

39 **Abstract**

40 Understanding intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is essential for fully utilizing the potential of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ as an
41 integrator of terrestrial nitrogen (N) cycle and as an indicator of relative limitation of N and
42 phosphorous (P) on plant growth. Studying such variations can also yield insights into N metabolism
43 by plant as a whole or by specific organs. However, few researchers have systematically evaluated
44 intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and their relationships with organ nutrient contents. We excavated
45 whole plant architectures of *Nitraria tangutorum* Bobrov, a C_3 species of vital regional ecological
46 importance, in two deserts in northwestern China. We systematically and simultaneously measured N
47 isotope ratios and N and P contents of different parts of the excavated plants. We found that
48 intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of *N. tangutorum* were positively correlated with corresponding organ
49 N and P contents. However, it was the $\text{N} \times \text{P}$ interaction, not N and P individually or their linear
50 combination, that was the strongest predictor of intra-plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. Additionally, we showed that root
51 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ increased with depth into soil, a pattern similar to profiles of soil $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ reported by previous
52 studies in different ecosystems. We hypothesized that the strong positive intra-plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – N and P
53 relationships are caused by three processes acting in conjunction: 1) N and P content-driven
54 fractionating exchanges of ammonia between leaves and the atmosphere (volatilization) during
55 photorespiration, 2) resorption and remobilization of N and P from senescing leaves, and 3) mixture
56 of the re-translocated foliar N and P with existing pools in stems and roots. To test our hypothesis,
57 future studies should investigate plant N volatilization and associated isotope fractionation and
58 intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in different species across ecosystems and climates.

59

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

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65 INTRODUCTION

66 Nitrogen (N) is the most limiting nutrient in many terrestrial ecosystems, especially those in
67 temperate and boreal regions (Vitousek 1994). As atmospheric CO₂ concentrations continue to
68 increase due to anthropogenic fossil fuel emissions, the limiting effects of N on ecosystem
69 productivity may become increasingly important (Luo et al. 2004; Thornton et al. 2007; Sun et al.
70 2014). Understanding the N cycle is essential to forecasting and predicting ecosystem dynamics in
71 response to climate change. Plant N acquisition, transformation, and translocation are key steps in N
72 cycling because they subsequently affect plant photosynthesis, growth, and substrate supply for
73 microbial activities (Manzoni et al. 2010; Vitousek et al. 2010). Many physical, biological and
74 chemical processes that control plant N acquisition, transformation, and translocation discriminate
75 against N isotope 15 (¹⁵N) in favor of N isotope 14 (¹⁴N). As a result, the variations in the relative
76 abundance of ¹⁵N to ¹⁴N, quantified as δ¹⁵N, of plants contain rich information about these processes
77 (Högberg 1997; Robinson 2001, Evans 2001, Dawson et al. 2002). For this reason, δ¹⁵N is often
78 considered an integrator of terrestrial N cycling and numerous studies have analyzed natural
79 variations in plant δ¹⁵N across disturbance and successional stages (e.g., Hobbie et al. 2000; Wang et
80 al. 2007; Resco et al. 2011; Hyodo et al. 2013), climate and topoedaphic gradients (e.g., Austin and
81 Sala 1999; Schulze et al. 1998; Martinelli et al. 1999; Amundson et al. 2003; Craine et al. 2005 &
82 2009; Bai et al. 2009), species (e.g., Cernusak et. 2009; Gubsch et al. 2011), and types of
83 mycorrhizal fungi (Hobbie and Hobbie 2008; Hobbie and Högberg 2012). Other studies have used
84 δ¹⁵N as an indicator of relative N and phosphorus (P) availability and limitation on plant growth
85 (McKee et al. 2002; Wigand et al. 2007; Inglett et al. 2007; Mayor et al. 2014). These studies have
86 demonstrated the power of using natural variations in δ¹⁵N to understand physical and biological
87 processes controlling N cycling in terrestrial ecosystems.

88 Compared with the prolific studies on variations in δ¹⁵N across ecological and climate gradients
89 and species, fewer studies have systematically evaluated intra-plant variations in δ¹⁵N. Studies that
90 did examine intra-plant variations in δ¹⁵N were often conducted in controlled environments. Most
91 such studies focused on differences between roots and leaves. It has been found that leaves of a plant
92 tended to be enriched in ¹⁵N compared with the roots of the same plant (Bergersen et al. 1988;
93 Yoneyama and Kaneko 1989; Evans et al. 1996; Kolb and Evans 2002) and the difference can be as
94 high as 7‰ which has the same magnitude as variations across ecological and climate gradients.

95 Such large intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, if not accounted for, may confound interpretation of
96 large-scale patterns in variations of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Evans 2001) and lead to misguided diagnoses of relative N
97 and P limitation on plant growth. Nevertheless, no foliar enrichment or mixed results have also been
98 observed both in controlled experiments (Evans et al. 1996; Hobbie et al. 2008) and in natural
99 environments (Dijkstra et al. 2003).

