

1 **Photosynthesis, N₂ fixation and taproot reserves during the cutting regrowth cycle**
2 **of alfalfa under elevated CO₂ and growth.**

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15

16 **Abstract**

17

18 Future climatic conditions, including rising atmospheric CO₂ and temperature, water
19 availability limitations, etc. may increase photosynthesis and, consequently, plant
20 production. A larger knowledge on legume performance under predicted growth
21 conditions will be crucial for the safeguard crop management and the extended
22 cultivation surface of those plants in the near future. N₂ fixation, is a key process
23 conditioning plant responsiveness to varying growth conditions. It is likely that under
24 future environments, due to the higher photosynthate availability, as a consequence of
25 the higher growth rate under elevated CO₂. However, as described in the literature,

1 photosynthesis performance is frequently down-regulated (acclimated) under long-term
2 exposure to CO₂, especially when interacting with stressful temperature, and water
3 availability conditions. As growth responses to elevated CO₂ are dependent on sink-
4 source status, it is generally accepted that down-regulation occurs in situations with
5 insufficient C sink plant capacity. Alfalfa management involves the cutting of shoots,
6 which alters the source-sink relationship and thus the photosynthetic behaviour. As the
7 growth rate decreases at the end of the pre-cut vegetative growth period, nodulated
8 alfalfa plants showed photosynthetic down-regulation, but during regrowth following
9 defoliation, acclimation to elevated CO₂ disappears. The shoot harvest also leads to a
10 drop in mineral N uptake and C translocation to the roots resulting in a reduction in N₂
11 fixation due to the dependence on photosynthate supply to support nodule function.
12 Therefore, the production of new shoots during the first days following cutting requires
13 the utilization of reduced C and N compounds previously stored in reserve organs. The
14 stored reserves are mediated by phytohormones such as methyl jasmonate and abscisic
15 acid and in situations where water stress reduces shoot production this potentially
16 enables the enhancement of taproot protein levels in nodulated alfalfa, which may lead
17 to these plants growing in better conditions in the following cut/regrowth cycle. The
18 further knowledge of legume performance under predicted climate change conditions
19 will be crucial the development of varieties with better adaptation in order to achieve
20 greater and more efficient production values. Furthermore, for this purpose it is going to
21 be necessary to improve existing methodologies and create new ones for phenotype
22 characterization. Such knowledge will provide key information for future plant breeding
23 programmes.

24

1 **I. Introduction**

2

3 Since the beginning of the industrial revolution in the 18th century, the amount of CO₂
4 emitted by man has been the consequence of economic development and a population
5 that has quadrupled to 6.4 billion during the last one hundred years (Krausmann et al.,
6 2009). In 1750, the atmospheric concentration of CO₂ was around 280 ppm, nowadays
7 it reached 389 ppm and currently increases at 1.9 ppm per year on average
8 (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change; IPCC, 2007). According to the
9 predictions of the IPCC, at the end of the present century this concentration may be
10 around 700 ppm.

11

12 The primary effect of increasing CO₂ is photosynthetic enhancement in C₃ plants, and
13 consequently increased plant productivity (Daepf et al., 2000). So in the absence of
14 other growth limiting factors such as mineral nutrition or water availability,
15 photosynthesis may be enhanced under elevated CO₂ conditions (Campbell et al., 1988;
16 Chaves and Pereira, 1992). Increasing CO₂ will favour carboxylation over
17 photorespiration of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) (Andrews and Lorimer, 1987).
18 Moreover, the reduction in stomatal conductance by elevated CO₂ will lead to a lower
19 leaf transpiration, and consequently, to a higher water use efficiency (WUE) (Drake et
20 al., 1997).

