- 1 Title: Fertilizer ammonium to nitrate ratios determine phosphorus uptake in young maize plants
- 2 Authors:
- 3 Ingeborg F. Pedersen¹*, Peter Sørensen¹, Jim Rasmussen¹, Paul J. A. Withers² and Gitte Holton
- 4 Rubæk¹.
- ⁵ ¹Department of Agroecology, Faculty of Science and Technology, Aarhus University, Blichers Allé
- 6 20, PO box 50, 8830 Tjele, Denmark
- ⁷ ²Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster LA1 4YQ, UK
- 8 *Corresponding author
- 9 Ingeborg Frøsig Pedersen, <u>ifp@agro.au.dk</u>, Tel.: +45 27141009
- 10 Running title: Effect of nitrogen form on phosphorus uptake in maize plants
- 11 Number of text pages: 19
- 12 Number of tables: 2
- 13 Number of figures: 4
- 14 Key words: Nitrogen form; Phosphorus; Rhizosphere; Soil acidification; Starter fertilizer; Zea mays

15 Abstract

16 We investigated the interacting effects of inorganic nitrogen and the main inorganic phosphorus form

in dairy manure (dicalcium phosphate, CaHPO₄) on growth, nutrient uptake and rhizosphere pH of
young maize plants.

19 In a pot experiment three levels of CaHPO₄ (0, 167 and 500 mg P pot⁻¹) were combined with nitrogen

20 (637 mg N pot⁻¹) applied at five NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios (0:100, 25:75, 50:50, 75:25 and 100:0) and a

21 nitrification inhibitor in a concentrated layer of a typical acid sandy soil from Denmark. ¹⁵N-labelled

22 NH₄-N was applied to differentiate the role of nitrification and to partition nitrogen uptake derived

23 from NH₄-N.

24 Among treatments including nitrogen, shoot biomass, rooting and phosphorus uptake were

25 significantly higher at the five-leaf stage, when CaHPO₄ was applied with NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios of

26 50:50 and 75:25. In these treatments, rhizosphere pH dropped significantly in direct proportion with

27 NH₄-N uptake. The fertilizers in the concentrated layer had a root inhibiting effect in treatments

28 without phosphorus supply and in treatments with pure NO₃-N or NH₄-N supply.

29 Increased nitrogen uptake as NH₄-N instead of NO₃-N reduced rhizosphere pH and enhanced

30 acquisition of applied CaHPO₄ in young maize plants, which could have positive implications for the

31 enhanced utilization of manure phosphorus.

33 **1 Introduction**

34 Strategies to increase the efficiency of recyclable phosphorus (P) use within regional and global 35 agriculture is a key step towards the sustainable intensification of food production. One option towards 36 greater P sustainability is to minimize the use of mineral fertilizer derived from phosphate rock. This 37 to some extent may be achieved by increasing the utilization of P in livestock manure, which is the 38 largest source of recyclable P in Europe (Ott and Rechberger, 2012). Indeed more effective recycling 39 of P in livestock manure could potentially substitute a substantial part of mineral P fertilizer 40 consumption, and aid the transition towards a circular economy for P (Withers et al., 2015). However, 41 to achieve a greater integration of livestock manure nutrients on the farm, a better understanding is 42 needed of how the availability of P in livestock manure is regulated in plant-soil systems, especially 43 for the inorganic P forms that prevail in manures. 44 In northwest Europe, maize (Zea mays L.) for silage is an important crop on intensive dairy farms. The P applied with dairy manure often fully matches the P exported from the field with the crop, but in 45 46 Danish maize production 10-15 kg ha⁻¹ of mineral P fertilizer is routinely placed near the seed at 47 sowing (starter P fertilizer) in addition to non-positioned injection of dairy slurry (Knudsen, 2010). Starter fertilizer is widely used for maize in many other regions including other northwest European 48 49 countries (e.g. Schröder et al., 1997). This starter fertilizer is considered necessary because a lack of P 50 in the early growing stages can compromise the final crop yield (Barry and Miller 1989; Grant et al., 51 2001). However, long-term application of P above crop P demand can lead to P accumulation in soil, 52 which enhances the eutrophication risk in downstream waterbodies (Kronvang et al., 2009). A reliance 53 on placed soluble inorganic fertilizer for starter nutrients reflects its immediate availability to plants, 54 but these starter nutrients could potentially be supplied by the dairy manure if the inorganic nutrients 55 contained in dairy manure can be equally relied upon to satisfy crop nutrient demands during the early growth stages. This crop demand could be satisfied, for instance, by placement of injected cattle slurry 56 57 (e.g. Schröder et al., 2015), but the interacting effects of placed inorganic nitrogen (N) and P present 58 in cattle slurry that could affect the availability of injected slurry P must be clarified. Since P is taken 59 up by plants as inorganic orthophosphate from the soil solution, the inorganic P forms in animal

60 manures are more readily available to plants than organic P forms and inorganic P forms constitute up to 92 percent of total P in dairy manure (Sharpley and Moyer, 2000). Dicalcium phosphate (CaHPO₄, 61 DCP) constitutes more than half of the inorganic P in dairy manure, and the solubility of DCP is 62 strongly dependent on solution pH among other factors (Güngör et al., 2007; Pagliari, 2014). As 63 manure also contains nutrients other than P, most notably N, nutrient interactions after addition to the 64 65 soil may affect P availability in the silage maize cropping system. It is unclear though how the supply of ammonium N (NH₄-N), which is the dominant form of inorganic N in dairy slurry (Webb et al., 66 67 2013) affects the short-term availability of DCP.

68 Previous studies have shown that rhizosphere pH decreases when plants are supplied with NH₄-N, whereas rhizosphere pH increases when the plants are supplied with nitrate N (NO₃-N) (Riley and 69 70 Barber, 1971). Such pH changes in the rhizosphere may influence the availability of inorganic P present in dairy manure, through pH controls on P speciation, precipitation and sorption processes. For 71 72 highly soluble mineral P, Jing et al. (2010) showed that the combination of localized supply of P with 73 NH₄-N improved maize growth and root proliferation on a calcareous soil. A recent meta-analysis by 74 Nkebiwe et al. (2016) also concluded that placement of NH₄-N in combination with highly soluble P 75 was more effective in increasing yield than placement of either NH₄-N or soluble P alone across 76 various crop types. However, it has not previously been studied if less soluble inorganic P forms 77 present in dairy manure such as DCP also become more available to young maize plants, when the 78 plants are supplied with a higher amount of NH₄-N relative to the NO₃-N supply, or if the high 79 application rate of NH₄-N normally applied in slurry could form an unfavorable environment for root 80 growth.

