

Nutrient Cycling 1: The nitrogen cycle

I. Introduction

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 2. Changes
 3. Consequences
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 2. Main points

II. Controls on N cycle fluxes in soils (Ch. 9)

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1. N fixation
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 2. Nitrification
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1. Gaseous losses (esp. denitrification)
 2. Leaching

III. Plant uptake and loss (Ch. 8)

Powerpoint modified from Hartz & Hungate (<http://www2.fsu.edu/courses/hartz1for479/notes.htm>) and Chapin (<http://www.fcolafly.uaf.edu/ffiscr/>)

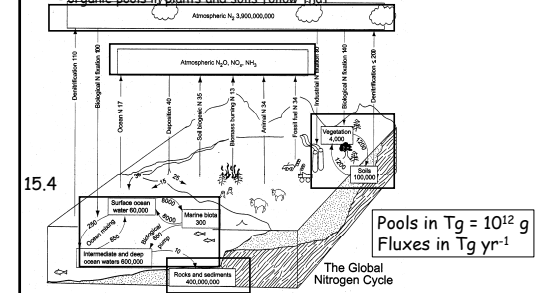
I. Intro to the Nitrogen Cycle

Productivity of many ecosystems (managed & unmanaged) is limited by nitrogen availability:

- terrestrial - temperate, boreal, arctic
- aquatic - open oceans

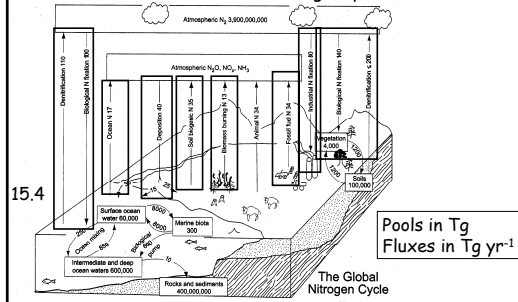
A. Global Pools:

- most in the atmosphere, but not biologically available
- reactive N in atmosphere: trace gases
- lots in sediments and rocks, but not available
- inorganic N in ocean is next largest
- organic pools in plants and soils follow that

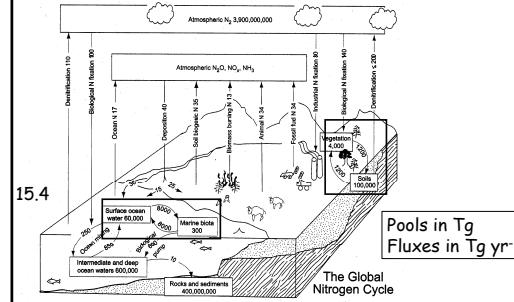


Fluxes: several important biosphere-atmosphere N exchanges

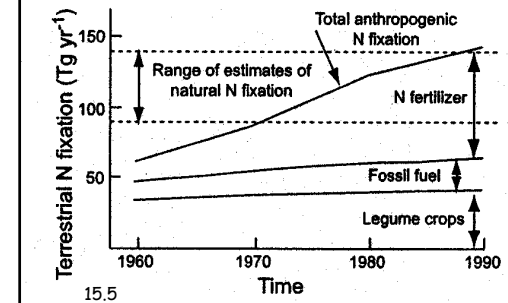
- biological: fixation, denitrification, nitrification
- abiotic: industrial fixation, lightning fixation, fossil fuel and biomass burning, deposition



Biological cycling within systems greatly outweighs inputs/outputs (i.e., N cycle is much more "closed" than the C cycle)



B. Human-mediated fluxes in the global N cycle now exceed 'natural' (pre-industrial) fluxes



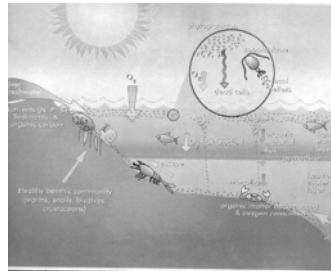
How much N is added in agriculture?

