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1	Carbon turnover in cell compartments and microbial groups in soil		
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26 Abstract

27 Microorganisms regulate the carbon (C) cycle in soil, controlling the utilization and

28 recycling of organic substances. To reveal the contribution of particular microbial groups to

29 C utilization and C turnover within the microbial cells, fate of ¹³C-labeled glucose was

studied under field conditions. The ¹³C was traced in cytosolic substances, amino sugars and

phospholipid fatty acids (PLFA) at intervals of 3, 10 and 50 days after glucose addition.

¹³C enrichment into PLFA (~1.5% of PLFA C at day 3) was one order of magnitude greater than into the cytosol, showing the importance of cell membranes for initial C utilization. ¹³C enrichment of amino sugars in living microorganisms at day 3 accounted for 0.57%, resulting that the turnover of cell wall components is two times slower than that of cell membranes. Turnover time of C in the cytosol (150 days) was three times longer than in PLFAs (47 days). Consequently, despite the lability of cytosol pool and expected fast turnover rates, intensive recycling of cytosol components, within the living cells, leads to a longer turnover time. Amino sugars originate mainly from microbial residues, thus longer

experimental periods are required for estimation of their turnover times.

Both PLFA and amino sugar profiles indicated that glucose C was preferentially used by bacteria. The ¹³C incorporated into bacterial cell membrane components decreased with time, but it remained constant or even increased for filamentous microorganisms. Hence, over a short period, bacteria contribute more to the utilization of low molecular weight organic substances, whereas filamentous microorganisms are responsible for further C transformations. Thus, tracing ¹³C in cellular compounds with contrasting turnover rates elucidated the role of microbial groups and their cellular compartments in C utilization and recycling in soil. This information is especially important for assessing C fluxes in soil and the contribution of C from microbial residues to soil organic matter.

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- 51 Keywords
- 52 Microbial biomarkers; phospholipid fatty acids; amino sugars; ¹³C labeling; glucose
- 53 utilisation; soil microbial biomass.

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1. Introduction

56 Over the last decade, numerous studies have demonstrated the role of soil microorganisms in

regulating the fate and transformation of organic compounds. Soil microorganisms produce

exoenzymes to carry out the primary degradation of plant as well as microbial polymers to

monomers. Further transformations of monomers then take place within the microbial cells.

Monomeric substances pass into the living microbial pool and are partly mineralised to CO₂,

while part is assimilated into cell polymers and ultimately incorporated into soil organic

matter (SOM) after cell death (Kindler et al., 2006). Understanding the fate of substances

originated from plants and microbial residues into living biomass is therefore crucial for

estimating the recycling of carbon (C) in soil and its stabilization as SOM.

Living microbial biomass (MB) is a highly active and heterogeneous pool, although it accounts for only 2-4% of the total SOM (Jenkinson and Ladd, 1981). Heterogeneity is evident at the level of single cells in the various cellular compartments with different properties, structures and biochemistry: from the highly heterogeneous cytosol (Malik et al., 2013), to well-structured cell membranes and cell walls. Due to their chemical composition

"

and spatial localization, compounds of cell membranes (phospholipid fatty acids (PLFAs))

and cell walls (amino sugars) have different turnover times within the cell as well as different

72 stabilities within SOM.

Organic compounds that are taken up by microorganisms first enter the cytosol (Bremer and Kuikman, 1994), which is presumed to be the most dynamic pool within microbial cells. However, due to the heterogeneity of this pool, no single C turnover time can be estimated. The calculated turnover time of intact PLFAs in soil after microbial death is 2.8 days (Kindler et al., 2009), resulting PLFAs are mainly used to characterize the living microorganisms (Frostegard et al., 2011; Rethemeyer, 2004). However, no data concerning turnover time of PLFA C in the living biomass are currently published. The formation of

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80 amino sugars from plant biomass is relatively rapid at 6.2-9.0 days (Bai et al., 2013), whereas their turnover times in soil vary between 6.5–81.0 y⁻¹ (Glaser et al., 2006). Thus, PLFAs and 81 82 amino sugars can be used to trace the fate of C within the living microorganisms and estimate 83 their contribution to SOM (Schmidt et al., 2007). 84 Some cell compartments, such as the cytoplasm, are not specific for various microbial groups, whereas phospholipids are partly specific and consequently can be used to estimate 85 86 microbial community structure. Thus, PLFAs of bacterial (i16:0, a16:0, i15:0, a15:0, 16:1ω7, 87 $18:1\omega7$) and fungal communities ($18:2\omega6.9$; $18:3\omega6.9.12$; $16:1\omega5$) are used to draw 88 conclusions about the qualitative composition of living microbial communities, their 89 contribution to utilisation of C by various origin (plant or microbial) and to understand 90 trophic interactions within the soil (Ruess et al., 2005). In contrast, amino sugars 91 (glucosamine, galactosamine, mannosamine and muramic acid) are usually used to assess the 92 contributions of bacterial and fungal residues to SOM (Engelking et al., 2007; Glaser et al., 93 2004). Muramic acid is of bacterial origin, whereas glucosamine is derived from both fungal 94 and bacterial cell walls (Glaser et al., 2004). Galactosamine is more abundant in fungal than 95 in bacterial cell walls (Engelking et al., 2007; Glaser et al., 2004). 96 Fate of cell membrane and cell wall biomarkers in soil is strongly linked to the 97 turnover of microorganisms. The cellular turnover of the soil bacterial community is higher 98 (ca. 2–3-fold per year) than that of the fungal community (ca. 0.75 times per year) (Moore et 99 al., 2005; Rousk and Baath, 2007; Waring et al., 2013). However, the relationship between 100 cellular turnover and intracellular C turnover – the question of ecological relevance for the C 101 cycle - has rarely been investigated. Therefore, if PLFAs characterize the living microbial 102 community and are rapidly decomposed after cell death (Kindler et al., 2009), a similar 103 degradation can be assumed for PLFAs molecules originating from various microorganisms. 104 In contrast, amino sugar polymers display markedly different decomposition kinetics, in that

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they can be stabilized in SOM as polymers (Glaser et al., 2004). Thus, the comparison of C turnover for cell membrane and cell wall components can be used to characterize the contribution of various microbial groups to short-term C utilisation and to the stabilization of microbially derived C in SOM.

