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1 Research Paper

- 2 Carbon and nitrogen dynamics in decaying wood: paleoenvironmental implications
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11 **Environmental context.** Carbon and nitrogen isotopes of terrestrial organic matter are widely used for

12 reconstructing past environments, but organic matter is exposed to degradation as soon as it is deposited during

- 13 what is called early diagenesis. This study explores the effects of this process on organic carbon and nitrogen
- 14 isotopes, and concludes that it homogenises an environmental signal by integrating all their components. Thus,
- 15 early diagenesis may not preclude paleoenvironmental reconstructions.
- 16 **Abstract.** The effect of early diagenesis on carbon and, especially, nitrogen isotopes (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) of

17 organic matter is not well understood and is of interest for accurate paleoenvironmental reconstructions. Wood

- 18 samples were incubated in distilled water and river water in order to assess the effects of early diagenesis on
- 19 carbon and nitrogen dynamics. Elemental content and isotopic composition of carbon and nitrogen as well as
- 20 mass loss of wood pieces were determined. Mass loss in river water was three times greater than in distilled
- 21 water. This difference was attributed to the development of two different types of fungi characterised by various
- 22 degradation rates. Carbon dynamics of wood samples showed similar patterns in both type of water: (i) a sharp
- 23 increase in carbon content, possibly related to carbohydrate degradation, before it slowly returned towards initial
- 24 values, and (ii) no significant changes in δ^{13} C values. In contrast, nitrogen dynamics of samples showed
- 25 complex patterns: (i) N release associated with ¹⁵N depletion in distilled water, attributed to uptake of ¹⁵N-
- 26 enriched pool (i.e. proteins) by fungi, and (ii) N accumulation associated with ¹⁵N enrichment in river water. .
- 27 The latter pattern was attributed predominantly to microbially mediated importation of ¹⁵N-enriched nitrate from
- 28 river water. Although challenging, the present results suggest that early diagenesis may average an
- 29 environmental signal by integrating individual signals (woods, fungi, water) and microbial processes.
- 30 Considering the non-linear behaviour of early diagenesis, this integration is probably almost instantaneous on
- 31 the geological time scale, which may not preclude paleoenvironmental reconstructions.
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- 34 Impact of early diagenesis on organic matter

35 Additional keywords: δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, early diagenesis, fungi, degradation

36 Introduction

The carbon and nitrogen isotopic composition (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) of terrestrial organic matter is widely 37 used for reconstructing past environments for time periods from hundreds to million years.^[1-8] 38 However, organic matter is exposed to degradation as soon as it is transported, integrated into soils or 39 deposited in sediments. Degradation processes of organic matter constitute the earliest stage of 40 diagenesis, which leads in turn to the geological archive as diagenesis stages advance.^[9,10] In this 41 context, paleoenvironmental investigations require consideration of the potential alteration of the 42 43 primary isotopic signal during early diagenesis because most of the organic matter is degraded during this stage.^[11–13] 44

Changes of δ^{13} C values during early diagenesis of terrestrial organic matter (e. g. plant or litter 45 material) are well known and mainly attributed to a preferential loss of ¹³C-enriched carbohydrates.^{[14-} 46 ^{18]} In contrast, nitrogen dynamics during terrestrial organic decay are more complex and consequences 47 on δ^{15} N values are not well constrained.^[12,15,19–21] Indeed, they involve complex interactions of biotic 48 and abiotic factors: microbial processing vs N sources and environmental conditions.^[12,22–28] For 49 50 example, the effect of microbial processing on δ^{15} N values depends on microbial communities (biotic), themselves dependent on the oxygenation conditions of the system.^[12] However, changes in 51 δ^{15} N values during early diagenesis of terrestrial organic matter in a depositional context that allows 52 preservation at the geological time scale (immersed environments) have not been assessed yet because 53 most studies have dealt with litterbag experiments on field or soil incubation.^[15,19,23,24,26,28–30] In 54 addition, considering the importance of coarse woody debris in terrestrial organic matter^[11,31] and of 55 immersed environments for the geological archive (sediments), it is essential to assess the effect of 56 early diagenesis on potential paleoenvironmental proxies, such as δ^{13} C or δ^{15} N, for this material and in 57 these kinds of environments. Because fungi are the most important decomposers of woody 58 material,^[32,33] we designed a laboratory experiment that mainly focussed on biotic factors involved 59 during early diagenesis of woody material, by limiting the action of abiotic factors (by use of constant 60 temperature, oxygenation, pH and absence of light). 61

62 Centimetric pieces of wood were incubated in water in order to assess the effects of early

63 diagenesis on δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values of woody terrestrial organic matter in immersed environments.

64 Wood samples were immersed either in (i) distilled water (DW) or (ii) river water (RW). Incubations

- 65 conducted in DW were used as a control treatment, because microbial activity was considered to be
- 66 minimal. Mass-loss rates of decaying wood and carbon dynamics (C content and δ^{13} C values) were
- 67 determined to characterise the biotic processes involved during degradation of woody debris. Then,
- their consequences on δ^{15} N values are discussed to evaluate the preservation potential of the initial
- 69 δ^{15} N signal in fossil and terrestrial sedimentary organic matter.

