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Foliar uptake of atmospheric nitrate by two dominant subalpine plants: insights from *in situ* triple-isotope analysis

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Summary

- The significance of foliar uptake of nitrogen (N) compounds in natural conditions is not well understood, despite growing evidence of its importance to plant nutrition. In subalpine meadows, N-limitation fosters the dominance of specific subalpine plant species, which in turn ensure the provision of essential ecosystems services. Understanding how these plants absorb N and from which sources is important to predict ecological consequences of increasing N deposition.
- Here, we investigate the sources of N to plants from subalpine meadows with distinct landuse history in the French Alps, using the triple isotopes (Δ^{17} O, δ^{18} O, and δ^{15} N) of plant tissue nitrate (NO₃⁻). We use this approach to evaluate the significance of foliar uptake of atmospheric NO₃⁻ (NO₃⁻ atm).
- The foliar uptake of NO_{3⁻atm} accounted for 4-16 % of the leaf NO_{3⁻} content, and contributed more to the leaf NO_{3⁻} pool after peak biomass. Additionally, the gradual ¹⁵N enrichment of NO_{3⁻} from the soil to the leaves reflected the contribution of NO_{3⁻atm} assimilation to plants' metabolism.
- The present study confirms that foliar uptake is a potentially important pathway for NO₃ atm into subalpine plants. This is of major significance as N emissions (and deposition) are predicted to increase globally in the future.

Keywords

Subalpine plants, atmospheric nitrate, stable isotopes, foliar uptake, nitrogen deposition

Introduction

Monitoring atmospheric nitrogen (N) deposition has greatly improved our understanding of the effects of anthropogenic changes on the environment (Vitousek *et al.*, 1997; Galloway *et al.*, 2008; Fowler *et al.*, 2015). Human activities (e.g., fossil fuel combustion and agriculture) have led to increased emissions of reactive nitrogen species (Nr = NO_y, NH_x), which in turn have increased inputs of N to the environment worldwide (Galloway *et al.*, 2004; Cui *et al.*, 2013). Some consequences of this altered N cycle include soil acidification, biodiversity loss, intensified N leaching, eutrophication, and public health issues (Aber *et al.*, 1989; Galloway *et al.*, 2003; Ward *et al.*, 2005; Clark *et al.*, 2013). Mountain regions are particularly vulnerable to changes in the N cycle: their shallow soils have a low acidification buffering capacity, while the endemic plants have developed N uptake strategies that are optimized for low nutrient environments (Bowman *et al.*, 2006; Bassin *et al.*, 2013; Boutin *et al.*, 2017). For example, intermediate stages of N saturation (Aber *et al.*, 1989) have been measured in elevated sites in the Colorado Front Range, USA (Williams & Tonnessen, 2000; Burns, 2004; Baron, 2006), as a result of regionally elevated N deposition (Mladenov *et al.*, 2012; Clow *et al.*, 2015; Nanus *et al.*, 2018).

In high altitude catchments, the N balance is still poorly understood. The fraction of atmospheric N efficiently retained or lost, and where and how this occurs, remains unknown. While deposition of atmospheric N often exceeds losses to streams *via* leaching and runoff (Baron & Campbell, 1997; Mast *et al.*, 2014), the respective importance of potential N sinks (e.g., microbial and abiotic immobilization, plant uptake, denitrification) is not yet constrained (Weintraub *et al.*, 2017). In addition, atmospheric N dynamics in the mountainous soil/plant continuum are inextricably linked to the complex topography and hydrology of these ecosystems (Balestrini *et al.*, 2013; Weintraub *et al.*,

2017; Bourgeois *et al.*, 2018b). While assessing the fate of deposited N in high altitude catchments is complex, it is necessary to understand nutrient partitioning in these essential ecosystems to preserve freshwater quality, erosion control and their patrimonial value (Clément *et al.*, 2012; Thébault *et al.*, 2014).

Several studies have established that reactive atmospheric N species (e.g., NO₂, HNO₃, and NH₃) may be incorporated directly into plant leaves and used as a nutritional source (Vallano & Sparks, 2007 and literature therein). In N-limited soils, N availability to plants largely depends on competing or loss processes such as microbial immobilization (Kaye & Hart, 1997) and leaching (Hood *et al.*, 2003). Foliar uptake can provide an alternative N absorption pathway to plants, and its significance needs to be evaluated to better predict how these N-poor ecosystems will respond to a globally increasing N deposition (Fowler *et al.*, 2013). However, an accurate parameterization of this mechanism is absent from most ecological models (Sparks, 2009). To our knowledge, no study has quantified the magnitude of foliar uptake *in situ* (*i.e.*, under natural atmospheric N deposition rates). Most estimates of foliar uptake are reported as contributing 0-50% of plant N demand (Sparks, 2009 and literature therein). Yet, these studies were either conducted at the individual plant scale, in the laboratory (*i.e.*, unnatural conditions), or at the ecosystem scale, using imperfect throughfall measurements. An accurate partitioning of N absorption pathways (root *vs.* foliar) will be key to predicting the impact of increasing atmospheric N deposition on ecosystem productivity.

