

## CHAPTER I.

### INTRODUCTION.



#### 1. The Nitrogen Cycle

Nitrogen is a key building element of protein and nucleic acid molecules upon which all life is based on, thus it is an indispensable component of simple organisms such as bacteria as well as complex organisms like higher plants and animals. The nitrogen present in animals are obtained from food which are directly or indirectly derived from plant tissues (Figure 1) therefore increasing crop yield certainly increases nutritional materials for animals (1). All of vegetational cover of the earth is dependent on inorganic nitrogen for growth, so it requires continual conservation and maintenance of this form of nitrogen. The available form of nitrogen for plants are ammonium-nitrogen and nitrate-nitrogen. Plant gains the available nitrogen either from man-application of nitrate, ammonium and urea fertilizers, or from several natural processes. The first and major natural process is the mineralization of soil organic nitrogen into available form by soil microbes (2). Secondly the fixation of dinitrogen ( $N_2$ ) in the atmosphere into nitrate and nitrite via spontaneous reaction with oxygen during the thunderstorm, and into ammonia via a biological pathway.

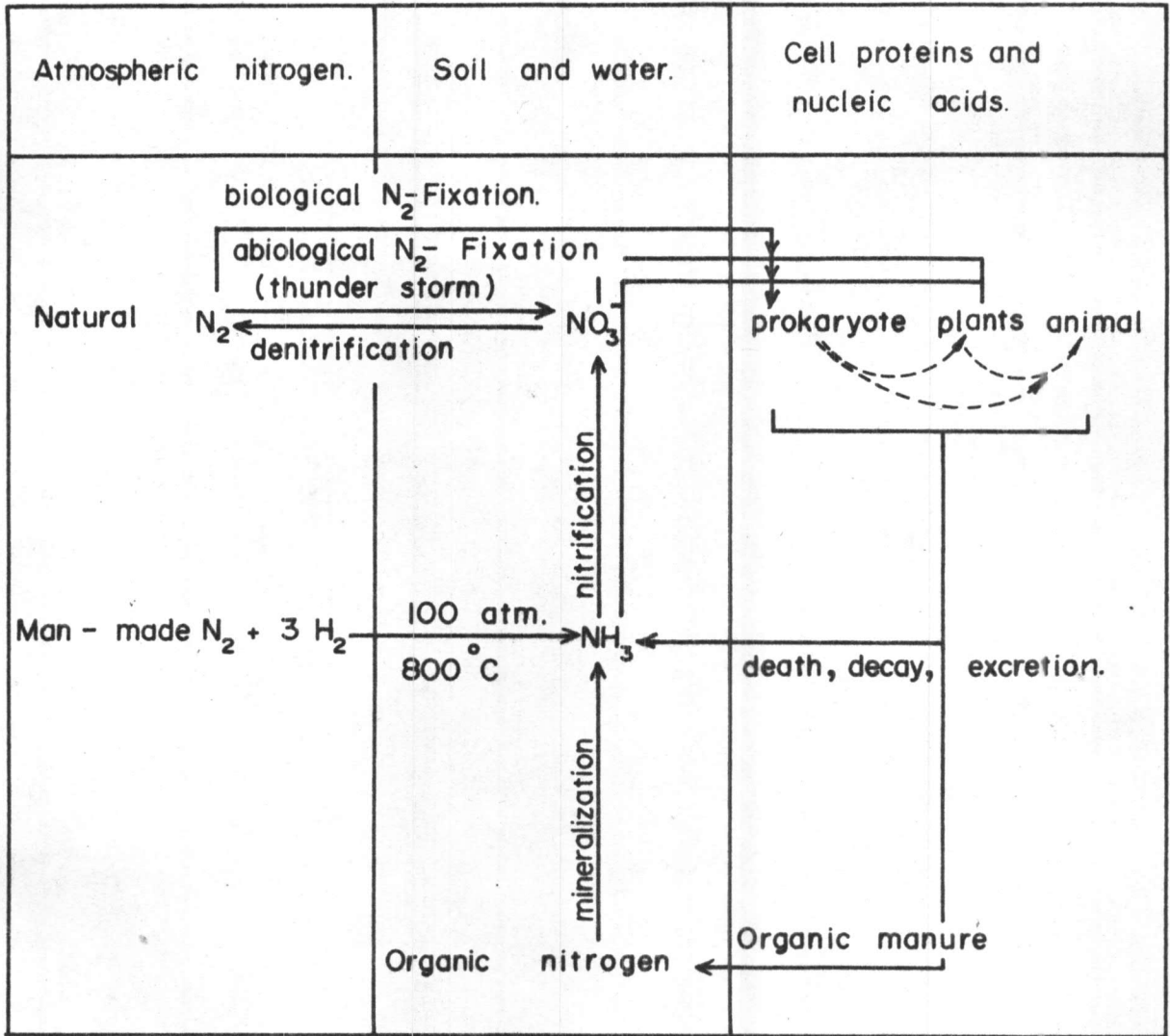


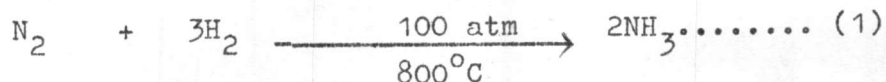
Figure 1. The principle reactions of the nitrogen cycle, modified from Sprent, 1979. (3)

## 2. The dinitrogen fixation

Fixation of molecular dinitrogen, man-made or natural into other compounds constitutes the primary input of nitrogen into the biosphere (4).

### 2.1 Man - made industrial process.

Nitrogen and hydrogen can be combined by the industrial Haber-Bosch process to form ammonia which can be used for fertilizer at the expense of the fossil fuel. It was estimated that about 1.5 kg. of fuel oil is needed to manufacture and deliver 1 kg. of fertilizer to the farm (3). According to the 1975 UN statistics 48 TgN (TgN =  $10^{12}$  gram nitrogen) was fixed by the world production of nitrogen fertilizer in 1975 (4).



