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RESEARCH LETTER – Environmental Microbiology

# Fungal denitrification: *Bipolaris sorokiniana* exclusively denitrifies inorganic nitrogen in the presence and absence of oxygen

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One sentence summary: Inorganic nitrogen addition alters fungal denitrification and respiration in the presence and absence of oxygen.

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## ABSTRACT

Fungi may play an important role in the production of the greenhouse gas nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O). *Bipolaris sorokiniana* is a ubiquitous saprobe found in soils worldwide, yet denitrification by this fungal strain has not previously been reported. We aimed to test if *B. sorokiniana* would produce N<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of organic and inorganic forms of nitrogen (N) under microaerobic and anaerobic conditions. Nitrogen source (organic-N, inorganic-N, no-N control) significantly affected N<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> production both in the presence and absence of oxygen, which contrasts with bacterial denitrification. Inorganic N addition increased denitrification of N<sub>2</sub>O (from 0 to 0.3 µg N<sub>2</sub>O-N h<sup>-1</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> biomass) and reduced respiration of CO<sub>2</sub> (from 0.1 to 0.02 mg CO<sub>2</sub> h<sup>-1</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> biomass). Isotope analyses indicated that nitrite, rather than ammonium or glutamine, was transformed to N<sub>2</sub>O. Results suggest the source of N may play a larger role in fungal N<sub>2</sub>O production than oxygen status.

**Keywords:** nitrite; glutamine; nitrous oxide; carbon dioxide; organic nitrogen; co-denitrification

## INTRODUCTION

Fungal denitrification may contribute more to soil emissions of the greenhouse gas nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) than bacterial denitrification (Laughlin and Stevens 2002; Chen, Mothapo and Shi 2015), but physicochemical factors potentially altering fungal nitrogen (N) cycling require investigation. While many soil bacteria contain the N<sub>2</sub>O reductase gene (*nosZ*) (required for N<sub>2</sub>O to N<sub>2</sub> conversion), this gene is not found in fungi. Nonetheless, N<sub>2</sub> production by soil fungi has been reported (Shoun et al. 2012; Long

et al. 2013). Some fungi, particularly for genera in the *Hypocreales* order (such as *Fusarium*), are capable of producing N<sub>2</sub>O (Maeda et al. 2015) under anaerobic (Zumft 1997; Morozkina and Kurakov 2007; Shoun et al. 2012) or microaerobic conditions (Zhou et al. 2001; Morozkina and Kurakov 2007; Takaya 2009). Two pathways of fungal denitrification have been reported: (a) classical denitrification of nitrate or nitrite when oxygen is limited and insufficient to support aerobic respiration and (b) hybrid formation of N<sub>2</sub>O, where two N sources are combined (Spott, Russow

and Stange 2011). It is not clear if induction of anaerobiosis or changes in N source (Takaya 2002; Wei et al. 2014) cause a shift from one pathway to another. Hybrid  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and/or  $\text{N}_2$  formation (also referred to as co-denitrification) has been observed in the presence of inorganic and organic N (Su, Takaya and Shoun 2004; Spott, Russow and Stange 2011; Long et al. 2013) but may also occur in the presence of two inorganic forms of N (Spott, Russow and Stange 2011). Data are lacking that indicate how inorganic and organic sources of N affect fungal denitrification and co-denitrification to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  pre- and postinduction of anaerobiosis. Addition of two N sources (one enriched with  $^{15}\text{N}$ ) would allow us to determine if  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  formation could be attributed to denitrification or co-denitrification.