To provide a better mechanistic understanding of the interaction between inorganic N form and DCP via pH changes in the rhizosphere, we mimicked the addition of inorganic N and DCP in dairy manure in a pot trial with maize. We hypothesized that growth and P-uptake in young maize plants would be improved when a higher proportion of NH₄-N was applied relative to NO₃-N due to increased plant availability of DCP induced by a pH decline in the rhizosphere, when N was taken up as NH₄-N. The aim was to determine the effect of increasing NH₄-N:NO₃-N application ratios on pH in the

rhizosphere compared to the bulk soil and to study how such pH changes in the rhizosphere affect the
availability of DCP, and whether high NH₄N concentrations in the soil restrict root growth.

89 2 Materials and methods

90 2.1 Experimental details

91 Maize was grown in cylindrical 1.9 L pots in a full factorial experiment with four replicates that 92 included three levels of P in DCP (0, 167 and 500 mg P pot⁻¹) and five NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios (0:100, 93 25:75, 50:50, 75:25 and 100:0 applied at a total rate of 637 mg N pot⁻¹, Table 1) in all combinations 94 with a nitrification inhibitor 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate (DMPP) to reduce the conversion of 95 NH₄-N to NO₃-N. The NH₄-N additions were labelled with ¹⁵N to quantify the amount of NO₃-N in 96 soil at harvest derived from the NH₄-N fertilizer due to nitrification, and to quantify the amount of N in plants derived from NH₄-N fertilizer. Additionally three reference treatments (0N treatments) for 97 98 each P level were tested to study the plant growth response and soil pH development without N 99 application. One reference treatment with 100% NH₄-N and no maize plants, and one with 100% NH₄-100 N and no DMPP were also included to test the influence of plant growth, nitrification and DMPP, 101 respectively on soil pH and N dynamics.

102 The 1.9 L pots (inner diameter 103 mm) contained a coarse sandy topsoil (5-15 cm) collected from 103 Jyndevad Experimental Station, Southern Denmark. The soil was sieved (5 mm), mixed and filled in 104 pots to a height of 23.5 cm. The coarse sandy soil, which is a common soil type of Danish agricultural 105 land with maize cropping, had 3% clay ($<2 \mu$ m), 4% silt (2-20 µm), 91% sand (20 µm to 2 mm),

106 1.69% carbon and 0.13% N. The soil classifies as Orthic Haplohumod (USDA Soil Taxonomy

107 System). The gravimetric water content at field capacity under pot conditions defined by Kirkham

108 (2004) was 28%. At the start of the experiment, the coarse sandy soil had a pH (CaCl₂) of 5.4, and

109 Olsen-P content of 21 mg P kg⁻¹ (defined as a soil with medium P fertility in *Jordan-Meille* et al.,

110 (2012)). The Olsen-P test is the official soil-P test used on all soil types in Denmark and is widely used

111 across Europe on a range of soils, including acid sandy soils (*Jordan-Meille* et al., 2012). Initially, the

soil contained 2 mg NH₄-N and 8 mg NO₃-N kg⁻¹ dry soil. The soil was carefully packed into the pots

113 in three separate layers: 1568 g of soil was packed into a lower soil layer equivalent to 14.5 cm height,

432 g of soil enriched with the N and P fertilizer treatments constituted the middle soil layer equivalent to 4 cm height, and 502 g of soil equivalent to 5 cm height constituted the upper soil layer (Fig. 1a). A nylon mesh (mesh size=8 mm) separated the middle enriched soil layer from the lower and upper soil layer to be able to identify the middle layer at harvest. In total 2.5 kg soil was packed into each pot at a bulk density of 1.3 g cm⁻³.

119

(Figure 1)

120 The N and P (and DMPP) treatments were mixed into the middle soil layer only in order to simulate a 121 concentrated slurry injection band in forms and concentrations that mimicked the form of N (NH₄-N) 122 and P (DCP) most abundant in dairy slurry. Application of the fertilizers in a concentrated layer 123 simulated placed and injected fertilizer. DCP was applied as dry powder at a rate of 0, 167 or 500 mg 124 P pot⁻¹ corresponding to 0, 15 and 45 kg P ha⁻¹ based on a plant density of 90,000 plants ha⁻¹ (75 cm 125 distance between rows and 15 cm distance within rows). The rate of 15 kg P ha⁻¹ represents recommended agronomic practice in Denmark, and the rate of 45 kg P ha⁻¹ was chosen to avoid 126 127 potential P limitation to plant growth. The N fertilizer was applied in increasing proportions of NH₄-N 128 relative to the amount of NO₃-N. The total N application rate was 637 mg N pot⁻¹corresponding to 57 129 kg N ha⁻¹ based in a plant density of 90,000 plants ha⁻¹. The N application rate was based on a typical NH₄-N:P ratio in cattle slurry for the P level of 15 kg P ha⁻¹. NO₃-N was applied as potassium nitrate 130 131 (KNO₃), and ¹⁵N-labelled NH₄-N as ammonium sulphate ((NH₄)₂SO₄; 5.7% atom% ¹⁵N). To prevent 132 microbial oxidation of ammonium, Vizura ® (BASF, Ludwigshafen, Germany) was added at a rate of 133 1% of total N applied in all treatments except the reference treatment with 100% NH₄-N and 167 mg P 134 pot⁻¹. The stock solution consisted of 10% (w/w) DMPP ($C_5H_{11}N_2O_4P$) in 40% phosphoric acid (w/w). 135 This stock solution was mixed with the (NH₄)₂SO₄ fertilizer solutions and with demineralized water in 136 the 0% NH₄-N treatments adding 9 mg P pot⁻¹ from DMPP and phosphoric acid (equivalent to 5.1 and 1.7% of P application in the 167 and 500 mg P pot⁻¹ treatments, respectively). Additional nutrients K, 137 138 S and Mg were applied as solutions to the lower soil layer ten days before sowing at rates per pot of: 139 804 mg K (as K₂SO₄), 39 mg Mg (as MgSO₄) and 381 mg S (as K₂SO₄ and MgSO₄), based on the P:K 140 ratio in cattle slurry. Other nutrients were applied to all pots by later surface irrigation 15 days after

sowing at a rate per pot of 2.9 mg Mn, 2.1 mg Zn, 0.4 mg B, 1.2 mg Cu, 0.03 mg Co and 0.5 mg Mo.

142 These additional nutrients were added to eliminate other nutrient effects than P and N.

143 Maize seeds of an early developing maize hybrid (cv. Emblem, FAO 180; Limagrain) with an average 144 weight of 345 mg were pre-germinated and transplanted at 3 cm depth into the pots containing soil prewetted to 50% field capacity. The pots were then placed in a climate-controlled chamber at a daily 145 average temperature of 15 °C with a daily amplitude from 11 to 19 °C for the first 10 days, a mean 146 147 temperature increase of 0.1 °C day⁻¹ after 10 days, and a relative mean air humidity of 75%. The 148 plants were grown in 16 h photoperiods with light intensities ranging from 170 to 1060 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ to mimic Danish growing conditions in spring. The pots were irrigated with demineralized 149 150 water to a water content of 60% of field capacity during the first 21 days of growth, and then to 65% 151 from 21 days of growth until harvest (34 days). The position of the pots in the climate chamber was 152 randomly changed every fourth day to minimize any positional effects.

