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Elevated CO₂ and water-availability effect on gas exchange and nodule development in N₂-fixing alfalfa plants

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ABSTRACT

 N_2 -fixing alfalfa plants were grown in controlled conditions at different CO_2 levels (350 μ mol mol $^{-1}$ versus 700 μ mol mol $^{-1}$) and water-availability conditions (WW, watered at maximum pot water capacity versus WD, watered at 50% of control treatments) in order to determine the CO_2 effect (and applied at two water regimes) on plant growth and nodule activity in alfalfa plants. The CO_2 stimulatory effect (26% enhancement) on plant growth was limited to WW plants, whereas no CO_2 effect was observed in WD plants. Exposure to elevated CO_2 decreased Rubisco carboxylation capacity of plants, caused by a specific reduction in Rubisco (EC 4.1.1.39) concentration (11% in WW and 43% in WD) probably explained by an increase in the leaf carbohydrate levels. Plants grown at 700 μ mol mol $^{-1}$ CO_2 maintained control photosynthetic rates (at growth conditions) by diminishing Rubisco content and by increasing nitrogen use efficiency. Interestingly, our data also suggest that reduction in shoot N demand (reflected by the TSP and especially Rubisco depletion) affected negatively nodule activity (malate dehydrogenase, EC 1.1.1.37, and glutamate-oxaloacetate transaminase, EC 2.6.1.1, activities) particularly in water-limited conditions. Furthermore, nodule DM and TSS data revealed that those nodules were not capable to overcome C sink strength limitations.

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1. Introduction

For the 1000 years prior to the Industrial Revolution, atmospheric CO_2 concentration (C_a) was stable at about 270 μ mol mol⁻¹. Human activities have been continuously increasing the concentration of atmospheric CO_2 from about 280 μ mol mol⁻¹ at the beginning of the 19th century to its current value of 372 μ mol mol⁻¹ which represents an increase of 38%. By the middle of this century, atmospheric CO_2 is predicted to reach 550 μ mol mol⁻¹ and to surpass 700 μ mol mol⁻¹ by the end of the century (Alley et al., 2007).

Abbreviations: A, net photosynthetic rate; A_{350} , A measured at 350 μmol mol $^{-1}$ CO $_2$; A_{700} , A measured at 700 μmol mol $^{-1}$ CO $_2$; Ci, intercellular CO $_2$ concentration; Ci $_{350}$, Ci measured at 350 μmol mol $^{-1}$ CO $_2$; Ci $_{700}$, Ci measured at 700 μmol mol $^{-1}$ CO $_2$; DM, dry mass; g, conductance; g_{350} , g measured at 350 μmol mol $^{-1}$ CO $_2$; g_{700} , g measured at 700 μmol mol $^{-1}$ CO $_2$; GOT, glutamate-oxaloacetate transaminase; MDH, malate dehydrogenase; PPFD, photosynthetic photon flux density; TSP, total soluble protein; TSS, total soluble sugars; VPD, vapour pressure deficit; WW, plants watered at maximum soil volumetric water content; WD, partially watered plants; $\theta_{\rm V}$, soil volumetric water content.

Because photosynthesis and biomass production of plants with C_3 photosynthetic metabolism are currently limited by C_a , both CO_2 fixation rates and plant growth increase as C_a rises (Daepp et al., 2000; Aranjuelo et al., 2005b). An increase in CO_2 concentration from 300-350 to $680~\mu mol~mol^{-1}$ has been described as enhancing plant growth by 7% to 25% (Hadley et al., 1995; Daepp et al., 2000; Aranjuelo et al., 2006; Erice et al., 2006). Analyses of the CO_2 effect and its interaction with other environmental conditions is of great relevancy, since the responsiveness of plants to enhanced CO_2 has been shown to differ with H_2O availability (Serraj et al., 1998), temperature (Aranjuelo et al., 2005a; Erice et al., 2006) and humidity (De Luis et al., 2002). Furthermore, as described by Valladares and Pearcey (1997), stress growth conditions might have different effects on plant growth that cannot be predicted if they are analysed separately, because of synergistic and antagonistic phenomena.

Although the initial stimulation of net photosynthesis associated with elevated CO₂ is sometimes retained during long-term exposure (Gunderson and Wullschleger, 1994), it is often partially reversed in an acclimation process, often referred as "down-regulation" (Long et al., 2004; Aranjuelo et al., 2005b; Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007). Down-regulation is usually accompanied by alterations in the gas-exchange characteristics that are indicative of a decreased carboxylation capacity (Ainsworth and Long, 2005;

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Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007). Long-term studies also revealed that photosynthesis and the growth response to elevated CO₂ depend on a plant's ability to develop new sinks, expand storage capacity or the growth rate of existing sinks (Wolfe et al., 1998; Erice et al., 2006). According to Thomas and Strain (1991), when the carbohydrate production in plants exposed to elevated CO₂ exceeds the capacity to produce new sinks, the plants decrease their photosynthetic rate so as to balance source activity and sink capacity. Experiments conducted under controlled conditions (Stitt and Krapp, 1999; Poorter and Perez-Soba, 2002) and field conditions under free air CO₂ enrichment (FACE, Ainsworth and Long, 2005) have highlighted how sink development is restricted under N limiting conditions. In addition, it has been observed that the carbohydrate-mediated repression of photosynthetic genes is more severe in N-deficient plants (Stitt and Krapp, 1999; Reich et al., 2006; Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007). Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain the N limitation on growth, including limitations due to faster growth (Farage et al., 1998), increased microbial immobilization of N, or N sequestration in plant biomass (Luo et al., 2004).