The dual isotopes (δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N) of nitrate (NO₃⁻) have provided a refined understanding of the N cycle across a variety of terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (Durka *et al.*, 1994; Mayer *et al.*, 2002; Wankel *et al.*, 2006; Nanus *et al.*, 2008; Hastings *et al.*, 2009). Kendall *et al.* (2007) characterized the δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N ranges of NO₃⁻ from different sources (e.g., nitrification, atmospheric deposition), from which the origin of NO₃⁻ in a given environmental pool can be determined. However, terrestrial reservoirs of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ can undergo a large variety of physical, chemical or biological processes (e.g., mineralization, nitrification, assimilation, volatilization) that impact their isotopic composition, also called fractionation. During the nitrification process, the newly produced NO₃⁻ is ¹⁵N-depleted compared to the residual NH₄⁺ pool (Mariotti *et al.*, 1981). During the denitrification and biological This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved.

assimilation processes, the residual NO₃⁻ pools are ¹⁵N- and ¹⁸O-enriched (Mariotti *et al.*, 1981, 1982; Granger et al., 2004, 2010). Although some of these isotopic effects were successfully characterized, understanding the complex dynamics of the N cycle based on δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N of NO₃⁻ is not straightforward. Pioneering studies successfully used the dual isotope approach to evaluate the sources of NO₃⁻ in moss tissues (Liu *et al.*, 2012b,a, 2013c,a). However, the interpretation of δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N values of NO₃⁻ (referred to as δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ in this paper) is much more challenging in vascular plants due to the simultaneous effects of source mixing and biological isotope fractionation and their impacts on plant tissue NO₃⁻ isotopes (Liu et al., 2013b, 2014). Recently, the triple isotope (Δ^{17} O, δ^{18} O, and δ^{15} N) composition of NO₃⁻ has been proposed as a more robust tool to identify NO3⁻ sources and infer the biological underlying processes driving the N cycle (Michalski et *al.*, 2004; Costa *et al.*, 2011). Atmospheric NO₃⁻ (NO₃⁻ *atm*) is characterized by a high Δ^{17} O value ranging from 20 to 35% (Savarino et al., 2013), whereas biologically-derived NO₃⁻ (NO₃⁻ _{bio}) exhibits a Δ^{17} O value of 0 % (Michalski *et al.*, 2004). The contribution of NO_{3 atm} can thus be quantified through a simple two end-member mixing model. This triple isotopic tracer of NO_3^- unequivocally reveals direct NO3⁻ atm inputs in environmental pools, and provides a better assessment of biologicallyinduced fractionation of NO_3^- isotopes compared to the traditional dual isotope technique (Rose *et al.*, 2015; Fang et al., 2015). The triple isotopic tracer method has for instance recently been used to monitor NO_{3 atm} uptake and assimilation by forests and tundra across a variety of ecosystems (Liu et al., 2018).

Here, we tested two main hypotheses: i) NO₃⁻ triple isotopes can be used to quantify the proportion of NO₃⁻ atm in the nitrate pool of subalpine plant tissues, and ii) NO₃⁻ triple isotopes can be used to evaluate the significance of foliar N uptake and track its seasonal variability. To verify these hypotheses, we measured the concentration and triple isotopic composition (Δ^{17} O, δ^{18} O, and δ^{15} N) of NO₃⁻, along with the concentration of ammonium (NH₄⁺), in precipitation, soils, and different tissues (roots and leaves) of two dominant subalpine plant species at the Lautaret pass in the central French Alps. We also tested the question of land-use influence on foliar uptake of N. The vegetation at the Lautaret pass is dominated by grassland communities whose diversity and functional traits depend on

past (terraced *vs.* unterraced) and current (mowing, grazing) land use (Quétier *et al.*, 2007). These distinct land-use trajectories have been shown to deeply impact the N turnover rates in subalpine soils (Robson *et al.*, 2007, 2010; Legay *et al.*, 2013), mostly because of differences in N availability, microbial communities and abiotic parameters (Legay *et al.*, 2016). Here, we hypothesized that foliar uptake of $NO_{3\ atm}$ would contribute in larger proportion to plant N nutrition in less fertile grasslands with low N availability.

Material & Methods

Site Description

The Lautaret and Les Cours sub-watersheds are located in the upper Romanche valley of the central French Alps, near the Lautaret pass (45°02'N; 6°20'E, 1650-2000 m a.s.l., Figure S1). The site forms part of the French National Research Infrastructure to study continental ecosystems and their biodiversity (AnaEE – France, https://www.anaee-france.fr) and of the Long-Term Ecological Research network (LTER, https://www.ilter.network). The Lautaret pass is characterized by a seasonal snow-cover (November to April) and a short vegetative period (May to September, hereafter denoted as "annual"). Temperatures averaged -3.0°C and 13.0°C in January and August 2016, respectively, while multi-year (2004-2010) means were -6.5°C and 13.9°C. The annual cumulative precipitation was 609 mm, significantly lower than the multi-year (2004-2010) mean of 956 mm.

Here, we consider three grasslands featuring three combinations of past (terraced *vs.* unterraced) and present (mown *vs.* unmown) land uses (Quétier *et al.*, 2007). Two grasslands are situated on the terraced slopes of Les Cours watershed (Figure S1); one is mown for hay in August and grazed in autumn (terraced and mown, TM) while the other is not mown but grazed in summer (terraced and unmown, TU). The third grassland is located on the Lautaret watershed (Figure S1) and is unterraced, never mown (unterraced and unmown, UU) and only very lightly grazed in summer. The management practices in the study area remained unchanged since at least 2003, which led to substantial

differences in plant communities and soil properties between each grassland (Legay *et al.*, 2013). Generally, the terraced meadows were dominated by species showing exploitative traits (higher specific leaf area and leaf nitrogen content; Quétier *et al.*, 2007) such as *Dactylis glomerata*, whereas unterraced grasslands were dominated by conservative species (higher internal N recycling; Quétier *et al.*, 2007) like *Festuca paniculata*. These two species have very different functional traits, N uptake strategies, and competition levels with soil microbial biomass (Robson *et al.*, 2010; Legay *et al.*, 2013).