Cotton 56-78 Kg/ha

- Iowa corn 170-225 Kg/ha
- Taiwan rice: 270 Kg/ha

C. Consequences

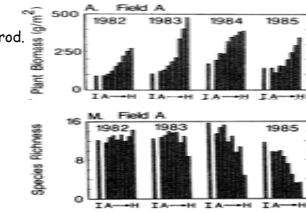
- Eutrophication
- Species changes/losses
- Atmospherically active trace gases



Consequences

- Eutrophication
- Species changes/losses
- Atmospherically active trace gases

N fert → increasing prod.

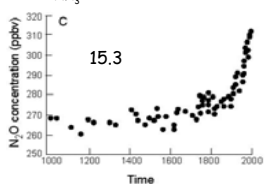


N fert → increasing dominance, decreasing diversity

Tilman 1987

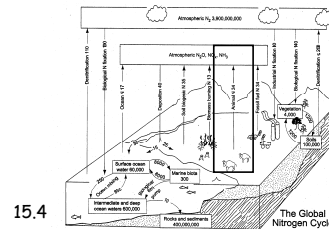
Consequences

- Eutrophication
- Species changes/losses
- Atmospherically active trace gases
 - NO + NO₂ (NO_x): fossil fuel combustion
 - NO (highly reactive) → smog, tropospheric O₃ formation
 - Acid rain (NO₂ + OH⁻ → HNO₃)
 - N₂O: increased fertilizer application → denitrification
 - Potent greenhouse gas (200x more effective than CO₂, 6% of total forcing)
 - Chemically inert in troposphere, but catalyzes destruction of O₃ in stratosphere
 - NH₃



Consequences

- Eutrophication
- Species changes/losses
- Atmospherically active trace gases
 - NH₃: domestic animals, ag fields (fert), biomass burning
 - Atmospherically active → aerosols, air pollution
 - Deposition, N availability downwind



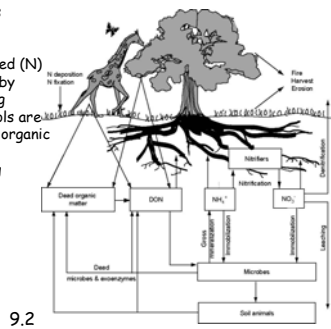
15.4

Consequences

- N deposition → increased growth (C sequestration)...to a point.
- N saturation: availability exceeds demand
 - Associated with decreases in forest productivity, potentially due to indirect effects such as acidification, altered plant cold tolerance
- N saturation → N losses → "opening" of the N cycle

B. Overview of Ecosystem N cycle (Ch. 9)

1. Major pools & fluxes
2. Main Points
 1. Inputs~outputs
 2. Open (C) vs. closed (N)
 3. Plant needs met by internal recycling
 4. Available soil pools are small relative to organic pools.
 5. Microbes rule bg



9.2

II. Controls on N cycle fluxes in soil

A. N Inputs

1. Biological N fixation
2. Atmospheric N deposition
3. Mineral weathering?

1. Biological N Fixation

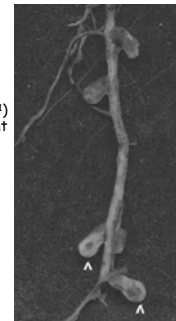
- a. What is it?
- Conversion of atmospheric N_2 to NH_4^+ (actually, amino acids)
 - Under natural conditions, nitrogen fixation is the main pathway by which new, available nitrogen enters terrestrial ecosystems

Nitrogen fixation

- b. Who does it?
- Carried out by bacteria
 - Symbiotic N fixation (e.g., legumes, alder)
 - Heterotrophic N fixation (rhizosphere and other carbon-rich environments)
 - Phototrophs (bluegreen algae)
 - The characteristics of **nitrogenase**, the enzyme that catalyzes the reduction of N_2 to NH_4^+ , dictate much of the biology of nitrogen fixation
 - High-energy requirement (N triple bond)
 - Requires abundant energy and P for ATP
 - Inhibited by O_2
 - Requires cofactors (e.g., Mo, Fe, S)

Types of N-fixers

- There's no such thing as a N-fixing plant
- Symbiotic N-fixers
 - High rates of fixation ($5-20+ \text{g-N m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$) with plants supplying the C (and the plant receiving N)
 - Protection from O_2 via leghemoglobin (legumes)
 - Microbial symbiont resides in root nodules
 - Bacteria (*Rhizobia*) - Legumes (*Lupinus*, *Robinia*)
 - Actinomycetes (*Frankia*) - *Alnus*, *Ceanothus* (woody non-legumes)
 - N-fixation rates reduced in presence of high N availability in the soil