Several authors (Serraj et al., 1998; Lüscher et al., 2000; Rogers et al., 2006) have postulated that legumes, since they are capable of fixing atmospheric N₂, will have an advantage in plant growth over non-N₂-fixing plants. It has been described that N₂-fixing species show a larger stimulation of growth and photosynthetic rate to elevated CO₂ than non-fixing species (Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007). Such studies suggest that N2-fixing grown at elevated CO2 conditions have a smaller tendency toward photosynthetic acclimation. Since legumes form a symbiotic association with N₂-fixing bacteria, those plants have an extra sink for additional C for exchange with the bacterial symbiont to enhance N fixation (Udvardi and Day, 1997). However, although evidence of plant growth and N₂ fixation stimulation in legumes has been analyzed (Zanetti et al., 1996; Lee et al., 2003), it has been described that responsiveness of legumes to predicted CO2 enhancement is not clear and that it is dependent in other environmental conditions (water availability, temperature, etc.) (Serraj et al., 1998; West et al., 2005). The greater photosynthetic rate in legumes grown under high CO₂ conditions would imply that there is a larger supply of organic C to nodules and this is used in turn by the bacteroid nitrogenase enzyme inside the nodules as a source of energy and reducing power to fix N₂ (Arrese-Igor et al., 1999; Cabrerizo et al., 2001). Nodulated root can require up to 60% of photoassimilates produced over 12 h photoperiod (Gordon et al., 1987). This coupling is regulated by photosynthesis (C supply), nitrogen availability (N source strength), and N demand (N sink strength). Photoassimilates provided by the plant are hydrolysed in the nodule to obtain phosphoenolpyruvate through the glycolytic pathway. The oxaloacetate is converted to malate by malate dehydrogenase (MDH). MDH produces malate that can either be used as a source of C and energy for bacteroid consumption, enter the mitochondrial and be oxidised in the tricarboxilic acid cycle, or contribute to ammonia assimilation in the glutamine synthetase/glutamate synthase (GS/GOGAT) cycle (Cabrerizo et al., 2001). MDH also forms a complex with glutamate oxaloacetate transaminase (GOT) enzyme. The ability to fix atmospheric N₂ should enable these plants to adjust their enhanced N needs in elevated CO2 environments. Interestingly, other authors (Serraj et al., 1998) have observed that N₂ fixation decreased, even though soybean plants exposed to elevated CO2 and low wateravailability conditions had larger nodule carbohydrate availability.

The aim of this paper was to determine the CO_2 (under water-limited conditions) and N availability effect in N_2 -fixing alfalfa plant's growth. Further, most of these studies have been conducted in non- N_2 -fixing plants. In the experiments where N_2 -fixing plants have been analysed, the plants were usually grown under field conditions (where soil N was not totally controlled), with little

attention being paid to the effect of CO_2 on nodule development. Since the responsiveness of the whole plant to the predicted CO_2 increase and low water-availability periods will depend strongly on the adaptation of nodule performance, this study was designed with a focus on the role of nodule. To achieve this, nodulated alfalfa plants were grown with $700\,\mu\mathrm{mol\,mol^{-1}}$ CO_2 and different water-availability conditions over a 1-month period in controlled conditions. The experiment was conducted with an inert substrate and the plants were watered by N-free nutrient solution to ensure that the only source of N for the plant was fixed in the nodule. In order to study the role of nodule activity during photosynthetic acclimation, we have developed an experimental design that enabled us to harvest and analyse the key enzymes that are involved in C and N metabolism in the nodule.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Plant material and experimental design

Seedlings of alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L. cv. Aragón) were transferred into 2-l pots (5 plants per pot) containing a mixture of inert perlite and vermiculite (2/1, v/v). During the first month, plants were inoculated three times with *Sinorhizobium meliloti*, strain 102F78 (The Nitragin Co., Milwaukee, WI, USA) and grown in a greenhouse at 25/15 °C (day/night) with a photoperiod of 14h under natural daylight, supplemented with fluorescent lamps (Sylvania DECOR 183, Professional-58W, Germany) providing a photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) of about $300-400\,\mu\mathrm{mol\,m^{-2}\,s^{-1}}$. Plants were watered twice a week with Evans N-free nutrient solution (Evans, 1974), and with tap water once a week to avoid salt accumulation in the pots.

When 30 days old, plants were transferred to controlled environment chambers (Conviron PGV 36, Winnipeg, Canada) and randomly assigned to 4 treatments (8 pots per treatment) corresponding to the applied $\rm CO_2$ concentration (ambient, around 350 μ mol mol $^{-1}$ versus elevated, at 700 μ mol mol $^{-1}$) and soil water content (WW, watered at maximum soil volumetric water content, around 600 mm³ mm $^{-3}$ versus WD, partially watered, 50% maximum soil volumetric water content, around 300 mm³ mm $^{-3}$) during the following 30 days (i.e. 60-day-old plants). Plants were grown at 20/10 °C (day/night) and 45% RH (corresponding to 1.7 kPa vapour pressure deficit, VPD) with 14 h photoperiod and 600 μ mol m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$ PPFD. Pots were rotated every week from one chamber to the other in order to avoid chamber effects. During this period in the growth chamber, the plants produced the 98% of final DM.