70 Experimental

71 Samples

72 A treetop branch of *Sciadopitys verticillata* (Cupressaceae, conifer) was collected in December

73 2012 from a garden in Tokyo, Japan, after having lain for 6 months on the ground to ensure the

natural presence of decay organisms. We chose this endemic specimen because it has been chemically

related to the morphogenus conifer *Xenoxylon* Gothan, which was widespread during Jurassic and

76 Cretaceous times and is of paleoclimatic interest nowadays.^[34,35] Both extremities of the branch and

the bark were removed to clean the branch and avoid heterogeneities that were too large between its

⁷⁸ different parts (Fig. 1). The branch (~60 cm long; diameter ~3 cm) was then sliced in ~2-mm-thick

79 pieces, which were air-dried and weighed.

80 Experimental design

81 Samples were submitted to degradation in two different types of water: (i) DW, and (ii) RW from La Marette (Essonne, France), sampled in October 2013. The pH of the water samples was checked 82 83 with pH paper before each sampling. It remained close to neutral and constant for both types of waters during the whole experiment. RW was filtered with a Whatman filter (22 µm; Prolabo, Paris) before 84 filling Erlenmeyers. Samples were placed individually into Erlenmeyers, with 75 mL of DW and RW 85 (Fig. 1). Erlenmeyers were covered with finely perforated aluminium foil to allow gas exchange 86 between water and the atmosphere and avoid external contamination by dust. They were then 87 continuously shaken in the dark in ambient air (room temperature conditioned at 22 °C) to keep the 88 89 water oxygenated and inhibit the development of photosynthetic microorganisms that could interfere 90 with degrading heterotroph microorganisms. An oxygenated environment has been preferred to promote relatively efficient degradation when compared with oxygen-depleted environments and to 91 prevent denitrification, which leads to high loss of ¹⁴N. 92

The incubation experiment was carried out for 73 weeks and wood pieces were collected after 2, 4,

8, 16, 32, 52 and 73 weeks, corresponding to t_1 to t_7 respectively. Initial RW was stored in a 10-L

canister in the dark and water was bubbled in order to keep it oxygenated. Filtered RW or DW was

added to Erlenmeyers at t_3 , t_5 and t_6 to counterbalance evaporation in Erlenmeyers.

97 After sampling, pieces of wood were rinsed with distilled water to remove superficial

98 microorganisms. They were then frozen, freeze-dried, weighed, scanned (with EPSON scanner) and

ground ($<40 \,\mu m$) for analysis with an ultracentrifugal ZM-200 mill.

100 Analyses

101 Carbon content and δ^{13} C values were determined by isotope-ratio mass spectrometry using a Vario

102 Pyro Cube analyser, coupled with an IsoPrime Micromass mass spectrometer connected to a

103 Micromass dilution system. Nitrogen content and δ^{15} N values were measured with a Flash 2000

- analyser coupled with a Thermo Scientific Delta V Plus mass spectrometer connected to a ConFlo IV
- 105 dilution system. Systems precision and accuracy were monitored using tyrosine (N = 7.73 %, δ^{15} N =
- 106 10.01 ‰ and C = 59.66 %, δ^{13} C = -23.20 ‰,) as internal laboratory standard that was calibrated with
- 107 international standards IAEA-N-1 (δ^{15} N = 0.4 ‰), IAEA-N-2 (δ^{15} N = 20.3 ‰) and IAEA-NO-3 (δ^{15} N
- 108 = 4.7%) and expressed relative to N₂-AIR for nitrogen and relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite
- 109 (VPDB) for carbon. Nitrogen analyses were systematically performed in duplicate (n = 51), whereas
- 110 for carbon analyses, samples were analysed in duplicate (n = 12) every 10 samples, precision being
- usually better for carbon isotopes. The overall precision (2σ) was <0.002 and <0.6 % for N and C
- 112 content respectively, and <0.2 ‰ for N and C isotopes.

113 Initial variability of the branch and sampling strategy

- 114 Before beginning the experiment, 11 pieces of wood, randomly distributed along the branch, were
- selected to evaluate the initial variability of %C, δ^{13} C, %N and δ^{15} N. Carbon content and isotopes
- were on average 47.4 ± 0.5 and -24.1 ± 0.1 % respectively, whereas nitrogen content and isotopes
- 117 were on average 0.08 ± 0.01 % and -0.2 ± 0.5 % respectively (Table 1). In agreement with literature,
- 118 initial variability of δ^{15} N values was much higher than for carbon.^[36–38] In addition, the δ^{15} N values
- 119 were randomly distributed along the branch and showed extreme values from -0.8 to +1.1 ‰.
- 120 Considering the initial variability of δ^{15} N values, experiments were run in triplicate for each type of 121 water, meaning that six wood pieces were sampled (three per type of water). Within triplicates, 122 individual wood pieces were chosen according to their position along the branch, with a maximum 123 distance between them to be representative of the overall initial variability along the branch.