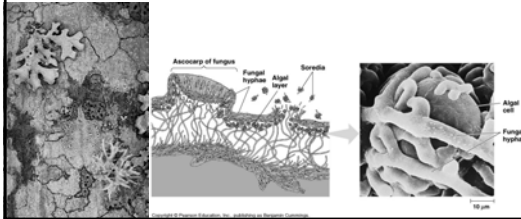


Types of N fixers

- Associative N fixers
 - Occur in **rhizosphere** of plants (non-nodulated); moderate rates with C supply from plant root turnover and exudates ($1-5 \text{g-N m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$)
 - Reduced $[O_2]$ by rapid respiration from plant roots
 - *Azotobacter*, *Bacillus*

Types of N fixers

- Free-living N fixers
 - Heterotrophic bacteria that get organic C from environment and where N is limiting (e.g., decaying logs)
 - Rates low due to low C supply and lack of O₂ protection (0.1-0.5 g-N m⁻² y⁻¹)
- Also, **cyanobacteria** (free-living photo-autotrophs); symbiotic lichens (cyanobacteria with fungi offering physical protection)



C. When/where does it happen?
N-fixing species are common in early succession

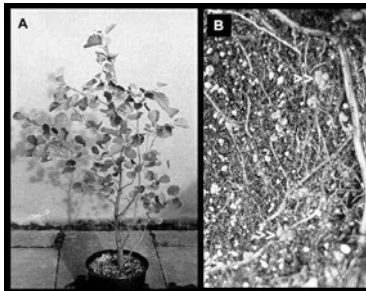
- Lichens early in primary succession following deglaciation in Alaska.
- Alder at later stages.



Red alder in secondary succession following clearcutting near Lake Whatcom



Alder and the other woody hosts of *Frankia* are typical pioneer species that invade nutrient-poor soils. These plants probably benefit from the nitrogen-fixing association, while supplying the bacterial symbiont with photosynthetic products.



d. Paradox of N limitation

- Nitrogen is the element that most frequently limits terrestrial NPP
- N₂ is the most abundant component of the atmosphere
- Why doesn't nitrogen fixation occur almost everywhere?
- Why don't N fixers have competitive advantage until N becomes non-limiting?

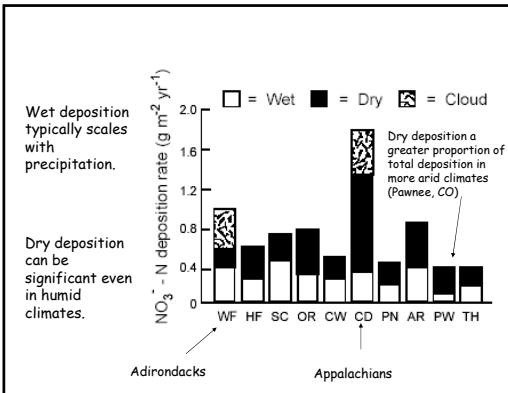
Environmental limitations to N fixation

- Energy availability in closed-canopy ecosystems
 - N-fixers seldom light-limited in well-mixed aquatic ecosystems (e.g., lakes)
- Nutrient limitation (e.g., P, Mo, Fe, S)
 - These elements may be the ultimate controls over N supply and NPP
- Grazing
 - N fixers often preferred forage

