

Interaction between ammonium and phosphate uptake rates in the seagrass *Zostera noltii*

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ABSTRACT: Foliar ammonium and phosphate uptake rates and their interactions were assessed in whole seagrass *Zostera noltii* plants incubated in 2-compartment transparent chambers. This method allowed the calculation of nutrient uptake rates by leaves and by roots and rhizomes independently, avoiding plant breakage. Overall, a direct linear relationship between foliar uptake rates and seawater nutrient concentrations (phosphate or ammonium) was found, with uptake rates much higher in the first 5 min (nutrient adsorption). This faster adsorption was followed by slower uptake rates (nutrient absorption) in the next time intervals. When both nutrients were supplied separately, foliar ammonium uptake rates were 3-fold higher than those of phosphate in the range of the nutrient concentrations assayed for the whole incubation interval (120 min). When both nutrients were added simultaneously (10 μ M phosphate and 50 μ M ammonium, final concentrations), ammonium uptake rates were similar to those values recorded when ammonium was provided alone, whereas phosphate uptake rates were about 55% lower than those measured when phosphate was added alone. This study reveals for the first time the inhibitory effect of ammonium on phosphate uptake in seagrasses.

KEY WORDS: Ammonium toxicity · Phosphate uptake · Ammonium uptake · *Zostera noltii* · Eutrophication · Membrane potential · Seagrass

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INTRODUCTION

Seagrasses are aquatic angiosperms confined to marine environments (den Hartog & Kuo 2006). Such flowering plants provide numerous and important ecological services to marine ecosystems (Costanza et al. 1997, Waycott et al. 2009). However, seagrass ecosystems are declining worldwide mainly as a consequence of human-driven actions (Short & Wyllie-Echeverria 1996, Orth et al. 2006, Waycott et al. 2009). Although nutrient enrichment can foster seagrass growth and biomass in oligotrophic environments (Short 1983, Alcoverro et al. 1997, Peralta et al. 2003, Invers et al. 2004, Brun et al. 2008), it frequently results in negative physiological responses and even in growth inhibition (Hauxwell & Valiela 2004, Orth et al. 2006, Burkholder et al. 2007). This

negative response has been mostly attributed to nutrient-driven indirect effects, such as light reduction caused by proliferation of fast-growing species (phytoplankton, epiphytes and opportunistic macroalgae) (Sand-Jensen & Borum 1991, Hernández et al. 1997, McGlathery 2001, Brun et al. 2003, Lyons et al. 2012) or sediment anoxia and sulphide intrusions into the plants caused by enhanced organic matter sedimentation (Holmer & Bondgaard 2001, Pérez et al. 2007, Olivé et al. 2009). Moreover, high availability of inorganic nitrogen, especially ammonium, can have a direct effect on seagrasses (Burkholder et al. 1992, van Katwijk et al. 1997, Brun et al. 2002, 2008, van der Heide et al. 2008, Christianen et al. 2011).

Ammonium toxicity has been documented in a wide range of photosynthetic organisms (see review by Britto & Kronzucker 2002 and references therein).

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This toxic effect is mainly related to the uncoupling of ATP production and photosynthetic electron transport (Britto et al. 2001), enhanced respiratory demands (Goyal et al. 1982, Marschner 1995) and decreased potassium, magnesium, calcium or nitrate uptake (Ullrich et al. 1984, Lee & Drew 1989, Pearson & Stewart 1993, Marschner 1995, Smolders et al. 1996, van Katwijk et al. 1997, Wang et al. 2010). To minimize this harmful effect, ammonium must be rapidly assimilated into amino acids and other N-organic compounds (Marschner 1995), generating a strong depletion of organic carbon skeletons (Marschner 1995, Brun et al. 2002, 2008). In addition, ammonium could be pumped out of the plant, which in turn increases respiratory demands by 40% (Britto et al. 2001). Phosphate is required in these processes as a part of the metabolic energy transfer coin (i.e. ATP) and as a major component of organic compounds (Stitt 1997). Thus, when carbon turnover and ATP consumption increase as a result of ammonium assimilation, an enhancement of phosphate demands would be expected (Brun et al. 2002). Consequently, phosphate may play a key role in reducing ammonium toxicity, as previously suggested for the seagrass *Zostera noltii* (Brun et al. 2002, 2008). Therefore, any process limiting phosphate availability and acquisition might make seagrasses more vulnerable to ammonium toxicity. Phosphate uptake is an active transport process that depends upon ATP and membrane potential (García-Sánchez et al. 2000,

Palmgren 2001, Rubio et al. 2005). Since ammonium uptake produces a large membrane depolarization in seagrass leaf mesophyll cells (Rubio et al. 2007), phosphate uptake could decline under high ammonium concentrations even if the external phosphate levels are adequate to maintain seagrass growth.

To date, studies on seagrass nutrient uptake are rather limited (Touchette & Burkholder 2000; Table 1) and interactions between nutrient uptake rates were only tested for ammonium and nitrate (Short & McRoy 1984, Paling & McComb 1994, Terrados & Williams 1997, Lee & Dunton 1999, Alexandre et al. 2011; Table 1). Overall, these studies reported that seagrass leaves had higher affinity for ammonium than for nitrate, and it was generally ascribed to the lower energetic cost associated with the uptake and assimilation of ammonium (Turpin 1991). However, there are no studies dealing with the interaction between any inorganic nitrogen source and phosphate, even though phosphorus is one of the 3 major elements of seagrass tissues (Duarte 1990) and a basic component for the energetic metabolism (Stitt 1997).