Samples collection and analysis

To account for spatial variability, each grassland was subdivided into three plots to provide three plant samples per grassland. A total of 9 individual plants were thus collected per sampling date (3 grasslands × 3 individual plants). Between May and September 2016, we harvested either one tuft of *D. glomerata* or of *F. paniculata* from each subplot (including several tillers and the roots) depending on which species dominated the meadow. At the same time, we collected cylindrical soil cores (4.5 cm in diameter and 8 cm in length) from the same locations. Sampling was performed twice a month around midday until peak biomass was reached (from May to July), and continued on a monthly basis afterward (July through September). Potential diurnal variations of inorganic N (NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺) concentrations in plants were not investigated. From April to October 2016, separate samples for wet and dry deposition were collected every three weeks using an atmospheric deposition collector (WADOS Kroneis GmbH, Austria). Precipitation samples were kept frozen until further chemical analysis. The dry deposition funnel was rinsed with 500 mL of ultrapure water (18.2 MΩ.cm⁻¹) and the sample stored at -20°C.

All plants were thoroughly washed with ultrapure water. Aerial parts (*i.e.*, leaves, shoots, and stems) were then separated from those below ground (*i.e.*, roots), and then frozen. Leaves, shoots, and stems were combined and collectively referred to as "leaves" hereafter. Samples were later freeze-dried (Heto DryWinner, Allerod, Denmark), ground to powder (RETSCH Mixer Mill MM400), and

homogenized. Dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) was extracted by shaking (300 RPM for 1h) 1.0 g (*D. glomerata*) and 1.5 g (*F. paniculata*) dry weight (dw) of powdered leaf and root tissues in 50 mL of ultrapure water. Soils were passed through a 2 mm sieve to remove rocks and roots. Subsamples of sieved soils (10.0 g dw) were shaken (300 RPM for 1h) in 50 mL of ultrapure water to extract the DIN. After centrifugation (4000 RPM for 10 min), all plant and soil samples were filtered using 0.22 μ m quartz filters (QMA Whatman). Precipitation samples were left to melt at ambient temperature and filtered using 0.45 μ m quartz filters (QMA Whatman).

All samples were subsequently analyzed for concentrations of NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , and NO_2^- (the latter being always negligible compared to $[NO_3^-]$) using a colorimetric technique (Gallery Plus, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA). The analytical error of ±0.01 mg L⁻¹ was determined from the standard deviation of commercial control solutions (ThermoFisher[®]). Isotopic analyses were conducted on a MAT 253 IRMS using an adapted version of the denitrifier method (Kaiser *et al.*, 2007; Morin *et al.*, 2008). The analytical errors – calculated as the standard deviation of the residuals from the linear regression between raw data of the reference standards (USGS 32, USGS 34 and USGS 35) and their accepted values – were ± 0.5, 2.1, and 0.3 ‰ for $\Delta^{17}O$, $\delta^{18}O$, and $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_3^- , respectively. Slopes and intercepts of the linear regressions were then used to convert raw sample data into calibrated values (VSMOW scale for O isotopes, and N₂-air scale for N isotopes).

Isotopic end-member mixing model

While the oxygen isotopic composition of NO₃⁻_{bio} follows the mass-dependent law $\delta^{17}O \approx 0.52 \text{ x} \delta^{18}O$ (Miller, 2002), that of NO₃⁻_{atm} differs as its production pathway involves O₃, containing an excess of ¹⁷O of 25-35 %_o (Vicars & Savarino, 2014). As a result, ¹⁷O excess (denoted by $\Delta^{17}O$, with $\Delta^{17}O =$ $\delta^{17}O - 0.52 \text{ x} \delta^{18}O$) of NO₃⁻_{atm} ranges from 20 to 35 %_o (Savarino *et al.*, 2013), whereas NO₃⁻ from other sources has a $\Delta^{17}O$ of zero (Michalski *et al.*, 2004). In this study, a simple mixing model was used to quantify the unprocessed NO₃⁻_{atm} fraction (*f*_{atm}) in samples, according to Michalski *et al.* (2004):

(Eq.1)
$$f_{atm} = \Delta^{\Gamma/} O - NO_3^{-} sample / \Delta^{\Gamma/} O - NO_3^{-} atm$$

We used a value of Δ^{17} O-NO₃ atm = 24.4 ± 2.4 %, corresponding to the mean concentration-weighted value of Δ^{17} O-NO₃ found in wet and dry deposition samples collected during the study (Table 1).

To our knowledge, there are two possible sources of $NO_{3}^{-}a_{tm}$ in leaves. One is the direct leaf uptake via stomata or cuticles, and the other is the translocation of deposited $NO_{3}^{-}a_{tm}$ from soil to roots, and then to the leaves. Therefore, we used the following isotope mass-balance approach to estimate the foliar absorption of $NO_{3}^{-}a_{tm}$:

(Eq.2)
$$\Delta^{17}\text{O-NO}_{3 \text{ leaf}} = \Delta^{17}\text{O-NO}_{3 \text{ atm}} * f_{uptake} + \Delta^{17}\text{O-NO}_{3 \text{ root}} * f_{translocation}$$

(Eq.3)
$$f_{uptake} + f_{translocation} = 1$$

Where f_{uptake} and $f_{translocation}$ are the fractions of atmospheric NO₃⁻ atm out of the leaf NO₃⁻ pool from foliar uptake and translocation, respectively. After substituting Eq.3 into Eq.2, we get:

(Eq.4)
$$f_{uptake} = (\Delta^{17} \text{O-NO}_{3 \ leaf} - \Delta^{17} \text{O-NO}_{3 \ root}) / (\Delta^{17} \text{O-NO}_{3 \ atm} - \Delta^{17} \text{O-NO}_{3 \ root})$$

