#### 1 **Response to comments**

**Comment1**: The authors described slightly the structures of a nebkha sand dune for explaining the

- 2 sampling design of roots. However, it was still somewhat hard to figure out, especially the situation 3
- 4 of the nebkha sands and the "below-plain" layer. If you provide some conceptual diagram (a cartoon)
- 5 with spatial scale information in addition to Figure 1, it would be very helpful for readers to
- understand. Response: In Figure 1, we added dimensions for both the nebkha sand dunes and 6
- 7 "below-plain" portion. In text, we add more explanations about the general structure of a nebkha.
- Hope these revisions will make the nebkha morphology easier to understand. 8
- **Comment2**: Figure 1: These figures need scales. *Response:* Suggestion adopted. 9
- Comment3. There is redundancy between Figures 3 and 5. You can express the difference of the 10
- statements in these scatter graphs in one figure using some color differences on marks and 11
- appropriate captions. Response: Suggestion adopted. 12
- 13
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The interaction between nitrogen and phosphorous is a strong predictor of
intra-plant variation in nitrogen isotope composition in a desert species
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### 53 Abstract

Understanding intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N is essential for fully utilizing the potential of  $\delta^{15}$ N as an 54 integrator of terrestrial nitrogen (N) cycle and as an indicator of relative limitation of N and 55 phosphorous (P) on plant growth. Studying such variations can also yield insights into N metabolism 56 by plant as a whole or by specific organs. However, few researchers have systematically evaluated 57 intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N and their relationships with organ nutrient contents. We excavated 58 whole plant architectures of Nitraria tangutorum Bobrov, a C<sub>3</sub> species of vital regional ecological 59 60 importance, in two deserts in northwestern China. We systematically and simultaneously measured N isotope ratios and N and P contents of different parts of the excavated plants. We found that 61 intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N of *N. tangutorum* were positively correlated with corresponding organ 62 N and P contents. However, it was the N × P interaction, not N and P individually or their linear 63 combination, that was the strongest predictor of intra-plant  $\delta^{15}$ N. Additionally, we showed that root 64  $\delta^{15}$ N increased with depth into soil, a pattern similar to profiles of soil  $\delta^{15}$ N reported by previous 65 studies in different ecosystems. We hypothesized that the strong positive intra-plant  $\delta^{15}N - N$  and P 66 67 relationships are caused by three processes acting in conjunction: 1) N and P content-driven 68 fractionating exchanges of ammonia between leaves and the atmosphere (volatilization) during 69 photorespiration, 2) resorption and remobilization of N and P from senescing leaves, and 3) mixture 70 of the re-translocated foliar N and P with existing pools in stems and roots. To test our hypothesis, future studies should investigate plant N volatilization and associated isotope fractionation and 71 intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N in different species across ecosystems and climates. 72 73

Key words: Nitrogen isotope fractionation, volatilization, phosphorous, photorespiration, resorption
 and remobilization

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- 78

## 79 INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen (N) is the most limiting nutrient in many terrestrial ecosystems, especially those in 80 temperate and boreal regions (Vitousek 1994). As atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations continue to 81 82 increase due to anthropogenic fossil fuel emissions, the limiting effects of N on ecosystem productivity may become increasingly important (Luo et al. 2004; Thornton et al. 2007; Sun et al. 83 2014). Understanding the N cycle is essential to forecasting and predicting ecosystem dynamics in 84 85 response to climate change. Plant N acquisition, transformation, and translocation are key steps in N 86 cycling because they subsequently affect plant photosynthesis, growth, and substrate supply for 87 microbial activities (Manzoni et al. 2010; Vitousek et al. 2010). Many physical, biological and chemical processes that control plant N acquisition, transformation, and translocation discriminate 88 against N isotope 15 ( $^{15}$ N) in favor of N isotope 14 ( $^{14}$ N). As a result, the variations in the relative 89 abundance of <sup>15</sup>N to <sup>14</sup>N, quantified as  $\delta^{15}$ N, of plants contain rich information about these processes 90 (Högberg 1997; Robinson 2001, Evans 2001, Dawson et al. 2002). For this reason,  $\delta^{15}$ N is often 91 considered an integrator of terrestrial N cycling and numerous studies have analyzed natural 92 variations in plant  $\delta^{15}$ N across disturbance and successional stages (e.g., Hobbie et al. 2000; Wang et 93 al. 2007; Resco et al. 2011; Hyodo et al. 2013), climate and topoedaphic gradients (e.g., Austin and 94 Sala 1999; Schulze et al. 1998; Martinelli et al. 1999; Amundson et al. 2003; Craine et al. 2005 & 95 2009; Bai et al. 2009), species (e.g., Cernusak et. 2009; Gubsch et al. 2011), and types of 96 mycorrhizal fungi (Hobbie and Hobbie 2008; Hobbie and Högberg 2012). Other studies have used 97  $\delta^{15}$ N as an indicator of relative N and phosphorus (P) availability and limitation on plant growth 98 99 (McKee et al. 2002; Wigand et al. 2007; Inglett et al. 2007; Mayor et al. 2014). These studies have demonstrated the power of using natural variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N to understand physical and biological 100 101 processes controlling N cycling in terrestrial ecosystems. Compared with the prolific studies on variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N across ecological and climate gradients 102 and species, fewer studies have systematically evaluated intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N. Studies that 103 did examine intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N were often conducted in controlled environments. Most 104

such studies focused on differences between roots and leaves. It has been found that leaves of a plant
tended to be enriched in <sup>15</sup>N compared with the roots of the same plant (Bergersen et al. 1988;
Yoneyama and Kaneko 1989; Evans et al. 1996; Kolb and Evans 2002) and the difference can be as

- 108 high as 7‰ which has the same magnitude as variations across ecological and climate gradients.
- 4

109 Such large intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N, if not accounted for, may confound interpretation of

large-scale patterns in variations of  $\delta^{15}$ N (Evans 2001) and lead to misguided diagnoses of relative N

and P limitation on plant growth. Nevertheless, no foliar enrichment or mixed results have also been

observed both in controlled experiments (Evans et al. 1996; Hobbie et al. 2008) and in natural

113 environments (Dijkstra et al. 2003).

Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N or lack thereof. 114 The most commonly discussed mechanisms invoke the differences in the assimilation and transport 115 116 of inorganic N of nitrate ( $NO_3^-$ ) and ammonium ( $NH_4^+$ ) within plants. Both the assimilation of  $NO_3^$ and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> discriminate against <sup>15</sup>N (Yoneyama et al. 2003; Karsh et al. 2012; Table 1 in Johnson and 117 Berry 2013 lists values for various isotope effects) but fundamental differences exist in their 118 119 metabolism in plants.  $NO_3^-$  is assimilated by nitrate reductase (NR) in a process that involves first the reduction of  $NO_3^-$  to nitrite and then to  $NH_4^+$  and finally to amino acids. This process can take 120 121 place in roots, stems, and leaves (Masclaux-Daubresse et al. 2010). Consequently organic N 122 compounds originated from  $NO_3^-$  may come from assimilation events that take place in different parts of the plant (Evans et al. 1996; Evans 2001). The discrimination by NR in roots leads to an 123 enriched pool of unassimilated  $NO_3^-$ , which is then transported to other parts of the plant via the 124 transpiration stream of xylem. Thus leaves and shoots are expected to be enriched in  $^{15}$ N as 125 compared with roots when  $NO_3^-$  is the source of nitrogen. This enrichment has been found to be 126 correlated with the transpiration efficiency of the N acquisition (Cernusak et al. 2009). 127 The impact of  $NH_4^+$  assimilation on intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}N$  was traditionally thought to be 128 129 minimal but more recent studies indicate that this might not be the case.  $NH_4^+$  is usually the most 130 important source of N available to plant roots in natural terrestrial ecosystems (Schjoerring et al. 131 2002) although  $NO_3^-$  and  $NH_4^+$  are often available together (Bijlsma et al. 2000).  $NH_4^+$  is also produced by plants as a central intermediate in a wide variety of metabolic processes such as  $NO_3^-$ 132 assimilation, photorespiration, lignin biosynthesis, protein turnover, and degradation of transport 133 amides (Joy 1988; Massad et al, 2010; Flechard et al. 2013). However, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is toxic to plants at 134 135 high concentration (Britto and Kronzucker 2002). Because of this, early workers assumed that once absorbed by roots, it is immediately assimilated in roots by the glutamine synthetase/glutamate 136 synthase (GS-GOGAT) pathway. This assumption led to a further hypothesis that organic N 137 compounds derived from NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> ultimately result from a single assimilation event occurred in roots 138

and therefore no intra-plant variation in  $\delta^{15}$ N should occur for plants that have grown with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> as 139 140 the sole nitrogen source (e.g., Evans et al. 1996). However, later studies depict a much more 141 complicated picture of assimilation and transport of NH<sup>4</sup><sub>4</sub> within plants. This complication involves 142 two aspects. First, it has been found that a significant amount of NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> can be transported in the xylem from roots to shoots and the  $NH_4^+$  pools in the apoplast in general and leaf tissues in 143 particular can respond rapidly to the supply of NH<sup>4</sup><sub>4</sub> solution to the roots (Mattsson and Schjoerring 144 2002; Schjoerring et al. 2002). Second, a recent modeling study suggests that the 145 146 photorespiration-induced exchange of ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) between leaf and the atmosphere, which has a large isotope effect (the isotope effect for molecular diffusion of NH<sub>3</sub> is 1.0176 in still air and 1.0117 147 in leaf boundary layer; Farquhar et al. 1983), can substantially influence plant and atmospheric N 148 149 isotopic compositions (Johnson and Berry 2013). This process has been mostly ignored in previous studies of terrestrial variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N. Thus it appears that the impact of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> assimilation and 150 transport as well as the NH<sub>3</sub> exchange with the atmosphere during photorespiration on intra-plant 151 variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N may have been underestimated. 152 153 Besides the mechanisms discussed above, other fractionating processes such as transamination,

redistribution of relatively enriched or depleted metabolites, differential losses of N from plant organs, resorption and remobilization of N from senescing leaves have been suggested as potential causes of intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N (Evans 2001; Werner and Schmidt 2002; Cernusak et al. 2009; Tcherkez 2011; Gauthier et al. 2013). In particular, fractionations in metabolic reactions (e.g., amino acid syntheses) and transfers of isotopically different plant metabolites across plant organs have been highlighted as factors contributing to intra-plant heterogeneities in  $\delta^{15}$ N (Gauthier et al. 2013).

Thus, there is a strong need for systematical evaluation of  $\delta^{15}$ N variation across different organs 160 within the same plant. Such evaluations will provide key guidance for using  $\delta^{15}N$  as an integrator of 161 162 terrestrial N cycling and as an indicator of relative nutrient limitation. They will also offer important 163 insights into plant N metabolism. The present study represents a step in this direction. Our objective is to conduct the first measurement-based systematic evaluation of intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}N$  and 164 to shed light on potential mechanisms. We attempt to achieve this objective by comprehensively and 165 simultaneously analyzing variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N with carbon (C), N and P contents in different plant 166 organs with excavated whole architectures of a desert species grown in natural conditions. 167

168 The joint analysis of N and P is important for understanding variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N. These two

169 elements are stoichiometrically coupled in plants (Gusewell 2004). P availability affects plant photosynthesis and growth which may have implication for  $\delta^{15}$ N variations in plants. For example, 170 171 orthophosphate is a key reactant in photosynthetic carbon assimilation in chloroplasts and its supply 172 directly affects the rates of carboxylation and photorespiration (Sivak and Walker 1986; Kondracka 173 and Rychter 1997). Since fractionation occurs in foliar NH<sub>3</sub> exchange with the atmosphere during photorespiration (Johnson and Berry 2013), an effect of P on plant nitrogen isotope composition can 174 175 be expected. Another consideration is that the relative availability of N vs. P to plants has 176 consequences on N isotope fractionation. This is because of two factors. First, no fractionation can occur if all available N is assimilated, which may happen when N is limiting (Cernusak et al. 2009; 177 Gauthier et al. 2013). Second, P availability affects when and where N limitation occurs (Vitousek et 178 al. 2010). Indeed, previous studies have found that P availability is correlated with  $\delta^{15}$ N in plant 179 biomass. For example, Major et al. (2014) showed that long-term additions of both N and P reduced 180 foliar  $\delta^{15}$ N as compared with N or P addition alone in a lowland tropical rainforest. Studies such as 181 this are the basis for the suggestion that  $\delta^{15}N$  could be used as an indicator of ecosystem P limitation 182 (McKee et al. 2002; Wigand et al. 2007; Inglett et al. 2007; Mayor et al. 2014). 183 The present study builds upon the earlier efforts reviewed above and fills a gap in systematic 184

investigation of intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N. We will demonstrate that the intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N in our study species *Nitraria tangutorum* Bobrov are closely related to organ N and P contents and their interaction. We will show that the intra-plant  $\delta^{15}$ N – N and P relationships found in our study cannot be readily explained with mechanisms thought to be responsible for  $\delta^{15}$ N variations across species, ecological and climate gradients. To stimulate future research in intra-plant  $\delta^{15}$ N variations, we will propose a new, testable hypothesis that we believe most logically explains such variations.

