ON THE MECHANISM OF AMMONIUM ION UPTAKE BY MAIZE ROOTS

BY

J. H. BECKING

(Botanical Laboratory, University of Leiden, The Netherlands)

(received February 17th, 1956)

CONTENTS

Page

| INTRODUCTIO | DN | 2 |
|--------------|--|--|
| CHAPTER I. | Hypotheses on salt uptake | |
| | § 1. General statement | 3 4 |
| | (Steward) | 4 5 9 |
| CHAPTER II. | THE AMMONIUM ION UPTAKE AND HYDROGEN ION RELEASE IN RELATION TO AMMONIUM ION CONCENTRATION AND PH AS OBSERVED IN INTACT MAIZE PLANTS | |
| | § 1. Introductory remarks | 10 11 13 13 20 21 22 25 |
| CHAPTER III. | THE EFFECT OF SALTS, ESPECIALLY AMMONIUM SALTS, ON THE ROOT RESPIRATION OF EXCISED MAIZE ROOTS | |
| | § 1. Introductory remarks | 33 34 36 36 |
| CHAPTER IV. | DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS | |
| | § 1. Relation between rate of ammonium ion uptake and ammonium ion concentration; properties of the first binding | 53 |
| | § 2. The hydrogen ion release in relation to ammonium | 57 |
| | S The effect of salts – especially ammonium salts – on root respiration; the evidence of a "cation-induced | |
| | respiration".§4. Additional discussion of the literature on nitrogen | 58 |
| | starvation and respiration | 62 65 |

| I٠ | н. | BECKING |
|----|----|---------|
| | | |

| CHAPTER 7 | V. | . LUNDEGÅRDH'S "ANION RESPIRATION" HYPOTHESIS | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|----|---|--------|--|--------|-----------|------------|------------|----------|--------|------------|---------|----|-----|-----|------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|-----|----|----|----------|
| | | 500 | 1 2 | | A D | cı isc | riti us | ica sio | ls ni | n n | rve coi | y nn | ex | ion | . w | vitl | ht | he | pr | es | en | to | bs | erv | vat | io | ns | 65 72 |
| SUMMARY | • | • | • | | • | • | • | ÷ | • | | • | • | • | • | | • | • | • | | | • | • | • | | • | | | 73 |
| REFERENCE | S | | | | • | | • | | | | • | | | • | | | | ۰. | • | • | | | | | | | • | 75 |

INTRODUCTION

Plants can synthetize a great number of very complex nitrogen compounds such as proteins, nucleic acids, lecithins, chlorophyll, growth substances, etc. from simple substances like ammonium ions and nitrate which are absorbed in the form of inorganic salts from the external environment. Although absorbed nitrogen is for the most part directly assimilated into these organic compounds, some plants show the peculiarity of nitrate accumulation in their tissues, *e.g.* tobacco (*Nicotiana* spec.), sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) and stinging nettle (*Urtica* spec.).

Ever since JUSTUS VON LIEBIG (1840) suggested that atmospheric ammonia was the main nitrogen source for higher plants, an extensive literature on this subject has appeared. Because soil is a very complex system with many unknown factors, it was difficult to obtain clear information about the mineral requirements of plants while cultivating them in soils. Even the use of sand cultures could not wholly overcome this drawback, since sand may also contain impurities. It was the great merit of SACHS (1860) and KNOP (1860) to introduce the water culture technique, by which it was demonstrated incontestably that nitrogen was absorbed by the roots from their environment in the form of inorganic salts.

Later, the question of whether the nitrate or the ammonium ion is the more preferential nitrogen source was studied in great detail by plant physiologists and agronomists. Most of these numerous investigations, however, have no direct bearing on the subject of this thesis. Only a few publications will be cited in connexion with the so-called "physiologically acid reaction" of ammonium salts, discussed in Chapter II.

Notwithstanding all these studies on nitrogen uptake in particular, and many other investigations concerning the uptake of various mineral elements by plant roots and tissues in general, the mechanism of salt uptake, *i.e.* the mechanism of transfer of salt ions from the medium to the interior of the cell, is still not clearly understood. This thesis attempts to contribute to the knowledge of the mechanism of active salt uptake.

Because many plant roots absorb ammonium ions more rapidly than other ions, the study of ammonium ion uptake offers certain advantages. Moreover, it presents the opportunity to make a quantitative study of the physiologically acid reaction, because this reaction appears to be by far the most conspicious in the absorption of ammonium salts.

CHAPTER I

HYPOTHESES ON SALT UPTAKE

§ 1. GENERAL STATEMENT

Before considering in detail the various hypotheses concerning inorganic salt uptake, it may be useful to state some facts and concepts about salt uptake in general.

(1) Salts are only absorbed in ionic form.

This is also true for ammonium ion uptake, although some passive absorption of molecular ammonia may occur under alkaline conditions (cf. VAN DEN HONERT et al., 1955, unpublished).

(2) Salt uptake is not a passive diffusion process of ions from a higher concentration (external medium) to a lower concentration (root cells). On the contrary, it is an active process which transports salts against a concentration gradient. Roots show a particular ability to reduce the external medium to exceedingly low concentrations (e.g. phosphate uptake, VAN DEN HONERT, 1933; and the ammonium ion uptake in the present study). It may be mentioned that SCHUFFELEN (1941, 1942, 1944, 1946) and VERVELDE (1952, 1953, 1955) suggested not an active ion uptake mechanism but a passive entrance of ions into the protoplasm. These theories will be discussed in this chapter, §5.

(3) Energy has to be expended to overcome the concentration gradient in salt uptake. This energy is derived from exergonic metabolic processes, *i.e.* in roots by the oxidative breakdown of carbohydrates (root respiration). Therefore, in roots, the presence of oxygen and carbohydrates is a prerequisite for active ion uptake. The necessity of energy-yielding respiratory processes for salt uptake is demonstrated by the fact that, although it is possible to inhibit salt uptake without affecting the respiration, no inhibiter is yet known which stops respiration without stopping salt uptake.

(4) With respect to the *influence of water absorption* on salt uptake, the results obtained by different authors seem contradictory. This discrepancy may be caused partly by different experimental material, *i.e.* peas (Hylmö), broad bean (Brouwer), sugar cane and maize (van den Honert), and partly by different salt concentrations. Probably the influence of the transpiration stream is negligible at low salt concentration (*cf.* VAN DEN HONERT, 1955*a*), but becomes more marked at the higher salt concentrations (*cf.* HYLMÖ, 1953 and BROUWER, 1954). In any case, water transport is not essential for an active salt uptake. Submerged aquatic plants, *e.g. Chara, Nitella, Valonia, Halicystis*, as well as storage tissue disks, accumulate ions without appreciable water intake.

It should be emphasized that the various hypotheses on salt uptake discussed below are not strictly comparable. LUNDEGÅRDH (1933) suggests a salt uptake mechanism on a molecular level represented by a structural picture indicating the mediating molecules. STEWARD (1937), however, states more generally a relation between salt uptake and other metabolic processes, without postulating, at that time, a

J. H. BECKING

mechanism of salt uptake. While the carrier hypothesis is an easy concept to handle, it is evidently a simplification of the salt uptake mechanism.

§ 2. The "ANION RESPIRATION" HYPOTHESIS (LUNDEGÅRDH)

In 1933 LUNDEGÅRDH and BURSTRÖM developed the "anion respiration" theory, based on experiments with wheat roots. In later years this hypothesis was greatly extended by Lundegårdh and his collaborators. A recent review of this hypothesis is given by LUNDEGÅRDH (1954) in a paper at a symposium of the Society of Experimental Biology.

The experimental evidence on which this hypothesis has been based is the following:

(1) Wheat roots showed a negative surface charge in dilute salt solutions. This negative electro-kinetic potential was attributed by Lundegårdh to the dissociation of strong acid groups (pK = 1-2) in the surface membrane of the protoplasm. Anion uptake was considered to be hampered and cation uptake enhanced by this negative charge of the root surface. From this Lundegårdh concluded that, in contrast to cation uptake, anion uptake requires energy.

(2) The transfer of roots from distilled water to a salt solution gave an increase of the respiration rate. The respiration rate in distilled water was called by Lundegårdh "distilled-water respiration" or "ground respiration". Salt uptake was inhibited by cyanide, but the "ground respiration" persisted, being insensitive to cyanide. Therefore, only a cyanide-sensitive component of the aerobic respiration was thought to be related to salt uptake. This suggested the participation of a cytochrome-cytochrome oxidase system in salt uptake.

(3) The uptake of anions showed a linear relationship to respiration, whereas a similar relation did not exist in the case of cations.

From these facts Lundegårdh concluded that there was an anion transport coupled to electron transfer in the cytochrome-cytochrome oxidase system. Thus, in its original form, his hypothesis emphasized an active anion transport only, while cations were moved passively by exchange with acid groups in the protoplasm, along a track parallel to the electrical gradient created by anion transport.

A more detailed statement of this hypothesis and a critical survey of arguments favouring and opposing it are presented in Chapter V.

§ 3. Relationship between metabolism and salt uptake (Steward)

STEWARD (1937) suggested a relation between salt uptake and such metabolic processes as growth and protein synthesis. The greater the metabolic activity and growth of the tissue involved, the greater was its salt uptake capacity. Later, HOAGLAND c.s. (1939, 1940) accepted Steward's view. As already stressed, the hypotheses of Steward c.s. and Lundegårdh are not quite comparable. Steward suggests more generally a correlation between salt uptake and other metabolic processes, whereas Lundegårdh actually formulates a mechanism of salt uptake indicating the mediating groups of molecules. However, in 1947 and 1954 STEWARD extended his hypothesis to include the same molecular level as did Lundegårdh, by assuming that the role of protein synthesis consists of the production of phosphorylated glutamine or γ -glutamyl peptide "carrier" molecules. By the "zwitterion" capacity of these "carrier" molecules, cations as well as anions were bound (or held) and transported through the cytoplasm. Inside, at the vacuole membrane, the glutamine molecules were condensed to protein and might leave the transported ions in a situation in which they could be readily accumulated in the vacuole. Because STEWARD (1954) suggested the mediation of a template surface in this mechanism, he called his hypothesis the "template" hypothesis.

The experimental evidence for a correlation between metabolism and ion uptake was as follows:

(1) Freshly cut potato tuber slices were not immediately capable of accumulating ions, but the capacity to do so developed when the material was suspended for several days in aerated dilute salt solutions. During this treatment there was an increase in the rate of respiration, protein synthesis began, and the cells at the surface of the disk showed a tendency to divide, forming a layer of callus (STEWARD, BERRY, PRESTON and RAMAMURTI; 1943).

A study of the absorption of ions by disks of different thickness led to the conclusion that only the cells at the surface of the slices were involved in metabolic absorption. Further, a close relationship between protein synthesis, respiration rate, and salt uptake was stated. Low respiration was associated with low protein synthesis and low salt uptake, whereas the highest respiration was observed with the highest protein synthesis and salt uptake (STEWARD and PRESTON, 1940, 1941).

(2) Barley roots showed a pronounced longitudinal gradient of salt accumulation. The largest salt uptake occurred at a small distance from the root apex, where the greatest metabolic activity and protein synthesis also took place (PREVOT and STEWARD, 1936).

(3) The salt uptake by barley roots was profoundly influenced by their initial nutritional status and metabolic activity. "Low-salt, highsugar" roots showed a very great capacity for salt uptake, in contrast to "high-salt, low-sugar" roots, in which the salt uptake capacity was small (HOAGLAND and BROYER, 1936).

As will be shown later (Chapter III), some results of the present study can be connected with the conception of Steward and Hoagland.

§ 4. The "carrier" hypothesis

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that the entrance of ions into living cells is accompanied by a binding or adsorption to some protoplasmic constituent, *i.e.* to a "carrier" molecule. Fundamentally, this hypothesis is not contradictory to the previously cited hypotheses. LUNDEGÅRDH (1935, 1954) accepted this idea for the cation uptake, whereas Steward's amphoteric glutamine molecule in his "template" hypothesis may be regarded as a carrier. However, for the sake of simplicity, the carrier hypothesis will be discussed separately in this section.

J. H. BECKING

The idea of a binding or adsorption of ions to protoplasmic constituents had already been expressed by OSTERHOUT (1936) and HOAG-LAND and BROVER (1936). Such a carrier hypothesis was also suggested by VAN DEN HONERT (1933, 1936), who explained the asymptotical shape of the curve representing the rate of phosphate adsorption in sugar cane by the assumption of a phosphate adsorption or binding to the protoplasm of the root surface. ARISZ (1944, 1945) too, offers arguments in favour of a binding of ions by the protoplasm.

JACOBSON et al. (1950) and OVERSTREET et al. (1952) extended this hypothesis by the attractive suggestion that ions react with the metabolically produced carrier substances to form complexes which subsequently break down to release free ions according to the equations: $HR + M^+ \rightleftharpoons MR + H^+$ and $ROH + A^- \rightleftharpoons RA + OH^-$.

JACOBSON et al. (1950) suggested that in barley roots potassium and hydrogen ions compete for the same site of the carrier, whereas OVER-STREET, JACOBSON and HANDLEY (1952) found evidence for a mutual influence between potassium and calcium uptake. EPSTEIN (1952) and EPSTEIN and HAGEN (1952) have extensively discussed the mode of binding of ions to these postulated carriers. They investigated the effect of varying external concentrations of potassium and sodium on the rate of rubidium uptake by detached barley roots. After a kinetic analysis of their results, they arrived at the conclusion that potassium competes with rubidium for the same site in the postulated carrier, while sodium does not. Applying the same procedure to anions, EPSTEIN (1953) concluded that chloride, but not nitrate, is bound at the same sites as bromide. In addition, HURD-CARRER (1934, 1937, 1938) obtained some evidence in favour of a competition between sulfate and selenate ions for the same binding sites. It may be mentioned here that many other workers in the field of ion uptake agree more or less with the idea of carrier substances (LUNDEGÅRDH, 1954; SCOTT RUSSELL, 1954; SUTCLIFFE, 1954 a, b; CONWAY, 1954).

Little is known about the chemical nature of the postulated carriers. Reference can be made only to the work of Cowie, ROBERTS and ROBERTS (1949) and ROBERTS, ROBERTS and Cowie (1949) on *Escherichia coli*, which showed that hexose phosphate compounds are formed which have a low affinity for sodium and a high affinity for potassium.

In the following sub-sections, some general aspects of this carrier hypothesis such as (1) the *nature of the first binding*, (2) the *place of the first binding*, and (3) the *transport mechanism* will be discussed. All facts known about ion uptake can be placed somewhere in the expanded picture of this hypothesis. It is evident that such a visualization is a simplification of the salt uptake process, but it may well serve as a useful working hypothesis.

(1) The nature of the first binding. If the first binding were nonspecific, then the driving force in ion uptake would be an electric charge. However, charge seems to play a minor part in ion uptake, since roots accumulate potassium much faster than calcium, and chloride much faster than sulfate. Moreover, VAN DEN HONERT et al. (1953) observed that no other ions could drive phosphate, ammonium ion or nitrate out of their first binding. Therefore, the first binding should be considered as a specific reaction for each ion. This first binding, however, may be partly reversible, as in enzyme reactions.

(2) The place of the first binding. The opinions of different authors are contradictory with respect to the location of the place of the first binding in salt uptake. Some investigators suggest a barrier to free diffusion of ions and to exchange processes at the outer surface of the protoplast, while others think it more likely that there is a diffusion barrier in the vinicity of the tonoplast, separating the protoplast from the vacuole in a plant cell.

VAN DEN HONERT (1933, 1953, 1955 b) suggested a first binding at the very outside of the protoplast "looking through its cell wall windows towards the outside world", because—in contrast to the carbon dioxide intake in photosynthesis—no measurable diffusion resistance between the medium and the place of first binding could be observed. Such a resistance would be evident if it was greater than a water layer of 0.2 mm thickness. (cf. VAN DEN HONERT, 1953). HOLM-JENSEN, KROGH and WARTIOVAARA (1944) studied the potas-

HOLM-JENSEN, KROGH and WARTIOVAARA (1944) studied the potassium and sodium uptake in *Nitella* and *Tolypellopsis* coenocytes with isotopes. They concluded from their experiments that by far the greatest permeability resistance is situated at the outer surface of the protoplast (plasmalemma), whereas the resistance of the vacuole membrane (tonoplast) could only be very small. Moreover MITCHELL (1954), using elegant methods, obtained evidence for a phosphateimpermeable barrier at the outer surface of *Staphylococcus* cells.

În contrast to the view stated above, BROOKS (1937, 1940) showed that the movement of potassium and sodium ions into the protoplasm of *Nitella* is rapid, whilst subsequent entry in the vacuole takes place slowly and, under anaerobic conditions, perhaps not at all. Also, ARISZ (1945) concluded from studies on the ion uptake by *Vallisneria* leaves, that the tonoplast is the region of a cell across which active accumulation occurs. ROBERTSON (1950, 1951) and SUTCLIFFE (1952) support this conception of a main barrier at the tonoplast, *i.e.* a non-metabolic absorption in the protoplasm and a metabolic absorption in the vacuole.

In the opinion of the present author, some objections can be raised against the latter view. In the first place, one can oppose this view with the following teleological argument: it is unlikely that the protoplast, which so closely regulates its own internal ionic composition, would be freely exposed to the ionic concentrations of its environment. Secondly, the concept of a diffusion barrier and an accumulation mechanism limited solely to the tonoplast is not universally applicable, because animal cells and meristimatic plant cells without a vacuole nevertheless show a highly selective ion-accumulation capacity.

(3) The transport mechanism. The first binding at the outside should be followed by an energy-requiring process for the transportation of the bound ions to the interior of the cell. VAN DEN HONERT (1933, 1955 b) considers the transport mechanism of this carrier system to be comparable to that of a "revolving belt", which is loaded with

ions at the outside surface, carries them inward to deposit them somewhere inside the cell, and then comes back to the surface empty to be reloaded. This simple picture is useful as long as we do not know the true mechanism of carrier transport. According to this revolvingbelt picture the rate of ion uptake is determined by three factors:

(a) The degree of loading of the belt, e.g. expressed in percentage of the total loading capacity. The degree of loading is dependent upon the ion concentration in the medium (rapid equilibrium establishment) and is only very slightly dependent upon temperature. This is true in general for all adsorption equilibria. The loading of the carrier belt may be considered to be a chemical equilibrium reaction similar to that of enzyme reactions.

(b) The rotation speed of the belt. The rate of ion intake is assumed to be proportional to the revolving speed of the endless belt. The speed is considered to be greatly dependent on temperature, but it is not affected by the size of its load.

(c) The *loading capacity* of the belt. The maximal loading capacity can be represented by the width of the revolving belt. In the case of nitrate uptake, this capacity is dependent upon the external pH (VAN DEN HONERT, 1955*b*), but for ammonium ion uptake it is not affected by the pH (see the present study).

Ion uptake by intact plants is certainly a catenary process. The processes of carrier mechanism (carrier binding, removal of ions from the protoplasmic boundary inwards), ion transport from cell to cell towards the xylem, ion excretion into the xylem vessels and—following the current view—ion transport to the leaves by means of the transpiration stream (HAAS and REED, 1937; PETRISCHEK, 1953), etc. will occur successively. In such a chain process, the speed of the "slowest" link will finally govern the reaction velocity of the whole process. Now, it is not at all self-evident that the first link, which we have characterized as the carrier mechanism, is the slowest one. However, VAN DEN HONERT (1933, 1937, 1955b) has obtained evidence that this is indeed the case for the phosphate uptake by sugar cane and the nitrate uptake by maize. Here, the rate of phosphate or nitrate uptake seems to be determined by factors effective at the outer surface of the protoplasm.

Van den Honert bases his view of a carrier mechanism in direct contact with the medium on the following observations.

(i) The shape of the absorption rate-concentration curves of phosphate and nitrate correspond to adsorption isotherms without interference of a diffusion resistance between carrier and medium.

(ii) Such a diffusion resistance, if measurable, would become evident at the lowest ion concentrations. However, in phosphate as well as in nitrate absorption, the same temperature coefficients were found in the high and the low concentration range. If at low concentrations a diffusion limited the rate of uptake, much lower temperature coefficients should be expected.

(iii) The rate of phosphate uptake in relation to pH can be quantitatively explained by the equilibrium between mono- and di-phosphate ions as determined by the pH of the medium, on the assumption that only the univalent monophosphate ions are taken up. This points again towards an intimate contact between carrier and medium, because internal and external pH can hardly be supposed to be always identical.

Because external conditions, such as ion concentration and pH, control the rate of ion uptake to such a great extent, the interpretation that the "master reaction" is operating in direct contact with the medium seems to be justified. What we study as the slowest reaction, in measuring the rate of ion uptake by roots of intact plants, may, for this reason, actually be the turnover rate of the carrier mechanism. The circumstance that this mechanism is so easily influenced by environmental factors allows us to study its properties in greater detail.

§ 5. OTHER HYPOTHESES

The discussion of the results is mainly confined to the three hypotheses mentioned above. It is beyond the scope of this thesis to describe all the other theoretical considerations in this field. However, two hypotheses current in the Netherlands will be briefly mentioned, because both are concerned in the conclusions of the present study.

(1) SCHUFFELEN's hypothesis.

SCHUFFELEN (1941, 1942, 1944, 1946, 1952) attached great importance to the differences in the ionic activity of the environment and of the root content. In his opinion, the ionic activity in the root cells must always be lower than that in the medium in order to permit ion uptake. Furthermore, he gives a mathematical description of the hypothetical equilibrium reactions (Donnan equilibrium) between the outside solution and the root wall. The root wall is thought to be equivalent to the external layer of protoplasm.

Evidently, ion uptake is here taken to be a *passive process*. The sole *active* part of this ion uptake mechanism is the metabolic energy needed to keep the ionic activity in the protoplasm low.

(2) VERVELDE's hypothesis.

VERVELDE (1952, 1953, 1955) assumed, as a result of root potential measurements, that the principles of a Donnan equilibrium can be applied to the surface layer of the roots because of the presence of non-diffusible anions in the bulk of the protoplasm. On purely theoretical grounds, he proposed a mechanism by which changes in the H⁺ion gradient in the interior of the root cells are responsible for salt accumulation. According to his view, three processes are involved in this salt accumulation mechanism. First, the interior of the cell becomes acid due to organic acid production. Subsequently, mineral anions of the medium move inward. Finally, the interior of the cell decreases in acidity, causing cations to move inward and anions to move outward. Salt accumulation is accomplished because the anions tending to move outward are held up by the outer protoplasmic layers with low anion permeability, whereas the cations moving inward are held up by the interior protoplasmic layers where the cation permeability is low.

J. H. BECKING

Here, as in Schuffelen's hypothesis, the actual movement of ions from the medium into the cells is supposed to be a *passive* process. The only energy required for this salt accumulation mechanism is that for the establishment of these H⁺ion gradients in the protoplasm. According to this theory, salt uptake depends upon the concentration, mobility, and valency of the ions present in the medium.

The purpose of the experiments described in Chapters II and III was to obtain more information on some special aspects of salt uptake in connexion with the theories cited above. The experiments reported in Chapter II are mainly concerned with the first binding reaction in ion uptake, whereas those described in Chapter III deal with the relationship between respiration and salt uptake.

CHAPTER II

THE AMMONIUM ION UPTAKE AND HYDROGEN ION RELEASE IN RELATION TO AMMONIUM ION CONCENTRATION AND PH AS OBSERVED IN INTACT MAIZE PLANTS

§ 1. INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

For the purpose of studying ammonium ion uptake and hydrogen ion release in relation to the ammonium ion and hydrogen ion concentration of the nutrient solution, experiments were performed with intact maize plants.

A continuous-flow technique for water cultures was used, designed by VAN DEN HONERT (1933) for his study on the phosphate uptake by sugar cane, at the Sugar Experiment Station at Pasuruan (Java, Indonesia). With this technique it was possible to control accurately the ion composition and pH of the nutrient solution flowing around the roots.

The above technique is based on the principle that a constant flow of nutrient solution will establish a steady state in the root vessel, provided that the solution in this vessel is continuously stirred, because the supply, take-up, and removal of ions per unit of time tend to become constant. An equilibrium is reached when the rate of ion intake by the plant is constant and the water uptake due to transpiration is either nil or constant. It is then possible to measure ion uptake at a constant and adjustable ion concentration and pH. The ammonium ion uptake is computed from the difference which exists between the ammonium ion content of the nutrient solution entering and leaving the root vessel. This ammonium ion uptake can be expressed in mg NH_4^+ ions per hour or alternatively in milli-equivalent (m.e.) NH_4^+ ions per hour. After the establishment of such a steady state, the effluent nutrient solution can be considered as a continuous sample. Therefore, the ion concentrations found in the effluent solution are equal to those existing around the roots.

This and the more detailed description of the apparatus and technique given later (§ 4) show what is meant by ammonium ion uptake and what procedure was applied to measure it. Therefore, only the hydrogen ion release, the so-called "physiologically acid reaction", needs closer attention.

§ 2. The physiologically acid reaction

(1) Hydrolytically acid reaction versus physiologically acid reaction

A salt such as ammonium chloride, which is derived from a weak base and a strong acid, produces in aqueous solution an acid reaction called the "hydrolytically acid reaction". If, however, one brings a living plant root into an ammonium chloride solution, then the pH of the solution is lowered to a far greater extent. This phenomenon can be explained by a selective absorption of ammonium ions and subsequent release of hydrogen ions by the root cells. In fact, one can see this as an ion exchange phenomenon. Due to the rapid preferential absorption of ammonium ions compared to chloride ions, the plant root tends to be positively charged against its environment. Consequently, the continuous absorption of ammonium ions tends to be hampered by the repulsion of similar charges. The plant root can only maintain its electro-static equilibrium against the medium by releasing in exchange hydrogen ions or other available cations. In order to distinguish the hydrogen ion increase due to hydrolysis of the salt from that caused by the reaction of the living root to the presence of ammonium salts, the latter is called the "physiologically acid reaction".

(2) Statement of the problem

It should then follow that if one were to study the ammonium ion uptake quite apart from the intake of other ions, one should find a 1:1 ratio between NH_4^+ -ion uptake and H⁺-ion release. The aim of this part of the present study is to obtain empirical evidence as to whether or not the ratio of 1:1 for $NH_4^+: H^+$ really exists.

(3) Other investigations on this subject

RAUTENBERG and KÜHN (1864) were the first authors to clearly conceive that the physiologically acid reaction of ammonium salts (NH₄Cl) was caused by preferential ammonium ion uptake. These authors drew attention to the possibility that the often-stated superiority of nitrate nitrogen to ammonium nitrogen for plant growth might be due to this physiologically acid reaction, since the acid (HCl) produced in the medium would hamper root growth.

Later, the Russian investigator PRIANISHNIKOV (1926, 1951) in particular devoted many qualitative studies to the physiologically acid reaction of ammonium salts. Numerous research workers (e.g. MEVIUS et al. (1928, 1930), PIRSCHLE (1930, 1931), NAFTEL (1931), LOO (1932), PARDO (1932), CLARK and SHIVE (1934), TRELEASE and TRELEASE (1935), ARNON et al. (1937, 1942 a, b) and WEISSMANN (1950, 1951) have investigated the ammonium ion and nitrate uptake in relation to the pH of the medium in various crops. Many of them have made qualitative studies of the physiologically acid action of ammonium salts. Quantitative investigations of the physiologically acid reaction are confined to the following studies:

JENNY and COWAN (1933) studied the physiologically acid reaction of Ca⁺⁺ions in a one-ion medium by using adsorbed Ca⁺⁺ions on clay particles. Such a Ca-clay suspension acts as a one-ion solution, because the clay particles can be considered as non-absorbable anions for the plant. These Ca-clay suspensions were prepared by dialysing or percolating natural clays with strong acids to free them from adsorbed cations. The H⁺ion-carrying clay obtained in this manner can be converted into a Ca⁺⁺-clay by the addition of a Ca(OH)₂ solution. Soya bean seedlings were cultivated for seven days in Ca-clay suspensions in distilled water. The water loss due to transpiration of the plant was continuous throughout the experiment. The initial pH = 6.3 of the culture solution dropped to pH = 4.3 as a consequence of Ca⁺⁺-ion uptake. The increase in Ca content of the plants was determined and the amount of hydrogen ion release was estimated by potentiometric titration with Ca(OH)₂ to a pH = 6.3.