21

22 Due to the greenhouse effect, elevated CO₂ also has indirect effects related to the
23 increase in temperature. By the end of the present century, global warming may lead to
24 a temperature increase of 4°C (IPCC, 2007). As highlighted by previous studies (Drake

1 and Leadley, 1991; Long, 1991; Morison and Lawlor, 1999; Aranjuelo et al., 2005ab,
2 2008), plant performance under elevated CO₂ is affected by ambient temperature. Those
3 studies showed that temperature enhancement, increased photosynthetic performance of
4 plants exposed to 700 ppm due to the kinetic properties of rubisco (Long, 1991) and
5 partly due to better utilisation of the end products of photosynthesis through increased
6 sink metabolism at elevated temperatures. Enhanced C sink strength of plants exposed
7 to 700 ppm and avoided leaf carbohydrate build up with the consequent avoidance of
8 photosynthetic down-regulation and the increase in plant biomass. Another point of
9 major concern in elevated CO₂ and temperature studies is the effect of temperature
10 increase in plant population dynamics (Bélanger et al. 2002; 2005). In mid- and high
11 latitudes, characterized by seasonal periods of dormancy (winter) and active growth
12 (summer), plant phenology is mainly driven by temperature (Chmielewski et al., 2004).
13 Thus, an indirect effect of increasing air temperatures means the prolongation of the
14 growing season (Menzel and Fabian, 1999; Chmielewski and Rötzer, 2001).

15

16 Most climate scenarios are predicted to be affected by climate change, and in the case of
17 the Mediterranean area (IPCC, 2007) resulting in increasing the aridity with subsequent
18 water stress for the crops. Water deficit is the most important environmental factor
19 limiting photosynthesis, plant growth and production in the Mediterranean climate
20 (Chaves et al., 2002). Moreover, several experiments have revealed that the plant
21 production response to elevated CO₂ can be affected significantly by soil water
22 availability (Owensby et al., 1999; Körner, 2000; Volk et al., 2000).

23

1 The interaction between CO₂ concentration and the climate parameters (temperature,
2 precipitation, relative humidity, etc.) makes studies combining different growth
3 conditions fundamental to evaluation of the possible effects of future climatic
4 conditions. The objective of this review is to summarize the current knowledge
5 concerning the alfalfa response to elevated CO₂, temperature and drought conditions in
6 order to identify the target processes that condition photosynthesis behaviour, N₂
7 biological fixation and consequently plant growth under predicted climate change
8 conditions. This information might be applied to define the different factors
9 conditioning plant adaptation to varying growth conditions in order to design new
10 strategies and assign priorities in future breeding programs by providing important
11 information for establishing selection criteria.

12

13 **II. Nitrogen biological fixation is stimulated by increasing CO₂**

14 The increase in crop productivity under elevated CO₂ as a consequence of the higher
15 photosynthetic rates, is dependent on other essential elements, and low productivity
16 resulting from nutrient limitations is not usually remedied by growth in higher
17 atmospheric CO₂ (Pritchard and Amthor, 2005). In several cases, N availability is a
18 critical factor, limiting plant growth or increasing the response to elevated CO₂.
19 Although the influence of CO₂ on plant growth and photosynthetic activity has been
20 studied extensively (Long et al. 2004; Nowak et al. 2004; Ainsworth and Long 2005;
21 Erice et al. 2006b; Aranjuelo et al. 2005ab; 2008; 2009; Sanz-Sáez et al. 2010), less
22 attention has been given to the role of nodule activity in plant performance under
23 elevated CO₂. Nodule activity depends on photosynthates supplied by the plant, which
24 are used by the nitrogenase enzyme as a source of energy and reducing power to fix N₂