124 *Water chemistry control*

- 125 Water chemistry (PO_4^{3-} , NO_3^{-} , NO^{2-} and NH_4^+) was controlled in each type of water at t₀, t₂, t₃, t₅, t₆
- 126 and t₇ by spectrocolorimetry using a Gallery system. As expected, DW contained no or trace amounts
- 127 of these chemical compounds, with no forms of nitrogen (always <0.2 ppm). In contrast, RW did
- 128 contain significant amount of nitrates at t_0 (~20 ppm), which disappeared after t_2 (<0.1 ppm)
- 129 remained), whereas other nutrients remained in trace amounts.

130 Statistical treatment and data sets

- 131 Significance of the linear regressions and of the mean comparisons (e.g. differences in N content
- 132 between samples in RW and DW) were tested using Pearson correlations and Student's tests
- respectively, with the programing language *R* (version 3.2.2, R Foundation for Statistical Computing,
- 134 Vienna, Austria). Hypotheses were tested on the basis of a 5 % significance level (*P* value), meaning
- 135 that a relation or comparison is significant when P < 0.05 for *n* observations. Original data sets are
- 136 given in the Supplementary material, whereas condensed results used for figures are reported in Table
- 137 <mark>2</mark>.

138 Results

139 *Macroscopic observations and mass-loss patterns*

- 140 At the initial stage, all wood pieces showed multimillimetre-sized zones with reddish-brown
- 141 colour, which may be attributed to black-rot or soft-rot fungi (Fig. 2a and b, feature i).^[32] Fungi were
- 142 probably already within the wood before branch sampling because decay starts as soon as a tree is
- 143 cut,^[39] or even before because wood of living conifers is known for hosting fungi.^[32] Alternatively, the
- 144 branch may have been colonised while it was on the ground. Translucent and whitish fungi developed
- 145 within 2 weeks on wood pieces in DW, whereas no visible change occurred in RW. After 8 weeks (t₃),
- 146 fungi turned brown–black on wood pieces in DW, and became widespread after 16 weeks (t4; Fig. 2a,
- 147 features i and ii). At this time, the RW in the Erlenmeyers became cloudy and yellowish, with
- 148 millimetre-sized floating particles (Fig. 2b, feature iii). In addition, white-rot fungi developed on
- 149 wood pieces in RW as indicated by their mottled appearance, their whitish-yellow coloration and their
- brittle and spongy traits as well as their loss of color contrast (Fig. 2b, features iv and v).^[32] Those
- 151 features were not observed on samples in DW, suggesting that no or less white-rot fungi developed.

152 The degradation features mentioned became increasingly marked at the end of the experiment (Fig.

- 153 **2c and d**). Growth-rings of wood pieces in DW became increasingly dark, while they were
- 154 progressively erased in RW, with increasing numbers of floating woody particles, suggesting two
- 155 different microbial communities.
- 156 Consequently, wood pieces in RW seemed to have been degraded faster than those in DW. The
- higher decay rate of samples in RW is confirmed by a weight loss of ~ 30 % after 73 weeks (t₇),
- whereas it reached less than 10 % for samples in DW (Fig. 3). Considering that the amount of
- inorganic material is negligible in wood, the mass loss is attributed to organic matter loss. In addition, mass loss is linearly linked to time (t) in both waters with a slope three times steeper for wood pieces
- mass loss is linearly linked to time (t) in both waters with a slope three times stee in RW (-0.36t) than in DW (-0.11t), where t is expressed in weeks (Fig. 3).

162 Carbon patterns

163 The carbon content of wood pieces in both DW and RW increased between t_0 and t_1 (2 weeks), 164 from 47.4 to 48.5 and 48.9 % respectively (Fig. 4a). After 32 weeks (t_5), they progressively tended 165 towards initial values. Although a small increase in δ^{13} C values occurred (-24.1 ‰ at t_0 to -23.9 ‰ at 166 t_4), it was in the range of the analytical precision (±0.2 ‰; Fig. 4b). In addition, the floating woody 167 particles were sampled at t_5 in an Erlenmeyer containing RW. They significantly differed from the 168 original piece of wood with (i) carbon content of 35 *v*. 50 % in the original piece of wood (Fig. 4a), 169 and (ii) δ^{13} C value of -22.6 *v*. -24.0 ‰ (Fig. 4b).

170 Nitrogen patterns

171 In contrast to carbon content, the nitrogen content of wood pieces depicted two different patterns

- according to the water type (Fig. 4c). The average %N of wood pieces in DW was 0.07 % for the
- 173 whole duration of the degradation, significantly lower than the initial value (0.08 %; n = 21; P <
- 174 0.001), whereas the average %N of wood pieces in RW was significantly higher (0.09 %; n = 21; P < 1000
- 175 0.02). In addition, N content of wood pieces in DW remained close to 0.07 % after a rapid decrease (t_0
- to t₃) from the initial value (0.08 %). In contrast, the N content of samples in RW almost linearly
- increased from the initial value to 0.12 % at t_7 (Fig. 4c). This reflects an accumulation of nitrogen in
- the remaining wood, called the 'immobilisation phase'.^[15,21]
- As a consequence, the atomic C/N ratio decreased linearly from ~650 to ~400 in RW wood as