When analysing interaction between CO_2 and water availability, it should be remembered that elevated CO2 grown plants deplete soil water at a lower rate than ambient CO₂ grown plants (due to lower stomatal conductance and lower transpiration rates), which means that in many experiments, elevated CO₂ increased the time to reach a particular water stress (De Luis et al., 1999). Therefore, the tolerance to low water-availability - meaning the ability to maintain plant productivity under given soil water stress (Jones, 1992) - induced by elevated CO₂ remains incompletely elucidated. The only way to test such a question was to design an experiment in which all treatments are subjected to the same soil water content, as we did in this study. Well watered (WW) plants were irrigated until they reached a maximum soil volumetric water content ($\theta_{\rm v}$), whereas partially irrigated plants (WD) were watered at 50% $\theta_{\rm v}$ of well-watered plants. Such $\theta_{\rm v}$ levels were maintained throughout the experiment by daily measuring of transpired water (calculated by weighing the pots) and replenishing the lost water. In order to reduce soil evaporation, pots were covered with a plastic sheet perforated with very small holes to allow stems to pass through. Reduced water levels were reached around 11 days (for plants grown at $350\,\mu\mathrm{mol\,mol^{-1}}$ CO₂) and 13 days (plants grown at $700\,\mu\mathrm{mol\,mol^{-1}}$ CO₂) after the beginning of treatment, when plants were 41 and 43 days old, respectively. WW plants were alternatively watered with Evans N-free nutrient solution (Evans, 1974) and distilled water, whereas WD plants were always watered with complete Evans solution in order to supply all treatments with the same amount of nutrients. All the determinations listed below where conducted at the end of the experiment, when the plants were 60 days old. The experiment was repeated in two consecutive years to confirm the response obtained during the first year.

2.2. Growth parameters and water relations

Plant production was estimated by weighing separately leaves, stem, root and nodules corresponding to 10 plants (i.e. dry mass, DM) harvested at the end of the experiment (when plants were 60 days old). Their DM was obtained after drying in an oven at $80\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ over $48\,\text{h}$. Leaf area was measured directly using an automatic leaf area meter (Li-3000, LiCor, NE, USA).

Plant water status was evaluated by measuring the leaf relative water content (RWC, Weatherley, 1950) of healthy and fully expanded apical leaves. Soil volumetric water content was calculated by weighing pots every day at the beginning of the photoperiod.

2.3. Gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence measurements

Fully expanded apical leaves from 60-day-old plants were enclosed in a gas-exchange leaf chamber (1010-M, Waltz, Effeltrich, Germany), and the gas-exchange rate was measured with a portable photosynthesis system (HCM-1000, Waltz). The gas-exchange response to $\rm CO_2$ was measured at both $\rm CO_2$ concentrations (400 μ mol mol $^{-1}$ $\rm CO_2$ and 700 μ mol mol $^{-1}$ $\rm CO_2$). For each year, four-plants-per-treatment combinations were analysed. Photosynthetic assimilation (A) was estimated at a PPFD of 1200 μ mol m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$ using equations developed by von Caemmerer and Farquhar (1982). The leaf internal CO $_2$ concentration (Ci) was estimated as described by Farquhar and Sharkey (1982).

The maximal quantum yield of photosystem II was measured using a portable fluorometer (MINI-PAM, Walz, Effeltrich, Germany). Measurements were done simultaneously with gas-exchange determinations. Measuring conditions were the same as growth conditions, but in this case, leaves were dark-adapted during 30 min before determination.

2.4. Rubisco protein activity and concentration (EC 4.1.1.39)

For the analyses of Rubisco activity, leaves were harvested mid-morning, and immediately plunged into liquid nitrogen. The samples were stored at $-80\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ before analysis. The leaf tissue was powdered in liquid N and homogenised in a cold mortar with an extraction buffer containing $100\,\text{mM}$ Bicine–NaOH (pH 7.8), $10\,\text{mM}$ MgCl₂, $10\,\text{mM}$ 2-mercaptoethanol, 2% PVPP (w/v), 1% BSA (w/v) and 1% Triton X-100 (v/v). An aliquot of the extract was used to determine the chlorophyll content (Arnon, 1949). Another aliquot was clarified, by centrifugation at $13,000\times g$, and used to determine enzyme activity by measuring the oxidation of NADH at $340\,\text{nm}$ (Sharkey et al., 1991). The time period between extraction and the measurement of initial activity was less than $2.5\,\text{min}$. The activation state was calculated by considering initial activity as a percentage of total activity.

Rubisco protein content was determined through the extraction of frozen leaf subsamples, ground in a fine powder in 50 mM Tricine

buffer (pH 8.0), 1 mM EDTA, 5 mM of 6-aminocaproic acid, 2 mM benzamidine, 8 mM β-mercaptoethanol and 100 mM PMSF-for 20 min on ice. This was followed by centrifugation at $12,000 \times g$ at a temperature of 4°C for 25 min. The protein concentration was measured in the decanted supernatant (Bradford, 1976), and five volumes of cold acetone were added to an aliquot containing 300 µg of protein, which was subsequently left overnight in the freezer. The sample was then centrifuged at $12,000 \times g$ at a temperature of 4°C for 15 min. The acetone was allowed to evaporate. The precipitate was dissolved in 65 mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 25% glycerol (v/v), 0.6 M β -mercaptoethanol, 2.5% SDS (w/v) and 0.01% bromophenol blue at a temperature of 96°C for 7 min. The samples were cooled to room temperature and loaded onto a 13% SDS-PAGE gel (Martín del Molino et al., 1995). The solubilised proteins were separated by a discontinuous SDS-PAGE system (Laemmli, 1970) using a 0.75-mm thick gel (13% separating, 4% stacking). Electrophoresis was carried out at room temperature and at a constant current of 200 V. Aliquots of the SDS dissociated extracts containing 9 µg of protein were applied to each well. The gels were stained in 0.1% (w/v) Coomassie blue dissolved in 5/5/2 (v/v/v) water/methanol/acetic acid overnight and subsequently destained in 12.5% (v/v) isopropanol and 10% (v/v) acetic acid. Finally, the gels were scanned with a Molecular Dynamics (CA, USA) densitometer. The percentage of Rubisco (small and large subunits) relative to TSP was calculated by taking the value of TSP as 100%.

