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DUAL MUTUALISTIC ASSOCIATIONS IN SAINFOIN

(Onobrychis viciifolia Scop.)

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the requirements for the degree of
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ABSTRACT

Recent studies established that many legumes, when infected with the appropriate *Rhizobium* spp. and arbuscular fungi, nodulated better and exhibited greater dinitrogen fixation than plants infected with only the rhizobia.

A similar study, therefore, was carried out in a glasshouse using sainfoin (Onobrychis viciifolia Scop.), a legume that is rapidly gaining recognition as a potential forage crop in New Zealand and other parts of the world. Pre-germinated seeds (cv. Fakir) were planted in sterilized soils and incubated with an effective Rhizobium spp. (strain NZP 5301), a mixture of endophytes (Gigaspora magarita Becker & Hall, Glomus fasciculata (Thax. sensu Gerd.) Gerdemann & Trappe and Glomus tenuis (Greenall) Hall), or both eht rhizobia and endophytes. The experiment also included a control, without any inoculation. Endophyte infection, nodulation and dinitrogen fixation, total nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations, and plant growth and development were determined on eleven sequential samplings over about twenty weeks, up to the stage of green inflorescence.

Arbuscular mycorrhiza formation did not occur with the first endophyte inoculation, containing Gigaspora magarita Becker & Hall, even after 93 days of growth. This is probably because the inoculum used consisted of a low quantity of viable spores and mycelia. The second inoculation, containing the three endophyte species, produced only a low degree of infection between day 115 and 137, possibly because the extensive root lignification and relatively higher root phosphorus concentration (0.50%) restricted fungal invasion and establishment within the root cortex. Mycorrhiza formation did not increase phosphate uptake, improve nodulation and dinitrogen fixation, or increase plant growth. This is due probably to the already well-developed root systems that were efficiently exploiting the small soil volume within the bags.

Rhizobia-inoculated plants produced more nodules, larger nodules and consequently, a greater nodule dry weight than the uninoculated plants. The nodules produced in the inoculated plants were red

instead of green as in the uninoculated plants, and exhibited a greater dinitrogen fixation. As a result, these inoculated plants contained a higher concentration of shoot, root and nodule nitrogen, and a greater dry weight accumulation in the shoots and nodules. The shoot and nodule phosphorus concentrations, however, were lower in the rhizobia-inoculated than in the uninoculated plants due to the greater amount of shoot and nodule tissues which caused a dilution effect. These rhizobia effects on nodulation and dinitrogen fixation, nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations, and plant growth and development became more prominent with time.

The relatively higher nodule phosphorus concentration when compared with the shoot and root phosphorus concentrations suggests that phosphorus was presumably required in large quantities by the dinitrogen-fixing system.

PREFACE

Coexistence of organisms has long been recognised as an axism of life. In 1952, Paul R. Bulkholder formally and objectively interpreted coexistence as different biological interactions. Based on his coaction theory, these interactions were classified into and named as nine separate categories of which the most studied in agricultural ecology are competition and mutualism.

In this thesis, two examples, of mutualism, involving a forage legume (Onobrychis viciifolia Scop.), a nitrogen-fixing bacterium (Rhizobium spp.) and three species of arbuscular fungi (Gigaspora magarita Becker & Hall, Glomus fasciculatus (Thax. sensu Gerd.)

Gerdemann & Trappe and Glomus tenuis (Greenall) Hall), are examined.

The intention of this study was to investigate the real value of coexistence of these organisms from an agricultural standpoint and, therefore, emphasis is placed on the effects of the bacterium and fungi on the nutrition, and growth and development of sainfoin. While the bulk of chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7 is devoted to these topics, the relevant background information of the research is also included in the first three chapters.

Various persons were directly and indirectly involved in the completion of this work. I am deeply indebted to Mr Angus G. Robertson for his close supervision and unceasing availability in offering advice, suggestions and practical assistance during this entire masterate programme, and his many criticisms and recommendations during editing of the manuscript. I must also acknowledge his foremost contribution to me as a research student in helping me to develop the skill of more effective thinking in scientific research.