1 (Larrainzar et al., 2009; Aranjuelo et al. 2011). This cycle coupling causes nitrogenase
2 activity in plants to be regulated by photosynthesis (carbon supply), N availability (N
3 source strength) and N demand (N sink strength) (Aranjuelo et al., 2007). Similarly, the
4 products of N₂ fixation are exported throughout the plant via the xylem to other organs
5 where N is required, for example, protein and or osmoregulant synthesis (Ladrera et al.,
6 2007; Aranjuelo et al. 2011). This coupling results in the regulation of nitrogenase
7 activity in plants by photosynthesis (carbon supply), nitrogen availability (N source
8 strength), and N demand (N sink strength). This growth enhancement associated with
9 the exposure to elevated CO₂ may lead to a higher N demand, so it is expected that the
10 plant response to CO₂ may be limited by N availability (Hartwig, 1998; West et al.,
11 2005). In this context, legumes are particularly interesting due to their symbiotic
12 relationship with N₂-fixing bacteria, which provides them with N autonomy. That is
13 why, under the N limitation situations that usually occur in nature, growth under
14 elevated CO₂ is more stimulated in legumes than in non-legumes so long as the
15 phosphate availability is high enough (Hebeisen et al., 1997; Ainsworth and Rogers,
16 2007). Many studies have confirmed that most N₂-fixing legumes increase their level of
17 N₂ fixation per plant under elevated CO₂ conditions (Hartwig, 1998; Rogers et al.,
18 2006). This phenomenon is possible because of the higher growth rate under elevated
19 CO₂. Furthermore, if current photosynthesis determines nitrogenase activity, then an
20 increase or decrease in the atmospheric CO₂ concentration would also cause an
21 immediate increase or decrease in nitrogenase activity (Hartwig, 1998). Most authors
22 agree on the fact that exposure of N₂ fixative plants to elevated CO₂ will stimulate
23 symbiotic fixation through a greater supply of carbohydrates to the nodules.

24

1
2 **III. Initial CO₂ stimulus on photosynthesis and N₂ fixation is followed by a down-**
3 **regulation (acclimation)**

4
5 As mentioned above under optimal growth conditions, elevated CO₂ concentration will
6 favour the carboxylation over oxygenation carried out by rubisco, with consequent
7 gains in biomass and yield. Nevertheless, frequently this response to CO₂ is not
8 maintained over the long term and photosynthesis declines (Aranjuelo et al., 2005;
9 2009a; Erice et al., 2006a; Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007). This process, often referred as
10 “down-regulation” (Saralabai et al., 1997), may be due to two main causes: 1) Stomatal
11 limitations like those resulting from lower leaf conductance at elevated CO₂
12 concentration (Sánchez-Díaz et al., 2004); or 2) Metabolic limitation, usually
13 attributable to a reduced carboxylation activity efficiency (Aranjuelo et al., 2005; Erice
14 et al., 2006b) and/or a reduced amount of rubisco at elevated CO₂ (Urban et al., 2003;
15 Aranjuelo et al., 2005).

16
17 One of the parameters that could influence photosynthetic down-regulation is the
18 modification of C sink-source status (Urban et al., 2003). Growth responses to elevated
19 CO₂ depend on the ability of plants to develop new sinks or expand the existing ones
20 (Ceulemans, 1997; Aranjuelo et al., 2009a). In this sense, many studies suggest that
21 down-regulation is the consequence of an insufficient C sink plant capacity (Ainsworth
22 et al., 2004; Morgan et al., 2001; Erice et al., 2006a) as has been revealed in recent
23 studies analysing C isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) (Aranjuelo et al., 2008). At the whole-
24 plant level this results when photosynthesis exceeds the capacity of sink organs to
25 utilize photosynthate (Lewis *et al.*, 2002; Aranjuelo *et al.*, 2009a). The enhancement of

1 non-structural carbohydrates and the inhibition of the expression of genes that encode
2 for different proteins belonging to the photosynthetic apparatus are both suppressed
3 through possible increases in hexose cycling within the leaf, resulting in decreased
4 photosynthetic capacity and a notable decline in the amount of rubisco (Drake et al.,
5 1997; Moore et al., 1999) and in photosynthetic capacity. From this point of view, the
6 reduction in photosynthetic rates would be conditioned by a plant's ability to develop
7 new sinks (e.g. new vegetative or reproductive structures, enhanced respiratory rates) or
8 to expand the storage capacity or growth rate of existing sinks (Lewis et al. 2002;
9 Aranjuelo et al., 2009ab). Consequently, when plants exposed to elevated CO₂ have
10 limitations in increasing C sink strength, plants decrease their photosynthetic activity to
11 balance C source activity and sink capacity (Thomas and Strain, 1991).