Combination of PLFAs and amino-sugar biomarkers analyses, as well as cytosolic C measurement with isotope tracing techniques (based on ¹³C natural abundance or ¹³C/¹⁴C labelling) have been used in various studies to characterize organic C utilisation by the microbial community (Bai et al., 2013; Brant et al., 2006). However, to date no systematic studies have compared these contrasting cell compartments in a single soil within a C turnover experiment. Therefore, this study aimed to examine C allocation to various cell compartments following ¹³C labelling with a ubiquitous monomer, glucose. Glucose has a higher concentrations in the soil solution compared to other low molecular weight organics (Fischer et al., 2007), due to its diverse origin: from cellulose decomposition, presence in rhizodeposition (Derrien et al., 2004; Gunina and Kuzyakov, 2015), and synthesis by microorganisms. It is also used by most of the microbial groups, and, thus, is the most suitable substance for such a study.

We analyzed glucose derived ¹³C partitioning into the cytosol, cell membranes and cell walls, to evaluate the turnover time of C in each pool, and to assess the contribution of bacterial and fungal biomass to SOM. We hypothesized that: 1) C from sugars is first incorporated into the cytosol, and subsequently into structural compartments such as cell membranes (PLFA) and cell walls (amino sugars). Thus, the turnover times should increase in the order: cytosol < PLFA < amino sugars; 2) incorporation of ¹³C glucose should be faster and higher for bacterial than for fungal biomarkers, because bacterial biomass has a faster cell turnover than fungal biomass; 3) due to amino sugars have long turnover times and are

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mainly dominated in microbial necromass, all incorporated ¹³C can be related only to living biomass and allow estimate percent of replaced C in amino sugars of living microorganisms.

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2. Material and Methods

2.1. Field site and experimental design

134 The ¹³C labeling field experiment was established at an agricultural field trial in Hohenpölz,

135 Germany (49°54'N, 11°08'E, at 500 m a.s.l.). Triticale, wheat and barley were cultivated by a

rotation at the chosen site. The soil type was a loamy haplic Luvisol (IUSS Working group

137 WRB, 2014) and had the following chemical properties in the uppermost 10 cm: total organic

C content 1.5%, C/N 10.7, pH 6.6, clay content 22%, CEC 13 cmol_C kg⁻¹. The annual

precipitation is 870 mm and mean annual temperature is +7 °C.

In summer 2010, following harvest of the triticale, columns (diameter 10 cm and height 13 cm) were installed to a depth of 10 cm. Each column contained 1.5 kg of soil. The 50 mL of uniformly labelled ¹³C glucose (99 atom % ¹³C) was injected into the columns via a syringe at five points inside the column to spread the tracer homogeneously. Syringe was equipped with a special pipe having length 13 cm and perforated along the whole length, while the end of the pipe was sealed to prevent glucose injection below of the column. Each column received 93.4 μmol ¹³C of tracer (0.06 μmol ¹³C g⁻¹soil) and similar amounts of non-labeled glucose were applied to the control columns. The experiment was done in four field replicates, which were organized in a randomized block design. Labelled and control columns were present within each block. For the first 10 days of the experiment the rainfall was excluded by protective shelter, which was then removed and the experiment was run for 50 days in total. After 3, 10 and 50 days, separate soil columns (four columns where ¹³C was applied and four control columns) were destructively sampled.

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The soil was removed from the column, weighed and the water content was
determined in a subsample. Soil moisture was determined by drying samples for 24 h at 105

°C and was essentially constant during the experiment, ranging between 21–25%. Each soil
sample was sieved to <2 mm and divided into three parts. One part was stored frozen (-20°C)
for PLFA analysis, another was cooled (+5°C) (during one week) before the microbial
biomass analysis, and the rest was freeze-dried and used for amino-sugar analysis and for
measurement of the total amount of glucose derived ¹³C remaining in the soil.

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- 161 2.2. Bulk soil $\delta^{13}C$ analysis
- 162 The soil for the δ^{13} C analysis was milled and δ^{13} C values of bulk SOM were determined
- using a Euro EA Elemental Analyser (Eurovector, Milan, Italy) unit coupled via a ConFlo III
- 164 interface (Thermo-Fischer, Bremen, Germany) to a Delta V Advantage IRMS (Thermo
- Fischer, Bremen, Germany). The amount of glucose derived ¹³C remaining in the soil was
- 166 calculated based on a mixing model (Equations 1 and 2), where the amount of C in the
- background sample in Equation 1 was substituted according to Equation 2.

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$$[C]_{soil} \cdot at\%_{soil} = [C]_{BG} \cdot at\%_{BG} + [C]_{glc} \cdot at\%_{glc}$$
 Eq. (1)

169
$$[C]_{soil} = [C]_{BG} + [C]_{glc}$$
 Eq. (2)

170 with:

- 171 [C]_{soil/BG/glc} C amount of enriched soil sample / background soil sample /
- glucose derived C in soil $(\text{mol} \cdot g_{\text{soil}}^{-1})$
- 173 at%_{soil/BG/glc} ¹³C in enriched soil sample / background soil sample /
- applied glucose (at%)

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2.3. Cytosolic C pool

The cytosolic pool was determined by the fumigation–extraction technique from fresh soil shortly after sampling, according to Wu et al. (1990) with slight changes. Briefly, 15 g fresh soil was placed into glass vials, which were exposed to chloroform during 5 days. After defumigation, the cytosolic C was extracted from the soil with 45 mL 0.05 M K_2SO_4 . Due to fumigation–extraction technique allows to obtain not only soluble components, but also cell organelles and cell particles, we named pool of C in fumigated extracts as cytosol only for simplification of terminology. Organic C was measured with a high-temperature combustion TOC-analyser (Analyser multi N/C 2100, Analytik Jena, Germany). The cytosolic pool was calculated as the difference between organic C in fumigated and unfumigated samples without correcting for extraction factor. After organic C concentration were measured, the K_2SO_4 extracts were freeze-dried and the $\delta^{13}C$ values of a 30–35 μg subsample were determined using EA-IRMS (instrumentation identical to soil $\delta^{13}C$ determination). The amount of glucose derived ^{13}C in fumigated and unfumigated samples was calculated according to the above-mentioned mixing model (Equations 1 and 2). The ^{13}C in the microbial cytosol was calculated from the difference in these incorporations.