### 2.2 Natural nitrogen fixation process.

#### 2.2.1 Fixation by lightning.

A review on fixation by lightning by Soderlund and Svensson (5) gave the idea that the atmospheric nitrogen is fixed, by the oxidation of electric discharge from the lightning phenomenon, to the nitrite or nitrate form, but the amount of atmospheric nitrogen fixed by this process was concluded to be of minor importance for the nitrate content of rain water. Burns and Hardy (6) also reported the amount of  $\text{N}_2$  fixed via oxidation by lightning is about 20 % of nitrogen precipitated as  $\text{NO}_2^- / \text{NO}_3^-$ .

#### 2.2.2 Biological dinitrogen fixation.

In the biological system, nitrogen-fixing organisms light energy, directly or indirectly to produce.



ammonia from atmospheric nitrogen and since manufacture occurs on the site, delivery costs are not necessary. This energy-saving potential of biological nitrogen fixation is therefore ranked its importance.

#### 2.2.2.1 The three types of biological $N_2$ -fixation.

All the organisms that can utilize atmospheric nitrogen (78% of the air) belong to the kingdom known as the prokaryotes. The three types of biological  $N_2$ -fixation are as follow (6).

##### a. Obligatory symbiotic type.

The symbioses bring together two species, neither of which can fix  $N_2$  independently. The inability of either partner to fix  $N_2$  independently is the qualifying characteristic which distinguishes these obligatory symbioses from the other two types. The Rhizobium - legume root nodule symbioses are the only definitive examples of obligatory symbiosis (3,7).

##### b. Associative symbiotic type.

A great variety of associations exist between free-living nitrogen-fixers (diazotrophs) and other organisms (non-diazotroph). Most of these associations are based on the non-diazotroph contributing carbon compounds to the diazotroph, usually via an exudate, and the diazotroph contributing nitrogen to its host, usually in the form of N - containing compounds generated in the decomposition of dead diazotroph cells, i.e. organisms capable of decomposing polysaccharides have been observed to stimulate  $N_2$  fixation such as Anabaena sp. and Azolla sp. association (8,9),

Panicum maximum associated with Spirillum lipoferum (10,11) ,  
Azotobacter chroococcum, A. vinelandi, Azospirillum sp. associated  
with maize roots (12,13) , Beijerinckia, sp., Enterobacter, sp.  
Azospirillum sp. associated with rice roots (12,14,15).

c. Free living type.