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## 193 MATERIALS AND METHODS

## 194 Nitraria tangutorum Bobrov and the study sites

We previously described in detail the biological and environmental characteristics of *N. tangutorum* and the study sites (Zhang et al. 2015). For convenience and completeness, some of the information presented in Zhang et al. (2015) is repeated here. *N. tangutorum* is a spiny  $C_3$  shrub species in the *Nitraria* genus of the Zygophyllaceae family. It is endemic to northwestern deserts in China with a

199 distribution including northeastern Tibet, Gansu, Qinghai, Xinjiang, western Inner Mongolia, western Ningxia, and northern Shaanxi. It is a pioneer species of high tolerance to a variety of 200 201 stresses. N. tangutorum controls local landscape evolution, owing to its exceptional capability of 202 fixing sands and building sand dunes known as nebkhas or coppice dunes around its extensive shoot 203 and root systems (Baas and Nield 2007; Lang et al. 2013; Li et al. 2013). The formation process of nebkha was described in Zhang et al. (2015). The phytogenic nebkha dunes formed by N. 204 205 tangutorum prevent or slow down sand movement, making it often the most ecologically important 206 species in its environment. The height of a N. tangutorum nebkha typically ranges from 1 to 3 m and 207 some may reach 5 m. The base of a nebkha often has the shape of an ellipse with the major axis 208 parallel to the local prevailing wind direction (Fig.1). Below the base are dense clay layers that 209 constitute dried-up flat beds of previous rivers or lakes. The nebkha-building characteristic of N. tangutorum makes it relatively easy to excavate the whole plant including roots for isotope and 210 211 nutrient analyses except for a small fraction of roots that have grown into the solid clay layers below the base of nebkha and require some efforts to dig them out. Previously we studied intra-plant 212 variations in carbon isotope composition of this species (Zhang et al. 2015). Wang et al. (2014) 213 studied the variations of its foliar and root nitrogen and phosphorous contents in season and along 214 215 aridity gradients. To our knowledge, this species has never been investigated for intra-plant variation in  $\delta^{15}$ N, whether in cultures or in natural environments. 216 Our field work was carried out in two desert locations. The first site was in Dengkou County, 217 218 Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, China. Dengkou County is at the junction between the Hetao 219 Plain and Ulan Buh Desert of the Mongolian Plateau in the middle reaches of the Yellow River. The 220 mean annual temperature is 8.84°C and the mean annual precipitation is 147 mm with 77.5% of 221 annual rainfall occurring from June to September (1983-2012 averages). The mean annual potential evaporation is 2381 mm (Li et al. 2013). The sampling was conducted within an experimental area 222 (40°24' N, 106°43' E) managed by the Experimental Center of Desert Forestry of the Chinese 223 224 Academy of Forestry. The study site has sandy soil and gray-brown desert soil (Cambic Arenosols 225 and Luvic Gypsisols in FAO taxonomy). The N. tangutorum nebkhas in the area are formed on clay soils deposited by the Yellow River. Although the plant community is dominated by N. tangutorum, 226 227 xerophytic species such as semi-shrub Artemisia ordosica, perennial grass Psammochloa villosa, and 228 annual species Agriophyllum squarrosum and Corispermum mongolicum can also be found.

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229 The second study site was in Mingin County, Gansu Province, China. Mingin County is located in the lower reaches of Shiyang River, surrounded by the Badain Jaran Desert in the west and north 230 231 and the Tengger Desert in the east. The mean annual temperature is 8.87°C and the mean annual 232 precipitation is 117 mm with 73.1% of annual rainfall occurring from June to September (1983-2012 233 averages). The mean annual potential evaporation is 2643 mm (Du et al. 2010). Thus the second 234 study site is somewhat drier than the first site but with similar annual mean temperatures. The 235 sampling was conducted within the Gansu Mingin Desert Ecosystem Research Station (38°34' N, 236 102°58' E). The soil at the Mingin site is similar to that at the Dengkou site with sandy soil in the 237 nebkhas and gray-brown desert soil between nebkhas. The native vegetation is usually dominated by 238 shrubs and semi-shrubs with species such as N. tangutorum and Calligonum mongolicum. 239 Experimental plots used in this study contained semi-fixed nebkha dunes developed by the growth of N. tangutorum. Typically in dry years, N. tangutorum is the only species growing in the nebkhas 240 241 although in wet years, annual species such as Agriophyllum squarrosum and Corispermum 242 mongolicum can also be found. Because the Mingin site is drier than the DengKou site, the nebkhas 243 at the Minqin site are generally smaller and less populated with plants than at the Dengkou site. The rooting depth is deeper at the Mingin site than at the Dengkou site (see Table 1 in Zhang et al. 244 245 2015).Nitrogen cycling at these remote desert sites has rarely been studied. We are not aware of any 246 previous report that indicates *N. tangutorum* or any co-existing species might be a nitrogen fixer. 247 Throughout our investigation, we found no evidence of any nitrogen fixer existing at the two study 248 sites. We did not investigate whether there might be any nitrogen-fixing symbionts in N. tangutorum. 249 However, there was a single conference report on the observation of the presence of endogenous 250 nitrogen-fixing bacteria in a related species N. schoberi (Li et al. 2015). Therefore it is possible that 251 N. tangutorum might also have nitrogen-fixing symbionts. Nevertheless, soil is probably the primary source of nitrogen for N. tangutorum at our study sites. Since the present study focuses on intra-plant 252 variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N, the nature of nitrogen source is not critically important for our study. 253 254

#### 255 Excavation of Nitraria tangutorum nebkhas

In August 2012, three nebkhas were excavated at each study site. The geometrical and biometrical characteristics of the six nebkhas were summarized in Table 1 of Zhang et al. (2015). At the Dengkou

site, the three nebkhas were excavated in a sampling area of  $40m \times 40m$ . At the Mingin site, nebkhas 258 259 were generally much smaller. To ensure availability for analyses of sufficient biomass materials at this site, particularly the fine roots (see below), three sampling areas each with a dimension of 30m 260 261  $\times$  30m were established and three nebkhas from each sampling area were tentatively excavated. Two 262 nebkhas from one sampling area and one from another were deemed to have sufficient amount of 263 fine roots for analyses and were therefore excavated fully. The nebkhas were excavated by carefully 264 teasing away the sands from the mounds to expose the root architecture of N. tangutorum with 265 particular attention paid to preserving its fine roots and to distinguishing any roots from other plant 266 species that may happen to grow in the same nebkhas. The roots of a *N. tangutorum* plant can be 267 found inside the sand mounds as well as inside the clay layer that generally forms a plain on which 268 the sand mounds rest. We therefore also excavated any roots inside the clay layer to a depth until no more roots could be found. Only biomass materials from N. tangutorum were harvested and any 269 270 materials from all other species that may be present were excluded to ensure pure intra-plant 271 analyses required by this study.