2.4. Phospholipid fatty acid analysis

The PLFA analysis was performed using the liquid–liquid extraction method of Frostegard et al. (1991) with some modifications (Gunina et al., 2014). Briefly, 6 g soil were extracted with a 25-mL one-phase mixture of chloroform, methanol and 0.15 M aqueous citric acid (1:2:0.8 v/v/v) with two extraction steps. The 19:0-phospholipid (dinonadecanoylglycerol-phosphatidylcholine, Larodan Lipids, Malmö, Sweden) was used as internal standard one (IS1) and was added directly to soil before extraction (25 μ L with 1 μ g μ L⁻¹). Additional

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chloroform and citric acid was added to the extract achieve a separation of two liquid phases, in which the lipid fraction was separated from other organics. Phospholipids were separated from neutral- and glycolipids by soild-phase extraction using a silica column. Alkaline saponification of the purified phospholipids was performed with 0.5 mL 0.5 M NaOH dissolved in dried MeOH, followed by methylation with 0.75 mL BF₃ in methanol. The resulting fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) were purified by liquid-liquid extraction with hexane (three times). Before the final quality and quantity measurements, internal standard two (IS2) (13:0 FAME) (15 μ L with 1 μ g μ L⁻¹) was added to the samples (Knapp, 1979). All PLFA samples were analysed by gas chromatograph (GC) (Hewlett Packard 5890 GC coupled to a mass-selective detector 5971A) (Gunina et al., 2014). A 25 m HP-1 methylpolysiloxane column (internal diameter 0.25 mm, film thickness 0.25 μm) was used (Gunina et al., 2014). Peaks were integrated and the ratio to IS2 was calculated for each peak per chromatogram. Substances were quantified using a calibration curve, which was constructed using 29 single standard substances, (13:0, 14:0, i14:0, a14:0, 14:1\omega5, 15:0, i15:0, a15:0; 16:0, a16:0, i16:0, $16:1\omega5$; $16:1\omega7$, 10Me16:0, 17:0, a17:0, i17:0, cy17:0, 18:0, 10Me18:0, $18:1\omega7$, $18:1\omega9$, $18:2\omega6.9$, $18:3\omega6.9$, 12, cy19:0, 19:0, 20:0, $20:1\omega9$, $20:4\omega6$) at six concentrations. The recovery of extracted PLFA was calculated using IS1 and the PLFA contents of samples were individually corrected for recovery. Based on the measured PLFAs contents, the PLFAs C was calculated for the each single compound. The ¹³C/¹²C isotope ratios of the single fatty acids were determined by an IRMS Delta PlusTM coupled to a gas chromatograph (GC; Trace GC 2000) via a GC-II/III-combustion interface (all units from Thermo-Fisher, Bremen, Germany) (Gunina et al., 2014). A 15 m HP-1 methylpolysiloxane column coupled with a 30 m HP-5 (5% Phenyl)methylpolysiloxane column (both with an internal diameter of 0.25 mm and a film thickness of 0.25 μ m) were used. The measured δ^{13} C values of the fatty acids were corrected for the

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225 effect of derivative C by analogy to Glaser and Amelung (2002) and were referenced to Pee Dee Belemnite by external standards. The enrichment of ¹³C in single fatty acids was 226 227 calculated by analogy to bulk soil and cytosol according to Equations 1 and 2, following a 228 two-pool dilution model (Gearing et al., 1991). 229 230 2.5. Amino sugar analysis 231 Acid hydrolysis was performed to obtain amino sugars from soil and further ion removal was performed according to the method of Zhang and Amelung (1996) with optimization for δ^{13} C 232 determination (Glaser and Gross, 2005). Methylglucamine (100 µL, 5 mg mL⁻¹) was used as 233 234 IS1 and was added to the samples after hydrolysis. Following iron and salt removal, non-235 cationic compounds such as monosaccharides and carboxylic acids were removed from the 236 extracts using a cation exchange column (AG 50W-X8 Resin, H⁺ form, mesh size 100–200, 237 Biorad, Munich, Germany) (Indorf et al., 2012). For final measurement, IS2 - fructose (50 μL, 1 mg mL⁻¹) – was added to each sample. The amino sugar content and ¹³C enrichment 238 were determined by LC-O-IRMS (ICS-5000 SP ion chromatography system coupled by an 239 240 LC IsoLink to a Delta V Advantage Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (Thermo-Fischer, 241 Bremen, Germany)) (Dippold et al., 2014). Amino sugars were quantified using a calibration 242 curve, which was constructed using four single standard substances (glucosamine, 243 galactosamine, mannosamine and muramic acid) as external standards at four different 244 concentrations (Dippold et al., 2014). 245 246 2.6. Calculations and statistical analysis 247 The assignment of fatty acids to distinct microbial groups was performed by factor analysis 248 with the principal component extraction method in combination with databases (Zelles,

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- 249 1997). This method enables quality separation of microbial groups within the soils (Apostel
- 250 et al., 2013; Gunina et al., 2014). The results of the factor analysis are presented in
- Supplementary Table 1.
- Total incorporation of glucose derived ¹³C (¹³C_{incorp}) (means ¹³C incorporation
- represented as % of total applied ¹³C) and enrichment (¹³C_{enrichm}) (means ¹³C incorporation
- 254 represented as % of total C pool) of the cytosol, PLFAs and amino sugars was calculated
- 255 according to Equations 3 and 4, respectively. The C turnover time in the cell pools was
- calculated as $\frac{1}{k}$; the value of k was obtained from Equation 5.