100 Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ or lack thereof.
101 The most commonly discussed mechanisms invoke the differences in the assimilation and transport
102 of inorganic N of nitrate (NO_3^-) and ammonium (NH_4^+) within plants. Both the assimilation of NO_3^-
103 and NH_4^+ discriminate against ^{15}N (Yoneyama et al. 2003; Karsh et al. 2012; Table 1 in Johnson and
104 Berry 2013 lists values for various isotope effects) but fundamental differences exist in their
105 metabolism in plants. NO_3^- is assimilated by nitrate reductase (NR) in a process that involves first
106 the reduction of NO_3^- to nitrite and then to NH_4^+ and finally to amino acids. This process can take
107 place in roots, stems, and leaves (Masclaux-Daubresse et al. 2010). Consequently organic N
108 compounds originated from NO_3^- may come from assimilation events that take place in different
109 parts of the plant (Evans et al. 1996; Evans 2001). The discrimination by NR in roots leads to an
110 enriched pool of unassimilated NO_3^- , which is then transported to other parts of the plant via the
111 transpiration stream of xylem. Thus leaves and shoots are expected to be enriched in ^{15}N as
112 compared with roots when NO_3^- is the source of nitrogen. This enrichment has been found to be
113 correlated with the transpiration efficiency of the N acquisition (Cernusak et al. 2009).

114 The impact of NH_4^+ assimilation on intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was traditionally thought to be
115 minimal but more recent studies indicate that this might not be the case. NH_4^+ is usually the most
116 important source of N available to plant roots in natural terrestrial ecosystems (Schjoerring et al.
117 2002) although NO_3^- and NH_4^+ are often available together (Bijlsma et al. 2000). NH_4^+ is also
118 produced by plants as a central intermediate in a wide variety of metabolic processes such as NO_3^-
119 assimilation, photorespiration, lignin biosynthesis, protein turnover, and degradation of transport
120 amides (Joy 1988; Massad et al. 2010; Flechard et al. 2013). However, NH_4^+ is toxic to plants at
121 high concentration (Britto and Kronzucker 2002). Because of this, early workers assumed that once
122 absorbed by roots, it is immediately assimilated in roots by the glutamine synthetase/glutamate
123 synthase (GS-GOGAT) pathway. This assumption led to a further hypothesis that organic N
124 compounds derived from NH_4^+ ultimately result from a single assimilation event occurred in roots

125 and therefore no intra-plant variation in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ should occur for plants that have grown with NH_4^+ as
126 the sole nitrogen source (e.g., Evans et al. 1996). However, later studies depict a much more
127 complicated picture of assimilation and transport of NH_4^+ within plants. This complication involves
128 two aspects. First, it has been found that a significant amount of NH_4^+ can be transported in the
129 xylem from roots to shoots and the NH_4^+ pools in the apoplast in general and leaf tissues in
130 particular can respond rapidly to the supply of NH_4^+ solution to the roots (Mattsson and Schjoerring
131 2002; Schjoerring et al. 2002). Second, a recent modeling study suggests that the
132 photorespiration-induced exchange of ammonia (NH_3) between leaf and the atmosphere, which has a
133 large isotope effect (the isotope effect for molecular diffusion of NH_3 is 1.0176 in still air and 1.0117
134 in leaf boundary layer; Farquhar et al. 1983), can substantially influence plant and atmospheric N
135 isotopic compositions (Johnson and Berry 2013). This process has been mostly ignored in previous
136 studies of terrestrial variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. Thus it appears that the impact of NH_4^+ assimilation and
137 transport as well as the NH_3 exchange with the atmosphere during photorespiration on intra-plant
138 variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ may have been underestimated.

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

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

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

155 elements are stoichiometrically coupled in plants (Gusewell 2004). P availability affects plant
156 photosynthesis and growth which may have implication for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ variations in plants. For example,
157 orthophosphate is a key reactant in photosynthetic carbon assimilation in chloroplasts and its supply
158 directly affects the rates of carboxylation and photorespiration (Sivak and Walker 1986; Kondracka
159 and Rychter 1997). Since fractionation occurs in foliar NH_3 exchange with the atmosphere during
160 photorespiration (Johnson and Berry 2013), an effect of P on plant nitrogen isotope composition can
161 be expected. Another consideration is that the relative availability of N vs. P to plants has
162 consequences on N isotope fractionation. This is because of two factors. First, no fractionation can
163 occur if all available N is assimilated, which may happen when N is limiting (Cernusak et al. 2009;
164 Gauthier et al. 2013). Second, P availability affects when and where N limitation occurs (Vitousek et
165 al. 2010). Indeed, previous studies have found that P availability is correlated with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in plant
166 biomass. For example, Major et al. (2014) showed that long-term additions of both N and P reduced
167 foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ as compared with N or P addition alone in a lowland tropical rainforest. Studies such as
168 this are the basis for the suggestion that $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ could be used as an indicator of ecosystem P limitation
169 (McKee et al. 2002; Wigand et al. 2007; Inglett et al. 2007; Mayor et al. 2014).

170 The present study builds upon the earlier efforts reviewed above and fills a gap in systematic
171 investigation of intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. We will demonstrate that the intra-plant variations in
172 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in our study species *Nitraria tangutorum* Bobrov are closely related to organ N and P contents
173 and their interaction. We will show that the intra-plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – N and P relationships found in our
174 study cannot be readily explained with mechanisms thought to be responsible for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ variations
175 across species, ecological and climate gradients. To stimulate future research in intra-plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
176 variations, we will propose a new, testable hypothesis that we believe most logically explains such
177 variations.

