

Effects of Elevated CO₂ and Pb on the Microbial Community in the Rhizosphere of *Pinus densiflora*

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Rising levels of atmospheric CO₂ may stimulate forest productivity in the future, resulting in increased carbon storage in terrestrial ecosystems. However, heavy metal contamination may interfere with this, though the response is not yet known. In this study, we investigated the effect of elevated CO₂ and Pb contamination on microorganisms and decomposition in pine tree forest soil. Three-year old pine trees (*Pinus densiflora*) were planted in Pb contaminated soils (500 mg/kg-soil) and uncontaminated soils and cultivated for three months in a growth chamber where the CO₂ concentration was controlled at 380 or 760 mg/kg. Structures of the microbial community were comparatively analyzed in bulk and in rhizosphere soil samples using community-level physiological profiling (CLPP) and 16S rRNA gene PCR-DGGE (denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis). Additionally, microbial activity in rhizospheric soil, growth and the C/N ratio of the pine trees were measured. Elevated CO₂ significantly increased microbial activities and diversity in Pb contaminated soils due to the increase in carbon sources, and this increase was more distinctive in rhizospheric soil than in bulk soils. In addition, increased plant growth and C/N ratios of pine needles at elevated CO₂ resulted in an increase in cation exchange capacity (CEC) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) of the rhizosphere in Pb contaminated soil. Taken together, these findings indicate that elevated CO₂ levels and heavy metals can affect the soil carbon cycle by changing the microbial community and plant metabolism.

Keywords: elevated CO₂, *Pinus densiflora*, enzyme activities, lead contamination, microbial community

Introduction

The wide-ranging impacts of elevated carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentrations and the rising prevalence of metal-contaminated soils are serious problems in forest ecosystems. The main effects of elevated CO₂ on plants are increases in the photosynthetic rate and water-use efficiency, and higher translocation of photosynthate to the root and rhizosphere (Nowak *et al.*, 2004; Norby, 2005). Plant growth changes as a result of CO₂ fertilization can change the soil microbial community (Matthias *et al.*, 1997). For example, substrate utilization by the microbial community of *Gutierrezia sarothrae* roots significantly changed with elevated atmospheric CO₂ (Matthias *et al.*, 1997). Elevated CO₂ levels had significant effects on both soil nutrient availability and the community composition of soil microbes associated with *Populus tremuloides* (Lori *et al.*, 2005).

Heavy metal contamination can also have dramatic effects because they are toxic at high levels in both natural and man-made environment ecosystems. Among heavy metals, lead (Pb), which is commonly associated with soil pollution, is considered particularly toxic and is responsible for significant decreases in biological activities in soil. In soil, Pb is typically present at concentrations ranging from 10–100 mg/kg, but the Pb content in polluted soils can be greater than 500 mg/kg (Glazovskaya, 1994). The addition of Pb to soil inhibits soil microbial activity. High concentrations of Pb in soil can adversely affect soil microbes via population loss, changes in population structure, and decreases in physiological activity (Akmal *et al.*, 2005).

Due to industrial activities, extensive areas of soil have been contaminated with heavy metals in addition to increases in CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere. Recently, the effect of elevated CO₂ and metal contamination on microorganisms has received special attention because microorganisms are key components of the C cycle and nutrient recycling (Gadd, 2004; Kim and Kang, 2011). Microorganisms regulate and influence many ecosystem processes such as nutrient transformation, litter decomposition, transformation of organic matter into soil and maintenance of plant health (Cahyani *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, soil microbial community structure and function are commonly used as indicators of soil quality and fertility. Gaining a better understanding of the relationship between structure and function is currently an important topic in research on soil ecosystems (Yao *et al.*, 2003). However, most studies have only separately examined the effect of elevated CO₂ or metal toxicity on microorganisms.

In this study we examined the effects of both Pb contamination and elevated CO₂ on soil chemistry and microbial properties. The objectives of this study were to (1) investigate

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the interactive effect of elevated CO₂ and Pb on soil microbial diversity and (2) determine the relate soil microbial changes with organic decomposition influenced by elevated CO₂ concentrations and in Pb contaminated soils.