153 **2.2 Plant and soil measurements**

154 The maize plants were harvested destructively by cutting stems 1 cm above soil surface 55 days after sowing. The harvest date was based on the establishment of a clear difference between the P-levels in 155 156 chlorophyll content indices, plant height and leaf area at the five-leaf stage. The soil column was removed intact using a hydraulic pusher and cut into three layers (upper, middle, lower) using a knife. 157 158 For each layer, the bulk soil and rhizosphere soil were sampled separately immediately after 159 separation of the column. The rhizosphere soil was defined as the soil adhering to the roots. Root and 160 rhizosphere soil were separated by placing the roots on a 2 mm sieve and gently tapping on the side of 161 the sieve and collecting the soil passing the sieve. Bulk soil was defined as the remaining soil after 162 sampling of roots and adhering soil, and was sieved to 4 mm. All soils were kept at 2 °C until analyses 163 were performed two to three days after harvest. Sub-samples of the bulk soil were oven-dried for 24 h 164 at 105 °C. The roots from each layer were washed with deionized water right after separation from the rhizosphere soil. The maize seed was included in the upper root layer. The shoots and roots were 165 166 oven-dried at 60 °C to constant weight (min 48 h) for determination of dry matter (DM) and ground to a fine powder in a ball-mill prior to analysis. 167

168 **2.3 Analytical methods**

- 169 Soil pH was measured by glass electrode in 0.01 M CaCl₂ suspensions (1:2.5, w/w). NH₄-N and NO₃-
- 170 N in soil were determined by flow colorimetry (Autoanalyzer III, Bran + Luebbe GmbH, Nordersted,
- 171 Germany) after shaking fresh soil immediately after sampling with 2 M KCl for 30 minutes (1:4,
- 172 w/w). To study the rate of nitrification, the amount of ¹⁵N-NH₄ and ¹⁵N-NO₃ was determined in the
- 173 soil extract by sequential diffusion analyses (Sørensen and Jensen, 1991). Electrical conductivity was
- 174 measured in the supernatant after shaking 1 g of soil in 50 ml of deionized water for 1 h at 20 °C
- 175 followed by centrifugation for 10 min at $1831 \text{ x g} (20 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C})$.
- 176 Total N in shoots and roots and ¹⁵N enrichment of shoots, roots and soil extracts were determined at
- 177 the UC Davis Stable Isotope Facility (UC Davis, CA, USA) using a PDZ Europa ANCA-GSL
- 178 elemental analyser interfaced to a PDZ Europe 20-20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Sercon Ltd.
- 179 Cheshire, UK). The P concentration in shoot and root tissue was determined by digesting 300 mg dried
- 180 plant material in 3 ml H₂O₂ (9.7 M) and 6 ml HNO₃ (14.3 M) under pressure in a microwave. In case
- 181 of less material than 300 mg, a minimum 100 mg was digested. The P concentration in the diluted
- 182 digest was determined by ICP-OES (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). All soil and plant
- 183 results are expressed on an oven-dry basis.

184 **2.4 Calculations and statistical analysis**

- 185 Total P uptake (PU) and N uptake (NU) was calculated from DM weights and the P and N
- 186 concentration in the shoot and root tissue, respectively. The concentration of protons in 0.01 M CaCl₂
- 187 soil suspension was calculated as $[H^+] = 10^{-soil \, pH(0.01M \, CaCl_2)}$.
- 188 Percentage of N in plant derived from NH₄-N fertilizer (N_{plant}dfNH₄) was calculated as:

189
$$N_{plant}dfNH_4 = \frac{{}^{15}N_{excess}\ plant}{{}^{15}N_{excess}\ fertilizer} x100$$

where ${}^{15}N_{excess}$ in plant was calculated as the atom% ${}^{15}N$ in the labelled plant minus the atom% ${}^{15}N$ of treatments with 100% NO₃-N supply, and ${}^{15}N_{excess}$ fertilizer is the atom% excess of the added NH₄-N fertilizer (5.3 atom% excess). The quantity of N in plant derived from NH₄-N fertilizer (QN_{plant}dfNH₄) was calculated from NU and N_{plant}dfNH₄. The amount of NO₃-N in bulk soil in the lower and middle soil layer derived from NH₄-N fertilizer
(NO₃dfNH₄) at harvest was calculated as:

196

$$NO_3 df NH_4 = {}^{15}N_{excess}NO_3 \ x \ NO_3 - N \ in \ soil$$

where the ${}^{15}N_{excess}$ of NO₃-N is the ${}^{15}N$ atom% in the soil extract minus the ${}^{15}N$ atom% of treatments with 100% NO₃-N supply, and NO₃-N in soil is the total amount of NO₃-N in the middle and lower soil layer (mg N).

200 Statistical analysis was conducted using R version 3.2.3 (R Development Core Team, 2015). Data 201 normality was verified using the Shapiro-Wilk statistics. Data was logtransformed in cases where 202 homoscedasticity was not obtained from the raw data. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was 203 used to study the effect of NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratio on N and P concentrations in shoots, root and shoot 204 DM yields, NU and PU for each P level. To perform multiple comparisons between the NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios within each P level the Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test was used. A paired t-205 206 test was used to test the difference in pH between the rhizosphere and the bulk soil. An unpaired *t*-test 207 was used to test if soil pH differed in treatments with a nitrification inhibitor and without plant, 208 respectively compared to the corresponding treatment with a nitrification inhibitor. Simple linear 209 regression analysis was used to study the relationship between the concentration of protons in the 210 rhizosphere and the amount of N in shoot derived from the NH₄-N fertilizer, and between the 211 concentration of protons in the bulk soil and the amount of NO₃-N in soil deriving from NH₄-N 212 fertilizer in each layer. Significance was declared at the $P \le 0.05$ level of probability.

213 **3 Results**

214 **3.1 Root and shoot biomass**

- The root and shoot DM yield in the 0N treatments was significantly higher in treatments receiving 167 and 500 mg P pot⁻¹ compared to 0 mg P pot⁻¹ (Fig. 2), indicating that the plants benefitted from P supply despite the medium soil P status (Olsen-P content of 21 mg P kg⁻¹).
- 218

(Figure 2)

- 219 The plants receiving N but not P benefitted slightly from increasing NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratio, but the DM
- 220 yield was much lower than in the reference treatments without N (Fig. 2a).