The data obtained were:

Ca content increase of the plants : 1.020 m.e. H⁺-ion release to the clay : 0.948 m.e.

Hence, a stoechiometrical ratio of 93 % between absorbed calcium ions and released hydrogen ions could be observed, *i.e.* nearly two H^+ ions are released for each Ca⁺⁺ion absorbed.

VAN RAALTE (1942, oral communication) performed experiments to determine quantitatively the physiologically acid reaction of ammonium salts. This was done with rice plants in water culture at the Treub laboratory at Bogor (Java, Indonesia). From the observed pH decrease, van Raalte computed the number of hydrogen ions responsible for such a hydrogen ion increase. In this way he showed that about 90 % of the absorbed ammonium ions were exchanged for hydrogen ions.

CONWAY and O'MALLEY (1946) studied the quantitative relationship between potassium ion uptake and hydrogen ion release in yeast (Saccharomyces cerevisiae) cells. Whereas almost no potassium ions are absorbed by resting yeast cells (cf. CONWAY et al., 1950) a rapid potassium ion intake and a nearly equivalent exchange for hydrogen ions occurred during active fermentation. With high potassium concentrations (0.1 - 0.5 N) in the medium, pH values as low as 1.7 - 1.5could be reached. Actually, these pH values are of the same magnitude as that caused by hydrogen ion secretion of some gastric mucosa (cf. DAVIES and OGSTON, 1950). Conway and O'Malley stated that 80 % of the hydrogen ions produced during fermentation were obtained by potassium ion exchange. Therefore, only 20 % of the K+ions seems to enter the cell in association with Cl⁻ions.

A method of estimating hydrogen ion release quite different from those cited above was used in the present study. It was based on the "base-excess" principle. This idea was suggested by the work of BAAS BECKING (1934, *l.c.* p. 74) on the photosynthesis of marine algae. In order to measure the hydrogen ion release at a constant pH, this base-excess method was employed in connexion with the continuously-flowing water culture technique briefly mentioned in the previous section.

§ 3. PLANT MATERIAL

Maize (Zea mays L.) seeds of the single cross hybrid D x 9, obtained from the Plant Selection Station "Centraal Bureau" at Hoofddorp (Holland), were germinated in small clay containers with garden soil. Each seedling was transplanted to a small clay pot when one week old and then to a larger pot (diameter 12 cm), also containing garden soil, at an age of about 3-4 weeks. After 6-8 weeks, these plants had reached a height of 50-75 cm and were suitable for water culture. For this purpose the roots were freed from as much soil as possible by careful washing under running tap water. After that, the plants usually two together—were placed in culture jars of 400-600 ml capacity containing a WOODFORD and GREGORY (1948) culture solution of the following composition.

NUTRIENT SOLUTION 1

| Ca (NO3)2 KNO3 | • | 0.102 mM 0.277 mM | | | MgSO4 KH2PO4 | • | • | 0.0975 mM 0.1505 mM |
|-------------------|---|----------------------|--|--|-----------------|---|---|------------------------|
|-------------------|---|----------------------|--|--|-----------------|---|---|------------------------|

To this nutrient solution Fe was added in the form of ferric tartrate to a concentration of 1 p.p.m. To avoid micronutrient deficiency, 1 ml HOAGLAND and SNYDER (1933) A-Z micronutrient solution was supplied per 1 litre Woodford and Gregory nutrient solution. The culture solutions were continuously aerated with compressed air and renewed twice a week.

The original roots, to some of which soil still adhered, were gradually cleared away, until only the newly-developed roots remained. In contrast to the original roots, these new roots were well adapted to the water culture medium. In the normal growing season the new roots developed very vigorously and in about 3-4 weeks the original root system was completely replaced. This procedure for raising mature maize plants suitable for water culture, however, can not be followed the whole year round, since the growing season of maize is confined to the months April to September. Experience showed that these maize plants could only be used for the experiments three months after germination. Therefore, it was only profitable to germinate new plants between early April and early June. Plants germinated early in June could be transferred to water culture at the end of August or early September. Plants germinated later than June could not be used because of their insufficient root development. Nevertheless, plants which already possessed newly developed roots remained usable for ion absorption experiments up to the end of October.

§ 4. Apparatus and technique

A detailed description of the apparatus may be useful, because the original description by VAN DEN HONERT (1933 a) was published in a

less accessible journal. Moreover, some modifications in technique are introduced in the present study. The arrangement for constant-flow in water cultures is shown in Figure 1.

Three stock-solution reservoirs (A,B,C,) of 60 litre capacity were placed on a table at a height of 2 m. These large containers were first painted black and then white, in order to avoid algal growth and heating by the sun. Because the fluid level inside the reservoir could not be checked, a U-shaped glass tube (1) was connected to the reservoirs and the liquid level read from this. The nutrient solutions employed were previously prepared in a similar 60 litre container (D) standing on ground level. This vessel was calibrated and provided with a Bunsen valve (2) by means of which the nutrient solution could be pumped upwards to the reservoirs A, B and C with compressed air or a bicycle pump.

The nutrient solutions in these reservoirs contained a basic salt solution (see Table) to which an ammonium salt in the ammonium solution reservoir B, an acid in the acid solution reservoir A, and a bicarbonate in the alkaline solution reservoir C, was added. Thus, the nutrient solutions employed had the following composition.

| | concentration in p.p.m. | | | | | | | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Composition | Reservoir A Acid solution | Reservoir B Ammonium solution | Reservoir C Alkaline solution | | | | | | |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccc} K_{4}SO_{4} & . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . & $ | 20.00 5.00 5.00 0.04 5.00 | 20.00 5.00 5.00 0.04 5.00 | 20.00 5.00 5.00 0.04 0 | | | | | | |
| NH ₄ Cl | . 0 | 237.78 | 0 | | | | | | |
| HCl | 0.002 N | 0 | 0 | | | | | | |
| NaHCO ₃ | 0 | 0 | 0.004 N | | | | | | |

NUTRIENT SOLUTION 2

The tabulation of nutrient solution 2 shows that all ion concentrations—except those of the ammonium ions—are extremely low. It may be emphasized that this is one of the advantages of the constant-flow technique in water culture. Because of the constant supply of new ions, the plant could withdraw ions from a low, but constantly replenished, concentration level. The NH_4 +ion concentration of the ammonium stock solution was 80 p.p.m. Since the investigation concerned the physiologically acid reaction, the normality of the alkaline solution was made twice that of the acid solution. KH_2PO_4 was not added to the alkaline bicarbonate solution, because it would have lowered the pH. In order to avoid iron chlorosis in the plants, Fe was added in the form of a synthetic Fe-humate (cf. VAN DEN HONERT, 1933a, l.c.



Fig. 1. Apparatus for constant-flow in water culture.

I. General view of the constant-flow arrangement. Arrangement drawn schematically and not to scale.

II. In detail: Constant-level glass cylinder with float device, drawn to scale (diameter of the bulb = 5.5 cm).

p. 85). One ml of this Fe-humate solution was added to the nutrient solution in the root vessels twice a week.

The nutrient solution of each stock-solution reservoir was connected by a glass siphon (3) to a glass cylinder (4). This cylinder contained a glass float designed in such a way that it kept the nutrient solution in the glass cylinder at a constant level. A detailed picture of such a float is represented in Figure 1 (II). A float consists of an air-filled glass bulb (5') functioning as floating body and provided at its lower end with a conical ground-glass joint which closes off the outlet tube of the siphon (3) when the nutrient solution in the cylinder has reached a certain level. A glass tube (6) connected the cylinder to a wooden rack placed in front of the reservoirs. The constant fluid level in the cylinder could then be read on a graduated scale attached to the rack. By changing the outlet level of the siphon (3), which could be accomplished by sliding its extension tube along a cork (5''), this constant fluid level could be made to coincide with the zero-line of the scale.

The nutrient solution leaving the constant-level cylinder flowed through a tube (7) to a glass spiral (8) and then to three glass capillary tubes (9). From each one it then flowed through a plastic tube to a small overflow funnel (10). From this funnel it dripped slowly through plastic tubing into the root vessel (G) placed in a water thermostat.

The rate of flow of the nutrient solution into the root vessel is dependent, on the one hand, on the difference in level (see 11) between the zero-line and the position of the overflow funnel (10) and, on the other hand, on the resistance met by the fluid between constant-level cylinder (4) and overflow funnel (10). The rate of flow (i) of the nutrient solution can be represented by the formula:

$$i = \frac{p_1 - p_2}{r}$$

wherein (p_1-p_2) = the pressure difference between 0-level and overflow funnel level, and r = the resistance operating between glass cylinder and overflow funnel. Now, according to the law of POISEUILLE the resistance (r) met by a liquid slowly moving through a tube is proportional to the length of the tube (l) and inversely proportional to the fourth power of the tube's radius (a), *i.e.*:

$$r=\frac{8\,l\,\mu}{\pi\,a^4},$$

in which μ = the viscosity coefficient of the liquid.

The glass and plastic tubing had a comparatively much larger bore (7-10 mm) than the capillary tubes (0.5 mm). Therefore, by far the greatest resistance was situated in the capillaries, and the rate of flow of the whole system was governed by the resistance of these capillary tubes. This can be demonstrated by an example derived from the conditions prevailing in the apparatus. The resistance met by a liquid in 3 meters of tubing with a bore of 10 mm is only 0.000075 of that in a capillary tube of 25 cm length and a bore of 0.5 mm. Thus, the

resistance encountered by the liquid in other parts of the apparatus was negligible compared to the resistance of the capillary tubes.

The viscosity coefficient of water decreases 2 to 3 % with a temperature increase of 1°C. Therefore, to obtain a constant rate of flow, it was necessary to keep the nutrient solution passing through the capillary tubes at a constant temperature. This was attained by placing the capillaries in a water thermostat (E) of 20°C \pm 0.1°C and by passing the solution through a spiral before it entered the capillary tubes.

As it was almost impossible to construct capillary tubes of exactly the same resistance, the rate of flow obtained with each capillary had to be verified empirically. This was done by fastening a strip of millimetre paper to the wooden rack (F). Subsequently, the rate of flow of each capillary at various levels (11) of the overflow funnel, *e.g.* 30, 60, and 90 cm, was determined by collecting the effluent solution in a volumetric flask and measuring the time necessary to fill it. The relation between the rate of flow and the level difference corresponding to it could be plotted graphically. This relationship was linear, and by linear interpolation a whole graduated scale of flow-rates could be drawn. These values were marked on a tinned-iron strip in ml per hour units with an intercept of 1 ml per hour.

The solutions delivered by the overflow funnels (10) from the three stock solution reservoirs were mixed in a glass distributer (12), before the final mixture dripped slowly into the root vessel. The ammonium ion content of the nutrient solution entering the root vessel was a function of the dilution by the other stock solutions. The $\rm NH_4^+$ -ion content of the solution in reservoir B was 80 p.p.m. All $\rm NH_4^+$ concentrations below this could be obtained by dilution with appropriate volumes of acid and alkaline solution. Also, at a constant $\rm NH_4^+$ concentration, the pH of the nutrient solution could be changed by altering the ratio of acid to alkaline solution supplied, provided that their total volume remained constant.

An air stream introduced into the root vessel vigorously mixed the entering solution with the nutrient solution already present. The same air stream also furnished the roots with the indispensable oxygen supply. To prevent water losses by evaporation, the air stream was previously saturated with water vapour by passing it through a washing bottle containing distilled water. In order to measure the ion uptake at a constant root temperature, the root vessel (G) was placed in a water thermostat of $20^{\circ}C \pm 0.1^{\circ}C$.

The nutrient solution discharged from the root vessel through an overflow funnel (13) was collected in Erlenmeyer flasks (H) of about 1 litre capacity which were connected in series. These flasks were filled consecutively due to their position on a gradually sloping shelf. The nutrient solution collected in these flasks could be sampled and analysed for its ion content. The total output of nutrient solution could be measured, since the flasks were calibrated and the solution volume in the last flask could be determined by weighing. The time required for filling the flasks was also measured, thus the rate of flow of the nutrient solution leaving the root vessel could be computed. From the difference in flow-rate of the solution entering and leaving the root vessel, the average rate of water absorption could be found. In the calculation of the ion uptake, the measured $\rm NH_4^+$ -ion content of the effluent solution was corrected for the concentration increase due to water uptake by the root system.

The conditions in the apparatus must be chosen in such a way that a new equilibrium concentration can be reached in a short time. This was promoted by a high rate of flow of the nutrient solution. On the other hand, the concentration difference between the nutrient solution entering and leaving the root vessel must be large enough to enable a sufficiently accurate estimation of the rate of NH_4^+ -ion uptake. The latter condition was facilitated by a slow flow-rate of the nutrient solution. Since satisfying both requisites produced opposite effects, a compromise had to be sought. For this, it was desirable to distinguish the factors concerned in establishing a new equilibrium condition. Some of these factors played a part in the apparatus, and they were chosen so as to obtain a new steady state in as short time as possible.

A theoretical calculation of the time interval necessary between two measurements was found to be very helpful. The factors governing the rate at which a new equilibrium was established were partly mechanical, and partly influenced by the rate of ion uptake by the plant. In the following calculation the experimental time required to reach a new equilibrium was computed for a flow-system where there is a flow of nutrient solution through the apparatus with no plant in the root vessel.

Let A = capacity of the root vessel, $c_0 = \text{initial concentration}$ in the root vessel, c = concentration in the root vessel at time t, E = concentration of the entering liquid and V = rate of flow of the entering liquid. It is necessary to determine the time required to go from c_0 to E.

$$dc = \frac{E V dt}{A} - \frac{c V dt}{A}$$
(1)

Because the concentration itself (c) is of no interest, but the concentration difference (E - c) is, this variable is substituted in equation (1):

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = \frac{-d(E-c)}{dt} = \frac{V}{A} (E-c).$$
(2)

This equation gives, after integration:

$$\ln (E-c) = -\frac{V}{A}t + C.$$
(3)

In order to solve C, use is made of the special case, $c = c_0$ and t = 0: $\ln (E - c_0) = C$.

Substitution in equation (3) gives:

$$\ln (E-c) = -\frac{V}{A}t + \ln (E-c_0)$$

$$\frac{V}{A}t = \ln (E-c_0) - \ln (E-c) = \ln \frac{E-c_0}{E-c}$$

$$t = \frac{A}{V}\ln \frac{E-c_0}{E-c}.$$
(4)

If c = E, then $t = \frac{A}{V} \ln \frac{E - c_0}{0} = \frac{A}{V} \infty$

It is evident from equation (4), that the time required to approach a new equilibrium condition is inversely proportional to the rate of flow (V), and directly proportional to the volume of the root vessel (A) and to the natural logarithm of the ratio between initial concentration difference and final concentration difference. As was to be expected, c becomes equal to E only after an infinite time.

With the root systems employed and a root vessel of a 2-litre capacity, it was found empirically that a rate of flow of nutrient solution of 200 ml/hr was the most favourable. The conditions used furnish the following example: A = 2000 ml, V = 200 ml/hr, $c_0 = 1$ p.p.m. NH₄⁺, and E = 20 p.p.m. NH₄⁺ ("standard condition", see p. 21). The time required to attain a 98 % correct final concentration, *i.e.* c = 0.98 E, is:

$$t = \frac{2000 \text{ ml}}{200 \text{ ml/hr}} \ln \frac{19 \text{ p.p.m.}}{(20-19.6) \text{ p.p.m.}} = 38.6 \text{ hours.}$$

Thus, 3.86 x the volume of the root vessel has to be circulated before the final concentration differs not more than 2 % from the ion concentration of the entering solution. Cf. VAN DEN HONERT (1930, pp. 209-210) whose value, from an analogous calculation concerning CO_2 assimilation, was 3.91 x the volume of the assimilation vessel.

Assuming that the ion uptake-concentration relation corresponds to a Langmuir equation (Chapter IV), where p = proportional to the total amount carrier and m = Michaelis-Menten constant, then:

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = \frac{VE}{A} - \frac{Vc}{A} - \frac{p}{A}\frac{c}{c+m}$$
(5)

If a plant is immersed in the root vessel, in contrast to a mechanical flow-system, the concentration of the entering liquid (E) will never be equal to the final concentration (c_{∞}) . Therefore, c_{∞} is substituted for E. When an equilibrium is established, then $\frac{dc}{dt} = 0$ and the concentration in the root vessel will be c_{∞} .

$$0 = \frac{V}{A} \left(E - c_{\infty} \right) - \frac{p}{A} \frac{c_{\infty}}{c_{\infty} + m}$$

Subtracting this equation from equation (5) gives:

. . . .

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = \frac{V}{A} \left(c_{\infty} - c \right) + \frac{p}{A} \left(\frac{c_{\infty}}{c_{\infty} + m} - \frac{c}{c + m} \right) \tag{6}$$

which equation may be compared to equation (2) where $E = c_{\infty}$. As the first term in both equations is the same and the second term has the same sign, it is evident that the presence of a plant will always shorten the time required to reach a new equilibrium. This is not so obvious at first sight: for example, in going from high initial concentration in the root vessel to low final concentration, a plant will speed up the establishment of a new equilibrium concentration by its ion absorption capacity. However, in the case of going from low initial to high final concentration, a plant seems to be doing just the reverse, as it counteracts by its ion uptake the increase in concentration. Yet, in either case, a plant will shorten the time required to establish a new equilibrium, as can be seen from the above calculation.

This can be understood because analysis shows that the total process consists of two opposing factors. One of these is the concentration change induced by the plant's ion uptake. The other is the concentration range involved in reaching the final concentration c_{∞} . In going from low initial to high final concentration, the plant slows down the concentration increase by its ion uptake, but the concentration range is shortened with $(E-c_{\infty})$. In this case, the second factor dominates the first, while in the reverse case (*i.e.* going from high initial to low final concentration) the first dominates the second.

From the previous considerations, it is evident that a time of less than 38.6 hours was necessary to reach a new steady state. Therefore, a time period of 24–36 hours between experiments was used. The establishment of a new equilibrium was usually checked empirically: the NH_4^+ concentration will be the same in each successive flask collecting the discharged nutrient solution if equilibrium has been reached.

The pH value of the nutrient solution in the root vessel was estimated colorimetrically by comparison with buffer solutions of known pH (McIlvaine citric acid-phosphate buffers; CLARK, 1928). For every pH-range a standard comparison scale of buffers in 6 mm bore test tubes was mounted in a test tube rack (Fig. 1, I). In the present study the following pH standard series were used: pH = 3.4-4.2 (indicator bromo-phenol blue, colour change pH = 3.8); pH = 4.0-5.0 (bromocresol green, pH = 4.5); pH = 5.2-6.8 (bromo-cresol purple, pH = 6.0); and pH = 6.8-8.0 (phenol red, pH = 7.3). One ml buffer solution and 1 or 2 droplets of indicator were employed. Toluene was added to the buffer solutions in order to avoid fungus growth.

It must be emphasized that the carbon dioxide production by the roots had a profound influence on the pH of the medium around the roots. Since the medium was only slightly buffered, care was taken not to bring the sample into contact with air, because the loss of even a little CO_2 would cause the pH to shift appreciably (0.2–0.4 pH units) towards the alkaline side. For this reason, the following procedure for measuring pH was employed. Indicator solution was first put into the test tubes. The sample was pipetted into the test tube keeping the tip of the pipette below the surface of the solution. In this way carbon dioxide could not escape and the indicator could be homogeneously mixed with the solution.

§ 5. MODIFICATIONS OF THE TECHNIQUE

In subsequent NH_4^+ -ion absorption experiments (§8, IV) at low pH values, it was desirable to alter to some extent the flow technique as well as the composition of the nutrient solution used.

It was indicated in the preceding section that the alkaline stock solution did not contain the acidly dissociated KH_2PO_4 . Consequently changes in the ratio of the amount of acid and alkaline solution necessary for the adjustment of the pH would also change the potassium and phosphate concentration. This disadvantage could be eliminated by the use of four stock-solution reservoirs instead of three. With this device, the acid and alkaline stock solutions consisted of only acid and bicarbonate, respectively, in distilled water. Further, it was necessary to increase the Ca content of the nutrient solution, since ammonium nutrition at low pH values seems to be injurious to the root, especially with low Ca content in the nutrient solution. This agrees with the observations of JACOBSON and SWANBACK (1933) that ammonium nitrogen hampers the uptake of Ca and Mg ions in tobacco. HEWITT (1947) found that in kale, sugar beet, and tomato plants grown in sand, Ca deficiency developed in the presence of ammonium nitrogen.

The chloride ion in the nutrient solution was replaced by the sulfate ion, since sulfate is less readily absorbed by maize roots than chloride. This is an advantage, because of less interference to the physiologically acid reaction by NH_4 +-ion uptake. To make the analyses even more



PLATE I

PLATE I

Constant-flow water culture apparatus, without accessory equipment. Viewed from lower right to upper left: in the foreground, the Erlenmeyer flasks standing on a tilted platform. Behind them, the water thermostat containing the root vessels. Above the thermostat, the rack with the overflow funnels. Behind this rack, the water thermostat for the capillary tubes. Above and to the rear, shelf with the constant-level cylinders and, just above them, the four stock solution reservoirs (cf. Fig. 2, p. 15 and pp. 13–20).

PLATE II



PLATE II

Constant-flow water culture apparatus, with accessory equipment. Cabinet containing plants permits control of air temperature and humidity. High-pressure mercury-vapour lamp (Philips HO 450 W: 20,000 lumen) provides regulation of day length. On the table on the foreground, test tube racks containing the buffer solutions used as comparison standards. At right, calibrated 60-L container for preparation of nutrient solutions (cf. Fig. 2, p. 15 and pp. 13–20).

PLATE III



PLATE III

Full-grown maize plants, with ripening ears, in position in the root vessels of the constantflow water culture apparatus. From the reservoirs, the nutrient solutions delivered by the overflow funnels are brought together by plastic tubing and mixed in a glass distributor tube before the final mixture drips into the root vessels (cf. p. 17).

PLATE IV



PLATE IV

Above: The four 60-L stock solution reservoirs in place on the 2 m - high platform. The horizontal glass tubes lead the liquid from the four constant-level glass cylinders to the overflow funnel rack, thus providing the zero-line of the calibrated rate-of-flow scales (cf. pp. 14 and 16).

Below: View of water thermostat and glass capillary tubes which provide a constant rate of flow of the nutrient solution. Also visible in the thermostat: heating spiral (in front) and water-cooling pipes (in back), the toluene thermoregulator, the electric stirring mechanism, and two thermometers (cf. pp. 16-17).



PLATE V

Above: Side view of constant-flow water culture apparatus. Condition of the vigorously developing young plants, here 1.25 m high, demonstrates the adaptability of maize to this type of culture (cf. pp. 13-17).

Below: Detailed view of several series of 1-L flasks collecting the effluent nutrient solution discharged from the root vessels by overflow funnels. The slope on which the flasks stand causes them to fill successively, thus providing separate samples for given time intervals. At extreme left, the water-cooling pipes mounted on the thermostat containing the root vessels; to the right of these pipes, the electric heating spiral is partially visible (cf. p. 17). simple, the potassium was replaced by sodium. The final composition of the nutrient solution was as follows:

| | concentrat | ion in p.p.m. | norr | normality | | | |
|--|--|--|------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Composition | Reservoir A Salt solution | Reservoir B Ammonium solution | Reservoir C Acid solution | Reservoir D Alkaline solution | | | |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | 40.00 10.00 20.00 0.08 10.00 | 40.00 10.00 20.00 0.08 10.00 | 0 0 0 0 0 | | | | |
| (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ [•] | 0 | 586.96 | 0 | 0 | | | |
| H_2SO_4 | 0 | 0 | 0.004 N | 0 | | | |
| NaHCO3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.008 N | | | |

NUTRIENT SOLUTION 3

A comparison of this nutrient solution with that previously used (nutrient solution 2) shows that all salt concentrations are doubled. This doubling was the consequence of the new technique, in which by a two-fold dilution, the final solution was obtained. For example, to effect a total rate of flow of 200 ml/hr the amount of acid plus alkaline solution and that of ammonium plus salt solution were both kept at 100 ml/hr. The combination of these solutions thus resulted in a total rate of flow of 200 ml/hr. As the acid and the alkaline solutions did not contain the basic salt solution, the final mixture had only half the initial concentration of each salt. As a result, changes in the ratio of acid and alkaline solution did not affect the potassium and phosphate concentration. Moreover, the modified technique had the advantage that the acid and alkaline stock solutions remained stable much longer, since they did not contain nutrient salts.

§ 6. The relative rate of salt uptake

The actively absorbing area of roots varies considerably in different plants due to unequal root development. Moreover, this area in any given plant will change because of root growth and root decay. For this reason, it is necessary to have a relative unit of absorption in order to compare data. Since the actively-absorbing area of a root is not proportional to its weight, root weights cannot be used as relative unit.

Therefore, as suggested by VAN DEN HONERT (1933) in his study on the phosphate uptake of sugar cane, the ammonium ion uptake itself, under an arbitrarily chosen "standard condition", was made the relative unit. This "standard condition" was defined as the rate of NH_4^+ -ion uptake at a NH_4^+ concentration of 10-20 p.p.m., a pH = 6.0, and a root temperature of 20°C. The NH_4^+ concentration could be so widely indicated because within this concentration range the NH_4^+ -ion uptake had already approximately reached its maximal value.

The NH_4^+ -ion uptake measurements made under conditions other (*i.e.* with respect to NH_4^+ concentration and/or pH) than the "standard condition" were always fixed between two ion uptake measurements made under the "standard condition". By linear interpolation in time, the standard uptake value at the point of time of the non-standard measurement was found. The points on the graphs represent the ratio between non-standard uptake value and standard uptake value. Because the standard uptake value is the relative unit of uptake, all standard values have the value 1.0 in the graphs.

§ 7. Analytical methods

The following analytical methods for the determination of ammonium, potassium, and *sodium* ion uptake, as well as hydrogen ion release, were applied.

1. Ammonia determination

For the quantitative determination of the ammonium ion content, the Nessler colorimetric method was used (ALLPORT, 1947, p. 382).

The determination was performed in the following way. To 25 ml of nutrient solution containing ammonium ions, 0.5 ml of 50 % sodiumpotassium tartrate was added to avoid precipitates of Ca and Mg after the addition of the strongly alkaline Nessler reagent. Then, 1 ml of Nessler reagent was added and the solution thoroughly mixed with the aid of a glass rod. After 15 minutes, when the maximal colour intensity had developed, the optical density of the solution was measured by means of a Unicam (Model SP 350) spectrophotometer. A standard curve of the relation between optical density and NH₄+ concentration was obtained with standard solutions containing 0.1 to 1.0 p.p.m. NH₄⁺. In this concentration range the extinction was linear with respect to the concentration (Lambert-Beer law). The measurements were conducted at a wave length of 440 m μ . The NH_4 +-ion content of the test solution was determined with the aid of the standard curve. The NH4+-ion concentration of the nutrient solution was brought by dilution within the limits of the standard curve. Depending on the rate of dilution, the accuracy obtained was of the order of 2-4 %.

2. Potassium and sodium determinations

The potassium and sodium determinations were made with a Beckman flame photometer. With this technique, a 1-ml aliquot of the nutrient solution containing K or Na is sprayed by means of an air stream into an oxygen-butane flame. The intensity of light emitted by the elements was measured with a DU quartz spectrophotometer. In the present study a permanent standard curve relating light intensity of the emission spectrum and ion concentration was not obtainable as the gas pressure, and in consequence of this the flame temperature, was insufficiently constant. Therefore, prepared standard solutions with known K⁺ and Na⁺ concentration were measured simultaneously with the solution of unknown concentration. The ion content of the unknown solution was always fixed between that of two of the standard solutions. Although a graph of the ion concentration plotted against light emission intensity gave a hyperbolic curve, a linear interpolation was applied. This was sufficiently accurate because the concentration difference between both standard solutions used was small, *i.e.* 1 p.p.m. for potassium and 2–3 p.p.m. for sodium.