Materials and Methods

Experimental design

This study employed mesocosm experiments based on previous results on phytoextraction and enzyme activity caused by elevated CO₂ and Pb contamination (Kim and Kang, 2011). Natural soil was sampled at a depth of 5 to 15 cm from the pine forest of Korea, transported to the lab, and then passed through a 2-mm sieve. To determine micro-organism changes due to both heavy metals and elevated CO₂, we conducted a microcosm study with four groups at different CO₂ concentrations (380, 760 µl/L) and Pb contamination levels (0, 500 mg/kg-soil). For each experiment, aliquots (1 kg each in 1.5 L plastic cylinders, diameter 10 cm) of soil were artificially contaminated with 500 mg Pb/kg. Test pots, containing 1 kg of contaminated soil were planted with three-year-old pine seedlings (*Pinus densiflora*), which were obtained from the Korean forest service, then placed in a growth chamber (Dasol Scientific Co. Korea). The CO₂ content in the growth chamber was maintained at 380 µl/L or 760 µl/L at 25°C, 60% humidity, and subjected to a 16 h light/8 h dark cycle for three months. Soil characteristics and microbial activities were compared in the four different soil samples (Control: CO₂ 380 µl/L + Pb 0 mg/kg; Pb: CO₂ 380 µl/L + Pb 500 mg/kg; Ele. CO₂: CO₂ 760 µl/L + Pb 0 mg/kg; Pb+Ele. CO₂: CO₂ 760 µl/L + Pb 500 mg/kg). Microbial diversity was measured by dividing the soil into bulk and rhizosphere soil. Bulk soil was the soil that remained after the roots were removed from the pot. The rhizosphere soil was the soil that remained adhered to the roots after gentle shaking. All tests were performed in triplicate. Thirty milliliters of water and 20 ml of 1/2 Hoagland solution (Hoagland and Arnon, 1950) were added to the soil once per week.

Soil microbial community determination

Community-level physiological profiling (CLPP): After incubating for three months, the soil was divided into bulk and rhizosphere soil samples. Three grams of each soil sample was mixed with 27 ml of sterilized water and shaken for 10 min at 200 rpm. After settling for 1 h, the resulting suspension was inoculated onto Eco-plates (Biolog, USA) and the plates were incubated at 20°C for 14 days. Color development was measured based on at 595 nm absorbance using an automated microplate reader (Multiskan Ascent, Thermo Lab Systems, Finland). For Biolog data analysis, plates were read daily, and the average well color development (AWCD) over time for all carbon sources was calculated as a measure of total microbial activity. Data were analyzed using the following equation:

$$\text{Average Well Color Development} = \sum(C - R)/n$$

C: color production within each well (OD_{595nm})

R: OD value of the no-substrate control well of each plate

n: number of substrate utilization (n=31)

Diversity was calculated using the following formula: $H = -\sum P_i \ln P_i$, where H is the Shannon index, P_i is the ratio of activity on a particular substrate to the sum of activities on all substrates (Ian and Peter, 2003).

PCR-DGGE: Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) of 16S rRNA gene fragments was used to analyze the microbial community structure in the rhizosphere and bulk soil samples. Genomic DNA was extracted from fresh 0.5 g soil using the BIO101 FastDNA SPIN Kit for Soil (Q-BIOgene, USA). The PCR was used to amplify a 560 base pair portion of the 16S rRNA gene using primers 341fGC (5'-CGC CCG CCG CGC GCG GCG GGC GGG GCG GGG GCA CGG GGG GCC TAC GGG AGG CAG CAG-3') and 907r (5'-CCC CGT CAA TTC ATT TGA GTT-3') (Muyzer et al., 1993). The PCR was conducted by subjecting the samples to 45 sec of denaturation at 94°C, 45 sec of annealing, and 90 sec of extension at 72°C. During an initial touch-down cycle, the annealing temperature was lowered from 63°C to 51°C in intervals of two for two cycles, after which 20 additional annealing cycles were conducted at 45°C. The samples were also subjected to a final extension at 72°C for 10 min. DGGE was conducted using a D-Code 16/16 cm gel system with a gel width of 0.7 mm (Bio-Rad, USA), which contained 6% polyacrylamide:bisacrylamide (37.5:1) and were poured with a urea and formamide gradient of 35% to 55%. Gels were run at 60 V and 60°C for 15 h, after which they were stained with ethidium bromide (0.5 mg/L) and then de-stained twice in 1×TAE buffer for 15 min each. The strong DGGE bands were excised using a razor blade and then soaked in 20 µl of purified water overnight. The products were then purified and sequenced using an ABI-Prism model 377 automatic sequencer (Applied Biosystems, USA). The DGGE image was translated into the microbial community structure by comparison using Gel ComparII (Applied Maths, USA) to perform the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) clustering using the Jaccard coefficient based on band position (Ian and Peter, 2003). Diversity statistics were calculated from the DGGE profile of the microbial community. Microbial diversity distribution treatments by using the number and intensity of bands in each DGGE profile as representations of the number and relative abundance of different phylotypes in each gel. The relative intensities (pi) of each band were used as the variables, and no band was treated as zero.