Data correction for atmospheric influence

Mole fractions of NO₃⁻ (f_{atm} and $f_{bio} = 1 - f_{atm}$) can be used to remove the isotopic influence of NO₃⁻ atm on NO₃⁻ sample (with NO₃⁻ sample = NO₃⁻ atm + NO₃⁻ bio), which allows for a better interpretation of

biological processes that affect its δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O values (Tsunogai *et al.*, 2010; Dejwakh *et al.*, 2012; Riha *et al.*, 2014):

(Eq.5)
$$\delta^{18}O_{bio} = (\delta^{18}O_{sample} - \delta^{18}O_{atm} * f_{atm}) / f_{bio}$$

(Eq.6)
$$\delta^{15} N_{bio} = (\delta^{15} N_{sample} - \delta^{15} N_{atm} * f_{atm}) / f_{bio}$$

where $\delta^{15}N_{atm} = -6.0 \pm 4.1$ and $\delta^{18}O_{atm} = 66.6 \pm 5.8$ % were inferred from the mean concentrationweighted NO₃⁻ isotopes in wet and dry deposition samples collected during the study (Table 1).

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were conducted using the R software (v3.2.3). A Mann-Whitney test was applied to determine significant differences of mean concentrations and isotopic values of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ between plant tissues and species, on an annual (Figure 1) or seasonal (Figure 2) basis. Differences and correlations were considered significant for p<0.05.

Results

Atmospheric N deposition

Mean and associated standard deviation of Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ in wet and dry deposition from May to September 2016 were 23.6 ± 2.0 and 25.1 ± 2.7 ‰, respectively (Table 1). These values are in the same range as previously reported data for Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ _{atm} (Michalski *et al.*, 2004; Tsunogai *et al.*, 2010, 2016; Costa *et al.*, 2011). The weighted mean Δ^{17} O value for total deposition (wet + dry) was 24.4 ± 2.4 ‰ (Table 1), and was used to quantify the atmospheric component of NO₃⁻ pools in plants This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved. (see *Material & Methods*, Eq. 1). Mean annual total δ^{18} O-NO₃ atm</sub> (66.6 ± 5.8 %c) and δ^{15} N-NO₃ atm</sub> (-6.0 ± 4.1 %c) were also consistent with a reservoir of exclusively NO₃ atm</sub> (Kendall *et al.*, 2007), and these values were used to correct samples from their atmospheric δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N components (see *Material & Methods*, Eqs. 5 and 6). Based on these data, the calculated magnitude of the annual NO₃⁻ atm</sup> deposition flux was 3-5 kg.N-NO₃⁻.ha⁻¹.yr⁻¹ (Bourgeois et al., personal communication), higher than the N critical load for subalpine ecosystems estimated to be 1-4 kg.N.ha⁻¹.yr⁻¹ (Baron *et al.*, 2011; Nanus *et al.*, 2017).

Soil inorganic N pools

N availability in soils differed in the three meadows. Soil NO₃⁻ concentration in the UU meadow (14.6 \pm 19.0 µg.g⁻¹ dw) was significantly lower than in the terraced meadows (58.9 \pm 46.9 and 52.3 \pm 48.7 µg.g⁻¹ dw in TU and TM, respectively; Table 2). Soil NH₄⁺ concentration was higher in the unmown meadows (13.0 \pm 13.7 µg.g⁻¹ dw in UU and 17.5 \pm 29.9 µg.g⁻¹ dw in TU) compared to the mown one (6.2 \pm 4.0 in TM), although not significantly. The ratio NO₃⁻/NH₄⁺ was significantly lower in the UU meadow. These results were in line with previous studies at the same site.

Mean and associated standard deviation of Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ in soils were low, and significantly higher in the UU meadow (0.9 ± 0.6 %) than in the terraced ones (0.5 ± 0.8 and 0.3 ± 0.4 % in TU and TM, respectively; Table 2). While no significant difference was observed in NO₃⁻ isotopic values between the TU and TM meadows (δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ = -10.3 ± 6.6 and -10.9 ± 5.1 %, and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ = -1.3 ± 9.6 and -2.6 ± 6.5 %, respectively), δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ were significantly higher (-4.3 ± 6.8 %) and lower (-5.1 ± 6.6 %), respectively, in the UU meadow.

Plant inorganic N pools

The mean $[NO_3^-]$ in plant tissues varied between 10.0 ± 5.4 and $38.8 \pm 50.8 \ \mu g.g^{-1}$ dw, and no significant difference was found between plant species or between plant tissues, except for *D*. This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved.

glomerata in TU fields (Figure 1a). This range of $[NO_3^-]$ is similar to the 6-60 µg.g⁻¹ dw range in Arctic vegetation where N is limited (Liu *et al.*, 2018). The mean $[NH_4^+]$ in plant tissues varied between 1.3 ± 0.8 and $94.0 \pm 100.1 \mu$ g.g⁻¹ dw and was very low in all plant leaves. *D. glomerata* roots held significantly higher NH_4^+ concentrations compared to *F. paniculata* (Figure 1b). Positive Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ in all tissues of both *D. glomerata* and *F. paniculate* evidences direct uptake of unprocessed NO_3^- and (Figure 1c). The mean Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ ranged from $1.0 \pm 0.7 \%$ in *D. glomerata* roots to 3.4 ± 3.2 % in *F. paniculata* leaves. According to Eq.1, the mean NO_3^- and on the sum of the sum of the sum of the sum of the term of the sum of the sum of the term of the sum of the sum of the term of the sum of the term of the sum of the term of term of the term of term of term of the term of term of the term of term of the term of the term of term of term of term of the term of term o

The mean $[NO_3^-]$ in leaves was significantly higher after peak biomass in all plants (Figure 2a), whereas the mean $[NH_4^+]$ did not significantly vary (Figure 2b). The period after peak biomass was also characterized by significantly higher mean Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ in leaves and significantly lower mean δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ in roots compared to the earlier period (Figures 2c and 2d). There was no significant difference for δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ between the two periods (Figure S2).

