

1 Article

2 Enhanced adaptation to low-P stress by altering 3 rhizosphere exudation and P-uptake rate other than 4 root morphological traits in two maize genotypes

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12

13 **Abstract:** Alterations in root morphology and physiology are important strategies in plants to
14 adapt to low-phosphorus (P) environments. Maize genotypes differed in nitrogen (N) efficiency
15 may also respond differently to low P stress. This study aimed to investigate the responses of root
16 morphological and physiological traits of these two maize cultivars to P deficit and how these traits
17 were linked with the acquisition of soil P. Two maize cultivars, XY335 (N efficient) and ZD958 (N
18 inefficient), were cultivated for 40 days in a calcareous loamy soil amended with (high P) or
19 without (low P) P. Functional root traits were used to evaluate the morphological and physiological
20 responses to low P supply. Two separate short-term experiments determined the correlation
21 between P uptake rate and P supply intensity (hydroponic) or root hair length under two P
22 treatments (rhizobox). Low P status significantly simulated biomass allocation to roots, specific
23 root length and exudations of carboxylates, while decreased root diameter and rhizosphere pH in
24 both maize cultivars. Two cultivars had different total root length and root surface area under low
25 P stress: increased in ZD958 and decreased in XY335. Both genotypes developed longer root hair
26 under P deficit. ZD958 (greater biomass and shoot P content) has a greater capability at accessing
27 soil P than XY335. Rhizosphere exudation of citric acid was significantly higher in ZD958 than in
28 XY335, while there was not significant genotypic difference in rhizosphere pH and exudation of
29 malic acid and acid phosphatase activity. ZD958 had higher P uptake rate than XY335 when
30 solution P was between 12.5 and 250 μM . This study identified ZD958 as a P-efficient genotype,
31 which better adapted to low P stress by altering root physiological traits (exudation of citric acid
32 and P uptake rate), rather than root morphological traits (total root length, root surface area, root
33 hair length). Our results highlight the importance of analyzing root morphological and
34 physiological traits to enhance our understanding of the physiological mechanisms of P
35 acquisition.

36 **Keywords:** Carboxylate exudation; P efficiency; Root exudate; Root traits; Rhizosphere

37

38 1. Introduction

39 Phosphorus (P) is the second most important nutrient element after nitrogen (N) and it is a
40 significant factor limiting agricultural production in many regions of the world [1]. In the soil, P
41 often exists in unavailable forms [2]. In acidic soils, P is fixed to oxides and hydroxides of Al and Fe,
42 and in calcareous soils, P is precipitated as calcium phosphates [3,4]. To overcome the constraint of
43 low P availability, plants have evolved a number of adaptive strategies to acquire soil P and improve
44 plant growth [5-8], including: (i) Root-foraging strategies that improve P acquisition by increasing

45 root/shoot ratio, modifying root architecture and morphology, enhancing root hair length (RHL); (ii)
46 P-mining strategies to enhance the desorption, solubilisation or mineralisation of P from
47 sparingly-available sources in soil using root exudates (proton, organic anions, phosphatases); (iii)
48 Modifying carbon metabolism and alternative respiratory pathways by balancing metabolic costs
49 and metabolic benefits for improved P acquisition; (iv) Enhancing physiological P-uptake capacity
50 through activating expression of high-affinity phosphate transporters, (v) Extending the soil
51 exploration space beyond the roots by establishing a symbiotic associations with arbuscular
52 mycorrhizal (AM) fungi. Additionally, plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) around the
53 roots also improve P acquisition by plants due to P solubilisation. The exploration of these strategies
54 made crops more efficient in the acquisition of soil P and resulted in a reduction of requirements of P
55 fertilizers [5,9,10].

56 Plant species or cultivars differ in the capacity of converting non-available forms of P into
57 available forms and taking them up [11]. The capacity of P acquisition is largely related to the
58 changes in root morphological traits (defined as the two-dimensional structure of root system, eg.
59 root length, fineness) and architectural traits (defined as the spatial configuration of root system, eg.
60 root branches, angle), allowing the plant to explore a larger volume of soil, and to the alteration in
61 root physiological traits (defined as the secreted compounds by roots and ability to absorb P from
62 soil solution, eg. proton, organic acids, P uptake rates), allowing the uptake of P from insoluble
63 inorganic or organic forms [5,10,12,13]. Previous studies have suggested that higher tolerance of
64 soybean and sunflower than maize to low-P stress may be associated to a more favorable root
65 morphology and architecture [14,15]. At low P supply, P uptake of three herbaceous perennial
66 legumes was closely correlated with total root length, rhizospheric carboxylate concentration and
67 acid phosphatase activity [16]. Barley cultivars with long root hairs are better adapted to low-P soils
68 than those cultivars with short root hairs [17]. Phosphorus uptake of *Brassica oleracea* cultivars was
69 correlated with root surface area, lateral root length, lateral root growth rate and the number of
70 lateral roots under low P environment [18]. These adaptive changes in root
71 morphological/architectural and physiological traits in response to low P availability play an
72 important role for acquisition of sparingly soil P.

73 Maize is a cereal crop widely cultivated throughout the world in a range of agro-ecological
74 environments. Maize cultivars made a historic contribution to the agricultural Green Revolution and
75 still maintain a steady increase in grain yield due to continuously release of new cultivars with
76 improved stress tolerance and nutrient efficiency [19,20]. P deficiency is a major constraint for maize
77 production in many low-input agro-ecosystems. Maize display a variety of adaptations to cope with
78 low P availability [21]. It has been shown that P deficiency affected the root morphology of maize
79 mainly through its effect on the carbon budget [22]. Lateral rooting contributed to P acquisition
80 when the metabolic costs from the production and maintenance of lateral roots were exceeded by the
81 metabolic benefits of enhanced P acquisition [23]. Maize genotypes differ in the capacity at accessing
82 P from soil. P-efficient maize genotypes had greater root to shoot ratio, root hair density and length
83 of first-order laterals under P deficiency [24]. Maize genotypes with enhanced or sustained lateral
84 rooting had greater P acquisition and biomass accumulation than genotypes with reduced lateral
85 rooting at low P availability [25]. Modeling results indicated that maize genotypes with more
86 branches were adapted to low-phosphorus environments while genotypes with fewer lateral root
87 branching were adapted to low-nitrate environments [26]. Shallower maize genotypes had
88 significantly greater growth and P accumulation compared with deeper genotypes at low P
89 availability, suggesting that alterations in root architectural traits are important for improved P
90 acquisition of maize [27]. RHL can largely be regulated by P availability, and genotypes with long
91 root hairs under low P availability had significantly greater plant growth, P uptake and lower
92 metabolic cost-benefit ratios than short-haired genotypes [24,28,29]. Low-P tolerant genotypes was
93 characterized by higher organic acid exudation than low-P susceptible genotypes [30].