The Shannon-Weiner diversity index was calculated from following equation:

$$H = -\sum (p_i)(\log_2 p_i)$$

where pi the proportion of an individual band intensity relative to the sum of all band intensities (Margalef, 1958).

Analysis of soil microbial activities

The activity of four extracellular enzymes (β-glucosidase, N-acetylglucosaminidase, phosphatase, and arylsulfatase) was measured using the MUF-substrate method (Freeman et al., 1996). The concentrations of each substrate solution were 400 µM (Sigma; MUF-β-glucoside, MUF-N-acetylglucosamine, MUF-arylsulfate) except for phosphate (Sigma; MUF-phosphate, 800 µM). Enzyme activities were measured from the slurry of soil and substrate solutions (1:5) using a fluorometer (TD 700; Turner designs, USA).

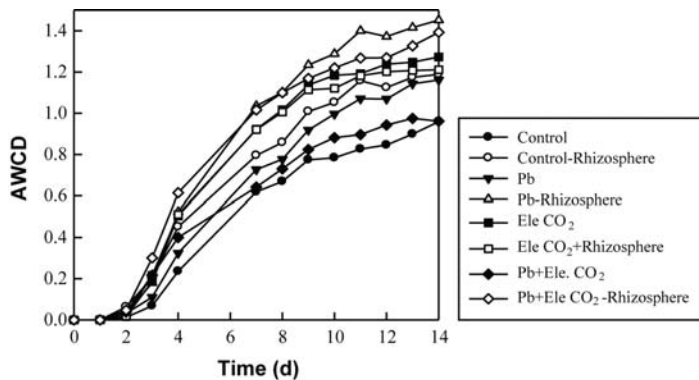


Fig. 1. Variation in the average well color development over time in Eco-plates.

Dehydrogenase activity and intracellular activity were measured using the INT assay (Tabatabai, 1982). The substrate used for these assays was 2-[4-iodophenyl]-3-[4-nitrophenyl]-5-phenyltetrazolium chloride (INT). Reaction products were detected using a spectrophotometer (DR/3000 Spectrophotometer, HACH, USA) at 485 nm.

Soil characteristics

Soil pH was determined by adding soil to water at a ratio of 1:5 (w:v). Soil moisture content was determined gravimetrically by drying for 24 h at 105°C, and the organic matter content was determined by loss on ignition at 600°C in a furnace (MAS 7000, CEM, USA). The soil cation-exchange capacity (CEC) was determined using the EPA 9081 methods (EPA US, 1986). Soil nitrate content was determined by extraction with deionized water and measured using a nitrate electrode (Gelderman and Beegle, 1998). Additionally, NH₄⁺

was measured using indophenol blue methods (Dorich and Nelson, 1983). Soil DOC (dissolved organic carbon) was determined by adding soil to distilled water at a ratio of 1:10 w/v to form a slurry form. Extractable DOC was measured by filtering through a 0.45-µm filter, and then analyzed by a TOC analyzer (TOC-VCHP, Japan).

Plant biomass and C:N ratio

After three months of growth, the plants were carefully harvested and the length and biomass of shoots and roots were measured. Carbon and nitrogen concentrations contained in the shoots and roots were analyzed using a Flash EA 1112 model analyzer (Thermo Electron Corporation, USA).