272 We separated the whole plant biomass into groups of leaves, stems, in-sand roots, and below-plain roots. The in-sand roots, which were roots found inside the nebkha sands but above the 273 274 plain formed by the underlying clay layer, were further separated into in-sand fine roots (diameter 275  $\leq 2$ mm) and in-sand coarse roots (diameter > 2mm). The same root diameter threshold was used to 276 separate the below-plain roots, which were found inside the clay layer under the nebkha sands. 277 Furthermore, the below-plain fine and coarse roots were grouped in a 20cm depth increment from the 278 plain surface. We did not separate the in-sand fine and coarse roots into layers because a nebkha has 279 a cone shape on top, making a layer hard to define. Also we did not use a simple 'below-ground' 280 group because 'ground' is not well defined in a nebkha-populated landscape and because there are large physical and chemical differences between sands and clay which may affect the isotope 281 compositions of roots growing in them. Litter was rarely found on the nebkhas, presumably because 282 283 strong winds at the study sites can easily blow away any litter produced. However, woody debris 284 from dead ramets was present inside the sand mounds and was collected during excavation. Thus for 285 each nebkha, we differentiated the following categories of N. tangutorum biomass for intra-plant isotope analyses: leaves, stems, in-sand fine roots (ISFR), in-sand coarse roots (ISCR), below-plain 286 287 fine roots (BPFR) in 20 cm depth increments, and below-plain coarse roots (BPCR) in 20 cm

increments, and woody debris (WD). Nutrient contents and nitrogen isotope compositions weremeasured separately for each category.

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291	Measurements of nutrient contents and nitrogen isotope compositions with excavated biomass
292	All categories of N. tangutorum biomass (leaves, stems, ISFR, ISCR, BPFR in 20cm increments,
293	BPCR in 20cm increments, and WD) from each excavated nebkha were dried to constant weight
294	(60 $^{\circ}$ C, 48 hours). The dry weight of biomass was determined with 0.01 g accuracy on an analytical
295	scale. Dried materials were randomly sampled from each biomass category and ground to 80 mesh in
296	Tyler Standard Sieve Series (0.177 mm opening). The resultant powder was separated into six
297	duplicates. Three duplicates were analyzed for C, N and P contents and the remaining three for
298	isotope compositions. The C, N and P contents were measured in the Environmental Chemistry
299	Analysis Laboratory in the Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research, the
300	Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China. Total sample carbon and N were measured with the
301	vario MACRO cube (Elementar Company, Germany). The analytical precision was better than $0.5\%$
302	Relative Standard Deviation (RSD). Total P was measured with the ICP-OES OPTIMA 5300DV (PE,
303	USA). Wet digestions method was applied in the analysis (Webb and Adeloju 2013). Sample
304	preparation and assaying followed standard procedures per instrument instruction. The analytical
305	precision was better than 2% RSD.
306	The nitrogen isotope compositions were analyzed at the Stable Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer
307	Laboratory of the Chinese Academy of Forestry (SIRMSL, CAF), Beijing, China. The instrument
308	used was a Delta V Advantage Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc., USA) coupled
309	with an elemental analyzer (FlashEA 1112; HT Instruments, Inc., USA) in the continuous flow mode.

310 Isotope compositions were expressed using the delta notation ( $\delta$ ) in parts per thousand ( $\infty$ ):  $\delta^{15}N$  ( $\infty$ )

311 =  $[(R_{sample})/(R_{standard}) - 1] \times 1000$ , where *R* is the molar ratio of <sup>15</sup>N to <sup>14</sup>N. The measurement applied

the IAEA-600 standard (Caffeine) relative to atmosphere  $N_2$ . The analytical precision was better than

- 313 0.2‰ based on replicate measurements of the reference standard.
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## 315 Statistical analyses

Two-way ANOVA analyses (organ by site) were performed with SPSS (Ver.17.0). C, N, and P

317 contents,  $\delta^{15}$ N, C/N ratios, N/P ratios, and C/P ratios were analyzed for differences between organs

318 and between study sites. All ratios were mass-based. Tukey post-hoc tests were used to determine pairwise differences for significant effects ( $P \le 0.05$ ). Linear and multilinear regression analyses 319 were used to determine the relationships between the organ  $\delta^{15}N$  and nutrient contents. Due to the 320 strong correlation between organ contents of different nutrients (Zhang et al. 2015) and therefore the 321 potential presence of multicollinearity, we used stepwise regression to determine the most significant 322 predictor(s) (including interaction) of intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N. Both forward and backward 323 methods were used in the stepwise regression with F-to-Enter and F-to-Remove set at 4.0 (P = 0.05)324 325 and 3.9 (P = 0.052), respectively. All P values for regression slope analyses were computed on a two-tailed basis. 326

327 Our regressional analyses were based on fixed effects models. Fixed effects models are appropriate for the present study because we attempt to explain variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N as a function of 328 329 non-random explanatory variables such as C, N and P contents and their ratios (mixed or random effects models are used more commonly in social sciences, Cameron and Trivedi 2005). We are only 330 331 interested in the detection of existence or absence of any potential correlation between the specific 332 effect (nitrogen isotope composition) and explanatory variables across plant organs but are not 333 interested in how any peculiarities of nebkas and locations might or might not affect the specific 334 effect. Nevertheless, we did analyze the data from the two study sites separately and came to similar 335 concluisons. Therefore, to increase the statistic power of our analyses (i.e., to avoid using data from a 336 single nebka at a single location and getting a spurious correlation), we pooled the data together but 337 with sites and organs clearly marked in figures so that patterns for individual sites and organs can be 338 seen clearly.