While a number of fungal strains have been tested for denitrification potential (Maeda et al. 2015), many strains, such as *Bipolaris sorokiniana*, have not been tested. *Bipolaris sorokiniana* is the asexual form (anamorph) of the fungus *Cochliobolus sativus*, a common plant pathogen in the order Pleosporales with a wide range of plant hosts. It is particularly common on cereals in the Poaceae family and is widely known as the causal agent for the common root rot. It can also survive as thick-walled conidia or as saprotrophic mycelium in soil or crop debris. Geographic distribution of *B. sorokiniana* is worldwide, particularly near mid-latitudes, in grasslands and agricultural fields (Kumar et al. 2002). It is not known if this soil fungus will denitrify inorganic or organic forms of N and if aerobic respiration and denitrification co-occur under controlled conditions. While a large body of research has reported bacterial  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  production under microaerobic and anaerobic conditions (Butterbach-Bahl et al. 2013), few reports are available indicating if rates of fungal  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production vary with inorganic and/or organic N. It is unclear if fungi incubated with  $\text{O}_2$  will respond to induction of anaerobiosis in a manner similar to denitrifying bacteria, with increased rates of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production occurring within hours of induction (Firestone and Tiedje 1979; Smith and Tiedje 1979). The goal of this research was to test how N source (organic or inorganic) influences production of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  by *B. sorokiniana* pre and post anaerobiosis. Results add to the emerging body of knowledge regarding controls on fungal denitrification and co-denitrification processes.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

We used pure culture of *B. sorokiniana* (Sacc.) Shoemaker [teleomorph: *C. sativus* (S. Ito & Kurib.) Drechsler ex Dastur] to test how organic N [glutamine ( $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{10}\text{N}_2\text{O}_3$ )] and inorganic N [ammonium sulfate ( $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ ) and sodium nitrite ( $\text{NaNO}_2$ )] sources might influence fungal production of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  under sterile conditions. We controlled  $\text{O}_2$  status with air-tight laboratory incubation vessels to evaluate rates of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  production pre and post anaerobiosis on the same samples (Firestone and Tiedje 1979; Smith and Tiedje 1979; Zhou et al. 2001; Butterbach-Bahl et al. 2013). We obtained isolate ICMP 6809 from the ICMP culture collection (<http://www.landcareresearch.co.nz/resources/collections/icmp>) in its anamorphic state. It was grown under aerobic conditions in the same media previously used by Rohe et al. (2014a,b) and Shoun et al. (1992), containing 1% glucose, 0.2% peptone, 0.02%  $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7 \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 2 ppm  $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 6 \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 2 ppm  $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7 \text{H}_2\text{O}$  and 0.01 mol potassium phosphate (pH 7.4). This media, which contained N as peptone, was used only for fungal growth. Another media, where the N source was omitted, was used for the incubations and referred to here as no-N media. After 7 days,

cultures were washed, drained and stored in a reduced volume of the no-N media. Using the no-N media, four solutions were prepared for fungal inoculation: (a) no-N media (b) 0.5 mmols N as  $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{10}\text{N}_2\text{O}_3$ , (c) 0.25 mmols N as  $\text{Na}^{15}\text{NO}_2$  (99.5 atom%; Cambridge Isotope Laboratory, Andover, MA) and 0.25 mmols N as  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ , or (d) 0.25 mmols N as  $\text{Na}^{15}\text{NO}_2$  and 0.25 mmols N as  $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{10}\text{N}_2\text{O}_3$ . The  $\text{Na}^{15}\text{NO}_2$  was used to determine if these fungi would preferentially use  $\text{NO}_2$  to form  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (thus forming  $^{46}\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ) or if other sources of N would be utilized.