Statistical analysis

Relationships among different samples on the basis of the raw-difference data were evaluated using principal compo-

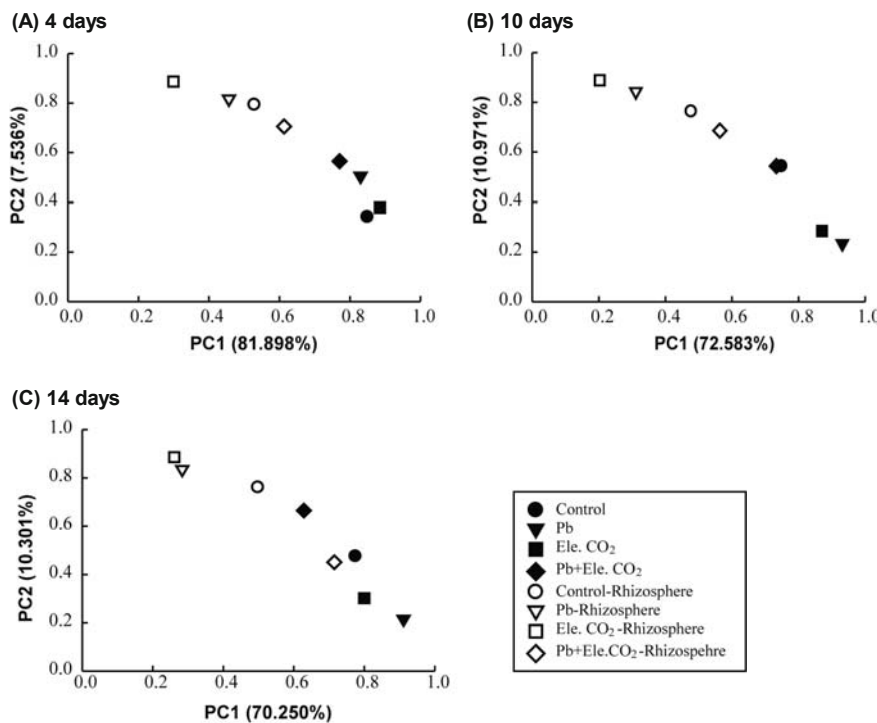


Fig. 2. Principal component analysis of average well color development for 14 days.

Table 1. Similarity based on DGGE fingerprint

	Initial	Initial-R	Con	Pb	Ele.	Pb+Ele.	Con-R	Pb-R	Ele.-R	Pb+ Ele.-R
Initial	100									
Initial-R	60	100								
Con	43.8	40	100							
Pb	41.2	37.5	40	100						
Ele.	33.3	37.5	36	81.8	100					
Pb+Ele.	47.1	43.8	38	76.9	50	100				
Con-R	38.9	43.8	38	43.8	40	50	100			
Pb-R	46.7	42.9	36	53.8	50	50	50	100		
Ele.-R	46.7	53.8	36	53.8	50	50	62	64	100	
Pb+Ele.-R	43.8	50	43	50	46.2	57	57	58	73	100

R, Rhizosphere; Con, Control; Ele., Elevated CO₂

ment analysis (PCA) conducted using SPSS 12.0 (SPSS, Inc., USA). Two-way ANOVA was carried out to compare the soil physico-chemical parameters, soil enzyme activity, and DOC values between the groups. Tukey's test was then carried out on the parameters, including root and shoot lengths, C/N ratio, and Shannon index. Standard deviations are shown as numerals in the tables and as error bars in the figures.

Results

Carbon substrate utilization patterns

The effect of elevated CO₂ and heavy metal on the microbial communities in rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils of *P. densiflora* was investigated using CLPP. The rate of color intensity on the Biolog plates over time was determined by calculating the AWCD on each plate at each reading time (Fig. 1). The AWCD in the Biolog EcoPlate assay varied for different soil samples. The AWCD value was the highest in the Pb contaminated soil for rhizosphere soil. AWCD value was high in Pb+Ele. CO₂ treatment for both the rhizosphere and bulk soil, and was the lowest in the control soil.

Principle component analysis demonstrated that there were significant differences in the carbon substrate utilization patterns of bacterial communities between different treatments ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 2). Soil samples separated along the first principal component (PC1) axis for all three reading times (4,

10, and 14 d). The effect of the rhizosphere separated according to PC1 explained 81.9% of the variation over 4 days, 72.6% over 10 days, and 70.2% over 14 days.

