WHY ARE THE GRASSES GREEN IN ALPINE MEADOWS?

by

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<u>Abstract.</u> Soil samples from the rhizosphere of <u>Poa</u> alpina and Trisetum spicatum collected on Lookout Mountain, Banff National Park, Alberta contained at least 10 times more bacteria than the soil 3 cm The number of bacteria counted on nitrogen free growth media ranged from 5 to 56% of the total heterotrophic count on a minimal (R2A) media. Consistantly more nitrogen fixing bacteria were isolated from the P. alpina rhizosphere compared with T. spicatum despite their close proximity (<1 m).</p> The microorganisms that readily grew on nitrogen free medium after six successive transfers were identified to be Xanthobacter flavus, X. autotrophicus, <u>Azotobacter beijerinckii, Azomonas macrocytogenes,</u> <u>Flavobacterium multivorum, Flavobacterium aquatile</u> and <u>Beijerinckia indica</u>. <u>P. alpina</u> seedlings inoculated with nitrogen fixing bacteria in vitro remained green and healthy for a much longer time than the uninoculated seedlings when grown in nitrogen free medium. Scanning electron micrographs of the roots of these inoculated seedlings and bulbils planted in Lookout Mountain soil revealed their close association with the bacteria.

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# Introduction

Grassy alpine meadows of the Canadian Rocky Mountains present a lush green scenery. On close examination of the grasses, there appears to be no Nitrogen deficiency, although the soil is very low in this element (Macyk, 1974). This poses the question as to how these grasses access a supply of Nitrogen? There is an abundance of literature on biological N<sub>2</sub>-fixation in grassy and many N<sub>2</sub>-fixing plants microorganisms have been found in the rhizosphere of grasses (Dobereiner. 1961; Dobereiner and Day, 1976; Hashtela et. al., 1983; McClung et. al., 1983; Reinhold et. al., 1988). Among the diazotrophic microorganisms that have been found associated with grass roots, the genus Azospirillum most the intensively studied (Review in Dobereiner and Perdosa. 1987). The other genera of interest Beijerinckia (Dobereiner, 1961), <u>Campylobacter</u> (McClung and Patriquin, 1980: McClung et. al., 1983), Enterobacter and Klebsiella (Haahtela et. al., 1981; Ladha et. al., 1983), Bacillus (Seldin et. al., 1989), Herbaspirillum (Baldani et. al., 1986). <u>Azotobacter</u> and Derxia (Dobereiner and Pedrosa, 1987).

form of plant-bacteria Some might exist to allow interaction for a mutual relationship or an association. In the absence of gross nodule-like morphological structures variability among associated bacteria, the identification of the N2-fixing systems and of the mechanism involved becomes However, considerable difficult. progress has been made in establishing associations for cereals forage grasses (Boddy and Dobereiner, 1984; Dart, 1986; Dobereiner Defolli, 1980; Habbell and Gaskins, 1984; Okon, 1983; Reinhold et. al., 1988; Van Berkum and Bohlool, 1980). Dobereiner and Pedrosa (1987) reviewed the evidence of physical association between grass roots and N2-fixing

bacteria. The International Biological Program has helped in understanding the nitrogen cycle in arctic tundra. tundra, bacterial cold N<sub>2</sub>-fixation is believed to be more critical to plant productivity than in any other terrestrial system. Under alpine meadow conditions the grass-bacterial interactions will be similar to that of the tundra ecosystem. However, such interactions have not extensively studied in the alpine ecosystem. Studies conducted at Niwot Ridge, Colorado (Wojciechowski Heinbrook, 1984) suggested the strong influence of soil moisture N<sub>2</sub>-fixation. Higher levels bacterial N2-fixation were observed in Deschampsia grassy meadows than Xeric kobresia meadow and fellfield. Alpine conditions characterized by low and soil temperatures restricted organic decomposition make biological N<sub>2</sub>-fixation significant for the sūrvival of plants in these environments (Alexander et. al., 1978; Alexander, 1974; Wojciechowski Heinbrook, 1984).

The purpose of this study was to determine the presence of a potential N2-fixing grass-bacteria association in alpine conditions in the Rocky Mountains of Alberta. This paper will deal with preliminary studies that were conducted with the following objectives; (1) determine presence of a rhizosphere effect in two alpine grasses, (2) identify the most abundant N2-fixing bacteria in the rhizosphere, and (3) observe grass-bacteria association under natural and artificial environments.