All K and Na determinations were made in a complete nutrient solution. A marked mutual interference between the light emission of the various elements, *e.g.* between potassium and sodium, was observed. Therefore, one-salt standard solutions did not give reliable results. The standard solutions had to contain not only the varying ion in question but also the interfering ion, in about the same concentration as in the nutrient solution. The K and Na determinations were made at a wave length of 767 m μ and 589 m μ respectively. The analyses had an accuracy of about 3-5 %.

3. Determination of the hydrogen release

The hydrogen ion release was determined by means of the difference in base-excess of the nutrient solution entering and leaving the root vessel. The base-excess concept and estimation procedure was discussed by JOHNSTON (1916) and BUCH (1932). The "base-excess" concept can be best explained by a simplified example.

A. The concept of base-excess

(a) If to a volume of distilled water 10 ml of 0.1 N HCl is added and the liquid boiled for a moment and then cooled, exactly 10 ml 0.1 N KOH is necessary to reneutralize the solution. The same is true if the solution is titrated back to a pH = 3.6, provided a correction is introduced for the systematic titration error caused by the backtitration to this low end-point. This situation does not alter if, instead of distilled water, a solution of neutral salts (e.g. KCl, NaNO₃, CaCl₂ or MgSO₄) is used. Nor will the presence of an ammonium salt change this situation, since the hydrolytically acid reaction caused by an ammonium salt is still negligible at pH = 3.6.

(b) However, the situation will change considerably if the solution contains carbonic acid salts. As carbonates are in this special case of no interest, though they are important in sea water, the discussion will be confined to the bicarbonate-carbonic acid buffer system. So, if the solution contains Na⁺HCO₃⁻, the addition of 10 ml of 0.1 N HCl and the subsequent boiling will remove CO₂. After the addition of 10 ml 0.1 N KOH, there will be an excess of OH⁻ ions equivalent to the amount of HCO₃⁻ previously present in the solution. In this way the name "base-excess" (cf. JOHNSTON, 1916) for those metal ions which are present in the form of carbonic acid salts, can be easily understood.

(c) Hence, by adding HCl and titrating back with KOH, the

J. H. BECKING

amount of OH-ions equivalent to the original amount HCO_3 -ions, and thus the quantity of base-excess, can be determined. Back-titration to an end-point pH = 3.6 is desirable: a solution containing an ammonium salt should not allowed to become alkaline, since NH_3 would escape and this would decrease the amount of base-excess. It is also preferable to keep the solution outside the buffer range of the phosphates present.

B. The influence of the plant on the amount of base-excess

(a) The amount of base-excess is not altered, if (i) the plant absorbs equivalent amounts of cations and anions from the nutrient solution, *e.g.* equivalents amounts of K^+ and Cl^- ions. (ii) the plant releases equivalent amounts of cations and anions from the root tissue, *e.g.* equivalent amounts of K^+ and Cl^- ions.

(b) The addition of carbon dioxide produced by the root respiration will certainly alter the pH of the nutrient solution, but it will not change the amount of base-excess. The amount of base-excess is zero in a K^+Cl^- solution. Now add carbon dioxide to this solution:



After the addition of mineral acid and subsequent boiling, the chemical species represented within the dashed line will be driven out, but the amount of base-excess will remain zero.

(c) The amount of base-excess will *decrease*, if NH_4^+ or K⁺ions are exchanged for H⁺ions. A decrease of the amount of base-excess will occur because the H⁺ions produced will bind HCO₃⁻ions and thus carbon dioxide will escape. The amount of base-excess will *increase*, if Cl⁻ or NO₃⁻ions are exchanged for OH⁻ or HCO₃⁻ions.

(d) The method for determining base-excess cannot be used for estimating the hydrogen ion release if HCO_3 -ions are also absorbed by the roots. However, experiments of LUNDEGÅRDH (1933; 1937, p. 108) and HOAGLAND (1944, p. 132) made it seem likely that roots actively producing carbon dioxide do not absorb HCO_3 -ions.

(e) If the root system of the plant absorbs water due to *transpiration* by the upper parts, the solution will become more concentrated. The sample volume of nutrient solution withdrawn for the base-excess determination should be corrected for water uptake by the plant.

(f) After applying this volume correction, one should find, therefore, exactly the same amount of base-excess, independent of the carbon dioxide production by the roots, as long as the roots absorb or release cations and anions in equivalent amounts. However, the amount of base-excess will change if cations and anions are absorbed or released in unequal amount.

C. Determination procedure

The hydrogen ion release by the roots was computed from the baseexcess difference of the nutrient solution entering and leaving the root vessel.

The solution discharged from the root vessel was collected in conical flasks and could be sampled from these flasks. The entering solution was sampled, either by collecting it directly before it dripped into the root vessel, or indirectly by drawing off (see I, 4, Fig. 1) the nutrient solution from the reservoirs and recomposing it by uniting volume parts of the three solutions in the same ratio as indicated by their rates of flow. The solutions obtained by both methods did not differ essentially as was shown by an integral checking of the apparatus, *i.e.* the apparatus without plants in the root vessels.

The base-excess determination procedure was as follows: To a 50-ml aliquot nutrient solution, 10 ml 0.02 N HCl was added and the solution then boiled, while a steady current of carbon dioxide-free air (obtained by passing over soda-lime) was bubbled through the solution. After cooling, the solution was titrated against 0.02 N NaOH. A comparison scale was made of citric acid-phosphate buffer mixtures with a pH range of 3.2–4.2 (with phenol blue indicator). This was done in order to titrate the solution entering and leaving the root vessel to exactly the same end-point of pH = 3.6. All determinations were made in duplicate and the average value was taken. A standard error of \pm 1.11 x 10⁻³m.e./hr was calculated for the hydrogen ion release data presented in the tables.

§ 8. EXPERIMENTS

I. Preliminary experiments on the relation between ammonium ion uptake and hydrogen ion release

As previously explained (§ 6), the NH_4^+ -ion uptake data had to be expressed in relative units in order to make all data mutually comparable. Because of this, the H⁺-ion release had also to be given in relative units. In Figures 2 and 3, the ratio between H⁺-ion release and NH_4^+ ion uptake is plotted against the NH_4^+ concentration, *i.e.* each relative NH_4^+ -ion uptake value is shown with its corresponding relative H⁺-ion release value.

In order to give the reader an impression of the absolute magnitude of the NH_4^+ -ion uptake and H^+ -ion release, some of these data are represented in Table 1.

From Table 1 it appears that under the given experimental conditions practically all NH_4^+ ions are absorbed from the entering nutrient solution when its NH_4^+ -ion content is 10 p.p.m. As has been stated before, the nutrient solution leaving the root vessel (column 2) is identical with the nutrient solution surrounding the roots. The 200 ml/hr rate of flow was favourable for obtaining a large concentration difference between the solutions entering and leaving the root vessel. It is clear from column 6 that these nearly full-grown maize plants absorb the considerable quantity of about 2.0 mg NH_4^+ /hour per plant. In these experiments, the H⁺-ion release (the physiologically acid reaction) was very appreciable, being 150 x 10^{-3} m.e./hour per plant. Compared to the calculated standard error of ± 1.11 x 10^{-3} m.e./hour, the H⁺-ion release figures were very high. The ratio H⁺/NH₄⁺ (last column) had an average value of 1.32 when the NH₄⁺ concentration was between 0.1–0.2 p.p.m. In other words, 32 % more H⁺ions were released than NH₄⁺ions were taken up. This situation was possibly due to a H⁺-ion release due to K⁺, Na⁺ and Ca⁺⁺ion uptake, which was not taken into account in these experiments. In order to eliminate this interfering factor, in subsequent experiments K⁺ and Na⁺ determinations were performed and the H⁺-ion release figures were corrected for the uptake of these ions.

TABLE 1

| Plant | NF | H ₄ + | water | NF | I4+ | NH | [₄ + | H+ | ratio |
|-------|-------|------------------|--------------------------|-------------|--------------|--------------------------|--|--|----------------------|
| | mg/L | mg/L out | absorp- tion ml/hr | mg/hr in | mg/hr out | absorp- tion mg/hr | absorp- tion m.e. 10 ⁻³ hr | release m.e. 10 ⁻³ hr | $\frac{H^+}{NH_4^+}$ |
| A | 10.02 | 0.100 | 4.9 | 2.004 | 0.020 | 1.984 | 109.98 | 127.54 | 1.16 |
| B | 10.02 | 0.102 | 8.1 | 2.004 | 0.019 | 1.985 | 110.03 | 137.87 | 1.25 |
| C | 9.55 | 0.146 | 13.2 | 2.004 | 0.029 | 1.975 | 109.48 | 145.70 | 1.33 |
| A | 10.02 | 0.068 | 10.3 | 2.004 | 0.013 | 1.991 | 110.37 | 149.34 | 1.35 |
| B | 10.02 | 0.200 | 12.2 | 2.004 | 0.038 | 1.966 | 108.98 | 155.01 | 1.42 |
| C | 9.55 | 0.218 | 16.0 | 2.004 | 0.042 | 1.962 | 108.76 | 151.45 | 1.39 |
| A | 10.02 | 0.094 | 13.6 | 2.004 | 0.018 | 1.986 | 110.09 | 154.19 | 1.40 |
| B | 10.02 | 0.119 | 15.7 | 2.004 | 0.022 | 1.982 | 109.87 | 141.29 | 1.29 |
| C | 9.55 | 0.170 | 17.7 | 2.004 | 0.033 | 1.971 | 109.26 | 150.00 | 1.38 |

 NH_4^{+-ion} uptake and H⁺-ion release in three nearly full-grown maize plants A, B, C. Experiments made for three consecutive days (9/8-11/8.1952) using nutrient solution 2 with a rate of flow of 200 ml/hr, at pH = 6.0 and root temperature 20° C.

The third column of Table 1 shows the rate of water absorption by the root systems. This absorption rate ranged between 5–18 ml/ hour, *i.e.* about 2.5–9.0 % of the rate of flow of the nutrient solution. Because such a water absorption had considerably increased the ion concentration of the nutrient solution, a correction for water absorption was introduced. From the figures in Table 1, it is apparent that the water uptake had no appreciable effect on the rate of NH_4^+ -ion uptake. This is in agreement with the observations of VAN DEN HONERT *et al.* (1955 *a*). The water absorption rates varied in the different plants according to different transpiration rates influenced by unequal shoot development. Moreover, the rate of water absorption varied according to temperature and humidity changes in the greenhouse: high temperature and low relative humidity increased transpiration, which considerably accelerated the water absorption rate of the root systems.

26

II. The physiologically acid reaction of the nutrient solution without ammonium ions

The physiologically acid reaction due to ammonium ion uptake can only be determined if the uptake of other ions is made as small as possible. It must be emphasized that the base-excess method only measures the net effect of cation and anion uptake. Therefore, the most accurate results could be expected from the use of one-ion solutions (NH₄+ions absorbed on clay particles or on synthetic ion exchange resins) or one-salt solutions (pure ammonium salt solutions). However, such unbalanced nutrient solutions proved to be injurious to roots, particularly because the experiments were conducted over a period of several weeks. It is well known that a calcium-free medium is especially toxic for roots.

Because of the long experimental time required in the present experiments, a nutrient solution containing all essential ions for growth was indispensable. Notwithstanding this fact, it was possible to select conditions under which the H⁺-ion release could be attributed mainly to NH_4 +-ion uptake. First, the ion concentrations of all accompanying ions indispensable for growth, such as potassium, phosphate, calcium and magnesium, were kept as low as possible. This condition was especially favoured by the continuous-flow technique. No deficit in these ions could occur; due to the constant supply of new ions, the plant could absorb from a low, but continuously replenished, ion level. In the nutrient solutions used (nutrient solutions $\hat{2}$ and 3), the NH₄+ concentration was always much higher than that of the accompanying cations. Secondly, for the non-essential salts, ions were chosen which were known to be absorbed at a relatively slow rate. Accordingly, $NaHCO_3$ was used for the alkaline solution, and HCl or H_2SO_4 for the acid solution, since Na+, HCO3-, Cl- or SO4-ions are taken up slowly or not at all (HCO₃⁻) by maize roots.

K+ **K**+ K+ ratio H+ release Plant absorpabsorp-H+ m.e. mg/L mg/L mg/hr mg/hr tion tion m.e. 10^{-s}hr K+ in out in out 10-3hr mg/hr 9.86 7.84 1.97 10.23 14.22 1.39 D 1.57 0.40 E 9.87 8.84 1.98 1.77 0.21 5.37 9.84 1.77 F 9.87 8.85 1.98 1.77 0.21 5.37 6.48 1.21 D 9.90 8.07 1.98 0.36 9.21 9.48 .1.03 1.62 6.39 Е 9.90 8.66 1.98 1.73 0.257.11 1.11 F 9.90 8.80 1.76 0.22 4.74 0.84 1.98 5.63

TABLE 2

The physiologically acid reaction of a complete nutrient solution where the NH_4^+ ions were replaced by Na⁺ ions. The H⁺-ion release and the K⁺-ion uptake were determined on two consecutive days (2/9-3/9.1952) for three plants (D, E, F) using nutrient solution 2 with 200 ml/hr rate of flow, at pH = 6.0 and root temperature 20° C.

The unavoidable uptake of ions other than NH_4^+ interfered with the NH_4^+ uptake – H⁺release relationship. The amount of such residual interference was determined. Omission of only the ammonium salt was not advisable since that would concomitantly decrease the concentration of the anions. Therefore, in the complete nutrient solution the ammonium ions normally present were replaced by sodium ions, *i.e.* the $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ in the ammonium-ion stock solution was replaced by an equimolar quantity of Na_2SO_4 . In this way, the physiologically acid reaction of NH_4^+ ions could be compared with that of Na^+ ions. The sole ion left in the nutrient solution which was taken up by maize at an appreciable rate was potassium. Therefore, it was desirable to determine the K⁺-ion uptake and to correct the measured H⁺-ion release for the H⁺-ion exchange due to K⁺-ion uptake.

A comparison of Table 1 with Table 2 shows that the physiologically acid reaction of a nutrient solution, where the NH₄⁺ ions were replaced by Na⁺ ions, is only 4–5 % (maximum 10 %) of the physiologically acid reaction of a nutrient solution containing 0.1–0.2 p.p.m. NH₄⁺. Moreover, it appears from the figures that the observed physiologically acid reaction is of about the same magnitude as that of the K⁺-ion uptake. In the last column of Table 2, it is seen that normally more H⁺ions are released than K⁺ions are taken up. This discrepancy can be explained by the uptake of calcium and sodium ions, for which the H⁺-ion release values were not corrected. However, by correcting the hydrogen ion release for potassium uptake, a physiologically acid reaction, almost entirely due to ammonium ion uptake, is obtained. Hence, in all subsequent experiments the potassium ion uptake was determined in addition to the ammonium ion uptake, and the baseexcess value was corrected for potassium ion uptake.

III. The relation between ammonium ion concentration, and the relative rate of ammonium ion uptake and hydrogen ion release at pH = 6.0 and root temperature $20^{\circ}C$

In this series of experiments, in contrast to those described in Section I, the ammonium-ion uptake was expressed in relative units $(cf. \S 6)$.

Vigorously growing, nearly-mature maize plants were used (cf. § 3). Nutrient solution 2 was used with a rate of flow of 200 ml/hour. The nutrient solution was kept at pH = 6.0 and root temperature 20°C. The K+-ion uptake was determined, and the H+-ion release values were corrected for the H+-ion exchange caused by K+-ion absorption.

From Fig. 2, it is evident that after reaching a NH_4^+ concentration of 10 p.p.m. the relative rate of NH_4^+ -ion uptake increases only negligibly with an increase of the NH_4^+ concentration in the medium. For this reason, the relative uptake-concentration curve has the shape of a hyperbola. The "half value" concentration, that is, the concentration where 50 % of the maximum rate of NH_4^+ -ion uptake is reached (a value comparable to the Michaelis-Menten enzyme constant), lies at a NH_4^+ concentration of 0.23 p.p.m.



Fig. 2. Relation between ammonium ion concentration, and the relative rate of ammonium ion uptake (circles) and hydrogen ion release (triangles) at pH = 6.0 and 20° C. Data obtained from 9–23 September 1952.

Moreover, Fig. 2 shows that the H⁺-ion release below a NH₄⁺ concentration of 3 p.p.m. is about 100 % of the NH₄⁺-ion uptake, *i.e.* for each NH₄⁺ion taken up one H⁺ion is released. At very low NH₄⁺concentrations, slightly more H⁺ions are released. This can be explained by a certain amount of Ca⁺⁺- and Na⁺-ion uptake for which the hydrogen ion release figures were not corrected. In contrast to this observation, the H⁺-ion release was only 75-80 % of the NH₄⁺-ion uptake at the higher NH₄⁺ concentrations (above 3 p.p.m.). The H⁺-ion release tends to decrease at still higher NH₄⁺ concentrations, *e.g.* 20 p.p.m. An increased NH₄⁺ concentration also implies an increased anion concentration, because this increase is obtained by ammonium salt addition. Therefore, the greater interference with the hydrogen ion release at higher ammonium salt concentrations can be explained by an increased anion absorption (giving OH⁻-ion release) while the NH₄⁺-ion uptake has already approximately reached its maximum value.

IV. The relation between ammonium ion concentration and the relative rate of ammonium ion uptake and hydrogen ion release at pH = 4.6 and root temperature $20^{\circ}C$

In these series, the relative rate of NH_4^+ -ion absorption and H^+ -ion release was studied at a pH = 4.6 and a root temperature of 20°C.

Here too, nearly-mature maize plants, first reared in garden soil and subsequently transferred to water cultures, were used (cf. § 3). The rate of flow of the nutrient solution was 200 ml/hour. For the experiments, a K⁺-free nutrient solution (nutrient solution 3) was employed and consequently only Na⁺-determinations were necessary. The H⁺-ion release values obtained were corrected for the H⁺-ion release due to Na⁺-ion uptake. All relative absorption rate values mentioned were obtained by taking the ratio between the absolute absorption value at pH = 4.6 and the absorption value under standard conditions (cf. § 6).



Fig. 3. Relation between ammonium ion concentration, and the relative rate of ammonium ion absorption (circles) and hydrogen ion release (triangles) at pH = 4.6 and 20° C. Data obtained between 15 August to 15 October 1954.

A comparison of Figures 2 and 3 shows that there is no significant difference between the relative rate of ammonium ion absorption at pH = 6.0 and at pH = 4.6, nor did the data for the six experiments on the hydrogen ion release show appreciable differences at the same pH values. However, experiments performed at pH = 4.0 gave quite another picture. About twenty experiments (not presented here) conducted at this low pH, showed a considerably lower NH_4 +-ion uptake than those at pH = 6.0. This diminished NH_4 +-ion uptake was caused by damage to the maize roots, which seem to be very sensitive to low pH values. Therefore, these data have no significance relative to the NH_4 +-ion uptake problem as discussed here. However, it does merit attention that in spite of the toxic effect of these low pH values on the root tissue, no appreciable difference in the ratio between H+-ion release and NH_4 +-ion absorption was observed.

V. The effect of prolonged ammonium nutrition on the rate of ammonium ion uptake

In these experiments, maize plants taken from a Woodford and Gregory nutrient solution (nutrient solution 1) containing only nitrate nitrogen were transferred to solutions (nutrient solutions 2 and 3) containing ammonium nitrogen. As a rule, it could be observed that the NH_4^+ -ion absorption by the roots increased during the first 24 hours. This phenomenon could be explained by an adaption of these nitrate-reared roots to ammonium nutrition.

However, in the subsequent days and weeks (the time depending on whether a low or high NH_4^+ concentration was applied), there was a gradual decrease in the NH_4^+ -ion uptake capacity of the roots which, with the constant-flow arrangement for water culture used in these experiments, could be followed readily from day to day. One example will be cited in Table 3 as an illustration. This series indicates the maximum rate of NH_4^+ -ion absorption by the root systems employed, because care was taken to measure the uptake in the asymptotic part of the uptake-concentration curve (*i.e.* in a range where the concentration has only little influence on the rate of ion absorption).

| TA | BI | Æ | 3 |
|----|----|---|---|
| | _ | | ~ |

NH+-ion absorption in three different plants (H, I, J) measured at twoday intervals for 4 days. The NH₄+-ion uptake can be assumed to be maximal because relatively high NH₄+ concentrations were applied. Nutrient solution 2 was used with a rate of flow of 200 ml/hr, at pH = 6.0 and root temperature 20° C.

| | NH4+-io | NH_4^+ -ion uptake in m.e. $10^{-3}/hr$ | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|---------|---|--------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Date | Plant | Plant | Plant | | | | | | | | |
| | H | I | J | | | | | | | | |
| 18/9–1952 | 155.77 | 168.51 | 110.31 | | | | | | | | |
| 20/9–1952 | 125.83 | 143.02 | 94.24 | | | | | | | | |
| 22/9–1952 | 97.56 | 124.17 | 83.15 | | | | | | | | |

The decrease in NH_4^{+} -ion absorption rate after prolonged ammonium nutrition may have some connexion with concomitantly observed morphological deformations of the roots. Secondary maize roots previously grown in a nitrate-containing nutrient solution (Woodford and Gregory nutrient solution) show only limited growth after transfer to an ammonium-containing nutrient solution. The growth of the apical meristems of these roots is soon checked and numerous new side-roots develop over the whole length of the root. However, the development of these new apical meristems is checked in its turn and so the process repeats itself.



Fig. 4. Deformation of secondary maize roots (thick roots of the second order) by ammonium nutrition. The inhibited development of the root-tip meristems and numerous newly-formed, swollen, side branches can be noted. Figure drawn from a photograph.
J. H. BECKING

Apart from the inhibition of the activity of the apical meristems, these ammonium-poisoned maize roots also show root tips which are more or less swollen. This gives the roots the appearance of being lined with short spiny side roots, and in advanced cases the roots may show coralline or tuber-like deformations. In contrast to this picture, maize roots developed in nutrient solutions containing nitrate nitrogen are slender and only a little ramificated. A characteristic picture of ammonium-poisoning symptoms in maize roots grown first in a nitrate nitrogen solution and then transferred to an ammonium nitrogen solution is given in Fig. 4.

It may be remarked that van den Honert (personal communication, and KONINGSBERGER and VAN DEN HONERT, 1931) obtained quite similar ammonium-poisoning symptoms in sugar cane roots in water culture. Here too, the roots showed an excessive branching and stunting.

VI. The influence of the season and the age of the plant on the rate of ammonium ion uptake and hydrogen ion release

In section V it is stated that the NH_4^+ -ion uptake capacity of maize roots decreases gradually as a result of ammonium-poisoning, a decrease which is especially pronounced when the roots absorb NH_4^+ ions at a maximal rate for a prolonged period. It may be emphasized that this decrease in NH_4^+ -ion absorption rate is more rapid when the maize plants involved are older and grow less vigorously.

It is worth mentioning that in these roots of old maize plants the NH_4 +-ion uptake diminishes while the Na+-ion uptake remains at about the same level as in vigorously growing plants. In the latter, the NH_4 +-ion uptake at a NH_4 +concentration of 10 p.p.m. is about 15 times as great as the Na+-ion uptake at a concentration of 35 p.p.m. Na+. In somewhat older plants, this ratio decreases to 10 : 1, whereas with further aging it gradually decreases to as low as 3 : 1. This observation indicates a difference in the mechanism of NH_4 +-ion and Na+-ion uptake.

In older maize plants, the NH_4^+ -ion absorption rate is about 40–50 % of the initial absorption rate. Moreover, in these roots the ratio between H⁺-ion release and NH⁺-ion absorption changes considerably. In vigorously growing maize plants, the rate of H⁺-ion release at the higher NH_4^+ concentrations is about 80 % of the NH_4^+ -ion absorption rate. However, this H⁺-ion release ratio decreases gradually to only 30 % in aged maize roots. In a special experimental series this phenomenon was studied in greater detail with the same batch of maize plants (germinated in soil in May and transferred to a Woodford and Gregory nutrient solution early in August) at different ages of the plants. During a period of two months, using fresh plants each time, the ratio of H⁺-ion release to NH_4^+ -ion uptake was determined with the constant-flow water culture technique. The experiments were performed at a relatively high NH_4^+ -ion uptake.

TABLE 4

Ratio between H⁺-ion release and NH₄⁺-ion uptake in the same set of maize plants at varying ages. Plants germinated in soil in May and transferred to a Woodford and Gregory nutrient solution in early August. For the experiments nutrient solution 2 was used with a rate of flow of 200 ml/hr, pH = 6.0 and root temperature 20° C.

| 1952 | ratio H ⁺ /NH ₄ + | No. of exps. |
|---|--|----------------|
| September Early October End October | $\begin{array}{c} 0.86 \pm 0.02 \\ 0.75 \pm 0.03 \\ 0.32 \pm 0.04 \end{array}$ | 15 10 15 |

In agreement with the preliminary data, this series shows a decrease in H⁺-ion release of about 50 %. This decrease in H⁺-ion release in old maize plants can be caused either by an increase in anion uptake or by a cation release. An investigation of this problem indicated that in these older maize roots the anion uptake was of approximately the same magnitude as that in roots of vigorously growing plants. However, in the old plants there was a considerable K⁺-ion release, *i.e.* 1–2 p.m. K⁺/hour per plant. Therefore, it is clear that in old maize roots there is a considerable exchange of NH₄⁺ions for K⁺ions during NH₄⁺-ion uptake. Potassium release by roots has been frequently reported in the literature (cf. SEKERA, 1928; LUTTKUS and BÖTTICHER, 1939; HUMPHRIES, 1950, 1951, 1952).

CHAPTER III

THE EFFECT OF SALTS, ESPECIALLY AMMONIUM SALTS, ON THE ROOT RESPIRATION OF EXCISED MAIZE ROOTS

§ 1. INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Whenever salt is accumulated or actively transported by living cells, their metabolism will inevitably be involved. As already mentioned in Chapter II, fully developed, older maize plants show a much smaller capacity to accumulate ammonium ions than active growing plants. Moreover, the ammonium ion absorption capacity of old plants declines steadily. The impression is formed that these old maize plants are soon "saturated" with ammonium ions due to the nonutilization of these ions for synthesis in growth. In contrast to this, actively growing maize plants show a more constant ammonium ion uptake, because ammonium ion utilization in protein synthesis seems to keep up with the absorption, resulting in a "steady state". A quite similar phenomenon can be observed in maize seedlings in water culture, where not only the ammonium ion uptake but also the nitrate, potassium, and sodium uptake decline rapidly after a large initial uptake. Here too, this "saturation" or "indigestion" effect can be accounted for by a lack of sufficient utilization of these ions in metabolism.

The same evidence has been recorded by several investigators. VAN DEN HONERT (1933) reported an "indigestion" effect in sugar cane after a previous high phosphate absorption. HOAGLAND *et al.* (1936, 1944) stated more generally that the much lower ion uptake obtained after an initial high salt intake is due to the "high-salt" condition of the tissue involved. Also, SUTCLIFFE (1952, 1954) found that the potassium accumulation capacity of beet root disks is profoundly influenced by their potassium content.

Apparently there is a relation between salt accumulation and the metabolic status of the plant, *i.e.* its capacity to synthesize, and its salt and carbohydrate content. The question arises whether there exists a similar relation between salt respiration and the metabolic status of the tissue. With respect to these problems, the effect of salts and carbohydrates on the respiration of roots pretreated in different ways was investigated.

The experiments were performed with excised roots of pretreated maize plants. Special attention was paid to cases of deficiencies in special mineral elements and to the specific response of the respiration after supplying these ions. In special connexion with Lundegårdh's hypothesis, the influence of cation absorption on respiration in the absence of absorbable anions was likewise investigated. The experiments were divided into the following subjects:

I. The effect of salts, especially ammonium salts, on the root respiration of excised maize roots.

II. The effect of sugars with or without simultaneous addition of ammonium salts or nitrates on the root respiration, and the determination of the respiratory quotient, in normal and in nitrogenstarved maize roots.