339

## 340 **RESULTS**

# 341 Variations in $\delta^{15}$ N among plant organs and between study sites

For comparing  $\delta^{15}$ N among plant organs and between sites (Fig. 2), we averaged the duplicate mean 342 of each organ across the three nebkhas at each site. Results for comparisons of nutrient values were 343 already presented in Zhang et al. (2015) and thus not repeated here. There were considerable 344 variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N values among plant organs and between study sites. At both the Dengkou and 345 Mingin sites, leaves had positive  $\delta^{15}$ N and were enriched in <sup>15</sup>N compared with corresponding stems 346 and roots at the same site. Also at both sites, the  $\delta^{15}$ N value of fine root followed the same order: 347 ISFR < 1FR < 2FR < 3FR < 4FR; i.e., it increased with depth into soil. Here 1FR, 2FR, 3FR, and 348 4FR refer to fine roots in 0 - 20 cm, 20 - 40 cm, 40 - 60 cm, and 60 to 80 cm soil depths, 349

respectively. The same pattern was repeated for the  $\delta^{15}$ N value of coarse root; the only exception was 350 351 2CR (coarse root at a soil depth of 20 to 40 cm) at the Dengkou site which dropped out of the general 352 order. The  $\delta^{15}$ N values of fine roots at the Dengkou site were consistently higher than the 353 corresponding coarse roots both inside the nebkha sands and below the plain of the same site. In contrast at the Minqin site, the  $\delta^{15}$ N values of fine roots were consistently less than the corresponding 354 coarse roots except for the roots deep into the plain (40 - 80 cm) where the fine root was more 355 enriched. At the Dengkou site, the stem had the lowest  $\delta^{15}$ N while at the Mingin site, the ISFR had 356 the lowest  $\delta^{15}$ N. At both sites, the  $\delta^{15}$ N value in the woody debris was greater than the corresponding 357 stem although the difference was not statistically significant. The foliar  $\delta^{15}$ N at the Dengkou site was 358 higher than at the Mingin site. In fact, in all biomass categories investigated, the  $\delta^{15}$ N value at the 359 Dengkou site was greater than its corresponding counterpart at the Minqin site. The  $\delta^{15}N$  values of 360 plant organs at the Dengkou site were mostly positive while at the Minqin site, the values were 361 362 mostly negative. Unfortunately, these site differences cannot be attributed at the present study since we did not measure potential sources of nitrogen, particularly soil nitrogen, at the two study sites. 363

364

## 365 Intra-plant relationships between $\delta^{15}$ N and nutrient concentrations

Even though intra-plant and between-site variations in  $\delta^{15}N$  were large, these variations were unified 366 in relationships with organ nutrient contents (Fig. 3). The large intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}N$  (~7% at 367 368 the Dengkou site and 4‰ at the Mingin site) as well as in organ nitrogen and phosphorous contents 369 facilitated regression analyses between these variables. Because the intra-plant relationships were not significantly different between the two study sites, we pooled the data from the two sites in 370 regression analyses. We found that intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N were significantly correlated with 371 the organ contents of carbon (Fig.3a,  $R^2 = 0.25$ , P < 0.0001), nitrogen (Fig. 3b,  $R^2 = 0.44$ , P < 0.0001) 372 and phosphorous (Fig. 3c,  $R^2 = 0.40$ , P < 0.0001) and with the organ ratios of carbon to nitrogen (Fig. 373 3d,  $R^2 = 0.41$ , P < 0.0001) and carbon to phosphorous (Fig. 3f,  $R^2 = 0.25$ , P < 0.0001). The 374 375 correlations were positive with organ nitrogen and phosphorous contents but negative with the 376 carbon content and the carbon to nitrogen and carbon to phosphorous ratios. No correlation with the organ nitrogen to phosphorous ratios was found (Fig. 3e). 377

378 Although intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N were significantly correlated with organ nitrogen and

phosphorous contents, both forward and backward stepwise regressions consistently identified the interaction between nitrogen and phosphorous contents as the most significant predictor of intra-plant variation in  $\delta^{15}$ N (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.58, P < 0.0001, Fig. 4). Adding organ nitrogen content or phosphorous content or both did not significantly improve the predictive ability of resultant equations.

Since fine roots differ from other organs in that fine roots are the primary organs for nitrogen 384 acquisition, we re-calculated the organ  $\delta^{15}$ N – nutrient relationships by removing all fine roots from 385 the analyses, which are shown as the red regression lines in Fig. 3. -We and found that all 386 correlations became stronger (compare the red with black regression lines in Fig. 5 with Fig. 3). In 387 addition, because leaves had considerably higher  $\delta^{15}$ N and nutrient contents than other organs, we 388 similarly re-calculated the correlations by removing leaves from the analyses to avoid a foliar 389 390 domination of the obtained relationships. After the leaves were removed, all correlations were still significant (data not shown, but can be seen from Figs. 3 and, 4 and 5). Furthermore, the removal of 391 either leaves or fine roots did not alter the finding that the N × P interaction was the strongest 392 predictor of intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N. Thus the intra-plant  $\delta^{15}$ N - nutrient relationships appeared 393 to be generic and independent of specific physiological or metabolic functions of particular plant 394 395 organs.

396

## 397 DISCUSSION

# 398 Potential mechanisms for the observed intra-plant $\delta^{15}N - N$ and P relationships

399	This study appears to be the first to report that the strongest predictor of intra-plant variation in $\delta^{15}N$
400	is the interaction between organ N and P contents rather than N or P themselves or their linear
401	combination. To our knowledge, no previous studies have evaluated relationships between
402	intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}N$ and organ N or P contents through systematical measurement
403	approaches although models have been developed to simulate root-shoot differences in $\delta^{15}N$ in
404	responses to overall changes in nitrogen supply and demand (e.g., Kalcsits et al. 2014). What
405	mechanism(s) could be responsible for such close relationships? Clearly this question cannot be
406	answered conclusively with data available in this study or existing data in other, published studies.
407	Here we propose a hypothesis based on a synthesis of best available knowledge (Fig. $56$ ). We hope
408	our hypothesis will provide a starting point for follow-up research.

409	To facilitate our discussion, we group potential mechanisms into three categories: external
410	factors only, internal factors only, and external and internal factors together. Potential external
411	factors include different sources of nitrogen (e.g., $NO_3^-$ , $NH_4^+$ , organic nitrogen, $N_2$ fixation).
412	Because the patterns are observed across different organs of the same plants, rather than across
413	different plants in different environments, an external-factors-only explanation cannot be the
414	responsible mechanism. An internal-factors-only explanation requires a N and P allocation
415	mechanism that allocates these two key nutrients roughly in proportion to $\delta^{15}N$ in plant organs and at
416	the same time keeps the isotopic mass balance for the whole plant. Translocation of nitrogenous
417	solutes (e.g., $NO_3^-$ , $NH_4^+$ , amino acids) is a mass flow process and mainly takes place from roots to
418	shoots to leaves via xylem and from leaves to shoots to roots via phloem but lateral transfer between
419	xylem and phloem may also occur (Simpson 1986; Bijlsma et al. 2000). $\delta^{15}$ N values probably
420	originate mostly from fractionations in primary assimilation and exchange events and in subsequent
421	metabolic reactions that create <sup>15</sup> N-enriched or depleted metabolites (Tcherkez 2011; Gauthier et al.
422	2013). The translocated nitrogenous compounds mix with existing structural (e.g., nitrogen in cell
423	wall) or functional (e.g., nitrogen in photosynthesis, respiration, and storage that can readily mobilize
424	and take part in metabolic reactions) nitrogen of an organ to give a bulk signal in $\delta^{15}$ N. It is
425	conceptually difficult to imagine how these numerous, loosely coupled processes internal to plants
426	collude to produce coordinated variations in N, P and $\delta^{15}N$ across different plant organs. Therefore
427	the probability that an internal-factors-only mechanism causes the observed patterns is likely very
428	small. In the following, we focus on the possibility that external and internal factors work together to
429	create the observed intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}$ N.
430	Plants can emit a vast number of nitrogenous compounds to the atmosphere, which is known to
431	affect atmospheric secondary aerosol formation and climate (Sintermann and Neftel 2015). These