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The methodology of acetylene reduction assay was kindly introduced and demonstrated by Dr Jim A. Crush and Mr Paul Yarrell, of the DSIR Grasslands Division, Palmerston North. Owing to certain unavailable glassware, the assaying procedure was slightly modified, but the value of their contributions remains. I am thankful for the privilege to use the Pye gas chromatograph and other facilities in the Botany Department as well as the technical assistance given by Dr David W. Fountain and his technician, Mr Chong Loong Kan.

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Spirit and God's gift of the ineffable awesome creation which I intimately worked with for over five months. The opportunity is here for me to return the magnificent glory of His ingenious design which aptly speaks of His omniscience.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen is an essential element for plant growth and reproduction as it is required in the synthesis of proteins, enzymes, deoxyribonucleic acids and many intermediate metabolic compounds. It is, therefore, a key constituent of all plant cells. Dry matter of vascular plants contains about 15 000 μ g N g⁻¹DM (1.5% nitrogen), making it the most abundant soil element in plant tissue (Table 1.1).

The supply of nitrogen in current and future agricultural systems is a major determinent of adequate food production to meet the ever-expanding human population. During the green revolution, many agricultural plants were selected and bred for responsiveness to fertilizer supply, resulting in the necessity for intensive application of fertilizers particularly nitrogen (Cummings and Gleason, 1971; Engibous, 1975; Jackson et al, 1975; Cox and Atkins, 1979). Scrimshaw and Taylor (1980) have worked out that the primary factor responsible for increases in crop production between 1961 and 1976 was the increasing use of fertilizers. Between the same period, the world's annual consumption of nitrogen fertilizers rose sharply from 11 to 45 Gkg, a dramatic 309% increase (Fertilizers - Annual Review, 1968; FAO Fertilizer Yearbook, 1980). In 1980, it reached a record of 57 Gkg year (FAO Fertilizer Yearbook, 1981). With this increasing trend in nitrogen fertilizer usage, it is perhaps not an exaggeration to reaffirm the statement of Viets (1965) that more crops are deficient of nitrogen than of any other element.

The primary supplement of nitrogen to crop plants is from industrial nitrogen fertilizers. However, the existing method of industrial synthesis of nitrogen fertilizers requires a high input of expensive fossil energy. For instance, in the manufacture of ammonia, the precursor for various types of nitrogen fertilizers, a temperature of 400 to 500°C and a pressure of 15 to 35 MPa must be created to drive the Haber-Bosch process in a modern plant, with a production capacity of about 900 Mkg day $^{-1}$ (Bridger et al, 1979). In this process alone, the natural gas feed and fuel cost contributes 25% of the total manufacturing cost (Finneran and Czuppon, 1979). With the addition of other fuel expenditure as in the conversion of ammonia into nitrogen fertilizers, in transport and in application, the final nitrogen fertilizer applied to

TABLE 1.1

CONCENTRATION OF SIXTEEN ELEMENTS
IN COMPLEX PLANTS (AFTER
STOUT, 1961)

Eleme	nt	Concentra	tion (μ	g g ⁻¹ DM)	
From the atmosph	ere and water	,			
carbon		450	000		
oxygen		450	000		
hydroge	n	60			
From the soil,					
nitroge	n	15	000		
potasši		10	000		
calcium		5	000		
magnesi	um	2	000		
phospho		2	000		
sulphur	•	1	000		
chlorin	e		100	-4	
iron			100		
mangane	se		50		
boron			20		
zinc			20		
copper			6		
molybde	num		0.1		

TABLE 1.2

EFFICIENCY AND CONTRIBUTION FROM VARIOUS DINITROGEN-FIXING SYSTEMS (AFTER BURNS AND HARDY, 1975, WITH ALTERATIONS IN PARENTHESIS FROM PAUL, 1978)

Dinitrogen-fixing system	Land use (Mha)		Rate of fixation (kg N ₂ ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹)	Total contribution (Gkg N ₂ year ⁻¹)
Legume-Rhizobium Legume-Rhizobium	legume permanent	250	140 (80)	35 (20)
Leguille-Antizobtum		3 000	15 (8)	45 (24)
Blue-green algae	rice	135	30	4 `
Free-living and "loose" associations	other crops	5	5	5

the field is an expensive item for many farmers.

