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# Applied Soil Ecology

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# Effects of land-use change and fertilization on  $N_2O$  and NO fluxes, the abundance of nitrifying and denitrifying microbial communities in a hilly red soil region of southern China

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## ABSTRACT

Nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) and nitric oxide (NO) are generally interrelated in soil nitrogen biogeochemical cycles. However, the effects of land-use change and fertilization on N2O and NO fluxes and the underlying mechanisms are not well understood, especially in fields converted from rice paddies (RPs) to upland cultivation. This study investigated the effects of land-use change from RPs to a citrus orchard (OR) as well as fertilization on  $N_2O$  and NO fluxes, and the gene abundance of nitrifying and denitrifying microbial communities by using static chamber-gas chromatography and quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR). Structural equation modeling was performed to determine whether soil properties and the abundances of nitrifiers and denitrifiers influenced in situ N<sub>2</sub>O and NO fluxes. Land-use change from RPs to an OR and fertilization significantly increased N<sub>2</sub>O and NO fluxes. Land-use change increased AOA abundance, did not affect AOB abundance, and decreased nirK, nirS, and nosZ abundances. The growth of AOA and AOB abundance in response to fertilization was generally stimulated by providing more NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, but sometimes was inhibited by lower pH. Fertilization did not significantly affect the abundance of denitrifiers. Soil properties and functional microbial groups were explanatory variables, while land-use change altered their role in predicting in situ N<sub>2</sub>O and NO fluxes. For N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes, dissolved organic carbon was the strongest predictor in the RPs, whereas the primary explanatory factor was nirK abundance in the OR. For NO fluxes, soil temperature was the most important explanatory variable. Our results demonstrate the need for comprehensive approaches incorporating nitrifying and denitrifying processes to improve our understanding of biogeochemical cycles.

#### 1. Introduction

It is of great concern worldwide that nitrogenous gases contribute to regional and global-scale environmental issues [\(IPCC, 2013\)](#page--1-0). Nitrous oxide  $(N_2O)$  is one of the main potent long-living greenhouse gases that contributes to global warming and participates in the destruction of stratospheric ozone ([Ravishankara et al., 2009\)](#page--1-1). Nitric oxide (NO) is not only a precursor for tropospheric ozone but is also involved in the regulation of the oxidation balance of the atmosphere ([Bouwman et al.,](#page--1-2)  $2002$ ). In most agricultural soils, N<sub>2</sub>O and NO emissions strongly depend on the activity of the microbiological nitrogen processes of nitrification and denitrification, in which both gases are produced as byproducts or intermediate products [\(Bouwman et al., 2002](#page--1-2)).

Land-use change, which is regarded as the second largest anthropogenic source of greenhouse gas emissions, can significantly alter the dynamics of the global nitrogen cycle [\(IPCC, 2013; van Lent et al.,](#page--1-0) [2015\)](#page--1-0). Although the effects of land-use change on greenhouse gas emissions have been widely reported, few in situ studies have been conducted after land-use change from conventional rice paddies (RPs) to upland cultivation, especially including year-round continuous measurements of both N<sub>2</sub>O and NO fluxes ([Yao et al., 2015; Zhang](#page--1-3) [et al., 2016](#page--1-3)). Several previous studies have demonstrated relatively

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lower  $N_2O$  emissions from RPs than from upland soils because anaerobic conditions limit nitrate availability and strict anaerobiosis favors complete denitrification to  $N_2$  [\(Zou et al., 2005;](#page--1-4) [Liu et al., 2016](#page--1-5)). However, by conducting two years of field measurements of  $N_2O$  flux from four different types of land uses in subtropical red soil, [Lin et al.](#page--1-6) [\(2012\)](#page--1-6) reported that  $N_2O$  emissions from rice paddies were approximately 54.4% higher than those from orchard soil. This discrepancy might be partly attributed to the differences in the land-use legacies and fertilization managements [\(Scheer et al., 2008; Shao et al., 2017](#page--1-7)). Fertilization is the management practice most frequently used for agricultural soils and has long been identified as an important factor in regulating N<sub>2</sub>O and NO fluxes ([Bouwman et al., 2002; Dai et al., 2013;](#page--1-2) [Liu et al., 2015](#page--1-2)). Fertilization is widely accepted to cause a significant increase in  $N_2O$  and NO emissions by providing more inorganic N contents ([Bouwman et al., 2002; Rowlings et al., 2013\)](#page--1-2). However, few year-round field studies have investigated the response of  $N_2O$  and NO emissions to fertilization simultaneously from the red soil region of China, resulting in uncertainties about the emission inventory of nitrogenous gases [\(Bouwman et al., 2002; Akiyama et al., 2005](#page--1-2)).

Nitrification is the biological oxidation of ammonium  $\left(\mathrm{NH_4}^+\right)$  to nitrite  $(NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>)$ , which is performed by ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) and bacteria (AOB), followed by the oxidation of the  $NO_2^-$  to nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) ([Rotthauwe et al., 1997](#page--1-8)). Denitrification is the stepwise reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to N<sub>2</sub> via NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO and N<sub>2</sub>O by denitrifiers, in particular the  $NO_2^-$  reductase encoded by either nirK or nirS gene and the N<sub>2</sub>O reductase encoded by nosZ gene [\(Throbäck et al., 2004](#page--1-9)). Landuse change from paddies to uplands involves niche specialization with environmental factors (e.g., oxygen, ammonia and pH) that are key factors influencing nitrifiers and denitrifiers [\(Alam et al., 2013; Yang](#page--1-10) [et al., 2016\)](#page--1-10). However, detailed measurements of the abundances of nitrifying and denitrifying microbial communities with simultaneous N2O and NO flux determination are still limited, especially for the red soil regions in China. Moreover, though a large number of studies have documented nitrifiers and denitrifiers in response to fertilization ([Szukics et al., 2009; Alam et al., 2013\)](#page--1-11), some discrepancy remains, resulting from different land-use types ([He et al., 2007; Di et al., 2014;](#page--1-12) [Long et al., 2016\)](#page--1-12). Furthermore, because microbial communities play an essential role in the production and consumption of  $N_2O$  and NO ([Bergaust et al., 2010; Medinets et al., 2015](#page--1-13)), conceptual models have been used to predict the dynamics of trace gas fluxes ([Petersen et al.,](#page--1-14) [2012; Lammel et al., 2015; Martins et al., 2015\)](#page--1-14). Therefore, to improve our understanding of the dynamics of  $N_2O$  and NO fluxes and the underlying mechanisms, detailed studies of the abundances of soil nitrifiers and denitrifiers following land-use change and fertilization are needed.

