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Development and application of the DGT technique for the

measurement of nitrate in soils

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Graphic Abstract

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38 ABSTRACT

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Nitrate (NO_3 -N), the main plant/microbial nitrogen source, has a fast turnover in soil driven 40 by species transformation (nitrification/denitrification) and phyto/microbiota-assimilation. 41 The technique of diffusive gradients in thin films (DGT) is capable of a robust, low 42 43 disturbance measurement of NO₃-N, but it has not been implemented due to the absence of a 44 binding layer suitable for deployment in soils. In this study a new, styrene divinylbenzene based absorbent with amine functional groups (SIR-100-HP) was cast into an agarose gel 45 support. The NO₃-N ion selectivity of the SIR-100-HP/agarose binding layer was retained in 46 the presence of high multivalent ion concentrations and was used successfully to acquire in 47 48 situ NO₃-N measurements in bulk soil. The kinetics of binding and the maximum binding capacity were determined. The total capacity of the DGT containing the SIR-100-HP/agarose 49 binding phase was 667 µg NO₃-N. The performance of DGT was not affected by varying pH 50 (3-8) and ionic strength (0-0.018 mol L⁻¹), while anion competition effects at concentrations 51 reflecting those in common agricultural soils were found to be negligible. Complete elution 52 (100% efficiency) of NO₃-N from the binding phase was achieved using a solution of 5% 53 NaCl. This technique was validated in three contrasting soils. C_{DGT} measurements were in 54 excellent agreement with porewater NO₃-N values. Two-dimensional NO₃-N mapping of a 55 56 profile of flooded rice paddy soil demonstrated the potential of this novel methodology for improved characterisation of in situ N speciation for further understanding of bioavailability 57 and biogeochemical processes of NO₃-N in soils. 58

59

60 INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen (N), an essential mineral nutrient, is present in aerobic soil in several forms, with the oxyanion NO₃-N being the primary species and hence the main available N source for plant/microbial growth. The NO₃-N demand by crops is greater than the natural supply from most soils^{1,2}. Typically plant tissue concentrations are >1000 times higher than that of their corresponding soil porewaters, therefore the diffusive supply of NO₃-N to the roots is a major limiting factor for production yields¹⁻³. In order to sustain and enhance crop production, NO₃-N fertilizers have been widely and heavily applied to agricultural soils, but N-use efficiency remains low and over application of N fertilizers is common; an issue both of environmental and economic concern⁴⁻⁸.

71 Fertiliser applications to agricultural soils are largely determined by the measurements of the 72 exchangeable NO₃-N pool. Salt extractions such as 2M KCl are the worldwide standard, but although of low cost, for many soils they provide a poor prediction of plant-N uptake⁹. 73 74 Common difficulties associated with these assays include: i) a non-selectivity for NO₃-N, 75 with the extraction also targeting all inorganic-N species. Therefore changes in speciation during sample collection, transfer, storage and analysis need to be considered. ii) a failing to 76 encompass the rapid turnover of NO₃-N in soil; a dynamic process governed by many factors 77 including microbial/plant/redox mediated species change, 78 biotic uptake and abiotic immobilisation¹⁰. Changes in the NO₃-N pool with time are not accounted for by individual 79 soil extraction measurements because only a single temporal time point is assessed. 80 Furthermore, collection and processing of the soils invariably disturb the dynamics of the 81 system and hence introduce additional measurement discrepancies. Transporting the collected 82 83 field soils quickly to the laboratory is another consideration and challenge.

84

Quantitative determination of NO₃-N concentrations can be achieved by other methods such as ion-selective electrodes (ISE), but even without considering the detector drift, problems with self-calibrations, a lack of sensitivity and selectivity (especially in complex soil matrixes), the development of organic films and biofouling on the sensors, the high set-up

⁷⁰

and running costs preclude these methods as a widespread soil screening tool. Further, the
 efficacy of ISE's in agricultural field soils has yet to be fully validated¹¹.