257
$$^{13}C_{incorp} = \frac{C_{Glc}}{^{13}C_{Applied}} \times 100\%$$
 Eq. (3)

258
$$^{13}C_{enrichm} = \frac{C_{Glc}}{^{Total}C_{Pool}} \times 100\%$$
 Eq. (4)

- 259 with
- 260 C_{Glc} amount of glucose derived C incorporated into a distinct cell compartment
- 261 calculated by equation (1) and (2) (µmol ¹³C per column)
- 262 ¹³C_{Applied} amount of applied glucose ¹³C (μmol ¹³C per column)
- 263 $^{\text{Total}}C_{Pool}$ amount of pool C (µmol C per column)

265
$$C_{enrichm(t)} = C_{enrichm(0)} \cdot \exp^{-kt}$$
 Eq. (5)

- 266 with
- 267 C_{enrichm (t)} ¹³C enrichment of the compartment,
- obtained from Eq. 4 at time t (%)
- 269 C_{enrichm (0)} ¹³C enrichment of the compartment
- obtained from Eq. 4 at time 0 (%)

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271 k decomposition rate constant $(\% day^{-1})$ 272 t time (days) 273 One-way ANOVA was used to estimate the significance of differences in total ¹³C 274 275 incorporation and enrichment of cytosol, PLFAs and amino sugars. The data always represent 276 the mean of four replications ± standard error. To calculate the turnover time of C in the 277 cytosol, PLFA and amino sugar pools, a single exponential model was used (Eq. 5) 278 (Kuzyakov, 2011; Parton et al., 1987). 279 280 3. Results 281 3.1. Glucose utilisation and its partitioning within microbial biomass pools 282 Amino sugars were the largest pool, due to their accumulation in SOM, whereas pools that mainly characterize living MB showed smaller C contents (Table 1). The cytosolic pool (C 283 content 210±7.10 for day 3; 195±14.8 for day 10; 198±19.9 mg C kg⁻¹ soil for day 50) as well 284 285 as nearly all PLFA groups (Suppl. Table 2) remained constant during the experiment. 286 [Table 1] 287 The cytosolic pool contained the highest amount of ¹³C among the investigated 288 microbial pools (15–25% of applied ¹³C), whereas the lowest amount was recovered in amino 289 sugars (0.8–1.6% of applied ¹³C) (Fig. 1). The amount of glucose derived ¹³C in the cytosolic 290 pool decreased over time, with the largest decrease from day 3 to day 10, and then remained 291 constant for the following month (Fig. 1). The total ¹³C incorporation into PLFA was 292 293 generally very low and was in the same range as incorporation into amino sugars (Fig. 1).

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The ¹³C dynamics in PLFA showed no clear trend (high standard error) (Fig. 1). In contrast, 294 ¹³C in amino sugars increased two fold during the 50 day experiment (p<0.05). 295 296 [Fig. 1] 297 298 3.2. Turnover time of C in microbial biomass pools 299 To evaluate C turnover in the cytosol, PLFAs and amino sugars, we calculated the enrichment (% of incorporated ¹³C relatively to pool C) of each pool by glucose derived ¹³C. 300 301 The enrichment was the highest in PLFAs (Fig. 2) and was 5-8 times lower in the cytosolic pool. The ¹³C enrichment in amino sugars was the lowest (Fig. 2). Based on the decrease of 302 ¹³C enrichment over time (Fig. 2), the C turnover in the cytosol and PLFAs was calculated as 303 304 151 and 47 days, respectively. The C turnover time in the amino-sugar pool could not be 305 calculated by this approach because the maximum incorporation had not yet been reached, 306 and consequently a decomposition function could not be fitted. 307 [Fig. 2] 308 309 3.3 Phospholipid fatty acids 310 Fatty acids of bacterial origin dominated over those of fungal origin within the living 311 microbial community characterized by PLFA composition (Table 1). Gram-negative (G-) 312 fatty acids were more abundant than gram-positive (G+) ones. Actinomycetes and vesicular 313 arbuscular mycorrhiza (VAM) fatty acids dominated in the composition of filamentous 314 microorganisms, and saprotrophic fungi showed a relatively low presence in PLFAs. The 315 PLFA content of most groups did not change significantly during the experiment, reflecting 316 steady-state conditions for the microbial community (see supplementary Table 2).

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Glucose derived ¹³C was incorporated in higher portions into bacterial than into fungal PLFAs (Fig. 3, top). Remarkably, the ¹³C enrichment decreased over time for all bacterial PLFAs, whereas it increased or remained constant for VAM, fungi and filamentous, bacterial actinomycetes (Fig. 3, bottom), indicating differences in C turnover in single-celled organisms compared to filamentous organisms.

322 [Fig. 3]

3.4. Amino sugars

The content of amino sugars followed the order: muramic acid < galactosamine < glucosamine (Table 1). The glucosamine/muramic acid ratio varied between 17 and 55, whereas the galactosamine/muramic acid ratio ranged between 12 and 19 (Table 1). This provides evidence that bacterial residues were dominant in the composition of microbial residues in SOM.

The incorporation of glucose derived ¹³C into amino sugars increased in the order: muramic acid = galactosamine < glucosamine (Fig. 4, top) reflecting partly their pool sizes. The ¹³C incorporation showed no increase from day 3 to day 50 for any amino sugars. The ratios of glucosamine/muramic acid and galactosamine/muramic acid, calculated for the incorporated ¹³C, were about six. This is much lower than the ratio observed for the pools of amino sugars. The ¹³C enrichment did not increase from day 3 to day 50 for any of the amino sugars. The highest enrichment was observed for muramic acid and the lowest for galactosamine (Fig. 4, bottom). The ¹³C enrichment in amino sugars was 10–20 times lower than for PLFA.

339 [Fig. 4]

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4. Discussion

4.1. Glucose decomposition

The amount of glucose derived ¹³C remaining in soil after 50 days was in the range 80 % which was higher than reported by other studies. Glanville et al. (2012) observed that 50% of glucose C remained in SOM after 20 days; Wu et al. (1993) reported that 55% of glucose derived ¹⁴C remained after 50 days; Perelo and Munch (2005) reported the mineralisation of 50% of ¹³C glucose within 98 days. The amounts of applied C, as well as differences in microbial activity in the investigated soils, explain the variation between studies in the portion of remaining glucose C. The rather high amount of remaining glucose ¹³C observed in this study agrees with results obtained by adding less than 150 µg glucose C g⁻¹ soil (2 µmol C g⁻¹ soil) compared to the application of glucose at high addition rates, i.e. more than 150 μg C g⁻¹ soil (Bremer and Kuikman, 1994; Schneckenberger et al., 2008). Glucose C was stored within the cells due to the starvation conditions of microbial communities, arising from the general limitation of easily accessible C sources (Bremer and Kuikman, 1994; Schimel and Weintraub, 2003) due to long term cultivation. This leads to maintenance and starvation metabolism in microorganisms (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov, 2013), where the use of low molecular weight organic C for energy production, and therefore its mineralisation, are strongly reduced and conservation of C within the microorganisms prevails (Bremer and Kuikman, 1994). The decomposition of 20% of glucose derived ¹³C within the first three days (Fig. 1) agrees with previously reported data (Boddy et al., 2007; Gregorich et al., 1991; Perelo and Munch, 2005). Glucose is decomposed in soil in two stages (Gunina and Kuzyakov, 2015): during the first one, part of glucose C is immediately mineralized to CO2 and part is incorporated into the microbial compartments. This first stage takes place in the first day after

substrate addition and is 30 times faster than the 2nd stage (Gregorich et al., 1991), during