12

13 According to some authors (Serraj et al., 1998; Lüscher et al., 2000; Rogers et al.,
14 2006), since legumes are capable of fixing atmospheric N₂, they will have an advantage
15 in plant growth over non-N₂-fixing plants. Moreover, these plants have an extra sink for
16 additional C to be transferred to nodules, thus enhancing N₂ fixation (Udvardi and Day,
17 1997), which avoids leaf carbohydrate accumulation and therefore acclimation of
18 photosynthesis (Erice et al., 2006b). Root nodules are strong sinks for carbohydrate
19 (Walsh et al., 1987), in soybean the respiratory rate of a nodulated system may be an
20 order of magnitude greater than for an equivalent non-nodulated root system (Vessey et
21 al., 1988). This could be the reason why non-nodulated soybean plants undergo
22 photosynthetic acclimation under elevated CO₂, whereas nodulated plants do not show
23 the decrease in the CO₂ assimilation rate (Ainsworth et al., 2004).

24

1 However, some studies suggest that the increase in photosynthates is not reflected by an
2 improvement of nodule activity. According to this, N₂ fixation is regulated by a N
3 feedback mechanism related to increased N compounds in the vascular tissue that down-
4 regulates or prevents nodulation and nodule growth, thus leading to a decreased N₂
5 fixation (Hartwig et al., 1994; Almeida et al., 2000). In a similar way to the imbalance
6 between leaf C sources and sinks, a consequence of the decrease in leaf N and N-
7 transporting solutes observed in exclusively N₂ fixing alfalfa plants exposed to high
8 CO₂ is an accumulation of products that are associated with N₂ fixation in nodules,
9 which in turn leads to inhibition of nitrogenase activity in the bacteroids (Aranjuelo et
10 al., 2008; 2009a) (Figure 1).

11 
12

13 This fact could explain why strictly N₂ fixing alfalfa plants may undergo photosynthetic
14 acclimation (Aranjuelo et al., 2005; Erice et al., 2006a and 2006b). A recent study
15 (Sanz-Sáez et al., 2010) deals with a hypothesis concerning putative nodule activity
16 limitation in elevated CO₂ conditions and its implication in the decrease in
17 photosynthetic efficiency. One characteristic of plants grown under elevated CO₂
18 conditions is the increase in the C/N ratio in plant tissues (Rogers et al., 1999; Hom,
19 2002; Torbert et al., 2004), which may indicate the inability to increase biological N₂
20 fixation or mineral N uptake. In this study it has been demonstrated that the addition of
21 increased doses of mineral N (NH₄NO₃) initiates, finally, the disappearance of
22 photosynthetic acclimation as the C/N ratio is recovered in plant tissues.

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24 **IV. Alfalfa management alters N₂ fixation and the response to CO₂**

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Alfalfa, as forage crop, is submitted to periodic cutting for animal breeding. During vegetative growth, shoots are the source organs providing photosynthates to young developing shoots, roots and nodules, which are the main C sink organs. However total or partial removal of the photosynthetic area requires the mobilization of C and N reserves from roots to shoots (Avice et al., 2003), which means an inversion between source and sink organs due to the disappearance of aerial source organs and the formation of new sinks with developing shoots.

A previous study conducted by Ainsworth et al. (2004) in soybean mutants confirmed that the cutting-regrowth cycle affects on photosynthetic acclimation are consistent with the source-sink balance hypothesis of photosynthetic down-regulation. Another study carried out in alfalfa plants exposed to elevated CO₂ (Erice et al., 2006b) where the growth effect on photosynthetic performance was studied showed that at the end of the vegetative pre-cut growth period, nodulated alfalfa plants showed photosynthetic down-regulation measured as net photosynthesis or as rubisco reduction and/or inactivation. In contrast, no changes in net photosynthesis were obtained during regrowth after cutting (Erice et al., 2006b) suggesting that photosynthetic down-regulation disappeared during regrowth. Plants have a high root/shoot ratio after cutting, and the presumed high respiration activity can function as a strong sink for photosynthates produced in the new growing shoots. In such a situation, sugar accumulation in the leaves, the negative feedback control of photosynthesis (Drake et al., 1997; Moore et al., 1999), and therefore down-regulation, is avoided and enhanced yield under elevated CO₂ may take place.