91

92 In situ passive sampling techniques that collect analytes in a low disturbance/quantitatively well-defined manner such as DGT (Diffusive Gradients in Thin-films) can potentially 93 94 overcome many of the limitations of both the salt extraction and ISE methods. The DGT measurement is an effective proxy/surrogate for plant uptake because it can successfully 95 mimic the diffusive supply processes near root surfaces, while integrating a wider range of 96 97 key soil properties that impact on release/adsorption than other single measurement approaches^{12,13}. Further, devices can be deployed cost effectively in sufficient numbers to 98 99 obtain good spatial coverage, while critically in the case of NO₃-N assessment, providing a time integrated measurement¹⁴. In situ deployment provides a more realistic measure of the 100 101 soil NO₃-N pool as any disturbance to the system during sampling is minimised.

102

103 A NO₃-N selective DGT would greatly simplify the process of N measurement. The preconcentration of NO₃-N by the DGT binding gel not only improves the sensitivity of the 104 method, reduces measurement bias but also protects against N-speciation changes associated 105 with sample collection, transfer and storage. Very recently, a NO₃-N DGT method based on a 106 Purolite A520E anion exchange resin was developed for freshwaters¹⁵. However to date, 107 108 there has been no validation of the method in soils, where the technique has perhaps it's most 109 merit and yet is most challenged by interferences caused by competing ions. In the present study a new amine functionalised, styrene divinylbenzene, strong base anion exchange resin 110 candidate was investigated for the development of a novel SIR-100-HP/agarose DGT and its 111 112 suitability for NO₃-N measurements in soils.

114 MATERIALS AND METHODS

115 **Apparatus and chemicals**. The anion exchange resin (SIR-100-HP) was purchased from 116 ResintechTM (West Berlin, New Jersey, USA) and milled to a particle size of 200 mesh 117 (Globe Mill, Retch, Germany). Agarose powder was bought from Fisher Scientific (UK). 118 The other reagents were of analytical-reagent grade and were purchased from Sigma (USA). 119 High-purity demineralized water (18.2 Ω M cm⁻¹) provided by a Milli-Q (MQ) Plus filter 120 apparatus (Millipore, USA) was used in this experiment.

121

122 **Preparation of DGT**. The presented method of preparing agarose gel is a modification of the procedure described by Docekalova & Divis¹⁶ and Menegario et al.¹⁷. A diffusive gel 123 124 containing 1.5% (m/v) agarose was prepared by dissolving the agarose in MQ water. The 125 mixture was placed in an oven at 100°C for 2 hr and gently stirred until all the agarose was dissolved. The hot gel solution was mixed well and immediately cast between two preheated 126 glass plates (100°C) separated by a 0.8 mm plastic spacer. The gel-mould was left to cool 127 128 down to room temperature, and dismantled. Discs with a diameter of 2.5 cm were cut from the cooled gel and stored in MQ water. 129

130

A binding gel was prepared following a similar procedure, 4 g of resin (SIR-100-HP), drained of excess water, was transferred to a beaker with 11 ml of 1.5% hot agarose solution. The solution with the resin was mixed vigorously to make sure the resin was fully dispersed. Then the solution was cast into the glass plate mould with 0.5 mm spacers and cooled at room temperature as described above for diffusive gels.

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137

NO₃-N determination. NO₃-N was measured colorimetrically by a spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific) based on the Griess Reagent method according to Thabano *et al.*¹⁸. NO₃-N was reduced to NO₂-N using copper coated cadmium granules. This experimental step operated at >95% efficiency. The NO₂-N produced reacts with sulfanilamide solution, then the resulting solution is coupled with N-(1-Naphtyl)-ethylemediamine dihydrochloride to form a coloured azo dye.

145

Kinetics and the Elution Efficiency of the Binding Gel. A binding layer (resin + gel support) must immobilise the target analyte effectively and efficiently in order to satisfy the requirements of the DGT principle. Mass balance experiments were conducted to investigate the kinetic properties of the binding gels for NO₃-N over a time range spanning 1 min. to 24 hr. In each treatment, performed in triplicate, a gel disc was immersed in a 10 ml solution of $50 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ NO}_3$ -N. The solutions were gently shaken continuously (SSL1 orbital, Stuart, at 50 rpm) with sub-samples collected before disc immersion and after retrieval.