178

179 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

180 ***Nitraria tangutorum* Bobrov and the study sites**

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

185 distribution including northeastern Tibet, Gansu, Qinghai, Xinjiang, western Inner Mongolia,
186 western Ningxia, and northern Shaanxi. It is a pioneer species of high tolerance to a variety of
187 stresses. *N. tangutorum* controls local landscape evolution, owing to its exceptional capability of
188 fixing sands and building sand dunes known as nebkhas or coppice dunes around its extensive shoot
189 and root systems (Baas and Nield 2007; Lang *et al.* 2013; Li *et al.* 2013). The formation process of
190 nebkha was described in Zhang *et al.* (2015). The phytogenic nebkha dunes formed by *N.*
191 *tangutorum* prevent or slow down sand movement, making it often the most ecologically important
192 species in its environment. The height of a *N. tangutorum* nebkha typically ranges from 1 to 3 m and
193 some may reach 5 m. The base of a nebkha often has the shape of an ellipse with the major axis
194 parallel to the local prevailing wind direction (Fig.1). Below the base are dense clay layers that
195 constitute dried-up flat beds of previous rivers or lakes. The nebkha-building characteristic of *N.*
196 *tangutorum* makes it relatively easy to excavate the whole plant including roots for isotope and
197 nutrient analyses except for a small fraction of roots that have grown into the solid clay layers below
198 the base of nebkha and require some efforts to dig them out. Previously we studied intra-plant
199 variations in carbon isotope composition of this species (Zhang *et al.* 2015). Wang *et al.* (2014)
200 studied the variations of its foliar and root nitrogen and phosphorous contents in season and along
201 aridity gradients. To our knowledge, this species has never been investigated for intra-plant variation
202 in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, whether in cultures or in natural environments.

203 Our field work was carried out in two desert locations. The first site was in Dengkou County,
204 Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, China. Dengkou County is at the junction between the Hetao
205 Plain and Ulan Buh Desert of the Mongolian Plateau in the middle reaches of the Yellow River. The
206 mean annual temperature is 8.84°C and the mean annual precipitation is 147 mm with 77.5% of
207 annual rainfall occurring from June to September (1983-2012 averages). The mean annual potential
208 evaporation is 2381 mm (Li *et al.* 2013). The sampling was conducted within an experimental area
209 (40°24' N, 106°43' E) managed by the Experimental Center of Desert Forestry of the Chinese
210 Academy of Forestry. The study site has sandy soil and gray-brown desert soil (Cambic Arenosols
211 and Luvisol Gypsisols in FAO taxonomy). The *N. tangutorum* nebkhas in the area are formed on clay
212 soils deposited by the Yellow River. Although the plant community is dominated by *N. tangutorum*,
213 xerophytic species such as semi-shrub *Artemisia ordosica*, perennial grass *Psammochloa villosa*, and
214 annual species *Agriophyllum squarrosum* and *Corispermum mongolicum* can also be found.

215 The second study site was in Minqin County, Gansu Province, China. Minqin County is located
216 in the lower reaches of Shiyang River, surrounded by the Badain Jaran Desert in the west and north
217 and the Tengger Desert in the east. The mean annual temperature is 8.87°C and the mean annual
218 precipitation is 117 mm with 73.1% of annual rainfall occurring from June to September (1983-2012
219 averages). The mean annual potential evaporation is 2643 mm (Du *et al.* 2010). Thus the second
220 study site is somewhat drier than the first site but with similar annual mean temperatures. The
221 sampling was conducted within the Gansu Minqin Desert Ecosystem Research Station (38°34' N,
222 102°58' E). The soil at the Minqin site is similar to that at the Dengkou site with sandy soil in the
223 nebkhas and gray-brown desert soil between nebkhas. The native vegetation is usually dominated by
224 shrubs and semi-shrubs with species such as *N. tangutorum* and *Calligonum mongolicum*.
225 Experimental plots used in this study contained semi-fixed nebkha dunes developed by the growth of
226 *N. tangutorum*. Typically in dry years, *N. tangutorum* is the only species growing in the nebkhas
227 although in wet years, annual species such as *Agriophyllum squarrosum* and *Corispermum*
228 *mongolicum* can also be found. Because the Minqin site is drier than the DengKou site, the nebkhas
229 at the Minqin site are generally smaller and less populated with plants than at the Dengkou site. The
230 rooting depth is deeper at the Minqin site than at the Dengkou site (see Table 1 in Zhang et al.
231 2015). Nitrogen cycling at these remote desert sites has rarely been studied. We are not aware of any
232 previous report that indicates *N. tangutorum* or any co-existing species might be a nitrogen fixer.
233 Throughout our investigation, we found no evidence of any nitrogen fixer existing at the two study
234 sites. We did not investigate whether there might be any nitrogen-fixing symbionts in *N. tangutorum*.
235 However, there was a single conference report on the observation of the presence of endogenous
236 nitrogen-fixing bacteria in a related species *N. schoberi* (Li et al. 2015). Therefore it is possible that
237 *N. tangutorum* might also have nitrogen-fixing symbionts. Nevertheless, soil is probably the primary
238 source of nitrogen for *N. tangutorum* at our study sites. Since the present study focuses on intra-plant
239 variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, the nature of nitrogen source is not critically important for our study.