1 Although aboveground organs cutting will might improve photosynthetic performance,
2 shoot cutting also will have a important implications in nodule performance. Once shoot
3 cutting has been undertaken, removing the photosynthetic tissues, mineral N uptake
4 (Kim et al., 1991) and N₂ fixation in nodules are dramatically reduced (Davidson et al.,
5 1990; Kim et al., 1993). Then, C supply to the roots is drastically reduced (Moustafa et
6 al., 1969) while N₂ fixation is highly dependent on a continuous supply of
7 photosynthates from the shoots and from the degradation of starch stored in roots to
8 support nodule function (Ta et al., 1987; Ryle et al., 1986). In this situation, after shoots
9 are cut, the temporary cessation of plant growth and the formation of new nodules as
10 well as changes in their structure and function are triggered during the first days of
11 regrowth (Wilson et al., 1942; Butler et al., 1959; Boucaud and Bigot, 1989; Ta et al.,
12 1990).

13
14 Perennial legumes lose their nodules after the grazing or harvesting of shoots (Wilson,
15 1942; Butler et al., 1959; Whiteman, 1970) and new nodules are formed during the
16 regrowth phase (Vance et al., 1979). The depletion of nodular tissue is concomitant with
17 a fall of up to 88% in N₂ fixation, 24 h after cutting (Vance et al., 1979). Numerous
18 reports have demonstrated a rapid decline of nodule nitrogenase activity following shoot
19 removal in alfalfa (Phillips et al., 1983; Macdowall, 1983; Ta et al., 1990) and in other
20 forage legumes (Ryle et al., 1985; Gordon and Kessler, 1990).

21
22 Harvesting shoots also induces a rapid increase in nodule protease activity, with marked
23 reductions in nodule soluble protein concentration including leghemoglobin, and by
24 disorganization and bacteroid loss in nodule cortical cells. However, 13 days after

1 cutting, protease activity decreases and leads to increases in the soluble protein content
2 as well as the nitrogenase activity (Vance et al., 1979), which remains low until day 10
3 of regrowth (Kim et al., 1993).

4

5 After harvesting, infected cells containing bacteroids degenerate while the apical
6 meristem, the vascular bundles and the infection threads of the nodules remain intact. In
7 some forage legumes such as clover, *Desmodium* or *Phaseolus*, the loss of nodules that
8 is induced by harvesting or grazing requires the reinfection of roots for new nodule to
9 form with no recovery from senescence occurring. In contrast to this observation, alfalfa
10 has the capacity to recover its nodules from the degenerated post-harvest status. This
11 adaptive trait of alfalfa may explain why alfalfa has a rapid regrowth potential as
12 compared to many other forage legumes (Vance et al., 1979).

13

14 **V. The nitrogen reserves from taproots are key organic nutrients for the regrowth** 15 **of alfalfa**

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17 As mentioned above, the defoliation of the aerial parts impacts drastically on
18 photosynthesis capacity and on the N acquisition processes by the large decrease of the
19 nitrogenase activity as well as the decline of absorption of mineral N forms from the
20 soil (Kim et al., 1991, 1993; Ourry et al., 1994). Therefore, the production of new
21 shoots during the first days following cutting requires utilization of reduced C and N
22 compounds, the availability of organic reserves being a critical factor in this phase of
23 the growth.

24

1 The fast shoot regrowth requires mobilization of organic C and N reserves previously
2 accumulated in perennial tissues or specific storage organs (Volenec et al., 1996; Ourry
3 et al., 2001). In leguminous forages like alfalfa or white clover it has been demonstrated
4 that the spring shoot growth, as well as the shoot regrowth after mechanical cutting or
5 pasturing, strongly depends on root N reserves (Hendershot and Volenec, 1993ab;
6 Avice et al., 1996ab; Barber et al., 1996). It is well known that the endogenous N
7 reserves, mainly amino acids and proteins, are largely used for the regrowth of the aerial
8 parts, whereas the C reserves are mainly used for sustaining the respiratory metabolism
9 in the belowground organs (roots and nodules) (Ta et al., 1990; Avice et al., 1996b).

