



THE UNIVERSITY *of* EDINBURGH

Edinburgh Research Explorer

Physiological controls of the isotopic time lag between leaf assimilation and soil CO₂ efflux

Citation for published version:

Salmon, Y, Barnard, RL & Buchmann, N 2014, 'Physiological controls of the isotopic time lag between leaf assimilation and soil CO₂ efflux', *Functional Plant Biology*. <https://doi.org/10.1071/FP13212>

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1071/FP13212](https://doi.org/10.1071/FP13212)

Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Published In:

Functional Plant Biology

Publisher Rights Statement:

© CSIRO PUBLISHING 2014

General rights

Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Edinburgh Research Explorer is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

The University of Edinburgh has made every reasonable effort to ensure that Edinburgh Research Explorer content complies with UK legislation. If you believe that the public display of this file breaches copyright please contact openaccess@ed.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.



**Title: Physiological controls of the isotopic time lag between leaf assimilation and soil
CO₂ efflux**

Running title: Physiological controls of C transfer belowground

Yann Salmon^{1,2,3*}, Romain L. Barnard^{1,4}, Nina Buchmann¹

¹ Institute of Agricultural Sciences, ETH Zurich, 8092 Zurich, Switzerland

² Institute of Evolutionary Biology and Environmental Studies, University of Zurich, 8057
Zurich, Switzerland

³ present address: Global Change Institute, The University of Edinburgh, Crew Building, The
King's Buildings, West Mains Road, Edinburgh EH9 3JF, UK

⁴ present address: INRA, UMR1347 Agroécologie, 17 rue Sully, BP 86510, Dijon, France

* Corresponding author

Date received: _____

Word count: 5567

Introduction: 587, Materials and Methods: 2260, Results: 683, Discussion and conclusion:
1997, and Acknowledgements: 40. Figures: 4, Tables: 2

Correspondence: Yann Salmon

Phone: +44 (0) 131 651 7034

Fax: +44 (0) 131 662 0478

Email: yann.salmon@ed.ac.uk

Summary for table of contents

The dynamics of recently-assimilated carbon are a key driver of the carbon budget of terrestrial ecosystems and of their response to global change. Our study shows that belowground transfer of photosynthates is related to plant physiological controls, which, unlike environmental controls, are still poorly characterized. Our study contributes to improve the understanding of the dynamics of carbon allocation and isotopic signatures in terrestrial ecosystems.

Abstract

Environmental factors and physiological controls on photosynthesis influence the carbon isotopic signature of ecosystem respiration. Many ecosystem studies have used stable carbon isotopes to investigate environmental controls on plant carbon transfer from above- to belowground. However, a clear understanding of the internal mechanisms underlying time-lagged responses of carbon isotopic signatures in ecosystem respiration to environmental changes is still lacking. This study addressed plant physiological controls on the transfer time of recently assimilated carbon from assimilation to respiration. We produced a set of six wheat plants with varying physiological characteristics, by growing them under a wide range of nitrogen supply and soil water content levels under standardized conditions. The plants were pulse-labelled with ^{13}C - CO_2 , and the isotopic signature of CO_2 respired in the dark by plants and soil was monitored continuously over two days. Stomatal conductance (g_s) was strongly related to the rate of transfer of recently assimilated carbon belowground. The higher g_s , the faster newly assimilated carbon was allocated belowground and the faster it was respired in the soil. Our results suggest that carbon sink strength of plant tissues may be a major driver of transfer velocity of recently assimilated carbon to plant respiratory tissues and soil respiration.

48 **Keywords**

49 Respiration, transpiration, stable carbon isotopes, carbon transfer, ^{13}C , photosynthates

50

51

Introduction

Improving our understanding of the fate of recently assimilated carbon (C), the variability of its allocation to above- and belowground ecosystem compartments, as well as its respiratory losses to the atmosphere is essential to estimate and model the sensitivity of the global terrestrial C budget under changing environmental conditions (Litton *et al.* 2007). In particular, determining the velocity and the quantity of recently assimilated C allocated to different ecosystem components is a crucial step to improve our understanding of C dynamics in terrestrial ecosystems (Kuzyakov and Gavrichkova 2010).

Using stable isotopes as tracers allows one to follow photosynthates from source organs to CO₂ respired by different organisms in terrestrial ecosystems (Dawson *et al.* 2002; Brüggemann *et al.* 2011; Epron *et al.* 2012). Under natural conditions, changes in photosynthetic discrimination (Δ) imprint the carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of new photoassimilates, as leaf physiology responds to environmental conditions (Farquhar *et al.* 1989), which can then be tracked in the plant until these photoassimilates are respired. The time lag between changes in Δ and associated changes in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of respired CO₂, later referred to as isotopic time lag, has often been used to understand the impact of environmental variables on the C cycle (see reviews by Kuzyakov and Gavrichkova 2010; Mencuccini and Hölttä 2010; Brüggemann *et al.* 2011). However, recent studies have challenged the simplicity of these time-lagged responses, by shedding light on diel variations of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in respired CO₂, post-photosynthetic and respiration fractionation, damping of the ^{13}C signal as it is transferred belowground, all of which contributing to blur the time lag from assimilation to respiration (Gessler *et al.* 2008; Kodama *et al.* 2008; Werner and Gessler 2011). It has become increasingly clear in the last decade that investigating the isotopic time lag responses

to external, i.e., environmental drivers should not neglect the internal drivers, i.e. plant physiology.

Plant biochemistry and physiology play a major role in C allocation and particularly in the transfer of C from above to belowground, affecting the isotopic time lag through its three main components: velocity of C transfer, quantity of C transferred to different organs, and substrate identity carrying the isotopic signal (Paul and Foyer 2001; Brüggemann *et al.* 2011). We expect that frequent measurements in plant-soil systems that cover a range of environmental and physiological conditions, but in which day-to-day environmental conditions remain constant, should shed light on the physiological drivers underlying changes in rate of C transfer belowground and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of respired CO_2 .

The present study avoided day-to-day environmental variability to address plant physiological controls on the transfer time of recently assimilated C, from leaf assimilation to above- and belowground respiration. A set of wheat plants with varying physiological characteristics was produced by growing them under a wide range of nitrogen (N) supply and soil water resource levels, two resources known to be of major importance for plant physiological status (Poorter and Nagel 2000), while all other environmental conditions were standardized and kept constant on a day-to-day basis. The plants were pulse-labelled with $^{13}\text{CO}_2$, and the isotopic signatures of CO_2 respired by aboveground biomass (i.e., leaves, leaf sheath and extremely small stem, further referred to as shoot; $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$) and by soil ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$) were monitored over two days in the dark. The release of ^{13}C label by shoot and soil respiration was related to plant physiological variables to identify the most relevant physiological drivers of short-term rate of C transfer belowground. We hypothesized that the isotopic time lag would be shorter in plants with higher photosynthetic activity and higher transpiration rates.

Material and methods

Experimental setup

Wheat plants (*Triticum aestivum* L.) were grown under different N and soil water resource levels, in order to create plants covering a wide physiological status range. Square pots (18x18x17 cm height) were filled with a 2:1 mixture of vermiculite and sieved (1 cm mesh) clay loam soil (28.5% organic matter, pH 6.8, texture of inorganic matter: 30% clay, 41.8% silt, 28.2% sand). Seeds were germinated on a thin layer of soil. One week after germination, the plantlets were transferred in the pots, following an even pattern (16 individuals per pot, i.e., 658 plants m⁻²) on three quarters of the pot surface. A PVC (polyvinyl chloride) soil collar (7 cm diameter, 5 cm high) for soil CO₂ efflux measurements was inserted 2.5 cm deep in the remaining quarter of the pot surface area.

Plants were grown under controlled conditions in a growth chamber (PGV36, Conviron, Winnipeg, Canada). The pots were rotated weekly to avoid position effects in the chamber. Chamber conditions followed a 14h photoperiod (photosynthetically active radiation, PAR, of ca. 400 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) with day/night temperatures of 20°C/15°C, respectively. CO₂ concentrations were maintained at app. 400 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ and air humidity between 60 and 70%. Leaves of well-watered *Zea mays* L. were used as phytometers to provide an integrated ¹³C signature of background CO₂ in the chambers, since the ¹³C discrimination of C₄ species is relatively constant under non-limiting conditions (Evans *et al.* 1986; Buchmann *et al.* 1996). Phytometer leaf biomass was sampled every two weeks, dried and finely ground prior to isotope ratio analysis (see below). Direct measurements of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of CO₂ in the chamber atmosphere were made on a biweekly basis to validate the range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of background CO₂ obtained from the phytometer results.

Different resource level combinations of N and soil water were applied during two

months. We used a full factorial combination of two fertilization levels (non-fertilized, plants 1, 2 and 3 and fertilized plants 4, 5 and 6) and three soil water content (SWC) levels (47%, plants 1 and 4; 63%, plants 2 and 5; and 71%, plants 3 and 6). N fertilization consisted of a daily input of 20 ml of a 5 g N L⁻¹ solution (N:P:K 1:0.4:0.6, Wuxal[®] Liquid, AgNova Technologies Pty Ltd, Victoria, Australia). Daily weighing and watering of the pots to exactly compensate water losses due to evapotranspiration ensured the accuracy of the water resource level. Two pots were used for each combination of resource levels. After two months of growth, one pot was used for ecophysiological measurements, to assess plant physiological status. The other pot was used for ¹³C labelling of the plant and subsequent measurements of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ in the dark for two days, which were related to the ecophysiological parameters measured in the first pot.