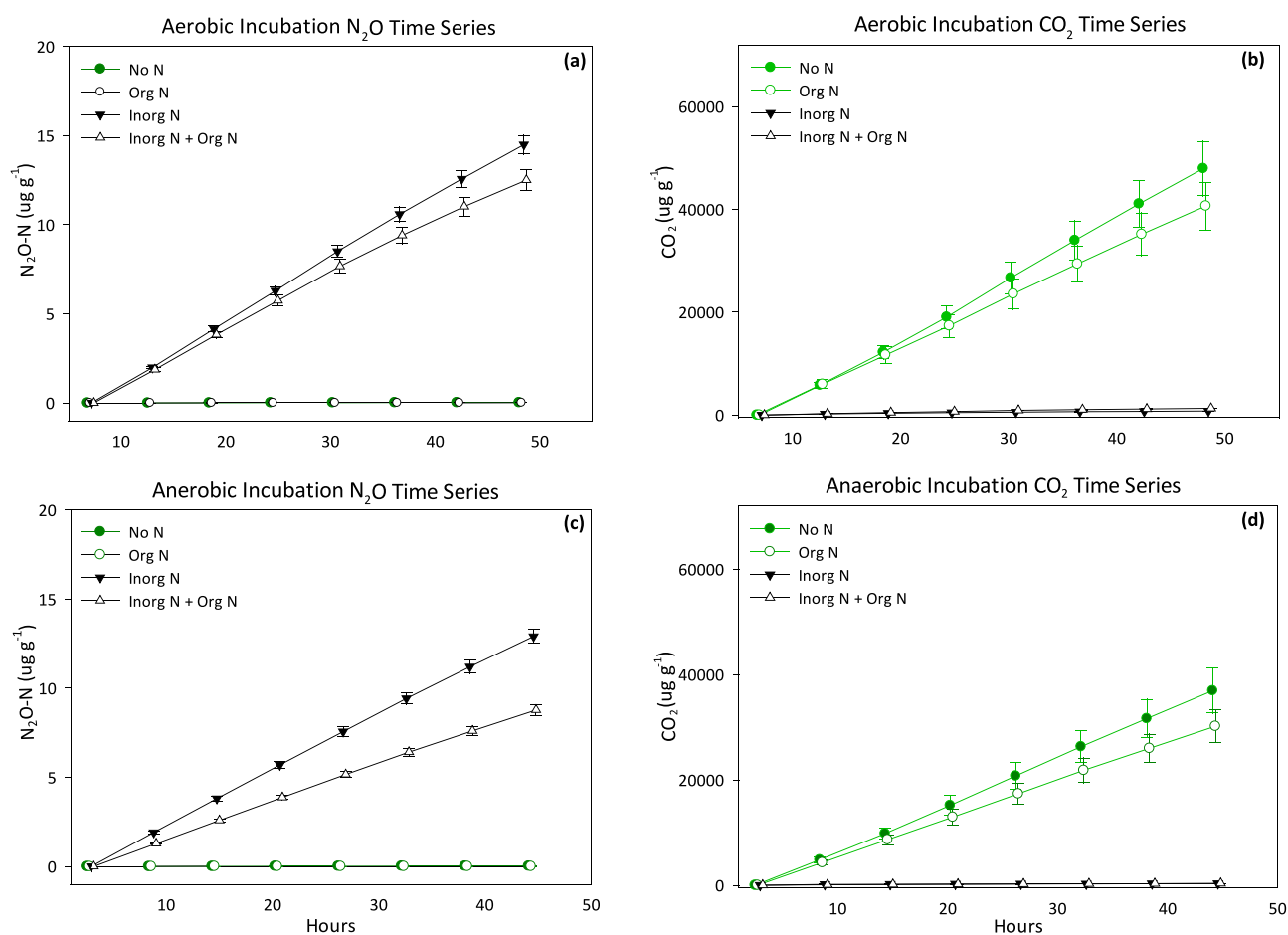
Approximately 10 ml of fungal biomass were transferred to 125 ml serum bottles, and four replicate bottles were inoculated with 1 ml of each sterile solution and 1 ml of no-N media. Additional bottles containing media solutions without fungi were also prepared. All bottles were sealed and the headspace evacuated and flushed with ultrapure helium, and then injected with  $\text{O}_2$  to achieve 0.4%  $\text{O}_2$  headspace before setting up on a robotic gas chromatograph (GC) fitted with electron capture and thermal conductivity detectors (Phillips et al. 2014; McMillan et al. 2015). Bottles were placed on the GC and measured every 6 hours for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  at 19°C. Following this 48-h incubation experiment, bottles were then evacuated and flushed three times to create an anaerobic headspace for the second experiment, where the only difference between experiments was headspace  $\text{O}_2$  concentration. Sterility was maintained and conditions remained constant during both incubations, including pH (ranged from 6.2 to 6.9). Data were normalized to the corresponding dry weight of fungal biomass in each bottle. The N isotopes for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  gas in the headspace of each sample at the end of the incubations were measured on a continuous-flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Thermo Finnigan Delta V; Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) in line with an automated gas bench interface (Thermo Gas Bench II) to determine if  $^{45}\text{N}_2\text{O}$  or  $^{46}\text{N}_2\text{O}$  were present. Precision of the isotopic analysis was <1 atom%. Data were analysed for effects of N source treatment on  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  production rates for microaerobic and anaerobic experiments separately with a generalized linear model and means were compared with Tukey's test.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 and Fig. 1 show effects of treatment on  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production for the microaerobic incubations were similar to effects of treatment for the anaerobic incubations. Fungi inoculated with only organic-N ( $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{10}\text{N}_2\text{O}_3$ ) or no-N media only linearly produced  $\text{CO}_2$  (1–2 mg  $\text{CO}_2 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) but not  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ . Fungi inoculated with inorganic-N ( $\text{Na}^{15}\text{NO}_2$  or  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ ) or inorganic-N plus organic-N ( $\text{Na}^{15}\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{10}\text{N}_2\text{O}_3$ ) linearly produced  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (0.2–0.3  $\mu\text{g} \text{ N}_2\text{O-N h}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) but an order of magnitude less  $\text{CO}_2$ . The mass  $^{46}\text{N}_2\text{O}$  comprised 94.7%–97.3% of all  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  in the headspace, yielding an equivalent  $^{15}\text{N}$  of 98 to 99 ( $\pm 0.3$ ) atom%. This enrichment was effectively equivalent to enrichment of the  $^{15}\text{NO}_2$  used in the experiment. The lack of headspace  $^{45}\text{N}_2\text{O}$  indicated hybrid formation of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  by *B. sorokiniana* did not occur under any of these conditions, and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  was the only N form used to form  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ . Headspace  $\text{O}_2$  (Fig. 2) over the aerobic time course indicated rapid declines for the no-N media and organic-N treatments but not the inorganic-N treatments. Minimal rates of  $\text{CO}_2$  respiration (Table 1) in the presence of inorganic-N were consistent with lack of  $\text{O}_2$  utilization by *B. sorokiniana* (Fig. 2). We also observed chemodenitrification (6%–8% of total biologically produced  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ) for media amended with inorganic-N only (van Cleemput 1998; Kampschreur et al. 2011; Jones et al. 2015).