240

241 **Excavation of *Nitraria tangutorum* nebkhas**

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

244 site, the three nebkhas were excavated in a sampling area of 40m × 40m. At the Minqin site, nebkhas
245 were generally much smaller. To ensure availability for analyses of sufficient biomass materials at
246 this site, particularly the fine roots (see below), three sampling areas each with a dimension of 30m
247 × 30m were established and three nebkhas from each sampling area were tentatively excavated. Two
248 nebkhas from one sampling area and one from another were deemed to have sufficient amount of
249 fine roots for analyses and were therefore excavated fully. The nebkhas were excavated by carefully
250 teasing away the sands from the mounds to expose the root architecture of *N. tangutorum* with
251 particular attention paid to preserving its fine roots and to distinguishing any roots from other plant
252 species that may happen to grow in the same nebkhas. The roots of a *N. tangutorum* plant can be
253 found inside the sand mounds as well as inside the clay layer that generally forms a plain on which
254 the sand mounds rest. We therefore also excavated any roots inside the clay layer to a depth until no
255 more roots could be found. Only biomass materials from *N. tangutorum* were harvested and any
256 materials from all other species that may be present were excluded to ensure pure intra-plant
257 analyses required by this study.

258 We separated the whole plant biomass into groups of leaves, stems, in-sand roots, and
259 below-plain roots. The in-sand roots, which were roots found inside the nebkha sands but above the
260 plain formed by the underlying clay layer, were further separated into in-sand fine roots (diameter
261 $\leq 2\text{mm}$) and in-sand coarse roots (diameter $> 2\text{mm}$). The same root diameter threshold was used to
262 separate the below-plain roots, which were found inside the clay layer under the nebkha sands.
263 Furthermore, the below-plain fine and coarse roots were grouped in a 20cm depth increment from the
264 plain surface. We did not separate the in-sand fine and coarse roots into layers because a nebkha has
265 a cone shape on top, making a layer hard to define. Also we did not use a simple ‘below-ground’
266 group because ‘ground’ is not well defined in a nebkha-populated landscape and because there are
267 large physical and chemical differences between sands and clay which may affect the isotope
268 compositions of roots growing in them. Litter was rarely found on the nebkhas, presumably because
269 strong winds at the study sites can easily blow away any litter produced. However, woody debris
270 from dead ramets was present inside the sand mounds and was collected during excavation. Thus for
271 each nebkha, we differentiated the following categories of *N. tangutorum* biomass for intra-plant
272 isotope analyses: leaves, stems, in-sand fine roots (ISFR), in-sand coarse roots (ISCR), below-plain
273 fine roots (BPFRR) in 20 cm depth increments, and below-plain coarse roots (BPCR) in 20cm

274 increments, and woody debris (WD). Nutrient contents and nitrogen isotope compositions were
275 measured separately for each category.

276

277 **Measurements of nutrient contents and nitrogen isotope compositions with excavated biomass**

278 All categories of *N. tangutorum* biomass (leaves, stems, ISFR, ISCR, BPCR in 20cm increments,
279 BPCR in 20cm increments, and WD) from each excavated nebkha were dried to constant weight
280 (60°C, 48 hours). The dry weight of biomass was determined with 0.01 g accuracy on an analytical
281 scale. Dried materials were randomly sampled from each biomass category and ground to 80 mesh in
282 Tyler Standard Sieve Series (0.177 mm opening). The resultant powder was separated into six
283 duplicates. Three duplicates were analyzed for C, N and P contents and the remaining three for
284 isotope compositions. The C, N and P contents were measured in the Environmental Chemistry
285 Analysis Laboratory in the Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research, the
286 Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China. Total sample carbon and N were measured with the
287 vario MACRO cube (Elementar Company, Germany). The analytical precision was better than 0.5%
288 Relative Standard Deviation (RSD). Total P was measured with the ICP-OES OPTIMA 5300DV (PE,
289 USA). Wet digestions method was applied in the analysis (Webb and Adeloju 2013). Sample
290 preparation and assaying followed standard procedures per instrument instruction. The analytical
291 precision was better than 2% RSD.

292 The nitrogen isotope compositions were analyzed at the Stable Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer
293 Laboratory of the Chinese Academy of Forestry (SIRMSL, CAF), Beijing, China. The instrument
294 used was a Delta V Advantage Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc., USA) coupled
295 with an elemental analyzer (FlashEA 1112; HT Instruments, Inc., USA) in the continuous flow mode.
296 Isotope compositions were expressed using the delta notation (δ) in parts per thousand (‰): $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰)
297 = $[(R_{\text{sample}})/(R_{\text{standard}}) - 1] \times 1000$, where R is the molar ratio of ^{15}N to ^{14}N . The measurement applied
298 the IAEA-600 standard (Caffeine) relative to atmosphere N_2 . The analytical precision was better than
299 0.2‰ based on replicate measurements of the reference standard.

300

301 **Statistical analyses**

302 Two-way ANOVA analyses (organ by site) were performed with SPSS (Ver.17.0). C, N, and P
303 contents, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, C/N ratios, N/P ratios, and C/P ratios were analyzed for differences between organs

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

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

325

326 **RESULTS**

327 **Variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ among plant organs and between study sites**

328 For comparing $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ among plant organs and between sites (Fig. 2), we averaged the duplicate mean
329 of each organ across the three nebkhas at each site. Results for comparisons of nutrient values were
330 already presented in Zhang et al. (2015) and thus not repeated here. There were considerable
331 variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values among plant organs and between study sites. At both the Dengkou and
332 Minqin sites, leaves had positive $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and were enriched in ^{15}N compared with corresponding stems
333 and roots at the same site. Also at both sites, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value of fine root followed the same order:
334 ISFR < 1FR < 2FR < 3FR < 4FR; i.e., it increased with depth into soil. Here 1FR, 2FR, 3FR, and
335 4FR refer to fine roots in 0 – 20 cm, 20 – 40 cm, 40 – 60 cm, and 60 to 80 cm soil depths,