Soil microbial communities studied by DGGE

To compare the microbial community structure among treatments, DGGE analysis was conducted (Fig. 3). Clustering of the profiles showed that there were very large differences among the profiles of the soil samples. In bulk soil, similarity between elevated CO₂ and Pb was the highest with 81.8% (Table 1). Profiles of Pb and Pb+elevated CO₂ showed approximately 76.9% similarity with respect to clustering. Profiles of the other samples showed a similarity below 40%. These data indicate that bacterial communities in the soil near the Pb contamination changed substantially. In rhizosphere soil, the greatest similarity was 72.7% between elevated CO₂-R and Pb+elevated CO₂-R soil samples. Therefore, the bulk soils differed considerably due to Pb contamination, but the rhizosphere soils were most influenced by treatment with an elevated CO₂ concentration.

Soil diversity index

The differences in the microbial diversity among treatments were confirmed by the Shannon-Weaver diversity index (H') values calculated from the AWCD and DGGE profiles (Table 2). Although the diversity index of bulk soil was not significantly affected by Pb or elevated CO₂, the diversity

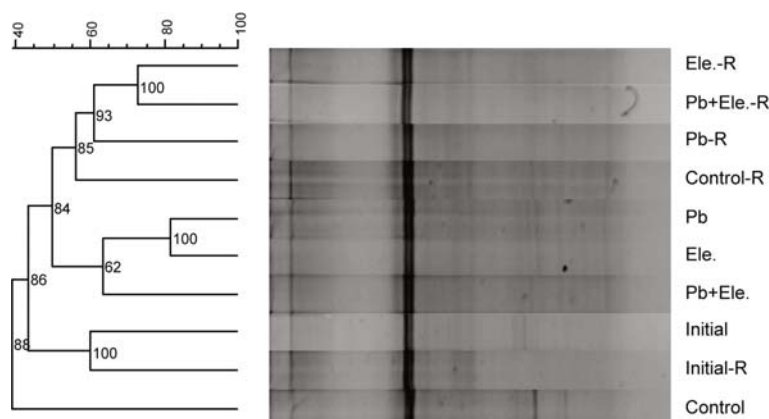


Fig. 3. DGGE profiles of 16S rRNA gene fragments amplified from the soil samples (R: rhizosphere).

Table 2. Shannon index calculated from the AWCD and DGGE of soil microbial community

Treatment	Shannon index from Biolog		Shannon index from DGGE	
	Bulk	Rhizosphere	Bulk	Rhizosphere
Control	2.1 ^a	2.3 ^a	3.1 ^a	3.8 ^c
Pb	3.2 ^b	3.4 ^b	2.9 ^a	3.1 ^a
Ele.	3.2 ^b	2.5 ^a	2.9 ^a	3.4 ^b
Pb+Ele.	3.2 ^b	3.0 ^c	3.0 ^a	3.6 ^b

Values followed by the same letter in each column do not differ significantly (two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test).

index of rhizosphere was affected by Pb and CO₂ X Pb interaction ($p < 0.001$). The diversity indices of rhizosphere soils from AWCD treated with only Pb ($H' = 3.4 \pm 0.06$) and with Pb+elevated CO₂ ($H' = 3.0 \pm 0.06$) were significantly greater ($P < 0.001$) than those of the control soil ($H' = 2.3 \pm 0.1$) and elevated CO₂ ($H' = 2.5 \pm 0.1$) soils.

Visual comparison of the overall bacterial DGGE profiles and the Shannon–Weaver diversity index (H') calculated for each treatment in rhizosphere soil indicated that the band for soil treated with Pb+elevated CO₂ ($H' = 3.6 \pm 0.01$) were significantly more intense ($P < 0.05$) than the band for soil treated with only Pb ($H' = 3.1 \pm 0.1$) or with only elevated CO₂ ($H' = 3.4 \pm 0.1$).

Soil microbial activities and soil characteristics

Table 3 showed two-way ANOVA results from enzyme activity and soil characteristics for Pb treatments with elevated CO₂. β -Glucosidase and arylsulfatase activities were greatly influenced by both Pb and elevated CO₂ levels. Additionally, CO₂ X Pb interactions were found to be statistically significant. Activities of N-acetyl-glucosaminidase and dehydrogenase markedly increased by elevated CO₂ and Pb+elevated CO₂, while the activity of phosphatase was influenced by only Pb. The pH and nitrate level were greatly influenced by both Pb and elevated CO₂. The contents of DOC and CEC were highly influenced by elevated CO₂.