153

NO₃-N must be quantifiably and consistently eluted from the binding layer to enable analytical measurement. Mineral acids are the most common DGT eluents, but are not suitable for a NO₃-N specific DGT because many of the methods for determining NO₃-N are pH sensitive. NaCl is an effective ion exchange resin eluent^{19,20} of neutral pH and widely available at low cost. To optimise the elution of NO₃-N from the gels, discs were immersed in 10 ml of 10 mg L⁻¹ NO₃-N for 20 hr, and then eluted for 4, 8, 20 hr in 5 ml of either 1%, 2%, 3% or 5% (m/v) NaCl.

161

162 Calculating DGT labile NO₃-N. The DGT solute concentration/activity (see equation 1) can
163 be simply derived from 5 parameters.

164

165
$$C_{DGT} = M \times \Delta g / (D \times A \times t)$$
 (eq. 1)

166

167 The diffusive layer thickness (Δg) and sampling window area (*A*) are specific to the geometry 168 of the DGT device, but consistent amongst samplers.

169

Diffusion coefficient (D). As no published diffusion coefficient for NO₃-N in agarose gel was 170 available this had to be experimentally determined. This was achieved using a previously 171 described diffusion cell²¹, which consisted of two compartments (A and B) joined by a 1.5 cm 172 diameter circular connecting window. A 0.8 mm thick diffusive gel was placed across the 173 174 window and the sections secured with clips. Compartment A was filled with 50 ml of 200 mg L⁻¹ NaNO₃ solution and compartment B was filled with MQ water. The solution in each 175 compartment/section was well stirred during the experiments. Subsamples (1 ml) were 176 collected every 10 min. over a time series, ranging from 30 to 120 min.. The diffusion 177 178 coefficient was calculated from the slope of the linear plot of the mass of NaNO₃ in compartment B versus time. 179

180

Time (*t*). The NO₃-N binding layer must be functional within a DGT device over suitable time frames that match possible changes in N concentrations within the environment (i.e. diurnal cycles). To test the time dependence of the NO₃-N DGT, the devices (n = 21) were exposed to a stirred solution containing 10 mg L⁻¹ NO₃-N over a time series of 4 to 48 hr. At each sampling time point, three DGT units were collected for analysis.

186

187 *Mass* (*M*). Binding layers have a finite capacity, which governs the DGT performance. 188 Determining this upper threshold is critical for successful measurements. DGT's (n = 21) were deployed in a series of solutions with different NO₃-N concentrations, spanning a concentration range from 0 to 240 mg L^{-1} for 4 hr. Each concentration treatment was performed in triplicate.

192

193 Characteristics of DGT performance in solutions.

Standard piston-type DGT holders with a 2 cm diameter exposure window (DGT Research Ltd.) were used for the DGT devices. A 0.5 mm thick binding gel was placed on the bottom of the holder, which was covered in order by a 0.8 mm thick diffusion gel and a 0.13 mm thick cellulose filter membrane (Whatman, 0.45 μ m pore size). Unless otherwise stated all the tests were carried out in a deployment tank containing 2.8 L of 50 mg L⁻¹ NO₃-N solution and eluted in 5% NaCl (m/v) for 8 hrs.

200

201 *DGT Detection Limits*, were calculated as three times the standard deviation of the DGT 202 blanks (gels used in the devices were derived from the same gel batches used for the DGT 203 experiments) (n = 12). Blank analyses were assessed as follows: DGT devices (three 204 replicates per experiment) were assembled and placed in a deployment tank with 2.8 L MQ 205 water for 4 hr.

206

Effect of pH and Ionic Strength. In order to investigate the effect of pH on DGT responses, DGT assemblies were immersed in NaNO₃ solutions prepared to cover a pH range from 3.1 to 8.1. The pH of the solutions was adjusted using dilute 1% H₂SO₄ (v/v) or 2 mol L⁻¹ NaOH. . To test DGT performance at low ionic strengths, DGT assemblies were exposed to NaNO₃ solution with appropriate additions of Na₂SO₄ to give an ionic strength range of 0 to 0.018 mol L⁻¹. For both deployment campaigns (*pH and ionic strength*) and at each treatment, three SIR-100-HP/agarose DGT devices were deployed in two separate time series experiments (4 and 24 hr), one following the standard DGT testing procedure and the otherfor being consistent with the soil deployment time of 24 hr.