Leaf gas exchange and sampling of unlabelled material

Leaf gas exchange measurements were conducted on plants of the unlabelled pot, which had been subjected to the same N and soil water resource levels as those of the labelled pot. Measurements took place on the same day as the ¹³C labelling. The following variables were measured on five of the youngest fully expanded leaves after 4 h in the light: transpiration rate in the light (E_i), stomatal conductance to H₂O in the light (g_s), and CO₂ assimilation rate (A). In addition, leaf dark respiration rate (r_i) was measured after 5 h in the dark. Measurements were conducted under standardized conditions with a portable photosynthesis system (Li-6400, Li-Cor Inc.), using a dew point generator (Li-610, Li-Cor Inc.) and a CO₂ source to ensure constant relative humidity (60%) and CO₂ concentration (400 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) in the incoming flow of the Li-6400 leaf chamber. A 1000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light source (6400-02B, Li-Cor Inc.) was used for measurements in the light.

Leaf gas exchange measurements were performed at 1000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, close to the

plants' maximum photosynthetic ability, to maximise the expression of physiological differences among plants. Since the other environmental conditions were kept equal, A and g_s at $1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ are expected to be proportional to A and g_s at $400 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (e.g. Ye and Yu, 2008) and can be related to the physiology of plants growing at $400 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

Bulk leaf and root biomass from the unlabelled pots were dried (48h at 60°C), and finely ground prior to determination of C and N concentration and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ analysis. Soil was sampled as described below, and bulk soil C and N concentrations, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures as well as microbial biomass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, C and N were measured (see below).

^{13}C labelling and measurements of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of respired CO_2

A 15 minute ^{13}C - CO_2 pulse was applied to the plants at peak biomass (i.e., 86 days old) at the end of a 10-hour dark period, to avoid mixing labelled and unlabelled recent photoassimilates. Due to growth conditions of constant photoperiod and temperature, stem expansion was not yet initiated in our wheat plants. Consequently, measurements were done at a stage that was similar to stage 5 on the Feekes scale albeit with a higher number of leaves (i.e. most of aboveground biomass consisted of leaves). Pots were labelled and measured $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ one after the other, over an 18-day period during which chamber environmental conditions and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of background CO_2 were constant.

To avoid diffusion of labelled CO_2 into the soil and to maintain above- and belowground compartments separate during subsequent gas measurements, a 1 cm-thick agar gel (at 30°C , to avoid plant damage) was poured around the soil collar prior to labelling. The pot containing the plants was then inserted in a custom-built transparent air-tight PVC main chamber (29 cm diameter, 72 cm high), equipped with a fan to ensure good air mixing and a septum for gas sampling. A custom-built 0.25 L polyethylene soil chamber was fitted air-tight on the soil collar, inside the main chamber (see detailed description of setup in

supplementary material). The main chamber and the soil chamber were both connected independently online to an IRMS via a custom-built setup, enabling measurements of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ every 26 minutes, and to an infra-red gas analyzer (Li-840, Li-Cor Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA), measuring CO_2 concentrations continuously. Because the agar gel prohibited soil CO_2 to diffuse into the main chamber, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ was measured directly.

Plant aboveground biomass was labelled by dissolving 10.48 mg of 99% pure ^{13}C - Na_2CO_3 in the chamber, which amounted to $500 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ of ^{13}C - CO_2 in the chamber headspace. The labelled carbonate was placed in a cup inside the chamber, and sulphuric acid was injected in excess into the cup through a septum. To ensure photosynthetic uptake of the ^{13}C label, photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) of app. $400 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ was maintained inside the chamber during labelling, using a greenhouse lamp positioned outside the chamber. Chamber temperature was monitored, ensuring heating of the chamber due to the lamp was negligible. The effectiveness of the uptake of labelled CO_2 was controlled by monitoring CO_2 concentration inside the chamber. After 15 minutes, the chamber was opened and flushed with outside air for five minutes. Before the online $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurements started, the chamber was closed and flushed with CO_2 -free synthetic air until all CO_2 was removed. To avoid any artefact due to potential contamination of soil efflux CO_2 by enriched ^{13}C - CO_2 during the labelling, we considered only gas measurements performed at least 2h after the pulse.

To avoid re-assimilation of respired label, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ were monitored online in the dark for two days. Air humidity was also monitored to make sure it remained stable.

After two days of monitoring, soil was sampled (5cm diameter core over the entire pot depth), sieved (2mm mesh) and split into two subsamples. One subsample was dried (48h at 60°C) and used for bulk soil analyses of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (see below) and total C and N concentrations after manually removing the roots. The second subsample was kept at 4°C and used for

determination of microbial biomass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, C and N (see below). Roots were collected by wet sieving of the soil remaining in the pot after coring. Leaves were cut 1 cm above the root crown. Leaf, root and soil (after removal of roots) samples were dried (60°C for 48h) and finely ground prior to isotope ratio analysis (see below).

C, N and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in soil microbial biomass

C, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and N of soil microbial biomass were determined by fumigation-extraction. From each sieved soil sample, an approximately 10 g subsample was fumigated for 24h with chloroform vapour before extraction, while another approximately 10 g subsample was extracted without fumigation. Soil was vigorously shaken for 30 minutes in a K_2SO_4 extraction solution (0.5M for microbial biomass, 0.03M for isotope ratio analysis). The extracts were then filtered and kept frozen until total organic C and N analysis (TOC analyser DIMA TOC-100, Dimatec, Essen, Germany) or lyophilized before isotope ratio analysis (see below). Microbial biomass C was calculated as [(total C in fumigated soil) - (total C in non-fumigated soil)] / 0.45, and microbial biomass N was calculated as [(total N in fumigated soil) - (total N in non-fumigated soil)] / 0.54 (Brookes *et al.* 1985; Vance *et al.* 1987; Wu *et al.* 1990). Microbial biomass $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was calculated as

$$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{microbes}} = \frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}_F \times C_F - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{NF}} \times C_{\text{NF}}}{C_F - C_{\text{NF}}} \quad (1)$$

where F and NF stand for fumigated and non-fumigated soil and C for total C. Gravimetric soil water content was determined by comparing the mass of 10 g of soil before and after drying at 105°C.

Isotope ratio mass spectrometry measurements

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of gas samples was measured with a modified Gasbench II periphery (Finnigan MAT, Bremen, Germany) equipped with a custom-built cold trap coupled to the

IRMS (Delta^{plus}XP, Finnigan MAT). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in bulk leaf, root and soil as well as in microbial biomass extracts were measured with an elemental analyser (Flash EA 1112 Series, Thermo Italy, Rhodano, Italy) coupled to an IRMS (Delta^{plus}XP). The long-term precision (~1.5 years) of the quality control standard (caffeine) was 0.09‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Isotopic values are expressed in delta notation (‰), as the sample isotope ratio R_{sample} ($^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$) relative to that of

the international standard R_{standard} (Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite, V-PDB):
$$\delta = \frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1$$

$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were expressed as atom% to estimate the total amount of ^{13}C added by pulse-labelling as follows:

$$\text{atom}\% = \frac{0.0111802 \times \left(\frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}}{1000} + 1 \right)}{1 + 0.0111802 \times \left(\frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}}{1000} + 1 \right)} \quad (2)$$

where 0.0111802 is the standard value for the C isotope ratio of V-PDB.

Excess ^{13}C was calculated in plant, soil CO_2 efflux and soil microbial biomass to take into account differences in plant biomass between resource levels and consequently the possible differences in assimilation of labelled C during the $^{13}\text{C}\text{-CO}_2$ pulse. Excess ^{13}C in the plant (either excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{root}}$ or excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{shoot}}$, depending on the tissue considered) was calculated as follows:

$$\text{excess } ^{13}\text{C}_{\text{plant}} = (\text{atom}\%_s - \text{atom}\%_b) \times B \times \frac{\text{C}\%}{100} \times \frac{1}{M_C} \quad (3)$$

where $\text{atom}\%_s$ and $\text{atom}\%_b$ are sample and background (measured on the unlabelled sample) atom% of the plant tissue, respectively. B is the dry mass (mg m^{-2}), C% is C concentration and M_C is the molar mass of carbon (12 g mol^{-1}).

Excess $^{13}\text{C}_R$ in shoot-respired CO_2 (excess $^{13}\text{C}_{R\text{-shoot}}$) or soil CO_2 efflux (excess $^{13}\text{C}_{R\text{-soil}}$) was calculated as:

$$\text{excess } ^{13}\text{C}_R = (\text{atom}\%_s - \text{atom}\%_b) \times F \quad (4)$$

where F is either shoot respiration rate or soil CO₂ efflux rate (mmol m⁻² h⁻¹). Soil CO₂ efflux rate is expressed relative to soil surface area.