#### Materials and Methods

#### Rhizosphere effect

Poa alpina and T. spicatum tussocks with soil clump (5 cm in diameter) were collected from the Lookout Mountain top (2600 m) in two consecutive years. Soil was also sampled from Window Mountain. Soil, shaken free from the outer edges of

these clumps, was referred to as nonrhizosphere soil. Approximately 10 g wet weight of this soil was transferred to a milk dilution bottle containing 90 ml dilution buffer (Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater, 1985). Similar quantities rhizosphere soil immediately surrounding the roots in each tussock were collected and treated in a similar Ten fold dilutions of these initial dilutions were made into fresh buffer. Remaining soil was desiccated at 105°C for 16 h and the moisture content determined. This was used to adjust the bacterial count to a soil dry weight basis. Bacterial counts were determined by dispensing 0.1 ml amounts of the appropriate dilution medium (Difco, Michigan, R2A U.S.A.) and nitrogen free agar medium (NFAM) (Pramer and Smith, 1965). prepare NFAM, a solution consisting of  $K_2HPO_4$ , 1.0 g; MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.5 FeCl<sub>2</sub>.H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.1 g; CaCO<sub>3</sub>, 2.0 Noble agar, 15 g and H<sub>2</sub>O, 900 ml was prepared and sterilized by autoclave. second solution consisting of Α D-glucose, 20g;  $Na_2MoO_4.2H_2O$ , 2.52 mg; and H<sub>2</sub>O, 100 ml was filter sterilized (pore size, 0.22 µm) and added to the first solution after it had cooled to 55°C. The mixed NFAM was dispensed to sterile then plates. Two sets of plates were inoculated in duplicate from each One set of plates was dilution. incubated under aerobic and the other microaerophilic conditions (Campypack, BBL microbiology system, Becton Dickenson and Company, MD, U.S.A.). After seven days incubation 20°C bacterial colonies were enumerated.

# Bacterial Identification

Major colonies were transferred 5-6 times on NFAM before species identifications were performed by using the computerized identification service at the Alberta Environmental Centre (Coleman, 1981).

# Root Bacteria Association

Three experiments were conducted to establish physical association of N<sub>2</sub>-fixing bacteria with  $\underline{P}$ . alpina and  $\underline{T}$ . spicatum roots.

Experiment I: The roots of P. alpina and <u>T. spicatum</u> tussocks collected from Lookout Mountain were washed carefully and cut into small 1-2 mm pieces. These were then placed into a vial containing fixative paraformaldehyde and 1.5% (1% glutaraldehyde in 0.15 M cacodylate buffer, pH 7.4) under slight vacuum until they sank. The pieces were fixed overnight, washed in 0.12 M cacodylate buffer, pH 7.2 and dehydrated in a graded series of ethanol. While in 100% ethanol, the were transferred to wire baskets making sure to keep them wet. The ethanol was replaced by amyl and the specimens were acetate critical point dried in a SEEVAC critical point drier, mounted on aluminum stubs with silver paint and coated with gold using an Edwards sputter coater. The coated specimens were examined and photographed with a scanning electron S 510 microscope (SEM) at the Northern Forestry Centre, Edmonton, Alberta.

Experiment\_\_\_II: Viviparous (vegetative propagules produced on the spike) of P. alpina were planted into rhizosphere soil collected from the Mountain and greenhouse Lookout (2: LOAM, mix 1: potting 2: PEAT; 1:VERMICULITE). These plants were nurtured in growth cabinets set to a day/night cycle of 15/8°C. After five months, root tips of these plants were prepared and photographed with the SEM as described above.

Experiment III: Seeds of P. alpina plants originating from the Lookout Mountain site were surface sterilized (5% sodium hypochlorite for 2 min) and planted into a semisolid (0.25% Noble agar) NFAM contained in test tubes. These test tubes were then

placed in a growth cabinet set at 22/15°C day(16 h)/night cycle. After a week of seed germination one third of the test tubes were inoculated with drop of fresh actively growing cultures (grown in the same liquid medium as used in the experimental plant growth medium) of Azotobacter chroococcum ATCC 9043 and a third with Azospirillum <u>lipoferum</u> ATCC 29707. tubes the test The rest of inoculated) were treated as controls. examined plants were N-deficiency for eight symptoms At the end of this period weeks. their roots prepared were photographed using the SEM.

#### Soil Analysis

Soil samples collected from the field were air dried and ground to 2 mm or less. They were then analyzed for several chemical properties in duplicate using standard methods (McKeague, 1978). Organic matter was determined by oxidation (Walkley and Black, 1934).

# Results and Discussion

### Rhizosphere Effect

immediately samples taken Soil plant to the adjacent (rhizosphere) contained higher numbers of bacteria than soil from The rhizosphere distance (Table 1). effect resulted in at least a ten fold increase in bacterial counts for both grass species tested. The proportion of N2-fixing bacteria in the total populations were similar (69% and 68%) non-rhizosphere rhizosphere and samples.