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which C incorporated into MB is further transformed and is used for microbial anabolism e.g., in stable cell polymers, or stored for later catabolism (Bremer and Kuikman, 1994). A significant portion of glucose derived C was stored in the non-specific pool in SOM (Fig. 1), e.g., as microbial storage compounds and other cellular building blocks, which can contribute to C accumulation in microbial residues (Wagner GH, 1968; Zelles et al., 1997; Lutzow et al., 2006). This part cannot be extracted by the methods applied in this study. The amino sugar method detects only the peptidoglycan and chitin proportions of the cell walls, whereas other constituents can not be determined by this method (Glaser et al., 2004). Chloroform fumigation only partially extracts the cytosolic cell compounds, as high molecular weight compounds, which interact with the soil matrix, cannot be extracted with low molarity salt solution.

4.2. Partitioning of ¹³C between cell compounds

To estimate the residual amount of C derived from applied ¹³C-labelled low molecular weight organic substances (LMWOS), the ¹³C in SOM or in the total MB pool is frequently determined. This approach, however, does not allow the portions of ¹³C incorporated into stable and non-stable C pools to be estimated, because the ¹³C in SOM includes the sum of ¹³C in living biomass and ¹³C in microbial residues. Furthermore, the living MB contains cell compartments with a broad spectrum of C turnover times. The approach applied in the present study allows the partitioning of glucose derived C in living MB to be estimated, as well as the contribution of LMWOS-C to SOM composition.

4.3. Cytosol

We calculated the ¹³C enrichment of the cytosolic microbial C pool, extracted after chloroform fumigation. The estimated turnover time of C in this pool was about 151 days

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(Fig. 5). This value lies close to the previously reported range of 87–113 days, for the same pool for soils incubated for 98 days with ¹³C glucose (Perelo and Munch, 2005), but were lower than MB C turnover time calculated using a conversion factor (2.22) - 82 days, for soils incubated for 60 days with ¹⁴C glucose (Kouno et al., 2002). About 23% of the remaining glucose derived ¹³C was still present in the cytosol after 50 days (Fig. 1), which is within the range found in previous studies (Grant et al., 1993). This agrees with the model of Nguyen and Guckert (2001) for the incorporation of glucose to the cytosol when applied at low input concentrations and its slow utilisation within the microbial cells.

4.4. Phospholipid fatty acids

400 4.4.1. Phospholipid fatty acid content and turnover

Phospholipid fatty acid C comprised 0.27% of the soil organic carbon (SOC). The ¹³C incorporation into PLFAs, in case of constant PLFAs content during the experiment, reflects microbial activity under steady-state conditions (growth and death of microorganisms occur with the same rates) and processes of the exchange and replacement of existing PLFAs within living cells.

Few studies have estimated the C turnover time in PLFAs or the turnover time of PLFAs themselves in soil as very few options exist to estimate these parameters under steady-state conditions. The turnover time of ¹³C-labelled PLFAs contained in dead microbial cells, was 2.7 days (Kindler et al., 2009). The PLFAs turnover times estimated in the field conditions using a C₃/C₄ vegetation change (Amelung et al., 2008; Glaser, 2005) or ¹⁴C dating (Rethemeyer et al., 2005) were between 1 and 80 years. However, these approaches estimate the turnover time of C bound in PLFA, which can be much older than the PLFA molecules due to repeated C recycling before incorporation. In contrast, ¹³C pulse labeling is

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an approach that enables direct estimation of the turnover of freshly added C by the initial incorporation peak. The approach used in the present study showed that the C turnover time in PLFA is about 47 days (Fig. 2 and Fig. 5). Accordingly, if the decomposition after cell death is about three days, the PLFA turnover time in living cells is about 44 days. This short turnover time of PLFAs is significantly lower than the C turnover time in the cytosol (Fig. 2). This is because the membrane is the interacting surface between the cell and the environment and thus, frequent and rapid adaptations of its structure are crucial for active microorganisms. In contrast, the extracted cytosolic pool includes C from both active and dormant microorganisms (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov, 2013), and the latter can dilute the ¹³C signal incorporated into the active pool with non-labelled C, yielding a lower turnover of this pool.

4.4.2. Contribution of microbial groups to glucose derived C utilisation

Bacterial fatty acids dominated in the community structure measured by PLFA, and among bacteria, fatty acids from G- bacteria were the most abundant (Table 1). Because we used agricultural soil with pH close to neutral (6.6), the predominance of bacterial PLFAs was expected. Filamentous microorganisms were represented mainly by actinomycetes and VAM, which are also typical for agricultural soils (Dungait et al., 2011; McCarthy and Williams, 1992). We classified 16:1ω5 fatty acid as a biomarker for VAM (Olsson, 1999) and not for G- bacteria, because: i) VAM are usually abundant in soils, where they form a symbiotic relationship with up to 80% of land plants (Madan et al., 2002), and ii) 16:1ω5 behaved similarly to fungi in terms of glucose derived C use (Fig. 3, top). For the precise interpretation of 16:1ω5 as a VAM fatty acid, the simultaneous analysis of 16:1ω5 in comparison to neutral lipids should be performed, otherwise, the relationship of 16:1ω5 to VAM should be viewed with caution.