The free living diazotrophic micro-organisms are independent microorganisms. Three categories of them are classified according to their demand of oxygen.

(a) Aerobic diazotrophs, which have evolved several ways of living in an aerobic environment are Azotobacter sp., Derxia sp., (13) and some blue green algae, such as Anabaena sp., Glocotrichia sp., and Nostoc sp. (16) .

(b) Facultative diazotrophs habitate in the aerobic, micro-aerophillic and anaerobic environment such as Klebsiella sp., (17) and some photosynthetic bacteria, i.e. Rhodospirillum sp., (18)

(c) Anaerobic diazotrophs appear in the anaerobic environment such as Clostridium sp. (19) .

The basic nitrogen fixation reaction of all the diazotrophic microorganisms appears to be the same in all cases, i.e. the reduction of  $N_2$  to  $NH_3$  with the aid of the enzyme complex named nitrogenase.

## 2.2.2.2 The Nitrogenase (20)

The nitrogenase system can be separated into two components. One of these, azoferredoxin (azoFd) is an extremely oxygen sensitive iron-sulfur protein. Azoferredoxin consists of two identical peptide chains of M.W. about 30,000. Each dimer contains 4 iron atoms,  $4S^{-2}$  and 12 tetratable thiol groups. The other component molybdoferredoxin (MoFd) contains both iron and molybdenum as well as labile sulfide. This protein contains two kinds of peptide chains of the M.W. 51,000 and 60,000 in a mixed ( $\alpha_2\beta_2$ ) tetramer. Each mixed tetramer contains two molybdenum atoms, approximately 24 iron atoms,  $24 S^{-2}$  and 30 tetratable thiol groups, possibly in the form of three  $Fe_4S_4$  clusters. The protein associate in a ratio of two dimeric azoFd molecules to one MoFd to form the nitrogenase complex.

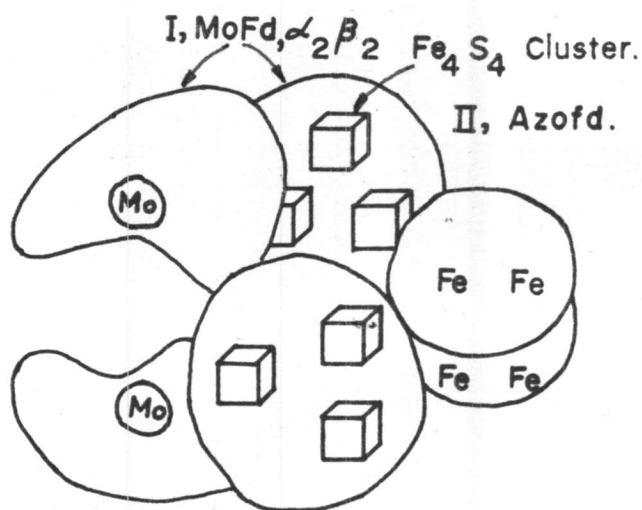


Figure 2 Hypothetical structure of a nitrogenase molecule, from Metzler, 1977 (20).

### 2.2.2.3 Detection of biological nitrogen fixation.

As research in  $N_2$  fixation and analytical technique advanced, a variety of assay methods for  $N_2$  fixation were developed, the observation of growth and morphology of legume root nodule development is one of the most simple indirect methods. Analysis of increasing  $N_2$  content after  $N_2$  fixation in a specific condition is also possible by using the Kjeldahl method (21). However, to achieve higher sensitivity another two techniques are widely used:

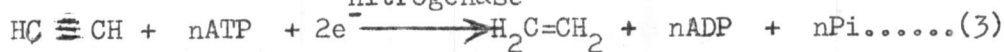
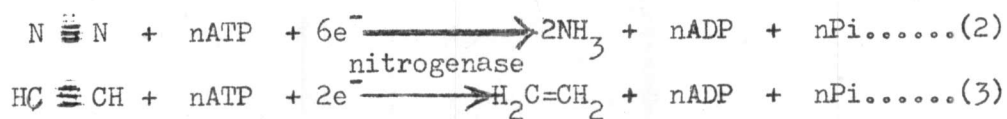
#### a. $^{15}N_2$ method

The application of the stable isotope  $^{15}N$ ; by the preparation of  $N_2$  enriched in  $^{15}N$  and measure the  $^{14}N/^{15}N$  ratio in a mass spectrometer. Burns and Hardy, (6) reported the use of this technique to study N-assimilation in Azotobacter provided a sensitivity about 1000 - fold greater than that of the Kjeldahl's method.