#### Bacterial Identification

During 1986, approximately 30 bacterial isolates obtained from the rhizosphere samples were tested for their ability to grow on NFAM after four successive transfers. Most of the microorganisms were identified as belonging to the genus <u>Xanthobacter</u>.

TABLE 1. Bacterial Counts on Rhizosphere and Non-Rhizosphere soils Collected from Lookout and Hindow Mountain in Alberta

	CFU/ga x106						
	R2Ab		EugonC	NFAM			
Soil Sample	Aerobic Micro		Hicro	Aerobic	Hicro		
<u>Poa alpina</u> , Lookout Mo	ountain			•			
Root and Rhizosphere	3,800	иDe	830	1 200	ND		
1986 (n=12)							
Root and Rhizosphere	2,000	1,700	260	470	290		
1987 (n=8)							
Root and Rhizosphere	540	230	ND	18	16		
1988 (n=8)							
Non-Rhizosphere soil	110	750	ND	75	56		
1987 (n=4)							
Non-Rhizosphere soil	19	16	ND	12	12		
1988 (n→8)							
<u>Poa alpina</u> , Mindow Mor	untain						
Root and Rhizosphere	160	63	DM	46	49		
1988 (n=8)							
Non-Rhizosphere soil	16	9	ND	7	7		
1988 (n=8)							
<u>Trisetum spicatum</u> , Lo	okout Mou	ntain					
Root and Rhizosphere	2,500	ND	660	920	ND		
1986 (n=12)							
Root and Rhizosphere	1,300	630	460	510	450		
1987 (n=8)							
Non-Rhizosphere soil	250	110	סא	87	77		
1987 (n=4)							

a Colony Forming Units/g dried soil

b R2A Growth Medium-Total Heterotrophic Count incubated aerobically and microaerophilically

<sup>C</sup> Eugon Agar incubated microaerophilically

d Nitrogen Free Medium incubated aerobically and microaerophilically

<sup>e</sup> Not Determined

Identification of these isolates to species level, plus those identified as Azospirillum and Rhizobium species, was not possible according to the listed characteristics in Bergey's of Systematic Bacteriology. Manual Alpine conditions may have favoured other bacterial species than those typically found associated with lower elevation agricultural soils. alpine soil bacterial populations may well have not yet been classified to species level. Bacterial isolates from P. alpina and <u>T. spicatum</u> rhizospheres were identified as belonging to five four genera, respectively Among these, well known (Table 2). N<sub>2</sub>-fixing bacteria such

<u>Xanthobacter</u>, <u>Rhizobium</u> and <u>Bacillus</u> were found to be common to both plant

species.

In 1987, about 120 isolates were tested for their ability to grow on NFAM, 39 of them continued to grow under microaerophilic conditions after six successive transfers. Most of the microorganisms were identified as Xanthobacter. Bacterial isolates from rhizospheres belonged to four genera (Table 2). The reason(s) for the difference in microbial populations

TABLE 2. Bacteria Isolated from <u>Poa alpina</u> and <u>Trisetum spicatum</u> Rhizospheres in 1986 and 1987 from Nitrogen Free Medium

	<u>Poa alpina</u>				
1986	1987				
Xanthobacter sp. Xanthomonas sp.* Azospirillum sp. Rhizobium sp. Bacillus sp.*	Xanthobacter Xanthobacter flavus Azotobacter beijerinckii Azomonas macrocytogenes Flavobacterium aquatile*				
Trisetum spicatum					
1986	1987				
Xanthobacter sp. Rhizobium sp.	Xanthobacter autotrophicus Flavobacterium multivorum*				

<sup>\*</sup> Not known to fix Nitrogen

Bacillus sp.\*

Nocardia sp.\*

TABLE 3. Abundance of Nitrogen Fixing Bacteria Isolated from Rhizosphere Samples of the Alpine Plant Species in 1987

<u>Beijerinckia</u> <u>indica</u>

Zoogloea ramigera\*

Plant Species	Incubation Conditions	# of Isolates	# of N <sub>2</sub> Fixing Bacteria Identified	Genera of N <sub>2</sub> Fixing Bacteria
Poa alpina	Aerobic	16	6	Xanthobacter sp. (25%) Azomonas sp. (6%) Azotobacter sp. (4%)
	Micro*	22	3	<u>Xanthobacter</u> sp. (9%) <u>Azotobacter</u> sp. (4%)
<u>Trisetum</u>	Aerobic	34	0	-
spicatum	Micro	12	3	<u>Xanthobacter</u> sp. (171) <u>Beijerinckia</u> sp. (81)

Microaerophilic

between the two years is not clear. More  $N_2$ -fixing bacteria were isolated from, <u>P. alpina</u> than from <u>T. spicatum</u> rhizosphere (Table 3).