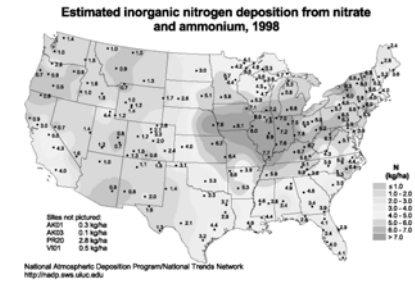
A. Inputs

2. Nitrogen Deposition

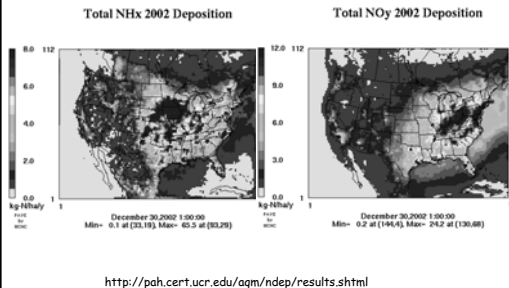
- **Wet deposition:** dissolved in precipitation
- **Dry deposition:** dust or aerosols by sedimentation (vertical) or impaction (horizontal)
- **Cloud water:** water droplets to plant surfaces immersed in fog; only important in coastal and mountainous areas



Deposition depends on upwind sources



N species in deposition depends on type of source

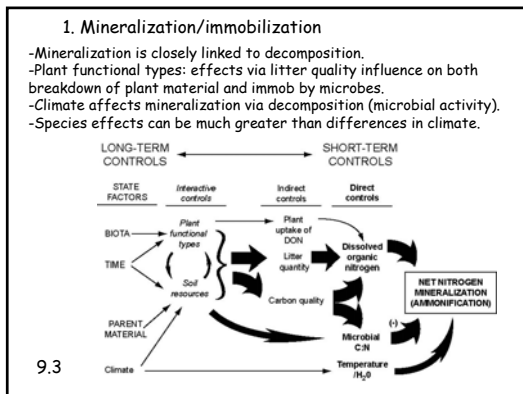
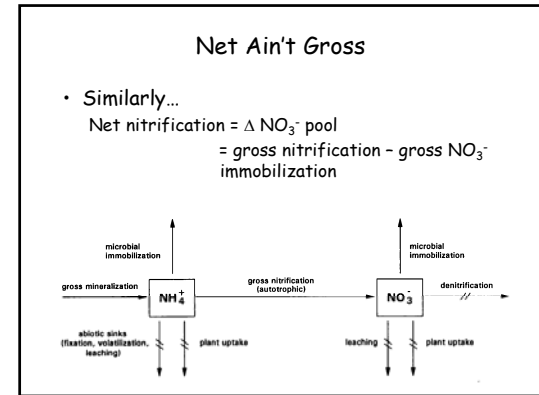
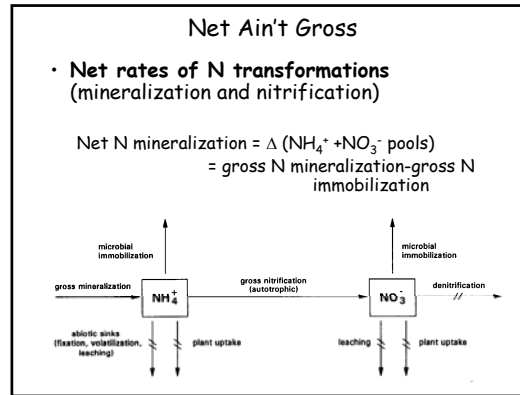
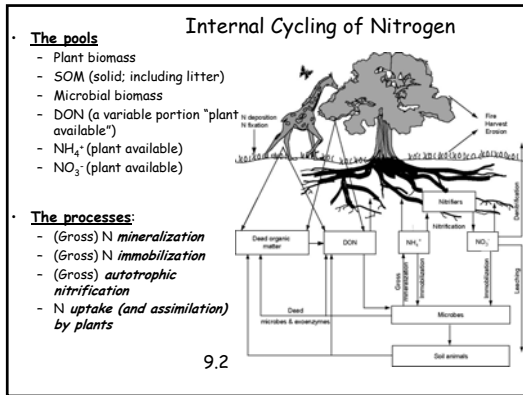


3. Rock weathering as a source of N?

- Some sedimentary rocks contain substantial amounts of N with high rates of N release (up to $2 \text{ g-N m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$); however, most rocks contain little N.