III. The effect of NH_4^+ -bearing ion exchange resins on the root respiration of nitrogen-starved maize plants.

IV. The effect of phosphate on the root respiration of phosphatestarved maize plants.

§ 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Maize seed of the single-cross hybrid D x 9, obtained from the Plant Selection Station "Centraal Bureau" at Hoofddorp (Holland), was germinated between two layers of humid filter paper on a pad of wet cotton in large open Petri dishes (diameter 25 cm). After a germination time of approximately a week, the seedlings were removed from the dishes and fastened by means of melted paraffine to waxed wire nettings. These nettings with the seedlings were placed in 600-ml culture vessels containing nutrient solution. In contrast to the previous experiments with full-grown maize plants, the seedlings were not placed in a WOODFORD and GREGORY (1948) nutrient solution, but in the more concentrated Long Ashton nutrient solution (cf. HEWITT, 1952, p. 189) which has the following composition:

| Macronutrien | t elemen | ts | Micronutrient | elements | |
|---------------------|----------|-----|---|----------|------|
| KNO ₃ | 0.202 | g/L | MnSO ₄ . 4 H ₂ O | 0.00223 | g/L |
| $Ca (NO_3)_2$ | 0.656 | " | $CuSO_4$. 5 H_2O | 0.00024 | 37 · |
| NaH,PO4.2H2O | 0.208 | ,, | ZnSO ₄ . 7 H ₂ O | 0.00029 | ,, |
| $MgSO_4$. / H_2O | 0.369 | ** | H_3BO_3 | 0.00186 | ,, |
| rerric citrate | 0.0245 | | $ (NH_A) MO_7 U_{94}$. 4 H ₉ U | 0.000035 | |

NUTRIENT SOLUTION 4

The nutrient solution in the culture vessels was renewed weekly. The plants were grown in a greenhouse in normal daylight. The maize plants remained in the Long Ashton nutrient solution till they were between 6 and 15 weeks old. The plants were then removed to special nutrient solutions lacking some of the essential mineral requirements. The duration of the pretreatment period varied according to the requirements of the experiments. In the course of this investigation the following special nutrient solutions were employed.

- 1. Long Ashton minus N nutrient solution (L.A.-N). In this solution the normal quantities of $Ca(NO_3)_2$ and KNO_3 were replaced by equimolar quantities of $CaSO_4$. $2H_2O$ and K_2SO_4 , respectively.
- 2. Long Ashton minus K nutrient solution (L.A.-K). Here, the amount of KNO₃ was replaced by an equimolar quantity of NaNO₃.
- 3. Long Ashton minus P nutrient solution (L.A.-P). In this solution NaH_2PO_4 was replaced by an equimolar quantity of Na_2SO_4 .

The respiration rate of the roots was measured with the standard Warburg manometric technique. This technique necessitates the use of excised roots, but it has the advantage of enabling one to measure the oxygen uptake directly. Techniques by which the oxygen consumption is measured in intact roots require much more complicated equipment. With intact roots, the oxygen consumption can be estimated from the carbon dioxide output which can be easily measured by absorption in standard alkali, *e.g.* barium hydroxide (*cf.* LUNDEGÅRDH, 1933). However, this method was unsuited to the present investigation because preferential ion absorption gives a variable respiratory quotient (*cf.* ULRICH, 1941).

The Warburg vessels had a volume of about 20 ml. The excised roots were suspended in 3 ml of liquid. In order to absorb the carbon dioxide produced, a roll of Whatman No. 40 starch-free filter paper soaked with 0.2 ml KOH 30 % was inserted in the center well of the respiration vessel. After measuring the basic respiration for 3-4 hours, 0.5 ml salt solution, with or without additional carbohydrate according to the experiment, was tipped in from the side arm. The change in respiration rate during the following period was measured. In some of the experiments, use of the two-vessel method (*cf.* DIXON, 1934 p. 57 and UMBREIT *et al.* 1949, p. 17) permitted measurement of the carbon dioxide output as well as the oxygen consumption. The experiments were conducted at 25° C and at a shaking rate of 160–180 cy/min over an arc of 3 cm. The respiration flasks were allowed to equilibrate in

J. H. BECKING

the water thermostat for about 30 minutes. In each respiration vessel approximately 0.57 g fresh weight roots was used, *i.e.* \pm 40 mg dry weight, because the root samples had an average dry weight of 7 % of the fresh weight.

§ 3. ANALYTICAL METHODS

In some experiments, the ammonium ion uptake (Table 14, p. 51) and sulfate uptake (p. 39) were measured in addition to respiration. The following quantitative methods of determination were used.

1. Ammonia

For the quantitative determination of the ammonium ion content of the nutrient solutions, the micro-Kjeldahl distillation procedure was used. After concluding the respiration experiment, a 2-ml aliquot of the solution containing NH₄⁺ was pipetted from the respiration vessel and transferred to the distillation flask. After the addition of excess alkali, the liberated ammonia was distilled off into a known volume of standard acid (10 ml 0.1 N HCl) and the excess acid was back-titrated with standard alkali (0.1 N NaOH).

Later, a boric acid – HCl method for ammonia determination (cf. YUEN and POLLARD, 1953) was employed. This method has the advantage of rendering the standardization of the boric acid unnecessary, because the distilled ammonia can be titrated directly with the acid. The boric acid acts only as the ammonia absorbent. The distilled ammonia was trapped in 10 ml of 1 % AnalaR boric acid in distilled water and back-titrated with 0.1 N HCl. In a blank titration with the same volume of 1 % boric acid, the amount of acid which was found to produce the same endpoint, was subtracted from the values obtained in the analyses. As indicator, an equal volume of 0.2 % alcoholic methyl red and 0.1 % aqueous methylene blue was employed. Duplicate determinations did not differ by more than 1–2 %.

2. Sulfate

A colorimetric sulfate determination method using chromate, worked out by DEVS and BOSMAN (personal communication, 1955) was employed. According to their prescription, a 20-ml aliquot of a solution containing 0-1.0 m.e. $SO_4 = /L$ was pipetted into a volumetric flask of 50 ml capacity. After acidification of the solution with a few drops of 10 % HCl, 10 ml 0.01 N BaCl₂ solution was added, mixed well, and the resulting BaSO₄ precipitate was allowed to settle for 24 hours. Then, 10 ml of 0.01 N K₂CrO₄ was added. The solution was neutralized against litmus paper with a few drops of NH₄OH, made up to 50 ml and shaken again. After 15 minutes the BaSO₄ and BaCrO₄ precipitates were removed by centrifugation. The optical density of the clear yellow supernatant solution was measured with a Unicam spectrophotometer at a wave length of 400 m μ . A standard curve of the optical density plotted against sulfate concentration over a range of 0 - 1.0 m.e. $SO_4 = /L$ was obtained and used to derive the sulfate concentrations of the unknown solutions. The method was accurate to within 5 %.

§ 4. EXPERIMENTS

I. The effect of salts, especially ammonium salts, on the respiration of excised maize roots

a. The effect of ammonium sulfate on the respiration of newlyemerged primary roots.

The primary roots (radicles) used in these experiments were obtained from 7-day old maize seedlings germinated between humid filter paper sheets on a pad of cotton saturated with distilled water. In this stage of development the roots were still entirely dependent on the food reserve of the seed. Since the seeds were obtained from exceedingly well-dressed maize plants, the roots had a high carbohydrate and salt content. Therefore, according to the terminology of Hoagland *c.s.*, these roots could be said to be in "high-salt, highsugar" condition. In order to prevent absorption of previously released salts which could affect the respiration rate before the beginning of the experiment, the distilled water around the roots was renewed daily. It may be emphasized that the experimental conditions were therefore essentially the same as those in the experiments of Lundegårdh, who pretreated his wheat roots with distilled water.

Shortly before the present experiments were started, the maize roots were detached from the seeds and the excised roots thoroughly washed in distilled water. The radicles were then transferred to the Warburg respiration vessels.

In the following experiments, the effect of ammonium salt on the root respiration was compared with that of distilled water (control).

TABLE 5

Respiration rates of excised newly-emerged primary maize roots in response to the addition of ammonium salt. Roots were suspended in distilled water. Respiration rate was measured for 6 consecutive hours. A $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ solution or distilled water (control) was added 3 hours after the start of the experiment. Concentrations given are the final values after salt addition.

| Addition | Respiration rate during 6 consecutive hours in cu.mm O ₂ /hr/mg dr.wt roots | | | | | | |
|--|--|------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|--|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | |
| H ₂ O (control) | 5.13 | 5.16 | 4.81 | 4.44 | 4.09 | 3.94 | |
| | 5.14 | 4.92 | 4.45 | 3.95 | 3.85 | 3.44 | |
| | 5.14 | 5.04 | 4.63 | 4.20 | 3.97 | 3.69 | |
| | <i>111</i> | <i>109</i> | <i>100</i> | <i>91</i> | <i>8</i> 6 | <i>80</i> | |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | 5.19 | 4.97 | 4.63 | 4.42 | 3.99 | 3.94 | |
| | 5.53 | 4.92 | 4.45 | 4.06 | 4.04 | 3.67 | |
| | 5.23 | 4.83 | 4.45 | 4.29 | 3.98 | 3.86 | |
| | 4.83 | 4.65 | 4.43 | 3.91 | 3.99 | 3.67 | |
| | 4.86 | 4.65 | 4.39 | 4.23 | 3.70 | 3.42 | |
| | 4.92 | 4.75 | 4.42 | 3.94 | 3.98 | 3.58 | |
| | 5.42 | 5.41 | 4.90 | 4.77 | 4.27 | 4.07 | |
| | 4.80 | 4.34 | 4.00 | 3.82 | 3.88 | 3.23 | |
| | 4.27 | 3.96 | 3.76 | 3.42 | 3.39 | 3.08 | |
| | 5.01 | 4.72 | 4.38 | 4.10 | 3.91 | 3.61 | |
| | 114 | 108 | 100 | 94 | <i>8</i> 9 | <i>82</i> | |

From Table 5 it appears that the high initial respiration rate decreased rapidly during the 6 consecutive hours of the experiment. The average respiration decrease (*i.e.* the slope of the line) was 0.28 cu.mmO₂per hour per mg dry weight roots. The addition of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ had only a negligible effect, because the 2-3 % respiratory increase above control falls inside the experimental error. Therefore, it may be concluded that no "salt effect" can be obtained with these newlyemerged primary roots. This negative result can be explained by the "high-salt" (high-nitrogen) condition of the root tissue involved. b. The effect of ammonium salts on the root respiration of plants pretreated with dilute calcium sulfate solutions.

LUNDEGÅRDH (1933) stated that in order to obtain a salt-respiration effect the roots should be exposed to distilled water for a certain time previous to the experiment. However, the somewhat longer pretreatment used in the present experiments was found to be injurious to maize roots. Therefore, a pretreatment in very dilute solutions of salts which were not readily taken up was decided upon. For short pretreatments a CaSO₄ 10⁻⁴M solution, and for longer pretreatments a CaSO₄ 10⁻⁴M plus KH₂PO₄ 10⁻⁴M solution, were employed.

In these experiments two different sets of maize plants were used. The plants were grown in a complete L.A. nutrient solution. The plants of Set 1 were 15 weeks old (6/1-22/4.55) and were transferred to the CaSO₄ 10^{-4} M solution 2 days previous to the experiment. Set 2 consisted of 17-week old (6/1-5/5.55) plants which were placed on a CaSO₄ 10^{-4} M plus KH₂PO₄ 10^{-4} M solution 7 days before the experiment.

TABLE 6

Respiration rates of excised roots of maize plants, pretreated with dilute calcium sulfate solutions, in response to ammonium salt addition. Roots were suspended in distilled water. Respiration rate was measured for 7 consecutive hours. A NH₄Cl solution or distilled water (control) was tipped in 3 hours after the start of the experiment. Concentrations are the final values after salt addition.

| Addition | | Respira in cu | tion ra | te durir hours 2/hr/ma | ng 7 con g dr.wt | nsecutiv roots | 'e |
|---------------------------------------|--|---|--|--|---|---|---|
| · | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Set 1: H_2O (control) id | 5.24 4.98 5.11 <i>105</i> | 5.20 4.84 5.02 <i>103</i> | 4.90 4.83 4.87 <i>100</i> | 4.46 4.38 4.42 <i>91</i> | 4.45 4.02 4.24 <i>87</i> | 4.20 3.89 4.05 <i>83</i> | 4.04 3.62 3.83 <i>79</i> |
| 0.01 M NH ₄ Cl | 5.05 5.90 6.63 4.48 5.52 <i>104</i> | 4.78 5.34 6.59 4.55 5.32 <i>100</i> | 4.96 5.28 6.55 4.46 5.31 <i>100</i> | 5.67 6.11 6.77 5.36 5.98 <i>113</i> 22 | 5.68 5.97 6.73 5.15 5.88 <i>111</i> 24 | 5.52 5.97 6.70 5.38 5.89 <i>111</i> | 5.40 5.67 6.22 5.22 5.63 <i>106</i> |
| Set 2: H ₂ O (control % | 2.98 <i>115</i> | 2.71 104 | 2.60 100 | 2.39 92 | 2.37 91 | 20 2.32 <i>89</i> | 2.30 88 |
| 0.005 M NH₄Cl | 2.86 2.85 3.99 3.10 3.60 3.28 <i>110</i> | 2.60 2.61 3.77 3.09 3.34 3.08 103 | 2.53 2.53 3.56 3.12 3.19 2.99 <i>100</i> | 3.16 2.85 3.73 3.46 4.10 3.46 <i>116</i> 24 | 3.19 2.85 3.68 3.07 3.80 3.32 111 20 | 2.83 2.61 3.40 2.95 3.34 3.03 101 12 | 2.82 2.63 3.38 2.90 3.38 3.02 101 13 |

Table 6 shows that a 2-day pretreatment in dilute calcium sulfate solution did not essentially affect the rate of root respiration. This is evident from a comparison of the data of Table 6 with Table 5. However, in contrast to this, a pretreatment of 7 days in a CaSO₄ 10^{-4} M plus KH₂PO₄ 10^{-4} M solution gave a pronounced decrease of the respiration rate. The initial respiration rate of Set 2 was only 60 % of that of Set 1. The decrease in respiration rate, however, was much slower in the roots pretreated for 7 days than in the roots pretreated for 2 days, *i.e.* 0.04 compared to 0.21 cu.mm O₂/hr/mg dr.wt roots, respectively.

In great contrast to the experiments given in Table 5, the addition of ammonium salt initiated a marked (20–28 %) increase in respiration rate compared with the addition of distilled water. Moreover, it can be noted that the respiratory increase showed no correlation with the NH₄+concentration applied, since even the lowest NH₄Cl concentration (0.005 M) gave a maximal respiratory response.

Further, from Table 6 it can be observed that although the average respiration rate of roots pretreated for 7 days was much lower than that of roots pretreated for 2 days, the percentage respiratory increase was equal.

The average ammonium ion uptake was about seven times as great as the sulfate ion uptake (analyses not given). Therefore, it seems reasonable to suggest that the respiratory increase is mainly due to ammonium ion uptake.

c. The effect of ammonium salts on the root respiration of plants pretreated with Long Ashton minus N nutrient solution.

The results presented in Section b showed that the addition of ammonium salts to roots pretreated in a dilute calcium sulfate solution caused a pronounced increase in respiration rate. The question arises as to whether this respiratory increase is connected with a specific mineral deficiency induced by the pretreatment. If so, a respiratory response could only be initiated by the addition of the particular ion in which the root is deficient. An increase of root respiration due to ammonium salt addition would be more prominent in cases of nitrogen starvation or nitrogen deficiency. To check this hypothesis the following experiments were made.

Maize plants 6 weeks old (26/4-6/6.55) grown on a L.A. solution were transferred to a L.A.-N solution 9 days previous to the experiment.

Table 7 shows that, notwithstanding the pretreatment in the relatively concentrated L.A.-N nutrient solution, the addition of ammonium salt gave a marked (\pm 28 %) increase of respiration above distilled water addition (control). As in the preceding experiments, no correlation between the respiratory increase and the ammonium salt concentrations could be observed, since the lowest (NH₄)₂SO₄ concentration used (0.0025 M, *i.e.* 90 p.p.m. NH₄⁺) was sufficient to give the maximal respiratory effect. This is not surprising, since, as reported in Chapter II, the NH₄⁺ absorption rate increased only negligibly above a NH₄⁺ concentration of 10 p.p.m.

J. H. BECKING

TABLE 7

Respiration rates of excised roots of nitrogen-starved maize plants in response to ammonium salt addition. Roots were suspended in distilled water. Respiration rate was measured for 8 consecutive hours. A $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ (NH_4Cl) solution or distilled water (control) was tipped in 3 hours after the start of the experiment. Concentrations given are the final values after salt addition.

| Addition | Respiration rate during 8 consecutive hours in cu.mm O ₂ /hr /mg dr.wt roots | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|---|--|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | | | |
| $\begin{array}{c c} H_{2}O\ (control) & \% \\ 0.0025\ M\ (NH_{4})_{2}SO_{4} & . \\ id. & . & . & . \\ 0.005\ M\ (NH_{4})_{2}SO_{4} & . \\ id. & . & . & . \\ 0.01\ M\ (NH_{4})_{2}SO_{4} & . \\ id. & . & . & . \\ 0.02\ M\ (NH_{4})_{2}SO_{4} & . \\ id. & . & . & . \\ 0.02\ M\ NH_{4}\ Cl\ . & . \\ id. & . & . \\ Mean \\ & \% \end{array}$ | 84 5.27 4.74 4.16 5.32 4.73 4.77 5.47 4.76 5.63 4.79 4.96 87 | 94 5.51 4.93 4.57 5.57 4.98 5.06 5.75 5.13 5.69 5.14 5.23 92 | 100 5.91 5.49 4.97 6.30 5.47 5.32 6.17 5.79 5.77 5.62 5.68 100 | 91 7.38 6.24 5.75 7.12 6.39 6.66 7.96 6.64 7.14 6.48 6.78 119 | 87 6.74 6.04 5.18 6.77 5.87 6.39 7.23 6.25 6.14 6.01 6.26 <i>110</i> | 83 6.06 5.47 4.94 5.90 5.53 5.76 6.44 5.63 5.49 5.49 5.67 100 | 79 5.59 5.06 4.30 5.49 4.93 5.38 5.89 5.29 5.13 5.10 5.22 92 | 75 5.00 4.73 4.12 5.02 4.82 4.89 5.43 4.75 4.87 4.76 4.84 85 | | | |
| % resp. increase | | · — | | 28 | 23 | 17 | 13 | 10 | | | |

d. The effect of ammonium sulfate and potassium sulfate on the root respiration of plants pretreated with complete Long Ashton, Long Ashton minus N, or Long Ashton minus K solutions.

In the following experiments the effect of ammonium and potassium salts on the root respiration of plants pretreated with nitrogen- or potassium-free nutrient solutions was investigated. As a control, the same salt additions were made with roots obtained from L.A. grown plants.

All maize plants used in these experiments were of the same batch. They were 13.5 weeks old (18/3-21/6.55) and were put on the mineraldeficiency pretreatments 11 days previous to the experiment.

Table 8 shows that the root respiration rates of the variously pretreated plants were appreciably different. The average respiration rate of L.A., L.A.-N, and L.A.-K roots was 6.68 ± 0.26 , 3.67 ± 0.27 and 8.07 ± 0.33 cu.mm O₂/hr/mg dr.wt roots, respectively. The calculated standard errors show that these differences are significant. The root respiration rate of L.A.-N plants was 45 % lower, and that of L.A.-K plants 21 % higher, than that of L.A. plants. The dry weight of pretreated roots did not differ from non-pretreated roots (*i.e.* 7–8 % of the fresh weight), so the respiratory differences cannot be attributed to dry matter differences of the samples.

As can be seen in Table 8, L.A.-N pretreated roots showed a respiratory increase in response to the addition of ammonium sulfate, but an equimolar quantity of potassium sulfate had no effect on the

TABLE 8

Respiration rates of excised roots of maize plants, pretreated with L.A., L.A.-N and L.A.-K nutrient solutions, in response to nitrogen and potassium salt addition. Roots were suspended in distilled water. Respiration rate was measured for 8 consecutive hours. The salt solution or distilled water (control) was tipped in 3 hours after the start of the experiment. Concentrations given are the final values after salt addition.

| Addition | | Respi in | ration : cu.mm | rate dur hou O2/hr/ | ring 8 c rs mg dr.v | onsecut | tive | |
|--|--|--|---|---|--|--|--|--|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| L.A. Plants: H ₂ O (control) 0.01 M (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ 0.02 M (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ Mean | 7.41 <i>115</i> 6.46 6.65 6.56 | 6.99 <i>108</i> 5.72 6.10 5.91 | 6.84 <i>106</i> 5.27 5.78 5.53 | 6.47 <i>100</i> 5.01 5.63 5.32 | 6.20 <i>96</i> 4.58 5.68 5.13 | 5.60 <i>87</i> 4.24 5.02 4.63 | 4.97 77 3.40 4.12 3.76 | 4.31 67 3.22 3.42 3.32 |
| 0.02 M K₂SO₄ | 123 6.20 111 | 111 5.89 <i>105</i> | 104 5.67 101 | 100 5.59 100 | 96 5.16 92 | 87 4.56 <i>82</i> | 71 3.97 71 | 62 3.42 61 |
| L.AN Plants: H_2O (control) 0.02 M K ₂ SO ₄ 0.02 M (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ % resp. increase | 3.22 112 3.64 104 4.14 114 | 3.23 113 3.83 109 3.92 108 | 3.00 105 3.57 102 3.93 108 — | 2.87 100 3.50 100 3.64 100 | 2.57 90 3.27 93 3.96 109 19 | 2.50 <i>87</i> 2.98 <i>85</i> 3.61 <i>99</i> <i>12</i> | 2.21 77 2.60 74 2.87 79 2 | 2.05 71 2.42 69 2.62 72 1 |
| L.AK Plants: $H_2O \ (control) \ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ $ | 7.66 <i>136</i> 7.15 9.00 8.08 <i>140</i> 7.91 8.63 8.27 <i>146</i> | 6.89 <i>122</i> 6.24 8.17 7.21 <i>125</i> 6.81 7.93 7.37 <i>130</i> | 6.10 108 5.70 6.67 6.19 107 6.23 6.60 6.42 113 | 5.65 100 5.57 5.94 5.76 100 5.66 5.65 5.66 100 | 5.33 94 5.21 5.62 5.42 94 5.12 4.86 4.99 88 | 4.87 86 4.82 4.93 4.88 85 4.46 4.13 4.30 76 | 4.00 71 4.18 3.98 4.08 71 3.73 3.29 3.51 62 | 3.43 61 3.57 3.26 3.42 59 3.12 2.65 2.89 51 |
| % resp. decrease | | | - | - | 6 | 10 | 9 | 10 |

respiration. Thus, in this case (see p. 39) it is evident that ammonium ions rather than sulfate ions are responsible for the respiratory increase. This conclusion is contradictory to the "anion respiration" hypothesis of Lundegårdh.

Summarizing the conclusions suggested by the results presented in Table 8, it can be said that:

(i) in L.A. plants, the addition of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ to the roots did not affect the respiration rate. The addition of K₂SO₄, however, caused a 4-6 % decrease in respiration rate.

(ii) in L.A.-N plants, the addition of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ stimulated the root respiration rate by about 20 %, whereas the addition of K_2SO_4 had no effect. (iii) in L.A.-K plants, the addition of K_2SO_4 gave an appreciable (6-12 %) depression of the increased respiration rate caused by potassium starvation. This effect must be due solely to potassium ion uptake, because an equimolar amount of comparison where the due solely to potassium of comparison the solely to potassium of the solely to potassit of ammonium sulfate did not affect the respiration rate of potassium-starved roots.

From the above facts, it can be concluded that nitrogen and potassium salts have opposite effects on the respiration rate. Nitrogen starvation decreases the respiration rate very markedly, whereas potassium starvation increases it. The addition of nitrogen salt increases the root respiration of nitrogen-starved plants and the addition of potassium salt decreases the root respiration of potassium-starved plants.

e. The effect of various salts on root respiration of plants pretreated with complete Long Ashton solution or with nitrogen-free Long Ashton solution.

In all the above experiments where a salt-respiration effect was noted, the roots had been suspended in *distilled water* for 3-4 hours before salt addition. It is possible that this exposure to distilled water may have induced a low salt condition in the roots. Therefore, the respiration increase may have been due not only to the particular pretreatment (*e.g.* nitrogen starvation), but also to the distilled water pretreatment.

As a matter of fact, LUNDEGÅRDH (1933) stated that a distilled water pretreatment is indispensable for obtaining a salt-respiration effect. This can be verified by measuring the respiration before salt addition in a nutrient solution which lacks only one particular ion, instead of measuring it in the distilled water. In this way a respiratory effect induced specifically by ammonium salt addition to nitrogendeficient roots suspended in L.A.-N solution can be studied.

Moreover, the evidence of a relation between respiratory stimulation caused by ammonium salt addition and nitrogen starvation will be greatly strengthened if other nitrogen-containing salts can be shown to produce a similar respiratory response in nitrogen-deficient roots. The effect of nitrates was investigated, and for the sake of comparison (controls) various other salts such as NaCl, Na₂SO₄ and K₂SO₄ were included in the experiments.

Two sets of plants of different ages were used. Set 1 was 8.5 weeks old (26/4-25/6.55) and was divided into two groups: one of these was pretreated for 3 weeks on L.A.-N solution and the other remained on L.A. solution. Set 2 consisted of 18-week old (18/3-22/7.55) plants of which the L.A.-N group was starved for 6 weeks on a nitrogen-free L.A. solution.

From the results presented in Table 9, it is clear that distilled-water pretreatment is not a requisite for obtaining a salt-respiration effect. Although before salt addition many ions were already available to the roots, a respiratory increase took place only after the addition of the ion in which the root was deficient. Therefore, a causal relation between respiratory response and the particular salt deficiency seems to be incontrovertible.

The following detailed conclusions can be derived from Table 9.

(i) L.A. roots of 8.5-week old plants show a much higher respiration rate than those of 18-week old plants, *i.e.* 7.35 against 4.35 cu.mm $O_2/hr/mg$ dr.wt roots. (ii) A prolonged treatment with L.A.-N solution decreased the root respiration

(ii) A prolonged treatment with L.A.-N solution decreased the root respiration rate appreciably. The root respiration of plants pretreated for 4 and 6 weeks was only 50 % and 44 %, respectively, of that of L.A. plants.

(iii) In L.A. plants, the root respiration is hardly increased (2-5%) by the addition of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$. The addition of NaNO₃ and NaCl gave no increase in respiration rate. The addition of K_2SO_4 decreased the respiration rate by 5–12%. (iv) In L.A.-N roots, the addition of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ produced a respiratory increase of 10–15%. The addition of NaNO₃ also produced an increase of respiration rate, but the response was more gradual than in the case of ammonium self addition.

(iv) In L.A.-N roots, the addition of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ produced a respiratory increase of 10-15 %. The addition of NaNO₃ also produced an increase of respiration rate, but the response was more gradual than in the case of ammonium salt addition. The maximum respiratory increase (33 %) was not reached until three hours after nitrate addition. This retarded increase can be understood, since nitrate ions are absorbed by maize roots at a much slower rate than ammonium ions and the nitrate ion has to be reduced before transformation into organic nitrogen compounds. However, the ultimately greater respiratory increase due to nitrates (33 %) compared to that due to ammonium salt (15 %) showed that for maize nitrate nitrogen is a more suitable nitrogen source than ammonium nitrogen. This is supported by experiments with intact maize plants, where ammonium nutrition gave a steady decline in the ammonium-absorbing capacity of the roots (Chapter II, § 8, V).

The addition of Na₂SO₄ had no effect on the respiration rate. However, in contrast to the L.A. roots, L.A.-N roots showed a small respiratory increase (5-9%) in response to NaCl addition. No immediate explanation was found for this phenomenon. It should be noted that neither the L.A. nor the L.A.-N solution contained chloride ions.