Excess ¹³C in soil microbial biomass (excess ¹³C_{microbes}) was calculated as follows:

$$\text{excess } ^{13}\text{C}_{\text{microbes}} = (\text{atom}\%_s - \text{atom}\%_b) \times \frac{\text{TOC}}{M_C} \quad (5)$$

where TOC is the total organic C content of microbial biomass (μg g⁻¹ dry soil). Since measurements of the natural background δ¹³C of soil microbial biomass were not available, we used the background δ¹³C of root biomass as a proxy for atom%_b of soil microbial C.

The total amount of label released in soil CO₂ efflux was calculated by integrating excess ¹³C_{R-soil} released during the measurement period (from 2 to 48h after the pulse). Since none of the standard regression models (linear, polynomial with a reasonable degree, exponential, etc.) fitted the excess ¹³C_{R-soil} curve, we integrated it numerically using 3-point quadratic interpolation. Note that due to IRMS failure, the gas measurements of pot 6 stopped 24 hours after labelling (i.e., 5 hours after peaking). Excess ¹³C_{R-soil} values after that time were predicted with an exponential decay function that was fitted to the data available for that pot between 19 hours (the time of maximum excess ¹³C_{R-soil}) and 24 hours (IRMS failure) after labelling.

Statistical analyses

Data were analysed using R 2.14.2 (R Development Core Team 2012). The experimental setup was not intended to test the effects of different resource levels, but to identify functional relationships between the isotopic signatures and the ecophysiological variables measured over a set of plants that differed in their physiology. We used the following parameters to characterize changes in excess ¹³C_{R-shoot} and excess ¹³C_{R-soil} over

time: i) initial slope of decreasing excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$, ii) time between labelling and maximum excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$, iii) maximum excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$, iv) total excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ (i.e. its curve area), which provided a more integrative estimate of total amount of label released during the measurement period. The following exponential decay function was used to estimate mean residence time and half-life of the ^{13}C label in shoots:

$$N(t) = N_0 e(-\lambda t) \quad (6)$$

where t is the time after labelling, N_0 the initial excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$, λ the decay constant and $N(t)$ the excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ at time t . Mean residence time (τ) of ^{13}C in shoot-respired CO_2 was then calculated as $[\tau = 1/\lambda]$, and half-life of ^{13}C label in shoots as $[t_{1/2} = \ln(2)/\lambda = \tau \ln(2)]$.

Relationships between these excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R}}$ variables and leaf gas exchange measurements were tested using linear regression models with all six plants.

Results

Physiologically different plants

The different combinations of resource levels of N and soil water resulted in the sought-after wide range of plant physiological characteristics, providing the set of plants necessary for our ^{13}C pulse-chase experiment. Leaf dark respiration rate (r_1) varied by 1000% (Table 1), root:shoot ratios by 850%, transpiration rate in the light (E_l) varied by about 300%, stomatal conductance to H_2O in the light (g_s) varied by about 240%, while CO_2 assimilation rate (A) and intrastomatal : atmospheric partial pressure of CO_2 (c_i/c_a) varied by about 25%. It is to be noted that due to a Li6400 block temperature control malfunction, although E_l and g_s are significantly positively correlated, they are not on a 1:1 relation across plants ($R^2=0.72$, $p=0.033$).

The differences in physiology due to N and soil water resource levels were reflected in plant C and N concentrations as well as their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (Table 1). Leaf, root and soil N

concentrations varied between 2.3 and 7.2%, 1.2 and 3.4% and 0.4 to 0.8%, respectively. Prior to ^{13}C labelling, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of leaves and roots were on average $-27.83\pm 0.54\text{‰}$ and $-27.46\pm 0.42\text{‰}$, respectively (overall mean \pm SE), and the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of bulk soil was on average $-25.33\pm 0.10\text{‰}$.

After labelling, leaf excess ^{13}C showed a 2.4-fold range, while root excess ^{13}C showed a 10-fold range (Table 2). Soil showed little to no labelling, while excess ^{13}C in soil microbial biomass showed a 4.666-fold range (Table 2).

Excess ^{13}C of shoot- and soil-respired CO_2

Pulse-labelling triggered a large initial excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ of up to $11 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, 2h after labelling (Fig. 1a). $t_{1/2}$ ranged from 7.2 to 14.5 hours, and τ ranged from 10.4 to 20.9 hours (Table 2). Excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ decreased continuously during the following two days, however, showing different temporal patterns for the six wheat plants studied. In contrast, excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ values first increased for all plants, and then peaked between the 15th and the 21st hour after labelling (Fig. 1b). At the end of the measurement period, excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ was still positive ($0.85\pm 0.33 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ across all six plants).

Relationships between excess ^{13}C and physiological variables

The initial slope of decreasing excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ with time, a proxy for rate of C transfer belowground (see Discussion), was significantly negatively related to leaf stomatal conductance (Fig. 2a, $R^2=0.72$, $p=0.033$) across all plants. None of the other ecophysiological variables was significantly related with the initial slope of decreasing excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$, although the relationship with E_l ($R^2=0.50$, $p=0.12$) tended to be stronger than with A ($R^2=0.24$, $p=0.32$) or c_i/c_a ($R^2=0.18$, $p=0.40$). Both τ and $t_{1/2}$ were negatively related to r_l ($R^2=0.81$, $p=0.014$), as a higher respiration rate lead to faster loss of labelled C.

The time until maximum excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ values were reached, i.e., the transfer time, decreased significantly with stomatal conductance (Fig. 2b; $R^2=0.76$, $p=0.023$). Although none of the other variables showed a significant relationship with transfer time, again, the relationship with E_l ($R^2=0.49$, $p=0.12$) tended to be stronger than that with A ($R^2=0.08$, $p=0.60$). We found no further significant relations between excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ and any other soil or plant variable.

Maximum excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ was negatively related to pre-labelling root $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value ($R^2=0.91$, $p=0.012$) and soil N concentration ($R^2=0.67$, $p=0.045$, Fig.3a) and positively related to root excess ^{13}C after labelling ($R^2=0.80$, $p=0.039$, Fig. 4a). In addition, maximum excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ tended to be negatively related to root N concentrations ($R^2=0.65$, $p=0.052$, Fig. 3b) and leaf N concentrations ($R^2=0.62$, $p=0.064$). The total amount of label released during the measurement period by soil CO_2 efflux (Fig. 1b) was positively related maximum excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ ($R^2=0.99$, $p<0.001$) and to root excess ^{13}C after labelling ($R^2=0.85$, $p=0.025$, Fig.4b), but negatively related to soil N concentrations ($R^2=0.73$, $p=0.030$, Fig.3c) and pre-labelling root $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ($R^2=0.85$, $p=0.027$). In addition, the total amount of label released tended to be positively related to leaf C concentrations ($R^2=0.55$, $p=0.091$), and negatively related to leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values before labelling ($R^2=0.61$, $p=0.068$), root N concentrations ($R^2=0.64$, $p=0.055$, Fig. 3d) and leaf N concentrations ($R^2=0.64$, $p=0.057$). Soil water content was not significantly related to excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ and excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ parameters (data not shown).

Discussion

Physiological drivers of isotopic time lags

The wide range of growth conditions yielded wheat plants that covered a wide

physiological status range. We found a strong relationship between plant physiological status, and the velocity of newly-assimilated C transfer from leaves to sink organs. In particular, the controls of C transfer appear to strongly involve g_s : the larger g_s , the shorter the time between assimilation and respiration of labelled C. Our plants had not yet produced stems, and their leaves were of similar length, consequently the entire aboveground biomass was photosynthetically active and the distance from above- to belowground was similar for all plants and differences in C transport velocity depended on the time of transport, not on the distance. Thus, larger g_s was associated with faster C transfer from assimilation sites to respiration sites. Under growth conditions of constant day-to-day environmental parameters for all plants (i.e. humidity, temperature and CO₂ concentration, as was the case in our experiment), differences in plant physiology arise from differences in the plant's internal C and water balance (e.g. Goldschmidt and Huber 1992; Paul and Foyer 2001; McCormick *et al.* 2009).

Our results do not point towards source strength controlling C transport velocity. Assimilation rate could be used as a proxy for source strength in this experiment, since the plants had been kept in the dark for 10h prior to labelling, thus sucrose concentration in the leaves must have been low in all plants and unlikely to modify source strength in this experiment. We found no significant relationship between assimilation rate and transfer velocity of labelled C, suggesting that even if source strength had a gross effect, it was accompanied by other factors, resulting in no detectable net effect. In contrast, sink strength controls over C transport velocity, and involving g_s , is supported by several lines of evidence.

First, previous experiments have established a link between g_s and C sinks: the strength of C sinks is involved in controlling stomatal conductance (e.g. Koller and Thorne 1978; Peet and Kramer 1980; Goldschmidt and Huber 1992), together with environmental conditions in the atmosphere surrounding the leaves (Lambers *et al.* 1998). In addition, sink

strength rather than by source strength likely drives whole-plant C allocation (Ho 1988; Paul and Foyer 2001), turnover and allocation of different C pools being driven by competing C sinks (Kozlowski 1992).