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Competition. The effect of potential competitive anions in solutions at concentrations that reflect the porewater of most common soils was studied²². DGT devices (in triplicate) were deployed separately for both 4 and 24 hr in various well stirred solutions containing both 50 mmol L⁻¹ NaNO₃ and: (a) no other amendment/control, (b) Cl⁻ [250 mg L⁻¹], (c) NO₂-N [1 mg L⁻¹], (d) CaCO₃ [13 mg L⁻¹], (e) HCO₃⁻ [50 mg L⁻¹], (f) HPO₄ ²⁻ [10 mg L⁻¹].

223

224 Characteristics of DGT performance in soils.

Three contrasting agricultural soils (0-20cm depth), two from the UK and one from South China were tested. The two soils from the UK have been characterized previously^{23,24}, the first being a humic rendzina with a clay loam texture (*Rendzina*) and the second a brown sandy loam (*Brown sand*). The final sample was a clay/silt paddy soil (*Paddy soil*). Prior to DGT deployment the soils were air-dried and then passed through a 2 mm sieve to ensure homogeneous soil samples for comparison of porewater and DGT-measured concentrations.

231

For DGT deployment, 80 g of each air-dried soil sample was brought to 60% maximum water holding capacity (MWHC) and incubated for 2 days. The moisture content was then raised to 80% MWHC for 24 hr¹³. DGT devices (n=3) were placed on the soil paste and twisted gently a few times to ensure complete contact between the filter membrane of the device and the soil. They were deployed for 20 hr at 16.5° C.

237

On retrieval, DGT devices were jet-washed with MQ water to remove soil particles and then disassembled. The binding gels were removed from the DGT device and immersed in 10 mL of 5% NaCl (m/v) for at least 8 hr prior to analysis. After completing the DGT deployments, soil solution was collected by centrifuging the soil at 5000 g for 15 min. ²³. The supernatants were filtered through a 13 mm diameter, 0.45 μ m, polysulfone filter. Total concentrations of NO₃-N in DGT elutes and in soil pore water were determined by using the method stated previously.

246

247 Two dimensional mapping of NO₃-N distribution in paddy soil

In this experiment perspex rhizotrons with removable front plates^{25,26} (inner dimensions. 248 HxWxD: 40x20x3cm) were filled with dry, sieved (< 2 mm) paddy soil, which was set in 249 250 layers to achieve an even soil structure. Soils were carefully re-wetted with a water spray until saturation. A nuclepore membrane (0.2 μ m pore size, thickness ~ 10 μ m) then overlaid 251 the soil, and was secured to the outer walls of the rhizotron with water-proof tape. A rice 252 253 seedling was transplanted into the rhizotron and the whole system was transferred into a water tank in the greenhouse for three months. The spatial heterogeneity of NO₃-N 254 distribution in soil would have been developed with time due to biogeochemical processes in 255 both bulk soil and in the rhizosphere. At grain maturation, a 12.5 x 6.5 cm NO₃-N DGT was 256 deployed within the root zone, attached to the inner-side of the detachable front plate of the 257 rhizotron with waterproof tape. Ingress of oxygen into the anaerobic soils was minimal 258 during deployment as this operation was performed in aquarium water that had previously 259 been deoxygenated with nitrogen. 260

261

After deployment, the NO₃-N DGT was rinsed with MQ water, cut into 5x5 mm squares and transferred into 1.5 ml micro-centrifuge tubes. Gel pieces were eluted in 1 ml 5% NaCl and shaken for 8 hr at room temperature. The samples were then centrifuged at 5000g for 5 min. and the recovered solutions transferred to 15 ml tubes and diluted 6 times. NO₃-N concentrations were analyzed by flow injection analysis (Manufacturer: Lachat Inc., USA).