2.5. Total soluble proteins (TSP) and sugars (TSS)

Leaf total soluble proteins (TSP) and total soluble sugars (TSS) were quantified by grinding and filtering 100 mg of fresh weight frozen leaf tissue in a cold mortar using an extraction buffer containing 50 mM K-phosphate (pH 7.5). The extract was filtered and centrifuged at $28,710 \times g$ for 15 min at $4\,^{\circ}$ C. The supernatant was used for TSP and TSS quantification. TSP was measured by the protein dye-binding method of Bradford (1976). TSS was determined according to Yemm and Willis (1954).

2.6. Nitrogen content

Leaf samples, previously dried at $60\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ for $48\,\text{h}$, were ground in a mill with titanium blades and stored in vials into desiccators over silica gel. The N concentration was determined by means of sulphuric acid digestion in a Büchi K-424 (Büchi, Switzerland). Samples of $100\,\text{mg}$ were digested by adding $20\,\text{ml}$ H $_2\text{SO}_4$ and a Kjeldhal Cu–Se catalytic pill. The digestion process was left to run (i.e. for 1 h at $250\,^{\circ}\text{C}$) until the samples were clarified. The samples were then diluted to $50\,\text{ml}$ with distilled water. For determining the N content, $5\,\text{ml}$ of ionic strength adjuster (ISA, Ref. 951211, Orion, NY, USA) were added to $5\,\text{ml}$ of measuring solution. Measurements were done with an ammonia selective electrode (Orion 95–12BN, NY, USA) using $0.1\,\text{mM}$ ammonium chloride as a standard.

2.7. Nodule enzymatic determinations

Five hundred mg of freshly harvested nodules were crushed in 10 ml of 50 mM K-phosphate buffer (pH 7.8), with 0.2% (v/v), 2-mercaptoethanol, 0.1 mM Na₂-EDTA and 10% (w/w) PVPP in a cold mortar. Malate dehydrogenase (MDH, EC 1.1.1.37) and glutamate–oxaloacetate transaminase (GOT, EC 2.6.1.1) activity in the nodule plant fraction were assayed spectrophotometrically by NADH oxidation at 340 nm. The reaction medium and assay conditions were based on those of Vance and Stade (1984). TSP and TSS content were determined as previously described.

 $\textbf{Table 1} \\ \text{The interactive effect of CO}_2 (\text{ambient 350} \, \mu \text{mol mol}^{-1} \, \text{versus} \, \text{elevated 700} \, \mu \text{mol mol}^{-1}) \, \text{and water availability (well watered, WW} \, \text{versus} \, \text{water deficit, WD)} \, \text{on total (g plant}^{-1), leaf (g plant}^{-1), root (g plant}^{-1), root (g plant}^{-1), nodule (mg plant}^{-1)}) \, \text{dry mass (DM)} \, \text{production and total leaf area} \, (\text{cm}^2 \, \text{plant}^{-1}) \, \text{in nodulated alfalfa}$

	Total DM	Leaf DM	Stem DM	Root DM	Nodule DM	Total leaf area
WW-350	$1.12 \pm 0.08 b$	$0.46\pm0.04b$	0.41 ± 0.04 a	$0.33 \pm 0.02 b$	25 ± 1.4 a	53.16 ± 3.54 b
WW-700	1.53 ± 0.10 a	0.57 ± 0.03 a	0.44 ± 0.03 a	0.51 ± 0.04 a	27 ± 0.2 a	$60.96 \pm 2.71 \text{ a}$
WD-350	$0.61 \pm 0.05 \mathrm{c}$	$0.13 \pm 0.01 \text{ c}$	$0.09 \pm 0.01 \text{ b}$	$0.37 \pm 0.03 \text{ b}$	$12\pm0.8~b$	$27.68 \pm 4.28 \mathrm{c}$
WD-700	$0.69\pm0.05~c$	0.20 ± 0.014 c	$0.11 \pm 0.01 \text{ b}$	$0.38\pm0.03~b$	$11 \pm 0.7 b$	$32.98 \pm 4.55 \mathrm{c}$

The measurements were carried out when the plants were 60 days old. Each value represents the mean \pm S.E. (n = 8). The different letters indicate significant differences (P < 0.05) between the treatment as determined by Tukey-b test.

2.8. Statistical analysis

As previously mentioned, the experiment was carried out over 2 consecutive years, and under the same growth conditions. No statistical differences were observed between years in the analyses corresponding to the same treatment combination, which means that no year effect was observed consequently all the data were merged. Values presented in this paper correspond to mean values of data collected during the 2 consecutive years. Two factor analyses of variance (ANOVA; Sokal and Rholf, 1986) at 0.5% and 0.1% levels were performed to partition the variance into the main effects and the interaction between the two factors (CO_2 and water availability). When the *F*-ratio was significant, least significant differences were evaluated by the Tukey-b test (P < 0.05).

3. Results

 CO_2 effect on plant growth was mediated by water availability (P=0.03) (Table 1). Exposure to elevated CO_2 conditions increased total DM production (27%) in WW plants, whereas in WD conditions no statistical differences were observed associated with CO_2 enhancement (Table 1). The separated analyses of tissue DM revealed that the larger DM production observed in fully watered plants exposed to elevated CO_2 conditions were caused by the increase in leaf and root production of those plants (Table 1). Water limitation decreased DM production (Table 1). Table 1 also revealed that although under fully water-availability conditions elevated CO_2 enhanced total leaf area, under water deficit conditions, no CO_2 effect was observed.

The analyses of leaf relative water content (RWC; Fig. 1A) revealed that no differences associated with applied CO_2 and water regime level were observed between treatments. Fig. 1B shows that, regardless water regimen, specific transpiration decreased by 40% high CO_2 treatments (P=0.020).