336 respectively. The same pattern was repeated for the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value of coarse root; the only exception was
337 2CR (coarse root at a soil depth of 20 to 40 cm) at the Dengkou site which dropped out of the general
338 order. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of fine roots at the Dengkou site were consistently higher than the
339 corresponding coarse roots both inside the nebkha sands and below the plain of the same site. In
340 contrast at the Minqin site, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of fine roots were consistently less than the corresponding
341 coarse roots except for the roots deep into the plain (40 - 80 cm) where the fine root was more
342 enriched. At the Dengkou site, the stem had the lowest $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ while at the Minqin site, the ISFR had
343 the lowest $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. At both sites, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value in the woody debris was greater than the corresponding
344 stem although the difference was not statistically significant. The foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ at the Dengkou site was
345 higher than at the Minqin site. In fact, in all biomass categories investigated, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value at the
346 Dengkou site was greater than its corresponding counterpart at the Minqin site. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of
347 plant organs at the Dengkou site were mostly positive while at the Minqin site, the values were
348 mostly negative. Unfortunately, these site differences cannot be attributed at the present study since
349 we did not measure potential sources of nitrogen, particularly soil nitrogen, at the two study sites.

350

351 **Intra-plant relationships between $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and nutrient concentrations**

352 Even though intra-plant and between-site variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ were large, these variations were unified
353 in relationships with organ nutrient contents (Fig. 3). The large intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (~7‰ at
354 the Dengkou site and 4‰ at the Minqin site) as well as in organ nitrogen and phosphorous contents
355 facilitated regression analyses between these variables. Because the intra-plant relationships were not
356 significantly different between the two study sites, we pooled the data from the two sites in
357 regression analyses. We found that intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ were significantly correlated with
358 the organ contents of carbon (Fig. 3a, $R^2 = 0.25$, $P < 0.0001$), nitrogen (Fig. 3b, $R^2 = 0.44$, $P < 0.0001$)
359 and phosphorous (Fig. 3c, $R^2 = 0.40$, $P < 0.0001$) and with the organ ratios of carbon to nitrogen (Fig.
360 3d, $R^2 = 0.41$, $P < 0.0001$) and carbon to phosphorous (Fig. 3f, $R^2 = 0.25$, $P < 0.0001$). The
361 correlations were positive with organ nitrogen and phosphorous contents but negative with the
362 carbon content and the carbon to nitrogen and carbon to phosphorous ratios. No correlation with the
363 organ nitrogen to phosphorous ratios was found (Fig. 3e).

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

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

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

381

382 **DISCUSSION**

383 **Potential mechanisms for the observed intra-plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – N and P relationships**

384 This study appears to be the first to report that the strongest predictor of intra-plant variation in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
385 is the interaction between organ N and P contents rather than N or P themselves or their linear
386 combination. To our knowledge, no previous studies have evaluated relationships between
387 intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and organ N or P contents through systematical measurement
388 approaches although models have been developed to simulate root-shoot differences in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in
389 responses to overall changes in nitrogen supply and demand (e.g., Kalcsits et al. 2014). What
390 mechanism(s) could be responsible for such close relationships? Clearly this question cannot be
391 answered conclusively with data available in this study or existing data in other, published studies.
392 Here we propose a hypothesis based on a synthesis of best available knowledge (Fig. 5). We hope
393 our hypothesis will provide a starting point for follow-up research.

394 To facilitate our discussion, we group potential mechanisms into three categories: external

395 factors only, internal factors only, and external and internal factors together. Potential external
396 factors include different sources of nitrogen (e.g., NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , organic nitrogen, N_2 fixation).
397 Because the patterns are observed across different organs of the same plants, rather than across
398 different plants in different environments, an external-factors-only explanation cannot be the
399 responsible mechanism. An internal-factors-only explanation requires a N and P allocation
400 mechanism that allocates these two key nutrients roughly in proportion to $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in plant organs and at
401 the same time keeps the isotopic mass balance for the whole plant. Translocation of nitrogenous
402 solutes (e.g., NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , amino acids) is a mass flow process and mainly takes place from roots to
403 shoots to leaves via xylem and from leaves to shoots to roots via phloem but lateral transfer between
404 xylem and phloem may also occur (Simpson 1986; Bijlsma et al. 2000). $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values probably
405 originate mostly from fractionations in primary assimilation and exchange events and in subsequent
406 metabolic reactions that create ^{15}N -enriched or depleted metabolites (Tcherkez 2011; Gauthier et al.
407 2013). The translocated nitrogenous compounds mix with existing structural (e.g., nitrogen in cell
408 wall) or functional (e.g., nitrogen in photosynthesis, respiration, and storage that can readily mobilize
409 and take part in metabolic reactions) nitrogen of an organ to give a bulk signal in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. It is
410 conceptually difficult to imagine how these numerous, loosely coupled processes internal to plants
411 collude to produce coordinated variations in N, P and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ across different plant organs. Therefore
412 the probability that an internal-factors-only mechanism causes the observed patterns is likely very
413 small. In the following, we focus on the possibility that external and internal factors work together to
414 create the observed intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

415 Plants can emit a vast number of nitrogenous compounds to the atmosphere, which is known to
416 affect atmospheric secondary aerosol formation and climate (Sintermann and Neftel 2015). These
417 compounds are formed in metabolic processes such as the decarboxylation and transamination of
418 amino acids (Bagni and Tassoni 2001; Dudareva et al. 2013). Emissions of these compounds from
419 fruits and flowers are readily noticed without needing sensitive measurements. In addition to fruits
420 and flowers, leaves and stems can also emit nitrogenous compounds. Like many physical and
421 biochemical processes, it is probably not unreasonable to assume that fractionation occurs in the
422 emission of nitrogenous compounds from plants. Unfortunately no isotope fractionation
423 measurements have ever been made on the emission of most of these compounds. However,
424 considerable isotopic knowledge exists in the plant-atmosphere exchange of NH_3 .