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More glucose derived ¹³C was incorporated into bacterial PLFAs (Fig. 3, top), than 438 439 filamentous microorganisms. This can be a consequence of low C loading rates (less than 4 440 mg C g-1 soil, see (Reischke et al., 2014), under which conditions the added C is utilized 441 primarily by bacterial communities, whereas at higher concentrations of applied substrate, the 442 dominance of fungi in substrate utilisation is observed (Reischke et al., 2014). Total ¹³C incorporation into gram-negative fatty acids was higher (taking both G-443 444 groups together) compared to G+ bacterial PLFAs (Fig. 3, top), which might be due to: i) the abundance of their fatty acids, which was higher (Table 1) or ii) glucose uptake activity, 445 which was higher for G- than G+ groups. In contrast, the ¹³C enrichment (total ¹³C 446 incorporation related to C in particular biomarkers) for G- bacterial PLFAs was not higher 447 than that for G+ (Fig. 3, bottom). Thus, the high total ¹³C incorporation into G- bacterial 448 biomarkers can mainly corresponds to their high content in the soil, not to higher activity of 449 microbial groups. However, replacement of PLFAs C by glucose derived ¹³C is only a proxy 450 of microbial activity and only partly confirm the real mechanisms. This clearly suggests that 451 452 the analysis of isotope data after labeling in general requires the calculation and combined interpretation of both the total tracer C incorporation as well as the ¹³C enrichment in the 453 454 investigated pool. In contrast to our results, a higher incorporation of glucose derived ¹³C into G+ than 455 G-PLFAs was observed in other studies (Dungait et al., 2011; Ziegler et al., 2005). However, 456 in these studies, much higher amounts of C were applied to the soil (15 µg C g⁻¹ soil), which 457 stimulated the growth of G+ bacteria. In contrast, under steady-state conditions with low 458 459 glucose concentrations in soil, G- bacteria were the most competitive group for glucose 460 uptake (Fig. 3). The ¹³C enrichment of bacterial PLFAs decreased from day 3 to day 50, whereas ¹³C 461 462 in fungal PLFAs increased (in the case of VAM) or stayed constant (Fig. 3, bottom). The

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decrease in ¹³C enrichment in bacterial fatty acids indicates a partial turnover of bacterial lipid membranes, which is much faster than turnover in fungal membranes. This result is consistent with the turnover time of bacterial biomass in soil (Baath, 1998), which is about 10 days, whereas fungal biomass turnover times range between 130-150 days (Rousk and Baath, 2007). Consequently, the increase in ¹³C enrichment in fungal PLFAs at late sampling points indicates that fungi consume the exudation products of bacteria or even dead bacterial biomass (Zhang et al., 2013; Ziegler et al., 2005). 4.5. Amino sugars 4.5.1. Amino sugar content and amino sugar C turnover in total and living microbial cell walls Amino sugars represented the largest microbial pool investigated in this study (Table 1) and comprised 3.7% of SOC. Chitin and peptidoglycan, the direct sources of the amino sugars, comprise no more than 5% of cell biomass (Park and Uehara, 2008; Wallander et al., 2013). Therefore, the high amount of amino sugars relative to PLFA can only be explained by their high proportion in microbial residues/necromass (Glaser et al., 2004; Liang et al., 2008; Glaser et al., 2004). Irrespective of the large pool size of the amino sugars, their incorporation of glucose derived ¹³C was the lowest compared to other compartments in living cells. The total ¹³C incorporation and enrichment of amino sugars increased from day 3 to day 50, in contrast to cytosol and PLFA pools. Consequently, amino sugars have the slowest turnover in soils, presumably even within living cells, for two reasons: 1) cell walls are polymers that require a rather complex biosynthesis of the amino-sugar fibers, 2) cell-wall polymerization occurs extracellularly (Lengeler et al., 1999) and 3) microorganisms do not need to

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synthesize peptidoglycan unless they multiply. To calculate C turnover time in this pool, further long-term sampling points with ¹³C-amino-sugar analysis are necessary.

The majority of amino sugars extracted after acid hydrolysis represent microbial necromass, which does not incorporate any glucose derived ¹³C, but strongly dilutes the ¹³C incorporated into the walls of living cells. To estimate the ¹³C incorporation into amino sugars of living cells, we first calculated the amount of amino sugars in the living MB pool based on the fatty acids content. Assuming that PLFAs are present only in living biomass, and that the ratio of fatty acids to amino sugars in living biomass is about 0.23 (Lengeler et al., 1999), we estimated the amount of amino sugars in living MB to be 0.20 μmol g⁻¹ soil fatty acids/0.23 = 0.87 μ mol g⁻¹ soil. The estimated percentage of amino sugars in living biomass from the total amino sugar pool was 0.87/7.70 (total AS (µmol g⁻¹ soil))*100 = 11%. This estimate agrees with that of Amelung et al. (2001a) and Glaser et al. (2004), who reported that the amount of amino sugars in living biomass is one to two orders of magnitude lower than in the total amino-sugar pool. We calculated the ¹³C enrichment in amino sugars for the first sampling point, assuming that all replaced C is still contained within living MB after three days of glucose C utilisation. Total tracer incorporation into amino sugars consisted of 0.00071 umol glucose derived ¹³C in amino sugars g⁻¹ soil/0.87 (umol amino sugars g^{-1} soil)*7 (mean amount of C atoms in amino sugars)*100 = 0.57% of the C pool. Comparison of these data with the ¹³C enrichment into PLFAs and the cytosol allowed us to conclude that the replacement of the amino sugar C with glucose derived ¹³C in living biomass is two-fold slower than the replacement in PLFAs, and faster than in the cytosolic pool. This reflects that microbial C turnover is a phenomenon that is not restricted to the death or growth of new cells, but that even within living cells, highly polymeric cell compounds, including cell walls, are constantly replaced and renewed (Park and Uehara, 2008).

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4.5.2. Contribution of bacterial and fungal cell walls to SOC

Glucosamine was the dominant amino sugar in the soil, whereas muramic acid was the least abundant (Table 1), which agrees with most literature data (Engelking et al., 2007; Glaser et al., 2004). To conclude about the proportions of bacterial and fungal residues in the SOM, the ratios of glucosamine/muramic acid and galactosamine/muramic acid (Glaser et al., 2004) were calculated (Table 1). Based on the galactosamine/muramic acid ratio, bacteria were dominant within the soil microbial community, whereas the glucosamine/muramic acid ratio indicated that the fungal contribution was larger. This discrepancy is due to unknown sources of glucosamine in the soil (Glaser et al., 2004), i.e. it originates from bacterial (Amelung et al., 2001b) and fungal cell walls (Fernandez and Koide, 2012; Glaser et al., 2004; Park and Uehara, 2008) as well as from actinomycetes, insect and invertebrate. Moreover, previous studies have confirmed galactosamine to be the most characteristic amino sugar for fungal residues in soil (Engelking et al., 2007) and thus, galactosamine/muramic acid ratio is more useful for estimation the composition of microbial residues in SOM. The bacterial origin of microbial residues in the soil is supported by: 1) the dominance of bacterial PLFA biomarkers 2) the environmental conditions of our the site, namely, long-term agricultural use, which promotes the dominance of bacterial communities.