94 Two widely planted maize (*Zea mays* L.) cultivars in Northern China, ZD958 and XY335, have
95 different genetic backgrounds. Genotype XY335 released in 2000 has been identified as N efficiency
96 under low N environment in comparison with ZD958 released in 1996 [31]. Preliminary results from

97 a field experiment showed that ZD958 exhibited a higher tolerance to low P in shoot performance
98 than XY335 when grown at a low-P soil, indicating possible contrasting response to P deficit.
99 However, whether the N-efficient XY335 cultivar had a higher potential at accessing sparingly soil P
100 than ZD958 remains unknown. We hypothesized that ZD958 have a superiority in shoot growth and
101 accessing sparingly P from soil than XY335, and root physiological traits contribute better than root
102 morphological traits in response to low P stress. To address these questions, three glasshouse
103 experiments were carried out to investigate (1) the responses of shoot growth, root morphological
104 and physiological traits and their contributions to P acquisition between the two cultivars (Expt. 1 –
105 soil columns), (2) whether P uptake rate and P supply intensity was correlated (Expt. 2 –
106 hydroponics), and (3) variation in root hair length between the two cultivars under two P levels
107 (Expt. 3 – rhizoboxes).

108 2. Materials and Methods

109 Three separate glasshouse experiments were conducted: Expt. 1 – soil columns, Expt. 2 –
110 hydroponics, and Expt. 3 – rhizoboxes. Two maize (*Zea mays* L.) cultivars ZD958 (released in 1996)
111 and XY335 (released in 2000), widely planted in Northern China, with different genetic backgrounds
112 and contrasting N efficiency, were used in these experiments. Seeds were surface sterilized with 10%
113 (v/v) H₂O₂ for 20 min, washed five times in deionized water, and then pre-germinated on wet filter
114 paper at 25°C in the dark for 36 h before transferred as per respect experiments. All experiments
115 were conducted in a controlled growth chamber with artificial light (day/night 16h/8h), temperature
116 of 28/25°C and light intensity of 300 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. The growth units were arranged in a randomized
117 complete design and repositioned weekly to minimize any adverse effect generated by uneven
118 environments.

119 2.1. Expt. 1 – soil columns

120 2.1.1. Experimental design and soil preparation

121 A complete randomized block design was used consisting of two cultivars and two P levels
122 with four replicates per treatment (three plants per column). The experiment used a calcareous
123 loamy soil collected from a farmland in Baoding city, Hebei Province, Northern China. Major soil
124 properties were characterized as follows: organic carbon 8.42 g kg⁻¹, total N 0.85 g kg⁻¹, total P 0.58 g
125 kg⁻¹, available P (Olsen-P) 9.7 mg kg⁻¹, NaOH-extractable N 65.74 mg kg⁻¹, ammonium
126 acetate-exchangeable K 89.5 mg kg⁻¹, and pH (in CaCl₂) 8.02. The air-dried soil was sieved through a
127 2 mm mesh and thoroughly mixed and let aside for about two years before the use. Basal nutrients
128 were added to the dry soil at the following rates (in mg kg⁻¹ soil): Ca(NO₃)₂·4H₂O 1686.67, K₂SO₄
129 133.34, MgSO₄·7H₂O 43.34, CaCl₂·6H₂O 125.67, EDTA-FeNa 32.86, MnSO₄·4H₂O 6.67, ZnSO₄·7H₂O
130 10, CuSO₄·5H₂O 3.0, H₃BO₃ 0.67, (NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄·4H₂O 0.13. Phosphorus was added to the soil as
131 KH₂PO₄ at a rate of 200 mg P kg⁻¹ soil (High P). The soil without P addition was treated as low P
132 treatment. Equivalent amount of K as KCl instead of KH₂PO₄ was added to the low-P treatment for K
133 compensation.

134 2.1.2. Plant growth, maintenance and harvest

135 Five uniform germinated seeds were planted in each PVC column containing 4.0 kg of the
136 air-dried soil amended with basal nutrients and with (high P treatment) or without (low P
137 treatment) P addition. Plants were thinned to three at emergence. The columns were supplied with
138 deionized water and soil moisture was maintained at 75% of the field capacity prior to the planting
139 and during the experiment by water to weight every two days.

140 Maize plants were harvested 7 and 40 days after shoot emergence for the first and second
141 harvests, respectively. At harvest, shoots were cut at the soil surface level and roots were separated
142 from the soil by gently shaking and sieving. Separated roots were sampled for rhizosphere
143 exudation (see below), and then washed with deionized water free of soil and kept in a sealed plastic
144 bag at 4°C before root scanning and analysis. Shoots and roots were dried at 70°C for 3 d and

145 weighed to determine dry matter. Whole-plant mass ratios were calculated as whole-plant mass in
146 low P soil divided by whole-plant mass in high P soil.

147 2.1.3. Rhizosphere exudation collection and root analysis

148 At harvest, roots were shaken gently to remove the loosely adhering soil, immersed into a baker
149 containing 50 ml of 0.2 mM CaCl₂ solution and shaken for one minute to remove the tightly adhering
150 soil (defined as rhizosphere extracts). Meanwhile, a comparable amount of bulk soil was also
151 suspended in the same amount of CaCl₂ solution as described above. After standing 20 minutes, 0.5
152 ml of rhizosphere extract was transferred to 2 ml Eppendorf reaction vials in order to determine the
153 activity of acid phosphatase (APase), and 2ml subsamples of the rhizosphere extracts were filtered
154 through a 0.22 µm syringe filter into a 1-ml HPLC vial to determine the concentration of
155 carboxylates. Each HPLC sample was acidified with a drop of concentrated orthophosphoric acid
156 (H₃PO₄), and placed on ice for transfer to a -20°C freezer until analyzed (see below) [12,32]. The rest
157 of rhizosphere extract was subsequently dried at 70°C in an oven, and residual soil were used as a
158 reference base for APase and carboxylates.