Second, shorter transfer times of newly assimilated C driven by increased sink strength are consistent with the Munch hypothesis that C transport in phloem is driven by a hydrostatic pressure gradient from source to sink (Gould *et al.* 2005).

In addition to transfer towards C sinks, the fate of recently assimilated C during the dark period can include C storage as well as its direct respiration by aboveground biomass, both of which are unlikely to represent a significant fraction of the labelled C in our experiment. Storage could interfere with our interpretation of excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ by creating a pool of labelled C that would not appear in belowground respiration. However, experimental C starvation has been shown to lead to preferential allocation of recent photoassimilates towards growth and respiration rather than towards starch synthesis (for example, less than 10% of the photoassimilates were allocated to starch synthesis in starved French bean plants starved for three days, Nogues *et al.* 2004). The decrease in newly assimilated C availability for aboveground respiration over time is represented by the initial slope of $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ with time, and can result from respiration by aboveground biomass, storage (but see above) or transfer to sink organs. Note that it cannot be due to isotopic dilution by photosynthesis, since plants were maintained in the dark. Our data show that the initial slope of $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ is not significantly related to leaf respiration rate. Therefore, we consider that in our experiment, the transfer of labelled C belowground is the main driver of the initial slope $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ with time, and therefore of its observed relationship with g_s .

The effect of C starvation resulting from extended exposure to darkness on C storage is less clear belowground than aboveground and appears to depend on plant adaptation. In

crop species, C starvation under prolonged darkness leads to the exhaustion of root non-structural C pools fairly rapidly: within 48h in maize (Brouquisse *et al.* 1998), but more than three days in French bean (Bathellier *et al.* 2009). In contrast, shading a mountain grassland had no effect on starch formation in roots, which was likely related to adaptation to a short growing season and to grazing (Bahn *et al.* 2013). Since wheat has been selected to maximise grain production, it is expected to exhibit a crop species type of response to prolonged darkness, with little storage in the dark. Thus, we hypothesize that storage of labelled C likely occurred shortly after the pulse, but that it was not maintained over an extended period of darkness, and only minimally interfered with the interpretation of excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$.

Excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ responded not only to leaf gas exchange variables, but also to N resources, as less label was transferred belowground under conditions of higher soil N availability. We found negative relationships between N concentrations in the soil and in plant tissues on the one hand, and maximum excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ as well as total excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ on the other hand. These results bring further support to the sink strength hypothesis, for several reasons. Firstly, N fertilization generally decreases plant root:shoot ratio (Mooney *et al.* 1995; Lehmeier *et al.* 2008), resulting in a relatively smaller plant belowground biomass C sink for root growth and maintenance (Amthor 2000). Secondly, higher N availability reduces the C costs associated with N assimilation, which represent a large fraction of root respiration (Bloom *et al.* 1992).

Identity of respired carbon pools

Plant physiological drivers seem to control rate of C transfer belowground, i.e., two of the three main components of isotopic time lags: transfer velocity and quantity of C transferred. Our experimental design did not allow identifying the third component of isotopic time lag, the identity of labelled molecules transported and respired. Nonetheless, we

can hypothesise what has been transferred based on the consistent, albeit variable in its magnitude, three-phase pattern of temporal dynamics of excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ and $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$, observed along the wide physiological status range created with the six plants: 1) during the first 10h, excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ strongly decreased while excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ increased, 2) from the 10th to the 25th hours, excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ decreased while excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ peaked, 3) after the 25th hour, both excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ and $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ decreased at a slower rate. These results are consistent with previous studies that showed the presence of several C pools with different turnover times (Schnyder *et al.* 2003; Carbone and Trumbore 2007; Lehmeier *et al.* 2008; Lehmeier *et al.* 2010). The identity of the different C pools has not been characterised in our study. However, specific C pools that differed in their turnover times have been identified in *Lolium perenne* grown under controlled conditions (Schnyder *et al.* 2003; Lehmeier *et al.* 2008; Lehmeier *et al.* 2010) as well as in perennial grasses and shrubs (Carbone and Trumbore 2007). Based on these experiments, we hypothesize that the first phase can probably be attributed to a fast-turnover C pool, perhaps organic acids (Lehmeier *et al.* 2010). In the second phase, a second C pool, possibly mono- or disaccharides such as sucrose might have been respired (Scofield *et al.* 2009; Lehmeier *et al.* 2010). Finally, the third phase could result from the respiration of storage compounds such as fructans or transitory starch (Scofield *et al.* 2009; Lehmeier *et al.* 2010).

Experimental conditions of prolonged darkness after labelling may have induced changes in the identity of the substrates fuelling respiration, since for example leaves kept in the dark switch respiratory substrate from carbohydrates to fatty acids, upon depletion of the former (Tcherkez *et al.* 2003). However, we measured consistently positive excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R}}$ throughout our experiment, indicating that respiration was still at least partially fuelled by C fixed during labelling. Thus, despite the long darkness exposure which might have triggered the use of older C pools stored in plant tissues before labelling (Nogues *et al.* 2004), our

results are consistent with the hypothesis of three recently assimilated C pools fuelling the three-phase pattern of temporal dynamics of excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$ and $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$.

Isotopic time lag and water status

Based on the Münch hypothesis, which implies a tight connection between water and C fluxes in plants, we were expecting that transpiration would impact the isotopic time lag. Although not significant (but see result section), our results suggest that higher transpiration tended to be associated with higher phloem flux rate, i.e., a shorter transfer times and thus shorter time lags between assimilation and respiration of labelled C. These results are in contrast with some modelling studies which have suggested that higher transpiration, especially at the diurnal scale, should be associated with a decrease in phloem flux rate, due to the increase of phloem viscosity resulting from higher water loss and decreased water transfer from xylem to phloem (Hölttä *et al.* 2005; Lacoïnte and Minchin 2008). This discrepancy could arise from three non-exclusive hypotheses. First, differences in hydraulic conductance among plants could modify the relation between E_i , g_s and phloem viscosity across plants. Indeed, transpiration rate is a function of i) the water potential gradient between soil and atmosphere around the plant, and ii) plant hydraulic conductance. In our experiment, the water potential gradient does not appear to play a major role in explaining excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R}}$ patterns, since relative humidity was kept constant and equal among the different plants, and changes in excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R}}$ were not related to soil water content. In contrast, hydraulic conductance may have differed among plants along the physiological status range, as plant N availability could affect root hydraulic conductance (Ruggiero and Angelino, 2007). Second, changes in the velocity of C transfer from assimilation to respiration should be considered as the net effect of changes in phloem velocity and concentration, due to changes in water availability and to changes in hydrostatic pressure related to source and sink activities. On

one hand, higher E_l and g_s can be associated with lower leaf water potential, therefore requiring more sugar loading in the phloem to maintain turgor and drive the pressure flow. Combined higher sugar concentration in the sieve tubes and lower water content result in higher phloem viscosity, decreasing phloem velocity, but the sap is more concentrated in C. On the other hand, changes in sink strength could also alter phloem velocity by modifying the hydrostatic pressure difference in the phloem and thus phloem velocity.. Third, under steady-state conditions, g_s and consequently E_l are plant-regulated, based on the amount of soil water available (Lambers *et al.* 1998). In that case, higher water availability relative to the plant needs would be associated with higher g_s , higher E_l and higher water diffusion from xylem to phloem near the phloem loading sites, resulting in a decreased phloem viscosity and associated increased sap velocity. This third hypothesis would be consistent with previous studies that showed decreased C transfer velocity under drought (Ruehr *et al.* 2009; Brüggemann *et al.* 2011 and references therein). In the absence of day-to-day environmental variations, control by transpiration and thus stomatal conductance over C transfer from assimilation to respiration is likely released due to plant adaptation to constant water supply and loss. Consequently, although we found no strong evidence (p values around 0.1, but see result section) for transpiration being a prominent driver of the isotopic time lag under our experimental conditions, much in contrast to stomatal conductance, plant water loss is likely to play an important role, especially under field conditions.

In conclusion, based on leaf gas exchange and excess $^{13}\text{C}_R$ measurements, our study suggests that under controlled conditions, C sink strength is the main driver of the amount and velocity of recently assimilated C allocated belowground. Our results show that, in addition to known effects of environmental conditions, plant physiological status contributes to shaping the isotopic time lag between assimilation and respiration.

Acknowledgments

We thank G r me Tokpa for his help with gas exchange measurements, Annika Lenz for help with isotope measurements, Roland A. Werner for helpful comments on the manuscript. YS was supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (project n 3100A0-105273/1).