180 degradation advanced (Fig. 5). In the same time, the C/N ratio of wood pieces in DW increased to

181 >800 until t₃, and then remained stable until the end of incubation. Those very high C/N ratios of

182 wood pieces are characteristic of fresh wood.^[11] In contrast, floating woody particles sampled at t_5 in

183 RW showed a C/N ratio of 30 (Fig. 5), typical of substantially decayed wood.^[11]

184 The immobilisation phase in RW is associated with significantly higher δ^{15} N values (+1.7 ‰ on 185 average) of the remaining wood, when compared with the initial value (-0.2 ‰; n = 21; P << 0.001), 186 whereas δ^{15} N values of wood pieces in DW remained almost constant at approximately -0.5 ‰ (Fig.

187 **4d**). In addition, the floating woody particles (in RW) sampled at t₅ showed a higher nitrogen content

than the original piece of wood (1.37 v. 0.09 %) and δ^{15} N value (2.7 v. 1.0 ‰; Fig. 4d). The very high nitrogen content suggests that wood particles were invaded by N-rich microorganisms.

190 Discussion

191 Decomposers and degradation rate

Basidiomycetes fungi have been the major decomposers of wood since at least the upper Devonian.^[32] They are classified as white-rot or black-rot fungi, based on macroscopic aspects.^[33] In contrast, soft-rot fungi comprise Ascomycetes and Deuteromycetes, which are less efficient than Basidiomycetes for degrading wood.^[32,33] Black-rot and soft-rot fungi have the same morphological characteristics, but black-rot fungi do not support very wet conditions, whereas soft-rot fungi do.^[32]

- 197 Consequently, based on morphological characteristics of the samples after incubation, soft-rot fungi
- are the most probable decomposers in DW, whereas white-rot fungi are more likely in RW (Fig.
- 199 **2**).^[32,33] White-rot fungi are able to selectively degrade lignin and hemicellulose before cellulose –
- 200 especially in gymnosperms, which is the case in the present study or to simultaneously degrade
- 201 those molecules.^[33] In contrast, soft-rot fungi preferentially decompose cellulose and hemicellulose,
- while lignin is only slightly degraded by those fungi, leading to less brittle traits when compared with
- white-rot fungi.^[32,33] The low efficiency of soft-rot fungi for degrading wood when compared with
- 204 Basidiomycetes could thus explain the lower mass loss of wood pieces in DW than in RW.

The mass-loss rate of wood pieces in RW (-0.36t; Fig. 3) is close to that described during the first 205 206 degradation phase of litterbags containing red pine litter, with a slope of -0.45t with t in weeks.^[15] In 207 the study mentioned, this first degradation phase was described as a constant mass loss (linear) dominated by the loss of carbohydrates, and lasted 44 months to reach 80 % of mass loss. 15 Then, the 208 second phase was characterised by very slow or negligible mass loss during 33 additional months. 209 Those two phases were also reported in different wood specifies species after artificial aging by 210 211 thermal treatment.^[18] However, the second phase was not observed in wood samples of the present study, suggesting that the first phase of degradation was not entirely completed (Fig. 3). Extrapolating 212 results to 80 % of mass loss for wood pieces in RW, the first phase of degradation would have been 213 complete in ~220 weeks, which is ~50 weeks longer than reported in soils.^[15] Thus, the degradation 214 rate of wood pieces in RW is slightly lower than measured in soils,^[15] and in contradiction with 215 another study^[29] that showed significantly higher degradation rates in aerobic water than in soils. This 216 217 discrepancy could be due to the difference in the plant material used in both studies, which dealt with needles^[15] and green leaves from angiosperms.^[29] Nevertheless, the mass loss of wood pieces obtained 218 here confirms that this parameter is a good indicator of the state of degradation.^[15,29] 219

220 Carbon dynamics

221 Natural decomposing and artificial aging of plant material has often shown C enrichment and ¹³C 222 depletion in the remaining organic matter, mainly attributed to the preferential loss of carbohydrates (cellulose and hemicellulose) during early diagenesis.^[14,16,18] In the present study, the increase in 223 carbon content of the samples (remaining wood) incubated in both types of water probably reflects the 224 increasing relative predominance of C-rich compounds resulting from loss of carbohydrates. 225 Considering the fungi type deduced above from macroscopic observations, this would imply that soft-226 rot fungi and white-rot fungi preferentially degraded cellulose and hemicellulose.^[33] However, δ^{13} C 227 values did not significantly change. The absence of expected ¹³C depletion in the remaining wood 228 229 after carbohydrate loss may be linked to the low amount of material affected by degradation, with a 230 maximum mass loss of ~ 30 % for samples in RW and ~ 10 % in DW. Alternatively, the loss of ^{13}C -231 enriched carbohydrates may have been counterbalanced by the loss of hydrolysable ¹³C-depleted compounds^[15] or by the simultaneous loss of lignin and carbohydrates, in agreement with decay 232 abilities of Basidiomycetes in RW.^[32,33] Leaching of hydrolysable compounds may have occurred as 233 soon as samples were immersed, but its influence is hard to discuss here because of the lack of 234 235 sampling data during the first days of the incubation.