Three-fold more glucose derived ¹³C was incorporated into glucosamine than into galactosamine and muramic acid (Fig. 4, top). This correlates with the pool size and indicates that glucosamine is the most dominant amino sugar not only in total amino sugars, but also within the walls of living cells. The galactosamine/muramic acid ratio of the incorporated ¹³C was six, and consequently was significantly lower than the ratio calculated for the amount of amino sugars (Table 1). This indicates that bacteria are more active in glucose derived ¹³C utilisation than fungi, a conclusion also supported by the ¹³C-PLFA data (Fig. 3). Thus, even if the composition of amino sugars does not allow a clear conclusion concerning living

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microbial communities in soil, amino sugar analysis combined with ¹³C labeling reveals the activity of living microbial groups in terms of substrate utilisation.

The calculated ¹³C enrichment was the highest in muramic acid (Fig. 4, bottom). This is in agreement with the high ¹³C enrichment of bacterial PLFAs compared to VAM and fungi (Fig. 3). Due to differences in cell-wall architecture, G+ bacteria contain more muramic acid (approximately four times) than G- bacteria (Lengeler et al., 1999), and thus make a higher contribution to the ¹³C enrichment of muramic acid.

The ¹³C enrichment of glucosamine was two-fold lower than muramic acid (Fig. 4, bottom). This confirms the hypothesis that glucosamine originates from bacterial as well as fungal cell walls and consequently has a mixed enrichment between that of the fungal galactosamine and the bacterial muramic acid.

5. Conclusions

Tracing the ¹³C labelled glucose through cytosol, PLFAs and amino sugars is a prerequisite for understanding the fate of organic substrates in soil. The highest ¹³C enrichment, and thus turnover of C, was found for the PLFA pool, corresponding to a turnover time of 47 days, whereas the turnover was slower in the cytosol (150 days). These differences can be attributed to 1) efficient C recycling in the cytosol, and 2) its heterogeneous composition, which contains compounds with different turnover rates. The ¹³C enrichment of amino sugars was still increasing at the end of the experiment, reflecting the slowest C turnover within the investigated pools and that most of this pool consisted of microbial residues and not living biomass. An approximate calculation of ¹³C enrichment of amino sugars in the living biomass gave values 0.57% of pool size, which was still lower than for PLFAs. Thus, C turnover in

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membrane components is faster than in cell wall components, even if only the portion of the amino sugar pool in living biomass is considered.

Bacterial PLFAs dominated in the microbial community composition, and much higher glucose derived ¹³C was incorporated to bacterial than to fungal PLFAs too. This agrees with prevailing role of bacteria in the utilisation of easily available organic substrates that are present at low concentrations in soil. A slower turnover of filamentous and mainly fungal biomass compared to bacteria was observed in the ¹³C enrichment of the respective PLFAs. Therefore, filamentous organisms might utilize the products of bacterial metabolism and biomass, which is an important link in the soil food web.

The galactosamine/muramic acid ratio was between 12 and 19, indicating a predominance of bacterial vs. fungal residues in SOM. The ratio of galactosamine/muramic acid for incorporated ¹³C confirmed that bacteria were more active in glucose utilisation than fungi. The ¹³C enrichment was the highest for muramic acid and the lowest for galactosamine, demonstrating that the turnover of bacterial cell wall components is more rapid than fungal.

Consequently, the combination of ¹³C labeling with the subsequent analysis of several microbial cell compartments and biomarkers is a unique approach to understanding C partitioning within microbial cells and the microbial communities in soil. This knowledge is not only crucial for assessing C fluxes and recycling in soil, but is also of special importance concerning the contribution of C from microbial residues to SOM.

Author contribution

Y. Kuzyakov and B. Glaser designed the experiments and M. Dippold and A. Gunina carried

them out. A. Gunina prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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Data availability Underlying research data can be accessed by a request from the first author of paper. Acknowledgements This study was supported by a grant from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG KU 1184 19/1 and INST 186/1006-1 FUGG). The authors are grateful to Stefanie Bösel, a technical staff member of the Department of Soil Biochemistry, Institute of Agricultural and Nutritional Science, Martin-Luther University Halle-Wittenberg for performing the bulk isotope and amino sugars measurements. Thanks are extended to MolTer and DAAD, which provided a fellowship for A. Gunina. We are very grateful to the Centre for Stable Isotope Research and Analysis (KOSI) of Göttingen University for the δ^{13} C measurements.

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Table 1 Amount of microbial biomass compartments, their C content, PLFA content of microbial groups and composition of microbial residues in investigated soil. G-1 and G-2 are gram-negative group one and two, respectively; G+1 and G+2 are gram positive group one and two, respectively; Ac – actinomycetes; VAM - vesicular arbuscular mycorrhiza fungi. Data present mean of three time points ± SE

Compartment	mg component C kg ⁻¹ soil	mg kg ⁻¹ soil	Ratio
Cytosol	201.0 ± 7.1	-	
Phospholipid fatty acids	39.4 ± 4.7	51.9 ± 6.2	
Specific phospholipid fatty			
acids			
G-1	8.9±3.6	11.6 ± 4.6	
G-2	5.6±0.8	7.4 ± 1.1	
G+1	5.9±1.2	7.9 ± 1.6	
G+2	0.7±0.3	1.0 ± 0.4	
Ac	2.3±0.7	3.0 ± 1.0	
VAM	1.7±0.3	2.2 ± 0.3	
Fungi	1.0±0.2	1.3 ± 0.2	
Bacteria/Fungi			6 - 8.5
Amino sugars	560.7 ± 68.2	1393.8 ± 170.0	
Glucosamine	460.7±79.3	1146.5 ± 197.3	
Galactosamine	90.9±11.3	226.3 ± 28.2	
Muramic acid	9.1±1.8	21.1 ± 4.1	
Glucosamine/muramic acid			17 - 55
Glucosamine/muramic acid (lite	Bacteria	5.3	
cultures*)		Fungi	271
Galactosamine/muramic acid		-	12 - 19
Galactosamine/muramic acid	iterature data for	Bacteria	2.8
pure cultures*)		Fungi	59

^{*}Data are taken from Glaser et al. (2004).