425 As shown in Fig. 5, NH₃ is a key link between plant metabolism and ambient air (Flechard et al.
426 2013). As discussed in the Introduction, living plant organs contain liquid pools of NH₄⁺ maintained
427 by nitrogen translocation, nitrate and nitrite reduction, photorespiration, and other metabolic
428 processes. In these pools, the rapid protonation – deprotonation process sustains an equilibrium
429 between NH₄⁺ and aqueous NH₃. In the apoplast, gaseous NH₃ is in equilibration with aqueous NH₃
430 across air-liquid interfaces (e.g., in the intercellular airspace), depending on the concentration ratio
431 (Γ) of NH₄⁺ to H⁺ and therefore apoplastic pH (Flechard et al. 2013; Johnson and Berry et al. 2013).
432 Isotope effects occur when the apoplast is able to exchange NH₃ with ambient atmosphere. The
433 fractionation has been estimated to be 17.6‰ for diffusion through still air and 11.7‰ through
434 boundary layer (Farquhar et al. 1983; Johnson and Berry 2013).

435 We are not aware of any reports that stems and aerial roots may emit or absorb NH₃. However, it
436 is a widely established fact that leaves exchange NH₃ with atmosphere through stomata (Farquhar et
437 al. 1980; Wetselaar and Farquhar 1980; Farquhar et al. 1983; Sharpe and Harper 1997; Johnson and
438 Berry 2013; Flechard et al. 2013; Sintermann and Neftel 2015). So for the momentum, let us focus
439 on leaves (Fig. 3 & 4). The exchange can be bi-directional, depending on the gradient in the
440 concentration of NH₃ across stomata. If the ambient concentration of NH₃ is above the stomatal
441 compensation point of NH₃ (χ , Farquhar et al. 1980), absorption occurs; otherwise, emission takes
442 place. χ is directly related to Γ which in turn is a function of leaf nitrogen content (Flechard et al.
443 2013). This is because nitrogen-containing proteins (enzymes) are critical to photorespiration which
444 releases NH₃ due to the decarboxylation of glycine in mitochondria (Keys 2006). If leaf nitrogen is
445 high and therefore photorespiration rate is high, the re-assimilation by glutamine synthetase may not
446 be fast enough to keep all NH₃ released from the mitochondria internal to the metabolic cycles,
447 leading to emission of NH₃ from leaves. This emission will result in ¹⁵N-enriched pools in leaves.
448 Conversely, if leaf nitrogen is low and therefore photorespiration rate is low, ambient NH₃ may
449 diffuse into leaves, making leaf nitrogen pools more ¹⁵N depleted. Thus a positive foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N} - \text{N}$
450 relationship can be predicted. This prediction is supported by empirical evidence. For example,
451 Gauthier et al. (2013) showed that foliar nitrate content is positively correlated with foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in
452 *Brassica napus* L.

453 But how can we explain the positive $\delta^{15}\text{N} - \text{P}$ relationship and the even better $\delta^{15}\text{N} - \text{N} \times \text{P}$
454 relationship? Again, for the momentum, we focus on leaves. We believe the answer lies in the role

455 that phosphate (P_i) plays in photosynthesis and photorespiration. The photosynthetic reaction in
456 chloroplasts is described by $3CO_2 + 6H_2O + P_i \rightarrow$ triose phosphate + $3H_2O + 3O_2$. Chloroplasts
457 import P_i from and export triose phosphate to cytosol to sustain this reaction. P_i deficiency can limit
458 the maximum electron transport rate in thylakoid membranes (Sivak and Walker 1986) and therefore
459 photorespiration rate and NH_3 concentration in sub-stomatal cavities under full sunlight. Conversely,
460 increased P_i supply may boost photorespiration and NH_3 concentration. As a result, foliar $\delta^{15}N$
461 should be positively related to P, just as it should be positively related to N. Why can $\delta^{15}N$ be
462 predicted even better by $N \times P$? This is because a stoichiometry is needed between N and P to keep
463 an efficient operation of the photosynthetic machinery (Gusewell 2004), i.e., an oversupply of N
464 cannot compensate for a deficiency in P and vice versa.