TABLE 9

Respiration rates of excised maize roots, pretreated with Long Ashton and Long Ashton minus N nutrient solutions, in response to the addition of various salts. Roots were suspended in Long Ashton and Long Ashton minus N solutions. Respiration was measured for 7 consecutive hours. Salt solutions and L.A. or L.A.-N solutions (controls) were added 3 hours after the start of the experiment. Concentrations are the final values after salt addition.

| Set | Addition | | Respir in cu. | ation d mm O ₂ | uring 7 hours /hr/mg | consec dr.wt r | utive oots | |
|-----|--|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|--|--|--|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 1 | L.A. Plants: L.A. (control) % | 7.66 <i>116</i> | 7.04 <i>107</i> | 6.59 <i>100</i> | 6.36 <i>97</i> | 6.00 <i>91</i> | 5.58 <i>85</i> | 5.12 78 |
| 1 | $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | 7.86 7.01 6.94 7.66 6.94 | 7.19 6.72 6.78 7.94 6.46 | 6.49 6.45 6.32 6.30 5.96 | 6.27 6.85 6.50 5.90 6.22 | 5.98 6.21 5.92 5.59 5.64 | 5.48 5.68 5.66 5.23 5.19 | 5.17 5.59 5.41 4.80 5.03 |
| | Mean % % resp. increase | 7.28 | 7.02 <i>111</i> — | 6.30 <i>100</i> | 6.35 <i>101</i> 4 | 5.87 93 2 | 5.45 <i>87</i> 2 | 5.20 <i>83</i> 5 |
| . 1 | 0.01 M NaNO3 0.02 M NaNO3 Mean % | 4.16 4.55 4.36 <i>117</i> | 3.74 4.05 3.90 <i>105</i> | 3.53 3.91 3.72 <i>100</i> | 3.32 3.73 3.53 <i>95</i> | 3.28 3.63 3.46 <i>93</i> | 3.19 3.51 3.35 <i>90</i> | 3.00 3.11 3.06 <i>82</i> |
| 2 | 0.01 M NaCl 0.02 M NaCl Mean % | 3.79 3.00 3.40 <i>114</i> | 3.41 2.80 3.11 <i>104</i> | 3.27 2.68 2.98 <i>100</i> | 3.00 2.49 2.75 <i>92</i> | 3.01 2.42 2.72 <i>91</i> | 2.81 2.33 2.57 <i>8</i> 6 | 2.62 2.20 2.41 <i>81</i> |
| 2 | 0.01 M K ₂ SO ₄ 0.02 M K ₂ SO ₄ Mean % resp. decrease | 5.56 5.05 5.31 <i>112</i> | 5.31 4.79 5.05 <i>107</i> | 5.10 4.35 4.73 <i>100</i> | 4.30 3.78 4.04 <i>85</i> 12 | 4.18 3.59 3.89 <i>82</i> 9 | 3.95 3.40 3.68 <i>78</i> 7 | 3.73 3.14 3.44 <i>73</i> 5 |

J. H. BECKING

 TABLE 9 (continued)

| Set | Addition | | Resp in c | iration u.mm (| during hours O ₂ /hr/n | 7 conse | ecutive t roots | |
|-----|---|--|--|--|---|--|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 1 | L.AN Plants: L.AN (control) | 3.10 | 3.13 98 | 3.21 100 | 3.34 104 | 3.19 99 | 2.97 | 2.84 |
| 1 | $\begin{array}{c} 0.005 \text{ M } (\mathrm{NH}_{4})_{2}\mathrm{SO}_{4} \\ 0.01 \text{ M } (\mathrm{NH}_{4})_{2}\mathrm{SO}_{4} \\ \mathrm{id}_{*} \\ 0.02 \text{ M } (\mathrm{NH}_{4})_{2}\mathrm{SO}_{4} \\ \mathrm{id}_{*} \\ \mathrm{id}_{*} \end{array}$ | 3.60 3.86 4.02 4.42 3.14 | 3.62 3.51 4.01 4.58 3.27 | 3.46 3.46 3.89 4.56 3.11 | 4.07 4.19 4.42 4.77 3.85 | 4.02 4.27 4.41 4.58 3.83 | 3.79 3.88 3.94 4.26 3.46 | 3.46 3.70 3.75 3.96 3.27 |
| | Mean % % resp. increase | 3.81 <i>103</i> | 3.80 <i>103</i> | 3.70 <i>100</i> | 4.26 115 11 | 4.22 114 15 | 3.87 105 12 | 3.63 98 10 |
| 2 | L.A.–N (control) | 1.41 <i>97</i> | 1.42 <i>98</i> | 1.45 <i>100</i> | 1.41 97 | 1.30 <i>90</i> | 1.26 <i>87</i> | 1.30 90 |
| 2. | 0.01 M NaNO ₃ 0.02 M NaNO ₃ id id | 1.92 2.42 2.40 1.48 2.06 | 1.93 2.34 2.36 1.41 2.01 | 1.91 2.30 2.45 1.30 1.99 | 2.03 2.46 2.49 1.33 2.08 | 2.37 2.81 2.80 1.63 2.40 | 2.39 2.82 2.79 1.54 2.39 | 2.23 2.60 2.68 1.51 2.26 |
| | % resp. increase | 104 | 101 | 100 | 105 8 | 121 31 | 120 33 | 114 24 |
| 2 | 0.01 M Na ₂ SO ₄ 0.02 M Na ₂ SO ₄ id Mean % | 1.55 1.60 1.88 1.68 <i>108</i> | 1.60 1.43 1.86 1.63 <i>105</i> | 1.61 1.30 1.74 1.55 <i>100</i> | 1.50 1.25 1.58 1.44 <i>93</i> | 1.48 1.27 1.59 1.45 <i>9</i> 4 | 1.28 1.12 1.53 1.31 <i>85</i> | 1.30 1.11 1.37 1.26 <i>81</i> |
| 2 | 0.02 M NaCl 0.01 M NaCl Mean % | 1.99 2.55 2.27 <i>9</i> 9 | 2.03 2.55 2.29 <i>100</i> | 2.05 2.53 2.29 <i>100</i> | 2.15 2.53 2.34 <i>102</i> | 2.10 2.41 2.26 <i>99</i> | 1.95 2.29 2.12 <i>93</i> | 1.98 2.19 2.09 <i>91</i> |
| | % resp. increase | | — | — | 5 | 9 | 6 | 1 |

II. The effect of sugars, with or without simultaneous addition of ammonium salts or nitrates, on the root respiration and the determination of the respiratory quotient in normal and in nitrogen-starved maize roots

In these experiments two sets of maize plants differing in age as well in pretreatment period were used. Set 1 consisted of plants 11 weeks old (26/4-14/7.55) of which one group was nitrogen-starved for 6.5 weeks. In these plants the effect of the additions of L.A., L.A.-N, $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 2 % sucrose, and 2 % sucrose plus $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ on the root-respiration rate was studied (Table 10). Set 2 included plants 12 weeks old (27/5-22/8.55) which were nitrogen-starved on a L.A.-N solution for 3.5 weeks previous to the experiment. In these L.A.-N plants the effect of additions of 2 % glucose, 2 % glucose plus $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, and 2 % glucose plus NaNO₃ on the root respiration was investigated (Table 11). The last experiment presented in Table 11 dealt with roots obtained from a full-grown maize plant (Chapter II, § 3) grown for about 5 weeks on a Woodford and Gregory nutrient solution.

TABLE 10

Root respiration rates of normal and nitrogen-starved maize plants, in response to the additions of Long Ashton, Long Ashton minus N, ammonium sulfate, 2% sucrose, and 2% sucrose + ammonium sulfate. Excised roots of the normal and nitrogen-starved maize plants were suspended in L.A. or L.A.-N nutrient solution. Respiration was measured for 7 consecutive hours. Substrates were added 3 hours after the start of the experiment. Salt and sugar concentrations are the final values after addition.

| | | Respir | ation d | uring 7 | consec | utive | |
|--|-------|--------|-------------------|-----------------|-------------|-------|-------------|
| Addition | | in cu. | mm O ₂ | hours /hr/mg | dr.wt | roots | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| L.A. Plants | | | | | | | |
| L.A. (control.) | 6.29 | 6.13 | 5.98 | 5.61 | 5.00 | 4.70 | 4.24 |
| % | 105 | 103 | 100 | 94 | 84 | 79 | 71 |
| $0.01 \text{ M} (\text{NH}_4)_2 \text{SO}_4. \dots$ | 5.87 | 5.58 | 5.20 | 5.23 | 4.62 | 4.53 | 4.25 |
| $0.02 \text{ M} (\text{NH}_4)_2 \text{SO}_4 \dots \text{Mean}$ | 6 12 | 5.90 | 5.20 | 5.44 5.24 | 5.15 | 4.62 | 4.29 |
| | 114 | 107 | 100 | J.34 00 | 4.09 | 4.56 | 4.27 |
| % resp. increase | | | | 5 | 7 | 6 | 8 |
| 2% sucrose | 5.05 | 4.21 | 4.02 | 4.89 | 5.20 | 5.44 | 5.47 |
| % | 126 | 105 | 100 | 122 | 129 | 135 | 136 |
| % resp. increase | - | — | - | 28 | 45 | 56 | 65 |
| $\frac{27}{1}$ sucrose \ldots | 6 36 | 5 78 | 5 35 | 646 | 7.00 | 6.94 | 6 24 |
| 0.005 M (NH ₄),SO ₄ | 0.00 | 0.70 | 0.00 | 0.10 | 7.00 | 0.01 | 0.54 |
| 2% sucrose | | | | 1 | | | |
| + | 4.96 | 4.68 | 4.29 | 5.25 | 5.51 | 5.89 | 5.53 |
| $0.01 \text{ M} (\text{NH}_4)_2 \text{SO}_4 \ldots$ | E CC | E 00 | 4.00 | F 00 | 0.00 | C 07 | |
| Mean o/ | 3.00 | 5.25 | 4.82 | 5.80 | 0.20 | 0.37 | 5.94 |
| % resp. increase | | 103 | 100 | 28 | 150 | 152 | 123 |
| 70 10001 11010100 | - | | | 20 | 10 | 55 | 52 |
| L.AN Plants | | | | | | | |
| L.AN. (control) | 1.66 | 1.62 | 1.50 | 1.70 | 1.65 | 1.63 | 1.57 |
| 0.01 M (NH) SO % | | 108 | 100 | | 110 | 109 | 105 |
| $0.02 \text{ M} (\text{NH}_4)_2 \text{SO}_4$ | 1 99 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 2.42 | 2.20 | 2.23 | 2.10 |
| Mean | 1.99 | 1.83 | 1.81 | 2.34 | 2.30 | 2.21 | 2.15 |
| % | 110 | 101 | 100 | 129 | 128 | 122 | 119 |
| % resp. increase | - | | | 16 | 18 | 13 | 14 |
| 2% sucrose | 1.69 | 1.53 | 1.81 | 1.96 | 2.18 | 2.26 | 2.29 |
| % resp increase | 93 | 85 | 100 | 108 | 120 | 125 | |
| 2% sucrose | | _ | — | -9 | 10 | 10 | 22 |
| + | 1.92 | 1.76 | 1.69 | 2.58 | 3.04 | 3.10 | 3.18 |
| $0.005 \text{ M} (\text{NH}_4)_2 \text{SO}_4 \ldots$ | | | | | | 00 | 0.10 |
| 2% sucrose) | | | | | | | |
| | 1.60 | 1.51 | 1.54 | 2.23 | 2.62 | 2.71 | 2.85 |
| $0.01 \text{ M} (10\Pi_4)_2 OU_4 \dots $ | 1 76 | 1.64 | 1.62 | 2 41 | 2 02 | 2 01 | 2 02 |
| 0/ | 1/109 | 101 | 100 | 140 | 2.03 175 | 2.91 | 5.02 186 |
| % resp. increase | | | | 36 | 65 | 71 | 81 |
| /• • • | | | I . | | | | |

From the results collected in Tables 10 and 11 the following facts appear:

(i) In L.A. roots (Table 10), the addition of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ gave only a small increase in respiration rate (5-8%). This effect was probably caused by the still great NH_4+ -

J. H. BECKING

TABLE 11

Root respiration rates of nitrogen-starved maize plants in response to the additions of 2 % glucose, 2 % glucose + ammonium sulfate, and 2 % glucose + sodium nitrate. Excised roots were suspended in L.A.-N nutrient solution. Respiration was measured for 13 consecutive hours. Substrates were added 3 hours after the start of the experiment. Sugar and salt concentration are the final values after addition.

| A 11. | | | | | | Respi | ration | durin ho | ng 13 urs | conse | cutive | ; | | |
|--|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Addition | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | O_2 and 6 | | $\frac{D_2/\mathrm{nr}/2}{\mathrm{g}}$ | | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
| | | - 1 | - | 5 | • | | - | - | 0 | 5 | 10 | 11 | 14 | |
| 2% glucose | O ₂ CO ₂ R.Q. O ₂ % | 1.68 1.65 0.98 <i>110</i> | 1.62 1.62 1.00 <i>106</i> | 1.53 1.51 0.99 <i>100</i> | 1.98 1.89 0.95 <i>12</i> 9 | 1.84 1.79 0.97 <i>120</i> | 2.15 2.17 1.01 <i>141</i> | 2.16 2.15 1.00 <i>141</i> | 2.16 2.17 1.00 <i>141</i> | 2.14 2.10 0.98 <i>140</i> | 2.17 2.09 0.96 <i>142</i> | 2.12 2.05 0.97 <i>13</i> 9 | | <u>`</u> |
| 2% glucose + 0.01 M (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ | O2 CO2 R.Q. | 1.82 1.88 1.03 | 1.58 1.58 1.00 | 1.53 1.55 1.01 | 2.41 2.53 1.05 | 2.73 2.70 0.99 | 2.79 2.81 1.01 | 2.82 2.81 1.00 | 2.83 2.84 1.00 | 2.86 2.81 0.98 | 2.99 2.95 0.99 | 3.08 3.05 0.99 | 3.00 2.90 0.97 | 3.22 3.23 1.00 |
| 2% glucose + 0.02 M (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ | O2 CO2 R.Q. | 1.71 1.71 1.00 | 1.55 1.63 1.05 | 1.48 1.55 1.05 | 2.35 2.49 1.06 | 2.74 2.84 1.04 | 2.85 2.96 1.04 | 2.77 2.85 1.03 | 2.82 2.91 1.03 | 2.94 3.02 1.03 | 3.00 3.05 1.02 | 3.03 3.10 1.02 | 3.06 2.82 0.92 | 3.14 3.28 1.04 |
| O, | mean O2% | 1.77 <i>117</i> | 1.57 <i>10</i> 4 | 1.51 <i>100</i> | 2.38 <i>158</i> | 2.74 <i>181</i> | 2.82 <i>187</i> | 2.80 <i>185</i> | 2.83 <i>187</i> | 2.90 <i>192</i> | 3.00 <i>199</i> | 3.06 <i>203</i> | 3.03 <i>201</i> | 3.18 <i>211</i> |
| 2% glucose + 0.01 M NaNO ₃ | O3 CO3 R.Q. | 1.96 1.76 0.90 | 1.86 1.81 0.97 | 1.79 1.57 0.88 | 2.36 2.44 1.03 | 2.90 3.07 1.06 | 3.08 3.38 1.10 | 3.26 3.62 1.11 | 3.44 4.01 1.17 | 3.55 3.95 1.11 | 3.59 4.32 1.20 | 3.79 4.56 1.20 | 3.91 4.80 1.23 | 4.05 5.06 1.25 |
| 2% glucose + 0.02 M NaNO3 | O ₂ CO ₂ R.Q. | 2.00 1.81 0.91 | 1.84 1.69 0.92 | 1.68 1.48 0.88 | 2.63 2.35 0.89 | 3.03 3.16 1.04 | 3.17 3.56 1.12 | 3.42 4.00 1.17 | 3.60 4.22 1.17 | 3.71 4.36 1.18 | 3.81 4.59 1.20 | 3.95 4.71 1.19 | 4.11 4.99 1.21 | 4.23 5.19 1.23 |
| O, | 0_2 mean | 1.98 <i>114</i> | 1.85 <i>106</i> | 1.74 <i>100</i> | 2.50 <i>144</i> | 2.97 <i>171</i> | 3.13 <i>180</i> | 3.34 <i>192</i> | 3.52 <i>202</i> | 3.63 <i>209</i> | 3.70 <i>213</i> | 3.87 <i>222</i> | 4.01 <i>230</i> | 4.14 238 |
| 2% glucose + 0.02 M NaNO ₃ | O ₂ CO ₂ R.Q. | 2.82 2.51 0.89 | 2.57 2.29 0.89 | 2.37 2.20 0.93 | 3.65 3.57 0.98 | 4.20 4.53 1.08 | 4.10 4.59 1.12 | 4.12 4.62 1.12 | 4.23 4.90 1.16 | 4.37 4.99 1.14 | 4.48 5.31 1.19 | 4.58 5.50 1.20 | 4.62 5.66 1.23 | 4.73 5.77 1.22 |

absorption capacity of these L.A. roots. The addition of sucrose alone produced a very marked (\pm 45-65 %) respiratory increase. However, the respiratory increase due to the addition of 2 % sucrose plus (NH₄)₂SO₄ was of about the same magnitude (46-53 %). From these observations, it can be concluded that these L.A. roots require carbohydrate rather than ammonium nitrogen to produce a respiratory increase.

quire carbohydrate rather than ammonium nitrogen to produce a respiratory increase. (ii) In L.A.-N roots (Table 10), the respiration rate is only 31 % of that of L.A. roots. The addition of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ to these roots gave a respiratory increase of 13-18 %. The addition of sucrose alone increased the respiration only 20 %. However, the addition of sucrose plus $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ produced, in the first hour, a respiratory increase of 36 %, which rose to about 80 % after four hours.

ratory increase of 36 %, which rose to about 80 % after four hours. (iii) In the *L.A.-N roots* of Set 2 (Table 11), the decrease in respiration rate during the experimental period was not measured. Therefore, the response was compared to the respiration rate in the 3rd hour, *i.e.* at the time of substrate addition. The effect of glucose alone gave a more marked respiratory increase in these L.A.-N roots than the sucrose addition in the provious set (Table 10), because in the third hour after sugar addition a increase of 40 % could already be noted. This increase remained more or less constant till the end of the experiment. (iv) In these L.A.-N roots (Table 11), the addition of 2 % glucose plus NaNO₃ at first produced only a rather small respiratory increase compared to the addition of 2 % glucose plus $(NH_4)_2SO_4$. However, between the third and fourth hour after substrate addition this situation changed, and the respiratory increase due to nitrate addition became greater than that due to ammonium salt addition. Ten hours after substrate addition the respiratory increase was as high as 140 %, *i.e.* 30 % greater than the respiratory increase due to ammonium salt addition for the same length of time.



Fig. 5. The effect of NaNO₃ plus 2 % glucose on the respiration rate of excised roots of nitrogen-starved maize plants.

(v) The respiratory quotient (R.Q.) of the root respiration changed as a consequence of the addition of glucose plus NaNO₃ and glucose plus $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ (Table I1). Glucose addition by itself did not appreciably affect the initial R.Q. value, as can be seen from the figure of 0.99 in the 3rd hour (previous to sugar addition) and of 0.97 in the 11th hour (8 hours after sugar addition). Nitrate addition produced a marked increase of the R.Q.; previous to its addition the R.Q. = 0.88, while ten hours after nitrate plus sugar addition the R.Q. = 1.23-1.25 (Fig. 5). This increase of the R.Q. can be explained by the fact that the oxygen of the nitrate serves as a hydrogen acceptor and substitutes for a portion of the oxygen which would otherwise be consumed (cf. BONNER, 1950). In contrast to this, the ammonium salt addition tended to decrease the R.Q. value, e.g. 1.01-1.05 before addition compared to 0.92-0.97 nine hours after ammonium salt plus sugar addition.

(vi) The roots of the full-grown maize plant grown in a Woodford and Gregory solution (Table 11, last experiment) produced, in response to nitrate plus sugar addition, the same respiratory increase as roots of nitrogen-starved maize plants. Therefore, it can be concluded that these full-grown maize plants had become to some degree nitrogen-deficient on this Woodford and Gregory solution.

III. The effect of NH_4^+ -bearing ion exchange resins on the root respiration of nitrogen-starved maize plants

LUNDEGÅRDH (1933) suggested in his "anion respiration" hypothesis that respiratory increase is linked to the absorption of anions only. In the experiments collected in Table 8, it was demonstrated that the addition of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ produced a respiratory increase, but that the addition of a equimolar amount of K_2SO_4 did not effect the respiration. This result indicates that NH_4^+ ions alone are responsible for this respiratory increase. Because this conclusion is at variance with Lundegårdh's "anion respiration" theory, a more direct proof was desirable.

Synthetic ion exchangers, bearing exchangeable mineral ions, offer

a means of exposing plant roots to absorbable ions in the absence of absorbable ions of opposite sign. For the same purpose, JENNY and COWAN (1933) used natural clays in an experiment on the calciumhydrogen ion exchange in soya bean plants (Chapter I, § 2). Recently, EPSTEIN (1954) used the synthetic ion exchange resins XE-97 and Dowex 50 to perform experiments on the respiration of excised barley roots in response to the addition of the potassium or calcium form of these resins.

In the present study, the synthetic cation exchangers Amberlite IR-120 and Amberlite IRC-50 were used. Amberlite IR-120 is a strong-acid exchanger which consists of cross-linked polystyrene with the functional $-SO_2OH$ group, whereas Amberlite IRC-50 is a weak-acid exchanger composed of cross-linked methacrylic acid with the functional -COOH group. All resins used were of Analytical Grade.

TABLE 12

Respiration rates of excised roots of maize plants, pretreated with nitrogen-free Long Ashton solution, in response to the addition of NH_4^+ , Na^+ or H^+ form of Amberlite IR-120 ion exchange resin. Roots were suspended in distilled water. Respiration rate was measured for 8 consecutive hours. Resin was added 3 hours after the start of the experiment. Concentrations apply to the final suspensions after resin addition.

| Set | Addition | I | Respiration rate during 7 consecutive hours in cu.mm O ₂ /hr/mg dr.wt roots | | | | | | | |
|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | |
| 3 4 | <i>Na⁺form</i> (control) 100 m.e.Na ⁺ /L 150 m.e. ,, Mean % | 5.65 1.56 3.61 <i>100</i> | 5.61 1.71 3.66 <i>101</i> | 5.46 1.76 3.61 <i>100</i> | 5.30 1.37 3.34 <i>93</i> | 5.26 1.67 3.47 <i>9</i> 6 | 4.99 1.54 3.27 <i>91</i> | 5.24 1.56 3.40 <i>94</i> | | |
| 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 4 | \mathcal{NH}_4 +form 50 m.e. NH_4/L . 100 m.e. 150 m.e. 00 m.e. 100 m.e. | 4.53 4.18 3.84 2.61 2.42 2.49 1.90 2.29 2.65 5.03 2.14 3.10 | 4.48 4.18 3.88 2.48 2.32 1.88 2.27 2.60 4.80 2.17 3.04 | 4.33 4.00 3.53 2.56 2.34 2.37 1.88 2.25 2.54 4.64 2.18 2.97 | 4.49 4.36 4.21 3.05 2.75 2.92 2.51 2.95 3.14 5.49 2.55 3.49 | 4.20 4.31 3.94 2.69 2.53 2.72 2.20 2.61 3.01 5.28 2.58 3.28 | 3.99 4.26 3.93 2.70 2.61 2.68 2.27 2.65 2.92 5.07 2.39 3.22 | 3.64 4.21 3.62 2.50 2.47 2.64 2.25 2.53 2.96 5.02 2.44 3.12 | | |
| 1 1 1 | % resp. increase H ⁺ form 50 m.e. H ⁺ /L 100 m.e. " 150 m.e. " Mean % resp. decrease | 3.94 4.06 3.99 4.00 104 | 3.98 4.18 3.96 4.04 <i>105</i> | 3.78 4.02 3.74 3.85 100 | 3.34 3.31 3.18 3.28 <i>85</i> <i>8</i> | 110 14 3.15 3.11 3.00 3.09 80 16 | 108 17 3.03 3.04 2.84 2.97 77 14 | 105 11 2.77 2.82 2.68 2.76 72 22 | | |

TABLE 13

Respiration rates of excised roots of maize plants, pretreated with nitrogen-free Long Ashton solution, in response to the addition of NH₄⁺, Na⁺ or H⁺form of Amberlite IRC-50 ion exchange resin. Roots were suspended in distilled water. Respiration rate was measured for 8 consecutive hours. Resin was added 3 hours after the start of the experiment. Concentrations apply to the final suspensions after resin addition.

| Set | Addition | R | espirati. in cu | on rate | during hours /hr/mg | 7 cons dr.wt i | ecutive roots | |
|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | с. С | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4 4 | <i>Na⁺form</i> (control) 100 m.e. Na ⁺ /L 150 m.e. ,, Mean % | 2.05 2.36 2.21 <i>105</i> | 2.18 2.19 2.19 <i>104</i> | 1.98 2.23 2.11 <i>100</i> | 1.91 2.05 1.98 <i>9</i> 4 | 1.86 1.99 1.93 <i>91</i> | 1.79 1.90 1.85 <i>88</i> | 1.55 1.68 1.62 <i>77</i> |
| 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 4 4 | $\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{NH}_4 + form \\ 50 \text{ m.e. } \mathrm{NH}_4 + / \mathrm{L} & . & . \\ 100 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ 150 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ 50 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ 50 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ 200 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ 200 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ 300 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ 400 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ 100 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ 100 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ 150 \text{ m.e. } & , & . & . \\ \end{array}$ | 4.32 4.67 4.09 2.53 3.12 2.15 2.37 2.13 2.67 2.39 2.57 3.00 | 4.05 4.46 3.80 2.29 2.84 1.95 2.40 2.03 2.62 2.64 2.51 2.87 | 3.74 4.24 3.43 2.08 2.72 1.88 2.15 1.85 2.39 2.57 2.42 2.68 | 4.14 4.77 3.99 2.46 3.34 2.62 3.03 2.66 3.42 3.00 3.05 3.32 | 3.97 4.58 3.75 2.38 3.08 2.29 2.67 2.36 3.13 2.98 2.88 3.10 | 3.71 4.45 3.64 2.24 2.98 2.14 2.55 2.25 2.86 2.72 2.69 2.93 | 3.74 4.29 3.60 2.27 2.89 2.12 2.58 2.23 2.80 2.60 2.56 2.88 |
| 1 1 1 | % resp. increase H+form 50 m.e. H+/L 100 m.e. ,, 150 m.e. ,, Mean % | 112 3.22 3.49 4.13 3.61 108 | 107 3.29 3.45 4.02 3.59 108 | 100 3.03 3.30 3.67 3.33 100 | 124 30 3.06 3.14 3.69 3.30 99 | 116 25 2.84 2.89 3.45 3.06 <i>92</i> | 109 21 2.72 2.75 3.13 2.87 86 | 107 30 2.49 2.55 2.97 2.67 80 |

The NH_4^+ and Na^+ forms of each resin were prepared by percolating the H⁺form in a column with 1 N NH_4OH or 1 N NaOH. The resins were then washed thoroughly to remove the excess NH_4^+ or Na^+ ions, dried, and ground to powder in a porcelain ball mill. The powdered resin was passed through a copper sieve with a mesh width of about 60μ . The sifted resin was put into the side arm of the respiration flask and tipped in after the basic respiration rate had been measured for 3 hours.

The NH_4^+ content of the resins was measured with the micro Kjeldahl and boric acid procedure described above (§ 2). Amberlite IR-120 and Amberlite IRC-50 whensaturated with NH_4^+ ions contained 3.5 and 2.5 m.e. NH_4^+ per g dry weight resin, respectively. The various NH_4^+ concentrations administered in the experiments were obtained by adding accurately weighed amounts of resin to the distilled water in the respiration flask. In the experiments described below, the effect of the NH_4^+ , Na^+ , and H⁺form of these two resins on the respiration of nitrogen-starved maize roots was studied. The H⁺forms of these resins showed a low pH in distilled water. For Amberlite IR-120 this pH = 2.5-3.0, whereas a suspension of Amberlite IRC-50 had a pH = \pm 4.0. When thoroughly washed, the NH_4^+ and Na^+ saturated forms had a pH = 6.0-6.5.