B. Internal Cycling of Nitrogen

- In natural ecosystems, most N taken up by plants becomes available through decomposition of organic matter
 - Over 90% of soil nitrogen is organically bound in **detritus** in a form unavailable to organisms
 - The soil microflora secrete **extracellular enzymes (exoenzymes)** such as proteases, ribonucleases, and chitinases to break down large polymers into water-soluble units such as amino acids and nucleotides that can be absorbed



Critical litter C:N for net N min. (box 9.1)

- Microbial C:N ~10:1
- Microbial growth efficiency ~40%
- So, for 100 units C, 40 units → mic biomass, 60 units respired.
- For mic C:N of 10:1, need 4 units of N per 40 units C.
- So substrate needs C:N of 100:4 (i.e., 25:1) for net N mineralization.

2. Nitrification

a. Why is Nitrification Important?

- Nitrate is more mobile than ammonium, so more readily leached from soil
- Substrate for denitrification (N loss as a gas)
- Generates acidity if nitrate is lost from soil
- Loss of nitrate results in loss of base cations

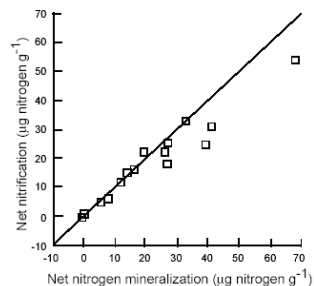
2.b. Controls on Nitrification

- $\text{NH}_4^+ + 2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{NO}_3^- + 2\text{H}^+ + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- Two-step process conducted by chemoautotrophic bacteria:
 - First step conducted by *Nitrosomonas* (other Nitroso-), $\text{NH}_4^+ \rightarrow \text{NO}_2^-$, ammonia mono-oxygenase, need O_2
 - Second step conducted by *Nitrobacter*, $\text{NO}_2^- \rightarrow \text{NO}_3^-$
- Controls:
 - NH_4^+
 - O_2
 - Slow growth of nitrifiers

Nearly all nitrogen that is mineralized in these systems is nitrified on a net basis.

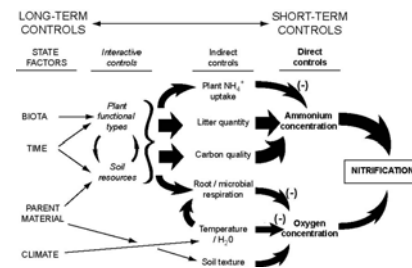
-In contrast, net nitrification is frequently less than 25% of net mineralization in temperate coniferous forests.

- Semi-arid forests tend to show more net nitrification relative to net N mineralization



9.6 - The relationship between net nitrogen mineralization and net nitrification ($\mu\text{g nitrogen g}^{-1}$ of dry soil for a 10-day incubation) across a range of tropical forest ecosystems (Vitousek and Matson 1984).

- Substrate limitation is common.
- Nitrifiers are obligate aerobes.



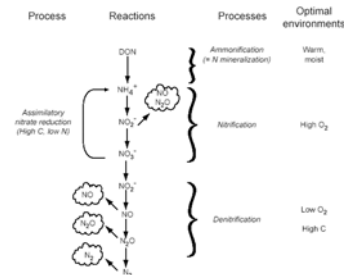
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C. N outputs

1. Gaseous losses

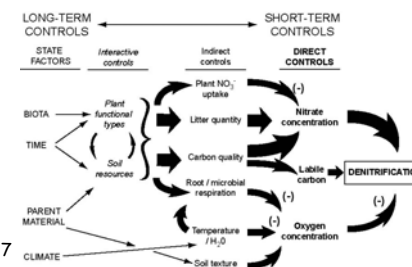
- Ammonia gas ($\text{pK} = 8.2$, $\text{NH}_4^+ \rightarrow \text{NH}_3 + \text{H}^+$)
- Fire
- Oxides of N (NO , N_2O , N_2)
 - NO and N_2O from autotrophic nitrification
 - NO , N_2O , N_2 from denitrification
- Most denitrification conducted by heterotrophic bacteria (many are facultative anaerobes that use NO_3^- as a terminal e^- acceptor in the absence of O_2)
 - Controls: NO_3^- , C availability, O_2 ,

- Nitrification and denitrification occur under different conditions.
- Gaseous losses for both follow the "hole-in-the-pipe" model.
- H-in-the-P depends on rate of flux and percent of losses.



9.4

- High nitrate concentration, much labile C, and lack of oxygen together lead to high denit. rates.



9.7