159 Root samples were scanned using an Epson Perfection V750 PRO scanner. Root morphological
160 traits, such as total root length (TRL), root surface area (RSA) and average root diameter (ARD) were
161 acquired from scanned root images in WinRHIZO (Regent Instructions, Quebec, Canada). Specific
162 root length (SRL) was calculated as the root length per unit root dry weight (m g⁻¹).

163 2.1.4. Rhizosphere extract analysis

164 Rhizosphere extracts were used to determine variation in pH, activity of APase and
165 carboxylates. The amount of rhizosphere soil differed between maize cultivars or P treatments, and
166 the pH of the rhizosphere extracts might be strongly influenced by the amount of rhizosphere soil.
167 Therefore, a modified pH method, derived from the pH of rhizosphere extracts, was used to denote
168 the pH of the rhizosphere [33]. For the bulk soil, the pH was measured immediately after shaking in
169 50 ml 0.2 mM CaCl₂ solution for 30 minutes at a soil: water ratio of 1:5 using a pH meter (Sartorius
170 PB-10, Germany).

171 The activity of APase in the rhizosphere was determined by the method of [34]. Details on the
172 methods are as follows: 0.5 ml of rhizosphere extract was transferred to 2 ml Eppendorf reaction
173 vials containing 0.4 mL Na-Ac buffer and 0.1 ml substrate (*p*-NPP) solution. After incubation for 1
174 hour at 25°C, 0.4 ml of 0.5 M NaOH was added to terminate the reaction. Soil was removed by
175 centrifuging at 4,000 g for 10 min. Absorption of supernatants was measured at 405 nm on a
176 spectrophotometer. Controls were performed with each rhizosphere soil suspension in order to
177 eliminate the color not derived from the hydrolysis of *p*-NPP. Enzyme activity was expressed in
178 katal where one katal respond to 1 mol of *p*-Nitrophenol converted by *p*-NPP per 1 second.

179 Malic and citric acids, two important carboxylates in the rhizosphere extracts, were analyzed by
180 high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) in the ion suppression mode. Separation was
181 conducted on a 250 mm × 4.6 mm reversed-phase column (Alltima C₁₈, Alltech Associates, Deerfield,
182 MA, USA). The mobile phase was 25 mM KH₂PO₄ (pH = 2.25), with a flow rate of 1 ml min⁻¹ at 31°C
183 and UV detection at 214 nm. The sample injection volume was 20 µL. Identification of carboxylates
184 was carried out by comparing the retention time and absorption spectra with those of known
185 standards [12,32].

186 2.1.5. Tissue P concentration and P uptake calculation

187 To determine P concentration in shoots and roots, oven-dried shoot and root samples were
188 ground to a fine powder in a coffee mixer. Approximately 0.3 g of ground subsamples were digested
189 in concentrated H₂O₂-H₂SO₄. P concentrations were measured using the vanado-molybdate
190 colorimetric reaction as described by Westerman [35].

191 Specific P uptake was calculated as the total amount (shoot and root) of P taken up from soil per
192 unit root length. Phosphorus uptake rate was calculated as the net amount of P taken up per unit

193 root length per unit time. Assuming that plants have exponential root growth, the P uptake rate (P_u)
 194 was calculated from the formula of [36] as:

$$195 \quad P_u = \frac{U_2 - U_1}{RL_2 - RL_1} * \frac{\ln(RL_2/RL_1)}{t_2 - t_1}$$

196 Where U is P content (mg plant^{-1}); RL is root length (cm); t is time of harvest (d), number 1 and 2
 197 refer to the first and second harvest, respectively.

198 2.2. Expt. 2 – hydroponics: determination of correlation between P uptake rate and P supply intensity

199 A hydroponic experiment using the same two maize cultivars was carried out to investigate the
 200 correlation between P supply intensity and P uptake rate. The experiment consisted of two cultivars
 201 (ZD958 and XY335) and 8 P levels (0, 12.5, 25, 50, 100, 150, 200 and 250 μM P) with four replicated
 202 pots per treatment (three plants per pot). Germinated seeds were transferred to porcelain pots
 203 containing 2 L of a continuously aerated nutrient solution (in μM): $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ (2000), K_2SO_4 (750),
 204 MgSO_4 (650), KCl (100), H_3BO_3 (1), ZnSO_4 (1), MnSO_4 (1), CuSO_4 (0.1), $(\text{NH}_4)_6\text{Mo}_7\text{O}_{24}$ (0.05) and
 205 Fe-ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA) (10). Phosphorus (P) was added to the nutrient as
 206 KH_2PO_4 at a rate of 5 μM during the growth of initial 12 days. The solution was renewed every 3
 207 days. After the growth of 12 days, P as KH_2PO_4 was applied to the nutrient solution to give final
 208 concentrations of 0, 12.5, 25, 50, 100, 150, 200 and 250 μM P. K was balanced by supplying
 209 appropriate concentrations of KCl to the P treatments. The pH of nutrient solution was daily
 210 adjusted to 5.8 with 0.05 M NaOH. Maize plants were harvested 12 (before P treatment) and 15 days
 211 (3-day after P treatment) after transplanting. Root length, biomass, shoot P content and P uptake rate
 212 were measured as described in Expt. 1.

213 2.3. Expt. 3 – rhizoboxes

214 PVC rhizoboxes (20 cm \times 1.5 cm, 35 cm deep) were used to determine root hair length (RHL)
 215 according to the method of Zhu, Zhang and Lynch [29] with minor revision. Germinated seeds of
 216 two maize cultivars were cultivated in the rhizobox filled with the same soil as Expt. 1 under low P
 217 (no addition of P) and high P (200 mg P kg^{-1} soil as KH_2PO_4) for 20 days. At harvest, four first-order
 218 lateral roots were randomly selected from each plant and examined under a stereo microscope
 219 (Leica Z16 APO, Germany) equipped with DFC295 3mp digital camera. A section of root with
 220 maximal RHL (i.e. a zone with mature, fully elongated hairs) was selected for image capture on the
 221 lateral roots. The images were imported to Image J software (National Institutes of Health, USA) for
 222 quantitative analysis of the RHL.