### Root-Bacteria Association

Root samples of <u>P. alpina</u> and <u>T.</u> spicatum collected from alpine sites found to contain bacteria. were especially in the cavities and injured areas (Fig. la and lb). Root tips collected from plants grown in the carried bacteria. soils mountain whereas, the control plants (grown in greenhouse potting soil) did not (Fig. 2a and 2b). The vegetative propagule grown in the greenhouse potting soil grew vigorously and showed nitrogen deficiency symptoms. In the mountain the other hand. soil. on slowly without any bulbils grew (Fig. N<sub>2</sub>-deficiency symptoms 3). in NFAM exhibited Seedlings grown within two weeks N<sub>2</sub>-deficiency their germination, whereas, seedlings <u>Azospirillum</u> or inoculated with <u>Azotobacter</u> species rarely N<sub>2</sub>-deficiency showed symptoms. Colonization of the mucilaginous sheath surrounding the roots and root hairs in these cases occurred rapidly and was profuse. The spread of the along the roots could be colonies a light microscope observed using first the week after durina The inoculated roots were inoculation. heavily infected with bacteria (Fig. 4 Under higher magnification and 5). these bacteria appeared to be attached to each other and to the root walls. by capsular material (Fig. 4b and Fig. 5b). These experiments indicate there is an association between the No-fixing bacteria and grass roots and the grasses appear to benefit from such an association. A cold alpine environment, with slow organic matter accumulation and degradation, probably forces the two organisms to cohabit for mutual benefit.

# Soil Analysis

Analysis of soil from Lookout Mountain and Window Mountain area revealed low levels of N. P and K (Table 4). The soils were found to be low in salt and slightly alkaline. The alkalinity may explain, in part, abundance of Gram negative bacteria such as <u>Xanthobacter</u>. The N and Organic Matter (OM) content of the Lookout Mountain soil was about half of that found in the soil collected This bias may from Window Mountain. be due to the fact that the soil from the latter was collected from areas of thick plant cover in order to get the upper range of N, P and K soil levels. Compared prairie to however, agricultural soil, the content of Window Mountain soil was only 20%. The P and K levels from both alpine soils were also in the range considered extremely deficient for plant growth. Lack of apparent deficiency in the grasses in these alpine areas may be due to their inherent low nutrient requirement growth and reproduction. lower nitrogen requirement of plants may be satisfied through their association with N2-fixing microbial present population in the Inoculation of alpine grass selections with appropriate N2-fixing bacteria, therefore, may have a positive effect on their establishment and survival, particularly, in areas devoid of the necessary soil microorganisms.

TABLE 4. Mean and Standard Deviation (in parenthesis) of Various Physical and Chemical Parameters of the Alpine Soils\*

Sample	На	EC (mScm <sup>-1</sup> )	N1troge NO <sub>3</sub> /NO <sub>2</sub>	n(ppm) NH4	P (ppm)	(ppm)	OM (%)
Lookout Mountai	n 7.8	0.16 (0.01)	0.5	6.5	9.4	12.1	2.7
(July, 1987)	(0.1)		(0.07)	(0.78)	(0.85)	(0.57)	(0.14)
Lookout Mountai	n 7.8	0.12	0.5	6.6	9.5	7.0	2.6
(Aug, 1987)	(0.14)		(0.07)	(1.06)	(0.64)	(0.00)	(0.14)
Lookout Mountai	n 7.8	0.20	0.3	4.6	8.1	4.1	3.2
(Aug. 1988)	(0.07)		(0.07)	(0.07)	(1.06)	(0.28)	(0.07)
Phillips Pass	B.O	0.22	5.2	10.8	9.6	16.0	5.7
(Aug, 1988)	(0.07)	(0.00)	(0.14)	(0.07)	(1.13)	(0.57)	(0.21)

Parameters measured were pH, Conductivity(EC), Nitrogen, Phosphorous, Potassium and Organic Matter.

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# Figure Legends

- Fig. 1. Bacterial association of (a)

  <u>Poa alpina</u> and (b) <u>Trisetum</u>

  <u>spicatum</u> roots collected from

  Lookout Mountain.
- Fig. 2. (a) Bacterial association of Poa alpina roots when grown in Lookout Mountain soil, (b) Absence of bacteria in P. alpina roots grown in sterilized greenhouse soil mix.
- Fig. 3. Presence and absence of nitrogen deficiency symptoms in plants growing in Lookout Mountain soil and greenhouse soil mix.

- Fig. 4. <u>Poa alpina</u> roots infected with <u>Azospirillum sp.</u> (a) Lower magnification, (b) Higher magnification.
- Fig. 5. Azospirillum sp. infected Poa alpina roots recovered from NFAM. (a) Lower magnification, (b) Higher magnification.