Red soil, one of the typical agricultural soils in southern China, covers approximately 11.8% of the country's land surface, produces 80% of the rice, and supports 22.5% of the population of China ([Liu](#page--1-5) [et al., 2016\)](#page--1-5). In recent decades, the red soil regions have been undergoing remarkable land-use change due to increasing socio-economic developments and demands for livestock products. In particular, changing rice paddies to upland cultivation for growing vegetables, fruits and economic forests have been locally recommended to meet the increasing market demands and obtain higher economic returns in these regions ([Lin et al., 2012\)](#page--1-6). This process has led to a diverse range of land uses with different cultivation, irrigation and fertilizer rates, which could result in significant differences in soil nitrifiers and denitrifiers and subsequent  $N_2O$  and NO fluxes. Therefore, understanding the effects of land-use change from paddies to orchards on  $N_2O$  and NO fluxes as well as the abundances of nitrifying and denitrifying microbial communities is critical for elucidating the mechanisms and processes of nitrogenous gas emissions. However, few studies have simultaneously paid attention to the changes in  $N_2O/NO$  fluxes and the abundances of nitrifying and denitrifying microbial communities in these regions. The present study thus aimed to (1) assess the effects of land-use change and fertilization on in situ  $N_2O$  and NO fluxes; (2) examine how land-use

change and fertilization affect the abundances of nitrifying and denitrifying microbial communities; and (3) evaluate the existing relationships among  $N_2O/NO$  fluxes, soil properties, and functional gene abundance.

#### 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Field site and experimental setup

The study site is located at the Qianyanzhou Experimental Station (26°44′N, 115°04′E), Chinese Academy of Science (CAS), in Jiangxi Province, southern China. This region experiences a subtropical warm and humid monsoon climate. During the period 1989–2010, the mean annual air temperature and precipitation were 18.0 °C and 1509.0 mm, respectively ([Liu et al., 2016](#page--1-5)). The soil is typical red soil found in middle-subtropical China and classified as Cambisol according to the Ultisol classification. The soil texture is sandy loam, consisting of 58% sand, 31% silt, and 11% clay. Double-cropping rice is the main cropping pattern in this region.

The two most common land-use types in the hilly red soil regions of southern China were selected for the present study, namely, rice paddy (Oryza sativa L.) and citrus orchard (Citrus reticulate L.). Conventional rice paddies had been continuously cultivated for approximately 10 years following the regime of local field managements, and a portion of the fields was converted to orchard in June 2012. Under each land-use type, two fertilizer treatments (i.e., conventional fertilization and no fertilization) were established. The fertilization treatment followed the local cropping regimes and farmer fertilization practices. The fertilizers used were compound fertilizer (15% N) and urea (46% N). The other was treated as a control without fertilization, with additional management practices being the same as in the fertilization treatment. Therefore, four treatments—rice paddies with fertilization (RP-F) and without fertilization (RP-NF) and citrus orchards with fertilization (OR-F) and without fertilization (OR-NF) —were arranged in a completely randomized block design with four replicates  $(12 \times 14 \text{ m})$ . Detailed descriptions of the experimental site, management practices and experimental design can be found in previous publications ([Liu et al.,](#page--1-5) [2016, 2017\)](#page--1-5). To ensure survival and yield, a floodwater layer of 5–7 cm was maintained in the RPs until the mid-season drainage, from July 29 to Sep 15, 2013 for the late rice and from April 18 to Jun 10, 2014 for the early rice. The cultivations and fertilization practices in the RP and OR are shown in [Table 1.](#page--1-15)

#### 2.2. Measurement of  $N_2O$  and NO fluxes

In-situ fluxes of  $N_2O$  and NO were simultaneously measured from July 2013 to August 2014 using a static chamber-based method as described by [Mei et al. \(2009\)](#page--1-16) and [Yao et al. \(2015\).](#page--1-3) A stainless steel collar (diameter  $= 40$  cm) was pre-installed in the centre of each plot before rice transplanting or orchard planting. The top edge of the collar contains a groove (5 cm in depth) filled with water to seal the rim of a chamber during gas collection. Cylindrical sampling chambers with a diameter of 40 cm and height of 0.39 or 0.69 m (according to the plant height) were covered with a layer of thermal insulation to minimize air temperature changes inside the chamber and equipped with a circulating fan to ensure complete gas mixing during the gas sampling period. The base frames were kept in the same location throughout the entire measurement period in the orchard plots, whereas those in the paddy fields were removed before tillage and placed (24 h before the measurement) in the location marked for subsequent measurements.

Generally, the flux measurements were carried out daily within duration of 5–7 days after each fertilization event, and performed once or twice per week for the remaining period. On each sampling day, gas samples were collected between 09:00 and11:00 am. Five samples for the  $N_2O$  analysis were taken from the headspace of chamber using 20 mL polypropylene syringes at an interval of 10 min after chamber

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