465 Our emphasis on photorespiration in the relationships of foliar $\delta^{15}N$ with N, P, and $N \times P$ should
466 be evaluated in the context of enormous importance of leaves in the nitrogen metabolism of the
467 whole plant. While roots are the primary gate for outside nitrogen to enter into the internal nitrogen
468 cycle, leaves are the ‘theater’ of nitrogen ‘actions’ within the plant. It is estimated that in C_3 species,
469 mesophyll chloroplasts may contain as much as 75% of total cellular nitrogen in a plant
470 (Hörtensteiner and Feller 2002). A major portion of leaf nitrogen is involved in photosynthetic
471 reactions; Rubisco alone, which catalyzes carboxylation and oxygenation, accounts for 15 to 30% of
472 total leaf nitrogen (Evans 1989). More importantly, the flux of NH_3 , which is released by
473 photorespiration and subject to either re-assimilation into amino acids or emission into the
474 atmosphere, is five to ten times larger than the primary assimilation rate at roots (Keys 2006;
475 Masclaux-Daubresse et al. 2010). The fraction of emission to the atmosphere depends on a range of
476 biotic and abiotic factors. In measurements on two rice cultivars, Kumagai et al. (2011) reported that
477 12 and 21% respectively of leaf nitrogen were lost to the atmosphere due to release of NH_3 in
478 photorespiration. Thus it seems possible for the leaf-atmosphere exchange of NH_3 to fundamentally
479 affect the relationships of foliar $\delta^{15}N$ with N, P, and $N \times P$ as the model of Johnson and Berry (2013)
480 has suggested.

481 It is more challenging to include stems and roots in the equation. Clearly a photorespiration -
482 based mechanism alone is not sufficient to explain the observed overall relationships as they hold
483 across leaves, stems, and roots (Fig. 3 & 4). Assuming there are no N and P – mediated fractionating
484 processes that directly exchange nitrogenous compounds between stems (and roots) and the ambient

485 air, is it possible for the leaf-atmosphere exchanges of nitrogen isotopes to affect $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in
486 stems and roots such that $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ increases with N, P, and $\text{N} \times \text{P}$ across the whole plant as depicted in
487 Fig. 3 and 4?

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

510 To summarize our fairly detailed reasoning above, the observed patterns in intra-plant variations
511 in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ appear to be most logically explained by the following three processes working together (Fig.
512 5):

- 513 - Leaf-atmosphere exchanges of nitrogenous compounds, particularly NH_3 released during
514 photorespiration,

- 515 - Nitrogen and phosphorus resorption and remobilization from senescing leaves, and
- 516 - Mixture of resorbed and remobilized nitrogen and phosphorus with existing pools in stems
- 517 and roots.

518

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

521

522 **Comparison with reported inter-plant relationships**

523 It is interesting to compare the intra-plant relationships found here with the previously-reported
524 correlations of foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ with N across species, climate and ecological gradients. The positive
525 intra-plant correlation between $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and N content reported in the present study is reminiscent of the
526 foliar correlations reported in those previous studies. Using a dataset that contained over 11000
527 plants worldwide, Craine et al. (2009) found that foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was positively correlated with foliar N.
528 A subset of this dataset contained $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, N and P measurements. These authors subsequently analyzed
529 this subset with a multilinear model that used N, P and their interaction as explanatory variables. It
530 was not clear whether multicollinearity was controlled but they found that after controlling for
531 variations in N, foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ decreased with an increase in P and in $N \times P$. We used the same model to
532 fit our intra-plant dataset without consideration of multicollinearity and found that foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
533 decreased with both N and P but increased with $N \times P$. Thus controlling multicollinearity is
534 important for ascertaining relationships between $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and nutrient contents due to correlations
535 between contents of different nutrients.

536 Positive foliar correlations of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ with N have been reported in studies at smaller scales as well
537 (e.g., Martinelli et al. 1999; Hobbie et al. 2000; Craine et al. 2005). In addition, Hobbie et al. (2008)
538 reported a positive correlation for root tips. These positive correlations, which were all inter- rather
539 than intra-plant in nature, are consistent with the reported experimental finding that an increase in
540 soil nitrogen availability tends to lead to an increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of non-N-fixing plants (Wigand et al.
541 2007; Hobbie et al. 2008; Mayor et al. 2014). A hypothesis based on plant-mycorrhizal interactions
542 has been advanced to explain this positive relationship (Hobbie et al. 2000; Craine et al. 2009;
543 Hobbie and Högberg 2012). Typically mycorrhizal fungi transfer isotopically depleted N to host
544 plants. As soil N supply increases, the contribution from mycorrhizal symbionts to the total N budget

545 of host plants may decrease, reducing the mycorrhizal dilution effect on the heavy isotope and
546 resulting in a positive relationship of plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ with soil N supply. However, this explanation is
547 only valid for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the plant as a whole and cannot explain the positive relationship of intra-plant
548 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ with N and the interaction between N and P. In addition to the mycorrhizal hypothesis, a more
549 general explanation for the N supply – plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ relationship involves the openness of the N cycle.
550 This explanation hypothesizes that an increase in N supply promotes the openness of the N cycle and
551 the increased openness results in higher losses of ^{14}N relative to ^{15}N from the system, leading to
552 enrichment in ^{15}N in the remaining nitrogen pool. The openness typically refers to processes
553 occurring in soil (e.g., N losses through denitrification via the release of N_2O and N_2 from soil which
554 is a strong fractionating process, Mnich and Houlton 2016). Clearly a soil-central N openness
555 explanation is also not valid for the intra-plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ - N \times P relationship reported in this study.

556 Another possibility to consider concerns the situation when nitrate is the source of N for plants.
557 If soil supply of nitrate is low, all nitrate absorbed by roots may be assimilated in the roots and no
558 enriched nitrate pool is left for transport to other parts of the plant. As soil supply of nitrate increases,
559 the proportion of the nitrate pool that is unassimilated by roots and thus is available for transport to
560 other parts of the plant may not only increase in size but also become more enriched in ^{15}N (a system
561 cannot discriminate if all substrates are assimilated; discrimination generally increases with substrate
562 availability, Evans 2001). However, this possibility can only suggest that the difference in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
563 between roots and the rest of the plant may increase with soil nitrate supply. It cannot account for the
564 changes of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ with organ N and P contents and their interaction within the plant.