**Table 1.** Rates of  $N_2O$  and  $CO_2$  produced during (1) aerobic and (2) anaerobic incubation experiments by treatment per gram of fungal biomass. Average rates followed by different letters for each experiment represent significant differences between treatments. The same letters indicate no differences between treatments.

Experiment	Treatment	Mean		Mean	
		$ng\ N_2O-N\ h^{-1}\ g^{-1}\ biomass$	Std. Dev.	$\mu g\ CO_2\ h^{-1}\ g^{-1}\ biomass$	Std. Dev.
Anaerobic	No N	0.51 <sup>a</sup>	0.26	896.45 <sup>a</sup>	206.08
	Organic N	0.29 <sup>a</sup>	0.11	728.46 <sup>a</sup>	148.66
	Inorganic N	311.30 <sup>b</sup>	18.98	6.17 <sup>b</sup>	1.34
	Inorganic N + organic N	211.79 <sup>c</sup>	14.44	7.87 <sup>b</sup>	1.48
Aerobic	No N	0.57 <sup>a</sup>	0.23	1179.89 <sup>a</sup>	262.62
	Organic N	0.32 <sup>a</sup>	0.23	988.19 <sup>a</sup>	222.95
	Inorganic N	354.55 <sup>b</sup>	26.00	18.26 <sup>b</sup>	1.48
	Inorganic N + organic N	306.33 <sup>c</sup>	28.61	31.52 <sup>b</sup>	4.03



**Figure 1.** Average (std. dev;  $n = 4$ )  $N_2O$  and  $CO_2$  measured in the headspace per g of fungal biomass by treatment during aerobic (a, b) and anaerobic (c, d) incubations.

Evidence of chemodenitrification, where  $N_2O$  was produced under sterile conditions, may be due to reactions between  $NO_2^-$  and reduced metals in the media (van Cleemput 1998; Kampschreur et al. 2011). We chose the media for this experiment because it is commonly used for fungal denitrification investigations (Shoun et al. 1992; Rohe et al. 2014a,b). Kampschreur et al. (2011) used a chemostat to demonstrate that  $NO_2^-$  to  $NO$  is an equilibrium-based reaction, where emissions of  $NO$  and  $N_2O$  were coupled to iron oxidation under anoxic conditions. A recent review by Medinets et al. (2015) argued that  $NO_2^-$ , a precursor of  $NO$ , is central to processes associated with chemodenitrifica-

tion. Additional research is needed to determine the reactants involved in this specific media and the prevalence of chemodenitrification in an oxygenated headspace.