- 221 When 167 and 500 mg P pot⁻¹was added, shoot DM yield and root DM yield in the middle and lower
- soil layer were highest in treatments with a NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratio of 50:50 and 75:25 compared to the
- 223 other NH₄-N: NO₃-N ratios (Fig. 2). The similarity in DM yields between treatments with an
- application rate of 167 mg P pot⁻¹ and 500 mg P pot⁻¹ showed that a rate of 167 mg P pot⁻¹ was
- sufficient to meet the crop P demands.
- 226 Treatments applied with only NO₃-N irrespective of the P level had a significantly lower shoot DM
- 227 yield than the other NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios, and the root growth was limited in the lower layer. The root
- and shoot DM yield also decreased, when only NH₄-N was applied compared to a NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratio
- of 75:25, although this was only significant in treatments with a P supply of 167 mg P pot⁻¹ (Fig. 2a).
- 230 Treatments with only NH₄-N supply had also clearly visible toxicity symptoms as foliar burn and
- chlorosis of the leaf tips (Fig. 1b, *right*).

3.2 P and N uptake

- 233 Total PU was significantly higher in treatments with NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios of 50:50 and 75:25
- receiving 167 mg P pot⁻¹ than the other NH_4 -N:NO₃-N ratios, and the same tendency was seen in
- treatments with a P supply of 500 mg pot⁻¹ (Table 1). In the 0N treatments, the P concentration and
- total PU were higher when P was applied compared to the 0N treatment without P supply (Table 1).
- 237 The NU in 0N treatments did not differ among the P levels (Table 1), and was higher (+10 mg pot⁻¹)
- than the initial amount of inorganic N in the soil at sowing, indicating that endosperm N and
- 239 mineralized soil organic N contributed to NU during growth. The N shoot concentration in 0N
- treatments ranged from 1.2% to 1.7% of DM, whereas it ranged from 5.2% to 6.0% across treatments
- applied with N and was not significantly different between the NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios (Table 1).
- 242

(Table 1)

243 **3.3 pH and inorganic N in soil**

- Soil pH generally decreased with increasing proportion of NH₄-N to NO₃-N added with the
- rhizosphere soil generally having lower pH than the bulk soil (Fig. 3).
- 246

(Figure 3)

The amount of P applied was only a significant factor affecting soil pH in the middle layer, with higher soil pH in treatments receiving 167 and 500 mg P pot⁻¹ (Fig. 3b), which could be due to the buffering effect of the DCP applied.

In bulk soil, pH in the 0N treatments was 5.4, 5.4 and 5.5 in the upper, middle and lower bulk soil layer, respectively across the three P application levels. pH in the 0N treatments did not change from the initial value (pH 5.4), whereas pH in the bulk soil declined in the upper and lower soil layer by as much as 0.5 pH units as the NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratio increased (Fig. 3a). pH in bulk soil with no maize plant and 100% NH₄-N was not significantly different from the corresponding treatment with a maize plant (Table 2).

256

(Table 2)

257 Bulk soil pH in the middle layer was lower in the 100% NH₄-N treatment without DMPP than the

258 corresponding treatment with DMPP (Table 2), and similarly the amount of NO₃-N in soil derived

from the NH₄-N fertilizer was higher in the treatment without DMPP than with DMPP (Table 1),

260 indicating a higher nitrification rate in the treatment without DMPP. The relatively stable bulk soil pH

261 in the middle layer with increasing proportion of NH₄-N added (Fig. 3b) does also reflect a local

262 inhibition of nitrification in the middle layer. In agreement with these findings, there was only a weak

263 relationship between NO₃-N derived from NH₄-N fertilizer and the concentration of protons (R^2 =0.34,

264 *P*>0.05) in the middle layer, where DMPP was applied.

265 A substantial amount of NH₄-N found in the lower soil layer at harvest was derived from NH₄-N

266 fertilizer (from ¹⁵N assay, Table 1), which indicates movement of NH₄-N from the middle layer to the

lower layer. The pH decline in the lower layer bulk soil, in response to the increasing proportion of

268 NH₄-N applied in the middle layer (Fig. 3a), could therefore be due to nitrification of NH₄-N after

transport from the middle layer. This was also reflected in the significant relationship between the

270 NO₃-N derived from the NH₄-N fertilizer and the concentration of protons in the lower bulk soil layer

271 without a local inhibition of the nitrification (R^2 =0.95, P<0.001).

272 The pH decline in the upper layer bulk soil, in response to the increasing proportion of NH₄-N applied

273 (Fig. 3a) could also be due to nitrification of the NH₄-N applied. We did not measure the amount of

274 NH₄-N in the upper soil layer at harvest, but we surmise that water evaporation from the soil surface

- and movement of water to the upper soil layer due to root water uptake could induce flow transport of
 NH₄-N in the soil solution from the middle to the upper layer between irrigations.
- 277 Treatments with a NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratio of 25:75 or higher had a significantly lower soil pH in the
- 278 rhizosphere compared to the bulk soil in the upper and lower soil layers (Fig. 3a). In the middle soil
- 279 layer, the lower pH in the rhizosphere compared to the bulk soil was in general only observed in
- treatments with P supply (Fig. 3b). In contrast, treatments with a NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratio of 0:100 had
- significantly higher pH in the rhizosphere in the upper and lower soil layer compared to the bulk soil.
- 282 The pH in the rhizosphere was 5.5 in all three layers in the 0N treatments, and did not differ from the
- pH in the bulk soil.

284 4 Discussion

285 **4.1 Root distribution**

- The low root biomass in the middle and lower soil layer when N fertilizer was applied as 100% NO₃-N or 100% NH₄-N or when no P was applied in combination with N (Fig. 2) indicated a general root inhibition caused by the N fertilizer applied to the middle soil layer.
- 289 The relatively high root biomass in treatments where 50% or 75% of the N supply was applied as
- 290 NH₄-N combined with 167 or 500 mg P pot⁻¹ may reflect a root growth promoting effect of plant
- available P in the middle and lower soil layer. This is in line with early studies by Drew and Saker
- 292 (1978) who reported an increase in the number of lateral roots in barley in a P enriched zone. The lack
- of rooting in treatments applied with 100% NO₃-N irrespective of the P level could be due to the
- inhibitory effect of high nitrate concentrations in the soil solution on root elongation of primary roots,
- which is also reported in other studies (e.g. *Tian* et al., 2008).
- 296 Toxicity effects of pure NH₄-N supply have been reported in previous studies (e.g. Gerendás et al.,
- 297 1997). A toxic effect of 100% NH₄-N supply has also been observed under conditions where pH was
- 298 controlled (*Li* et al., 2014), and could be due to several processes, such as energy requirements
- 299 including energy costs for NH₄-N efflux due to limited storage capacity of NH₄-N in the plant (*Britto*
- 300 et al., 2001) and/or suppression of the photosynthetic rate due to reduced stomatal conductance (Miller
- 301 and Cramer, 2005). It is recognized however, that the relatively better growth response observed in

the treatments applied with only NH₄-N than treatments applied with only NO₃-N (Fig. 2) is not in
accordance with previous studies (e.g. *Cramer and Lewis*, 1993), but could be due to differences in the
experimental conditions such as nutrient supply level and soil buffer capacity.