Over the last few decades, ammonium loads in coastal areas have been increasing and further increases are expected (Glibert et al. 2010, Sobota et al. 2013). This highlights the relevance of ammonium toxicity, which is likely to increase for species inhabiting coastal areas, and also species growing near discharge points (i.e. rivers, wastewater and/or run-

Table 1. Estimated phosphate and ammonium kinetic parameters of seagrass species based on the Michaelis-Menten model and on the linear regression model for uptake kinetics. The estimated parameters were maximum uptake rate (V_{\max} , $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$), half-saturation constant (K_M , μM), incubation time (t , h) and slope (S , $\text{g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) of the curves ($0.5 \times V_{\max}/K_M$). nd: not determined because of linearity

Species	V_{\max}	K_M	S	Reference
NH_4^+				
<i>Amphibolis antarctica</i>	nd	nd	0.68	Paling & McComb (1994)
<i>Amphibolis antarctica</i>	604	1041	0.29	Pedersen et al. (1997)
<i>Phyllospadix iwatensis</i>	2.2–35.5	12.7–133.5	0.06–0.14	Hasegawa et al. (2005)
<i>Phyllospadix torrey</i>	95.6–204.3	9.3–33.9	3.01–5.36	Terrados & Williams (1997)
<i>Ruppia maritima</i>	9.7–14.1	8.1–9.2	0.77–0.60	Thursby & Harlin (1984)
<i>Thalassia hemprichii</i>	32–37	21–60	0.31–0.76	Stapel et al. (1996)
<i>Thalassia hemprichii</i>	37.36–37.93	67.89–76.89	0.25–0.28	Zhang et al. (2011)
<i>Thalassia testudinum</i>	8.3–16.4	7.6–15	0.28–1.14	Lee & Dunton (1999)
<i>Zostera marina</i>	19.4–20.5	8.5–9.2	1.11–1.14	Thursby & Harlin (1982)
<i>Zostera marina</i>	nd	nd	0.8	Short & McRoy (1984)
<i>Zostera noltii</i>	28.33–31.91	28.73–34.1	0.47–0.49	Alexandre et al. (2011)
PO_4^{3-}				
<i>Amphibolis antarctica</i>	nd	nd	0.50	Paling & McComb (1994)
<i>Thalassia hemprichii</i>	2.2–3.2	7.7–15	0.11–0.14	Stapel et al. (1996)
<i>Thalassia hemprichii</i>	3.63–4.7	4.7–13.17	0.18–0.25	Zhang et al. (2011)
<i>Thalassia testudinum</i>	0.5–1.9	1.2–11.3	0.08–0.31	Gras et al. (2003)
<i>Zostera noltii</i>	0.9–3	7–7.1	0.06–0.21	Pérez-Lloréns & Niell (1995)

off discharge points) or in phosphate-limited environments (i.e. carbonate sediments). For instance, some intertidal seagrass species (such as the temperate *Zostera noltii*) usually occur near wastewater and/or run-off discharge points where ammonium concentrations can range from 158 to 663 μM (Hernández et al. 1997, Cabaço et al. 2008) and tropical species such as *Thalassia testudinum* thrive in carbonate sediments known to be phosphate limited (Short et al. 1990, Touchette & Burkholder 2000, Gras et al. 2003). Thus, a better understanding of the ammonium toxicity process, especially those issues related to its interaction with phosphate, is needed to improve our management capacity. Consequently, the main objective of this study was to test the existence of a short-term interaction between ammonium and phosphate uptake on leaves of *Zostera noltii* as a first step involved in ammonium toxicity mechanisms. Most studies report that both nutrient uptake and affinity rates are higher in leaves than in roots (Thursby & Harlin 1984, Stapel et al. 1996, Pedersen et al. 1997, Terrados & Williams 1997, Gras et al. 2003, Alexandre et al. 2011); hence, our study was performed only in leaves of *Z. noltii* plants.

To address this objective, a set of short-term nutrient uptake experiments (ammonium and phosphate assayed both separately and simultaneously) was performed using transparent incubation chambers with 2 independent compartments (for above and belowground plant parts), which allowed the independent study of leaf nutrient uptake in entire *Zostera noltii* plants.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant collection and preparation for uptake experiments

Zostera noltii specimens were collected by hand from February to March 2010 from an intertidal muddy bed at Los Toruños, a salt-marsh of 773 ha situated in the Cádiz Bay Natural Park, Spain (36°30' N, 6°10' W). The area is surrounded by a spit 12 km long and has a maximum depth of 4 m. Mean seawater temperature is ~18°C (range 10°C to 29°C) and the average annual salinity is 38. The system can be regarded as meso-eutrophic, with nutrient concentrations in the sampling site varying widely throughout the year (Pérez-Lloréns et al. 2004). In the water column, nutrient peaks usually occur in winter, with values up to 1.4 μM NO_2^- , 12 μM NO_3^- , 25 μM NH_4^+ and 1.5 μM PO_4^{3-} (Tovar et al. 2000).