References

- Amthor, JS (2000) The McCree-de Wit-Penning de Vries-Thornley respiration paradigms: 30 years later. *Annals of Botany* **86**, 1-20.
- Bahn, M, Lattanzi, FA, Hasibeder, R, Wild, B, Koranda, M, Danese, V, Brueggemann, N, Schmitt, M, Siegwolf, R, Richter, A (2013) Responses of belowground carbon allocation dynamics to extended shading in mountain grassland. *New Phytologist* **198**, 116–126.
- Bathellier, C, Tcherkez, G, Mauve, C, Bligny, R, Gout, E, Ghashghaie, J (2009) On the resilience of nitrogen assimilation by intact roots under starvation, as revealed by isotopic and metabolomic techniques. *Rapid Communications in Mass Spectrometry* **23**, 2847–2856.
- Bloom, AJ, Sukrapanna, SS, Warner, RL (1992) Root respiration associated with ammonium and nitrate absorption and assimilation by barley. *Plant Physiology* **99**, 1294-1301.
- Brookes, PC, Landman, A, Pruden, G, Jenkinson, DS (1985) Chloroform fumigation and the release of soil nitrogen - a rapid direct extraction method to measure microbial biomass nitrogen in soil. *Soil Biology & Biochemistry* **17**, 837-842.
- Brouquisse, R, Gaudillere, JP, Raymond, P (1998) Induction of a carbon-starvation-related

515 proteolysis in whole maize plants submitted to light/dark cycles and to extended
516 darkness. *Plant Physiology* **117**, 1281–1291.

517 Brüggemann, N, Gessler, A, Kayler, Z, Keel, SG, Badeck, F, Barthel, M, Boeckx, P,
518 Buchmann, N, Brugnoli, E, Esperschütz, J, Gavrichkova, O, Ghashghaie, J, Gomez-
519 Casanovas, N, Keitel, C, Knohl, A, Kuptz, D, Palacio, S, Salmon, Y, Uchida, Y, Bahn,
520 M (2011) Carbon allocation and carbon isotope fluxes in the plant-soil-atmosphere
521 continuum: a review. *Biogeosciences* **8**, 3457-3489.

522 Buchmann, N, Brooks, JR, Rapp, KD, Ehleringer, JR (1996) Carbon isotope composition of
523 C₄ grasses is influenced by light and water supply. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **19**,
524 392-402.

525 Carbone, MS, Trumbore, SE (2007) Contribution of new photosynthetic assimilates to
526 respiration by perennial grasses and shrubs: residence times and allocation patterns.
527 *New Phytologist* **176**, 124-135.

528 Dawson, TE, Mambelli, S, Plamboeck, AH, Templer, PH, Tu, KP (2002) Stable isotopes in
529 plant ecology. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and Systematics* **33**, 507-559.

530 Epron, D, Bahn, M, Derrien, D, Lattanzi, FA, Pumpanen, J, Gessler, A, Hogberg, P, Maillard,
531 P, Dannoura, M, Gerant, D, Buchmann, N (2012) Pulse-labelling trees to study carbon
532 allocation dynamics: a review of methods, current knowledge and future prospects.
533 *Tree Physiology* **32**, 776-798.

534 Evans, JR, Sharkey, TD, Berry, JA, Farquhar, GD (1986) Carbon isotope discrimination
535 measured concurrently with gas-exchange to investigate CO₂ diffusion in leaves of
536 higher-plants. *Australian Journal of Plant Physiology* **13**, 281-292.

537 Farquhar, GD, Ehleringer, JR, Hubick, KT (1989) Carbon isotope discrimination and
538 photosynthesis. *Annual Review of Plant Physiology and Plant Molecular Biology* **40**,
539 503-537.

540 Gessler, A, Tcherkez, G, Peuke, AD, Ghashghaie, J, Farquhar, GD (2008) Experimental
541 evidence for diel variations of the carbon isotope composition in leaf, stem and
542 phloem sap organic matter in *Ricinus communis*. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **31**, 941-
543 953.

544 Goldschmidt, EE, Huber, SC (1992) Regulation of photosynthesis by end-product
545 accumulation in leaves of plants storing starch, sucrose, and hexose sugars. *Plant*
546 *Physiology* **99**, 1443-1448.

547 Gould, N, Thorpe, MR, Koroleva, O, Minchin , PEH (2005) Phloem hydrostatic pressure
548 relates to solute loading rate: a direct test of the Münch hypothesis. *Functional Plant*
549 *Biology* **32**, 1019-1026.

550 Ho, LC (1988) Metabolism and compartmentation of imported
551 sugars in sink organs in relation to sink strength. *Annual Review of Plant Physiology*
552 *and Plant Molecular Biology* **39**, 355-378.

553 Hölttä, T, Vesala, T, Sevanto, S, Perämäki, M, Nikinmaa, E (2005) Modeling xylem and
554 phloem water flows in trees according to cohesion theory and Münch hypothesis.
555 *Trees* **20**, 67-78.

556 Kodama, N, Barnard, RL, Salmon, Y, Weston, C, Ferrio, JP, Holst, J, Werner, RA, Saurer, M,
557 Rennenberg, H, Buchmann, N, Gessler, A (2008) Temporal dynamics of the carbon
558 isotope composition in a *Pinus sylvestris* stand: from newly assimilated organic
559 carbon to respired carbon dioxide *Oecologia* **156**, 737-750.

560 Koller, HR, Thorne, JH (1978) Soybean pod removal alters leaf diffusion resistance and
561 leaflet orientation. *Crop Science* **18**, 305-307.

562 Kozlowski, TT (1992) Carbohydrate sources and sinks in woody plants. *Botanical Review* **58**,
563 107-222.

564 Kuzyakov, Y, Gavrichkova, O (2010) Time lag between photosynthesis and carbon dioxide
565 efflux from soil: a review of mechanisms and controls. *Global Change Biology* **16**,

565 3386-3406.

566 Lacointe, A, Minchin, PEH (2008) Modelling phloem and xylem transport within a complex
 567 architecture. *Functional Plant Biology* **35**, 772-780.

568 Lambers, H, Chapin, FS, Pons, T (1998) Plant physiological ecology. In 'Plant physiological
 569 ecology.' pp. 185-189. (Springer New York, USA)

570 Lehmeier, CA, Lattanzi, FA, Schäufele, R, Schnyder, H (2010) Nitrogen deficiency increases
 571 the residence time of respiratory carbon in the respiratory substrate supply system of
 572 perennial ryegrass. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **33**, 76-87.

573 Lehmeier, CA, Lattanzi, FA, Schäufele, R, Wild, M, Schnyder, H (2008) Root and shoot
 574 respiration of perennial ryegrass are supplied by the same substrate pools - assessment
 575 by dynamic ^{13}C labeling and compartmental analysis of tracer. *Plant Physiology* **148**,
 576 1148-1158.

577 Litton, CM, Raich, JW, Ryan, MG (2007) Carbon allocation in forest ecosystems. *Global*
 578 *Change Biology* **13**, 2089-2109.

579 McCormick, AJ, Watt, DA, Cramer, MD (2009) Supply and demand: sink regulation of sugar
 580 accumulation in sugarcane. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **60**, 357-364.

581 Mencuccini, M, Hölttä, T (2010) The significance of phloem transport for the speed with
 582 which canopy photosynthesis and belowground respiration are linked. *New*
 583 *Phytologist* **185**, 189-203.

584 Mooney, H, Fichtner, K, Schulze, E (1995) Growth, photosynthesis and storage of
 585 carbohydrates and nitrogen in *Phaseolus-lunatus* in relation to resource availability.
 586 *Oecologia* **104**, 17-23.

587 Nogués, S, Tcherkez, G, Cornic, G, Ghashghaie, J (2004) Respiratory carbon metabolism
 588 following illumination in intact french bean leaves using $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ isotope labeling.
 589 *Plant Physiology* **136**, 3245-3254.

590 Paul, MJ, Foyer, CH (2001) Sink regulation of photosynthesis. *Journal of Experimental*
591 *Botany* **52**, 1383-1400.

592 Peet, MM, Kramer, PJ (1980) Effects of decreasing source-sink ratio in soybeans on
593 photosynthesis, photo-respiration, transpiration and yield. *Plant, Cell & Environment*
594 **3**, 201-206.

595 Poorter, H, Nagel, O (2000) The role of biomass allocation in the growth response of plants
596 to different levels of light, CO₂, nutrients and water: a quantitative review. *Australian*
597 *Journal of Plant Physiology* **27**, 595-607.

598 R Development Core Team (2012) 'R: A language and environment for statistical computing.'
599 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing: Vienna, Austria)

600 Ruehr, NK, Offermann, CA, Gessler, A, Winkler, JB, Ferrio, JP, Buchmann, N, Barnard, RL
601 (2009) Drought effects on allocation of recent carbon: from beech leaves to soil CO₂
602 efflux. *New Phytologist* **184**, 950-961.

603 Ruggiero, C, Angelino, G (2007) Changes of root hydraulic conductivity and root/shoot ratio
604 of durum wheat and barley in relation to nitrogen availability and mercury exposure.
605 *Italian Journal of Agronomy* **2**, 281-290.