223 2.4. Data analysis

224 Data collected from each experiment were subjected to a two-way analysis of variance
 225 (ANOVA) in SPSS 18.0 (IBM Inc., USA) to examine the impacts of P and cultivars, and their
 226 interactions on maize growth, root morphological and physiological traits. Data for shoot P content,
 227 rhizosphere pH and carboxylate concentration (Expt. 1) were log transformed to meet ANOVA
 228 assumptions. Comparisons between means were made using Tukey HSD test. Means were
 229 presented with standard error (SE), and significance was expressed at the 5% probability level ($P \leq$
 230 0.05). For hydroponic experiment (Expt. 2), P uptake rates were presented as means with SE and
 231 their correlation with P supply intensity was plotted in SigmaPlot (v.12.0).

232 3. Results

233 3.1. Dry matter accumulation and allocation (Expt. 1)

234 Two-way ANOVA showed significant effects between the two cultivars and between the two P
 235 treatments, respectively, on shoot dry weight (SDW), root dry weight (RDW), total dry weight
 236 (TDW) and root-shoot mass ratio (RMR), respectively, but there was no significant interaction
 237 between cultivar and P for these parameters except RDW (Table 1). Compared with high P, low P

238 supply markedly reduced TDW, SDW and RDW and increased RMR for both maize cultivars (Table
 239 2). At low P supply, ZD958 had a significantly higher TDW and SDW than XY335, whereas no
 240 significant difference was observed for RDW. By comparison, at high P supply, TDW, SDW and
 241 RDW were significantly higher in ZD958 than in XY335. Regardless of P supply, XY335 had a
 242 significantly higher root mass ratio than ZD958 (Table 2). To evaluate the difference between two
 243 maize cultivars in the acclimation to low P, whole-plant mass ratios were calculated. ZD958 had a
 244 significantly higher whole-plant mass ratio than XY335 (Student's $t=2.521$, $P=0.045$), indicating that
 245 ZD958 were experiencing much higher degrees of P stress than XY335.

246 **Table 1.** Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the effects of maize cultivar, P supply and their
 247 interaction on dry matter accumulation, P content, specific P uptake, root morphological and
 248 physiological traits.

Parameters	Source of variation					
	Cultivar		P treatments		Cultivar × P	
	F-value	P-value	F-value	P-value	F-value	P-value
Shoot and root traits						
Total dry weight (TDW)	21.2	< 0.01	221.5	< 0.001	0.51	0.49
Shoot dry weight (SDW)	30.9	< 0.001	237.7	< 0.001	1.62	0.23
Root dry weight (RDW)	6.06	< 0.05	43.4	0.001	7.48	0.02
Root mass ratio (RMR)	39.8	< 0.001	24.1	< 0.001	2.17	0.17
Total root length (TRL)	29.8	< 0.001	3.74	< 0.05	54.1	< 0.001
Root surface area (RSA)	36.5	< 0.001	8.68	< 0.05	71.5	< 0.001
Specific root length (SRL)	0.044	0.837	79.8	< 0.001	1.12	0.31
Average root diameter (ARD)	1.18	0.298	84.4	< 0.001	1.62	0.23
Root hair length (RHL)	5.39	0.052	67.5	< 0.001	0.249	0.63
Plant physiological traits						
Shoot P content (SPC)	72.2	< 0.001	886.1	< 0.001	29.1	< 0.001
Root P content (RPC)	12.9	< 0.01	131.9	< 0.001	10.7	< 0.01
Specific P uptake (SPU)	126.5	< 0.001	715.8	< 0.001	94.8	< 0.001
P uptake rate (PUA)	154.8	< 0.001	598.1	< 0.001	111.9	< 0.001
Rhizosphere pH	0.004	0.987	129.9	0.001	23.3	< 0.001
Acid phosphatase activity (APase)	0.324	0.58	0.014	0.909	0.003	0.955
Citric acid concentration (CAC)	16.1	< 0.01	48.1	< 0.001	0.19	0.67
Malic acid concentration (MAC)	1.49	0.246	34.1	< 0.001	0.27	0.61

249 Specific root length was calculated as the root length per unit root dry weight ($m\ g^{-1}$); Specific P
 250 uptake was calculated as the total amount (shoot and root) of P taken up from soil per unit root
 251 length; P uptake rate was calculated as the net amount of P taken up per unit root length per unit
 252 time.

253

254 **Table 2.** Effect of P supply on the dry matter accumulation and allocation, shoot P content and P
 255 uptake rate in two maize cultivars. The values are mean \pm SE (n = 4). Means for each parameter with
 256 different letters denote significant differences ($P \leq 0.05$) across cultivars and P treatments.

Parameters	ZD958		XY335	
	High P	Low P	High P	Low P
Dry matter				
Shoot dry weight (g plant ⁻¹)	2.16 \pm 0.10a	1.14 \pm 0.03c	1.74 \pm 0.07b	0.88 \pm 0.02d
Total dry weight (g plant ⁻¹)	2.35 \pm 0.11a	1.29 \pm 0.02c	1.99 \pm 0.07b	1.02 \pm 0.02d
Root dry weight (g plant ⁻¹)	0.19 \pm 0.02b	0.15 \pm 0.01c	0.25 \pm 0.01a	0.15 \pm 0.01c
Root mass ratio (%)	8.10 \pm 0.31c	11.68 \pm 0.80b	12.47 \pm 0.50b	14.40 \pm 0.53a
Whole-plant mass ratio	0.55 \pm 0.01a		0.51 \pm 0.01b	
Shoot P uptake				
Shoot P content (mg plant ⁻¹)	5.36 \pm 0.15a	1.50 \pm 0.05c	3.83 \pm 0.11b	1.16 \pm 0.11d
Root P content (mg plant ⁻¹)	0.64 \pm 0.06b	0.30 \pm 0.03c	0.92 \pm 0.04a	0.32 \pm 0.03c
Specific P uptake (mg m ⁻¹)	0.38 \pm 0.01a	0.09 \pm 0.003c	0.21 \pm 0.01b	0.08 \pm 0.005c
P uptake rate (μ g cm ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	0.70 \pm 0.02a	0.12 \pm 0.006c	0.32 \pm 0.02b	0.10 \pm 0.01c