432 compounds are formed in metabolic processes such as the decarboxylation and transamination of 433 amino acids (Bagni and Tassoni 2001; Dudareva et al. 2013). Emissions of these compounds from 434 fruits and flowers are readily noticed without needing sensitive measurements. In addition to fruits 435 and flowers, leaves and stems can also emit nitrogenous compounds. Like many physical and 436 biochemical processes, it is probably not unreasonable to assume that fractionation occurs in the

437 emission of nitrogenous compounds from plants. Unfortunately no isotope fractionation

438 measurements have ever been made on the emission of most of these compounds. However,

439 considerable isotopic knowledge exists in the plant-atmosphere exchange of NH<sub>3</sub>.

440	As shown in Fig. $56$ , NH <sub>3</sub> is a key link between plant metabolism and ambient air (Flechard et al
441	2013). As discussed in the Introduction, living plant organs contain liquid pools of $NH_4^+$ maintained
442	by nitrogen translocation, nitrate and nitrite reduction, photorespiration, and other metabolic
443	processes. In these pools, the rapid protonation – deprotonation process sustains an equilibrium
444	between $NH_4^+$ and aqueous $NH_3$ . In the apoplast, gaseous $NH_3$ is in equilibration with aqueous $NH_3$
445	across air-liquid interfaces (e.g., in the intercellular airspace), depending on the concentration ratio
446	( $\Gamma$ ) of NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> to H <sup>+</sup> and therefore apoplastic pH (Flechard et al. 2013; Johnson and Berry et al. 2013).
447	Isotope effects occur when the apoplast is able to exchange NH <sub>3</sub> with ambient atmosphere. The
448	fractionation has been estimated to be 17.6‰ for diffusion through still air and 11.7‰ through
449	boundary layer (Farquhar et al. 1983; Johnson and Berry 2013).
450	We are not aware of any reports that stems and aerial roots may emit or absorb $NH_3$ . However, it
451	is a widely established fact that leaves exchange NH <sub>3</sub> with atmosphere through stomata (Farquhar et
452	al. 1980; Wetselaar and Farquhar 1980; Farquhar et al. 1983; Sharpe and Harper 1997; Johnson and
453	Berry 2013; Flechard et al. 2013; Sintermann and Neftel 2015). So for the momentum, let us focus
454	on leaves (Fig. 3 & 4). The exchange can be bi-directional, depending on the gradient in the
455	concentration of $NH_3$ across stomata. If the ambient concentration of $NH_3$ is above the stomatal
456	compensation point of $NH_3$ ( $\chi$ , Farquhar et al. 1980), absorption occurs; otherwise, emission takes
457	place. $\chi$ is directly related to $\Gamma$ which in turn is a function of leaf nitrogen content (Flechard et al.
458	2013). This is because nitrogen-containing proteins (enzymes) are critical to photorespiration which
459	releases NH <sub>3</sub> due to the decarboxylation of glycine in mitochondria (Keys 2006). If leaf nitrogen is
460	high and therefore photorespiration rate is high, the re-assimilation by glutamine synthetase may not
461	be fast enough to keep all NH <sub>3</sub> released from the mitochondria internal to the metabolic cycles,
462	leading to emission of $NH_3$ from leaves. This emission will result in <sup>15</sup> N-enriched pools in leaves.
463	Conversely, if leaf nitrogen is low and therefore photorespiration rate is low, ambient NH <sub>3</sub> may
464	diffuse into leaves, making leaf nitrogen pools more $^{15}N$ depleted. Thus a positive foliar $\delta^{15}N - N$
465	relationship can be predicted. This prediction is supported by empirical evidence. For example,
466	Gauthier et al. (2013) showed that foliar nitrate content is positively correlated with foliar $\delta^{15}N$ in
467	Brassica napus L.

468

But how can we explain the positive  $\delta^{15}N-P$  relationship and the even better  $\delta^{15}N-N\times P$ 

469 relationship? Again, for the momentum, we focus on leaves. We believe the answer lies in the role 470 that phosphate (P<sub>i</sub>) plays in photosynthesis and photorespiration. The photosynthetic reaction in chloroplasts is described by  $3CO_2 + 6H_2O + P_1 \rightarrow \text{triose phosphate} + 3H_2O + 3O_2$ . Chloroplasts 471 472 import P<sub>i</sub> from and export triose phosphate to cytosol to sustain this reaction. P<sub>i</sub> deficiency can limit 473 the maximum electron transport rate in thylakoid membranes (Sivak and Walker 1986) and therefore 474 photorespiration rate and NH<sub>3</sub> concentration in sub-stomatal cavities under full sunlight. Conversely, increased P<sub>i</sub> supply may boost photorespiration and NH<sub>3</sub> concentration. As a result, foliar  $\delta^{15}$ N 475 should be positively related to P, just as it should be positively related to N. Why can  $\delta^{15}$ N be 476 predicted even better by  $N \times P$ ? This is because a stoichiometry is needed between N and P to keep 477 478 an efficient operation of the photosynthetic machinery (Gusewell 2004), i.e., an oversupply of N 479 cannot compensate for a deficiency in P and vice versa. Our emphasis on photorespiration in the relationships of foliar  $\delta^{15}$ N with N, P, and N × P should 480 be evaluated in the context of enormous importance of leaves in the nitrogen metabolism of the 481 482 whole plant. While roots are the primary gate for outside nitrogen to enter into the internal nitrogen cycle, leaves are the 'theater' of nitrogen 'actions' within the plant. It is estimated that in C<sub>3</sub> species, 483 mesophyll chloroplasts may contain as much as 75% of total cellular nitrogen in a plant 484 485 (Hörtensteiner and Feller 2002). A major portion of leaf nitrogen is involved in photosynthetic 486 reactions; Rubisco alone, which catalyzes carboxylation and oxygenation, accounts for 15 to 30% of total leaf nitrogen (Evans 1989). More importantly, the flux of NH<sub>3</sub>, which is released by 487 488 photorespiration and subject to either re-assimilation into amino acids or emission into the 489 atmosphere, is five to ten times larger than the primary assimilation rate at roots (Keys 2006; 490 Masclaux-Daubresse et al. 2010). The fraction of emission to the atmosphere depends on a range of 491 biotic and abiotic factors. In measurements on two rice cultivars, Kumagai et al. (2011) reported that 12 and 21% respectively of leaf nitrogen were lost to the atmosphere due to release of  $NH_3$  in 492 photorespiration. Thus it seems possible for the leaf-atmosphere exchange of NH<sub>3</sub> to fundamentally 493 affect the relationships of foliar  $\delta^{15}$ N with N, P, and N × P as the model of Johnson and Berry (2013) 494 495 has suggested. It is more challenging to include stems and roots in the equation. Clearly a photorespiration -496 based mechanism alone is not sufficient to explain the observed overall relationships as they hold 497