Experimental plant units (EPUs) of *Zostera noltii* consisted of individual shoots (e.g. short shoots) characterized by a high aboveground/belowground biomass ratio (AG:BG) (Brun et al. 2006). EPUs were individually selected in the field and collected from different patches in a large area (~100 × 100 m), to ensure the genetic independence of plants. They were transported to the laboratory within 120 min of collection. Harvesting of EPUs took place during 2 different days for logistic and experimental reasons; the first set was used to estimate phosphate and ammonium uptake rates of plants separately, whereas the second set was used to test the interaction between ammonium and phosphate uptake. Upon arrival, plants were rinsed in seawater and any epiphytes were wiped off with a soft tissue paper. At the beginning of each assay, morphometric measurements (width, length and number of leaves, above- and belowground biomass) were conducted in 10 EPUs haphazardly taken from the pool of collected plants (Table 2). A Student's *t*-test for independent samples revealed no significant differences in morphometric variables for plants collected at different dates (Table 2).

Before starting the incubations, EPUs were maintained for 24 h in conditions identical to the nutrient uptake experiments for temperature (20°C) and light (150 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, measured with a LICOR spherical quantum sensor Li-1000 Data Logger). To keep basal nutrient concentrations at a minimum and to maintain the same conditions in all the uptake assays, aerated artificial seawater (ASW) and modified marine culture medium (Woelkerling et al. 1983) without any inorganic nitrogen and phosphorus was

Table 2. *Zostera noltii*. Initial morphometric features of the experimental plant units (EPUs) collected at the beginning of the experiment (mean \pm SE; n = 20) and p-value obtained for the Student's *t*-test for independent samples to compare the differences in morphometric features for the 2 pools of plants collected on different days ($\alpha = 0.05$)

Feature (units)	EPUs	p
Aboveground (AG) biomass (g DW)	0.18 \pm 0.004	0.62
Belowground (BG) biomass (g DW)	0.08 \pm 0.004	0.15
AG:BG biomass	2.40 \pm 0.19	0.27
Leaf abundance (no. leaves shoot ⁻¹)	3.15 \pm 0.13	0.054
Mean leaf length (cm)	24.65 \pm 1.37	0.73
Leaf width (mm)	0.93 \pm 0.03	0.23
Leaf thickness (mm)	0.16 \pm 0.01	0.28
Leaf cross-section (mm ²)	0.11 \pm 0.01	0.052
Leaf area (m ²)	0.0005 \pm 0.003	0.76
Aboveground biomass per leaf area (g DW m ⁻²)	17.36 \pm 0.79	0.91

used. Dissolved inorganic carbon and salinity were set at 2.2 mM and 33.2 ± 0.08 respectively, while pH (8.23 ± 0.01) was adjusted by using concentrated sodium hydroxide (0.1 N) and hydrochloric acid (1.2 N) solutions. Under these experimental conditions the ratio of total $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ to $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ was 17.3 (Whitfield 1974).

Nutrient uptake experiments

Foliar nutrient uptake was measured using a combination of the multiflask and the perturbation techniques (Pedersen 1994, Martínez & Rico 2004) in partitioned Plexiglas chambers (Pérez-Lloréns et al. 1993). Each chamber (diameter 7 cm) contained 400 ml ASW in the upper compartment and 250 ml in the lower compartment (Fig. 1). Six EPU's per chamber were randomly selected from an initial pool of plants and positioned across the holes located in the central piece of PVC used to split the chamber; roots and rhizomes were in the lower compartment and leaves in the upper one. Holes were sealed with petroleum jelly based product (Vaseline) to avoid any leakage between compart-

ments. Prior to incubations, the watertightness of the chambers was tested by mounting the EPU's and adding a dye (uranine) to the top compartment. After 24 h, water samples were collected from the bottom compartment by inserting a syringe needle in the sampling port (Fig. 1) and measured with a fluorometer (Turner TD-700) to detect any presence of the dye. The analysis did not reveal any sign of uranine, indicating that the chamber design prevented leakage between compartments.

To keep temperature constant, chambers were placed into an aquarium ($0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.35$ m) filled with distilled water and connected to a thermostatic bath (20°C) in a closed circuit. Light was supplied from the top by cool fluorescent tubes (Sylvania Gro-Lux F18W/Gro), providing about $150 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ to the upper compartment. Bubbling was provided individually to upper compartment of chambers to provide water mixing throughout the incubation period, reduce the thickness of the leaf boundary layer (Pérez-Lloréns et al. 1993) and ensure that leaf nutrient uptake is mostly dependent on the nutrient concentration in the water (Stapel et al. 1996). Although belowground parts were incubated in darkness to mimic buried conditions as much as possible, the water of the lower compartment was oxygenated—which can deviate from natural sediment conditions. However, previous studies in the same species reported no effects on foliar uptake rates (ammonium and nitrate) when roots were incubated either in anoxic or in oxygenated medium (Alexandre et al. 2010).