Interestingly, gas-exchange data showed that, measured at growth conditions, elevated CO₂ conditions (P=0.51) did not affect the photosynthesis of WW and WD plants (Table 2). No differences associated with the water availability on the level of photosynthesis were detected either. Table 2 also showed that when CO₂ fixation rates were determined at 700 and 350 μ mol mol⁻¹ atmospheric CO₂, elevated CO₂ plants had lower (28% depletion and 34% depletion) photosynthetic rates (P=0.019). Leaf stomatal conductance

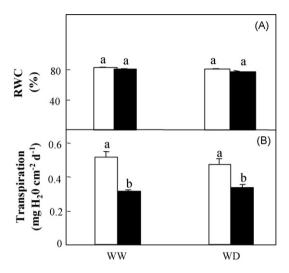


Fig. 1. The interactive effect of CO_2 (350 μmol mol⁻¹, unshaded bars *versus* 700 μmol mol⁻¹, shaded bars) and water availability (well watered *versus* water deficit) on (A) leaf relative water content (RWC) and (B) transpiration in nodulated alfalfa plants. Each RWC represents the mean ± S.E. of eight leaves. The different letters indicate significant differences (P<0.05) among treatments as determined by Tukey-b test.

(g) data, measured at growth condition, showed that elevated CO₂ treatments had lower g values. However, when g was determined at 700 and 350 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, no statistical differences were observed between treatments (Table 2). The quantification of intercellular CO₂ concentration (Ci) showed that elevated CO₂ increased the intercellular CO₂ concentration. Water limitations had no effect on Ci concentration. The chlorophyll fluorescence study did not detect differences in $F_{\rm v}/F_{\rm m}$ between treatments associated with the CO₂ concentration and soil water content (Fig. 2).

TSS analyses revealed that plants grown at 700 μ mol mol $^{-1}$ CO₂ had higher TSS values (Table 3) (P=0.001). There were not statistical differences on leaf N content (Table 3) associated with elevated CO₂ (P=0.551).

Enhanced CO_2 depleted (by 18%) the TSP concentration in WD (P=0.028) plants whereas no statistical differences were observed in WW (Table 3). Interestingly, the analysis of the Rubisco activity showed that both initial and total Rubisco activities decreased

Table 2
The interactive effect of CO₂ (ambient 350 μmol mol⁻¹ versus elevated 700 μmol mol⁻¹) and water availability (well watered, WW versus water deficit, WD) on leaf photosynthesis (A, μmol mol⁻² s⁻¹), conductance (g, mmol mol⁻² s⁻¹) and internal CO₂ concentration (Ci, μmol mol⁻¹) in nodulated alfalfa, measured either at 350 μmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (A_{350} , g_{350} and Ci₃₅₀) or 700 μmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (A_{700} , g_{700} and Ci₇₀₀)

	A ₇₀₀	A ₃₅₀	g 700	g ₃₅₀	Ci ₇₀₀	Ci ₃₅₀
WW-350	$19.6 \pm 0.6 a$	12.1 ± 0.48 a	73.4 ± 8.7 a	$91.8 \pm 8.6 a$	273.9 ± 28.3 c	123.1 ± 36.9 b
WW-700	$14.1 \pm 0.7 \mathrm{b}$	$7.7 \pm 0.3 \text{ b}$	$65.2 \pm 2.7 \text{ a}$	$79.9 \pm 3.6 a$	$381.0 \pm 17.6 ab$	$246.4\pm44b$
WD-350	$19.1\pm.4$ a	$12.2 \pm 0.9 a$	$76.9 \pm 9.4 a$	$102.9 \pm 13.4 \mathrm{a}$	$304.2 \pm 22.0 \text{ bc}$	$158.2 \pm 15.1 \text{ a}$
WD-700	13.3 \pm 1.1 b	8.2 ± 0.5 b	70.2 ± 7.9 a	86.5 ± 7.0 a	$441.9\pm21.5~\text{a}$	$305.7 \pm 60.1 \text{ a}$

The measurements were carried out when the plants were 60 days old. Each value represents the mean \pm S.E. (n = 8). The different letters indicate significant differences (P < 0.05) between the treatment as determined by Tukey-b test.

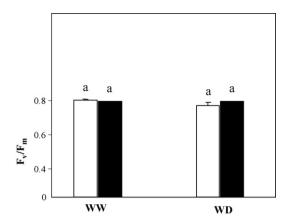


Fig. 2. The interactive effect of CO_2 (350 μ mol mol⁻¹, unshaded bars *versus* 700 μ mol mol⁻¹, shaded bars) and water availability (well watered *versus* water deficit) on maximal quantum yield of PSII (F_v/F_m) in nodulated alfalfa plants. Each value represents the mean \pm S.E. of eight leaves. Otherwise, as for Fig. 1.

Table 3 The interactive effect of CO_2 (ambient $350\,\mu\mathrm{mol\,mol^{-1}}$ versus elevated $700\,\mu\mathrm{mol\,mol^{-1}}$) and water availability (well watered, WW versus water deficit, WD) on the leaf total soluble sugar (TSS, g m $^{-2}$), leaf N content (N_{leaf} , g N m $^{-2}$), and the total soluble protein (TSP, g m $^{-2}$) content in nodulated alfalfa plants

	TSS	N_{leaf}	TSP
WW-350	$0.59 \pm 0.004 d$	$1.36\pm0.04a$	7.45 ± 0.18 a
WW-700	1.54 ± 0.002 a	1.44 ± 0.07 a	$7.88 \pm 0.15 a$
WD-350	$0.98 \pm 0.001 c$	$1.01 \pm 0.02 b$	$4.97 \pm 0.03 b$
WD-700	$1.24 \pm 0.016 b$	$1.14\pm0.04~b$	$4.07 \pm 0.04 \mathrm{c}$

The measurements were carried out when the plants were 60 days old. Each value represents the mean \pm S.E. (n = 8). The different letters indicate significant differences (P < 0.05) between the treatment as determined by Tukey-b test.

in WW and especially in WD treatments grown under elevated CO_2 conditions (Fig. 3A and B). However, no differences (P=0.482) were detected between treatments for the Rubisco activation state (Fig. 3C). The quantification of Rubisco concentration showed that the Rubisco large and small subunit, and consequently the total Rubisco concentration, diminished in WW (11%) and WD (43%) plants grown at 700 μ mol mol $^{-1}$ CO $_2$ (P=0.025) (Table 4). Water limitation diminished Rubisco protein concentration. Calculation of the percentage of Rubisco in the TSP content indicated that compared with ambient CO_2 plants, plants exposed to elevated CO_2 , suffered a specific decrease in the Rubisco content (Table 4).