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for day 10, x-z are for day 50.

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818 **Table captions** 819 Table 1 Amount of microbial biomass compartments, their C content, content of microbial 820 groups and composition of microbial residues in investigated soil. G-1 and G-2 are gram-821 negative group one and two, respectively; G+1 and G+2 are gram positive group one and 822 two, respectively; Ac – actinomycetes; VAM - vesicular arbuscular mycorrhiza fungi. 823 824 Figure captions Fig. 01 Partitioning of glucose derived ¹³C in SOM presented as the total ¹³C incorporation 825 826 between the following pools: non-specified SOM, cytosolic, PLFAs and amino sugars. Small 827 letters reflect differences between the sampling points for the distinct pool. Data present 828 mean (n=4) and bars present standard errors. 829 Fig. 02 ¹³C enrichment in the cytosolic, PLFA and amino-sugar cell pools as well as 830 831 functions to calculate the C turnover times in these microbial cell pools. The left y-axis 832 represents the PLFA pool, the first right y-axis, the cytosolic and the second y-axis, the 833 amino-sugar pool. Data present mean (n=4) and bars present standard errors. 834 Fig. 03 Total incorporation of glucose derived ¹³C (top) and ¹³C enrichment (bottom) of the 835 836 microbial PLFAs. Note that the values for VAM and fungi are scaled-up 10 times (secondary 837 Y axis) compared to those of other groups (Y axis at the left). Data present mean (n=4) and 838 bars present standard errors. Small letters reflect differences between the microbial groups for total ¹³C incorporation and ¹³C enrichment from glucose; letters a-d are for day three, l-o are 839

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Fig. 04 Total incorporation of glucose derived ¹³C (top) and ¹³C enrichment (bottom) of amino sugars and muramic acid. Letters reflect significant differences in the total incorporation and ¹³C enrichment from glucose into amino sugars on a particular day; letters a-b are for day three, l-m are for day 10, x-y are for day 50. No significant differences were observed between the three sampling days. Data present mean (n=4) and bars present standard errors. **Fig. 05** Dynamic relationship of microbial utilization of glucose and turnover of cytosol, cell

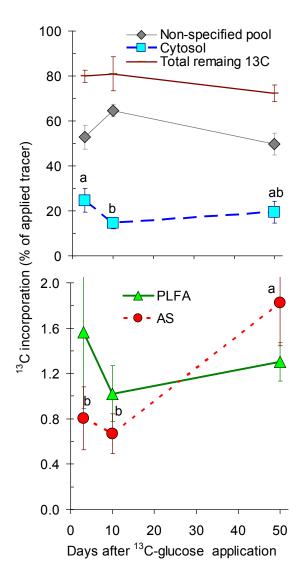
Fig. 05 Dynamic relationship of microbial utilization of glucose and turnover of cytosol, cell membrane and cell wall components.

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882 Figure 01.

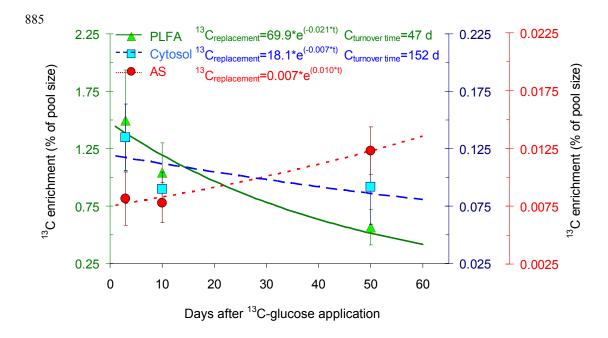


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884 Figure 02.



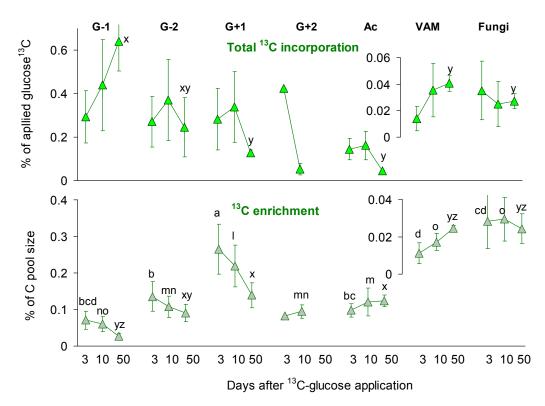
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886 Figure 03.

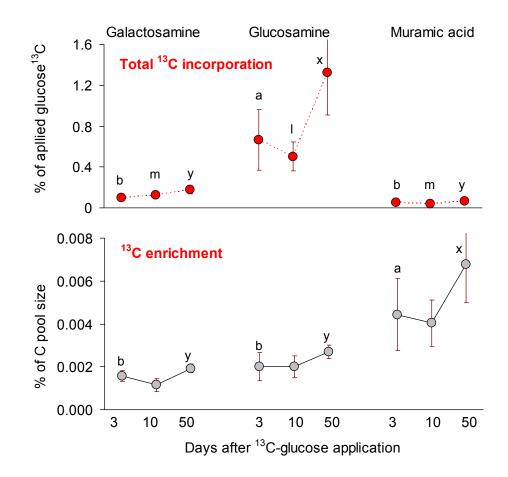


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888 Figure 04.

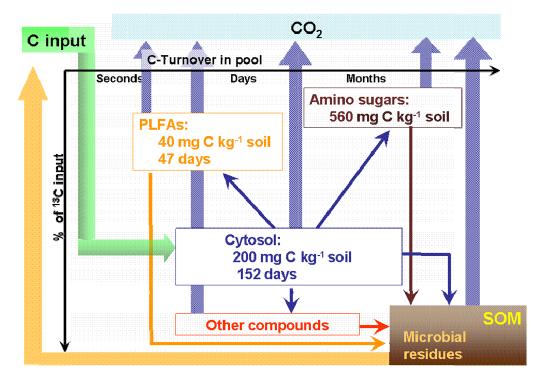


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889 Figure 05.



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