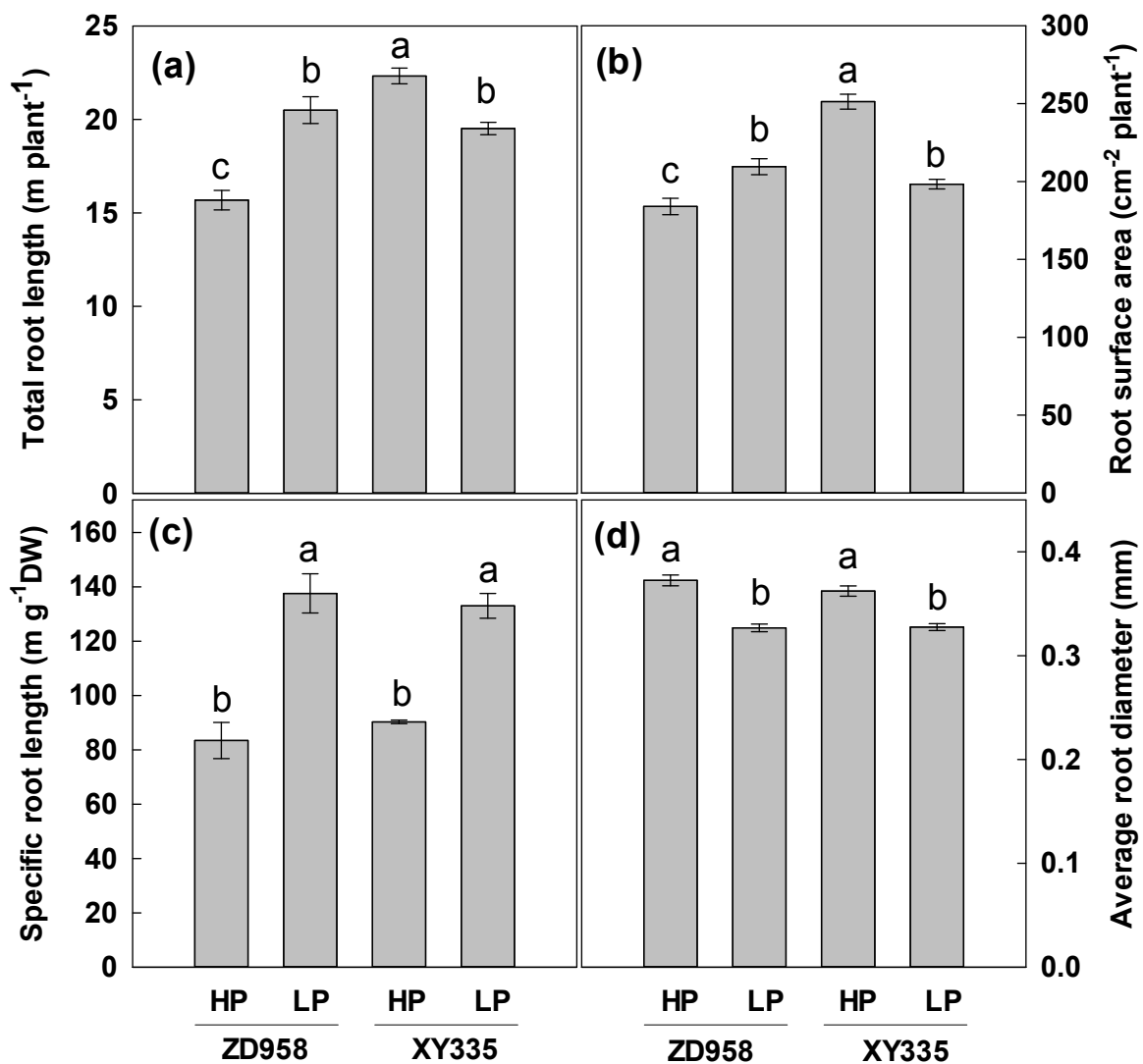
257 Whole-plant mass ratios were calculated as whole-plant mass in low P soil divided by whole-plant
 258 mass in high P soil; Specific P uptake was calculated as the total amount (shoot and root) of P taken
 259 up from soil per unit root length; P uptake rate was calculated as the net amount of P taken up per
 260 unit root length per unit time.

261 3.2. P content, specific P uptake and P uptake rate (Expt. 1)

262 Two-way ANOVA showed a significant effect of cultivar, P and their interaction on shoot P
 263 content, root P content, specific P uptake and P uptake rate (Table 1). Compared with low P, high P
 264 supply significantly increased the P content of shoot and root, specific P uptake and P uptake rate for
 265 both cultivars. At low P supply, shoot P content of ZD958 was significantly higher than XY335,
 266 although no significant difference was observed for root P content, specific P uptake and P uptake
 267 rate between the two cultivars. By comparison, at high P supply, ZD958 had a significantly higher
 268 shoot P content, specific P uptake and P uptake rate, while lower root P content than XY335 (Tables
 269 2).

270 Root morphological traits (Expt. 1)

271 Two-way ANOVA showed a significant effect of cultivar and P on TRL and RSA and of P on
 272 SRL as well as ARD, but no significant interaction between cultivar and P for SRL and ARD (Table
 273 1). Low P supply significantly increased the TRL and RSA in ZD958, but decreased them in XY335
 274 (Figure 1a, b). Low P supply resulted in a significant increase of SRL (Figure 1c), but a significant
 275 decrease of ARD for both cultivars. At low P supply, no difference was found for TRL, RSA, SRL and
 276 ARD between two cultivars. Comparatively, at high P supply, ZD958 exhibited a significantly
 277 higher TRL and RSA than XY335, whereas no significant difference was observed for SRL and ARD
 278 (Figure 1d).



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Figure 1. Total root length (a), specific root length (b), root surface area (c) and average root diameter (d) of two maize cultivars (ZD958 and XY335) grown at low P (LP) and high P (HP) soils. Data were the mean \pm SE ($n=4$). For each trait, bars with the same letter are not significantly different.

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3.3. Root hair length (Expt. 3)