If carbohydrates were effectively degraded, their C would have been reused by microbes, which
would be integrated in the floating woody particles or in the remaining wood. In RW, the woody

- particles were analysed at t₅. Their high %N (1.37 v. 0.09 %) and low atomic C/N ratio (30 v. 769)
- relative to the remaining wood suggest a high content of microbial biomass because it is concentrated
- in N.^[40] In addition, the lower %C (35 v. 49 %) and higher δ^{13} C values (-22.6 v. -24.0 ‰) in those

- floating particles, when compared with the remaining wood (Fig. 4a and b), support the idea that
- 242 carbonaceous molecules mainly originate from C-depleted and ¹³C-enriched carbohydrates of the
- remaining wood.^[14] Additional loss of ¹²C might be associated with microbial respiration.^[28] The
- 244 isotopic effect of preferential degradation and microbial respiration during the incubation is probably
- not sufficient to be recorded in the slightly degraded remaining wood or it is counterbalanced by
- concomitant loss of ¹³C-enriched and ¹³C-depleted compounds. The latter hypothesis may be
- favoured, at least in RW, because Basidiomycetes (white-rot fungi) are able to simultaneously
- ²⁴⁸ degrade ¹³C-depleted lignin and ¹³C-enriched carbohydrates.^[33]

249 Nitrogen dynamics

Nitrogen dynamics are much more complex either in DW or RW. The C/N ratio tracks changes in 250 chemical composition of samples and thus reflects degradation processes.^[12] Considering similar 251 behaviours in C content of samples in both types of waters (Fig. 4a), C/N variations likely reflect 252 changes in N content (Fig. 5). Consequently, the rapid decrease in N content of samples in DW (Fig. 253 4c), and the resulting increase of C/N ratio (Fig. 5), are most likely due to N release. In contrast, the 254 opposite pattern was observed in samples incubated in RW, with an increase in N content (Fig. 4C) 255 leading to a decrease of C/N (Fig. 5). This points to N accumulation in the remaining wood. In both 256 257 cases, the microenvironment of samples should be considered and its implications are discussed 258 below. It should also be noted that substantial isotopic fractionation processes like denitrification can be ruled out as it only occurs under anoxic conditions^[41] and that N_2 fixation, if any, has a very small 259 fractionation factor.^[42] 260

261 Distilled water

- N loss of the remaining wood in DW was associated with significant lower δ^{15} N values (-0.5 ‰ on average), compared with the initial one (-0.2 ‰; n = 21; P < 0.05; Fig. 4d), suggesting the preservation of a ¹⁵N-depleted pool and/or preferential degradation of a ¹⁵N-enriched pool. Such N loss has already been observed during the first 120 days of incubation of *Spartina* plants.^[23] However, it was attributed to leaching without ¹⁵N fractionation, which is not consistent with the ¹⁵N depletion measured in samples incubated in DW (Fig. 4d). Consequently, leaching is probably not appropriate to solely explain N dynamics in DW.
- Alternatively, the extraction of N by fungi is suspected because field incubations showed they are able to extract N from the colonised wood by gaining access to proteinaceous material, which results in concentrating N in their mycelium.^[43,44] Thus, rapid N release from wood pieces in DW is probably associated with the development of mycelium that grew partly within the wood and partly in the water (Fig. 2a). Fungi probably used nitrogen from the wood for their metabolism, leaving it depleted in N.^[44] This is supported by the absence of an external N source because DW is nutrient-free. Because N depletion occurred rapidly (within 2 weeks) and did not substantially change during the rest of the

- incubation (e.g. stable C/N ratio; Fig. 5), microbial communities may have reached an equilibrium
- 277 within 2 weeks, in response to the low nutrient availability. The ¹⁵N depletion of the remaining wood
- is not currently well understood, but preferential degradation of a ¹⁵N-enriched pool is suspected. In

279 particular, a large range of positive δ^{15} N values (2–8 ‰) in individual amino acids of a spatterdock

280 plant has been reported^[45] and it has also been demonstrated that proteins were 3 %-enriched relative

to cells.^[46] Proteins and amino acids may therefore correspond to the ¹⁵N-enriched compounds

- 282 preferentially extracted by fungi as a nutrient source,^[47] all the more because their preservation
- 283 potential is low.^[10]