10

11 Because defoliation triggers a reduction in N₂ fixation and mineral N assimilation, the
12 mobilization of endogenous N reserves is crucial to meet the N requirements of the
13 aerial buds during the first days following cutting. Among the different forms of soluble
14 N compounds, amino acids and proteins represent the greatest fractions in the main
15 organ of storage of the alfalfa, i.e. the taproot. In addition, specific proteins called
16 vegetative storage proteins (VSPs) have been identified in taproots of alfalfa, and are
17 characterized by their large accumulation during the autumn period (Staswick, 1994;
18 Volenec et al., 1996; Ourry et al., 2001; Bewley, 2002). These VSPs are four
19 polypeptides of 57, 32, 19 and 15 kDa (Hendershot and Volenec, 1993ab; Gana et al.,
20 1998) that can represent up to 40% of the total soluble proteins in the taproot.

21

22 These proteins are rapidly degraded when the shoot growth in spring resumes, or after
23 practising the cut of the aerial parts. For instance, during the 10 first days of regrowth
24 after cutting, the protein concentration in taproot declines by 40% while the VSPs are

1 preferably degraded, presenting a rate of mobilization from 60% to 80%, and are largely
2 used to provide N (and C) to the regrowing shoots (Hendershot and Volenec, 1993b;
3 Avice et al., 1996a; Corre et al., 1996; Gana et al., 1998) (Figure 2).

4

Figure 2

6 In leguminous forages like alfalfa or white clover, several studies in controlled
7 environments and field conditions have demonstrated that the availability of N reserves,
8 and particularly the concentration in VSPs, is closely related to shoot growth potential
9 in both legumes (Ourry et al., 1994; Volenec et al., 1996; Avice et al., 1997; Goulas
10 2001; Justes et al., 2002). Alfalfa plants, which possess the highest protein concentration
11 and level of VSP accumulation, consequently exhibit the fastest growth of the buds, the
12 greatest rate of expansion leaf area index and the highest shoot production in spring
13 (Justes et al., 2002).

15 It is well established that the accumulation of VSPs is mediated by phytohormones.
16 Methyl jasmonate induces accumulation of these protein reserves (1) by increasing the
17 expression of genes of the VSPs in the short term (Staswick, 1994), and, (2) by altering
18 the N distribution through modification of the relationship between source and sink
19 organs in the long term (Meuriot et al., 2003). In addition, abscisic acid (ABA), which
20 is also associated with some physiological responses induced by short photoperiods (Li
21 et al., 2003), led to a reduction in mineral N absorption and enhancement of N
22 allocation towards the roots. As a result, ABA promotes the accumulation of N reserves
23 in taproots, through large increases in the root biomass and the concentration of VSPs
24 (Avice et al., 2003). It is interesting to relate these observations with the effects of water

1 stress on N management in alfalfa. Indeed, in strictly N₂ fixing alfalfa plants subjected
2 to drought (an abiotic stress leading to the synthesis of ABA), it has been observed that
3 water stress reduced the shoot biomass production by 30%, but it increased the VSP
4 concentration by 78% (Erice et al., 2007). Thus, it could be hypothesized that in alfalfa
5 submitted to water deficit, the induction of VSP may be mediated by ABA. This
6 increase in N reserves in the perennial organs (taproot), especially in the form of VSPs,
7 can be an important adaptive trait towards tolerance of low water availability
8 conditions, as they often occur in Mediterranean climates. Due to the close relationship
9 between the availability of protein reserves and shoot growth potential, this capacity to
10 accumulate and salvage N compounds in taproots under drought conditions would allow
11 the plants to grow in better conditions in the following cycle of cut/regrowth or when
12 the water status becomes more favourable (Erice et al., 2007).