#### b. Acetylene reduction method.

The discovery that nitrogenase could reduce compounds other than  $N_2$  led to the development of acetylene reduction assay for  $N_2$  fixation. Dilworth, (22) discovered that nitrogenase could reduce acetylene ( $C_2H_2$ ) to ethylene ( $C_2H_4$ ). The analysis were conducted by incubating the test material in a gas-tight container which contains a partial pressure of  $C_2H_2$ . At an appropriate interval, samples of the atmosphere was withdrawn by a gas tight syringe for immediated analysis of  $C_2H_4$  production in a gas chromatograph. The reduction of 3 moles of  $C_2H_2$  to  $C_2H_4$

was equivalent to the reduction of one mole of  $N_2$  as shown in equation (2) and (3). The factor for estimation  $N_2$  fixation from  $C_2H_2$  reduction is called conversion factor, which was theoretically 3. The variation of this factor was discussed by Hardy and Burns (23).



The sensitivity of this method is claimed to be about  $10^3$  times greater than the  $^{15}N_2$  method (6)

2.2.2.4 Evaluation of biological  $N_2$  fixation associated with the rice plant by acetylene reduction method.

There are two types of measurement by the acetylene reduction method.

a. In Situ method, acetylene reduction method involves the intact plant system in the pot or in the field. The assay is performed by using a plastic bag covering each rice hill in the rice paddy, connecting with the cylindrical base to separate the rhizospheric part from its surrounding. Acetylene was applied to this closed system, and atmospheric sample was drawn later on and measured in a gas chromatograph. This method is based on two assumptions. First,  $C_2H_2$  must reach the  $N_2$  fixing site, and the other, the  $C_2H_4$  that evolves from  $C_2H_2$  reduction at the  $N_2$  fixing site must be quantitatively recovered from the assay chamber. Lee, et al. (24) reported that stirring the water-saturated soil before sampling reduces the amount of  $C_2H_4$  remaining in soil. Diffusion of  $C_2H_2$  and  $C_2H_4$  through water saturated paddy soil by themselves are very slow,



but the rice plant has a well-developed gas transporting system to carry  $O_2$  and  $N_2$  from the aerial parts through out the basal parts of the roots. It was assumed that the  $C_2H_2$  supplied to the  $N_2$  fixing sites near or in the rice roots is more likely dependent upon the gas transporting system rather than upon simple diffusion. It is still doubtful whether this in situ field assay techniques could detect nitrogen-fixation in anaerobic soil remote from roots. In 1979 Watanabe, et al., (25) has modified this technique by using the intact rice plants grown in water culture, and measured their associated ARA in closed assay chambers to eliminate the restriction of slow transfer of  $C_2H_2$  and low recovery of  $C_2H_4$  in a water saturated soil system.

b. In vitro method.

Although this method did not involve ecosystem of the rice plant like the first method, but some advantages of this method should be considered. We could compare for the more important  $N_2$  fixing sites among water, remote soil from roots, rhizospheric soil, excised rice root (25,26,27) and surfaced sterilized root. The ARA associated with the inner and outer rhizosphere could also be compared (28). The samples were preincubated in the media in assayed flask for a period of time and then  $C_2H_2$  was administered, and  $C_2H_4$  produced was measured. The disadvantages of this method are the followings. Firstly, the exposure of the rhizosphere to the air reduce  $C_2H_2$  reduction activity (ARA) considerably, because of damage of nitrogenase by oxygen (26,27).

In addition, the overestimation of ARA resulted from the proliferation of microorganism during preincubation before  $C_2H_2$  reduction assay in the media should be considered (27).