Discussion

NO3⁻ and NO3⁻ atm uptake

One possible scenario that could explain the presence of $NO_3^{-}_{atm}$ in plant leaves involves direct foliar absorption of gaseous species (e.g., NO_2 , HNO_3) and/or the incorporation of $NO_3^{-}_{atm}$ dissolved in precipitation (Vallano & Sparks, 2007). The respective importance of each absorption pathways depends on a large array of leaf properties, among which the leaf wettability (i.e., the capacity to retain water). In both cases, these N compounds enter plant leaves following passive diffusion mechanisms either *via* the stomata or through the cuticle, depending on the chemical and physical

characteristics of the pollutant and the leaf, and are eventually transformed into NO₃⁻ (Vallano & Sparks, 2007; Sparks, 2009). More important for this study, HNO₃, NO₃⁻, and, hypothetically, NO₂ lead to a similarly ¹⁷O-enriched NO₃⁻ atm when assimilated in leaves (Savarino *et al.*, 2008), regardless of the absorption pathway. Therefore, we will from now on use the term "foliar uptake of NO₃⁻ atm" to refer to the absorption of NO₃⁻ -producing species through the leaves, with no further consideration of the mechanism involved. This scenario is supported by a recent study of subalpine meadows in the French Pyrenees which highlighted the strong foliar uptake capacity of *Poaceae* (*i.e.*, *F. paniculata* and *D. glomerata* family) in an experiment where δ^{15} N-labeled NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ were sprayed on natural subalpine grasslands (Pornon *et al.*, 2019).

Another possible scenario is the translocation of deposited NO₃⁻ _{aum} from soils to above-ground biomass (Pornon *et al.*, 2019). Root-to-shoot transport of NO₃⁻ *via* the xylem is well-documented for herbaceous species, with NO₃⁻ being either stored in petioles or reduced in mesophyll cells (Hachiya & Sakakibara, 2016). During translocation, NO₃⁻ can also be partly reduced in roots or stored in the vacuole. In our study, year-round positive Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ values in *D. glomerata* and *F. paniculata* roots suggest that at least part of the NO₃⁻ _{atm} in the plants was acquired *via* root uptake (Figure 1c). However, Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ in leaves was significantly higher compared to roots after peak biomass (Figure 2c). Such a relationship can only be explained by foliar uptake being the dominant NO₃⁻ _{atm} assimilation pathway. Indeed, the enrichment of NO₃⁻ _{atm} in leaves (*i.e.*, increasing Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻), because biological and transport processes do not affect the Δ^{17} O value (Michalski *et al.*, 2004). We found that neither soils (Table 2) nor roots (Figure 2c) – which would be the reservoirs of NO₃⁻ _{atm} in leaves in this scenario – showed a similar increase in exogenous NO₃⁻ after peak biomass.

In order to further highlights the importance of foliar uptake of NO₃⁻_{atm} we introduce the terminology $X_{leaves-roots} = X_{leaves} - X_{roots}$, where X can be [NO₃⁻], Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻, δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ or δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ at a given date. Here, [NO₃⁻]_{leaves-roots} and Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻_{leaves-roots} were positively correlated: Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻_{leaves-roots}, and therefore f_{uptake} (Eq.4) increases with higher [NO₃⁻]_{leaves-roots} (Figure 3a). Foliar uptake of NO₃⁻_{atm} can therefore be quantified by considering the range of positive NO₃⁻_{atm} enrichment in leaves compared to roots, using Eq.4. When Δ^{17} O_{leaves-roots} is positive (*i.e.*, foliar uptake contributes more NO₃⁻_{atm} than root translocation), it spans a 0.9-3.8 %_o, corresponding to a $f_{uptake} = 4-16$ %.

Isotopic evidence of NO₃⁻ assimilation in roots and leaves

Uptake and subsequent transport of NO₃⁻ in plants is commonly regarded as yielding little, if any, isotopic fractionation due to the lack of bond breakage in these processes (Mariotti et al., 1982; Evans et al., 1996). Conversely, the co-variation of O and N isotopic fractionation can be a good indicator of biological processes such as denitrification (Wexler et al., 2014; Fang et al., 2015) and assimilation (Granger *et al.*, 2004, 2010). In plants, variations of δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ are mainly influenced by NO₃⁻ reduction (NR) into NH₄⁺ in the protein-making process (Tcherkez & Farquhar, 2006). Laboratory and hydroponic experiments on NR-induced isotopic fractionation showed that δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ co-vary along a 1:1 slope (Karsh *et al.*, 2012; Estrada *et al.*, 2017). These findings were supported by the only field analysis of NR fractionation, where a slope of 1.27 was found between δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ in tree roots (Liu *et al.*, 2013b). Here, the linear regressions between δ^{18} O-NO_{3 *bio*} and δ^{15} N-NO_{3 *bio*} (see Eqs.5 and 6) showed similar slopes of 0.76 and 0.71 in species-aggregated roots and leaves, respectively (Figure 4a). These slopes were lower than the expected 1:1 line, suggesting the production and uptake of new NO_{3 *bio*} with low δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N. This was also found by Wexler et al. (2014) who reported weaker in situ denitrification slopes (0.4 - 0.7) compared to laboratory experiments (1.0) due to the production of new NO_{3 bio} (see also Granger & Wankel, 2016). Here, the results suggest that constant uptake of new NO₃-bio by roots and subsequent translocation to the leaves could account for the observed slopes.