13

14 The level of accumulation of N reserves in the taproot can also depend on the strains of
15 *Sinorhizobium meliloti* with which the plant establishes an efficient symbiosis to fix N₂.
16 In this respect, it has been demonstrated recently that the interaction between different
17 strains from *S. meliloti* and alfalfa of Canadian origin can alter the plant tolerance to
18 cold, as well as the plant response to high CO₂ (Bertrand et al., 2007). For that reason,
19 one of the factors to consider in the tolerance of alfalfa to future climatic conditions
20 based on the predictions of the IPCC (IPCC, 2007), could be the selection of more
21 efficient *S. meliloti*/alfalfa genotype pairs. A study carried out with a genotype of
22 Mediterranean alfalfa has shown that production not only depends on the alfalfa
23 genotype and its efficiency but also on the strain of *S. meliloti*, which can condition the
24 response of the symbiosis to abiotic factors like the temperature or the atmospheric

1 concentration of CO₂, two parameters that are very susceptible to predicted climate
2 changes.

3

4 **VI. Utility of C and N isotopes in Climate Change Studies**

5

6 The need to develop methods to quantify plant responsiveness to elevated CO₂ in
7 relatively small-scale and short-term experiments presents both challenges and
8 opportunities for plant research (Pataki et al., 2003; Bowling et al., 2008).
9 Measurements of the abundance of various C and N isotopes in samples have been used
10 as unique tools that integrate physical and physiological processes over space and time
11 (Avice et al., 1996b; Aranjuelo et al., 2008; 2009b). Isotope techniques (used in
12 combination with gas exchange and other techniques) stand out prominently among the
13 few tools available to partition photosynthesis and respiration, and to quantify allocation
14 and partitioning (Deléens et al., 1994; Ciais et al., 1995; Yakir and Sternberg 2000;
15 Bowling et al., 2008). Plants grown in environments with modified isotopic
16 composition incorporate the tracer in C/N-containing compounds of the plant (Avice et
17 al., 1996b; Nogués et al., 2004) providing essential information about the C and N sinks
18 to which the recently fixed C/N is delivered. Isotopes can then be used to trace the fate
19 of C and N newly incorporated into the plant under elevated CO₂ conditions and to
20 calculate the residence time of C and N in various pools (Pataki et al., 2003; Aranjuelo
21 et al., 2009b). As it has been explained before, a major adaptive mechanism to deal with
22 in the near future is to maintain C sink strength under increasing CO₂ conditions. So the
23 identification of plant processes conditioning C sink will be a key point in future plant
24 breeding programmes. The application of C and N stable isotopes on this topic have

1 been previously described (Avice et al., 1996b; Aranjuelo et al., 2008; 2009b; Molero et
2 al., 2011). In this sense, the application of $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ labelling in a study conducted in slow
3 growing plants (Aranjuelo et al., 2009b) revealed that the C sink/source imbalance was
4 conditioned by plant growth, the leaf C residence time and a by the capacity to deliver
5 recently fixed C to respiration. Despite the relevance of C loss through respiration, little
6 attention has been given to this topic in plants (Avice et al., 1996b; Aranjuelo et al.,
7 2011). Previous studies conducted by Aranjuelo et al. (2009) under elevated CO_2
8 conditions revealed that those plants, invested an important amount of recently
9 assimilated C in respiration processes. Furthermore, the same study highlighted that the
10 “ability” to respire recently assimilated C may contribute towards preventing
11 carbohydrate build-up and consequently to the avoidance of photosynthetic acclimation.
12 According to this study, alfalfa plants exposed to growth conditions (varying CO_2 ,
13 temperature, water availability, etc.) where C allocation and respiration ability are
14 limited should be more susceptible to photosynthetic acclimation (Figure 3) than alfalfa
15 plants grown in environments that enable the allocation of C away from leaves (shoots
16 and roots) and/or respiration of the recently fixed C.

17  Figure 3
18

19 Similarly, a previous study (Aranjuelo et al., 2008) where exclusively N_2 fixing alfalfa
20 plants were exposed to elevated CO_2 conditions (with a modified isotopic composition)
21 revealed that, after two weeks of exposure to CO_2 labelling, all the C present in the total
22 organic matter was derived from C fixed during the labelling period. However, the total
23 renewal of C did not contribute towards avoidance of a build-up carbohydrate that
24 caused photosynthetic down-regulation. Furthermore, this study revealed that larger C

1 sink associated to the presence of nodules (Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007) in plants
2 grown at elevated CO₂ did not contribute towards overcoming photosynthetic
3 acclimation.