267

268 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

269 Kinetic performance of the SIP-100-HP binding gel

Figure 1a demonstrates the adsorption of NO₃-N by the resin gel with time. The initial 270 steepness of the uptake curve (0-10 min.) demonstrates that binding is sufficiently rapid to 271 272 ensure the NO₃-N concentration at the resin surface is effectively zero. The resin was able to scavenge all the NO₃-N from the solution, accumulating more than 50% of the total mass 273 274 within 30 min. of immersion. The maximum amount of N accumulated by a DGT device in a 60 sec. deployment time can be calculated for a solution of 50 mg L⁻¹; a typical solution 275 concentration employed in performance testing²⁷. The result shows that the amount 276 theoretically taken-up by DGT (1.2 x 10^{-3} mg) is less than the amount of N taken up by the 277 278 resin gel in the kinetic experiment for the same 60 sec. time period (Figure 1a and b). The binding rate is therefore more than sufficient to satisfy the DGT demand. 279

280

281 Elution efficiency

In addition to having both a high and consistent elution efficiency²⁸, the eluting solution for the DGT binding phase elutes needs to be safe to work with, cost effective, and not interfere with the analytical measurement. A series of experiments demonstrate NaCl to be an excellent candidate elute for a SIP-100-HP/agarose binding layer, fulfilling all the above criteria. Table 1. shows the effect of NaCl concentration (1-5% m/v) and extraction time (4-20 hr) on the elution efficiency. In summary, the recovery of NO₃-N increased both with increasing eluent concentration and/or elution time, with complete desorption of the SIP-100HP bound NO₃-N. In a compromise between elute concentration and extraction time, the optimal method finally adopted, for all the further experiments, was a 5% NaCl (m/v) solution with gel being eluted for 8 hr.

292

293 DGT blanks and detection limits

The regression line from the calibration data for the NO₃-N measurements were used directly to calculate the limit of detection (C_{LOD}) and quantification (C_{LOQ}), according to eq. (2) and (3) respectively. Where S_i was calculated from the standard deviation of the y/x intercept and b the slope.

 $C_{LOD} = 3 S_i / b$ (eq. 2)

299 $C_{LOQ} = 10 S_i / b (eq. 3)$

300

The C_{LOD} and C_{LOQ} for NO₃-N were 0.07 μ g L⁻¹ and 0.2 μ g L⁻¹, respectively. For each batch 301 302 of binding layers synthesised and used in the DGTs, a blank measurement was made to monitor the possible contamination during experiment process. As DGT is an accumulation 303 technique, the method detection limit (MDL) varies with deployment time and solution 304 concentration. For this study, binding gel blanks were collected and the method detection 305 306 limit (MDL) of the DGT technique was calculated as three times the standard deviation of the blank value. The average MDLs achieved in the laboratory experiments for a DGT 307 deployment of 4 hr and 1 day were 3.9 μ g L⁻¹, 0.7 μ g L⁻¹, respectively. The method precision 308 for DGT's deployed in solutions (n = 6) of NaNO₃ for 4 hr were <3%. 309

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315 **Diffusion Coefficient in the gel**

The masses of NO₃-N that diffused from compartment A of the diffusion cell to compartment B, through the agarose gel with time were positively correlated (regression coefficient, 0.98) (Figure 2a),. Diffusion coefficients, D, for NO₃-N were calculated using eq. 4^{29} . For a temperature of 24°C, D equalled 11.1×10^{-6} cm² s ⁻¹. Where s is the slope of the regression line derived from mass *vs*. time, and C is the NO₃-N concentration in compartment A (source compartment). The diffusion coefficients for the temperature series 1 to 35°C are provided in Table S1 (Supporting Information).

323

$$D=s\Delta g/(CA)$$
 (eq. 4)

325

324

These diffusion coefficients were used for all calculations in this study. To date, there is still no relevant data available to compare with this value. However, it is 22% lower compared to the diffusion coefficient, 14.2×10^{-6} cm² s⁻¹ (24°C) published for NO₃-N in polyacrylamide diffusive gel¹⁵ calculated from the mass accumulation in DGT devices in time series experiments.