### 3. Nitrogen Fixation in lowland rice paddy ecosystem

It has long been observed that a mechanism for maintaining nitrogen fertility should be operated in a submerged rice ecosystem. For example, Okuda, (29) showed that the rice yield in a flooded plot without nitrogen fertilizer stayed almost constant for several years. In Japan and in Southeast Asia, rice has been grown for many centuries without chemical nitrogen fertilizer and in some places, a considerable rice yield has been continuously obtained without adding nitrogen fertilizer. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that nitrogen input took place by some means to compensate for the removal of nitrogen by the crop. Biological  $N_2$  fixation may partly explain this long term nitrogen fertility in a submerged soil ecosystem. The principal agents of biological  $N_2$  fixation in a rice paddies are as follow (30,31), and is shown in Figure 3.

1. Free living blue green algae
2. Associative symbioses between blue green algal and the water fern (Azolla)
3. Heterotrophic bacteria
  - 3.1 in the rice rhizosphere
  - 3.2 in the soil remote from the rice root.

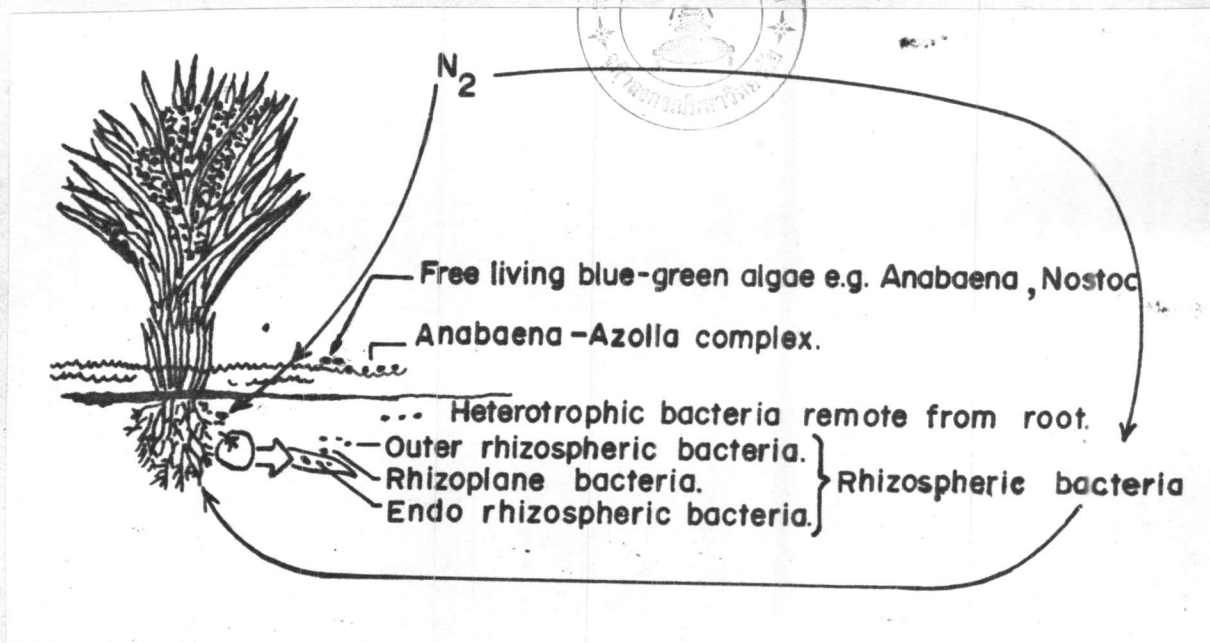


Figure 3 The principal agents of biological  $N_2$  fixation in a rice paddies

Although high potential of  $N_2$  fixation was reported in the blue green algal-azolla complex ( $N_2$  fixing rate 450 kg N/ha/hr)(30). It requires permanent supply of irrigated water and direct light energy. On the other hand heterotrophic nitrogen fixing bacteria can survive in merely rained fed paddies and use chemical energy from organic matters in the soil. Moreover the transport of  $N_2$ -fixed by the rhizospheric diazotroph into the associated rice root should be more efficient than from the azolla system. Thus, the role of rhizospheric  $N_2$  fixing bacteria is considered as the most promising system in the nonirrigated rice area of Thailand.