498 across leaves, stems, and roots (Fig. 3 & 4). Assuming there are no N and P – mediated fractionating

processes that directly exchange nitrogenous compounds between stems (and roots) and the ambient air, is it possible for the leaf-atmosphere exchanges of nitrogen isotopes to affect  $\delta^{15}N$  values in stems and roots such that  $\delta^{15}N$  increases with N, P, and N × P across the whole plant as depicted in Fig. 3 and 4?

503 We believe it is possible. Mature leaves export nitrogen and phosphorous to other organs of plants (e.g., Aerts 1996; Killingbeck 1996; Jeschke et al. 1997; Hörtensteiner and Feller 2002; 504 Masclaux-Daubresse et al. 2010; Brant and Chen 2015). In particular, plants resorb and remobilize 505 506 essential nutrients to storage tissues in stems and roots during leaf senescence. In this process, 507 proteins, particularly those involved in photosynthesis, are degraded, providing an enormous source of mobile nutrients. Resorption and remobilization of nutrients from senescing leaves are a vital 508 509 strategy for plant survival for multiple reasons. First, it requires energy to absorb and assimilate new 510 nutrients from soil solutions and thus recycling extant nutrients makes economic sense. Second, 511 nutrient availability in the soil may be low and the rate of absorption at the root-soil interface may 512 not be able to meet the instantaneous demand by new growth in the next spring. In a survey of 513 published values, Brant and Chen (2015) found that leaf nitrogen and phosphorus resorption efficiencies are generally over 60% for a wide variety of plant species ranging from grasses and forbs 514 515 to deciduous and evergreen trees (see Table 1 in that paper). Franklin and Ågren (2002) showed that 516 a 70% leaf nitrogen resorption efficiency is needed to predict observed leaf area indices of several 517 plant communities. Because of methodological limitations, these estimates do not generally consider 518 volatilization losses to the atmosphere and thus are considered 'apparent remobilization' 519 (Masclaux-Daubresse et al. 2010). Nevertheless, there is little doubt that foliar nitrogen metabolism 520 can affect stem and root nitrogen status. The foliar nitrogen and phosphorus remobilized to storage 521 organs will support the growth of not only new leaves but also new tissues in stems and roots. Given that large amounts of N and P participate in reactions in leaves and are processed through leaves, it is 522 reasonable to assume that the relationships of  $\delta^{15}$ N with N, P, and N × P in the stems and roots may 523 bear a similarity to those of the leaves. 524

To summarize our fairly detailed reasoning above, the observed patterns in intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N appear to be most logically explained by the following three processes working together (Fig. 527  $\frac{56}{5}$ ):

528

- Leaf-atmosphere exchanges of nitrogenous compounds, particularly NH<sub>3</sub> released during

- 529 photorespiration,
- 530 Nitrogen and phosphorus resorption and remobilization from senescing leaves, and
- Mixture of resorbed and remobilized nitrogen and phosphorus with existing pools in stems
   and roots.
- 533

Nevertheless, we emphasize that this is a hypothesis only and it remains a research task to ascertain how N, P and N × P affect the divergence of  $\delta^{15}$ N in different organs of plants.

536

## 537 Comparison with reported inter-plant relationships

It is interesting to compare the intra-plant relationships found here with the previously-reported 538 correlations of foliar  $\delta^{15}$ N with N across species, climate and ecological gradients. The positive 539 intra-plant correlation between  $\delta^{15}$ N and N content reported in the present study is reminiscent of the 540 541 foliar correlations reported in those previous studies. Using a dataset that contained over 11000 plants worldwide, Craine et al. (2009) found that foliar  $\delta^{15}$ N was positively correlated with foliar N. 542 A subset of this dataset contained  $\delta^{15}$ N. N and P measurements. These authors subsequently analyzed 543 this subset with a multilinear model that used N, P and their interaction as explanatory variables. It 544 545 was not clear whether multicollinearity was controlled but they found that after controlling for variations in N, foliar  $\delta^{15}$ N decreased with an increase in P and in N × P. We used the same model to 546 fit our intra-plant dataset without consideration of multicollinearity and found that foliar  $\delta^{15}N$ 547 decreased with both N and P but increased with  $N \times P$ . Thus controlling multicollinearity is 548 important for ascertaining relationships between  $\delta^{15}$ N and nutrient contents due to correlations 549 between contents of different nutrients. 550 Positive foliar correlations of  $\delta^{15}$ N with N have been reported in studies at smaller scales as well 551 (e.g., Martinelli et al. 1999; Hobbie et al. 2000; Craine et al. 2005). In addition, Hobbie et al. (2008) 552 reported a positive correlation for root tips. These positive correlations, which were all inter- rather 553 554 than intra-plant in nature, are consistent with the reported experimental finding that an increase in

soil nitrogen availability tends to lead to an increase in  $\delta^{15}$ N of non-N-fixing plants (Wigand et al.

556 2007; Hobbie et al. 2008; Mayor et al. 2014). A hypothesis based on plant-mycorrhizal interactions

- has been advanced to explain this positive relationship (Hobbie et al. 2000; Craine et al. 2009;
- 558 Hobbie and Högberg 2012). Typically mycorrhizal fungi transfer isotopically depleted N to host