In addition, the slope of 0.05 for the correlation between Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ bio further underscores the assimilation-driven δ^{18} O enrichment of NO₃⁻ bio in roots (Figure 4b). In the leaves, most δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values fall outside of the mixing line between NO₃⁻ atm and NO₃⁻ bio when most of the δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values in the roots fall on the mixing line (Figure 4b). This suggests that an additional assimilation step occurs in aboveground tissue after transport from the roots. This possible additional NR step in leaves is also supported by the significant correlation between δ^{18} O_{leaves-roots} and δ^{15} N_{leavesroots} (0.99) and confirms NO₃⁻ atm metabolic reduction after foliar uptake (Figure 3b).

Different NO₃⁻ uptake patterns

Significantly higher $[NH_4^+]$ and lower $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ in *D. glomerata* roots (Figure 1b and e) could reflect its exploitative strategy, characterized by fast uptake (*i.e.*, lower $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ due to frequent turn-over with new NO_3^- bio) and intensive NR rates (*i.e.*, production of in-tissue NH_4^+). The high $[NH_4^+]$ in *D. glomerata* roots could also stem from a particularly high NH_4^+ affinity (Grassein *et al.*, 2015), although no evidence exists that uptake and concentration of NH_4^+ are linked. TU meadows had the highest $[NH_4^+]$ in soils (Table 2) which may have favored NH_4^+ uptake by *D. glomerata* as N availability is a strong driver of N uptake strategy (Houlton *et al.*, 2007; Stahl *et al.*, 2011; Wang & Macko, 2011).

For *F. paniculata*, a more conservative species, the data showed a significantly higher f_{atm} in the roots (Figure 1c), mirroring the lower N cycling rates in UU soils previously documented (Robson *et al.*, 2007, 2010; Legay *et al.*, 2013), and the longer residence time of unprocessed NO₃⁻ _{atm} illustrated by higher Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ in this meadow (Table 2). For this subalpine plant species growing in nutrient-poor soils (Table 2), uptake of NO₃⁻ _{atm} appeared to be an important source of nutrients, a hypothesis also supported by higher f_{atm} in its leaves compared to *D. glomerata* (Figure 1c).

The higher f_{atm} in all plant leaves after peak biomass may indicate a shift in subalpine plants NO₃⁻ uptake pattern: root-based in spring after snowmelt, and leaf-based in summer when competition with microbial immobilization is stronger (Legay *et al.*, 2013) and the foliar surface for atmospheric exchange is at a maximum.

It remains unclear why δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ in *D. glomerata* roots was lower than the estimated δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ *bio* = 5.1 % or reported by Bourgeois *et al.*, (2018a) at the same site (Figure 4a and c). Because these low δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ values span the reported δ^{15} N range of NO₃⁻ produced from NH₄⁺ atm nitrification (Figure 4a and c), it could indicate that NH₄⁺ atm, along with NH₄⁺ mineralized from organic N (NH₄⁺ org), is an important substrate for nitrification (Bourgeois *et al.*, 2018a). Alternatively, low δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ could be linked to the low nitrification rates in subalpine meadows (Robson *et al.*, 2007), leading to the production of δ^{15} N-depleted NO₃⁻ because of isotopic fractionation when the NH₄⁺ pool is only partially nitrified (Mariotti *et al.*, 1981). Conversely, we found ¹⁵N-enriched NO₃⁻ in *F. paniculata* roots compared to NO₃⁻ *bio* (Figure 4a), which could have resulted from several distinct or concomitant sources and processes:

(i) NO_3^- could be derived from manure as suggested by isotopic source partitioning (Figure 4a and c), but this is improbable considering the low occurrence of grazing and the absence of manuring in unterraced grasslands.

(ii) an association of *F. paniculata* with mycorrhizal fungi (Mouhamadou *et al.*, 2011; Binet *et al.*, 2013) may impact N and O isotopes of NO_3^- . However, the NR capacity of mycorrhizal fungi is expressed only in the presence of NO_3^- and absence of NH_4^+ (Liu *et al.*, 2014 and literature therein), which is not the case here. In addition, a review on the isotopic imprint of plant-fungal associations showed that mycorrhizal plants are ¹⁵N-depleted (total N) compared to their fungal symbionts (Hobbie & Hogberg, 2012).

(iii) NO₃⁻ could stem from the storage of nutrients from previous years in tiller bases (Baptist *et al.*, 2013), ¹⁵N-enriched by assimilation. This assumption is well supported by the slow N turnover in plant tissues in subalpine *Poaceae* (Pornon *et al.*, 2019), and by the year-round elevated δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O in *F. paniculata* (Figure 1d and e).

Whereas these results suggest a potentially significant correlation between root uptake of NO₃⁻_{atm} and NO₃⁻_{bio} and land use (probably due to different N speciation and availability; Table 2), the correlation between land-use trajectories and foliar uptake of NO₃⁻_{atm} was not evident in this study. The proportion of NO₃⁻_{atm} in leaves seemed to increase as the intensity of the land management decreased (along with N availability in soils, Table 2), although this result was not statistically significant (Figure 1c). A similar pattern was observed for δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ (Figure 1d) and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ (Figure 1e). Additional work will be needed to further investigate this question.