4
5 Studies conducted with N isotopes ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) have provided important information about
6 their utility as integrative parameters of N metabolism (Pataki et al., 2003; Desclos et
7 al., 2009). The use of methods of double ¹³C and ¹⁵N labelling in alfalfa plants during
8 regrowth, enabled the characterization of C and N management (Avice et al., 1996b).
9 The authors demonstrated that 8 days after cutting, 80% of the N and only 6% of the C
10 of the new shoots were mobilized from the root and the crown, whereas around 40% of
11 the C was used for the root respiratory production of energy (Avice et al., 1996b). Such
12 information is of high relevancy in elevated CO₂ studies. As it was mentioned before, in
13 addition to the C balance, N management is a target factor conditioning plant
14 performance under elevated CO₂, especially in N₂ fixing plants. In this sense, a recent
15 study (Molero et al., 2011) with conducted in exclusively N₂ fixing alfalfa plants
16 labelled with ¹²C and ¹⁵N₂ revealed key information concerning the C and N exchange
17 between leaves and nodules. The isotopic enrichment of ¹⁵N in amino acids was greater
18 for leaves than for nodules suggesting that part of the fixed N₂ was recruited to protein
19 synthesis in the nodule or is in the form of NH₃ (Molero et al., 2011). This study also
20 allowed the identification of the distribution of ¹²C and ¹⁵N₂ among amino acids and
21 between the plant and the symbiont in different amino acid metabolic pathways.
22 Furthermore, for the first time, the ¹²C and ¹⁵N₂ labelling revealed that GABA and
23 glycine C-transporting aminoacids from the leaves to the nodules.

24

1 VII. Conclusions and perspectives

2

3 Initial CO₂ stimulus on photosynthesis through higher supply of carbohydrates to the
4 nodules would also cause an immediate increase in nitrogenase activity. Nevertheless,
5 frequently this response to CO₂ is not maintained at the long-term and photosynthesis
6 declines. Decreased net photosynthesis is related to leaf carbohydrate accumulation
7 consequence of an insufficient sink plant capacity. The coupled C and N cycling makes
8 nitrogenase activity to be regulated by photosynthesis, N availability and N demand.
9 Despite N₂ fixing plants have an extra sink for additional C in alfalfa photosynthates
10 increase under elevated CO₂ is not reflected by the improvement of nodule activity. An
11 accumulation of products associated with the N₂ fixation in the nodules was observed
12 leading to the inhibition of nitrogenase activity in the bacteroids. Alfalfa forage
13 management of cutting-regrowth removing the shoots alters the source-sink status of the
14 plants during regrowth. In this phase of plant development enhanced yield under
15 elevated CO₂ may take place. Cutting provokes the cessation of nodule formation as
16 well as their structure and function remaining low until day 10 of regrowth. Plant
17 production and response to CO₂ is dependant on the mobilization of the organic C and
18 N reserves (mainly VSP) previously accumulated in taproots. In alfalfa submitted to
19 water deficit the strong induction of VSP, possibly mediated by ABA, can be an
20 important adaptive trait to tolerate drought conditions allowing plants to grow in better
21 conditions in the following cutting-regrowth cycle. In this sense the selection of more
22 efficient *S. meliloti* strains may affect alfalfa tolerance to future climatic conditions
23 determining the response to abiotic factors like the temperature or the atmospheric CO₂
24 concentration. The further clarification of C and N management between leaves and

1 nodules is a key topic in Climate Change studies. In this sense, stable isotopes might
2 contribute to clarify the C and N management of plants and its implications in
3 photosynthetic and nodule activity (in N₂ fixing plants) and consequently in plant
4 performance. Although in recent years the use of stable isotopes in studies related to
5 Climate Change effects in plants has increased (specially C stable isotopes), the
6 appropriateness of this type of study reveals the need to strengthen the use of stable
7 isotopes as a methodological tool.

8

9 **VIII. References**

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