In these experiments four different sets of maize plants were used. Sets 1, 2, 3 and 4 consisted of maize plants aged 10.5 (27/5-10/8.55), 11.5 (27/5-17/8.55), 12 (22/6-16/9.55) and 16 (27/5-16/9.55) weeks, respectively. In the same sequence, these sets of plants were treated with a L.A.-N solution for 12, 19, 26 and 49 days previous to the experiment.



Fig. 6. The effect of the addition of NH_4^+ , Na^+ , or H^+ form of Amberlite IR-120 and Amberlite IRC-50 ion exchange resins on the root respiration rate of excised roots of nitrogen-starved maize plants.

From the results in Tables 12 and 13 (see also Fig. 6), it is clear that the addition of NH_4^+ -bearing resin produced a marked respiratory increase. Because the resin suspensions used may be called one-ion NH_4^+ solutions, the respiratory response can only be due to NH_4^+ ion uptake. Hence, according to the terminology of LUNDEGÅRDH (1933), we can speak of a "cation respiration".

In Amberlite IR-120, the NH_4^+ form produced a respiratory increase

of 11-25 % above the rate after the addition of the Na⁺form (control), whereas the H+form gave a respiratory decrease of 8-22 %. In Amberlite IRC-50, the addition of the NH_4 +form gave 21-30 % respiratory increase compared to the response after the addition of the Na⁺form (control). The addition of the H⁺form of the latter resin produced a decrease of 1-2 %. The respiratory decrease observed in response to the addition of the H+form of these resins may be caused by an injurious effect of low pH on the root. Therefore, it is understandable that this decrease was much more pronounced after the addition of the H+form of the strong-acid exchanger Amberlite IR-120 than after the addition of the H+form of the weak-acid exchanger Amberlite IRC-50. The respiratory increase in response to the addition of the NH_4 form is lower in Amberlite IR-120 than in Amberlite IRC-50. This effect may be caused by the fact that the adsorbed NH_4^+ ions have a lower exchangeability in the strong-acid exchanger than in the weak-acid exchanger. In a special experiment with NH_4^+ -bearing ion exchangers, measurements were made both of the amount of absorbed NH₄+ions and the amount of oxygen consumed above the control level.

These results are presented in Table 14.

TABLE 14

| Resin | р | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|--|--|
| | respirator above con | y increase atrol level | NH4 ⁺ uptake | ratio $\frac{NH_4^+ \text{ uptake}}{\text{Resp. increase}}$ | |
| | in μ LO ₂ | in μ .e. O ₂ | $-$ in μ .e. | | |
| Amberlite IR-120 100 m.e. NH ₄ +/L 150 m.e. ,, | 3.48 1.81 | 0.155 0.081 | 0.754 0.615 | 4.9 7.6 | |
| Amberlite IRC-50 100 m.e. NH ₄ +/L 150 m.e. ,, | 2.31 2.73 | 0.103 0.122 | 0.635 0.605 | 6.2 5.0 | |
| Mean | 2.58 | 0.115 | 0.652 | 5.9 | |

Ratio between respiratory increase above control level after resin addition and the amount of ammonium ions absorbed in 4-hour experiments with NH_4 +-bearing ion exchange resins. Roots were suspended in distilled water.

Table 14 shows that the ratio between NH_4^+ ion absorption and extra O₂ consumption varies from 4.9 to 7.6 with an average of 5.9. SYRETT (1953 a, b) found linear a relationship between respiration rate and ammonia uptake in nitrogen-starved *Chlorella* cells. From his Fig. 5 (1953a), a ratio of 1.4 between NH_3 uptake and the extra oxygen consumption was calculated. This ratio is higher in maize roots than in *Chlorella* cells.

IV. The effect of phosphate on the root respiration of phosphate-starved maize plants

The effect of phosphate on the root respiration of phosphate-starved maize plants was studied in order to obtain additional evidence of a correlation between deficiency and respiratory response.

Phosphate deficiency could not be produced by transferring maize plants grown on a L.A. solution to L.A.-P solution, because these plants had a phosphate reserve due to surplus phosphate absorption in the preceding period. Nevertheless, phosphate deficiency was produced by raising maize seedlings in sand cultures which were periodically drained with L.A. solution with one of the following dilutions of its phosphate content: 0 P, 1/300 P, 1/100 P, 1/30 P and 1/10 P. The development of the plants treated with the four lowest phosphate concentrations was checked rather early. The plants treated with 1/10 P were only 50 cm high after about 10 weeks and also showed severe phosphate-deficiency symptoms. The roots of these plants were freed from sand by washing with L.A.-P solution, excised, and suspended in L.A.-P solution in the respiration flasks.

TABLE 15

Respiration rates of excised roots of phosphate-starved maize plants in response to the addition of phosphate. Roots were suspended in phosphate-free Long Ashton nutrient solution. Respiration rate was measured for 8 consecutive hours. Phosphate or L.A.-P (control) solution was added 3 hours after the start of the experiment. Concentrations are the final values after salt addition.

| Addition | Respiration rate during 8 consecutive hours in cu.mm O2/hr/mg dr.wt roots | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|--|---|---|--|---|---|--|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | |
| L.A.–P (control) % | 1.42 <i>92</i> | 1.50 <i>97</i> | 1.54 <i>100</i> | 1.58 <i>103</i> | 1.60 <i>104</i> | 1.65 <i>107</i> | 1.68 <i>109</i> | 1.70 <i>110</i> | |
| 0.005 M NaH ₂ PO ₄ 0.01 M " 0.02 M " Mean % resp. increase | 0.76 0.88 1.43 1.02 <i>86</i> | 0.89 1.04 1.51 1.15 <i>97</i> | 0.91 1.08 1.54 1.18 <i>100</i> | 1.25 1.49 2.05 1.60 <i>136</i> <i>33</i> | 1.35 1.49 1.99 1.61 <i>136</i> <i>32</i> | 1.44 1.57 2.04 1.68 <i>142</i> 35 | 1.39 1.56 2.03 1.66 <i>141</i> <i>32</i> | 1.42 1.54 2.16 1.71 <i>145</i> <i>35</i> | |

These phosphate-deficient roots showed a respiration rate of only 20–30 % of sand-cultured control plants. The addition of phosphate to the phosphate-deficient roots gave a respiratory increase of 32–35 % above the response to the addition of L.A.-P solution (Table 15). Of the salts tested (NaH₂PO₄, NaCl, Na₂SO₄, NaNO₃), only NaH₂PO₄ gave a respiratory response.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

§ 1. Relation between rate of ammonium ion uptake and ammonium ion concentration; properties of the first binding

In this and the following paragraph, the results of Chapter II and III are discussed. Experiments with intact maize plants showed that the relation between the rate of NH_4^+ -ion uptake and NH_4^+ concentration gives a rectangular hyperbola as presented in Fig. 2 (p. 29). This curve shows some resemblance to an adsorption curve, *e.g.* an adsorption isotherm according to the equations of Freundlich or Langmuir. In order to check as to which of the two equations agrees better with the data obtained, a comparison was made with both isotherms.

According to Freundlich's adsorption isotherm, the relation between the rate of ion uptake (u) and the external ion concentration (c) can be expressed by the formula:

$$u = k.c^{1/n}$$
 (cf. Kruyt, 1946).

Whether or not the data obtained fit this equation can be readily seen by plotting them logarithmically. According to Freundlich's isotherm, a straight line (log $u = \log k + 1/n \log c$) should be obtained. The data are represented logarithmically in Fig. 7.



Fig. 7. Relation between log. ammonium ion concentration and log. relative rate of ammonium ion uptake, at pH = 6.0, 20° C.

From this graph, it appears that at sufficiently low NH_4^+ concentrations the rate of NH_4^+ -ion uptake follows Freundlich's curve (*i.e.* gives a straight line), but this is not the case at higher NH_4^+ concentrations. At the higher NH_4^+ concentrations the exponent 1/n of the Freundlich equation is no longer constant, but gradually decreases to zero. This suggests that at the higher NH_4^+ concentrations a saturation of the adsorbent (carrier system) is reached. Such a phenomenon is wellknown in adsorption reactions.

An adsorption curve which shows a saturation effect at the higher concentrations is represented by Langmuir's isotherm. Moreover, Langmuir's adsorption equation has a theoretical foundation, whereas Freundlich's adsorption isotherm is only an empirical expression. Langmuir's adsorption isotherm can be represented by the formula:

$$q = \frac{p.c}{c+k}$$
 (cf. Kruyt, 1946),

where q = amount bound carrier, p = total amount carrier, c = ion concentration and k = a constant. In relation to ion uptake, the asymptotical course of this curve can be explained by assuming a binding of NH₄+ions to a limited number of active sites or carriers in the protoplasm. This carrier hypothesis, and the likelihood for a first binding on the outer side of the protoplasm, are discussed in Chapter I.

Because the relative rate of ion uptake can be considered to be proportional to the amount of bound carrier (picture of the revolving belt), the Langmuir equation can also be applied to ion uptake. The revolving belt picture does not necessarily imply a spatial removal of ions from the outside surface, it might equally well represent a removal by a chemical (enzyme) reaction. In fact, Langmuir's equation is frequently applied to describe the velocity of enzyme reactions (cf. UMBREIT et al., 1948) in which the Michaelis-Menten enzyme constant (k) is comparable to that ion concentration at which half the limiting absorption rate is found. This concentration we will call the "half value" concentration. Evidently, at this concentration the hypothetical carrier system is loaded with ions to half its maximal capacity.

The formula of the Langmuir equation shows that the relation between the reciprocal uptake (:1/q) and the reciprocal concentration (1/c) is linear. Therefore, if they agree with Langmuir's equation, the reciprocal values of the data should fit a straight line. This was checked by determining the line of best fit, which is shown in Fig. 8.

In the calculation of the linear regression line, the values obtained under standard conditions (Chapter II, § 6) were not incorporated, because they had been used for the calculation of the relative uptake values. This treatment was satisfactory since it is chiefly the points at low ion concentration, *i.e.* in the bend of the hyperbolic curve, which determine the slope of the regression line. It appeared that the NH_4^{+-} ion uptake values near the saturation level deviated from this regression line by a statistically significant amount, whereas at the lower NH_4^+ concentrations the distribution of the points along the line was normal and thus agreed with a linear regression.

As illustrated in Fig. 8, there is a distinct bend in the line at the higher concentrations. Thus it can be concluded that the uptake-concentration curve for NH_4^+ lies between a Freundlich and a Langmuir equation.

Freundlich's isotherm does not fit the data well, because at the higher NH_4^+ concentrations the uptake was lower. On the other hand, Langmuir's isotherm does not fit completely either, because at the higher concentrations there was no absolute saturation effect, since there was still a small increase in NH_4^+ -ion uptake at increased NH_4^+ concentrations. An explanation of the latter phenomenon can be

derived from VAN DEN HONERT'S (1954) work. He observed that salt uptake in potato storage tissue did not show a saturation effect at higher ion concentrations, but the uptake continually increased till a very high concentration was reached. This "potato effect" was explained as an accumulation of salt by progressively deeper cell layers. A slight potato effect may have caused the increased NH_4^+ -ion uptake at higher NH_4^+ concentrations observed in maize roots. If we assume that the deviation from Langmuir's curve (*i.e.* no saturation value)



Fig. 8. Relation between reciprocal values of ammonium ion concentration and relative rate of ammonium ion uptake, at pH = 6.0, 20° C.

at the higher ion concentrations is due to participation of deeper cell layers in the ion uptake process, then it may be concluded that if it was possible to measure the ion uptake at the root surface, the ion uptake values would correspond better to Langmuir's equation than to Freundlich's equation.

Such a Langmuir isotherm could be characterized by its "half value" concentration. This half value concentration, as computed from the linear regression line, is 0.23 ± 0.02 p.p.m. NH₄⁺ at a pH = 6.0 and root temperature of 20° C. The half value concentration would then correspond to the NH₄⁺ concentration at which the revolving belt is loaded to half its loading capacity. Another charac-

teristic feature is the saturation value, which is almost reached at the rather low NH_4^+ concentration of 10 p.p.m. The half value virtually determines the shape of the ion uptake-concentration curve, and thus gives some information about the nature of the ion uptake process and the properties of the assumed carriers. It may be emphasized that this and similar information has been obtained indirectly by merely changing the environmental conditions of the roots of *intact* maize plants.

VAN DEN HONERT et al. (1955, unpublished), working with maize in static water cultures and short experimental periods, found a half value concentration which was about 6 times as high (*i.e.* 1.4 p.p.m. NH_{4}^{+}) as the value found in the present study with flowing-water cultures. With the constant-flow water culture technique used in this study, a new steady state took as much as 24 hours to become established. It may therefore be possible that long-period experiments with the flowing-water culture technique allow a better unloading of the "revolving belt" inside the cell, whereas in short-time experiments the revolving belt will return partly loaded to the outside. This would imply a lower rate of ion uptake, especially at the lower ion concentrations. The latter phenomenon might also be expressed as an aftereffect of the preceding "high-salt" condition of the root tissue involved in the subsequent measurement of the rate of ion uptake (cf. HOAGLAND et al., 1944). Helder (1952, Fig. 5) showed a similar change in half value concentration for the phosphate uptake by maize plants in connexion with the external supply of sugar to the roots. EPSTEIN and HAGEN (1952), applying the reciprocal values of Langmuir's equation, observed for the rubidium ion uptake by excised barley roots quite different half value concentrations. They attributed these deviations in the various experiments to differences in hereditary factors and pretreatment of the barley strains used.

VAN DEN HONERT *et al.* (1954) observed that the NH_4^+ -ion uptake by maize roots is to a great extent unaffected by the presence and uptake of other ion species. This suggests a very specific binding between carrier and NH_4^+ ions.

As shown in Fig. 3 (p. 30), the NH_4^+ -ion uptake-concentration curve obtained at pH = 4.6 is equal to that found at pH = 6.0.

This suggests that the carrier-ammonium ion binding is not influenced by a hydrogen ion concentration of $10^{-4.6}$ M. At a pH = 4.0, a much lower NH₄⁺-ion uptake was observed. However, the significance of this result is very doubtful in view of the injurious effect of this low pH on the root. Evidence pointing in the same direction is the inhibition of root respiration at low pH values (Chapter III, III).

VAN DEN HONERT et al. (1955, unpublished) found that at high pH values there is not only an active ammonium ion uptake but also a passive molecular ammonia diffusion, proportional to the concentration of free ammonia available. Experiments at higher pH values were not performed, since passive ammonia uptake was not the subject of this investigation.

§ 2. The hydrogen ion release in relation to ammonium ion uptake

In Fig. 2 (p. 29), the quantitative relation between hydrogen ion release and ammonium ion uptake is given. This Figure shows, at concentrations below 3 p.p.m. NH_4^+ , a NH_4^+ - H^+ exchange in the ratio of practically 1 : 1, whereas at NH_4^+ concentrations above 3 p.p.m. the H⁺-ion release is about 80 % of the NH_4^+ -ion uptake. At still higher NH_4^+ -concentrations, up to 20 p.p.m., this ratio tends to decrease further to about 70 %.

As already stated in Chapter II, the base-excess determination for H^+ -ion release actually measures the net effect between cation and anion uptake. A H^+ -ion release equivalent to the NH_4^+ -ion uptake, as observed in the present study at low NH_4^+ concentrations, clearly suggests that the NH_4^+ -ion uptake is independent of the anion uptake. This is in contradiction to Lundegårdh's "anion respiration" hypothesis (see Chapter V). An exchange of 80 % H^+ ions for NH_4^+ ions indicates that an appreciable anion uptake is involved, *i.e.* an anion uptake equivalent to 20 % of the NH_4^+ -ion uptake. In the present experiments increased NH_4^+ -ion concentrations were obtained by introducing more ammonium salt to the nutrient solution. Therefore, a decrease in the ratio of the NH_4^+ -H⁺ exchange at the higher NH_4^+ -ion concentrations can be explained by an ever-increasing anion uptake, while the NH_4^+ -ion uptake has already reached its saturation value.

In the NH₄+-ion uptake-concentration curve at pH = 4.6, a few H+-ion release figures are plotted. As far as can be judged from these six points, no difference can be observed in the H+-ion release between pH = 4.6 and pH = 6.0 (compare Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). This evidence seems acceptable, because the NH₄+-ion uptake is also unaffected by a pH = 4.6. Even at pH = 4.0, where there is a profound inhibition of NH₄+-ion uptake due to root damage, the ratio between NH₄+-ion uptake and H+-ion release was not found to be changed (data not given).

In Table 4 (p. 33), the ratio between H⁺-ion release and NH₄⁺-ion uptake is given for one batch of maize plants at different ages. These figures demonstrate that in vigorously growing maize plants (early September) this ratio is about 85 % at the higher NH₄⁺concentrations. This ratio is consistent with that formerly obtained (see Fig. 2). However, a month later (early October), the ratio decreased to 75 % and three weeks later (late October) a ratio of only 32 % was reached. Hence, in addition to the evidence that in older plants the NH₄⁺-ion uptake decreases (Chapter III), there is also a considerable change in the ratio between H⁺-ion release and NH₄⁺-ion uptake.

This evidence can be explained by a less selective ion uptake, *i.e.* the entrance of NH_4^+ ions together with anions. This suggestion is consistent with results of BROVER and HOAGLAND (1943), where—in contrast to young barley roots—a more passive permeability for both ions of salts was observed in older barley roots.

Nevertheless, a closer examination of the H+-ion decrease in the

present experiments with intact maize roots showed that the anion uptake was not appreciably increased. This effect was found to be due to a distinct K^+ -ion release by the roots, even as much as 1-2 p.p.m. K⁺ /hour per plant. Thus in older maize roots there was a considerable exchange of NH_4^+ ions for K⁺ ions, while in vigorously growing plants K⁺ release was negligible. LUTTKUS and BÖTTICHER (1939), HUMPHRIES (1950, 1951, 1952), etc. also state that potassium is easily released by roots. In these experiments with maize roots a K+-ion release occuring simultaneously with a Na+-ion uptake was noted. This is in agreement with observations of Scott and HAYWARD (1954) in Ulva lactuca and COWIE et al. (1949) in Escherichia coli, where separate mechanisms regulating potassium ion and sodium ion uptake were suggested. A phenomenon like the $NH_4^+-K^+$ exchange in older maize roots was observed by JACOBSON and ORDIN (1954) in the older roots of Romaine lettuce. According to these investigators, as much as 84 % of the K^+ -ions taken up from a KHCO₃ solution by these roots was exchanged for Ca++ions and Mg++ ions. However, in barley seedling roots, during K+-ion uptake, a K+-H+ exchange was predominantly observed.

It must be emphasized that one should be careful not to confuse the exchange reactions at root surfaces, which can be measured as static equilibria in experiments such as those of WILLIAMS and COLEMAN (1950), with an ion-binding to a carrier system. Most probably the adsorption found in these experiments had nothing to do with a carrier system, because acid groups of pectin substances in the cell walls may have been involved. Nor does it follow from a H⁺-ion release equivalent to NH₄⁺-ion uptake, that this phenomenon is merely based on an ion exchange reaction comparable to that in ion exchange resins as suggested, for instance, by JACOBSON *et al.* (1950). It may be equally possible that an enzymatic binding reaction is the first step in NH₄⁺-ion absorption, as discussed in Chapter II. This view is not so extraordinary, since enzymes have been shown to be active in cell surfaces (cf. ROTHSTEIN and MEIER (1948), and STREET and Lowe (1950).

Also, the H⁺-ion release could be much more intimately linked to metabolism than would be evident at first sight. Metabolically active plants showed a far greater H⁺-ion release than older plants. Moreover, as the protoplasm has only a small buffer capacity towards the alkaline side (cf. BURSTRÖM, 1945), a continuous large-scale release of H⁺ ions must be counterbalanced by a special metabolic production of H⁺ ions. Therefore, in the opinion of the present author, not only is the NH₄⁺-ion uptake a metabolically-linked active process, but the H⁺ ions also seem to be metabolically produced.

§ 3. THE EFFECT OF SALTS—ESPECIALLY AMMONIUM SALTS—ON ROOT RESPIRATION; THE EVIDENCE OF A "CATION-INDUCED RESPIRATION"

As is well-known, Hoagland's "low-salt, high-sugar" roots had a much greater capacity for ion absorption than his "high-salt, lowsugar" roots. Therefore, a certain degree of salt deficiency seems to be essential for a high salt uptake. The same phenomenon holds for storage tissue where such a deficiency may be obtained by prolonged washing of the tissue disks with distilled water or running tap water, as shown by STEWARD *et al.* (1943) and SUTCLIFFE (1952, 1954 *a*, *b*). Steward *et al.* observed that a longer washing time produced a greater intake of bromide in a given time. This enhanced absorption due to prolonged washing of the tissue has been demonstrated by other workers, *e.g.* ASPREY (1937), STILES and DENT (1946), and REES (1949). In the same way, SUTCLIFFE (1952) demonstrated that the initial rate of potassium ion uptake in red beet root storage tissue was a function of its salt and solute deficit created by protracted washing.

In "salt respiration" experiments, LUNDEGÅRDH et al. (1933) gave their wheat roots a pretreatment of 24 hours in distilled water, and ROBERTSON et al. (1948b) their carrot storage tissue a washing with running tap water of as much as 120–350 hours. The treatment with distilled water is an indispensable prerequisite for a measurable respiratory response. The pretreatment used by Lundegårdh and Robertson in their respiration experiments very probably created a "low-salt" condition in the tissue by either the removal of salt to the shoot or leakage from the tissue to the medium. It might well be that a "lowsalt" condition in these tissues is not only a requisite for rapid salt uptake but also for respiratory response. Indeed, SUTCLIFFE (1952) demonstrated that the salt-induced cyanide-sensitive component of respiration was the more conspicuous the longer the tissues were pretreated with distilled water.

HOAGLAND et al. (1936, 1939, 1940, 1944) and STEWARD et al. (1936, 1937, 1940, 1943) have given evidence that a "low-salt" condition is connected with a low metabolic status of the tissue involved. Therefore, it seems reasonable to expect a similar connexion between metabolic status and "salt respiration". The question arises as to whether salt deficiency is a requisite for "salt respiration". In this case a respiratory response could be expected only after a supplement of the deficient ion, whereas other ion species would have no influence on the respiration rate. This question is treated in the experiments described in Chapter III.

The addition of ammonium salts to maize roots in "high-salt, highsugar" condition, *i.e.* maize radicles, did not result in an increase of the rate of root respiration (Table 5), probably because of the high nitrogen content of these roots. However, roots of 16-week old maize seedlings, previously grown in a Long Ashton nutrient solution, show a pronounced increase (12–27 %) in root respiration rate to a supplement of ammonium salts after a starvation period of 2–7 days in a very dilute calcium sulfate solution (Table 6). Distilled-water pretreatment was not used in these experiments because it proved to be injurious to the roots. A similar increase of root respiration due to ammonium salt addition is also produced by a pretreatment in a Long Ashton minus N nutrient solution (Table 7). In the experiment presented in Table 8 it was observed that $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ and not an equimolar quantity K_2SO_4 gave a respiratory increase. Evidently, anion (*i.e.* SO_4^-) uptake was not responsible for the increased root respiration rate, but NH_4^+ ion uptake alone (Table 8). As will be discussed later (Chapter V and VI) this result is not consistent with Lundegårdh's "anion respiration" hypothesis.

In the preceding experiments, the root respiration was measured in distilled water prior to the addition of salt. In the next experiments, the nitrogen-deficient roots were suspended in the respiration flasks in a Long Ashton minus N nutrient solution. In this way, a specific respiratory response to ammonium salt addition was demonstrated, because many other nutrient salts were already available to the roots (Table 9). Moreover, the general effect of nitrogen salts in the case of nitrogen-starvation was observed, since nitrate had a similar effect on the respiration rate (Table 9). In contrast to the supply of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ or NaNO₃, no respiratory effect was produced by the addition of either Na₂SO₄ or K₂SO₄. A very small respiratory increase in response to the addition of NaCl was observed in these nitrogen-starved roots (Table 9).

It is noteworthy that the respiratory increase due to nitrate addition rose much more slowly than the increase produced by ammonium salt addition. This is probably due in part to the relatively slower rate of nitrate uptake compared to ammonium ion uptake, and in part to different pathways of nitrate and ammonium nitrogen in metabolism. However, the increased respiration induced by nitrate was maintained much longer than that in response to ammonium salt addition. A possible explanation is that maize roots are better adapted to nitrate nutrition than to ammonium nutrition.

Experiments with roots exclusively grown in a Long Ashton nutrient solution were also performed for comparison with the experiments with nitrogen-starved maize roots. These roots were suspended in a Long Ashton nutrient solution. The addition of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ showed a very small (2-5 %) respiratory increase, whereas the addition of NaNO₃ and NaCl did not affect the respiratory rate. However, the addition of K₂SO₄ gave a decrease of root respiration rate (Table 9).

The addition of sugars, with or without the simultaneous addition of ammonium salts and nitrates, was studied in normal roots and nitrogen-starved roots. In the normal roots there was a slight increase of the respiration after the addition of ammonium salts (Table 10). In these roots a considerable increase (50-65 %) of the root respiration rate was observed after the addition of sugar. The rise of respiration rate due to the addition of sugar by itself reached a level equal to that of sugar combined with ammonium salt (Table 10). This evidence indicates that the normal (Long Ashton) roots required sugar rather than ammonium salts for increasing their respiration rate.

In nitrogen-starved maize roots suspended in nitrogen-free Long Ashton solution, a respiratory increase of 20 % in response to ammonium salt addition was observed (Table 10). In contrast to the effect on normal roots, the addition of sugar alone did *not* give a large increase in the respiratory rate: after ten hours a respiratory increase of only about 40 % was observed. The addition of sugar combined with either ammonium salt or nitrate, however, increased the respiration rate of these roots 110 % and 140 % respectively (Table 11). Here again, as in the case of the addition of nitrate alone, the addition of sugar combined with nitrate gave a slower increase in respiration rate than the corresponding addition of sugar combined with ammonium salt. However, the respiration increase due to the addition of sugar combined with nitrate reached a higher final level than that of sugar combined with ammonium salt, *i.e.* with nitrate 140 % against 110 % with ammonium salt (Table 11). This suggests once more a better utilization of nitrate nitrogen than ammonium nitrogen by maize roots. Moreover, the change in respiratory quotient (CO_2/O_2) observed indicates that nitrate as well as ammonium ions were involved in metabolism. In the nitrate experiment, the R.Q. increased from 0.88 to 1.23-1.25, whereas with ammonium salt addition the R.Q. decreased from 1.01-1.05 to 0.92-0.97 (Table 11).

Finally, experiments with synthetic ion exchange resins (Amberlites) were performed to demonstrate an ammonium ion uptake and respiration increase independent of the uptake of other ions. NH_4^+ -bearing resins were obtained by percolating the H⁺form of these resins in a column with NH_4OH solution. The NH_4^+ -containing resins, suspended in distilled water, can be regarded as a one-ion NH_4^+ solution, because the roots cannot absorb the large anions (particles) of the resin. The use of resins for obtaining a one-ion solution was adapted from the work of JENNY and COWAN (1933) with calcium-bearing clay particles in suspension, as mentioned in Chapter II, § 2. Moreover, similar experiments with synthetic ion exchange resins (Dowex 50 and XE-97) had already been performed by EPSTEIN (1954) for potassium and calcium ion uptake in barley roots. In the present experiments, the resins Amberlite IR-120 and IRC-50 were used.

The root respiration of nitrogen-starved maize roots showed an increase of 25 % and 30 %, respectively, in response to the addition of these NH_4^+ -bearing resins (Fig. 6, Tables 12 and 13). This respiratory increase was not influenced by the NH_4^+ concentrations (50–500 m.e./L) used, as can be seen in Tables 12 and 13. The smaller respiratory increase with Amberlite IR-120 is probably due to a lower exchangeability of ammonium ions on this strong-acid ion exchanger compared to the weak-acid ion exchanger Amberlite IRC-50. The addition of Na⁺-bearing resin to nitrogen-deficient roots gave no respiratory response, whereas the addition of the H⁺ form of these resins inhibited the respiration rate markedly, probably due to the injurious effect of these low pH's on the root (Tables 12 and 13).