Associative heterotrophic diazotroph in the rice rhizosphere.

Mac Rae and Castro (31) reported that rice root excreted some carbohydrates and amine acids. These root exudates attracted the heterotrophic bacteria to the rice rhizosphere, so that the population of the bacteria attached to root surface is greater than the sites remote from the rice roots. These heterotrophic bacteria are mostly  $N_2$ -fixer, thus the rice plants can gain  $N_2$ -fixed by these bacteria.

The rhizospheric diazotrophic bacteria associated with the rice root can be divided into three categories (32) .

1. Outer rhizospheric bacteria is the bacteria which inhabits in the soil adhering roots, so if we washed off the soil from the root by tap water, these bacteria should be removed out.
2. Rhizoplane bacteria is the bacteria which associate firmly with the root surface, and remained attached to the root surface after washing with tap water.
3. Endorhizospheric bacteria is the bacteria which penetrate into the cortical layer of the root, and thus be protected from surface sterilization.
4. The research on rhizospheric biological nitrogen fixation in the rice paddies.

In 1959, Chakarborty and Sen Gupta (33) cultivated the Oryza sativa, variety Amen, in liquid nitrogen-free (NF) medium and found a gain of 50 percent of the nitrogen content in 7-week old

plants. They suggested that rice plants might be capable of fixing atmospheric nitrogen. In 1971, Yoshida and Ancajas (34) carried out similar experiment, but using sterilized rice seed grown in sterilized flooded soil, they could not detect nitrogen fixation. They therefore concluded that nitrogen was fixed by nitrogen-fixing bacteria associated with the rhizosphere. Later in 1973, Yoshida and Ancajas (35) used acetylene reduction and  $^{15}\text{N}$  method to study  $\text{N}_2$  fixation in the rhizosphere of rice under field condition in the Philippines. They reported that nitrogen fixation ranging from 3 to 63 kg/ha occurred in soil, water and the rice plant rhizosphere. The highest  $\text{N}_2$ -fixing activity was found in the rhizosphere and was more pronounced under flooded than under upland condition. The nitrogen-fixing activity in the flooded soil increased after the panicle initiation stage of the rice plant. It was higher in the planted soil than in the unplanted soil. In 1978, Hirota, et al. (27), collected 50 strains of rice from various countries in Asia. The plants were grown in pots until they flowered and the  $\text{N}_2$ -fixing activity of these intact plants were then measured by acetylene reduction method. A wide range of nitrogen fixing activity was observed. There were significant variations between strains. The highest value was about 1100 nmol per plant per hour. Strains showing high activity were collected in India and Thailand. They concluded that the rice plant genotype influenced the association with nitrogen-fixing bacteria in its rhizosphere.

In Thailand, Firth, et al., (36) studied the nitrogen balance in the rice paddies field of the central plain, they



suggested that biological  $N_2$ -fixation should account for the positive  $N_2$ -gained of 47 kg/ha in the non-fertilized plot. In 1974 Matsuguchi, et al. (15) investigated for the  $N_2$ -fixing potential in 40 paddy fields by collecting the top soil (0-2,cm) and paddy water samples consecutively through out a rice growing season. They used the dilution method to determine the abundance of  $N_2$  fixer and the acetylene reduction method to measure the  $N_2$ -fixing activity associated with the soil and water samples. Blue-green algae, non sulfur purple bacteria, Clostridium butyricum, Beijerinckia sp. and Azotobacter sp. were the diazotrophs reported. The average amount of annual nitrogen fixed by these  $N_2$  fixer as estimated from acetylene-reducing activities of soil and paddy water sample was 6.9 kgN/ha. During (1976-1978), Cholitkul, et al. (37) used in situ  $C_2H_2$  -reduction technique to assess the effect of phosphorus on  $N_2$ -fixation activity associated with the rice paddies in Chainat, Supanburi, and Klonglaung. Assays were made at the maximum tillering, heading and maturing stages during four continuous cropping seasons spanning this 2 years. They reported the average of daily  $C_2H_2$  -reduction activity at Chainat, Supanburi and Klonglaung were 0.83, 1.5 and 0.43 mmol:  $C_2H_4/m^2$  respectively in nonfertilized plot, and were 1.8, 2.1 and 0.92 mmol:  $C_2H_4/m^2$  respectively in PK-fertilized application plot. They concluded that P-fertilizer application enhance  $N_2$ -fixation without addition of nitrogen fertilizer.