559	plants. As soil N supply increases, the contribution from mycorrhizal symbionts to the total N budget
560	of host plants may decrease, reducing the mycorrhizal dilution effect on the heavy isotope and
561	resulting in a positive relationship of plant $\delta^{15}N$ with soil N supply. However, this explanation is
562	only valid for $\delta^{15}N$ of the plant as a whole and cannot explain the positive relationship of intra-plant
563	$\delta^{15}N$ with N and the interaction between N and P. In addition to the mycorrhizal hypothesis, a more
564	general explanation for the N supply – plant $\delta^{15}$ N relationship involves the openness of the N cycle.
565	This explanation hypothesizes that an increase in N supply promotes the openness of the N cycle and
566	the increased openness results in higher losses of <sup>14</sup> N relative to <sup>15</sup> N from the system, leading to
567	enrichment in <sup>15</sup> N in the remaining nitrogen pool. The openness typically refers to processes
568	occurring in soil (e.g., N losses through denitrification via the release of $N_2O$ and $N_2$ from soil which
569	is a strong fractionating process, Mnich and Houlton 2016). Clearly a soil-central N openness
570	explanation is also not valid for the intra-plant $\delta^{15}N$ - $N\times P$ relationship reported in this study.
571	Another possibility to consider concerns the situation when nitrate is the source of N for plants.
572	If soil supply of nitrate is low, all nitrate absorbed by roots may be assimilated in the roots and no
573	enriched nitrate pool is left for transport to other parts of the plant. As soil supply of nitrate increases
574	the proportion of the nitrate pool that is unassimilated by roots and thus is available for transport to
575	other parts of the plant may not only increase in size but also become more enriched in <sup>15</sup> N (a system
576	cannot discriminate if all substrates are assimilated; discrimination generally increases with substrate
577	availability, Evans 2001). However, this possibility can only suggest that the difference in $\delta^{15}N$
578	between roots and the rest of the plant may increase with soil nitrate supply. It cannot account for the
579	changes of $\delta^{15}N$ with organ N and P contents and their interaction within the plant.

580 We are not aware of any previous studies that systematically evaluated variations in root  $\delta^{15}N$ 581 with depth into soil. However, our finding that roots tend to become more enriched in <sup>15</sup>N deeper into 582 soil is reminiscent of the general patterns of increasing soil  $\delta^{15}N$  with depth as reported in previous 583 studies (Hobbie and Ouimette 2009; Gubsch et al. 2011; Szpak 2014). Since the present study did not 584 measure soil  $\delta^{15}N$  profile it remains to be determined whether the profile of root  $\delta^{15}N$  reflects that of 585 soil  $\delta^{15}N$ .

586

# 587 CONCLUSION

588 A systematical evaluation of nitrogen isotope composition in the desert plant species Nitraria

*tangutorum* Bobrov reveals that the magnitude of intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N is close to the highest 589 590 value reported in previous studies (7‰, Fig. 3 and also Evans 2001). These variations are positively 591 correlated with corresponding organ N and P contents. However, it is the  $N \times P$  interaction, not N 592 and P individually or their linear combination, that is the strongest predictor of intra-plant  $\delta^{15}$ N. While the positive correlation of intra-plant  $\delta^{15}N$  with organ N resembles the  $\delta^{15}N - N$  relationships 593 reported in previous studies on patterns across ecological and climate gradients and across species, 594 595 explanations developed from these previous studies are not valid for the patterns reported in the present study. We also report that root  $\delta^{15}N$  increases with depth into soil. This pattern in root  $\delta^{15}N$  is 596 similar to profiles of soil  $\delta^{15}$ N reported in previous studies although the exact relationship between 597 root and soil profiles in  $\delta^{15}$ N is not clear. We hypothesize that the strong positive intra-plant  $\delta^{15}$ N – N 598 599 and P relationships are a result of three processes working together: 1) N and P-driven, fractionating ammonia exchanges between leaves and the atmosphere (volatilization) during photorespiration, 2) 600 601 resorption and remobilization of N and P from senescing leaves, and 3) mixture of re-translocated 602 foliar N and P with existing pools in stems and roots.

Knowledge of how plants acquire, transport and transform N is crucial for understanding how 603 plants use this crucial resource for production, growth and reproduction and how the terrestrial N 604 cycle operates. Intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N are an important outcome of the N cycle. The findings 605 reported in the present study suggest that different mechanisms may operate at different scales to 606 affect plant nitrogen isotope compositions and their relationships with nutrient availability. 607 Alternatively, causes of variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N, whether they are intra-plant, inter-species, or cross 608 609 ecological and climate gradients, may differ from previously thought. Our findings suggest that studies into intra-plant variations in  $\delta^{15}$ N and their mechanisms can yield deep insights into the N 610 611 cycle of ecosystem and plant nitrogen metabolism. Such studies have not been adequate in the past 612 and are urgently needed.

613

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### 846 Figure captions

Figure 1. Pen drawings of typical nebkha formed by *Nitraria tangutorum* Bobrov at the Dengkou (a)
and Minqin (b) study sites. <u>The scales shown are for illustrative purposes only and therefore are not</u>
<u>very precise.</u>

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Figure 2. A comparison of  $\delta^{15}$ N among different plant organs of *Nitraria tangutorum* Bobrov and 851 between the Dengkou and Minqin study sites. The  $\delta^{15}$ N value shown is averaged for each organ 852 853 across the nebkhas excavated at the same site (Dengkou or Mingin). Upper-case letters denote ANOVA results within a study site (i.e., comparing  $\delta^{15}$ N among different organs at the same site) and 854 lower case letters between the two sites (i.e., comparing  $\delta^{15}$ N of the same organ between the two 855 sites). ISFR and ISCR stand for fine and coarse roots, respectively, in the sands of nebkhas. 1FR, 856 2FR, 3FR and 4FR stand for fine roots 0 - 20, 20 - 40, 40 - 60 and 60 - 80 cm depths, respectively, 857 below the plains on which nebkhas rest. Similarly, 1CR, 2CR, 3CR and 4CR stand for coarse roots 858 859 within these depth intervals. Fine and coarse roots are differentiated with a diameter threshold of 2mm. Woody debris (WD) from dead ramets is also included in the figure. No ANOVA results for 860 3FR and 3CR at the Dengkou site as there was only one nebkha having roots between 40 to 60 cm. 861 862 No roots were found below 60 cm at the Dengkou site.

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Figure 3. Changes of  $\delta^{15}N$  as a function of organ contents of carbon (a), nitrogen (b) and phosphorous (c) and of organ ratios of carbon to nitrogen (d), nitrogen to phosphorous (e), and carbon to phosphorus (f). Filled and unfilled symbols represent organs at the Minqin and Dengkou site, respectively. Leaves are denoted by filled or unfilled triangles while other organs by filled or unfilled circles. The black regression lines are for all organs while for the red regression lines, The same as Fig. 3 except that data of fine roots are not included....

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Figure 4. Changes of  $\delta^{15}$ N as a function of the product of organ N × P contents. Filled and unfilled symbols represent organs at the Minqin and Dengkou site, respectively. Leaves are denoted by filled or unfilled triangles while other organs by filled or unfilled circles.









- 876 Figure 5. The same as Fig. 3 except that data of fine roots are not included.-
- **Figure 56**. intra-plant nitrogen cycling and flux exchanges with external environments.