Besides these experiments with nitrogen-starved roots, other experiments were performed with potassium- and phosphate-deficient roots in order to get a more general picture of the correlation between deficiency and "salt respiration".

POTASSIUM starvation produced a significant respiratory increase of about 21 % compared to that of normal plants (Table 8). This is in striking contrast to nitrogen deficiency, where a respiratory decrease of about 45 % was observed (Table 8). The addition of potassium salts decreased the enhanced respiration rate due to potassium starvation by 10 %. Therefore, the present results do not agree with observations of STEWARD et al. (1940, 1941, 1954) with potato storage tissue disks and those of EPSTEIN (1954) with barley roots, which showed an increased respiration rate in response to potassium ion uptake. No explanation of this discrepancy can be suggested. However, the present observation is supported by the work of GREGORY and RI-CHARDS (1929), RICHARDS (1932), and GREGORY and SEN (1937), which showed that potassium deficient barley leaves had an increased respiration compared to the respiration of normally dressed plants. MULDER (1955) found an increased respiration rate in tubers and storage tissue slices of potassium-deficient potato plants compared to that of fully potassium-fertilized potato plants grown on the same field. He concluded, however, that this effect was only due to the fact that potassiumdeficient and normal potato tissues differ in their sensitivity to bruising. PIRSON and SEIDEL (1950) observed a higher respiration rate in potassium-starved *Lemna minor* roots than in normal ones. The effect is also known in some algae. Pirson, Tichy and Wilhelmi (1952), and NEEB (1952) observed that potassium starvation induced a greater respiration rate in Ankistrodesmus and Hydrodictyon.

PHOSPHATE deficiency and its influence on root respiration in maize was also investigated. Phosphate-free pretreatments of maize plants previously grown in a Long Ashton nutrient solution did not produce phosphate deficiency. This may be explained by the assumption of an initial surplus phosphate uptake (cf. VAN DEN HONERT, 1933, for sugar cane). Phosphate-deficient maize plants were obtained by cultivation in sand cultures drained with low-phosphate or phosphate-free solutions. The excised phosphate-deficient roots, suspended in a Long Ashton minus P nutrient solution in the respiration flasks, showed a respiration rate of only 20-30 % of that of Long Ashton roots. Only phosphate salt addition produced a respiratory increase of 35 % above control. Other salts did not affect the respiration rate of phosphatestarved maize roots. A reduced respiration due to phosphate-starvation is also reported in oat leaves by PETRIE and WILLIAMS (1938). Here too, treatment with phosphate increased considerably the low initial respiration rate.

§ 4. Additional discussion of the literature on nitrogenstarvation and respiration

For the sake of clarity, a number of citations of literature were omitted in the preceding section and they will be briefly summarized here. Most of these investigations had results consistent with those of the present study reported in the previous section. GREGORY and RICHARDS (1929), RICHARDS (1932), and GREGORY

GREGORY and RICHARDS (1929), RICHARDS (1932), and GREGORY and SEN (1937) demonstrated a marked reduction of the respiration rate in nitrogen-starved barley leaves. PETRIE and WILLIAMS (1938) observed a low respiration rate in nitrogen-deficient Sudan grass leaves if respiration was computed per unit of dry matter. However, calculated on a protein basis, the nitrogen-deficient tissue showed considerably higher respiration values than normal tissue. Apparently this is due to the fact that in non-deficient plants a part of the protein was inactive in metabolism. Subsequent nitrogen treatment caused a marked respiration increase.

MULDER (1955) observed a small reduction in respiration rate in some experiments with tubers and storage tissue slices of nitrogendeficient potato plants. In some of his other experiments, however, tuber tissue from healthy and deficient plants showed no difference in respiration rate, although these potato plants had pronounced nitrogen-deficiency symptoms.

HAMNER (1936) found a low respiration rate in nitrogen-deficient wheat and tomato roots. The roots of these minus-nitrate plants showed a considerable increase in carbohydrate content, but were low in nitrate and soluble nitrogen content. Thus, the presence of carbohydrates alone does not necessarily imply an increased respiration rate. The addition of nitrates to the roots of these plants caused an increased root respiration. The greater the amount of reserve carbohydrates available, the more immediate the response and the greater in degree.

WHITE (1936) and WHITE and TEMPLEMAN (1937) reported for nitrogen-deficient Lemna minor plants an increased sugar content of the tissue due to the fact that nitrogen-starvation markedly affected the rate of development of new fronds, but did not reduce the rate of photosynthesis. The rate of respiration in the fronds was appreciably reduced. Subsequent addition of nitrogen salts increased the respiratory rate and decreased the sugar content of the tissue. It was noteworthy that the depression of respiration during nitrogen-starvation was only of the order of 25 %, whereas the rise in respiration rate, following transfer of a starved colony to a solution with full nutrient supply, was of the order of 300 %.

HOAGLAND et al. (1939, p. 1031; 1944, p. 142) observed that in excised barley roots the addition of nitrate and ammonium nitrogen produced a marked increase in respiration rate over that in distilled water. In some of his experiments ammonium nitrogen seemed to stimulate the rate of respiration to a greater extent than nitrate, although the latter also had an appreciable effect. WILLIS (1951), FOLKES, WILLIS and YEMM (1952), and WILLIS and YEMM (1955) consistently observed that in nitrogen-starved barley seedling roots the application of ammonium or nitrate salts produced a considerable stimulation of the respiration rate. From the graphs presented by WILLIS and YEMM (1955) it appeared, moreover, that the respiratory increase due to ammonium salt addition was faster than the increase due to nitrate addition. However, the respiration rate finally obtained in the case of ammonium nitrogen addition reached a lower level than that in response to nitrate addition. These observations are in agreement with the present results obtained with nitrogen-deficient maize roots, presented in Chapter III.

SYRETT (1953 a, b) observed in Chlorella pyrenoidosa that the addition

of ammonium sulfate increased the respiration rate markedly in nitrogen-starved cells. Glucose addition increased the respiration rate in these cells to some extent, but the respiration rate was further increased by combined glucose and ammonium nitrogen addition. The respiration rate then reached was much the same as when ammonium salt alone was added. The increased respiration rate continued only as long as ammonium nitrogen was being assimilated. A linear relationship between ammonium nitrogen assimilation and the rate of oxygen consumption was found (SYRETT, 1953 a, Fig. 5). This ratio was much lower than that observed in the present study with nitrogen-starved maize roots (Chapter III, Table 14).

YEMM and FOLKES (1954) reported that nitrogen-deficient food yeast, *Torulopsis utilis*, suspended under aerobic conditions in a carbohydratefree medium, responded rapidly to the addition of ammonium phosphate. Here too, the increased respiration rate was accompanied by ammonium nitrogen assimilation, and a close quantitative relationship between these two processes was demonstrated. Respiratory increases induced by ammonium ion uptake were also observed in some bacteria, *e.g. Serratia marcescens* (MCLEAN and FISHER, 1947, 1949), *Escherichia coli* (ARMSTRONG and FISHER, 1947) and some *Rhizobium* species (BURRIS and WILSON, 1952).

Recently AUSTIN (1955) demonstrated a respiratory stimulation in response to the addition of ammonium salt or nitrate combined with sugar in excised roots of barley seedlings. Ten hours subsequent to substrate addition, a respiratory increase of 40-45 % with ammonium sulfate and 60-65 % with potassium nitrate was observed. These values are rather low as compared with those of the present study in similar conditions and experimental time. In the present study with excised maize roots, a respiratory increase of 110 % and 140 % was obtained with ammonium salt and nitrate addition, respectively (Table 11). This suggests the possibility that the barley roots used by AUSTIN (1955) were insufficiently nitrogen-starved. Austin also observed an increase or a decrease of the respiratory quotient $(R.Q. = CO_2/O_2)$ in response to the supply of nitrate or ammonium nitrogen, respectively. WARBURG and NEGELEIN (1920), CRAMER and MYERS (1948), and DAVIS (1953) consistently found in Chlorella a R.Q. increase due to nitrate absorption. GILBERT and SHIVE (1945) found a similar R.Q. increase due to nitrate uptake by soya bean, oat, and tomato plants in water culture. A R.Q. decrease with ammonium nitrogen uptake and assimilation was demonstrated by SYRETT (1953 a, b) in Chlorella, and by YEMM and FOLKES (1954) in Torulopsis. The results of the present study (Table 11) are in agreement with the observations cited above, where a reverse shift of the respiratory quotient due to nitrate or ammonium nitrogen uptake was found.

WARBURG and NEGELEIN (1920), GILBERT and SHIVE (1945), and BONNER (1950) suggested that the extra output of carbon dioxide during nitrate uptake must be due to the fact that a part of the oxygen of the nitrate serves as a hydrogen accepter in respiration and substitutes for a portion of the free oxygen which would otherwise be consumed. However, another view may be equally valid. ULRICH (1941) observed that the respiratory quotient of young barley roots was influenced by selective ion uptake. When cations were absorbed in excess of anions, organic acids were formed to counteract an increase in pH of the root sap. Conversely, when anions were absorbed in excess of cations, organic acid anions tended to disappear, leaving the bases to balance the increase in inorganic anions. These shifts in organic acid content were reflected in the R.Q. values. The R.Q. value was less than one when organic acids were formed and greater than one when the organic acid content decreased. Therefore, a greater carbon dioxide production during nitrate uptake can be also associated with organic acid breakdown. The relation of organic acid metabolism to selective ion uptake is confirmed by the work of H.E. CLARK, (1936), VICKERY et al. (1940), MACHLIS (1944), BURSTRÖM (1945), and JACOBSON and ORDIN (1954).

§ 5. CONCLUSIONS

From the experiments, apart from any existing theory on ion uptake, the following conclusions can be drawn:

The experiments on the ammonium ion uptake in intact maize plants (Chapter II) suggest an active ammonium ion uptake independent of the uptake of other species of ions. Moreover, the results with excised roots (Chapter III) favour the concept of a "cation-induced respiration", i.e. an increased respiration rate due only to an active ammonium ion uptake. In addition, evidence was also obtained that in the case of nitrogen salt or phosphate uptake, a respiratory increase is only obtained when the tissue is deficient in these particular elements. Therefore, we have not only a specific ion uptake (Chapter II) but also a specific respiratory increase in response to the uptake of the ion in question. The present results tend to link the respiratory response to deficiency-influenced metabolism rather than to salt transport.

These conclusions, *i.e.* active ammonium ion uptake, cation respiration, and the connexion between salt respiration and salt deficiency in metabolism, are evidently inconsistent with Lundegårdh's "anion respiration" theory and more in agreement with Steward's views.

Because so much research work has been based on Lundegårdh's important hypothesis, a closer examination of this hypothesis may be justified. This will be done in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

LUNDEGÅRDH'S "ANION RESPIRATION" HYPOTHESIS

§ 1. A CRITICAL SURVEY

Fundamentally, LUNDEGÅRDH'S (1933) hypothesis deals with anion uptake and transport coupled to electron transfer in the cytochromecytochrome oxidase system. This hypothesis in its original form emphasizes that only anion uptake is active, while the cations are passively moved along by the electrical gradient created by the anion transport. Consequently, such a mechanism will only accumulate anions and cations in equimolar quantities. Therefore, LUNDEGÅRDH (1949b, 1950b) can explain an excess cation uptake only by the assumption that "native anions", *i.e.* organic acid anions, are produced in the cytoplasm in amounts equivalent to the excess cation absorption. Moreover, the transport of anions coupled to electron transfer should in principle be non-specific, so anions of the same charge would be transported at equal rates. A summary of the evidence pro and contra this hypothesis may be helpful.

Supporting Lundegårdh's hypothesis are the following observations. Anion and cation uptake and transport are separate processes; evidence for this view seems well established. The surface membrane of living roots has a negative charge which will hamper anion uptake because of the repelling force of two similar charges. Therefore, energy has to be expended to overcome this force, while cation uptake is facilitated by the attraction of opposite charges. Accordingly, WANNER (1948) found high "metabolic" temperature coefficients for anion uptake and low non-chemical ones for cation uptake.

The observation that salt uptake is correlated with increased respiration seems to be well established (cf. LUNDEGÅRDH et al., 1933 etc.; ROBERTSON et al., 1940 etc.; HOAGLAND et al., 1944; STEWARD et al., 1932 etc.; VAN EIJK, 1939; SUTCLIFFE, 1952, 1954 a, b; LEWIS, 1955; and the present study). However, LUNDEGÅRDH (1933) made the distinct restriction that only anion uptake shows a relation to respiration; whereas according to him, cation uptake does not. This is the basis of Lundegårdh's "anion respiration" theory of anion transport in relation to a cytochrome-cytochrome oxidase system. This point of view is strongly supported by the evidence that salt accumulation is inhibited by cyanide, while a cyanide non-sensitive fraction of the respiration persists. From this, it can be concluded that only the cyanide-sensitive fraction of the aerobic respiration is related to ion uptake. This observation was confirmed by the work of ROBERTSON et al. (1945a, 1948b) and SUTCLIFFE (1952, 1954a, b). Other specific inhibitors of cytochrome oxydase-iron, e.g. CO (light reversible), NaN₃, NaF and α , α' -dipyridyl, have the same effect, as shown by LUNDEGÅRDH (1949b, 1954), ROBERTSON et al. (1948a), and STENLID (1950).

Moreover, ROBERTSON et al. (1948b) called attention to the fact that 4 electrons are required for the reduction of 1 molecule of oxygen, so that theoretically 4 anions will be transported for 1 molecule of oxygen consumed. Actually, Robertson, working with slices of carrot storage tissue, observed that the high value of 4 was approximated only at higher salt concentrations. This observation is thus consistent with Lundegårdh's hypothesis.

Against Lundegårdh's view, the following arguments may be cited. Although a correlation between ion uptake and respiration seems to be well established, Lundegårdh's statement that only the absorption of anions shows a relation to respiration is not justified, as even his own figures show. From his graphs LUNDEGÅRDH (1940, Fig. 19 and 20) concluded that anion uptake shows a linear relation to respiration and cation uptake does not. However, these graphs, reproduced here in Figures 9 and 10, show that he separated the anions according to their kind, but did not follow the same treatment for the cations.



Fig. 9. The relation between anion absorbed and CO₂ eliminated, after LUNDE-GARDH (1940, Fig. 19).



Fig. 10. The corresponding relation between cations absorbed and CO₂ eliminated, after LUNDEGÅRDH (1940, Fig. 20). The regression lines are drawn by the present author.

Therefore, it is reasonable that a more scattered picture is obtained for the cation relation than for the anion relation. If we compile all the data for different kinds of anions in one graph, we will obtain an analogously scattered picture, while if we separate the cations according to their species, as in Fig. 10, we get a picture similar to that obtained for the anions. Thus, Lundegårdh's figures give no evidence of an essential difference between anion and cation uptake in relation to respiration. It may be recalled that for some animal cells it has been proposed that there is an active movement of cations rather than anions (e.g. SOLOMON, 1952).

Moreover, following Lundegårdh's hypothesis, the k-values in his formula : $R_i = R_g + k.A$ (R_i = total respiration, R_g = ground respiration, A = anion uptake) will be the same for anions of the same charge, because only charge is the driving force in anion transfer. But Lundegårdh himself found different k-values for NO⁻₈ and Cl⁻
uptake, as demonstrated by the different slopes (slope = 1/k) of his linear regression lines for these ions (LUNDEGÅRDH, 1933, Fig. 3, pp. 242, 249-251; 1940, Fig. 19-21, pp. 316-317 and 1949, p. 383). However, the different k-values indicate a more specific anion uptake, a feature for which Lundegårdh's hypothesis leaves no room.

An acceptable explanation of the different slopes of the "anion uptake-respiration" regression lines, however, can be found. Lundegårdh gave for the k-values (*i.e.* rate of respiration/rate of ion uptake) in his formula for NO⁻₃, Cl⁻, and SO⁻₄ the ratio of 2 : 3 : 6. Accordingly, the slopes of the regression lines (*i.e.* 1/k = rate of ion uptake/ rate of respiration) were in the proportion of 1/2 : 1/3 : 1/6, *i.e.* of 3 : 2 : 1. Lundegårdh added that in the same material the relative absorption rates of NO⁻₃, Cl⁻, and SO⁻₄ were in the ratio of 3.7 :2.1 : 1. Therefore, the ratio of the quotient ion uptake/respiration and the ratio of relative absorption rates were approximately the same. Thus, the rate of respiration must have been about the same in each case, a suggestion strongly supported by the work of ROBERTSON *et al.* (1948*b*) and SUTCLIFFE (1952) which will be discussed later. The divergent slopes of the regression lines seem, therefore, mainly caused by the differential absorption rates of the ions involved.

A similar argument would explain the divergent slopes of the cation uptake-respiration regression lines computed from Lundegårdh's data (see Fig. 10). Here, the k-values for K⁺, Mg⁺⁺ and Ca⁺⁺ were in the ratio of 2 : 20 : 21. Hence, the 1/k-values (*i.e.* ion uptake/respiration) were in the proportion of 1/2 : 1/20 : 1/21. These latter figures were consistent with the ratio of relative absorption rates of these cations, *e.g.* K⁺ions are accumulated many times faster than Mg⁺⁺ or Ca⁺⁺ions.

The close correlation between activity of cytochrome and salt uptake which has been demonstrated in great detail by Lundegårdh (1945; 1950 a; 1952; 1953 a, b; 1954) cannot be regarded as a proof of the theory of "anion respiration", *i.e.* an anion *transport* achieved by the cytochrome system. Such results can equally well be interpreted as indicating that salt accumulation is in some way linked to the energyyielding respiration process. Moreover, cytochrome is involved in the enzymatic processes of nitrate reduction (*cf.* TANIGUCHI *et al.*, 1953; ERKAMA *et al.*, 1954 and VERHOEVEN *et al.*, 1956) and it has even been suggested that "cytochrome b" is identical with nitrate reductase (*cf.* SATO *et al.*, 1949; 1952).

Further, the structural position of the cytochrome system in the cell can be considered in two ways. First, the cytochrome-cytochrome oxidase system may be structurally oriented in the outside membrane with a cytochrome oxidase facing the medium and a cytochrome bfacing the place of accumulation. Second, it may be more diffusely scattered in the cell, *e.g.* situated in the mitochondria (*cf.* BURSTRÖM, 1954, p. 298, discussing Lundegårdh's view), and the anion uptake would proceed along an oxidation gradient. In the latter case the anions would enter the cell, where the highest O₂ tension prevails, and be transported to the inside, where a lower O₂ tension exists, as visualized in Lundegårdh's diagrams (1940, Fig. 34, p. 370; 1945, p. 26 and 1950, Fig. 2, p. 109).

In contrast to this conception, in some plants adapted to flooded soils, e.g. Cladium mariscus (V. M. CONWAY, 1936, 1937) and rice plants (VAN RAALTE, 1940), the oxygen is transported from the aerial parts of the plant through large air channels in the tissues to the roots. Here, the epidermal cells of the root derive their oxygen supply from the inner side of the epidermal layer, while the uptake of ions continues from the outside. With this situation, ion uptake obviously moves along a reverse gradient of oxygen.

The different temperature coefficients, mentioned earlier (p. 66) for anion and cation uptake as found by WANNER (1948), certainly indicate separate absorption mechanisms. However, the conclusion that anion uptake is metabolically linked and cation uptake is of a physical nature (diffusion) would be too far-reaching, for VAN DEN HONERT *et al.* (1955 *b*, *c*) found very high temperature coefficients for nitrate as well as for ammonium absorption at temperatures between 3° C and 6° C.

The theoretical value of 4 for the ratio salt uptake-salt respiration found by ROBERTSON et al. (1948b), which seems to support Lundegårdh's hypothesis can, however, be interpreted in different ways. In Robertson's experiments, the same "salt respiration" was observed with various rates of salt uptake. From Robertson's Figures 1 and 2 (1948b), given here in Figures 11 and 12, it appears that in carrot tissue, salt uptake was doubled at the higher concentrations, while 'salt respiration" remained constant.



Fig. 11. Rates of salt respiration (open symbols) and salt accumulation (solid symbols) for carrot tissue in KCl solutions, after Robertson *et al.* (1948b, Fig. 2).



Fig. 12. The ratio between salt accumulation and salt respiration at different KCl concentrations, after Robertson *et al.* (1948b, Fig. 1).

A satisfactory explanation of this fact has not been given by Robertson. Actually, the theoretical value of 4 ultimately obtained for the ratio in question is due only to the increasing salt uptake without corresponding increase in respiration. In addition, SUTCLIFFE (1952) observed that in red beet root storage tissue K^+ uptake was greatly influenced by accompanying anions as well as by the internal K concentration of the cells (1952, Fig. 6). Nevertheless, in his experiments the "salt respiration" was stimulated to the same level in all cases (1952, Fig. 11). Even when salt uptake had ceased, the magnitude of "salt respiration" in his beet root remained the same as when accumulation was proceeding rapidly.

For an explanation of an increased salt uptake without a concomitant increase in "salt respiration", as reported by ROBERTSON (1948b) and SUTCLIFFE (1952) in storage tissue, reference should be made to the work of VAN DEN HONERT (1954). Van den Honert et al. found that the salt uptake in potato storage tissue slices did not show a saturation value at a low salt concentration as was observed in plant roots. In maize roots the uptake-concentration curve for NH_4 approached its maximal uptake value at a concentration of 10 p.p.m. NH_4^+ , after which it increased only slightly with increasing NH₄+ concentration. However, above 10 p.p.m. NH_4^+ , the NH_4^+ -ion uptake in potato storage tissue continued to increase markedly to about 400 p.p.m. NH_4^+ , which gave an uptake-concentration curve very similar to that of Robertson (1948b). Van den Honert explained this "potato effect" by assuming a salt uptake by progressively deeper cell layers. Robertson's data can therefore be explained by the assumption that a primary salt uptake, mainly by the outer cell layers, has already initiated a maximum respiration response throughout the tissue, whereas at increasing salt concentrations deeper cell layers share an ever-increasing part in salt uptake without a simultaneous increase in respiration.

Therefore, Robertson's ratio of 4 is rather arbitrary and its significance in favour of Lundegårdh's hypothesis should not be overestimated. Moreover, LUNDEGÅRDH (1949b, 1950a), repeating Robertson's experiments with wheat roots at the same high salt concentrations, failed to find this high ratio, and found instead an average of 0.40. LUNDEGÅRDH (1950 a, b) attributed this low ratio to energy, derived from respiration, required to transport "native anions" in the tissue and also to prevent leakage of ions from the roots. The latter explanation does not seem valid, because in cases with no salt uptake SUTCLIFFE (1952) found that if "salt respiration" was inhibited by cyanide, no leakage of ions occurred. In addition to these arguments, ROBERTSON'S (1948b) non-specific conductometric estimation method for salt uptake, as he himself states, can be referred only to "salt uptake" and "salt respiration" and not, as in Lundegårdh's conception, to "anion uptake" and "anion respiration".

There are additional characteristics of ion uptake which cannot be reconciled with Lundegårdh's hypothesis without further extensive assumptions or modifications. One of the most important of these is the entire inhibition of salt uptake by 2,4-dinitrophenol (DNP), while respiration remains unaffected or even becomes stimulated at certain DNP concentrations (cf. ROBERTSON et al. 1950, 1951). The work of LOOMIS and LIPMANN (1948) showed that DNP does not inhibit the cytochrome-cytochrome oxidase system, but rather interferes with the transfer of energy-rich phosphate. A direct connexion with the cytochrome system (see e.g. LUNDEGÅRDH's diagram, 1954, Fig. 6) is difficult to visualize here. In addition, phloridzin, which inhibits phosphorylations (cf. JAMES, 1953, p. 218), also prevents phosphate uptake (cf. HELDER, 1952).

Furthermore, ÖSTERLIND (1951) found in Scenedesmus quadricauda that respiration was not inhibited by cyanide, while ion uptake was. NANCE (1949) observed that salt uptake in barley roots was inhibited by 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid, which does not interfere with the cytochrome system. The inhibition of ion uptake by substances such as malonate (MACHLIS, 1944), a specific inhibitor of succinic acid dehydrogenase in the tricarboxylic acid cycle, evidently cannot be an argument against Lundegårdh's hypothesis, because they inhibit the production of H-atoms available for the cytochrome system.

JAMES et al. (1952, 1953) demonstrated that in the roots of 7-day old barley plants it is the copper-containing ascorbic acid oxidase which acts as the principal terminal oxidase, and not the cytochrome oxidase. A substance such as diethyldithiocarbamate, which chelates copper and therefore inhibits ascorbic acid oxidase to a great extent, also inhibits ion absorption. Apparently in barley roots at this stage of development there is an inhibition of salt uptake which cannot be attributed to an inhibition of the cytochrome system (cf. Scorr RUSSELL, 1954).

Finally, reference should be made to the fact that although cyto-

J. H. BECKING

chrome oxidase acts as principal terminal oxidase in many plant roots, an ion uptake exclusively coupled with a cytochrome system cannot be generalized: many strictly anaerobic organisms which entirely lack cytochromes (cf. STEPHENSON, 1950, p. 25) nevertheless have the capacity for ion absorption.

§ 2. Discussion in connexion with the present observations

In the experiments with maize plants in continually-flowing water cultures (Chapter II) over a period of many days, a continuous and rapid NH_4^+ -ion absorption was found, accompanied by an almost quantitative exchange with H⁺ ions. We know from other experiments in static water cultures (VAN DEN HONERT *et al.*, 1955, unpublished) that the NH_4^+ -ion uptake far exceeds the absorption of other ions. Therefore, the NH_4^+ -ion uptake studied in the flowing-water cultures can be roughly characterized as the uptake of only NH_4^+ ions. In the opinion of the present author, this indicates an active uptake of a single cation. Other arguments, *e.g.* in connexion with the specificity of the first binding of NH_4^+ ions to the carrier system, are mentioned in Chapter IV.

LUNDEGÅRDH (1950 a, b) explained an excess cation absorption by the additional assumption that "native anions" (*i.e.* organic acid anions) are produced by the protoplasm and subsequently involved in the cytochrome system. ULRICH (1941), MACHLIS (1944), BURSTRÖM (1945), and JACOBSON *et al.*, (1950) observed a production of organic acids in response to excess cation uptake; conversely, organic acids disappeared when anions were accumulated in excess of cations. The latter authors (except Burström) see this phenomenon as a way by which the protoplasm maintains its anion-cation balance or electrostatic equilibrium with the medium. Therefore, it is questionable whether this increase or decrease of organic acids is related to the actual process of anion transport, as Lundegårdh claimed.

Experiments of VAN DEN HONERT et al. (1955, unpublished) showed that maize roots absorb ammonium and nitrate ions in the ratio of 3:1, at least if adapted to ammonium nutrition. Now, according to Lundegårdh's picture, the NH₄⁺ uptake as measured in our experiments would be accompanied by a "native anion" transport three times as large as the transport of external anions in nitrate absorption.

Taking into consideration that nitrate is the most rapidly absorbed anion, it is clear that considerations like this lead to the assumption of a very large unknown component in anion transport. Therefore, it may be questioned what would be left of a direct relationship between external anion uptake and respiration as shown in LUNDE-GÅRDH's original graphs (1933, Fig. 3; 1940, Fig. 19 and 21).

The experiments performed with excised maize roots (Chapter III) provide evidence in favour of a cation uptake mechanism and also of a "cation respiration". Non-deficient roots showed an appreciable NH_4^+ -uptake but no respiratory response to ammonium salt addition. Only nitrogen-deficient roots gave an "ammonium ion respiration".

This is easily understandable as an ammonium-stimulated increase of nitrogen-deficient metabolic processes. The experiments with the NH_4^+ -bearing exchange resins, which demonstrated that the uptake of a single cation caused an increase in respiration, seem to be particularly suggestive. There is no doubt that metabolism is associated with absorbed ions. This is supported by the evidence of variations in R.Q. values due to an excess cation or anion uptake as stated by ULRICH (1941), and the R.Q. differences in relation to ammonium or nitrate uptake observed in the present study.