284 River water

Nitrogen dynamics in RW samples showed an opposite pattern compared with samples in DW, 285 with N accumulation in the remaining wood (Fig. 4c) associated with significantly higher δ^{15} N values 286 $(1.5 \text{ }\% \text{ on average } v. -0.2 \text{ }\% \text{ at } t_0; Fig. 4d)$. N immobilisation has been commonly reported during 287 decomposition of leaf-litter,^[15,21,45] sphagnum litter^[26] and woody litter^[47] or in decaying wood of 288 *Fagus sylvatica* inoculated with basidiomycete fungi.^[44] According to those authors, it reflects 289 accumulation of nitrogen during an immobilisation phase of nutrients. Two main processes are able to 290 supply nitrogen in those decaying materials: (i) N_2 fixation by specialised microorganisms, ^[21,47] and 291 (ii) uptake by cord-forming fungi from the surrounding environment. [21,44,47] However, rates of N₂ 292 fixation are too low to explain N accumulation in decaying wood,^[21,47] because fungi are not able to 293 294 fix N_2 given N_2 -fixing organisms are limited to prokaryotes.^[48] Hence, N_2 fixation is probably not the major process involved in N accumulation. Alternatively, cord-forming fungi have the ability to 295 scavenge N from the surrounding environment, and further import it into the decaying material via a 296 translocating network of mycelium that interconnects discontinuous nutrient sources.^[21,44,47] Thus, 297 wood-decaying fungi are likely the mediators of N accumulation into decaying wood in RW. In the 298 299 present study, the source of exogenous N is RW and the cord-forming fungi are most probably whiterot fungi (Basidiomycetes), their activity being the cause of the continuous decrease in C/N ratio (Fig. 300 301 <mark>5</mark>).

The δ^{15} N variations in wood samples are likely due to the isotopic composition of the N imported 302 by fungi (N source) and/or influence of metabolism effects leading to internal fractionation of 15 N 303 during N incorporation.^[12,28,49–51] However, metabolism effects in fungi are thought to be low because 304 no or little change in δ^{15} N values was detected after N transfer to their host.^[49] Thus, N sources must 305 be seriously considered here. The only form of inorganic N detected in RW was NO₃⁻. The rapid 306 decrease in NO₃⁻ concentration in RW from ~20 ppm to 0 (within 8 weeks; Fig. 4c) supports its 307 incorporation into the wood by fungi. After t_3 (8 weeks), no NO₃⁻ in RW was detected at t_5 , t_6 and t_7 , 308 although original RW was added at t₃, t₅ and t₆. It probably reflects the complete consumption of NO₃⁻ 309 310 by microorganisms because (i) water sampling was performed before water addition in the

311 Erlenmeyers, and (ii) time largely exceeded 8 weeks between each sampling. Two lines of evidence

- support the incorporation of N-NO₃⁻ by fungi within the wood. First, δ^{15} N values of the remaining
- 313 wood were positively correlated with N content (Fig. 6a), attesting that nitrate was ¹⁵N-enriched
- 314 relative to the wood. Second, the *y* intercept of a Keeling plot of the data enabled estimating the
- isotopic signature of the source of N,^[52] thus suggesting a δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ equal to 6.6 % (Fig. 6b), which
- 316 is in agreement with the typical δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ values measured in rivers of the region (+4 to +13 ‰).^[53]
- However, according to Miller and Tans,^[54] this value is only valid when considering a stable
- 318 geochemical background of the wood, which is the case here because 'background' refers to its initial
- 319 δ^{15} N and %N values. Because N recycling also occurs during microbial decomposition,^[45] part of the
- 320 N within wood could have been 'replaced' by exogenous N. In this case, the δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ value can be
- 321 lower than 6.6 ‰.
- Organic nitrogen in RW is also a valuable external N source.^[55] However, nitrate is likely the main 322 323 source of N for microorganisms because nitrates are precursors of dissolved organic nitrogen, leading to a similar δ^{15} N signature for dissolved organic matter and nitrates.^[56,57] Alternatively, other 324 microbial processes mediated by bacteria can account for the observed increasing δ^{15} N values of 325 wood pieces in RW. Microbial processes in general and bacterial processes in particular are often 326 considered as the main drivers of δ^{15} N values under natural conditions (modulated by the oxygenation 327 conditions), over the importation of exogenous N.^[12,15,24,26,28,58] In this context, it has been proposed 328 that increasing δ^{15} N values of the remaining organic material under oxic conditions was the result of 329 the liberation of ¹⁵N-depleted compounds during microbial (meaning bacterial) processing, leading to 330 an increasing C/N ratio.^[12] In the same way, other authors have suggested that 15 N enrichment of their 331 incubated litter was best explained by 'microbial-mediated' isotopic fractionation.^[24,26] In all cases, N 332 loss was invoked, which is not observed here. Even though bacterial growth within the remaining 333 334 wood is in agreement with decreasing C/N values, their main nitrogen source must be the river water. However, we cannot completely exclude bacterial-mediated isotopic fractionation in the present 335 336 study. Besides, bacterial-mediated isotopic fractionation could be one of the sources of the nonexplained variance (43 %) in the relationship between the δ^{15} N values and the %N of samples in RW 337 (Fig. 6a), which is best explained by the incorporation of exogenous N.^[23,30] The heterogeneous 338 distribution of fungi on samples may also be a major source of that non-explained variance and of the 339 large variability in wood masses (Fig. 3). 340
- 341 Paleoenvironmental implications
- 342 Previous studies with litterbags concluded that δ^{15} N values are more variable than δ^{13} C values
- 343 during early diagenesis, because of nutrient availability (exogenous N) and microbial
- 344 processing.^[15,24,26,45] The same conclusions were drawn for lacustrine sediments.^[12,58] According to
- those authors, selective preservation of refractory compounds (e.g. lignin), and preferential loss of
- labile or biodegradable compounds, should not drastically modify δ^{13} C values, whereas microbial
- 347 processing and subsequent ¹⁵N discrimination result in large modifications of δ^{15} N values. The present