331

332 Capacity of DGT

There is a potential for the binding gel to become saturated because of the high accumulation of analytes when the measurement is performed over the long-term (weeks or months) or in environmental matrixes with high analyte concentrations. The DGT capacity may thus be a limiting factor for such applications. A linear and theoretically predictable response was obtained with deployment solution concentrations up to 120 mg L⁻¹ NO₃-N for 4 hr (Figure 2b). In these linear regions, the measurements were close to the theoretical line calculated from the known solution concentrations. The linear response between accumulated mass by DGT and the increasing solution concentrations showed that the capacity of a single DGT device is 667 mg NO₃-N, thereby validating the quantitative use of DGT below mass loading of 377 mg cm⁻². This is comparable to the capacity of the only other NO₃-N DGT.

343

344 Effect of deployment time

According to DGT theory, the mass of analyte accumulated by DGT devices should increase 345 linearly with time, providing the capacity of the adsorbent has not been exceeded and the 346 uptake kinetics are rapid enough to ensure the concentration of analyte at the interface 347 between the binding gel and diffusive gel is zero. In this study, the mass of NO₃-N loaded 348 onto the binding gel increased linearly in a deployment solution of 50 mg L⁻¹ NO₃-N, with 349 350 time within 36 hr and fitted the theoretical line calculated from the known solution concentrations (Figure 1b). However, the accumulated mass deviated below the theoretical 351 line at 48 hr (Figure 1b) as the accumulated amount was close to the capacity limit. 352

353

354 Effect of pH

The effect of pH on the DGT performance is demonstrated by the ratio of DGT measured NO₃-N to actual concentration in solution (Table 2). The ratio of NO₃-N varied between a minimum of 0.9 and a maximum of 1.1 when the pH changed from 3.1 to 8.1, which is within acceptable performance parameters for DGT measurements and in agreement with other commonly used resin layers^{31, 32}. Rarely is the pH of a soil outside this range so pH limitations are not a significant consideration with this new method.

361

362 Effect of ionic strength

363 In soil solution/porewaters, ionic strength and composition can vary greatly. To evaluate the

364 effect of ionic strength on operational performance, the DGT assemblies were exposed to test solutions containing 10 mg L⁻¹ NO₃-N over a range of ionic strengths (0-36 mmol L⁻¹). Table 365 2 shows the ratio between the DGT measured NO₃-N against the NO₃-N concentration in 366 solution. At ionic strengths of 0.3, 3, 9 and 18 mmol L⁻¹, DGT measurements agreed well 367 with the actual concentrations in the deployment solutions (Table 2). Whereas a lower DGT 368 measurement was found at ionic strengths of 36 mmol L⁻¹, as the ratio of C_{DGT} to C_{soln} 369 decreased to 0.78 ± 0.02 . To place this in perspective, it is commonplace in many soil studies 370 to use 5 mmol L⁻¹ Ca²⁺ solutions for equilibration with soil to mimic typical soil pore water 371 ionic strength and composition³³. 372

373

374 Competition Effects

To test the potential competition effects from the major anions in soil solution and how they 375 impact on NO₃-N DGT performance, different exposure scenarios designed to reflect 376 environmentally relevant conditions were trialled. The results (Table 2) showed that the 377 378 impact on DGT performance from potentially competing anions is likely to be negligible in typical soil porewaters. ANOVA analysis, revealed no statistically significant difference (p > 379 0.05) between the concentrations measured in the control and the other anion treatments. 380 381 Furthermore, all the C_{DGT}/C_{soln} ratios were generally in the range 0.90 to 1.10, which is considered acceptable for DGT measurements (Table 2). However, some elements in natural 382 media vary extensively. Concentrations of Cl⁻ in some extreme case, such as alkaline saline 383 soils, can for example exceed 500 mg L^{-1 34}. When the NO₃-N DGT was trialled in 384 deployment solutions of 500 mg L⁻¹, binding efficiency was slightly impaired causing the 385 C_{DGT}/C_{soln} to decline from 0.99±0.02 (at 250 mg NO₃⁻ L⁻¹; 4 hr deployment) to 0.90±0.03. 386 When HPO₄²⁻ exceed 25 mg L⁻¹, which is comparably infrequent ³, the ratio of C_{DGT}/C_{soln} fell 387 to 0.71 (4 hr deployment, Table 2). These results suggest that there is competition between 388

NO₃-N and other ions in solution for binding sites on the binding resin under extremeconditions.