305 The lower DM yield and poor root growth in deeper layers in the treatments receiving N but not P

306 compared to the reference treatments without N supply suggest that N application (no matter the NH₄-

307 N:NO₃-N ratio) formed an unfavorable environment in the middle soil layer when no P was applied.

308 An unfavorable environment in the middle layer could be due to the high electrical conductivity

309 (Table 1) caused by the high salt concentrations, which can reduce cell osmotic potential (*Bernstein*,

310 1975) and hence result in poor plant growth. The lack of rooting into the lower layer could also

311 indicate that there was no need to acquire N from the lower layer, because of a sufficient amount of

312 available N in the middle layer.

The extensive rooting into the lower soil layer for the 0N treatments could reflect the plant's need to explore a larger soil volume for N due to limited N supply in combination with absence of a rootinhibiting layer, which was present in the treatments with N application. Limited N supply in the 0N treatments was also confirmed by low shoot N concentrations and shoot N:P ratios of <10 (Table 1). According to *Güsewell* (2004) a N:P ratio <10 can indicate N limited biomass production across various terrestrial plant species. Plant growth in the 0N treatments would therefore probably be compromised in the subsequent growing stages due to limited N supply.

320 4.2 Availability of P and N

321 The increased P uptake (PU) in treatments with 50% and 75% NH₄-N supply and P supply could be 322 due to an increased solubility of DCP close to the root induced by the larger pH decrease in the 323 rhizosphere. A balanced N and P supply was also reflected in shoot N:P ratios between 12 and 16 in 324 these treatments (Table 1), suggesting that neither N nor P was limiting growth according to Güsewell 325 (2004). The lower PU in treatments with 100% NH₄-N supply despite decreasing soil pH again reflects the toxic effect of pure NH₄-N on crop growth, which compromises the higher solubility of DCP 326 327 induced by the pH decrease in the rhizosphere. The low PU and low P concentrations in shoots in 328 treatments with 100% NO₃-N and P supply could be because of the pH increase in the rhizosphere in

329 the middle layer (Fig. 3b), which makes the DCP less soluble (*Lindsay* et al., 1989) and hence less

330 plant available combined with the poor root growth in the middle layer in these treatments. P shortage

331 in treatments with 100% NO₃-N supply irrespective of P supply, and in treatments with N but no P

332 supply, was also reflected in their high shoot N:P ratios (Table 1).

333 The N concentrations in the plant tissues were high compared to other pot studies with maize and high

N application rates (e.g. Wu et al., 2005), which suggest that there was sufficient N supply to the

maize plants. The results also show that the plants were able to take up N from N fertilizer applied to

the middle soil layer, despite the poor root growth in this layer.

337 The significant response to P supply in treatments without N supply can be related to the simple

dissolution of DCP in an acid soil (*Lindsay* et al., 1989) rather than dissolution caused by treatment

related pH decline. Moreover, the 0N treatment without P supply had a higher PU compared to

340 treatments with N but no P (Table 1), because the inhibited root growth in the middle and lower layer

in these latter treatments greatly restricted P uptake from the lower soil layer.

342 **4.3** Linking NH₄-N supply, rhizosphere acidification and maize growth

The pH decrease in bulk soil of the lower layer was related to the nitrification of the NH₄-N fertilizer, whereas the stable pH in bulk soil of the middle layer was due to a local inhibition of nitrification. The inhibitory effect on nitrification in the middle layer due to DMPP application is in line with previous work (e.g. *Kong* et al., 2016). The lack of pH difference in the bulk soil between the treatments with and without plants and pure NH₄-N supply also supports that the pH change in the bulk soil was not plant-induced, but rather due to the nitrification of the NH₄-N applied and possibly the mineralization of organic matter.

350 The lower soil pH recorded in the rhizosphere than in the bulk soil in treatments with a NH₄-N:NO₃-N

ratio of 25:75 or higher suggests release of protons from the roots as a consequence of NH₄-N plant

352 uptake. The proton efflux may also be due to other pH regulating processes in the plant such as greater

353 cation than anion uptake or production of organic acids in the plant containing a dissociating proton

354 (*Raven*, 1986) in addition to any nitrification effect in the soil. This was confirmed by the significant

355 linear relationship between the difference in proton concentration between the bulk and rhizosphere

356 soils and the amount of N in the shoot derived from the NH₄-N fertilizer (¹⁵N labelled) in treatments 357 supplied with NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios from 0:100 to 75:25 (Fig. 4). 358 (Figure 4) 359 Treatments applied with only NH₄-N did not follow the same pattern because of a restricted N uptake 360 induced by a toxicity effect (Table 1). Hence, the additional soil acidification in the rhizosphere 361 compared to the bulk soil can be attributed to the extrusion of H⁺ to counter-balance the NH₄-N 362 uptake, and likewise the pH increase in the rhizosphere in treatments supplied with 100% NO₃-N was 363 due to the release of OH^{-}/HCO_{3}^{-} by the roots as suggested by *Riley and Barber* (1971). The steeper pH 364 decline with a NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratio of 25:75 (Fig. 3) could be due to preferential uptake of NH₄-N (Lee 365 and Drew, 1989). This was further supported by the percentage of N in the plant tissue derived from 366 the NH₄-N fertilizer being >25% at this specific NH₄-N level (Table 1). 367 The small differences in pH between the rhizosphere soil and the bulk soil in treatments without N application indicate a minor importance of plant or microbial mediated acidifying processes in the 368 369 rhizosphere, which are not coupled to N application, such as excretion of organic anions and 370 associated protons (*Hinsinger* et al., 2003). The lack of any pH drop in the rhizosphere in the middle 371 layer in treatments receiving N but no P was most probably due to the adverse effect of these 372 particular treatments on root growth and function. 373 The root induced pH change in the rhizosphere was also significant in the upper layer implying that 374 proton release following NH₄-N uptake may not only take place close to where N is taken up, but 375 rather that the whole root system behaves evenly assuming that the highest N uptake took place in the 376 middle soil layer. A study by Taylor and Bloom (1998) shows that the pH drop occurs along the entire 377 root, when NH₄-N is applied alone, whereas pH increases in the basal regions of primary root of the 378 maize seedling and decreases in the elongation zone, when NO_3 -N is applied alone. However, further 379 root studies of proton fluxes along the root in a system with placed fertilizers with high concentrations 380 of N are needed to confirm this.