- incubation of wood samples does agree with those assumptions, δ^{13} C values being indistinguishable from the initial value (Fig. 4b), whereas δ^{15} N values were highly variable (Fig. 4d).
- Fogel and Tuross^[45] concluded that changes in δ^{15} N values during early diagenesis 'may preclude 350 the use of δ^{15} N in plant fossil material or sedimentary organic matter for reconstructing 351 paleoenvironments'. By extrapolating the linear regression between $\delta^{15}N$ values and N content of 352 samples in RW (Fig. 6a) to typical values of lignites rich in organic matter (~1 % in Paleocene– 353 Eccene lignites)^[6] and recently peatified organic matter (~2 %),^[26] the expected δ^{15} N values (~45 and 354 ~94 ‰) would be unrealistic, when compared with those recorded elsewhere (-6 to +7 ‰).^[6,26] This 355 discrepancy suggests that early diagenesis, leading to the 'geological' value, is not linear whether due 356 to incorporating exogenous $N^{[23]}$ or microbial processing. ^[24,26,45] Thus, the effect of early diagenesis 357 on δ^{15} N values is very fast and can be considered as instantaneous at the geological time scale. A 358 359 similar non-linear relationship was reported in peatified *sphagnum*, where δ^{15} N values increased from 360 -6 to 0 % during the first 40 years, whereas it increased by +1 % during the next 180 years of burial.^[26] Based on the associated decrease in C/N ratio along the peat core, those authors attributed 361 the increase in δ^{15} N values partly to microbially mediated isotopic fractionation and partly to retention 362 of ¹⁵N-enriched substrates. Similarly, the incorporation of N in the present wood samples and 363 exportation of N from them are likely driven by microbial community activity (e. g. fungi): N is 364 incorporated when available in the surrounding environment (i.e. in RW) and exported when non-365 available (i.e. in DW). The incorporation (exportation) of N in (from) wood illustrates the rapid 366 response of microbial processes to environmental conditions.⁵⁰ In that case, early diagenesis 367 homogenises initial δ^{15} N values of individuals (i.e. wood pieces) and δ^{15} N values of the surrounding 368 environment (i.e. NO₃⁻ in water). Therefore, when utilising organic nitrogen isotopes ($\delta^{15}N_{org}$) for 369 370 paleoenvironmental reconstructions, the so called 'primary signal' of paleoenvironmental conditions is unlikely to be recorded. However, the smoothed environmental signal (in space and time), such 371 372 millennial or multimillennial-scale climatic change may be preserved thanks to early diagenesis 373 homogenisation as suggested by previous paleoenvironmental studies.⁶ It could explain why the 374 range of terrestrial $\delta^{15}N_{org}$ values in prequaternary sediments are so limited, with most values between -1 and $+7 \ \text{m}^{[6,59]}$ compared with the range of $\delta^{15}N_{\text{org}}$ values recorded worldwide in modern soils and 375 plants (-8 to +22 %).^[60] 376
- 377 Changes in oxygenation conditions during burial may also influence $\delta^{15}N_{org}$ values in an opposite 378 way, with decreasing values in oxic environments and increasing values in anoxic environments, due 379 to the presence of different microbial communities.^[12,26] Thus, evaluating the effect of early 380 diagenesis under oxic and anoxic conditions is of interest, but may be challenging because anoxic
- 381 conditions strongly slow down degradation processes.^[3,12]

382 Conclusion

This original incubation experiment was conducted with wood pieces immersed in river water and distilled water in order to evaluate the effects of early diagenesis on carbon and nitrogen isotopes. The significant development of fungi in DW was not expected and enabled the comparison of degradation rates, and carbon and nitrogen dynamics of decayed wood between soft-rot and white-rot fungi. It also highlighted the incorporation of prediagenesis fungal material. In all samples, δ^{13} C values did not significantly change, in agreement with low modification of δ^{13} C values generally reported during early diagenesis of organic matter.

- Nitrogen dynamics of wood samples in DW and RW showed two different patterns: N release,
 associated with slight ¹⁵N depletion (-0.3 ‰), was in evidence in samples immersed in distilled water.
- 392 It was attributed to the extraction of a ¹⁵N-enriched pool (i.e. proteins) by degrading fungi.
- 393 Conversely, N accumulation, associated with ¹⁵N enrichment of the remaining wood, was seen in
- 394 samples immersed in RW. This was mostly attributed to the importation of ¹⁵N-enriched nitrate of the
- 395 RW into the remaining wood. The primary signal of organic nitrogen isotopes may not be recorded in
- the fossil archive, but early diagenesis seems to average an environmental signal by integrating
- 397 individual signals (i.e. wood, fungi, NO₃⁻) and microbially mediated isotopic fractionation. This
- integration could be almost instantaneous at the geological time scale, hence potentially enabling
- 399 paleoenvironmental reconstructions.