606 Schnyder, H, Schäufele, R, Lötscher, M, Gebbing, T (2003) Disentangling CO₂ fluxes: direct
607 measurements of mesocosm-scale natural abundance ¹³CO₂/¹²CO₂ gas exchange, ¹³C
608 discrimination, and labelling of CO₂ exchange flux components in controlled
609 environments. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **26**, 1863-1874.

610 Scofield, GN, Ruuska, SA, Aoki, N, Lewis, DC, Tabe, LM, Jenkins, CLD (2009) Starch
611 storage in the stems of wheat plants: localization and temporal changes. *Annals of*
612 *Botany* **103**, 859-868.

613 Tcherkez, G, Nogués, S, Bleton, J, Cornic, G, Badeck, F, Ghashghaie, J (2003) Metabolic
614 origin of carbon isotope composition of leaf dark-respired CO₂ in french bean. *Plant*

615 *Physiology* **131**, 237-244.

616 Van Bel, AJE (2003) The phloem, a miracle of ingenuity. *Plant, Cell & Environment* **26**, 125-

617 149.

618 Vance, ED, Brookes, PC, Jenkinson, DS (1987) An extraction method for measuring soil

619 microbial biomass C. *Soil Biology Biochemistry* **19**, 703-707.

620 Werner, C, Gessler, A (2011) Diel variations in the carbon isotope composition of respired

621 CO₂ and associated carbon sources: a review of dynamics and mechanisms.

622 *Biogeosciences* **8**, 2437-2459.

623 Wu, J, Joergensen, RG, Pommerening, B, Chaussod, R, Brookes, PC (1990) Measurement of

624 soil microbial biomass C by fumigation extraction - an automated procedure. *Soil*

625 *Biology & Biochemistry* **22**, 1167-1169.

626 Ye, ZP, Yu, Q (2008) A coupled model of stomatal conductance and photosynthesis for winter

627 wheat. *Photosynthetica* **46**, 637-640.

628

629 **Table 1:** Physiological range of wheat plants with their resources level: soil water content (SWC) and fertilization, including root:shoot ratio and
630 the following leaf gas exchange parameters: CO₂ assimilation rate (A), Stomatal conductance to H₂O in the light (g_s), transpiration rate in the
631 light (E_l), dark respiration (r_l), and intrastomatal:atmospheric partial pressure of CO₂ (c_i/c_a), as well as pre-labelling δ¹³C in bulk leaves, roots,
632 soil as well as C and N concentrations in bulk leaves, roots, soil and soil microbial biomass. na indicates unavailable data.

Plant	SWC (%)	fertilization	Root:shoot ratio	A	g _s	E _l	r _l	c _i /c _a	Bulk leaves			Bulk roots			Bulk soil			Soil microbial biomass	
				(μmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	(mol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	(mmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	(μmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹)		δ ¹³ C (‰)	C (%)	N (%)	δ ¹³ C (‰)	C (%)	N (%)	δ ¹³ C (‰)	C (%)	N (%)	C (%)	N (%)
1	47	No	2.02	16.5	0.35	3.45	0.46	0.76	-29	40.8	3.3	-28.7	51.9	1.2	-25.6	10.8	0.4	49.4	0.18
2	63	No	1.43	15.26	0.57	4.23	0.08	0.85	-29.3	41	2.8	-27.9	49.9	1.2	-25.3	12.1	0.5	39.1	0.1
3	71	No	3.66	12.72	0.33	2.35	0.1	0.81	-28.4	41.7	2.3	na	na	na	-24.9	12.2	0.5	44.5	0.1
4	47	Yes	0.43	16.46	0.24	1.53	0.74	0.68	-25.8	39	7.2	-26.2	50.4	2.7	-25.4	8.7	0.8	38.9	13.6
5	63	Yes	0.64	20.48	0.44	2.71	0.82	0.76	-26.9	39.5	6.2	-26.7	47.8	3.4	-25.4	9.9	0.8	45.1	5.5
6	71	Yes	0.74	20.48	0.4	2.7	0.45	0.74	-27.5	39.3	5.4	-28	45.1	1.6	-25.6	11.5	0.8	31.1	1.4

633

Table 2: Post-labelling excess ^{13}C in leaf biomass, root biomass, bulk soil and microbial biomass, as well as mean residence time of ^{13}C label in shoots (τ) and half-life ($t_{1/2}$) of ^{13}C in shoot-respired CO_2 . na indicates unavailable data.

plant	Excess ^{13}C				τ (h)	$t_{1/2}$ (h)
	leaves	roots	soil	soil microbial biomass		
	($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ dry leaf)	($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ dry root)	($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ dry soil)	($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ dry soil)		
1	265	352.5	15.2	72.7	18.4	12.7
2	213.3	234.2	29.1	181.7	10.4	7.2
3	260	na	-35.2	na	12.1	8.4
4	388.3	35.8	-193.3	335	20.9	14.5
5	334.2	56.7	25.2	135	19.0	13.2
6	501.7	87.5	8.3	283.3	19.3	13.4

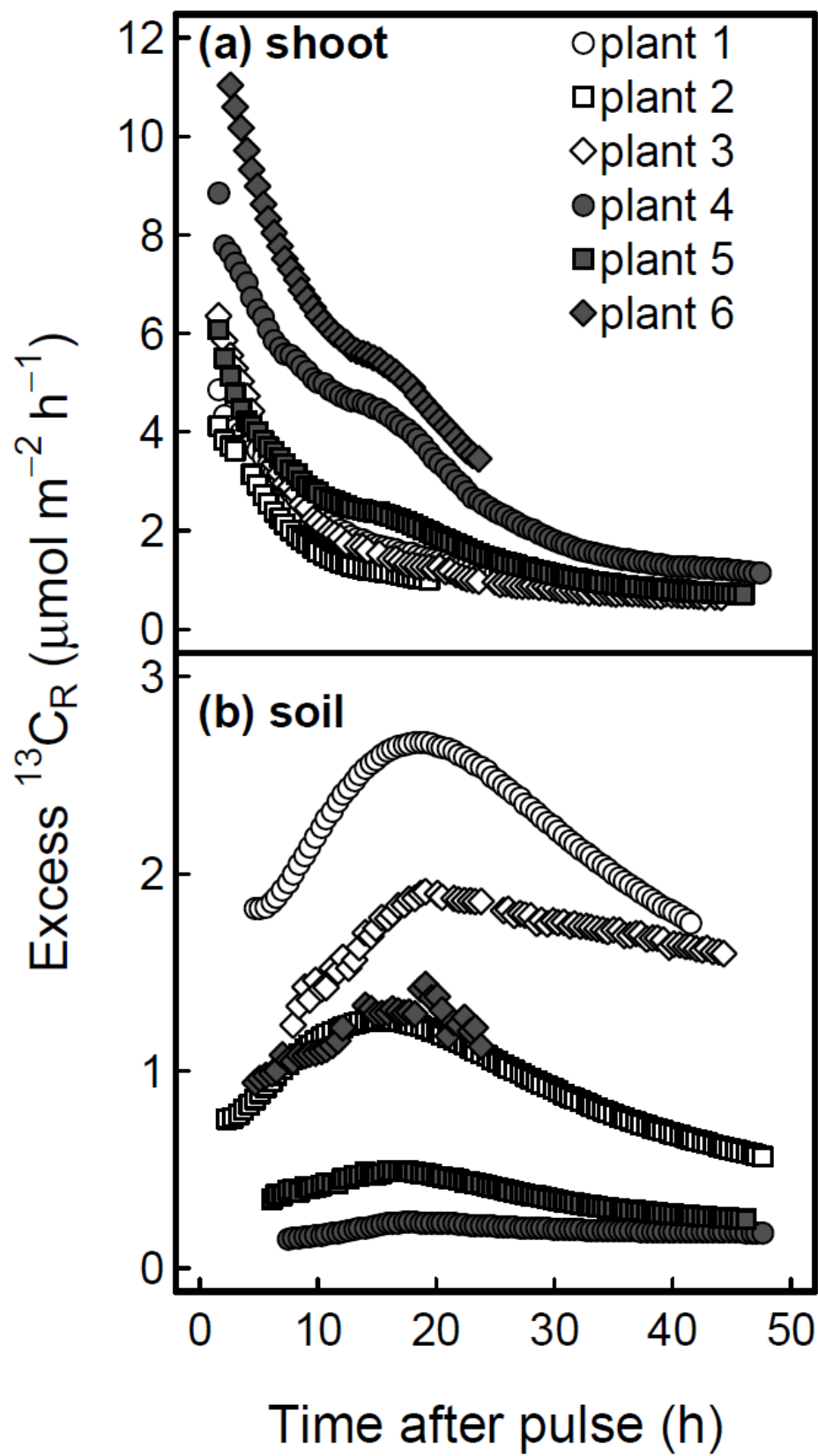
Figure legends

Figure 1: Excess ^{13}C of shoot-respired CO_2 (a) and of soil-respired CO_2 (b) after ^{13}C pulse-labelling for six pots with soil-wheat plant systems, plants representing a wide ecophysiological range (see Table 1).