The analyses of nodule enzymatic activity showed that the inhibitory effect of elevated CO_2 on malate dehydrogenase (MDH) was limited to WD plants were its activity was 35% lower (P=0.033) (Fig. 4A). No differences were detected in the MDH specific activity (Fig. 4B). Plants grown under elevated CO_2 conditions (P=0.036) had lower glutamate–oxaloacetate transaminase (GOT) activity in both WW (22%) and WD (29%) plants (Fig. 4C). Elevated CO_2 did not modify GOT specific activity (Fig. 4D). Nodule TSP (P=0.038) concentration decreased in WW (19%) and WS (17%) plants exposed to

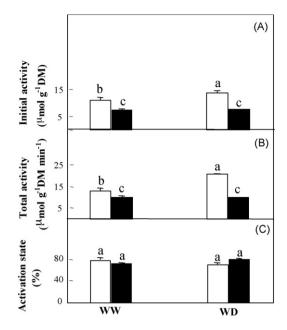


Fig. 3. The interactive effect of CO_2 (350 μmol mol⁻¹, unshaded bars *versus* 700 μmol mol⁻¹, shaded bars) and water availability (well watered *versus* water deficit) on Rubisco (A) initial and (B) total activities and (C) activation state in nodulated alfalfa plants. Each column represents the mean \pm S.E. of eight samples. Otherwise, as for Fig. 1.

elevated CO_2 conditions (Fig. 5A). The analyses of nodule TSS concentration showed that plants exposed to 700 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO_2 , had higher TSS, in WW treatments, whereas under water limitation not induce statistical differences (Fig. 5B) were observed.

4. Discussion

Short-term studies have described that elevated CO2 results in a rise in photosynthetic rates (Drake and González-Meler, 1997) and therefore an increase in DM production. However, as it has been previously described, the CO₂ effect on plants might vary depending on exposure time, soil water and nutrient availability, ambient relative humidity, temperature, radiation, and other factors (De Luis et al., 1999; Aranjuelo et al., 2005a,b, 2006; Erice et al., 2006, 2007). Our study revealed that 98% of final DM was produced during the second month of experiment, in the growth chambers. The effect of CO₂ on plant growth was strongly conditioned by water availability. The analyses of total DM production showed that the stimulatory effect associated with elevated CO₂ on production was only detected in fully watered plants (Table 1) where DM increased up to 26% (as compared to the respective ambient CO₂ treatment). The further analyses of tissue production highlighted the fact that the larger DM production of plants grown at 700 µmol mol⁻¹ was explained by the fact that in WW plants, elevated CO₂ increased leaf and root production, however no statistical differences were found

Table 4
The interactive effect of CO₂ (ambient 350 μ mol mol⁻¹ versus elevated 700 μ mol mol⁻¹) and water availability (well watered, WW versus water deficit, WD) on Rubisco total, large and small subunit contents (g m⁻²) and Rubisco relative to the total soluble protein content (%) in nodulated alfalfa plants

	Rubisco total	Large subunit	Small subunit	Rubisco relative to TSP
WW-350	2.65 ± 0.07 a	2.03 ± 0.06 a	0.59 ± 0.01 a	35.57 ± 2.01 a
WW-700	$2.36\pm0.02~b$	$1.72 \pm 0.01 \text{ b}$	$0.61 \pm 0.00 a$	$29.95 \pm 2.68 b$
WD-350	$1.82 \pm 0.04 \mathrm{c}$	$1.40 \pm 0.06 c$	$0.39 \pm 0.01 \text{ b}$	36.62 ± 4.33 a
WD-700	1.03 ± 0.01 d	$0.80 \pm 0.01 \; d$	$0.25 \pm 0.00 \text{ c}$	25.31 ± 1.34 c

The measurements were carried out when the plants were 60 days old. Each value represents the mean \pm S.E. (n = 8). The different letters indicate significant differences (P<0.05) between the treatment as determined by Tukey-b test.

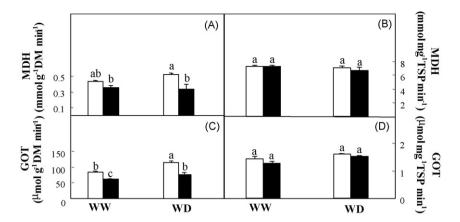


Fig. 4. The interactive effect of CO_2 (350 μ mol mol⁻¹, unshaded bars *versus* 700 μ mol mol⁻¹, shaded bars) and water availability (well watered *versus* water deficit) on (A) total and (B) specific malate dehydrogenase (MDH) activity and glutamate–oxalacetate transaminase (GOT) (C) total and (D) specific activity in the nodules of nodulated alfalfa plants. Each column represents the mean \pm S.E. of eight samples. Otherwise, as for Fig. 1.

on stem and nodule production. Lack of statistical differences in the photosynthetic rate between CO_2 treatments (Table 2) revealed that the larger DM production of fully watered plants exposed to elevated CO_2 could be explained by their larger leaf area (Table 1), and this in turn implies a higher CO_2 fixation rate at the whole plant level. Similarly, the absence of a water-availability effect on the CO_2 fixation rate of plants exposed to ambient and elevated CO_2 suggests that the inhibitory effect of low water availability on plant growth was targeted to leaf area. Indeed, the limitation of water availability decreased leaf area (Table 1) and, consequently, total C assimilation per plant.