However, because the marine setting and oxygen-depleted environments represent large areas and conditions favourable to terrestrial organic matter accumulation, this kind of incubation experiment should also be performed in salty water and under anoxic conditions, although the latter conditions can be a limit of the methodology used, because of the long time needed when considering the low degradation rate in anoxic environments.

405 Supplementary material

406 Content and isotopic data of carbon and nitrogen used for statistical tests xxx are available from the 407 journal online (see http://www.publish.csiro.au/?act=view_file&file_id = EN16049_AC.pdf).

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Fig. 1. Outlines of the method used to evaluate nitrogen and carbon dynamics during wood decay of the initial
coniferous branch. DW, distilled water. RW, river water; t, time.

Fig. 2. (a and b) Morphology of samples before and after 16 weeks (t₄) of degradation. (c and d) Morphology

578 of samples after 73 weeks (t₇). DW, distilled water; RW, river water; i, reddish-brown colour characterising

black-rot or soft-rot; ii, black fungi floating from the tree-ring limits; iii, floating woody particles; iv, white

- 580 spots characterising white-rot fungi; v, increasing uniformity of the coloration.
- **Fig. 3.** Mass loss of samples *v*. time. Error bars are the standard deviation (2σ) , based on triplicates. 100 % corresponds to the initial value. DW, distilled water. RW, river water; t, time.
- 583 Fig. 4. Carbon and nitrogen dynamics of wood samples v. incubation time. Error bars correspond to 2σ .

584 Because woody particles were analysed at t₅ without replicates, the error bar is the average error of analyticial

- 585 devices: ± 0.6 and ± 0.002 % for C and N content respectively, and ± 0.2 ‰ for carbon and nitrogen isotopes.
- 586 NO_3^- in river water (RW) remained at trace levels after t₂.
- 587 **Fig. 5.** Atomic C/N ratio of wood pieces. Only the correlation between C/N and time in river water (RW) is
- 588 significant. The red star correspond to the floating particles sampled at t_5 in in river water (RW). Error bars (2 σ) 589 are within the symbols. DW, distilled water.
- **Fig. 6.** (a) δ^{15} N values relative to N content of wood samples incubated in river water (RW). (b) δ^{15} N values
- relative to the inverse of the N content of the same eight groups of samples: 10 samples for the initial values and
- 592 3 samples for each grey point. Both linear regression are significant with P < 0.05.

593

Table 1. Initial variability

594

%C, %N, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values along the initial branch. σ represents the standard deviation

	Elements	n —	Eleme	ental conte	nt (%)	Isotopic composition (‰)				
			Average	2σ	Range	Average	2σ	Range		
	Carbon	11	47.4	0.9	46.7 to 48.3	-24.1	0.2	-24.3 to -23.9		
	Nitrogen	10	0.08	0.02	0.07 to 0.10	-0.2	1.0	-0.8 to 1.0		
595	Table 2. Carbon and nitrogen contents and isotopic compositions									
596	Remaining of	organic mat	ter (OM), %C	C, %N, at	omic C/N ratio,	δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N	V values d	luring the whole		
597	experiment.	experiment. σ represents the standard deviation of the values based on triplicate measurements. DW,								
598			dis	stilled wa	ter; RW, river v	vater				

Remaining	2σ	Content (%)				Atomic		Isotopes (‰)	
OM		Carbon	2σ	Nitrogen	2σ	C/N ratio	Carbon	2σ	Nitrogen
98.7	1.5	48.5	1.0	0.07	0.01	827	-24.1	0.3	-0.6
98.6	2.3	48.8	0.5	0.07	0.00	810	-24.1	0.2	-0.8
100.7	1.3	48.4	0.5	0.07	0.00	869	-24.1	0.1	-0.6
100.7	1.7	48.7	1.1	0.07	0.02	804	-24.0	0.1	0.1
96.8	1.8	48.4	1.0	0.07	0.02	807	-24.0	0.4	-0.6
95.4	2.5	48.4	0.3	0.07	0.01	821	-24.1	0.1	-0.9
91.3	1.9	47.9	1.0	0.07	0.01	785	-24.1	0.1	-0.4
_		48.5	_	0.07	_	_	-24.1	-	-0.5
98.6	1.3	48.9	1.0	0.08	0.01	719	-24.0	0.1	-0.3
97.8	2.7	48.0	0.3	0.08	0.01	730	-23.9	0.2	0.8
97.4	1.3	48.5	0.7	0.09	0.01	601	-23.9	0.3	2.5
93.8	0.9	48.1	0.8	0.10	0.01	471	-23.9	0.1	2.1
86.5	8.4	48.9	1.9	0.09	0.01	545	-24.0	0.3	1.0
_	_	34.9	_	1.37	_	30	-22.6	_	2.7
80.6	6.0	48.0	1.7	0.11	0.03	444	-24.0	0.2	1.9
73.3	8.3	47.6	1.2	0.13	0.03	371	-23.9	0.2	2.3
_		48.3	_	0.10	_	_	-23.9	-	1.5

← What is number? It does not appear in the original table