4.4 Implications for nutrient management in maize cropping systems

382 The clear response to added P (whether N was added or not) reaffirms the benefits of starter P 383 fertilizer to young maize plants even on a soil with a medium P status, where P limitation is not 384 expected. Although this growth benefit may not always translate into extra yield at harvest, and the 385 crop recovery of this added P is very low, it is clearly in the farmer's interest to optimize early plant development. Our study suggests that dairy slurry, which has a high proportion of NH₄-N and DCP, 386 387 could be a good source of both starter N and P to young maize plants due to the beneficial effect of 388 NH₄-N supply and uptake on the availability of DCP due to acidification of the rhizosphere. 389 Preventing nitrification of slurry NH₄-N through the use of an inhibitor is likely to enhance this 390 interaction between NH₄-N and DCP in the rhizosphere, whilst at the same time maximizing the long-391 term availability of N by reducing the risk of NO₃-N leaching. For example, Westerschulte et al. 392 (2016) found in a field trial that addition of a nitrification inhibitor increased the NH₄-N concentration 393 in the slurry injection zone, which may ensure a higher uptake of NH₄-N and hence an improved 394 availability of DCP. It is recognized however, that it is unclear how the positive interacting effects 395 between NH₄-N uptake and DCP availability identified in the present study are affected by other 396 components present in manure such as buffering compounds (Sommer and Husted, 1995), which could 397 reduce the rhizosphere acidification if the slurry is placed below the maize row. Moreover, there was 398 limited root growth and nutrient uptake due to N application in our study, but it is unclear whether this 399 would occur when slurry is band applied at operational rates. The current application rate of slurry N 400 to maize in Denmark is around 120 kg NH₄-N ha⁻¹ (Landbrugsstyrelsen, 2018), which will correspond 401 to a local application rate in the slurry injection zone of 600 kg NH_4 -N ha⁻¹ near the maize plant, 402 assuming a 15 cm broad slurry band for each maize row with 75 cm distance. Few studies (e.g. Sawyer 403 and Hoeft, 1990) report that slurry injection can cause an unfavorable environment for root growth, 404 whereas other field studies (e.g. Schröder et al., 1997) do not report any root injuries in the 405 concentrated slurry band. However, further work is needed to investigate if potentially toxicity effects 406 from banded slurry applications and/or interactions with other components in the slurry such as 407 buffering compounds could compromise the positive interacting effects between NH₄-N supply and 408 DCP availability on maize growth during early growth.

409 **5** Conclusions

410 The major proportion of inorganic P in dairy manure is present as DCP (CaHPO₄). Application of 411 DCP increased the growth of young maize plants on a coarse sandy soil with a medium P status under 412 typical Danish environmental conditions. Shoot DM yield and P uptake were significantly higher 413 when DCP was applied in combination with N at NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios of 50:50 and 75:25. This 414 increased P uptake was explained by the release of protons into the rhizosphere as the proportion of 415 NH₄-N taken up by the plants increased, allowing enhanced dissolution of the DCP. Less root growth 416 were apparent when NO₃-N or NH₄-N was the sole N source, or when N (all NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios) 417 was applied without P. The absence of the root-inhibiting layer in the treatments without N application 418 explains the relatively high DM yields in these particular treatments. Fertilizer N form therefore had a 419 major effect on P uptake and our results suggest that early growth of maize will benefit from the 420 combined application of both NH₄-N and DCP, if a substantial amount of the NH₄-N is taken up 421 before nitrification.

422 Acknowledgement

We wish to thank Rodrigo Labouriau for his help with the experimental design. We thank the
technical staff, especially Tiina Pedersen, Margit Paulsen and Karin Dyrberg, in the Department of
Agroecology, Aarhus University, Denmark, for technical assistance. We thank associate professor
Lars Elsgaard for valuable comments on a previous version of the paper. The study was financially
supported by the Ministry of Environment and Food of Denmark (Green Development and
Demonstration Programme (GUDP) project "Gylle-IT").

429 **References**

- Barry, D., Miller, M. (1989): Phosphorus nutritional requirement of maize seedlings for maximum
 yield. Agron. J. 81, 95-99.
- *Bernstein, L.* (1975): Effects of salinity and sodicity on plant growth. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* 13, 295312.

- 434 Britto, D.T., Siddiqi, M.Y., Glass, A.D.M., Kronzucker, H.J. (2001): Futile transmembrane
- NH₄⁺cycling: A cellular hypothesis to explain ammonium toxicity in plants. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences.* 98, 4255-4258. doi: 10.1073/pnas.061034698.
- 437 *Cramer, M., Lewis, O.* (1993): The influence of nitrate and ammonium nutrition on the growth of
 438 wheat (Triticum aestivum) and maize (Zea mays) plants. *Ann. Bot.* 72, 359-365.
- 439 Drew, M. C., Saker, L. R. (1978): Nutrient supply and the growth of the seminal root system in barley
- 440 III. Compensatory increases in growth of lateral roots, and in rates of phosphate uptake, in
 441 response to localized supply of phosphate. *J Exp Bot.* 29, 435-451.
- 442 Gerendás, J., Zhu, Z., Bendixen, R., Ratcliffe, R. G., Sattelmacher, B. (1997): Physiological and
- 443 biochemical processes related to ammonium toxicity in higher plants. *Z. Pflanzenernähr*.
 444 *Bodenkd*. 160, 239-251.
- Grant, C., Flaten, D., Tomasiewicz, D., Sheppard, S. (2001): The importance of early season
 phosphorus nutrition. Can. J. Plant Sci. 81, 211-224.
- Güngör, K., Jürgensen, A., Karthikeyan, K. (2007): Determination of phosphorus speciation in dairy
 manure using XRD and XANES spectroscopy. J. Environ. Qual. 36, 1856-1863.
- 449 *Güsewell, S.* (2004): N : P ratios in terrestrial plants: variation and functional significance. *New*450 *Phytol.* 164, 243-266. doi:10.1111/j.1469-8137.2004.01192.x
- 451 Hinsinger, P., Plassard, C., Tang, C., Jaillard, B. (2003): Origins of root-mediated pH changes in the
- 452 rhizosphere and their responses to environmental constraints: A review. *Plant Soil* 248, 43-59.
 453 doi:10.1023/a:1022371130939
- Jing, J., Rui, Y., Zhang, F., Rengel, Z., Shen, J. (2010): Localized application of phosphorus and
 ammonium improves growth of maize seedlings by stimulating root proliferation and
- 456 rhizosphere acidification. *Field Crops Res.* 119, 355-364. doi:10.1016/j.fcr.2010.08.005
- 457 Jordan-Meille, L., Rubæk, G.H., Ehlert, P., Genot, V., Hofman, G., Goulding, K., Recknagel, J.,
- 458 *Provolo, G., Barraclough, P.* (2012): An overview of fertilizer-P recommendations in Europe:
 459 soil testing, calibration and fertilizer recommendations. *Soil Use Manage*. 28, 419-435.
- 460 *Landbrugsstyrelsen* (2018): Vejledning om gødsknings- og harmoniregler. Planperioden 1. august
- 461 2018 til 31. juli 2019. 1. revision, maj 2018. *Miljø- og Fødevareministeriet*.