391

392 Application in soils

DGT devices were deployed in three types of soils for 20 hr. The concentrations of NO₃-N in 393 DGT elution and soil solution were determined. DGT measured concentrations, C_{DGT}, were 394 calculated from the mass of NO₃-N accumulated using equation 1. The C_{DGT} measurements 395 were in good agreement (<10% error) with those for C_{soln} (Table 2), indicating NO₃-N supply 396 397 is well buffered. Nitrate transfer from porewater to the SIR-100-HP/agarose DGT devices, follows the same principals that govern all DGT measurements. However, interpretation of 398 399 the change in solute concentration in the porewaters as NO₃-N is continuously removed by 400 the DGT samplers, differs slightly from that of other elements/species. This is because desorption of NO3⁻N from binding sites on the soil-solid phase is less important in re-401 establishment of equilibrium, than is typical for other moieties. Nitrate is not readily retained 402 by soil particles, unless they possess a positive charge (e.g. low pH soils)²². Therefore, the 403 NO₃-N reserve/store available for exchange, in the majority of unfertilised soils is relatively 404 small, deriving primarily from amino acids bound to soil particle surfaces³⁵. Mineralisation, 405 the microbial conversion of organic-N to mineral-N, therefore contributes more to the solute 406 supply flux, and hence controls the buffering characteristics of the soil. Mineralization rates 407 are highest in warm, moist, organic soils²². The next method development step, would be the 408 validation of SIR-100-HP/agarose DGT either in-situ or on moist, field soils cored and 409 preserved for analysis in the laboratory, as robust predictors of plant uptake/tissue content; as 410 is the case for using DGT to predict bioavailable P^{36} and trace metals in plants¹³. 411

412

414 Mapping of the distribution of DGT labile NO₃-N in a paddy soil

To extend the application of DGT in soils, a two-dimensional distribution of labile NO₃-N in 415 a paddy soil was obtained. Clear spatial heterogeneity in DGT measured NO₃-N are 416 illustrated (Figure 3). In the bulk of the soil sampled, NO₃-N fluxes were low at 20 pg cm⁻² s⁻ 417 ¹, but the 3 microniche zones with maxima ca. 4-fold higher, were also observed. It is 418 419 inconclusive, whether these geochemical features arose due to plant root influence, microbial activity or abiotic factors. With nitrogen remaining the most important limiting nutrient for 420 plant growth⁷ there is great potential in applying the 2D DGT chemical imaging methods to 421 422 characterise NO₃-N availability simultaneously with other elements (nutrients/toxins) for further understanding of uptake efficiency, which would assist plant breeding programmes 423 and improve the selection of cultivar's with optimised ionomes^{25, 26}. Combing the presented 424 425 NO₃-N DGT with new developments in DGT for NH₄-N affords the opportunity to further develop *in situ* nitrogen speciation measurement/mapping 27,38 ... 426

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We have demonstrated that NO₃-N in soil porewaters can be measured in a quantative manner 428 using standard DGT devices fitted with a SIP-100-HP/agarose binding layer. One-hundred 429 percent elution efficiencies can be obtained without the need for hazardous mineral acids in a 430 simple procedure using only NaCl solution, while the analysis can be completed easily with a 431 standard spectrophotometer. The cost effectiveness of the technique allows deployment in 432 433 sufficient numbers to obtain a good spatial coverage, while simultaneously providing a timeintegrated measurement. The adsorption kinetics, selectivity and capacity of the SIP-100-HP 434 binding layer met the prequisites for use in DGT and have been shown to be sufficient for 435 deployment in normal soil conditions, and validated in three different soils (humic rendzina, 436 brown sand, and rice paddy soil). Preliminary results for 2D measurements of NO₃-N in soil 437 clearly show the potential for the DGT technique to be used in chemical imaging applications 438

| 439 | for further understanding of bioavailability and biogeochemical processes of NO ₃ -N in soils ²⁶ |
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| 447 | Supporting Information |
| 448 | Additional information as noted in the text. This material is available free of charge via the |
| 449 | internet at http://pubs.acs.org |
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Figure 3. 2D mapping of NO₃-N fluxes in a paddy soil. (A) Profile view of flux measurements, points 1-3 denote microniches/hot spots of enhanced NO₃-N mobilisation. (B) The dark-blue to white colour scale represents a sequential increase in NO₃-N fluxes (pg cm⁻² s⁻¹).