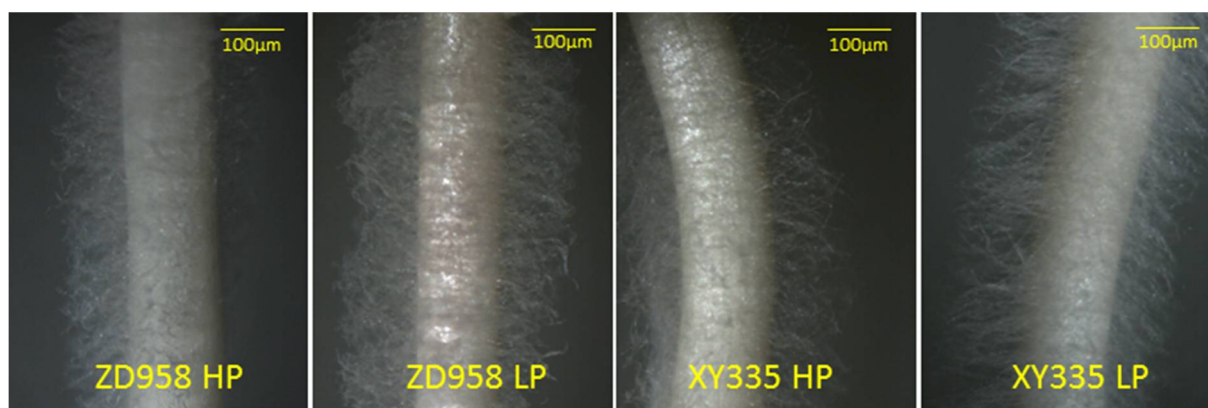
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Two-way ANOVA showed a significant effect of P on root hair length (RHL), no significant interaction between cultivar and P for RHL (Table 1). Low P supply significantly increased the RHL for both cultivars (Figure 2, Figure 3). At low P or high P supply, no significant difference was found for RHL between two cultivars.



288

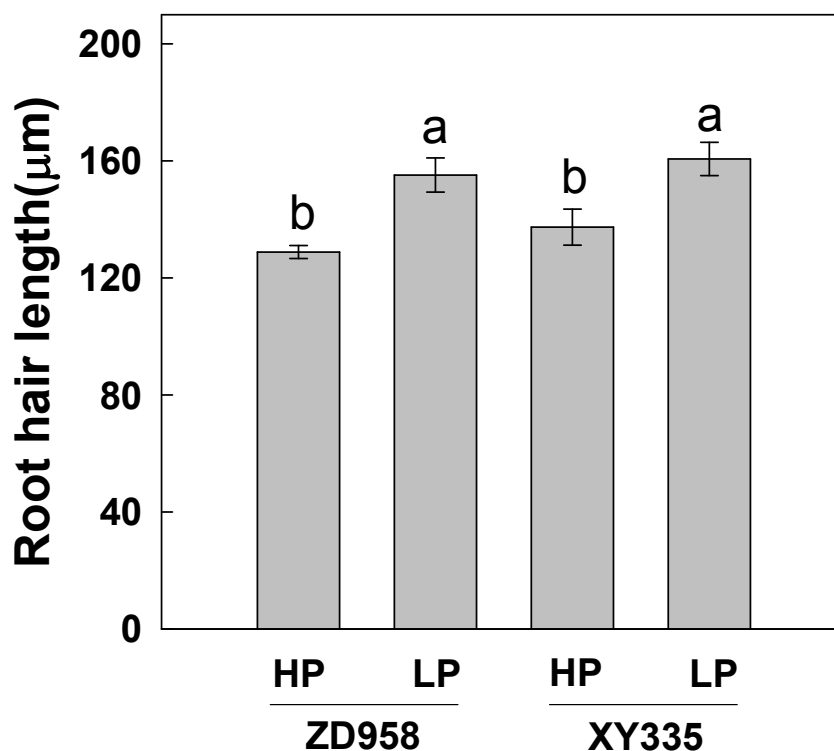
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Figure 2. Root hair images of two maize cultivars, ZD958 and XY335, under low (LP) and high phosphorus (HP) soil. A section of lateral root with maximal root hair length (i.e. a zone with mature, fully elongated hairs) was selected for image capture under a stereo microscope (Leica Z16 APO, Germany) equipped with DFC295 3mp digital camera.



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Figure 3. Mean root hair length for two maize cultivars, ZD958 and XY335, under low (LP) and high phosphorus (HP) soil. Data were the mean \pm SE ($n=4$). Bars with the same letter are not significantly different.

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Root physiological traits (Expt. 1)

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Two-way ANOVA showed a significant effect of cultivar on citric acid concentration and of P on rhizosphere pH, citric and malic acid concentration, but no significant interaction between cultivar and P for citric and malic acid concentration except rhizosphere pH (Table 1). The bulk soil extracts had an average pH of 7.97, ranging from 8.04 to 7.89, higher than rhizosphere pH. Low P supply significantly reduced rhizosphere pH in the both cultivars. ZD958 had an average rhizosphere pH of 7.19 at high P supply and 7.07 at low P supply. Comparatively, XY335 had an average rhizosphere pH of 7.24 at high P supply and 7.04 at low P supply (Table 3). The APase activity ranged from 367 to 389 $\mu\text{g } p\text{-nitrophenol h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ dry soil. No significant difference was observed for APase activity between two P treatments and between the two cultivars. The

307 concentration of citric and malic acid was markedly enhanced under low P environment, but two
 308 maize cultivars presented different patterns (Table 3). The concentration of citric acid was
 309 significantly higher in ZD958 than in XY335 regardless P supplies. By comparison, the concentration
 310 of malic acid was not different between the two cultivars.

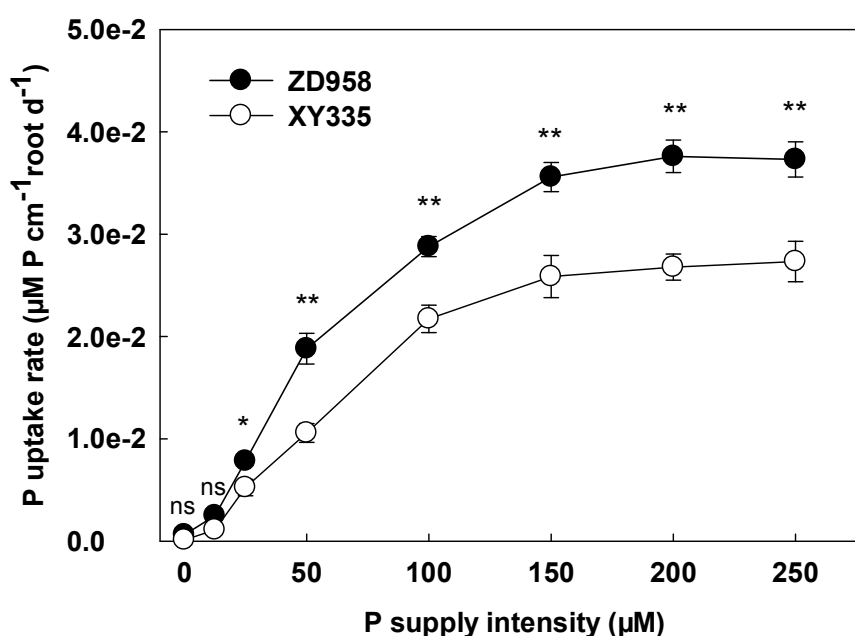
311 **Table 3.** Effect of P supply on rhizosphere pH, acid phosphatase (Acase) activity, carboxylates
 312 concentration in two maize cultivars. The values are mean \pm SE (n = 4). Different letters within each
 313 column denote significant differences ($P \leq 0.05$) between treatments.