Figure 2: Relationship between stomatal conductance and the initial slope of excess ^{13}C in shoot-respired CO_2 (excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-shoot}}$) after ^{13}C labelling (a) as well as the time until maximum peak of excess ^{13}C of soil-respired CO_2 (excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$) is reached after ^{13}C labelling (b) for six pots with soil-wheat plant systems, plants representing a wide ecophysiological range (see Table 1). Linear regressions were highly significant (a: $y=-0.022x-0.015$, $p=0.029$, $R^2=0.73$; b: $y=-13.5x+23.4$, $p=0.023$, $R^2=0.76$).

Figure 3: Relationship between N concentration in soil and root and maximum excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ after labelling (a and b, respectively) as well as total excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ after labelling (c and d, respectively), for six pots with soil-wheat plant systems (see Table 1). Linear regressions were significant for soil N concentration (a: $y=-123.40x+119.26$, $p=0.045$, $R^2=0.67$; c: $y=-3785.30x+3544.60$, $p=0.030$, $R^2=0.73$) and marginally significant for root N concentration (b: $y=-21.90x+80.50$, $p=0.052$, $R^2=0.65$; d: $y=-637.80x+2295.30$, $p=0.055$, $R^2=0.64$).

Figure 4: Relationship between excess ^{13}C in the root compartment and maximum excess ^{13}C in soil-respired CO_2 after ^{13}C labelling (excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$, a) as well total excess $^{13}\text{C}_{\text{R-soil}}$ after labelling (b) for six pots with soil-wheat plant systems (see Table 1). Linear regressions were significant (a: $y=0.19x+0.08$, $p=0.039$, $R^2=0.80$; b: $y=5.80x+1.58$, $p=0.025$, $R^2=0.85$).