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

571

572 **CONCLUSION**

573 A systematical evaluation of nitrogen isotope composition in the desert plant species *Nitraria*
574 *tangutorum* Bobrov reveals that the magnitude of intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is close to the highest

575 value reported in previous studies (7‰, Fig. 3 and also Evans 2001). These variations are positively
576 correlated with corresponding organ N and P contents. However, it is the N × P interaction, not N
577 and P individually or their linear combination, that is the strongest predictor of intra-plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.
578 While the positive correlation of intra-plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ with organ N resembles the $\delta^{15}\text{N} - \text{N}$ relationships
579 reported in previous studies on patterns across ecological and climate gradients and across species,
580 explanations developed from these previous studies are not valid for the patterns reported in the
581 present study. We also report that root $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ increases with depth into soil. This pattern in root $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is
582 similar to profiles of soil $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ reported in previous studies although the exact relationship between
583 root and soil profiles in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is not clear. We hypothesize that the strong positive intra-plant $\delta^{15}\text{N} - \text{N}$
584 and P relationships are a result of three processes working together: 1) N and P-driven, fractionating
585 ammonia exchanges between leaves and the atmosphere (volatilization) during photorespiration, 2)
586 resorption and remobilization of N and P from senescing leaves, and 3) mixture of re-translocated
587 foliar N and P with existing pools in stems and roots.

588 Knowledge of how plants acquire, transport and transform N is crucial for understanding how
589 plants use this crucial resource for production, growth and reproduction and how the terrestrial N
590 cycle operates. Intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ are an important outcome of the N cycle. The findings
591 reported in the present study suggest that different mechanisms may operate at different scales to
592 affect plant nitrogen isotope compositions and their relationships with nutrient availability.

593 Alternatively, causes of variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, whether they are intra-plant, inter-species, or cross
594 ecological and climate gradients, may differ from previously thought. Our findings suggest that
595 studies into intra-plant variations in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and their mechanisms can yield deep insights into the N
596 cycle of ecosystem and plant nitrogen metabolism. Such studies have not been adequate in the past
597 and are urgently needed.

598

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830

831 **Figure captions**

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

835

836 **Figure 2.** A comparison of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ among different plant organs of *Nitraria tangutorum* Bobrov and
837 between the Dengkou and Minqin study sites. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value shown is averaged for each organ
838 across the nebkhas excavated at the same site (Dengkou or Minqin). Upper-case letters denote
839 ANOVA results within a study site (i.e., comparing $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ among different organs at the same site) and
840 lower case letters between the two sites (i.e., comparing $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the same organ between the two
841 sites). ISFR and ISCR stand for fine and coarse roots, respectively, in the sands of nebkhas. 1FR,
842 2FR, 3FR and 4FR stand for fine roots 0 - 20, 20 - 40, 40 - 60 and 60 - 80 cm depths, respectively,
843 below the plains on which nebkhas rest. Similarly, 1CR, 2CR, 3CR and 4CR stand for coarse roots
844 within these depth intervals. Fine and coarse roots are differentiated with a diameter threshold of
845 2mm. Woody debris (WD) from dead ramets is also included in the figure. No ANOVA results for
846 3FR and 3CR at the Dengkou site as there was only one nebkha having roots between 40 to 60 cm.
847 No roots were found below 60 cm at the Dengkou site.

848

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

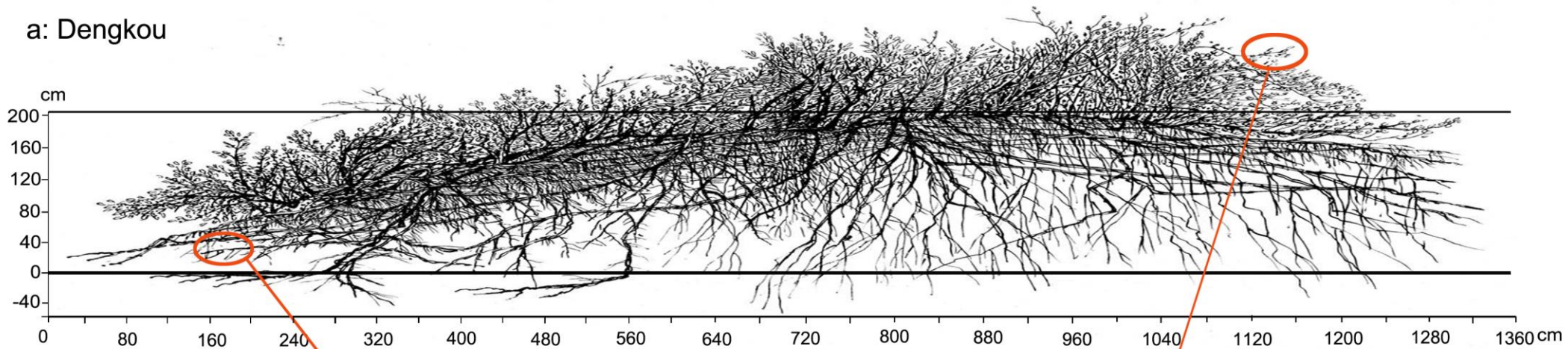
855

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

859

860 **Figure 5.** intra-plant nitrogen cycling and flux exchanges with external environments.

a: Dengkou



b: Minqin