At the onset of the incubations specific amounts of ammonium (NH_4Cl) or phosphate (KH_2PO_4) from stock solutions were added to the upper compartment (i.e. initial phosphate and ammonium concentrations). Subsequently, the time course of nutrient concentrations in seawater was monitored during 120 min. Incubation time was selected according to the existing literature on seagrass nutrient uptake (see Table 1): in those studies, 120 min was the average time interval used to avoid nutrient depletion in the culture medium.

Four nutrient treatments were assayed in triplicate: (1) P, phosphate concentrations ranging from 0 to $20 \mu\text{M}$ (0, 0.5, 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 15, $20 \mu\text{M}$) without ammonium; (2) N, ammonium concentrations ranging from 0 to $100 \mu\text{M}$ (0, 1, 3, 5, 10, 20, 30, 50, $100 \mu\text{M}$) without phosphate; (3) P+Nc, variable concentrations of phosphate (1, 5, 10, $20 \mu\text{M}$) and a constant concentration of ammonium ($50 \mu\text{M}$); (4) N+Pc, variable concentrations of ammonium (1, 5, 10, 50, $100 \mu\text{M}$) and a constant concentration of phosphate ($10 \mu\text{M}$).

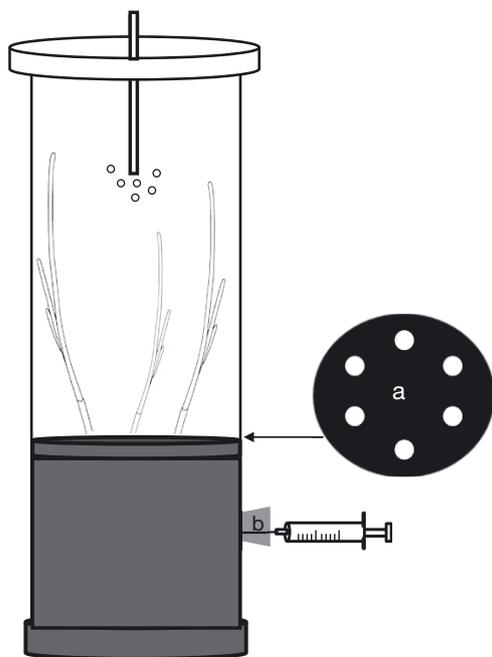


Fig. 1. Schematic drawing of the 2-compartment chamber used for incubations (upper compartment 0.4 l, lower compartment 0.25 l). The lower compartment was darkened during the incubations. a: Black acrylic disc separating aboveground (leaves) and belowground parts (roots and rhizomes) of the experimental plants, sealed with Vaseline. b: Lower compartment sampling port

The selected ammonium and phosphate concentrations ranged from values usually measured in seawater (typically less than 5 μM of NH_4^+ and 2 μM PO_4^{3-} ; Touchette & Burkholder 2000) to those recorded in *Zostera noltii* meadows growing in eutrophic waters or near wastewater discharge points (Hernández et al. 1997, Cabaço et al. 2008). In addition, to test the interactions between the uptake rates of both nutrients, a saturating concentration of both nutrients was added (i.e. avoiding the possible depletion of nutrients added as a background level). Moreover, 50 μM of ammonium was selected as constant concentration because this concentration has a negative effect on *Z. noltii* plants (Brun et al. 2002, 2008).

Nutrient uptake experiments were carried out in 2 different sets. In each set 9 chambers were used simultaneously and randomly placed in the aquarium. In a first set (Treatments P and N), uptake rates were measured on 3 consecutive days (temporal replication). One replicate of each treatment (P and N) with 9 different concentrations per nutrient was carried out in the same day. The second set was carried out to test the interaction between ammonium and phosphate uptake (P+Nc, N+Pc). In this case, one replicate of each treatment (P+Nc, N+Pc, in total 9 different concentrations; see aforementioned concentrations) was also performed over 3 consecutive days (temporal replication).

Once incubations started, water samples (3 samples of 2 ml each) were taken from the upper compartment at 0, 5, 30, 60 and 120 min following the nutrient addition according to each treatment. In the lower compartment, water samples (3 samples of 2 ml each) were taken at the beginning (0 min) and the end (120 min) of the incubation to detect any presence of nutrients (Fig. 1). After collection, water samples from both compartments were frozen and kept at -20°C until analysis. Phosphate and ammonium analysis were made according to Murphy & Riley (1962) and Solorzano (1969), respectively. At the end of each experiment, EPU were split into above and belowground biomass (cut at the point of the sealer), dried at 60°C for 72 h and weighed.

Estimation of uptake kinetic parameters

Foliar uptake rates (V , $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) were estimated from changes in nutrient concentration (S , μM) at each sampling time ($t = 0, 5, 30, 60$ and 120 min). The change in nutrient concentration of the upper

compartment was corrected by the change in the total volume after each water collection (Pedersen 1994):

$$V = \frac{(S_0 \times \text{vol}_0) - (S_t \times \text{vol}_t)}{t \times B}$$

where S_0 and vol_0 are the nutrient concentration (μM) and the water volume (l), respectively at the beginning of a sampling interval; S_t and vol_t are the nutrient concentration and the water volume, respectively at the end of a sampling interval; t is the time elapsed between 2 successive sampling events (h); and B is the foliar dry weight (DW, g). Uptake rates ($n = 3$) were plotted against the initial concentration of each treatment each time interval.