663 Figure 1

664

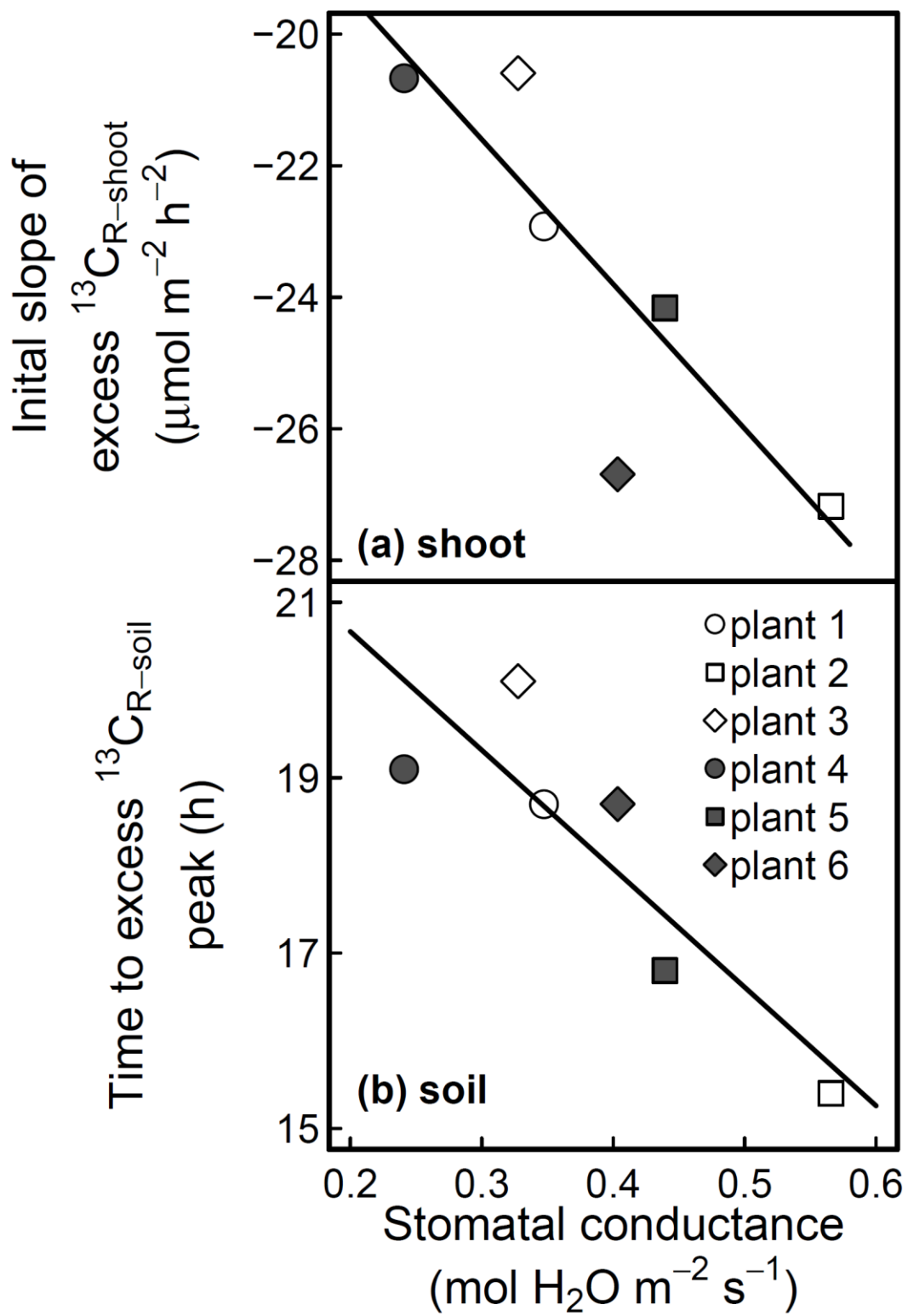


Figure 2

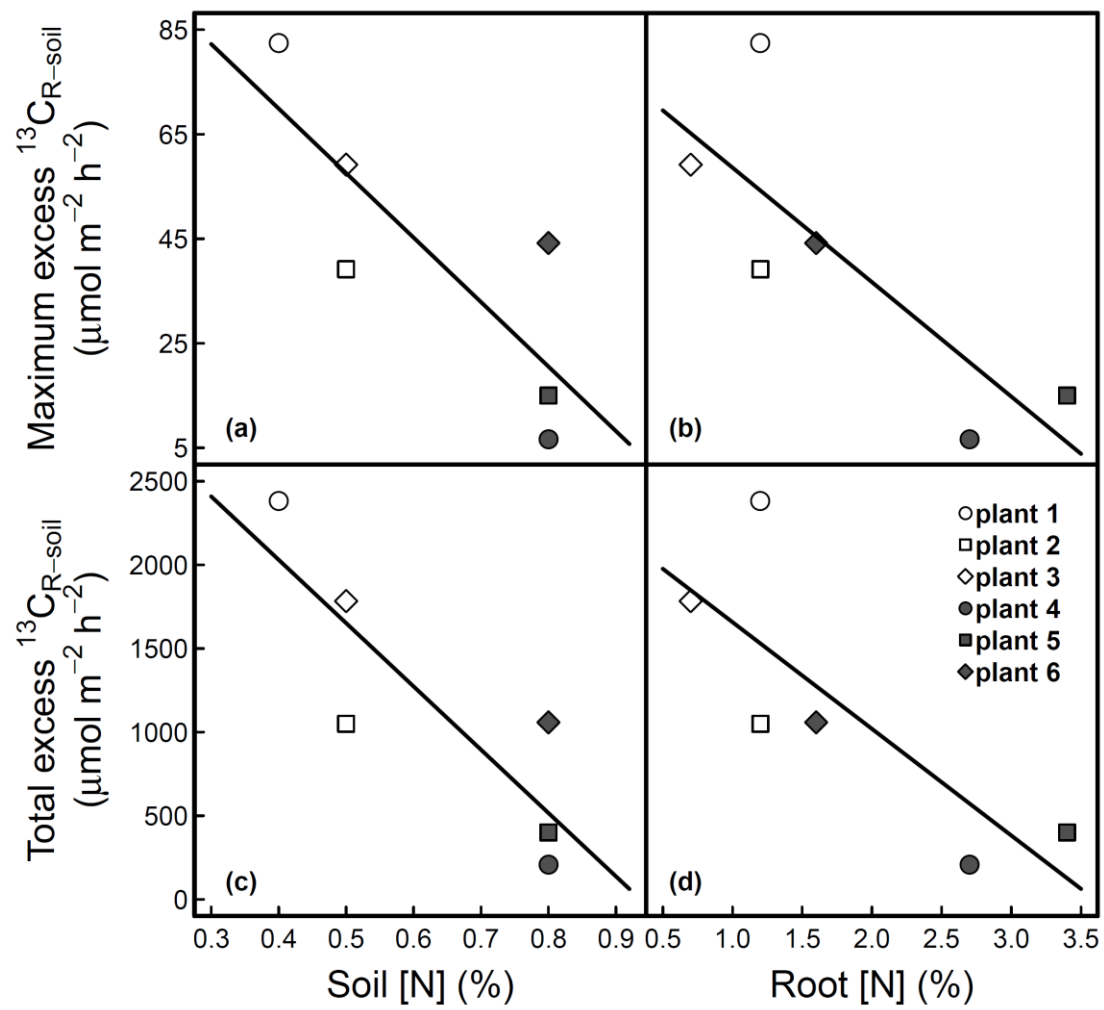
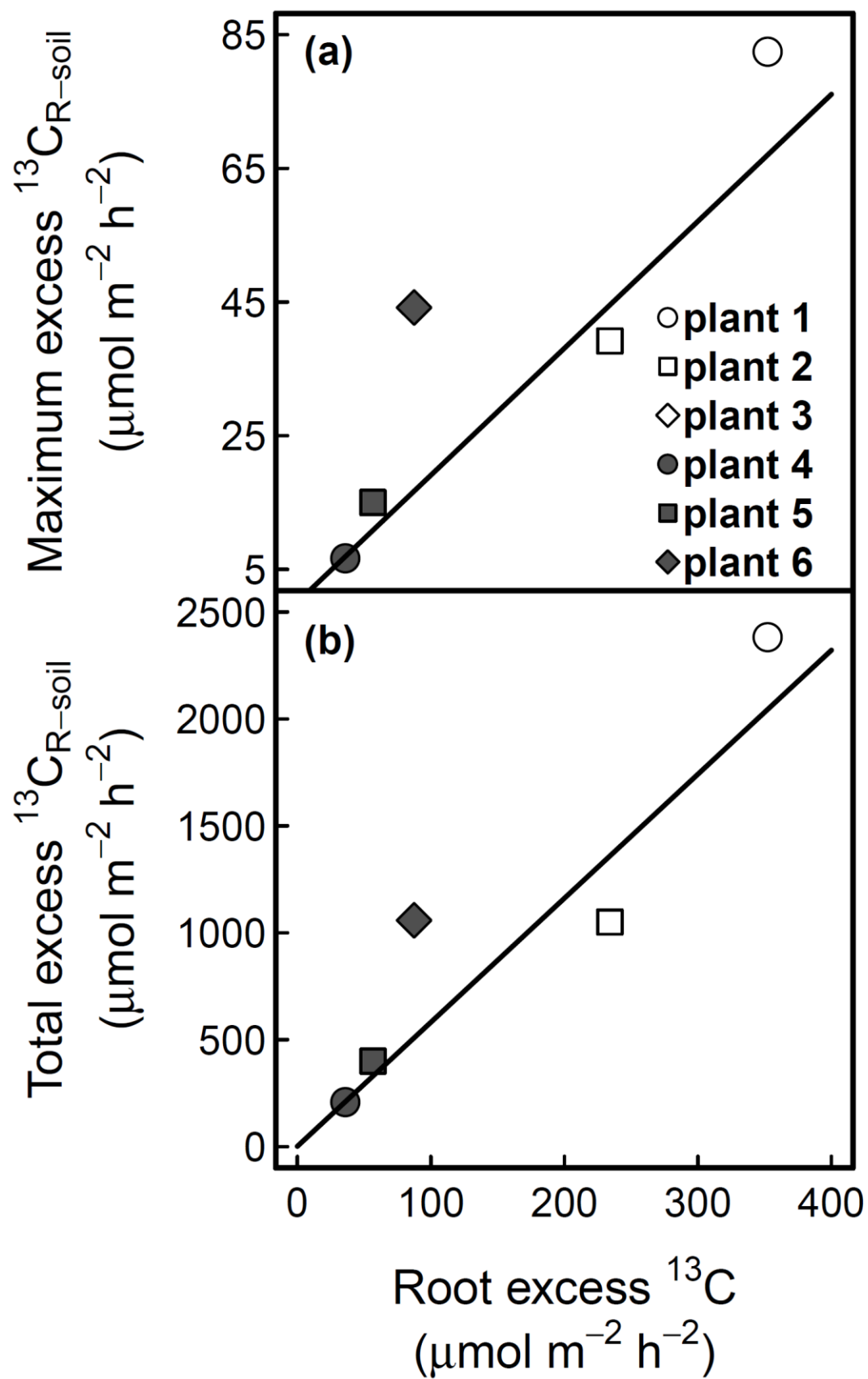


Figure 3



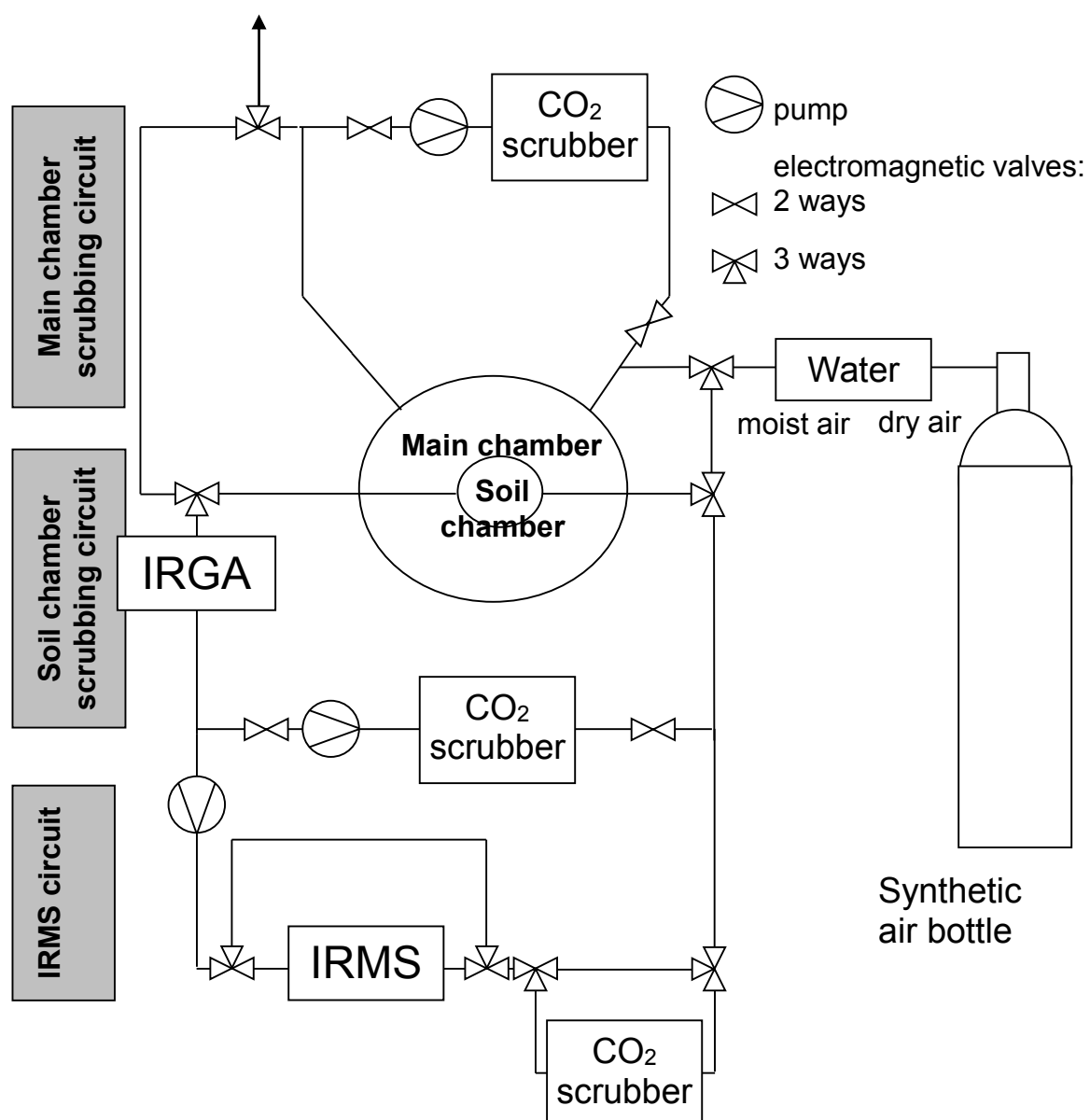
669 Figure 4

670

Supplementary material

Custom-built setup for online IRMS measurements used to monitor $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of respired CO_2 in main and soil chambers.

Air flow through the setup was controlled by a computer and electro-valves. The IRMS air intake circuit was connected alternatively to the soil chamber circuit or to the main chamber circuit, which were independently equipped with a pump and a CO_2 scrubber (soda lime). The IRMS circuit featured a membrane pump (1 L min^{-1} flow rate) and a scrubber, maintaining CO_2 concentrations below 1000 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$. Before each measurement, CO_2 was scrubbed from all circuits and chambers. CO_2 concentrations were then left to increase due to respiration to at least 300 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$ before directing the air flow to the IRMS. The 300 and 1000 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$ thresholds ensured optimal CO_2 concentrations for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurements. CO_2 and H_2O concentrations were measured with a $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ gas analyzer (Li-840, Li-Cor Inc.) placed in the part shared by both soil and main circuits.



699 Air flow for online measurements of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in CO_2 . EV, IRGA and IRMS indicate electro-
700 valves, infra-red gas analyser and isotope ratio mass spectrometer, respectively. The soil
701 chamber is located inside the main chamber; both are independently connected to the IRMS
702 and IRGA circuits.