The fact that there were no statistical differences in leaf relative water content (RWC, Fig. 1A) showed that differences in dry mass were not caused by a different water status. It is also noteworthy that there were not differences in RWC associated with soil water content. Furthermore, no differences were observed in leaf transpiration rates between WW and WD (Fig. 1B). According to the description by Azcón-Bieto et al. (2004), reduction in leaf area is one of the main strategies developed by plants to diminish water loss during drought periods. Diminished leaf area expansion in WD

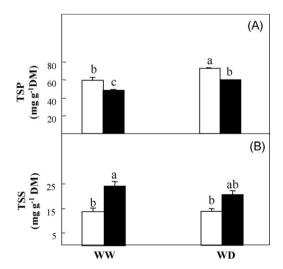


Fig. 5. The interactive effect of CO_2 (350 μ mol mol $^{-1}$, unshaded bars *versus* 700 μ mol mol $^{-1}$, shaded bars) and water availability (well watered *versus* water deficit) on (A) total soluble proteins (TSP) and (B) total soluble sugars (TSS) in the nodules of nodulated alfalfa plants. Each column represents the mean \pm S.E. of eight samples. Otherwise, as for Fig. 1.

plants (Table 1) would be due to reduced cell division and elongation (Boyer et al., 1985; Legg et al., 1975), both processes being extremely dependent on water availability. Absence of statistical differences in the photosynthetic, leaf conductance and intercellular CO₂ concentration rates (Table 2) confirmed that WD plants adapted their growth to available soil water content without suffering stressful growth conditions. Similar responses have been described in alfalfa (Aranjuelo et al., 2005b; Erice et al., 2006) and in wheat (Cabrera-Bosquet et al., 2007) exposed to long-term water limiting regimes.

As previously discussed, gas-exchange data showed that, when measured at the corresponding growth conditions $(350 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{mol}^{-1}\,\text{CO}_2\,$ for ambient $\text{CO}_2\,$ treatment and 700 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ for elevated CO₂ treatment), neither the water regime nor elevated CO2 exposure significantly affected photosynthesis rates (Table 2). However when photosynthesis measurements were conducted at the same CO₂ concentration (i.e. 700 μ mol mol⁻¹ and especially at 350 μ mol mol⁻¹), CO₂ fixation rates in plants grown at 700 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ were generally lower than those in plants grown in ambient CO₂ indicating a photosynthesis down-regulation or acclimation induced by the elevated CO₂ (Stitt and Krapp, 1999; Aranjuelo et al., 2006). Reduction in Rubisco carboxylation capacity could be caused by stomatal and/or non-stomatal limitations of photosynthesis. Gas-exchange measurements showed that leaf conductance (g_s) was diminished by elevated CO₂. Such reduction explained the fact that plants exposed to elevated CO2 conditions required two more days to reach desired θ_{v} because of their lower evapotranspiration values. In other hand, the intercellular CO2 concentration (Ci) of plants grown under elevated CO₂ conditions was larger (Table 2). This implies that plants grown in elevated CO2 environments had a higher intercellular CO₂ concentration. These results suggest that non-stomatal limitations (e.g. PSII activity and/or carboxylation efficiency) are the main cause of the decreased carboxylation efficiency observed in elevated CO₂ treatments.

Chlorophyll fluorescence was measured in order to test whether photosynthetic acclimation was a result of reduced PSII activity (Fig. 2). The chlorophyll fluorescence data indicated that photosynthetic acclimation was not caused by a decreased maximal photochemical efficiency (F_V/F_m). Photosynthetic limitation might also be caused by a decrease in RuBP regeneration. According to some authors (Wolfe et al., 1998; Jifon and Wolfe, 2002), reduction in photosynthetic activity is caused by a C source/sink imbalance. Plant growth data (Table 1) suggest that a decrease in photosynthetic capacity was caused by a reduced ability (fully watered

treatments increased dry mass production by 26%) or an inability (water-limited treatments) of plants exposed to elevated CO₂ to develop greater/new sinks. The inability to increase sink strength suggests that the demand for carbohydrates was insufficient to balance the enhanced carbohydrate supply under enhanced CO₂ conditions, with the consequent end-product inhibition of photosynthetic capacity (Strain and Thomas, 1995; Rogers et al., 2006). TSS data (Table 3) confirmed that plants exposed to elevated CO₂, especially in WD plants, had a massive production and build-up of carbohydrates. Carbon sink/source imbalance induced photosynthetic acclimation caused by depletions in the expression of Calvin cycle enzymes (Moore et al., 1999; Stitt and Krapp, 1999; Aranjuelo et al., 2005b; Reich et al., 2006; Rogers et al., 2006). However, it should also be noted that all the enzymes involved in the photosynthetic processes may not be equally affected by enhanced CO₂ (Moore et al., 1999). Nie et al. (1995) observed that, although transcripts for Rubisco subunits and phosphoglycerate kinase are particularly sensitive to moderate increases in CO₂, sedoheptulose-1,7-bisphosphatase (SBP) and phosphoribulosekinase (PRK) mRNAs are not.