Maize cultivars	P supply	Rhizosphere pH †	Acid phosphatase activity ($\mu\text{g } p\text{-nitrophenol h}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ dry soil}$)	Citric acid concentration ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ dry soil}$)	Malic acid concentration ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ dry soil}$)
ZD958	HP	7.19 \pm 0.02a	370 \pm 27.6a	1.28 \pm 0.05b	1.57 \pm 0.10b
	LP	7.07 \pm 0.02b	372 \pm 14.9a	2.23 \pm 0.27a	2.92 \pm 0.48a
XY335	HP	7.24 \pm 0.01a	384 \pm 27.3a	0.63 \pm 0.06c	1.12 \pm 0.02b
	LP	7.04 \pm 0.01b	389 \pm 34.8a	1.71 \pm 0.10b	2.74 \pm 0.18a

314 † Note: bulk soil pH: 7.97 \pm 0.03.

315 3.4. Correlation between P uptake rate and P supply intensity (Expt. 2)

316 The hydroponic experiment showed that the difference of P uptake rate between the two maize
 317 cultivars was progressively enlarged with the increase of P supply intensity (Figure 4). ZD958 had a
 318 significantly higher P uptake rate than XY335 when P supply intensity was greater than 12.5 μM ,
 319 with no obvious difference when supplied P less than 12.5 μM .



320 **Figure 4.** Effects of P supply intensity on P uptake rate in two maize cultivars (ZD958 and XY335).
 321 Data were the mean \pm SE (n=4). Significant differences between the two cultivars for a given P supply:
 322 *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$.
 323

324 4. Discussion

325 This study identified ZD958 as a P-efficient genotype and XY335 as a P-inefficient genotype,
 326 and explored the factors responsible for higher acquisition of soil P by ZD958 than XY335 by

327 comparing root morphological and physiological adaptations to soil phosphorus deficit. The
328 information generated by this study will be useful for establishing early selection strategies for P
329 efficiency in maize.

330 In the present study, shoot P content of ZD958 was significantly higher than XY335 at both low-
331 and high-P supplies, suggesting that ZD958 could access more P from soil than XY335. The
332 difference in soil P acquisition was associated with the changes in biomass allocation, root
333 morphology, root exudation, root physiological uptake capacity [5,10,13,37]. The patterns of biomass
334 allocation are thought to assist in P acquisition by enhancing the capacity of root foraging and
335 uptake [6,38]. When P is in short supply, plants tend to allocate a greater proportion of their biomass
336 to their root system [38]. This study suggested that low P supply resulted in a greater biomass
337 allocation to roots for the both cultivars, which confirms previous reports [16,22,32]. However, the
338 two maize cultivars differed in biomass allocation as XY335 allocated a greater ratio of biomass to
339 the roots (larger RMR) than ZD958 (lower RMR) regardless P supply (Table 2). Since P is relatively
340 immobile in soil, increased biomass allocation to roots was thought to be beneficial for P acquisition
341 of maize [22]. Interestingly, RMR does not closely correlate with shoot P content. XY335 with higher
342 RMR produced a less shoot P (both P concentration and P content), whereas ZD958 with lower RMR
343 produced higher shoot P. A detailed explanation about the relationship between root morphological
344 and physiological traits with the acquisition of soil P is discussed below.

345 Root morphological traits play an essential role in the acquisition of soil P. The increases in TRL
346 and RSA allow the plant to explore a larger volume of soil for the acquisition of soil P. When P is in a
347 short supply, a positive response of TRL and RSA was observed for the acquisition of soil P. The
348 results presented here revealed two different responses of maize roots to soil P shortage. Low P
349 supply lead to a significant increase of TRL and RSA in ZD958 while an obvious decrease of these in
350 XY335, suggesting that XY335 is more sensitive in response to soil P shortage and inferior in the
351 acquisition of soil P as compared with ZD958. Maize has long been considered as a species with
352 strong root morphological/architectural adaptations [21,24,25,27,39]. Previous studies have shown
353 that maize genotypes with more lateral root branching, shallower root system and longer root hairs
354 had greater the capacity in the acquisition of soil P [25,27,29]. The genes, *Rtcs*, *Bk2* and *Rth3*,
355 associated with root morphology, exhibited higher expression in the P efficient genotype (L3)
356 relative to the P inefficient genotype (L22). Thus, it can be expected that maize genotypes with larger
357 root system and optimum root architecture are often able to accumulate more P in its aboveground
358 when soil P was in a limiting or sufficient supply. Different from the expectation, XY335, with a
359 similar (at low P supply) or larger (at high P supply) TRL and RSA, exhibited the lower shoot P
360 content than ZD958. In addition, no significant difference was observed for SRL and ARD between
361 the two cultivars at low P or high P supply, indicating that differences between the two cultivars in
362 root morphological traits were mainly originated from TRL and RSA rather than root fineness. Root
363 hairs play an important role in the acquisition of immobile P [41]. Several evidences indicated that
364 RHL of maize can largely be improved by low P availability, which contributed to P acquisition
365 [24,28]. In accordance with these studies, our results shown that P shortage significantly increased
366 the RHL of two maize cultivars (Figure 2, Figure 3). Zhu et al. [29] suggested that maize genotypes
367 with long root hairs under low P availability had significantly greater plant growth, P uptake and
368 lower metabolic cost-benefit ratios than short-haired genotypes. Similarly, Bayuelo-Jimenez et al.
369 [40] and Magdaleno-Armas et al. [24] found that P-efficient accessions had greater RHL under P
370 deficit than P-inefficient ones. In the present study, the RHL was not different between two maize
371 cultivars under low P or high P, indicating that RHL was not associated with the improved P uptake
372 by ZD958. Taken together, our results suggest that changes in root morphological traits did not
373 explain the improved P uptake by ZD958 roots. It is possible that the changes in root physiological
374 traits might explain the improved P uptake by ZD958 roots.