- 462 <u>https://lbst.dk/fileadmin/user_upload/NaturErhverv/Filer/Landbrug/Vejledning_om_goedskni</u>
 463 <u>ngs- og_harmoniregler_2018_2019_1version.pdf</u>
- 464 Kirkham, M. B. (2004): Principles of soil and plant water relations. Academic Press, Burlington, USA
- 465 *Knudsen, L.* (2010): Økonomisk optimal anvendelse af startgødninger til majs. Plantekongres,

466 Herning, Denmark, *Sammendrag af indlæg til Plantekongres*. 93-95.

- 467 Kong, X., Duan, Y., Schramm, A., Eriksen, J., Petersen, S. O. (2016): 3,4-Dimethylpyrazole phosphate
- 468 (DMPP) reduces activity of ammonia oxidizers without adverse effects on non-target soil
- 469 microorganisms and functions. *Appl. Soil Ecol.* 105, 67-75.
- 470 doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2016.03.018
- 471 Kronvang, B., Rubæk, G. H., Heckrath, G. (2009): International phosphorus workshop: Diffuse
- 472 phosphorus loss to surface water bodies—risk assessment, mitigation options, and ecological
 473 effects in river basins. *J. Environ. Qual.* 38, 1924-1929.
- 474 Lee, R. B., Drew, M. C. (1989): Rapid, reversible inhibition of nitrate influx in barley by ammonium.

475 *J. Exp. Bot.* 40, 741-752. doi:10.1093/jxb/40.7.741

- 476 Li, B., Li, G., Kronzucker, H. J., Baluška, F., Shi, W. (2014): Ammonium stress in Arabidopsis:
- 477 signaling, genetic loci, and physiological targets. *Trends Plant Sci.* 19, 107-114.
- 478 doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tplants.2013.09.004
- 479 Lindsay, W. L., Vlek, P. L. G., Chien, S. H. (1989): Phosphate minerals. In: Dixon JB, Weed SB (eds)
- 480 Minerals in soil environments. SSSA Book Series, vol 1. Soil Sci. Soc. of Am. J., Madison,
- 481 WI, pp 1089–1130. doi:10.2136/sssabookser1.2ed.c22
- 482 *Lynch, J. P., Ho, M. D.* (2005): Rhizoeconomics: Carbon costs of phosphorus acquisition. *Plant Soil*483 269, 45-56. doi:10.1007/s11104-004-1096-4
- 484 *Miller, A. J., Cramer, M. D.* (2005): Root nitrogen acquisition and assimilation. *Plant Soil* 274, 1-36.
 485 doi:10.1007/s11104-004-0965-1
- 486 Nkebiwe, P. M., Weinmann, M., Bar-Tal, A., Müller, T. (2016): Fertilizer placement to improve crop
- 487 nutrient acquisition and yield: A review and meta-analysis. *Field Crops Res.* 196, 389-401.
- 488 doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fcr.2016.07.018

- 489 *Ott, C., Rechberger, H.* (2012): The European phosphorus balance. *Resour, Conserv and Recycl.* 60,
 490 159-172.
- 491 *Pagliari, P. H.* (2014): Variety and solubility of phosphorus forms in animal manure and their effects
 492 on soil test phosphorus. In: He Z, Zhang H (eds) Applied manure and nutrient chemistry for
 493 sustainable agriculture and environment. Springer, pp 141-161.
- 494 *Petersen, J., Hansen, B., Sørensen, P.* (2004): Nitrification of 15N-ammonium sulphate and crop
- 495 recovery of 15N-labelled ammonium nitrates injected in bands. *Eur. J. Agron.* 21, 81-92.
- 496 *R Development Core Team* (2015): R: A language and environment for statistical computing.
- 497 Raven, J. A. (1986): Biochemical disposal of excess H+ in growing plants? New Phytol. 104, 175-206.
- 498 Riley, D., Barber, S. A. (1971): Effect of ammonium and nitrate fertilization on phosphorus uptake as
- related to root-induced pH changes at the root-soil interface. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 35, 301-306.
 doi:10.2136/sssaj1971.03615995003500020035x
- Sawyer, J. E., Hoeft, R. G. (1990): Effect of injected liquid beef manure on soil chemical properties
 and corn root distribution. J. Prod. Agric. 3, 50-55. doi:10.2134/jpa1990.0050
- *Schroder, J., Ten, Holte, L., Brouwer, G.* (1997): Response of silage maize to placement of cattle
 slurry. *Neth. J. Agric. Sci.* 45, 249-261.
- 505 Schröder, J. J., Vermeulen, G. D., van der Schoot, J. R., van Dijk, W., Huijsmans, J. F. M., Meuffels,
- 506 *G. J. H. M., van der Schans, D. A.* (2015): Maize yields benefit from injected manure
 507 positioned in bands. *Eur. J. Agron.* 64, 29–36. doi:10.1016/j. eja.2014.12.011
- *Sharpley, A., Moyer, B.* (2000): Phosphorus forms in manure and compost and their release during
 simulated rainfall. *J. Environ. Qual.* 29, 1462-1469.
- 510 Sommer, S., Husted, S. (1995): The chemical buffer system in raw and digested animal slurry. J. Agric.
 511 Sci. 124, 45-53
- 512 Sørensen, P., Jensen, E. S. (1991): Sequential diffusion of ammonium and nitrate from soil extracts to
 513 a polytetrafluoroethylene trap for ¹⁵N determination. *Anal. Chim. Acta*. 252, 201-203.
- 514 doi:10.1016/0003-2670(91)87215-s
- 515 Taylor, A., Bloom, A. (1998): Ammonium, nitrate, and proton fluxes along the maize root. Plant, Cell
- 516 *Environ.* 21, 1255-1263.

- 517 *Tian, Q., Chen, F., Liu, J., Zhang, F., Mi, G.* (2008): Inhibition of maize root growth by high nitrate
 518 supply is correlated with reduced IAA levels in roots. *J. Plant Physiol.* 165, 942-951.
 519 doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jplph.2007.02.011
- 520 Webb, J., Sørensen, P., Velthof, G., Amon, B., Pinto, M., Rodhe, L., Salomon, E., Hutchings, N.,
- 521 Burczyk, P., Reid, J. (2013): An assessment of the variation of manure nitrogen efficiency
- 522 throughout Europe and an appraisal of means to increase manure-N efficiency. In: Donald S
- 523 (ed) Advances in Agronomy, Academic Press, pp 371-442.
- 524 Westerschulte, M., Federolf, C. P., Trautz, D., Broll, G., Olfs, H. W. (2016): Nitrogen dynamics
- following slurry injection in maize: soil mineral nitrogen. *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosys.* 107, 1-17.
 doi.10.1007/s10705-016-9799-5
- 527 Withers, P. J. A., van Dijk, K. C., Neset, T. S. S., Nesme, T., Oenema, O., Rubæk, G. H., Schoumans,
- 528 O. F., Smit, B., Pellerin, S. (2015): Stewardship to tackle global phosphorus inefficiency: The
 529 case of Europe. Ambio 44, 193-206. doi:10.1007/s13280-014-0614-8
- 530 Wu, S. C., Cao, Z. H., Li, Z. G., Cheung, K. C., Wong, M. H. (2005): Effects of biofertilizer containing
- 531 N-fixer, P and K solubilizers and AM fungi on maize growth: a greenhouse trial. *Geoderma*
- 532 125, 155-166. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2004.07.003.
- 533

535 Figure captions

Figure 1. a) Schematic view of the cylindrical pot separated in three layers; upper soil layer with
maize seed (*red circle*), middle soil layer applied with N and P fertilizers and lower soil layer, b)
photos of leaves in treatments applied with 167 or 500 mg P pot⁻¹ combined with a NH₄-N:NO₃-N
ratio of (*from the left*) 0:0, 0:100, 50:50 and 100:0.