Uncertainties and future work

In this work, isotopic mass balance calculations were limited to two grass species that were assumed to be most representative of plant communities in subalpine environments. Therefore, the variability in the significance of foliar absorption across the wide range of subalpine plant species was not specifically studied here. Since our study site is remote and far from N emissions, it would be interesting to study how foliar uptake varies with shifting abundances of atmospheric Nr species, for instance close to urban centers (with high NO₂) or agricultural zones (with high NH₃). Similar broad-scale studies like that by Liu *et al.* (2018) would be necessary to assess the variability of foliar NO₃⁻ *aum* uptake across ecosystems, and to elucidate the drivers of this variability (e.g., water content, N availability, N speciation in the atmosphere and in the soils). There is now compelling evidence that forest canopies exert a strong control on the proportion and speciation of atmospheric N reaching soils (Templer & Weathers, 2011; Rao *et al.*, 2014; Guerrieri *et al.*, 2015). Quantifying foliar uptake of atmospheric N from forest canopies would be a significant step toward understanding how elevated N This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved.

deposition affects forested ecosystems. Another important aspect is the need to account for foliar NO_3^{-} *atm* uptake in N-limited environments subject to global changes. For instance, Mayor *et al.* (2017) demonstrated that global temperature increases may lead to a strong N/P decoupling in alpine soils above the tree line, which could be further exacerbated by foliar NO_3^{-} atm uptake, a variable not considered to date.

In the present study, we focused on the foliar uptake of $NO_{3\ atm}^{3\ atm}$. However, foliar uptake is also affected by other N species like PAN (Sparks *et al.*, 2003), other organic N compounds (Lockwood *et al.*, 2008) or NH₃ (Hanstein *et al.*, 1999; Pornon *et al.*, 2019). The 4-16 % range for foliar uptake of $NO_{3\ atm}^{3\ atm}$ is but one part of the total foliar N uptake. Constraining the foliar uptake of these N species should be another important focus of future studies, especially given that their relative abundance in the atmosphere is changing (Li *et al.*, 2016).

Conclusion

The present study has advanced the current understanding of the potential NO_3^- absorption pathways by roots or leaves and their seasonal variability in subalpine plants, and has stressed the practical use of NO_3^- triple-isotope analyses to further our understanding of the role played by plants in the N biogeochemical cycle. We demonstrated that $\Delta^{17}O-NO_3^-$ in plant tissues is a powerful tool for constraining the direct foliar uptake of NO_3^- *aum*: two dominant subalpine plant species yielded an estimated foliar uptake of NO_3^- *aum* of 4-16 %. The simultaneous analysis of the triple isotopes of $NO_3^$ in plant tissues also provided a new perspective on plant functional biology, most notably on the NR process. We were able to show that NO_3^- assimilation occurs in both the roots and the leaves of subalpine plants. Our findings also suggest a seasonal variability in the respective contribution of N uptake pathways (roots *vs.* leaves), with greater assimilation occurring in the leaves after peak biomass, although further studies on this topic are needed. Results from this study bring new insights on the role of vegetation in the N balance in high-altitude catchments. We believe that the isotopic This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved. approach used here could help improve the predictive capabilities of ecosystem models with regard to changing N deposition levels, if used on more plant species and at a larger scale.

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Author contribution

IB, J-CC and JS designed the experiment. IB carried out the field work. IB and NC performed the laboratory analyses. IB analyzed the data. IB, JCC and JS discussed the results. IB wrote the paper, with revisions from JCC and JS.

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Supplementary Figures

Figure S1 Map of the Lautaret pass study area.

Figure S2 Before and after peak biomass values of δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ (%*o*) in pooled *F. paniculata* and *D. glomerata* plant leaves and roots.

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Figure 1 Annual statistics of (a) $[NO_3^-]$ (µg.g⁻¹ dw), (b) $[NH_4^+]$ (µg.g⁻¹ dw), (c) $\Delta^{17}O$ (‰) and corresponding f_{atm} (%, the proportion of NO_3^- atm), (d) $\delta^{18}O$ (‰) and (e) $\delta^{15}N$ (‰) of NO_3^- in *D*. *glomerata* and *F. paniculata* leaves (n = 55 and 33 for concentration and isotopic data, respectively) and roots (n = 56 and 47 for concentration and isotopic data, respectively), sampled between May and September 2016. Box plots show the weighted mean, as well as the 25th and 75th percentiles. Different letters indicate significant differences between plant species for the same biological tissue (leaves or roots). Asterisks indicate significant differences between plant tissues for a given species: *, p<0.05; **, p<0.01; ***, p<0.001).

Figure 2 Pre- and post-peak biomass statistics of (a) $[NO_3^-]$ (µg.g⁻¹ dry tissue), (b) $[NH_4^+]$ (µg.g⁻¹ dry tissue), (c) $\Delta^{17}O-NO_3^-$ (‰) and corresponding f_{atm} (%, the proportion of NO_3^- atm) and (d) $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ (‰) in pooled *Festuca paniculata* and *Dactylis glomerata* leaves (green) and roots (brown). Box plots show the mean, as well as the 25th and 75th percentiles. The black arrow indicates the occurrence of peak biomass (early July). The grey area marks the post-peak biomass period. Different letters indicate significant differences (p<0.05) in values for the same biological tissue (leaves or roots) between the two periods. Asterisks indicate significant differences between plant tissues (roots *v*s. leaves) for a given period: *, p<0.05; **, p<0.01; ***, p<0.001.

Figure 3 Differences between leaves and roots of (a) Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ (‰) vs. [NO₃⁻] (µg.g⁻¹ dw) and (b) δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ (‰) vs. δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ (‰). Samples are either DG-TM (*Dactylis glomerata* from Terraced-Mown meadows), DG-TU (*D. glomerata* from Terraced-Unmown meadows), and FP-UU (*Festuca paniculata* from Unterraced-Unmown meadows). In (a) the regression line illustrates the correlation between NO₃⁻ enrichment in leaves compared to roots and Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ enrichment in leaves compared

to roots (indicating foliar uptake of NO_3^- atm). In (b) NO_3^- bio isotopic values that have been corrected for NO_3^- atm contribution (see Methods section for details) are shown in red (in black are the uncorrected values). The linear regression slope of 0.99 highlights the additional assimilation step occurring in leaves. Note that each data point corresponds the mean value of three plant individuals per sampling date.