Conductance ($\mu\text{m s}^{-1}$) was calculated to analyze the permeability of *Zostera noltii* to nutrients. Values were computed from the initial slope of nutrient uptake rates versus nutrient concentration curves by expressing the nutrient uptake rate on an areal basis. Dry weight per surface area ratio (g DW m^{-2}) was estimated by measuring the surface area in an initial pool of EPU (Table 2), which were subsequently dried at 60°C for 72 h and weighed. Leaf area was calculated as $2 \times \text{length} \times \text{width}$, i.e. the area of both sides of the leaf.

Statistical analyses

Uptake rates from each time interval ($n = 3$) were plotted against nutrient concentrations at the beginning of each time interval. Outlier values were identified following Grubb's ($n > 25$) and Dixon's ($n < 25$) tests (Fry 1993). This analysis determined that 4 phosphate uptake rates and 2 ammonium uptake rates (one combined with phosphate) could be considered as outliers and therefore removed from the data set. Excluding these outliers, the data were fitted by least-squared regression analysis (model I in Ricker 1984, Martínez & Rico 2004).

A 1-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was used to determine the differences among conductances within the same treatment (P, N, P+Nc and N+Pc). When significant differences were found a post-hoc Tukey test was performed (Zar 1984). Similarly, a Student's t -test was used to examine significant differences between conductances in the same time interval among different treatments. Homoscedasticity and normality of the data were checked before conducting ANOVAs and t -tests; only phosphate uptake rates were log-transformed due to the

detection of heterocedasticity. Data are shown as mean \pm standard error (SE). Significance level was set at a probability of 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$).

RESULTS

No release of nutrients by roots or rhizomes was recorded in any treatment, since no significant concentrations were detected in the lower compartment (which contained artificial seawater without nutrients). Percentages (referred to the initial concentration) of nutrient disappearance in the upper compartment at the end of incubations (120 min) showed no signs of nutrient depletion in any treatment (34.1 \pm 3.0% for P; 48.9 \pm 3.5% for N; 16.2 \pm 1.8% for P+Nc and 54.5 \pm 3.9% for N+Pc; these values represent the mean \pm SE of all concentrations assayed per treatment). The regression lines of phosphate uptake rates (either with or without ammonium addition) against phosphate concentration rendered a positive

Table 3. *Zostera noltii*. Foliar phosphate and ammonium uptake rates expressed as mean (\pm SD) conductance ($\mu\text{m s}^{-1}$) and intercept value in each treatment (P, N, P+Nc, N+Pc) at each sampling interval (0–5, 5–30, 30–60, 60–120 min). See text for further information on calculations and treatments. Letters indicate significant differences among sampling intervals in each treatment (1-way ANOVA and post-hoc Tukey test; $p < 0.05$). *Significant differences either between P and P+Nc, or N and N+Pc treatments (t -test, $p < 0.05$). n: number of observations

Interval (min)	Conductance ($\mu\text{m s}^{-1}$)	Intercept ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$)	r^2	n
P				
0–5	9.11 \pm 0.82 ^a	0.09 \pm 1.66	0.83	27
5–30	2.56 \pm 0.34 ^{b,*}	0.07 \pm 0.50	0.70	26
30–60	0.74 \pm 0.14 ^{c,*}	0.35 \pm 0.19	0.57	25
60–120	0.86 \pm 0.14 ^{c,*}	0.42 \pm 0.26	0.53	26
N				
0–5	51.89 \pm 3.18 ^a	–33.31 \pm 29.28	0.91	27
5–30	1.06 \pm 0.33 ^b	0.29 \pm 0.33	0.24	27
30–60	3.13 \pm 0.48 ^b	–0.46 \pm 2.77	0.64	27
60–120	1.59 \pm 0.29 ^b	–0.29 \pm 1.32	0.55	26
P+Nc				
0–5	11.38 \pm 1.54 ^a	–0.27 \pm 3.81	0.83	12
5–30	0.34 \pm 0.24 ^b	0.66 \pm 0.48	0.17	12
30–60	0.29 \pm 0.29 ^b	0.08 \pm 0.54	0.11	12
60–120	–0.04 \pm 0.04 ^b	0.31 \pm 0.10	0.07	12
N+Pc				
0–5	46.05 \pm 3.57 ^a	–30.10 \pm 38.08	0.92	15
5–30	1.11 \pm 0.46 ^b	1.00 \pm 2.61	0.52	14
30–60	1.44 \pm 0.39 ^b	1.00 \pm 2.47	0.50	15
60–120	1.64 \pm 0.05 ^b	–0.21 \pm 0.37	0.98	15

and near to zero intercept in most of the time intervals tested. However, for ammonium assays (either with or without phosphate), the intercept was negative (but close to zero) during the first 5 min (Table 3).

Foliar phosphate uptake

Phosphate foliar uptake was a linear function of phosphate concentration at each sampling interval (0–5, 5–30, 30–60 and 60–120 min; Fig. 2). Conductance was significantly higher (9.11 \pm 0.82 $\mu\text{m s}^{-1}$; ANOVA, $p < 0.05$) during the first 5 min, followed by a decline in the rest of sampling intervals. There were no significant differences between the 2 last time intervals (Fig. 2, Table 3).