It seems, therefore, that ion uptake and "salt respiration" are related in a more indirect way. ROBERTSON et al. (1945 a, b) reported that "salt respiration" is initiated quickly (half-time value of 20 minutes), but lasts for 40 hours after subsequent transfer to distilled water. Although it may be possible to attribute the prolonged respiratory increase to internal salt transport, a more likely suggestion is that assimilated ions increase metabolism in general. The rôle and the ultimate fate of the ions in metabolism may have a profound influence on the nature and magnitude of the respiratory response.

Summarizing the conclusions of the present study, we may state that Lundegårdh's arguments in favour of the view that only anions are actively transported are not conclusive. The opinion that cations as well as anions are actively accumulated seems to be equally acceptable. However, one of Lundegårdh's arguments still remains to be discussed, *i.e.* the negative charge of the root surface which hampers anion uptake and facilitates cation uptake. VERVELDE (1952, p. 46; 1953, p. 320) points out that this picture is incorrect, at least if the protoplasm membrane is considered to be a Donnan-equilibrium system. It is true that the entrance of anions is impeded by the drop in electrical potential at the surface, but there is at the same time a concentration fall in the opposite direction favouring the entrance of anions. The repellant action of the electrical charge is exactly balanced by the accelerating effect of the concentration fall, due to the equality of the electrochemical potential on either side of the surface membrane. Similar reasoning is valid for the uptake of cations. Their inward migration is favoured by the electrical potential difference, but retarded by the concentration difference. Hence, the negative charge of the root surface cannot be used as an argument in favour of Lundegårdh's anion respiration theory.

SUMMARY

(1) NH_4^+ -ion uptake experiments are performed with intact maize plants in continuously-flowing water cultures. The NH_4^+ uptake-concentration curve fits best with a Langmuir adsorption equation. However, no strict saturation effect at the higher concentrations is observed. This can be explained by assuming an ever-increased participation of deeper cell layers in the NH_4^+ -ion uptake process at the higher NH_4^+ concentrations. An agreement of the data with Langmuir's adsorption equation, however, does not imply that NH_4^+ -ion uptake is a non-specific adsorption reaction. The same equation also holds for specific binding reactions such as enzyme reactions. In the present study, a first binding to specific carriers is proposed. Some

of the properties of the assumed carriers can be studied in intact living roots, because no measurable diffusion resistance exists between the place of first binding and the external medium. The uptake-concentration curve shows that the NH_4^{+} -ion uptake reaches its saturation value at about 10 p.p.m. NH_4^{+} . Its "half-value" concentration lies at 0.23 p.p.m. NH_4^{+} . This very low half-value concentration points to a great affinity between the carrier and NH_4^{+} ions. No measurable difference in the rate of NH_4^{+} -ion uptake between pH = 6.0 and pH = 4.6 is observed. Therefore, between these limits, pH does not affect the carrier mechanism nor does the H^+ ion compete with the NH_4^{+} -ion uptake is a specific and active uptake, independent of the uptake of other species of ions.

(2) The well-known physiologically acid reaction caused by NH₄⁺⁻ion absorption is quantitatively studied at a constant pH, again using the flowing culture solutions by which the excess of H⁺ions produced is continuously removed. It appears that in vigorously growing maize plants at low NH₄⁺ concentrations (below 3 p.p.m.) a nearly quantitative exchange ratio of 1 : 1 of H⁺ ions for NH₄⁺ ions exists. At higher NH₄⁺ concentrations, about 80 % H⁺ ions are released for NH₄⁺ ions absorbed. At still higher NH₄⁺ concentrations (about 20 p.p.m.) the H⁺-ion release tends to decrease gradually, probably due to an ever-increasing anion uptake which has not yet reached its saturation value. At pH = 4.6 the ratio of NH₄⁺-ion uptake to H⁺-ion release is not measurably different from that at pH 6.0. In older maize plants the H⁺-ion release is markedly lower, because there exists an exchange of NH₄⁺ ions of the medium for K⁺ ions of the root. The K⁺-ion release can be considerable. In addition, there is a lower NH₄⁺-ion uptake due to a decreased capacity to synthesize in older plants. Arguments are put forward in favour of the view that not only NH₄⁺-ion uptake, but also H⁺-ion release, is linked to active metabolic processes.

(3) Respiratory changes due to NH_4^+ -ion uptake are studied in excised maize roots with the standard Warburg manometric technique. These experiments especially those with NH_4^+ -bearing exchange resins—suggest a *cation-induced respiration*, *i.e.* a salt respiration caused solely by an active NH_4^+ -ion uptake. Moreover, it is shown that the respiratory response depends primarily on a salt deficiency induced by protracted washing or starvation in distilled water, dilute salt solutions, or tap water. In fact, these responses can be obtained more specifically by making plants deficient in one particular mineral requirement: addition of the missing element—provided there is a sugar reserve—will immediately give a respiratory response.

Salt respiration can be initiated in roots suspended in relatively strong, oneelement deficient, salt solutions by addition of the missing mineral element. Thus, a "low-salt" condition or a deficiency in a particular ion is the prerequisite for a particular related respiratory response. As both processes (metabolism as well as ion uptake) are dependent on a deficit of a specific ion, it seems probable that the connexion between salt uptake and salt respiration would be of an indirect nature, *i.e.* the salt respiration would not be directly linked with ion transport.

Nitrogen and phosphate starvation lead to considerable depression of the respiration rate, even when the carbohydrate content of the root tissue is high. Subsequent addition of nitrogen or phosphate salts markedly increases the respiration rate, while other ions do not affect the respiration to any degree. However, potassium starvation in maize roots produces an increase of respiration rate which is again specifically reduced by potassium salt addition. Once again arguments seem to be more in favour of a connexion of salt respiration with metabolism rather than with ion transport.

The opinion is expressed that the effect of an ion on respiration is in some way connected with the rôle and the fate of that particular ion in metabolism.

(4) Although the results of the present study do not strictly disprove Lundegårdh's "anion respiration" hypothesis, they can be completely understood by the assumption of an "active" cation uptake and "cation respiration". In fact, if no other results were known, this would be the obvious conclusion.

In principle, three different mechanisms of active salt uptake could be concieved: (a) an active anion uptake and a passive cation uptake, (b) an active cation uptake and a passive anion uptake, (c) an active anion as well as an active cation uptake. A priori, no special preference can be given to any one of these mechanisms. On the basis of the evidence discussed in Chapter V, Lundegårdh preferred concept (a). The tendency of this thesis is, however, to emphasize that concept (c) is surely not less acceptable.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am highly indebted to Prof. Dr T. H. van den Honert, Dr G. G. J. Bange and W. S. Volkers for many valuable discussions and suggestions.

I further express my gratitude to the Netherlands Organization for Pure Research (Z.W.O.) for financial support during a part of this investigation (July 1954 to the present).

The present investigation was carried out in part at the Botanical Institute of the University of Leyden (1951–1953) and in part at the Foundation for Research on Plant Nutrition at Leiden (1954–1956). I am pleased to thank both institutions for the opportunity to do this research.

My thanks also are due to Miss J. J. M. Hooymans and Miss E. van Vliet for technical assistance and to Mr. J. E. Bevelander for the careful drawing of the diagrams.

For help in preparing the English text, I am greatly indebted to Mrs. I. Seeger, Mrs. G. M. Mulder and Dr E. H. Battley.

REFERENCES

ALLPORT, N. L., 1947. Colorimetric Analysis. Chapman & Hall Ltd. London. ARISZ, W. H., 1944. Koninkl. Ned. Akad. Wetenschap. Amsterdam. Ned. Verslag 53:236-260.

ARISZ, W. H., 1945. Proc. Koninkl. Ned. Akad. Wetenschap. Amsterdam, 48: 420-446. ARMSTRONG, F. H. and K. C. FISHER, 1947. J. Gen. Physiol. 30:279–289. ARNON, D. I., 1937. Soil Sci. 44:91–113.

ARNON, D. I., W. E. FRATZKE AND C. M. JOHNSON, 1942a. Plant Physiol. 17:515-524. ARNON, D. I. and C. M. JOHNSON, 1942b. Plant Physiol. 17:525-539. ASPREY, G. F., 1937. Protoplasma 27:153-168.

AUSTIN, A., 1955. On the Relation between Respiration and the Nitrogen Meta-bolism of Excised Wheat Roots. Thesis, Utrecht.
 BAAS BECKING, L. G. M., 1934. Geobiologie, *l.c.*: 74. Van Stockum & Zn, The Hague.
 BONNER, J., 1950. Plant Biochemistry. Academic Press Inc. Publ., New York.
 BROOKS, S. C., 1937. Trans. Faraday Soc. 33:1002-1006.
 BROOKS, S. C., 1940. Cold Spring Harbor Sumposia Quant Biology 8:171–180.

BROOKS, S. C., 1940. Cold Spring Harbor Symposia Quant. Biology, 8:171-180. BROUWER, R., 1954. Acta Botan. Néerl. 3:264-312.

BROYER, T. C. and D. R. HOAGLAND, 1943. Am. J. Botany 30:261–273. BUCH, K., 1932. Rapp. and Proc. verb. Cons. pour l'Exploration de la Mer 79:1–70. BURRIS, R. H. and P. W. WILSON, 1952. Biochem. J. (London) 51:90–96. BURSTRÖM, H., 1945. Arkiv Botan. 32A, No. 7:1–18.

BURSTRÖM, H., 1950. In: Mineral Nutrition of Plants, E. Truog (Ed.) Univ. of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin: 251-260.

BURSTRÖM, H., 1954. Fortschr. Botanik 15:290–312. CLARK, W. M., 1928. The Determination of Hydrogen Ions. Ballière, Tindall & Cox. London.

CLARK, H. E., 1936. Plant Physiol. 11:5-24. CLARK, H. E. and J. W. SHIVE, 1934. Soil Sci. 37:203-225. CONWAY, V. M., 1936. New Phytologist 35:177-204, 359-380.

CONWAY, V. M., 1937. New Phytologist 36:64-96.

- CONWAY, E. J., 1954. Soc. Exp. Biol. Symposia 8:297-324. CONWAY, E. J. and E. O'MALLEY, 1946. Biochem. J. (London) 40:59-67.
- CONWAY, E. J., T. G. BRADY and E. CARTON, 1950. Biochem. J. (London) 47: 369-374.
- COWIE, D. B., R. B. ROBERTS and I. Z. ROBERTS, 1949. J. Cellular Comp. Physiol. 34:243-257.

CRAMER, M. and J. MYERS, 1949. J. Gen. Physiol. 32:93-110.

DAVIES, R. E. and A. G. OGSTON, 1950. Biochem. J. (London) 46:324-333.

DAVIS, E. A., 1953. Plant Physiol. 28:539-544.

- DEYS, W. B. and M. S. M. BOSMAN, 1955. Personal Communication. Centraal Instituut Landbouwkundig Onderzoek, Wageningen. DIXON, M., 1934. Manometric Methods. Cambridge University Press, Engl.

- EIJK, M. VAN, 1939. Rec. Trav. Botan. Néerl. 36:559–657. EPSTEIN, E., 1952. Proc. 4th Annual Oak Ridge Summer Symposium (Oak Ridge) :418–434. Publ. U.S. Atomic Energy Commission, Oak Ridge, Tennessee.
- Epstein, E., 1953. Nature 171:83-84.
- Epstein, E., 1954. Science 120:987-988.
- EPSTEIN, E. and C. E. HAGEN, 1952. Plant Physiol. 27:457-474. ERKAMA, J., J. HÄGGMAN and Ö. WAHLROOS, 1954. Ann. Acad. Sci. Fennicae Ser. A. II. No. 60:460-470.
- K. H. 10. 60. 100-170.
 FOLKES, B. F., A. J. WILLIS and E. W. YEMM, 1952. New Phytologist 51:317-341.
 GILBERT, S. G. and J. W. SHIVE, 1945. Soil Sci. 59:453-460.
 GREGORY, F. G. and F. J. RICHARDS, 1929. Ann. Botany (London) 43:119-161.
 GREGORY, F. G. and P. K. SEN, 1937. Ann. Botany (London) N.S. 1:521-561.
 HAAS, A. R. C. and H. S. REED, 1927. Botan. Gaz. 83:161-172.

- HAMNER, K. C., 1936. Botan. Gaz. 97:744-764.
- HELDER, R. J., 1950. Acta Botan. Néerl. 1:361–434. HEWITT, E. J., 1947. Ann. Rep. Long Ashton Agr. Hort. Research Sta. 1946:50. HEWITT, E. J., 1952. Commonwealth Bur. Hort. Plantation Crops. Tech. Commun.
- No. 22, East Malling, Maidstone, Kent. HOAGLAND, D. R., 1944. Lectures on Inorganic Nutrition of Plants. Chronica Botanica Comp., Waltham, Mass., U.S.A.
- HOAGLAND, D. R. and W. C. SCHNYDER, 1933. Proc. Am. Soc. Hort. Sci. 30:288-294 HOAGLAND, D. R. and T. C. BROYER, 1936. Plant Physiol. 11:471-507.
- HOAGLAND, D. R. and F. C. STEWARD, 1939. Nature 143:1031-1032. HOAGLAND, D. R. and F. C. STEWARD, 1940. Nature 145:116-117.
- HOLM-JENSEN, S., A. KROGH and V. WARTIOVAARA, 1944. Acta Botan. Fennica 36:1-22.

- HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN, 1930. Rec. Trav. Botan. Néerl. 27:149–286. HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN, 1933a. Mededeel. Proefsta. Java-Suikerind. 23:71–108. HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN, 1933b. Verslag 13e Vergadering Ver. Proefsta. Personeel (Buitenzorg, Java): 1-7.
- HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN, 1936. Verslag 16e Vergadering Ver. Procesta. Personeel (Djember, Java) :85–93. HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN, 1930. Versiag 10e Vergadering Ver. Proefsta. Personeel (Djember, Java) :85–93. HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN, 1937. Natuurkund. Tijdschr. Ned.-Indië 97:150–162. HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN, 1953. Koninkl. Ned. Akad. Wetenschap. Amsterdam. Ned. Verslag 52:44–46. HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN, 1954. Koninkl. Ned. Akad. Wetenschap. Amsterdam. Ned. Verslag 63:91–93. HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN, 1954. Koninkl. Ned. Akad. Wetenschap. Amsterdam.

- HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN, J. J. M. HOOYMANS and W. S. VOLKERS, 1955a. Acta Botan. Néerl. 4:139–155. HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN and J. J. M. HOOYMANS, 1955b. Acta Botan. Néerl. 4:
- 376--384.

- 376-384. HONERT, T. H. VAN DEN and J. J. M. HOOYMANS, 1955с. Unpublished data. HUMPHRIES, E. C., 1950. J. Exp. Botany 1:282-300. HUMPHRIES, E. C., 1951. J. Exp. Botany 2:344-379. HUMPHRIES, E. C., 1952. J. Exp. Botany 3:291-309. HURD-KARRER, A. M., 1934. J. Agr. Research 49:343-357. HURD-KARRER, A. M., 1937. J. Agr. Research 54:601-608. HURD-KARRER, A. M., 1938. Am. J. Botany 25:666-675. HYLMÖ, B., 1953. Physiol. Plantarum 6:333-405. JACOBSON, H. G. M. and T. R. SWANEACK, 1933. Plant Physiol. 8:340-342. JACOBSON, L., R. OVERSTREET, H. M. KING and R. HANDLEY, 1950. Plant Physiol. 25:638-647. JACOBSON, L. and L. ORDIN, 1954. Plant.Physiol. 29:70-75.

- JACOBSON, L. and L. ORDIN, 1954. Plant. Physiol. 29:70-75. JAMES, W. O., 1953. Plant Respiration. Clarendon Press, Oxford. JAMES, W. O. and N. GARTON, 1952. J. Exp. Botany 3:310-318. JENNY, H. and E. W. COWAN, 1933. Z. Pflanzenernähr. Düngung u. Bodenkunde 31:57-67.

JOHNSTON, J., 1916. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 38:947-983.

- KNOP, W., 1860. Landwirtsch. Vers. Sta. 2:65-99, 270-.293
- KONINGSBERGER, V. J. and T. H. VAN DEN HONERT, 1931. Arch. Suikerind. Ned.-Indië No. 2:28-39 and No. 8:161-166 (see p. 163).
- KRUYT, H. R., 1946. Inleiding tot de Physische Chemie. Publ. Paris, Amsterdam, 10th Ed.
- LEWIS, J. C., 1955. J. Gen. Physiol. 39:1-10. LIEBIG, J. VON, 1840. Die organische Chemie in ihrer Anwendung auf Agrikultur and Physiologie. Braunschweig.
- Loo, T.-L., 1932. J. Fac. Agr. Hokkaido Imp. Univ. Japan 30:1-118. LOOMIS, W. F. and F. LIPMANN, 1948. J. Biol. Chem. 173:807-808.
- LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1937. Biochem. Z. 290:104-124.

- LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1940. Lantbruks-Högskol. Ann. 8:233-404. LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1940. Lantbruks-Högskol. Ann. 8:233-404. LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1945. Arkiv Botan. 32A No. 12:1-139. LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1949 a, b. Lantbruks-Högskol. Ann. 16:339-371 and 372-403. LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1950a. Physiol. Plantarum 3:103-151.
- LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1950b. Proc. 7th Intern. Botan. Congr. Stockholm :765-770.
- LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1952. Nature 169:1088-1091.
- LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1953a. Arkiv Kemi 5:97-146.

- LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1953b. Nature 171:477–478, 521–522 and 172:303. LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1953b. Nature 171:477–478, 521–522 and 172:303. LUNDEGÅRDH, H., 1954. Soc. Exp. Biol. Symposia 8:262–296. LUNDEGÅRDH, H. and H. BURSTRÖM, 1933. Biochem. Z. 261:235–251. LUNDEGÅRDH, H. and H. BURSTRÖM, 1935. Biochem. Z. 277:223–249. LUTTKUS, K. and R. BÖTTICHER, 1939. Planta 29:325–340.

- MACHLIS, L., 1944. Am. J. Botany 31:183-192. McLean, D. J. and K. C. FISHER, 1947. J. Bacteriol. 54:599-607. McLean, D. J. and K. C. FISHER, 1949. J. Bacteriol. 58:417-428. MEVIUS, W., 1928. Planta 6:379-455. MEVIUS, W. and H. ENGEL, 1930. Planta 9:1-83.

- MILTHORPE, J. and R. N. ROBERTSON, 1948. See ROBERTSON, R. N. and J. MILTHORPE, 1948a.
- MITCHELL, P., 1954. Soc. Exp. Biol. Symposia 8:254-261.
- Mulder, E. G., 1955. Acta Botan. Néerl. 4:429-451.

- MULDER, E. G., 1955. ACIA BOTAN. Neerl. 4:429-451. NAFTEL, J. A., 1931. J. Am. Soc. Agron. 23:142-158. NANCE, J. F., 1949. Science 109:174-176. NEEB, O., 1952. Flora 139:39-95. OSTERHOUT, W. J. V., 1936. Botan. Rev. 2:283-315. OSTERLIND, S., 1951. Physiol. Plantarum 4:528-534. OVERSTREET, R., L. JACOBSON and R. HANDLEY, 1952. Plant Physiol. 27:583-590. PARDO, J. H., 1932. Proc. 4th Congr. Intern. Soc. Sugar Cane Technol. (San Juan, Puetto Rico) Bull. No. 12:1-6 and No. 13:1-16
- Puerto Rico) Bull. No. 12:1-6 and No. 13:1-16. PETRIE, A. H. K. and R. F. WILLIAMS, 1938. Australian J. Exp. Biol. Med. Sci. 16:347-360.
- PETRISCHEK, K., 1953. Flora 140:345-385. PIRSCHLE, K., 1930. Planta 9:84-104. PIRSCHLE, K., 1931. Planta 14:583-676.

- PIRSON, A. and F. SEIDEL, 1950. Planta 38:431-473. PIRSON, A., C. TICHY and G. WILHELMI, 1952. Planta 40:199-253.
- PREVOT, P. and F. C. STEWARD, 1936. Plant Physiol. 11:509-534.
- PRIANISHNIKOV, D. N., 1926. Ergeb. Biol. 1:407-446. PRIANISHNIKOV, D. N., 1951. Nitrogen in the Life of Plants. Kramer Business Serv. Inc., Madison, Wisconsin, U.S.A.
- RAALTE, M. H. VAN, 1940. Ann. Jardin Botan. Buitenzorg (Java) 1:99–114. RAALTE, M. H. VAN, 1942. Oral Communication. Laboratory of Phytopathology, Wageningen.
- RAUTENBERG, F. and G. KÜHN, 1864. Landwirtsch. Vers. Sta. 6:355-359.
- REES, W. J., 1949. Ann. Botany (London) N.S. 13:29-51.
- RICHARDS, F. J., 1932. Ann. Botany (London) 46:367-388. ROBERTS, R. B., I. Z. ROBERTS and D. B. COWIE, 1949. J. Cellular Comp. Physiol. 34:259-291.
- ROBERTSON, R. N., 1940. Nature 145:937-938.

J. H. BECKING

- ROBERTSON, R. N., 1941. Australian J. Exp. Biol. Med. Sci. 19:265-278.
- ROBERTSON, R. N., 1944. Australian J. Exp. Biol. Med. Sci. 22:237-245.
- ROBERTSON, R. N., 1950. Proc. Linnean Soc. N.S. Wales 75:4-20.
- ROBERTSON, R. N., 1951. Ann. Rev. Plant Physiol. 2:1-24.
- ROBERTSON, R. N. and J. S. TURNER, 1945a. Australian J. Exp. Biol. Med. Sci. 23:63–67.
- ROBERTSON, R. N. and M. THORN, 1945b. Australian J. Exp. Biol. Med. Sci. 23:305-309.
- ROBERTSON, R. N., J. S. TURNER and M. J. WILKINS, 1947. Australian J. Exp. Biol. Med. Sci. 25:1-8.
- ROBERTSON, R. N. and J. MILTHORPE, 1948a. Australian J. Exp. Biol. Med. Sci. 26:189-197.
- ROBERTSON, R. N. and M. J. WILKINS, 1948b. Australian J. Sci. Research Ser. B. 1:17-37.
- ROBERTSON, R. N. and M. J. WILKINS, 1950. Proc. 7th Intern. Botan. Congr. Stockholm :771-773.
- ROBERTSON, R. N., M. J. WILKINS and D. C. WEEKS, 1951. Australian J. Sci. Research 4:248-264.

- ROCHATCH T. 210-201. ROTHSTEIN, A. and R. MEIER, 1948. J. Cellular Comp. Physiol. 32:77-95. SACHS, J., 1860. Landwirtsch. Vers. Sta. 2:22-31, 219-268. SATO, R. and F. EGAMI, 1949. Bull. Chem. Soc. Japan 22:137-143. SATO, R. and M. NIWA, 1952. Bull. Chem. Soc. Japan 25:202-210. SCHUFFELEN, A. C., 1952. Trans. Intern. Soc. Soil Sci. (Dublin) 1: Session 6.
- SCHUFFELEN, A. C. and R. LOOSJES, 1941. Proc. Koninkl. Ned. Akad. Wetenschap. Amsterdam, 44:475-482.
- SCHUFFELEN, A. C. and R. LOOSJES, 1942. Proc. Koninkl. Ned. Akad. Wetenschap. Amsterdam, 45:726-733 and 944-952.
- SCHUFFELEN, A. C. and R. LOOSJES, 1946. Proc. Koninkl. Ned. Akad. Wetenschap. Amsterdam, 49:80-86.

- SCOTT RUSSELL, R., 1954. Soc. Exp. Biol. Symposia 8:343-366. SCOTT, G. F. and H. R. HAYWARD, 1954. J. Gen. Physiol. 37:601-619. SEKERA, F., 1928. Z. Pflanzenernähr. Düngung u. Bodenkunde Tl. B. 7:533-539. SOLOMON, A. K., 1952. J. Gen. Physiol. 36:57-110.
- STENLID, G., 1950. Physiol. Plantarum 3:197-203.

- STEWARD, F. C. 1930. Protoplasma 15:29-58 and 497-516. STEWARD, F. C., 1937. Trans. Faraday Soc. 33:1006-1016. STEWARD, F. C., 1937. Trans. Faraday Soc. 33:1006-1016. STEWARD, F. C., 1954. Soc. Exp. Biol. Symposia 8:367-406. STEWARD, F. C. and P. PREVOT, 1936. See PREVOT, P. and F. C. STEWARD, 1936. STEWARD, F. C. and C. PRESTON, 1940. Plant Physiol. 15:23-61. STEWARD, F. C. and C. PRESTON, 1941a, b. Plant Physiol. 15:85-116 and 481-519.

- STEWARD, F. C., W. E. BERRY, C. PRESTON and T. K. RAMAMURTI, 1943. Ann. Botany (London) N.S. 7:221-260.

- Botany (London) N.S. 7:221-200. STEWARD, F. C. and H. E. STREET, 1947. Ann. Rev. Biochem. 16:471-502. STILES, W. and K. W. DENT, 1946. Ann. Botany (London) N.S. 10:203-222. STREET, H. E. and J. S. Lowe, 1950. Ann. Botany (London) N.S. 14:307-329. SUTCLIFFE, J. F., 1952. J. Exp. Botany 3:59-76. SUTCLIFFE, J. F., 1954a. J. Exp. Botany 5:313-326. SUTCLIFFE, J. F., 1954b. Soc. Exp. Biol. Symposia 8:325-342. SYRETT, P. J., 1953 a, b. Ann. Botany (London) N.S. 17:1-19 and 21-36. TANIGUCHI, S., H. MITSUI, J. TOYODA, T. YAMADA and F. EGAMI, 1953. J. Biochem. Japan, 40:175-185.

- Japan, J. 1997
 Japan, J. 1997
 Japan, J. 1997
 J. Botany 28:526-537.
 UMBREIT, W. M., R. H. BURRIS and J. STAUFFER, 1949. Manometric Techniques and Tissue Metabolism. Burgess Publ. Co. Minneapolis, U.S.A.
- VERHOEVEN, W., 1956a. Inorganic Nitrogen Metabolism. Ed. W. D. McElroy and Bentley Glass. The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, U.S.A. :61-86. VERHOEVEN, W. and Y. TAKEDA, 1956b. Inorganic Nitrogen Metabolism. Ed.
- W. D. McElroy and Bentley Glass. The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, U.S.A. :159-162.
- VERVELDE, G. J., 1952. Salt Accumulation by Plant Roots. Thesis, Wageningen.

- VERVELDE, G. J., 1953. Plant and Soil 4:309-322. VERVELDE, G. J., 1955. Plant and Soil 6:226-244. VICKERY, H. B., W. G. PULCHER, C. S. LEAVENWORTH and A. J. WAKEMAN, 1940. Connecticut Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. No. 422.

- Connecticut Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. No. 422. WANNER, H., 1948. Ber. schweiz. botan. Ges. 58:123-130 and 383-390. WARBURG, O. and E. NEGELEIN, 1920. Biochem. Z. 110:66-115. WEISSMANN, G. S., 1950. Am. J. Botany 37:725-738. WEISSMANN, G. S., 1951. Am. J. Botany 38:162-174. WHITE, H. L., 1936. Ann. Botany (London) 50:403-417. WHITE, H. L. and W. G. TEMPLEMAN, 1937. Ann. Botany (London) N.S. 1:191-204. WILLIAMS, D. E. and N. T. COLEMAN, 1950. Plant and Soil 2:243-256. WILLIAMS, D. E. Biochem L. (London) 49: xyuij-xyuiji

- WILLIS, A. J., 1951. Biochem. J. (London) 49: xxvii-xviii. WILLIS, A. J. and E. W. YEMM, 1955. New Phytologist 54:163-181. WOODFORD, E. K. and F. GREGORY, 1948. Ann. Botany (London) N.S. 12 :335-370. YUEN, S. H. and A. G. POLLARD, 1953. J. Sci. Food Agr. 4:490-496.