Effects on the biomass and C/N ratios of the pine seedlings

Results of these experiments showed that root elongation of pine seedlings increased under elevated CO₂ (Fig. 4A). Although the shoot elongation of the pine seedlings grown in Pb-contaminated soil was not significantly affected by

elevated CO₂, the total dry weights of plants grown in contaminated soils under elevated CO₂ were significantly greater than those grown under ambient CO₂ ($p < 0.05$).

Figure 4B shows the C/N ratios of the roots and leaves of pine seedlings after three months, by which chemical changes in pine seedlings caused by elevated CO₂ and Pb contamination were measured. The C/N ratios in the leaves increased slightly with elevated CO₂, indicating that the carbon concentrations increased while the nitrogen concentrations decreased with elevated CO₂. However, the C/N ratios in the roots were not affected by elevated CO₂ or Pb contamination.

Discussion

Effect of microbial diversity and activity in soil treated with elevated CO₂ and Pb

In this study, microbial diversity was influenced by Pb contamination and CO₂ X Pb interaction ($p < 0.01$). Although the Shannon index from the AWCD values was highest in Pb-contaminated soil, the Shannon index from DGGE was lowest in Pb-contaminated soil. The activation of microbial populations in the rhizosphere may be a mechanism of plant defense against Pb contaminants. Microbial adaptation might result in the selection of a few abundant species capable of utilizing a broad spectrum of carbon sources via root exudation when a limited amount of carbon is added to the soil through root turnover (Farrar *et al.*, 2003). Specially, the main C-sources for microorganisms included D-malic acid, D-glucosaminic acid, and α -D-Lactose (data not shown) from pine root exudate under elevated CO₂ in Pb contaminated soil in this study. Wu *et al.* (2009) also reported that elevated CO₂ increased the actinomycete population in the

Table 3. Two-way ANOVA for elevated CO₂ and Pb treatments. Variables include: physico-chemical characteristics and soil enzyme activities

Variable	CO ₂		Pb		CO ₂ X Pb	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
pH	490.95	0.000	9.298	0.006	30.124	0.000
Moisture content	0.468	0.502	4.320	0.051	3.613	0.072
Organic matter	1.439	0.244	3.840	0.064	1.184	0.290
CEC	49.116	0.000	0.136	0.716	0.136	0.716
DOC	166.192	0.000	0.118	0.735	1.271	0.273
Nitrate	9.284	0.006	9.346	0.006	9.284	0.006
NH ₄ ⁺	3.848	0.064	1.963	0.176	0.707	0.410
Dehydrogenase	48.161	0.000	0.991	0.331	9.951	0.005
Phosphatase	1.769	0.198	6.505	0.019	2.29	0.146
β -Glucosidase	149.9	0.000	74.617	0.000	6.889	0.016
N-Acetylglucosaminidase	391.367	0.000	0.515	0.481	128.46	0.000
Arylsulfatase	137.858	0.000	20.084	0.000	116.77	0.000

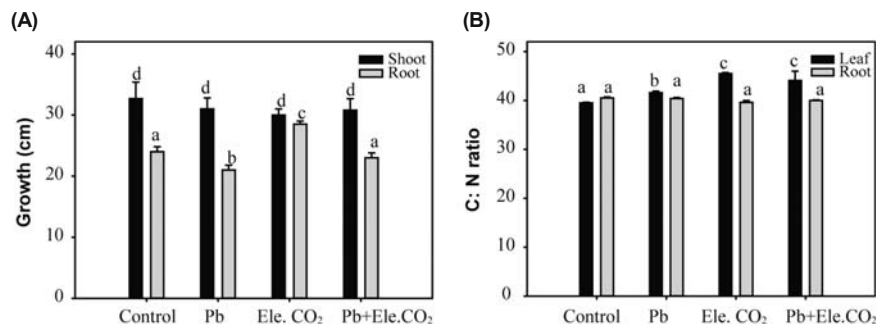


Fig. 4. (A) Comparison of shoot and root length of pine seedlings after three months. (B) C:N ratio of pine seedlings grown under ambient or elevated atmospheric CO₂. Values are means \pm SDs of three replicates. Values followed by the same letter do not differ significantly (two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test).

rhizosphere. Denton *et al.* (2007) observed an increase in the bacterial population in plants treated with elevated CO₂, which suggests that microbes alleviate metal phytotoxicity.