Evidence of biological denitrification coupled with reduced  $CO_2$  respiration in the presence of inorganic-N may be due to *B. sorokiniana* preferentially denitrifying as a defence against accumulation of  $NO_2^-$  (Geets, Boon and Verstraete 2006; Clark et al. 2012). Fungi are capable of converting  $NO_2^-$  to  $NO$ , the precursor to soil  $N_2O$  emissions (Russow, Stange and Nueue 2009), through expression of the  $NO_2^-$  reductase gene (*nirK*), and  $NO$  is a regulator of  $O_2$  consumption in eukaryotes (Thomas et al.

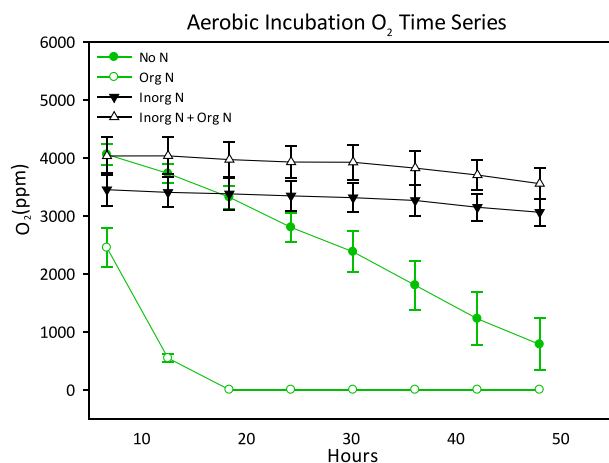


Figure 2. Average (std. dev;  $n = 4$ )  $O_2$  measured in the headspace by treatment during aerobic incubation.

2001). We suspect that some  $NO_2^-$  was converted to NO (both abiotic and biotic), which inhibited mitochondrial respiration (Thomas et al. 2001; Medinets et al. 2015) and therefore  $CO_2$  production, as shown in Fig. 1 and Table 1. One way of discerning the importance of  $NO_2^-$  reduction to NO and  $N_2O$  by *B. sorokiniana* would be to identify *nirK* gene expression in conjunction with NO measurements. If *B. sorokiniana* does not reduce  $NO_2^-$  to NO, then chemical transformation of  $NO_2^-$  may be the source of NO (van Cleemput 1998; Kampschreur et al. 2011). In either event, there is a need to identify chemical versus biological sources of NO, the precursor to  $N_2O$  (Russow, Stange and Nueue 2009).

Denitrification in soils and sediments is referred to as a keystone ecosystem service with positive water quality implications. However, when  $N_2O$  is the final end product of denitrification, there are negative impact on stratospheric ozone and radiative forcing in the troposphere (Erisman et al. 2013). Here, *B. sorokiniana*, a ubiquitous soil fungus, demonstrated the capacity to transform dissolved  $NO_2^-$  to gaseous  $N_2O$  at the expense of aerobic respiration, a more energetically favourable pathway. Denitrification and aerobic respiration for *B. sorokiniana* were closely linked via  $NO_2^-$ . Additional investigations into alternative respiration pathways and effects of inorganic N on C assimilation are warranted, particularly with respect to  $O_2$  status. Here, we focused on how inorganic and organic N sources influence pathways to  $N_2O$  production before and after onset of anaerobiosis (Firestone and Tiedje 1979; Smith and Tiedje 1979; Zhou et al. 2001). Future work should be designed with sample in parallel to test how  $O_2$  and N interact to affect fungal denitrification phenotype and genotype. Our results suggest that fungal denitrification may not be driven by anaerobiosis but instead by form of N; however, additional strains need to be tested to determine if this is widespread among soil fungi or unique to *B. sorokiniana*.

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Conflict of interest. None declared.

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