Figure 4 Root (brown) and leaf (green) NO₃⁻ isotopic values showing (a) δ^{18} O (%) vs. δ^{15} N (%), (b) Δ^{17} O (%) vs. δ^{18} O (%) and (c) Δ^{17} O (%) vs. δ^{15} N (%). The three different plant species are represented by three different symbols (see legend). The plant species/land-use trajectory combinations are represented by three different symbols (see legend). TM refers to Terraced-Mown land-use, TU to Terraced-Unmown land-use, and UU to Unterraced-Unmown land-use. In (a) the isotopic ranges of NO₃⁻ produced from different ammonium sources are indicated by rectangles (cf., (Kendall *et al.*, 2007)). The colors correspond to: $grey = NO_3^{-1}$ from atmospheric ammonium $(NH_{4 atm})$, turquoise = NO₃⁻ from mineralized organic matter (NH_{4 org}), beige = NO₃⁻ from manure NH4⁺. In (b) and (c), the same grey, turquoise and beige colors are used to delineate the areas of mixing between the atmospheric end-member (*i.e.*, 100% NO_{3 atm}), represented by the blue diamond, and the other NO₃⁻ sources mentioned above (*i.e.*, 100% NO₃⁻ *bio*). Note the overlapping mixing ranges in (b). The atmospheric end-member (blue diamond) represents to the mean isotopic values of deposited NO_{3 atm} at the Lautaret pass (Table 1). In all panels, the red diamond corresponds to the isotopic values of NO_{3 bio} at the Lautaret pass as measured by Bourgeois et al. (2018). The dashed arrows indicate the expected isotopic effect of NO₃⁻ assimilation on δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ (enrichment), δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ (enrichment), and $\angle ^{17}$ O-NO₃⁻ (no effect). Measurements located within a mixing range correspond to plant NO₃ samples containing a mixture of NO_{3 atm} and NO_{3 bio}. Data points located outside a mixing range correspond to plant NO₃ samples that were isotopically fractionated (e.g., through assimilation). When significant, the regression lines between sample isotopic values were plotted for leaves (green) and roots (brown). Note that each data point represents the mean value of three plant individuals per sampling date.

Deposition	[NO ₃ ⁻] (mg.L ⁻¹)	$[NH_4^+]$ (mg.L ⁻¹)	⊿ ¹⁷ O (‰)	$\delta^{ m ^{18}}$ O (‰)	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)
Dry deposition (n=10)	-	-	25.1 ± 2.7	69.1 ± 5.7	-5.1 ± 6.2
Wet deposition (n=9)	5.5 ± 3.2	0.5 ± 0.2	23.6 ± 2.0	63.8 ± 6.0	-7.1 ± 1.7
Atmospheric end-member	-	-	24.4 ± 2.4	66.6 ± 5.8	-6.0 ± 4.1

Under is shown the inferred isotopic values for this study atmospheric end-member.

Table 2 Weighted mean annual concentration of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ (μ g.g⁻¹ dw) and concentration-weighted isotopic values of NO₃⁻ (%₀) in soil extracts and associated standard deviation.

Soils ovtrasts	[NO ₃ ⁻]	[NH4 ⁺]	∆ ¹⁷ O (‰)	δ ¹⁸ Ο (‰)	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)
Solis extracts	(µg.g ⁻¹ dw)	(µg.g⁻¹ dw)			
UU meadows (n=18)	14.6 ± 19.0	13.0 ± 13.7	0.9 ± 0.6	-4.3 ± 6.8	-5.1 ± 6.6
TU meadows (n=21)	58.9 ± 46.9	17.5 ± 29.9	0.5 ± 0.8	-10.3 ± 6.6	-1.3 ± 9.6
TM meadows (n=21)	52.3 ± 48.7	6.2 ± 4.0	0.3 ± 0.4	-10.9 ± 5.1	-2.6 ± 6.5

UU, Unterraced-Unmown; TU, Terraced-Unmown; TM, Terraced-Mown land-use trajectories.

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Figure 1 Annual mean a) $[NO_3^-]$ (µg.g⁻¹ dw), b) $[NH_4^+]$ (µg.g⁻¹ dw), c) $\Delta^{17}O$ (%₀) and corresponding f_{atm} (%, the proportion of NO₃⁻ atm), d) $\delta^{18}O$ (%₀) and e) $\delta^{15}N$ (%₀) of NO₃⁻ in *D. glomerata* and *F. paniculata* leaves (n = 55 and 33 for concentration and isotopic data, respectively) and roots (n = 56 and 47 for concentration and isotopic data, respectively), sampled between May and September 2016. Box plots show the mean, as well as the 25th and 75th percentiles. Different letters indicate significant differences between plant species for the same biological tissue (leaves or roots). Asterisks indicate significant differences between plant tissues for a given species (* for p<0.05, ** for p<0.01, *** for p<0.001).



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Figure 3 Differences between leaves and roots of a) Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ (‰) vs. [NO₃⁻] (µg.g⁻¹ dw) and b) δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ (‰) vs. δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ (‰). Samples are either DG-TM (*D. glomerata* from Terraced-Mown meadows), DG-TU (*D. glomerata* from Terraced-Unmown meadows), and FP-UU (*F. paniculata* from Unterraced-Unmown meadows).

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