Microbial activity was affected by elevated CO₂ and CO₂ X Pb interaction except that of phosphatase. In addition, microbial diversity and activity were higher in the rhizosphere than in the bulk soil. It appears that elevated CO₂ levels stimulated bacterial and fungal growth and increased the activity of these microorganisms due to an altered rhizospheric environment. It is plausible that the effect of elevated CO₂ on the rhizosphere in Pb-contaminated soil occurred because microbial communities have adapted to polluted soils under elevated CO₂, which would result in an increase in several specific populations of soil microorganisms.

In this study, the root elongation and biomass of pine seedlings increased under elevated CO₂ concentrations due to the decreased toxicity of Pb (Fig. 4). Although root growth is inhibited by Pb, the toxicity should countervail because elevated CO₂ ensures root growth. These results may be related to the fact that microbial diversity and activities increased as a result of an increasing input of C into the soil by the pine tree roots. Under elevated CO₂ conditions in the short-term, assimilated carbon can exist more readily than labile carbon in the soil. Kim *et al.* (2011) reported that the amount of root exudates increased after Pb contamination. About 15–25% of C allocated below-ground was reported to be exuded from roots into soil (Kuz'yakov, 2002). These exuded organic substances can induce fast C turnover in the vicinity of the roots. The rhizosphere is characterized by very intensive C turnover forced by microorganisms. Rhizosphere microorganisms utilize these substances as easily available C and energy sources to facilitate rapid growth and reproduction. Exudation of organic substances during rapid root growth phases may lead to strong decomposition of organic matter and nutrient mobilization.

Effect of organic decomposition via microbial changes in soil treated with elevated CO₂ and Pb

In this study, the CEC and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in rhizosphere soil were influenced by elevated CO₂ (Table 3). These results indicate that the soil characteristics and microbial activities were more affected by elevated CO₂ than by Pb contamination. In other words, elevated CO₂ can alter soil decomposition through changes in the distribution of particular microbial population. Numerous studies have investigated the effects of elevated CO₂ on terrestrial ecosys-

tems (Naumburg *et al.*, 2003; Bunce, 2004; Marchi *et al.*, 2004). Among those effects, elevated CO₂ increased carbon in the rhizosphere, through which products of stimulated photosynthates were transported under elevated CO₂ (Cheng and Johnson, 1998). Ross *et al.* (2002) suggested that an increase in organic carbon in soil exposed to high CO₂ levels might have been caused by the decomposition of easily decomposable soil carbon. This was explained by a greater production of microbial activity in response to an increased C input. Under elevated CO₂, β -glucosidase releases more C from organic matter into the soil (Larson *et al.*, 2002; Henry *et al.*, 2005). In this study, β -glucosidase and N-acetylglucosaminidase were also increased by elevated CO₂ in uncontaminated and Pb contaminated soils.

Alteration in the relative availability of C and N under elevated CO₂ conditions may significantly influence microbial N transformation. In this study, nitrate (NO₃⁻) content was influenced by CO₂, Pb and CO₂ X Pb (Table 3). Nitrate content decreased under elevated CO₂ conditions in Pb-contaminated soils. These results indicate that elevated CO₂ levels may increase plant N uptake, thereby reducing NH₄⁺ availability for nitrifiers in Pb-contaminated soil. Increased plant N uptake can reduce soil extractable N (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻). Therefore, the C surplus and N deficit in the rhizosphere under elevated CO₂ conditions in Pb-contaminated soil may be more strongly pronounced than in uncontaminated soil. However, these experiments were conducted in the short-term and did not consider N dynamics when elevated CO₂ resulting in N mineralization and subsequent transformation may lead to N losses. Elevated CO₂ could likely drive N mineralization in the soil and both are necessary for microbial decomposition functions in contaminated soil.

The present study provides evidence of major changes in the chemical and physical properties of soils following treatment with elevated CO₂ and Pb contamination, which could have lasting impacts on the microbial communities in plant rhizospheres. Elevated CO₂ and Pb concentrations increased the microbial activities and diversity of the rhizosphere by increasing C. In addition, chemical metabolism in pine tissue and organic decomposition processes were more strongly affected by elevated CO₂ than by Pb contamination. The results of this study demonstrate that elevated CO₂ can increase the soil decomposition rate of microbes in metal-contaminated soil. However, more research needs to be conducted to clarify the mechanism of interaction between microbes and plants in the presence of elevated CO₂ and metal contamination.

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