| Elution Time | 1% NaCl | 2% NaCl | 3% NaCl | 5% NaCl |
|--------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| 4 hr | 0.78 ±0.009 | 0.86 ± 0.007 | 0.91 ±0.007 | 0.93 ±0.005 |
| 8 hr | 0.87 ± 0.014 | 0.96 ± 0.018 | 0.97 ± 0.013 | 1.02 ± 0.019 |
| 20 hr | 0.87 ± 0.006 | 0.96 ± 0.009 | 1.01 ± 0.006 | 1.04 ± 0.002 |

Table 1. Optimisation of nitrate elution from SIR-100-HP DGT. Two-factor factorialdesign, NaCl solution concentrations (% m/v) with different elution times (hr).

Table 2. Competition Effects and Applications in Soil. *A*) Effect of pH on the ratio of concentrations of NO₃-N measured by DGT, C_{DGT} , to deployment solution concentrations, C_{soln} . *B*) Effect of concentration of supporting electrolyte, Na₂SO₄, on the ratio of C_{DGT} / C_{soln} . *C*) different anions; Cl⁻, NO₂-N, CaCO₃, HPO₄²⁻, D) C_{DGT} , to soil solution concentrations.

| | 4 hr Deployment | | 24 hr D | 24 hr Deployment | |
|--|----------------------|------------|----------|------------------|--|
| | CDGT / C Soln | | CDGT | CDGT / C Soln | |
| | Average | Stdev. | Average | Stdev. | |
| | | | | | |
| <i>A</i>) | | ŀ | ьH | | |
| 3.1 | $1.06 \pm$ | 0.02 | 1.01 | ± 0.06 | |
| 4.0 | $1.09 \pm$ | 0.02 | 1.03 | ± 0.04 | |
| 5.0 | $1.09 \pm$ | 0.03 | 0.98 | ± 0.04 | |
| 6.2 | 1.07 \pm | 0.03 | 1.05 | ± 0.01 | |
| 7.1 | $1.10 \pm$ | 0.03 | 0.98 | ± 0.06 | |
| 8.1 | $1.09 \pm$ | 0.02 | 1.03 | ± 0.07 | |
| <i>B)</i> | I ONIC STRENGTH (mM) | | | | |
| 0 | $1.01 \pm$ | 0.03 | 0.93 | ± 0.03 | |
| 0.3 | $1.05 \pm$ | 0.01 | 0.91 | ± 0.05 | |
| 3 | $1.06 \pm$ | 0.01 | 0.97 | ± 0.02 | |
| 9 | $1.02 \pm$ | 0.03 | 0.95 | ± 0.08 | |
| 18 | $0.92 \pm$ | 0.02 | 0.96 | ± 0.02 | |
| 36 | $0.78 \pm$ | 0.02 | ~ | ± ~ | |
| <i>C</i>) | ANION COMPETITION | | | | |
| Control | $1.01 \pm$ | 0.04 | 0.89 | ± 0.04 | |
| Cl^{-} (250 mg L ⁻¹) | $0.99 \pm$ | 0.02 | 0.86 | ± 0.02 | |
| $NO_2-N (1 mg L^{-1})$ |) 1.01 ± | 0.02 | 0.95 | ± 0.09 | |
| CaCO₃ (13 mg L ⁻¹) | $1.04 \pm$ | 0.02 | 0.88 | ± 0.03 | |
| HCO ₃ (50 mg L ⁻¹) | $1.04 \pm$ | 0.07 | 0.90 | ± 0.02 | |
| HPO_4^{2-} (10 mg L ⁻¹) | 0.95 ± | 0.03 | 0.86 | ± 0.04 | |
| D) | S | OIL DE | PLOYMENT | | |
| Brown Sand | | | 0.92 | ± 0.09 | |
| | 0.95 | ± 0.08 | | | |
| Paddy soil | | | 0.93 | ± 0.05 | |

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