Foliar ammonium uptake

Foliar ammonium uptake versus ammonium concentration fitted to a linear function (Fig. 3), as observed also for phosphate uptake. Conductance was similar (i.e. no significant differences, ANOVA, $p > 0.05$) for all time intervals except the first 5 min, when values were significantly higher (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$). When uptake rates were plotted against nutrient concentrations for the whole incubation interval (0–120 min), the conductance for ammonium was approximately 3 \times higher (2.75 \pm 0.19 $\mu\text{m s}^{-1}$) than that estimated for phosphate (0.87 \pm 0.10 $\mu\text{m s}^{-1}$) (Table 4, Fig. 4).

Interactions between foliar ammonium and phosphate uptake

In treatments where nutrients were assayed independently (i.e. P and N), a linear relationship between uptake rates and nutrient concentrations was

Table 4. *Zostera noltii*. Foliar phosphate and ammonium uptake rates expressed as mean (\pm SD) conductance ($\mu\text{m s}^{-1}$) during the whole incubation interval (120 min). *Significant differences between P and N+Pc or N and P+Nc treatments (t -test, $p < 0.05$). See 'Materials and methods' for further information on these calculations and treatments

Treatment	Conductance	Intercept	r^2
P	0.87 \pm 0.10*	0.52 \pm 0.17	0.78
N	2.75 \pm 0.19	0.68 \pm 1.95	0.87
P+Nc	0.39 \pm 0.20*	0.26 \pm 0.06	0.96
N+Pc	2.60 \pm 0.19	–1.02 \pm 2.04	0.93

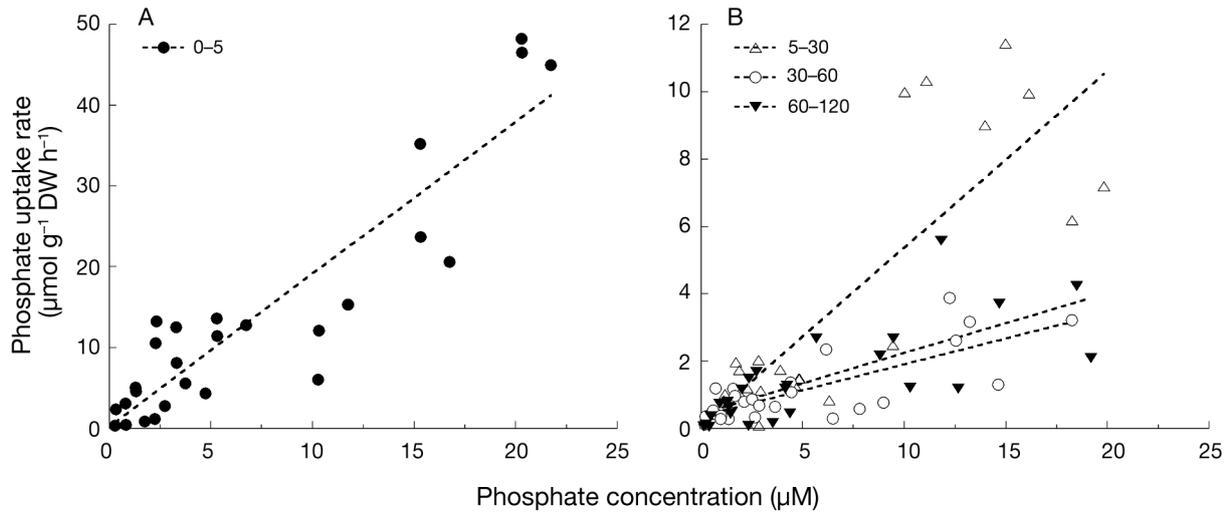


Fig. 2. *Zostera noltii*. Foliar phosphate uptake rates ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) versus phosphate concentration (μM) at the assayed time intervals, when phosphate was the only nutrient present (P treatment) in the water of the upper compartment. (A) Phosphate uptake rate in the first 5 min. (B) Phosphate uptake rate in the remaining time intervals (5–30, 30–60, 60–120 min). Note different y-axis scales in (A) and (B)