In conjunction with this high cost, tracer studies reveal that the use of applied nitrogen fertilizers in the field by crop plants is Depending on the type of crop, agricultural practices. fertilizer, climate and soils (Winteringham, 1980), between 20 to 60% of the total applied nitrogen is absorbed by crop plants (Allison, 1965, 1966; Bartholomew, 1971; Gutschick, 1980; Hauck, 1981). Myers and Paul (1971) showed that wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) grown in a sandy loam and a clay soil, recovered about 25% and 50% of the applied ammonium nitrate respectively in the shoots. In two other studies, a first year maize (Zea mays L.) crop utilized only about 22% of the labelled urea, this being from grain and straw (Arora $et\ al$, 1980), while a first year dwarf bean (Phaseolus vulgaris L.) crop removed about 30% of the labelled ammonium sulphate (Cervellini et al, 1980). unrecovered nitrogen is "lost" through immobilization, leaching, erosion, denitrification and volatilization of which leaching and erosion, if excessive, pose a serious threat to environmental pollution and public health (Mulder et αl , 1977; Wild and Cameron, 1980).

From the foregoing discussion, it is apparent that the continual heavy reliance on nitrogen fertilizers in the future is becoming a questionable proposition. The emphasis of current nitrogen and crop research is, therefore, strongly orientated towards improving biological dinitrogen fixation (Evans, 1975; Hardy et al, 1975; Brill, 1980; Hardy, 1980a, b; Lambourg, 1980; Subba Roa, 1980). Several biological dinitrogen fixing systems are available for incorporation into agricultural production as shown in Table 1.2. The most important and efficient of which, in relative terms, is the legume-Rhizobium mutualistic association. The data in Table 1.2 indicate that this type of association fixes an average of between 80 to 88 kg N_2 ha⁻¹year⁻¹ and, thus, contributes between 20 to 44 Gkg N_2 year⁻¹ to cultivated land under legumes and permanent grassland. However, a fixation as high as 171 kg N_2 ha⁻¹year⁻¹ has been obtained in the developed New Zealand pastures in which the principal legume component is white clover (Trifolium repens L.) (Hoglund et al, 1979).

Although the legume-*Rhizobium* association is the most efficient by comparison, it is widely recognised that its dinitrogen-fixing activity seldom attains the optimal rate. For example, the clovers in the New Zealand pastures are capable of fixing a potential of 215 to 336 kg N_2 ha⁻¹year⁻¹ (Sears *et al*,1965; Levy, 1970). Improvement on the rate of dinitrogen fixation is, therefore, an imperative research endeavour in order to sustain the necessary agricultural production levels.

The physical and biological factors that directly and indirectly influence the legume-Rhizobium relationship have been identified and comprehensively reviewed by various authors (Lie, 1974; Gibson, 1977; Munns, 1977; Pate, 1977; Parker et al, 1977; Dommergues, 1978; Vincent, 1980; Grandhall, 1981). One of these factors is soil phosphorus, an essential element for the growth and nodulation of legumes (van Schreven, 1958; Andrew, 1977; Andrew and Jones, 1978). legumes, when infected with arbuscular fungi, show an enhanced phosphate absorption and, subsequently, an associated increase in growth, nodulation and dinitrogen fixation (Crush, 1974; Daft and El-Giahmi, 1974, 1975,1976; Powell, 1976; Mosse et al, 1976; Mosse, 1977; Abbott and Robson, 1977; Smith and Daft, 1977; Carling et al. 1978; Azcon-G. de Aguilar et al, 1979; Smith et al, 1979). Similar studies on sainfoin (Onobrychis viciifolia Scop.) have yet to be carried out and since it is a legume which is gradually gaining world-wide recognition as a potential forage crop, the purpose of this study is to examine the endophytephosphate interaction, and its effects on the nodulation and dinitrogen fixation in sainfoin.