In 1977, Simasatitkul and Boonjawat (38) studied biological nitrogen fixation in the rice paddy field by using an in vitro

acetylene reduction method. Rice (Oryza sativa variety RD.1) was grown in the nonfertilized plots at Klonglaung Rice Experiment Station, Pathumthani. Washed rice root, rhizospheric soil and paddy water samples were collected biweekly from these plots throughout the rice growing season. Comparison of nitrogen fixation rate in the 3 types of paddy showed that washed rice contributed the highest nitrogen fixing activity about 1000-fold of rhizospheric soil and paddy water. The  $N_2$ -fixing profiles are more or less similar either in the nonfertilized plots or NPK-fertilized plots, i.e. maximum activity resides in the panicle initiation stage. These results indicated that the dominant  $N_2$  fixer are the rhizospheric bacteria.

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The evaluation of the biological  $N_2$ -fixing activity in the rice paddies of Thailand in a uniform unit kgN/ha/crop is summarized in Table 1. The calculation is based on the following assumptions:

1. One mole of  $N_2$  is reduced for every 3 moles of  $C_2H_2$ .
2. One hectare contains  $1.6 \times 10^5$  rice hill.
3. 1 crop = 120 days.

Table 1. Evaluation of the N<sub>2</sub>-fixing activity of the rice paddy fields in Thailand.

Authors.	Duration. (crop)	Method.	Site.	N <sub>2</sub> fixed (kgN/ha/crop)	
				Non-fertilized	Fertilized.
Firth <u>et al.</u> (36)	2	N-content	Chainat	47	
Matsuguchi <u>et al.</u> (15)	1	C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> reduction <u>in vitro</u> (soil, water)	40 paddies	6.9	
Cholitkul <u>et al.</u> (37)	4	C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> reduction <u>in situ</u>	Chainat	9.3 †	20.2 *†
			Supanburi	16.8 †	23.5 *†
			Klonglaung	4.8 †	10.3 *†
Simasatitkul and Boonjawat. (38)	1	C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> reduction <u>in vitro</u> (washed rice root)	Klonglaung	6.6 †	6.0 ***†

\* PK = 38, 38 kg/ha

\*\* NP = 74, 74 kg/ha

† calculated values.



## 5. This research.

The aim of this research is to promote the biological  $N_2$ -fixation in the North-Eastern part of Thailand. To approach this aim, we have conducted the following:

5.1 We have studied the  $N_2$ -fixation potential throughout one growing season at three experimental sites, Tapra, Chumpae, and Rangsit. The first two sites are in Khonkan Province and the third in Pathumthani Province. In these three selected sites, we can study the rhizospheric  $N_2$ -fixing profiles under the influence of the following factors;

5.1.1 difference in soil type.

5.1.2 difference in fertilizer treatment.

5.1.3 difference in rice variety.

We have measured the  $N_2$ -fixing activity of the rice rhizosphere in various conditions at these three sites by using the in vitro acetylene reduction technique.

5.2 From the rice root and rhizospheric soil samples possessing ARA, we isolated the  $N_2$ -fixing bacteria using nitrogen free medium aerobic condition. We screened for heterotrophic diazotrophs having  $N_2$ -fixing activity higher than  $1 \text{ umol/OD}_{420}/\text{d}$ .

5.3 We have characterized these  $N_2$ -fixers by the following properties;

5.3.1 morphology characteristic

5.3.2 growth curve

5.3.3 effect of temperature on growth

5.3.4 effect of pH on growth.

5.3.5 relationship between  $N_2$ -fixing activity and stage of growth.

It is hoped that the information obtained from this research, although only basic in concept, but is necessary for the future implication of biological  $N_2$ -fixation in the rice paddies.