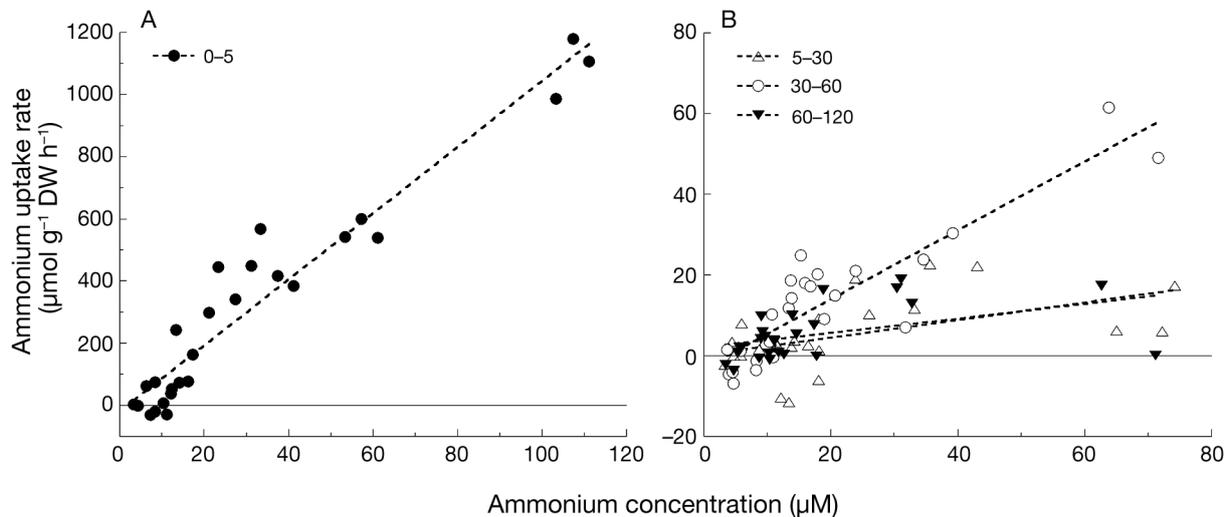


Fig. 3. *Zostera noltii*. Foliar ammonium uptake rates ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) versus ammonium concentration (μM) at the assayed time intervals, when ammonium was the only nutrient present (N treatment) in the water of the upper compartment. (A) NH_4^+ uptake rates in the first 5 min. (B) NH_4^+ uptake rates in the remaining time intervals (5–30, 30–60, 60–120 min). Note different y-axis scales in (A) and (B)

recorded when both nutrients were added together (i.e. P+Nc and N+Pc). A high conductance (11.38 ± 1.54 and $46.05 \pm 3.57 \mu\text{m s}^{-1}$ for phosphate (P+Nc) and ammonium (N+Pc), respectively) was recorded in the first 5 min (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$) followed by a substantial reduction in the rest of the sampling intervals (Table 3). Except the first interval (0–5 min), the conductance for phosphate in the presence of ammonium (P+Nc) was significantly lower than that measured in the absence of ammonium (P) (Fig. 4,

Table 4) (Student's *t*-test, $p < 0.05$), which would indicate that ammonium restricted phosphate uptake after the first 5 min. Contrastingly, phosphate addition did not affect ammonium conductance in any of the sampling intervals (Tables 3 & 4) when compared to values measured when ammonium was assayed alone (Table 4, Fig. 3B). Thus, phosphate did not cause any effect on the ammonium uptake rates. When uptake kinetics were analyzed for the whole incubation period (120 min), conductance for ammo-

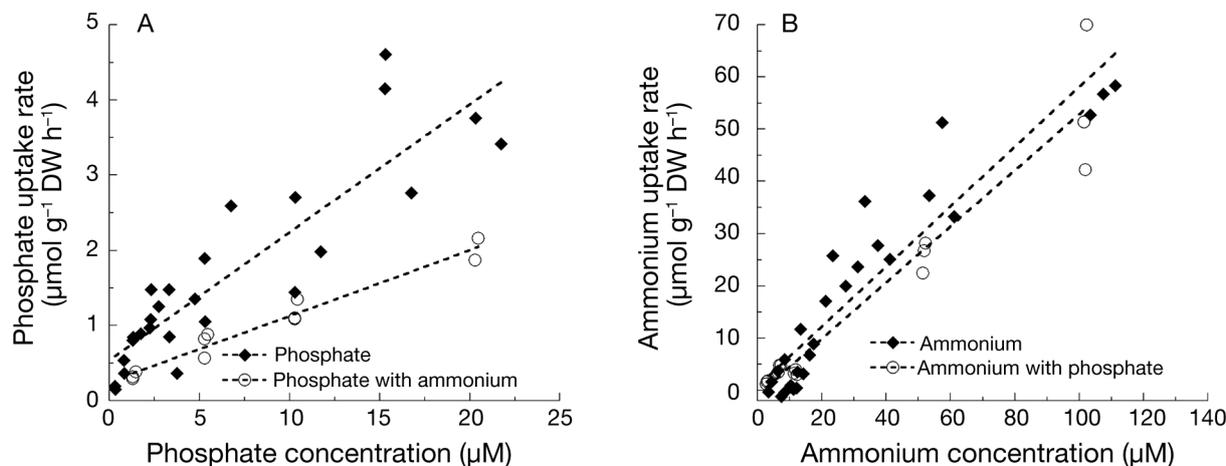


Fig. 4. *Zostera noltii*. Foliar (A) phosphate and (B) ammonium uptake rates ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) versus phosphate and ammonium concentration (μM) in the whole culture interval assayed (120 min). (A) Phosphate uptake rates ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) with (P+Nc) and without (P) the presence of ammonium in the water of the upper compartment (50 μM). (B) Ammonium uptake rates ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) with (N+Pc) and without (N) the presence of phosphate in the water of the upper compartment (10 μM)

nium was similar regardless of the presence or absence of phosphate; however, phosphate conductance decreased by 55% in the presence of ammonium (Table 4, Fig. 4).

DISCUSSION

This study showed that high ammonium concentrations (50 μM) reduced foliar phosphate uptake in the seagrass *Zostera noltii* by more than 50% while foliar ammonium uptake remained unaffected by phosphate enrichment (10 μM) in seawater. Consequently, this is the first time that this inhibitory effect of ammonium has been recorded in seagrasses, and it could constitute an important first-step mechanism related to the widely-observed ammonium toxicity process in these marine plants (van Katwijk et al. 1997, Brun et al. 2002, 2008, van der Heide et al. 2008, Christianen et al. 2011).