Figure 2. a) Shoot dry matter yield and b) root dry matter yield and the distribution of roots in the three soil layers at 5-leaf stage. Different letters denote significant differences between the three P application rates in combination with 0N application, and significant differences between the NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratios within each P-level (Tukey's HSD, P < 0.05). There was no significant difference between the root dry matter yields for treatments receiving 0 mg P pot⁻¹.

Figure 3. a) pH in bulk soil and rhizosphere at harvest for each soil layer across the three P application levels and b) pH in bulk soil and rhizosphere at harvest in the middle soil layer for each P application level (0, 167 and 500 mg P pot⁻¹). P application level was only a significant variable in the middle soil layer. Asterisks (*) indicate a significant difference between the pH in the rhizosphere and bulk soil within the same NH₄-N:NO₃-N ratio (paired *t*-test, *P*<0.05). Error bars represent the standard deviations.

551 **Figure 4.** Relation between the amounts of N derived from the NH₄-N fertilizer (QN_{plant}dfNH₄) in

whole plant and the difference in concentration of protons $[H^+]$ in 0.01 M CaCl₂ soil suspension

between the bulk soil and the rhizosphere for each soil layer. Treatments with 100% NH₄-N supply

(open symbols) were not included in the statistical analysis. The solid lines represent the simple linear

regression for each layer. Upper layer: $R^2=0.76$, P<0.05, Middle layer: $R^2=0.81$, P<0.05, Lower layer:

556 $R^2 = 0.65, P < 0.05.$

557

558

560 Table 1. Treatment effects on plant and soil at harvest. Plant measurements at harvest: N and P concentration (conc.) in shoot, N:P ratio in shoot, N uptake (NU) in

561 whole plant, percentage of N in plant derived from NH₄N fertilizer (NdfNH₄N) and P uptake (PU) in whole plant. Soil measurements at harvest: amount of NO₃N

562 derived from NH₄N fertilizer (NO₃NdfNH₄N) in middle and lower soil layer, amount of NH₄N in lower layer derived from NH₄N fertilizer (NH₄NdfNH₄N) and the

563 electrical conductivity (EC) in middle soil layer with nutrient application. Different letters denote significant differences between the three P application rates in

564 combination with 0N application, and significant differences between NH₄N:NO₃N ratios within each P-level (Tukey's HSD, *P*<0.05).

565

Treatment					Plant at ha	arvest	Soil at harvest			
P-level	NH ₄ N:NO ₃ N ratio	Ν	Р	N:P	NU	NdfNH ₄ N	PU	NO ₃ NdfNH ₄ N	NH ₄ NdfNH ₄ N	EC
		conc.	conc.	ratio					lower layer	middle layer
mg pot ⁻¹		% of shoot DM			mg pot ⁻¹	%	mg pot ⁻¹	mg pot ⁻¹		μs cm ⁻¹
0	0:0	1.69 ^a	0.16^{b}	10	35.9 ^a	-	3.8 ^b	-	-	8
167	0:0	1.23 ^b	0.25 ^a	5	36.3ª	-	7.4 ^a	-	-	16
500	0:0	1.22 ^b	0.26 ^a	5	36.5 ^a	-	8.4 ^a	-	-	22
0	0:100	5.39 ^a	0.12 ^b	45	33.4 ^b	0	0.7 ^c	0.0	0.0	62
0	25:75	6.04 ^a	0.13 ^b	46	46.4 ^{ab}	26	1.1 ^b	28.3	15.2	77
0	50:50	5.99ª	0.13 ^b	45	55.3ª	41	1.3 ^b	46.7	51.8	83
0	75:25	6.01 ^a	0.14 ^b	42	61.7 ^a	56	1.5 ^{ab}	55.7	75.0	97
0	100:0	5.56 ^a	0.22ª	25	49.5ª	83	2.0ª	66.0	117.3	96
167	0:100	5.57 ^a	0.12 ^c	46	33.7°	0	0.8 ^c	0.0	0.0	83
167	25:75	5.47 ^a	0.19 ^b	30	65.0 ^b	28	2.4 ^b	29.0	23.7	91
167	50:50	5.39ª	0.34 ^a	16	157.0 ^a	46	10.1ª	42.3	31.5	106
167	75:25	5.44 ^a	0.34 ^a	16	148.3 ^a	60	9.5 ^a	51.4	74.4	118
167	100:0	5.62 ^a	0.37 ^a	15	73.0 ^b	86	4.5 ^b	60.1	81.5	117
167	100:0, no DMPP	5.87 ^a	0.36ª	20	66.0 ^b	87	3.8 ^b	103.2	56.4	140
167	100:0, no plant	-	-	-	-	-	-	65.7	81.6	118
500	0:100	5.19 ^a	0.14 ^c	36	39.9 ^b	0	1.1°	0.0	0.0	90
500	25:75	5.25 ^a	0.30 ^b	19	79.2 ^{ab}	32	4.8 ^b	26.8	22.9	101
500	50:50	5.36 ^a	0.42^{ab}	13	148.6 ^a	45	12.0 ^{ab}	43.4	39.7	108
500	75:25	5.53ª	0.47 ^a	12	151.8ª	59	12.7 ^a	48.2	50.8	127
500	100:0	5.62 ^a	0.56 ^a	10	95.1ª	86	9.1 ^{ab}	63.0	108.5	124

Table 2. pH in bulk soil and rhizosphere for treatments with a nitrification inhibitor (With DMPP), without a nitrification inhibitor (No DMPP) and without a plant (No plant), respectively. The treatments had a NH₄N:NO₃N ratio of 100:0 and a P application rate of 167 mg P pot⁻¹. Asterisks (*) indicate a significant difference compared to the treatment with a nitrification inhibitor (with DMPP) within each column (unpaired t-test, P<0.05).

		pH in bulk s	oil		pH in rhizosphere			
	Lower	Middle	Upper	Lower	Middle	Upper		
With DMPP	5.03	5.60	4.88	4.69	5.21	4.54		
No DMPP	4.90	5.45*	4.54*	4.85	5.14	4.26*		
No plant	5.08	5.67	5.00	-	-	-		