As it has been previously described, a decrease in Rubisco content is often correlated with a decline in photosynthesis after exposure to elevated CO₂ (Urban, 2003). Determination of the initial and total activities of Rubisco (Fig. 3A and B) confirmed that the decreased photosynthetic rates that were observed in fully and partially watered plants grown at 700 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ were caused by inhibition of Rubisco activity (Fig. 3A and B). Since there was no change in the enzyme activation state, our data revealed that the decreased initial and total Rubisco activity was the result of a depleted Rubisco protein content (Moore et al., 1999). The fact that WD plants exposed to elevated CO₂ had depleted Rubisco and TSP contents, and a larger TSS value suggests that those plants had problems to increase sink strength (reflected by the lack of CO₂ effect on DM production). Such limitation induced a more severe photosynthetic down-regulation of WD plants when compared with WW plants. According to Stitt and Krapp (1999), increased growth rates in elevated CO₂ may either lead to plants becoming N limited or may exacerbate an existing N limitation. However, in our case and similarly to what described by Ainsworth and Rogers (2007) lack of statistical differences on leaf N concentration (Table 3) highlighted that alfalfa plants exposed to elevated CO₂ conditions were capable to reach control N values. Such results imply that reduction in Rubisco content was not caused by a lower leaf N content. Similarly to what described by other authors (Drake and González-Meler, 1997; Ainsworht and Rogers, 2007) our data suggest that the large C accumulation observed in plants grown at 700 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, induced the reduction of Rubisco activity and, consequently, the diminishment of excess capacity for carboxylation. The fact that % of Rubisco relative to TSP (Table 4) of plants exposed to 700 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ was lower highlighted that those plants suffered a specific decrease in Rubisco content. This kind of regulation of the amount of Rubisco might serve to optimise CO₂ acquisition with the utilisation of fixed carbon (Woodrow, 1994). In a recent review, Ainsworth and Rogers (2007) observed that since legumes grown at elevated CO2 concentration have an excess of Rubisco, and less Rubisco is required, redistribution of the excess N invested in this protein could increase nitrogen use efficiency without impacting potential C acquisition. These authors also observed that legumes are preferentially reducing their carboxylation capacity in order to optimise their resources.

There has been a considerable debate (Serraj et al., 1998; Arrese-Igor et al., 1999) about N_2 fixation in elevated CO_2 conditions and its relationship with photosynthetic C supply and nodule C sink strength. Our data showed that even if plants exposed to elevated CO_2 conditions had a larger C availability (at whole plant level),

such enhancement was not reflected in a larger nodule DM. However, our results (Fig. 5) revealed that in WW plants exposed to elevated CO₂, TSS availability was larger, whereas in WD plants no statistical differences were observed. In the other hand, the study of the activity of enzymes involved in C (i.e. MDH) and N (i.e. GOT) (Fig. 4) metabolisms in the cytosolic nodule fraction, indicating a lower flux of carbon and nitrogen in the nodule, probably associated with a lower nodules fixing activity. Clearly, our results showed that the CO₂ effect on MDH activity varied depending on the water availability. The inhibitory effect associated with the CO₂ increase was limited to WD plants, whereas in WW plants, no effect was observed. As malate is synthesised through the MDH, inhibition of MDH total activity in WD plants grown at 700 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ was reflected in diminished malate (considered as the main C supply for N₂ fixation) production. Malate depletion implies that less C and energy were available for bacteroid consumption, and also that less C was redirected to mitochondria for ammonia assimilation. On the other hand, GOT, an enzyme mainly associated with the assimilation of fixed N₂, also showed that elevated CO₂ diminished its activity in both WW and WD plants. The inhibitory effect of elevated CO₂ on GOT might have contributed to a lower N assimilation capacity of the nodule plant cells, which may difficult the ammonia assimilation and therefore may induce ammonia accumulation and nitrogenase inhibition. Unchanged MDH and GOT specific activity revealed that decreases in total enzymatic activities were a consequence of depleted TSP content, which is a symptom of lower nodule activity as observed in several stresses as drought (Aranjuelo et al., 2007).

Similar results were obtained by Serraj et al. (1998), under elevated CO_2 and drought conditions, suggesting that nodulation and nodule activity were not regulated by carbohydrate availability but by a feedback mechanism mediated by the plant's demand for nitrogen as we observed in alfalfa nodules (Fig. 5). According to Serraj et al. (1999), when the shoot N demand decreases, the concentration of N-transporting solutes declines with a consequent accumulation of products associated with the N_2 fixation (ureides) in the nodules that leads to inhibition of nitrogenase activity in the bacteroids. The fact that leaves of plants exposed to elevated CO_2 had lower TSP and specially Rubisco protein content suggests that shoot N demand of those plants was lower, with the consequent inhibition of nodule activity, as also described by Serraj et al. (1998).

In summary, our study revealed that the CO₂ effect on plant growth (i.e. 26% increase) was limited to fully watered plants, whereas under conditions of restricted water availability, no CO₂ effect on plant DM production was observed. Exposure to elevated CO₂ conditions induced photosynthetic acclimation, and this was probably explained by the inability of these plants to increase carbon sink activity, especially in WD plants. The absence of differences in water status and chlorophyll fluorescence data suggested that the photosynthetic down-regulation (particularly in WD plants) was caused by a depleted Rubisco protein content, which was a result of carbohydrate build-up. Lack of CO₂ effect on leaf N concentration values of WW and WD suggest that those plants maintained control C acquisition values by diminishing, specifically, Rubisco content and by increasing nitrogen use efficiency. The analyses of nodule DM and nodule TSS data revealed that nodules of plants grown at 700 µmol mol⁻¹ were not capable to increase C sink strength in a significant degree. Interestingly, our data also suggest that reduction in shoot N demand (reflected by the TSP and especially Rubisco depletion) affected negatively nodule activity (MDH and GOT) particularly in water-limited conditions. This diminishment of nodule activity was reflected by TSP depletion. The fact that nodules from plants grown in an elevated CO₂ environment possessed the same (WD) or larger (WW treatments) TSS availability as plants grown at ambient CO₂ implies that such different levels of carbohydrate availability could not explain the obtained results. Instead, nodule activity depletion could have been caused by the reduction in shoot N demand in those plants and perhaps by an increase of the end product of N_2 fixation activity (ammonia) which may inhibit nitrogenase.

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