Phosphate transport depends on the high negative potential of the membrane and on the electrochemical gradient of sodium (García-Sánchez et al. 2000, Rubio et al. 2005). Thus, the reduction in phosphate uptake recorded in our study could be related to the rapid and strong depolarization of the membranes (~100 mV) observed in *Zostera marina* (Rubio et al. 2007) and in terrestrial plants (Smith & Walker 1978, Felle 1980, Ullrich et al. 1984) under ammonium enrichment. Moreover, the plasma membrane potential is maintained by the activity of the H⁺-ATPase (Fernández et al. 1999), thus changes in the membrane potential driven by ammonium uptake may

increase the ATP consumption to re-establish the membrane potential. Considering the high turnover of ATP, the active ATP-dependent phosphate uptake (García-Sánchez et al. 2000) will be affected in the short term (minutes to hours), as ammonium addition decreased ATP levels within 5 min of ammonium exposure (Turpin et al. 1990). Apart from adverse effects in membrane transport processes, ammonium is a natural uncoupler of ATP synthesis (Lawlor 1993, Marschner 1995); therefore, if a massive entrance of ammonium to the cells is not accompanied by amino acid synthesis, ATP synthesis will also be strongly affected in the chloroplasts.

Additional insights into the negative effect of ammonium on phosphate uptake arise from kinetic curves. During the first 5 min ('surge uptake' according to Harrison et al. 1989), phosphate uptake rates were very high and unaffected by ammonium addition (Table 3). This could be explained because the main underlying process accounting for the surge uptake is related to the adsorption of ions into the plant tissue (e.g. cell wall, periplasmic space) and consequently independent of membrane transporters. Beyond this surge uptake, active mechanisms through specific phosphate transporters are the main areas responsible of the phosphate uptake ('internally controlled uptake'; Harrison et al. 1989) and hence these transporters were affected by the presence of ammonium (Table 3).

In the present study, ammonium uptake rates were higher than those for phosphate (Tables 3 & 4). For comparison purposes, the initial slope of the saturation uptake curves was calculated through

Michaelis-Menten parameters such as $0.5 \times V_{\max}/K_M$, re-analysing published data when necessary (Table 1). In our study, slopes for ammonium uptake ($0.6 \text{ l g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$) were within the range found in other seagrasses ($0.06\text{--}5.35 \text{ l g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$; Table 1), as were those for phosphate uptake (our study: $0.18 \text{ l g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$; previous studies: $0.08\text{--}0.50 \text{ l g}^{-1} \text{ DW h}^{-1}$; Table 1), although phosphate uptake studies are scarcer than ammonium ones (Touchette & Burkholder 2000).

Although saturation kinetics have been reported for foliar phosphate uptake in seagrasses (Pérez-Lloréns & Niell 1995, Stapel et al. 1996, Zhang et al. 2011; see Table 1), other studies revealed linear kinetics (e.g. seedlings of *Amphibolis antarctica*, Paling & McComb 1994; *Thalassia testudinum* under low phosphate concentrations [$<2 \mu\text{M}$], Gras et al. 2003). The observed disparity in *Zostera noltii* kinetics between our study (linear), and those of Pérez-Lloréns & Niell (1995) (saturation) for the same range of concentrations, could be caused by differences in the nutritional history of the plants (e.g. specimens harvested at different seasons and sampling sites) and/or by different experimental conditions (e.g. different starvation periods: 24 h in this study versus 72 h in Pérez-Lloréns & Niell 1995) which could affect the nutrient uptake response of the plants (Touchette & Burkholder 2000).

Our results bring into awareness 2 important aspects that should be considered for experimental and management issues. Firstly, the passive uptake of ammonium (in contrast to nitrate) may affect nutrient enrichment experimental set-ups, where the recorded effects can be opposite depending on the nitrogen source used (i.e. ammonium versus nitrate). For instance, factors such as hydrodynamics (e.g. reduced boundary layers; La Nafie et al. 2012), temperature (van Katwijk et al. 1997, Brun et al. 2002) or pH (van der Heide et al. 2008) can enhance ammonium uptake and promote toxicity in plants if ammonium is used as the nitrogen source instead of nitrate. Secondly, the inhibition of phosphate uptake in the presence of ammonium should be more relevant in P-limited environments, as for instance, in seagrasses inhabiting carbonate sediments (Touchette & Burkholder 2000). At these locations ammonium could promote a higher toxicity on plants, since phosphate alleviates ammonium toxicity to some extent (Brun et al. 2002, 2008). Additionally, the presence of high levels of ammonium in these areas can intensify the phosphate limitation suffered by seagrass species, affecting the actual rate of phosphate uptake and nutrient stoichiometry.

In summary, this study showed for the first time that there was a short-term negative effect of ammonium on phosphate uptake in the leaves of the seagrass *Zostera noltii*, which can be considered as a first-step mechanism in the ammonium toxicity process. This result has implications for plant nutrient stoichiometry, experimental design and in the implementation of managing policies in these crucial ecosystems.

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