Delta_{\text{leaf}} = \delta_{\text{leaf}} - [(1 - F_{\text{atm}}) \times \delta_{\text{soil}} + F_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}}] > 0.$$

Scenario 11: If leaf NO_3^- is a mixture of atm- NO_3^- and root NO_3^- , but no reduction occurred, then:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_{\text{leaf}} &= (1 - f_{\text{atm}}) \times \delta_{\text{root}} + f_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}} \\ &\approx [(1 - f_{\text{atm}}) \times (\delta_{\text{soil}} + \Delta_{\text{root}}) + f_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}}],\end{aligned}$$

$$f_{\text{atm}} \approx F_{\text{atm}} < 1,$$

$$\text{and } \Delta_{\text{root}} = \delta_{\text{root}} - \delta_{\text{soil}}$$

$$\approx [(\delta_{\text{leaf}} - F_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}}) / (1 - F_{\text{atm}})] - \delta_{\text{soil}} > 0.$$

Scenario 12: If leaf NO_3^- is a mixture of atm- NO_3^- and root NO_3^- ; and if the reduction occurred in the leaf, then:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_{\text{leaf}} &= [(1 - f_{\text{atm}}) \times \delta_{\text{root}} + f_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}}] + \Delta_{\text{leaf}} \\ &\approx [(1 - f_{\text{atm}}) \times (\delta_{\text{soil}} + \Delta_{\text{root}}) + f_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}}] + \Delta_{\text{leaf}},\end{aligned}$$

$$f_{\text{atm}} \approx F_{\text{atm}} < 1,$$

$$\Delta_{\text{root}} = \delta_{\text{root}} - \delta_{\text{soil}} > 0,$$

$$\text{and } \Delta_{\text{leaf}} = \delta_{\text{leaf}} - [(1 - f_{\text{atm}}) \times \delta_{\text{root}} + f_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}}] > 0.$$

Scenario 13: If leaf NO_3^- is a mixture of soil NO_3^- , atm- NO_3^- , and root NO_3^- , but no reduction occurred in the leaf, then:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_{\text{leaf}} &= (1 - f_{\text{atm}} - f_{\text{soil}}) \times \delta_{\text{root}} + f_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}} + f_{\text{soil}} \times \delta_{\text{soil}}, \\ f_{\text{atm}} &\approx F_{\text{atm}} < 1,\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } \Delta_{\text{root}} = \delta_{\text{root}} - \delta_{\text{soil}} > 0.$$

Scenario 14: If leaf NO_3^- is a mixture of soil NO_3^- , atm- NO_3^- , and root NO_3^- , and if reduction occurred in the leaf, then:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_{\text{leaf}} &= [(1 - f_{\text{atm}} - f_{\text{soil}}) \times \delta_{\text{root}} + f_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}} \\ &\quad + f_{\text{soil}} \times \delta_{\text{soil}}] + \Delta_{\text{leaf}},\end{aligned}$$

$$f_{\text{atm}} \approx F_{\text{atm}} < 1,$$

$$\Delta_{\text{root}} = \delta_{\text{root}} - \delta_{\text{soil}} > 0,$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{and } \Delta_{\text{leaf}} &= \delta_{\text{leaf}} - [(1 - f_{\text{atm}} - f_{\text{soil}}) \times \delta_{\text{root}} \\ &\quad + f_{\text{atm}} \times \delta_{\text{atm}} + f_{\text{soil}} \times \delta_{\text{soil}}] > 0.\end{aligned}$$

The parameters in the scenarios 9–14 (f_{atm} , F_{atm} , Δ_{root} , Δ_{leaf}) above, provide theoretical constraints on possible NO_3^- sources and reduction dynamics in leaves of field plants. As explained above, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of NO_3^- often overlapped for soil and atmospheric sources, although $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and or $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ can provide a clear differentiation between them (Kendall et al., 2007; Michalski,

2010). Consequently, the scenarios above are better suited to the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (depicted in **Figure 6**) than $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ analysis, particularly when leaf NO_3^- was a mixing pool for different sources. The other solution to diagnose atmospheric NO_3^- mixing and reduction is the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ - $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ correlation, which has been used to trace NO_3^- sources and dynamics in aquatic environments (Tsunogai et al., 2011). Although preliminary, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values in mosses showed clearly higher F_{atm} than vascular plants, especially in epilithic mosses. Although, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ in terricolous mosses and vascular leaf samples was as low as 0.0–2.2‰, even at high NO_3^- concentration levels (**Figure 5**), suggesting a 0.0–8.8% of atmospheric contribution to leaf NO_3^- pool. The NRA should be responsible for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ enrichment relative to the mixing values if plant-absorbed NO_3^- has not been influenced by denitrification in soil. Such characterization cannot be warranted by correlation between $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, or between tissue $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ and isotopes (e.g., Liu et al., 2012c).

UNCERTAINTIES IN TISSUE NO_3^- ISOTOPE METHODS AND FUTURE WORKS

Although, the sampling time of plant materials can be controlled, diurnal and seasonal variations in tissue NO_3^- and its isotopes should be verified in future works. Until now, no experimental work has directly examined NR enzymatic isotope kinetics in roots and leaves of higher plants. Moreover, it is difficult to mimic *in situ* NR isotope effects in field conditions. Isotope effects associated with NO_3^- uptake and efflux remain unverified for roots. They were measured recently as 1–3‰ in growing cells of marine diatoms, and different O and N fractionations for both uptake and efflux were thought to cause the net ^{18}O : ^{15}N of NO_3^- assimilation above 1 (Karsh et al., 2014). The routes of transformation and entry of inorganic and organic NO_3^- sources from the atmosphere into leaf cells and subsequent cellular actions have not been clarified, especially for non-aqueous processes. Consequently, the sources and supply rates of atmospheric NO_3^- and their isotope signals should be explored further. Thus far, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ information of leaf NO_3^- was sparse, and is mostly available for leaves with high NO_3^- levels. It should be verified whether the atmospheric contribution is higher in low- $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ leaves or not. It is promising to measure NO_3^- isotopes in xylem flow and twig samples for NO_3^- transportation and translocation. Results of such studies can potentially provide useful insights into intraplant NO_3^- transportation and translocation, although the sampling methods of xylem flow are mostly destructive and in-twig NO_3^- might be very low. For these reasons, more field works on tissue NO_3^- at the organ, stand, and species levels should be done along with source isotope analysis. The scenarios proposed above provide the first conceptual constraint for both sources and NO_3^- isotope effects in field plants. In conclusion, the concentration and isotopic analyses of NO_3^- in plant tissues together provide new insights for elucidating plant NO_3^- sources and strategies. These strategies will be valuable for exploring the communication of plant N utilization with environmental N pollution and altering ecosystem N cycles.

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