375 When subjected to low P stress, plant roots often exhibit a wide range of physiological
376 adjustments to access soil P [5,42]. Such physiological changes for P acquisition is generally
377 associated with rhizosphere acidification [43,44], exudation of organic acid [43] and APase activity
378 [45]. In the present study, low P stress, although not altered the activity of APase, caused a

379 significant decrease of rhizosphere pH and an increase of organic acid exudation, suggesting that the
380 dissolution of soil sparingly soluble P can be expected under low P supply, which enable maize
381 plants efficiently to absorb P from the rhizosphere solutions. Gaume et al. [30] indicated that P
382 deficiency significantly increased the exudation of malic and citric acids in three of the four maize
383 genotypes, which was in accordance with the present results. The rhizosphere acidification has
384 already been known to be able to increase P intensity in the rhizosphere, and therefore to improve
385 the uptake of soil P by plant roots [46-48]. Studies with ³²P-labeled soil have shown unequivocally
386 that species exuding organic acids can access fixed inorganic P that is unavailable to other plants
387 [49]. At low P or high P supply, a similar rhizosphere pH and malic acid concentration in two maize
388 cultivars excluded their contribution to P uptake. In the present study, it was not to be expected
389 previously that the concentration of citric acid was higher in ZD958 than in XY335. Gaume et al. [30]
390 claimed that low-P tolerant maize genotype 'NST' could exudate higher amounts of citric acid than
391 low-P susceptible genotype 'SA3' under low P conditions. These results suggested that the higher P
392 uptake by ZD958 than XY335 can be attributed to its ability to release more citric acids from its roots.
393 It is unlikely that the difference in P acquisition between the two maize cultivars was caused by the
394 changes in APase activity since the activity of the enzyme was not significantly different between
395 two maize cultivars.

396 Apart from the root exudates, root physiological uptake capacity play an essential role in the
397 acquisition of soil P. Plant roots can improve their P uptake capacity by adjusting their
398 morphological and physiological traits to meet changes in shoot P demand [13,50,51], which
399 provided a key mechanistic explanation of why some species/cultivars are more effective in the
400 acquisition of soil P than others. The results from the present study suggest that ZD958 exhibited a
401 significantly higher P uptake rate under high P supply but not under low P supply than XY335
402 (Table 2), indicating that P uptake rate was associated with the intensity of soil P supply. It can
403 therefore be inferred that high P supply intensity may enlarge the difference of P uptake rate
404 between two maize cultivars, while low P supply intensity may reduce the difference, making it not
405 statistically obvious for P uptake rate. This result was further validated in the separate hydroponic
406 experiment demonstrating the correlation between P uptake rate and P supply intensity (Figure 4).
407 These results suggested that change in P uptake rate was largely regulated by cultivars and P supply
408 intensity. Taken together, our results indicated that the higher P uptake by ZD958 than XY335 can be
409 largely attributed to its ability to improve P uptake rate.

410 Although root physiological adaptations arise as a possible mechanism for better P acquisition,
411 root architecture-based mechanisms are important for the acquisition of sparingly soil P as shown in
412 maize by other studies [24,25,27]. The differences of two maize cultivars in root architectural traits
413 have not yet been explored in this study. It is likely that ZD958 might have a greater lateral root
414 branching and shallower root systems contributed to improved P uptake as compared with XY335.
415 In P-limited soils, plants may depend largely upon the mycorrhizal association to acquire this
416 nutrient [52]. It has been shown that mycorrhizal symbiosis provides up to 60% of the total
417 requirement of P in maize [53]. Hyphal exudates of AM could release organic acids into soil and
418 contribute to increased P uptake of colonized plants [54]. Extraradical hyphae of AM and
419 ectomycorrhizal fungi also could release APase into the hyphosphere contributing to P uptake of
420 plants [55,56]. It is suggested that a complex interaction exists between host plants and mycorrhizal
421 fungi [57]. It is suggested that PGPRs associated with plant roots not only promote their growth and
422 also improve P uptake and help in counteracting the detrimental effects of soil stresses [58]. Since
423 the air-dried soil used in this study represented very low spore density of AM fungi and hyphal
424 infection on maize roots at harvest (data not shown), the effects of AM fungi in P acquisition could
425 be ignored. However, further studies are required for comparing the differences in root architectural
426 traits, mycorrhizal associations and PGPRs between two maize cultivars.

427 In most of cases, P-efficient genotypes tend to respond to P stress in a less extreme way
428 than inefficient ones [40,59]. This implies that P-efficient genotypes were more tolerant to low P
429 than P-inefficient genotypes. In the present study, ZD958 exhibited a low responsiveness in shoots
430 and roots growth than XY335, suggesting that ZD958 is more tolerant to P stress than XY335.

431 Nitrogen (N) and P are two essential macronutrients for plant growth and development.
432 According to the ecological stoichiometry theory, N:P ratios are relatively stable and maintain at the
433 level of mean 12.7 ratio at a global scale [60]. This is especially true for maize in an agricultural
434 system with fertilization. When N and P are in a sufficient supply, N:P ratios ranged from 18.75 to
435 22.63 [61], indicating that the growth of maize plants is required for more N than P. Therefore, it can
436 be predicted that N-efficient maize genotype have an advantage in plants growth over P-efficient
437 genotype. In a previous study, ZD958 has been identified as low-N efficient maize cultivar
438 compared with the high N-efficient XY335. When simultaneously exposed to N and P deficiency, it
439 is likely that XY335 as N-efficient genotype has a greater superiority in growth than P-efficient
440 ZD958 since higher N requirement than P in maize plants. When P is in a limited supply, XY335
441 behave an inferior than ZD958. Further studies are required for examining interactive effect between
442 N and P on root adaptations of two maize cultivars.

443 In this study, we added KCl to compensate KH_2PO_4 starvation in low P treatment. This
444 compensate increased unavoidably the concentration of Cl^- in low P soil. It is suggested that critical
445 toxic value of chloride for maize is 600 mg kg^{-1} soil [62]. The effect on maize growth and P uptake
446 could be significant only when the Cl^- concentration is above the critical level i.e. 600 mg kg^{-1} soil.
447 Concentration of initial soil chloride is 14.8 mg kg^{-1} soil. After adding compensated KCl to the low P
448 soil, Cl concentration was 187.1 mg kg^{-1} soil. Therefore, it can be expected the compensated Cl could
449 have less effect on maize growth and P uptake. In the future studies, we may consider the use of
450 $\text{NH}_4\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4$ as P source and adjust N in low P soil with the addition of NH_4NO_3 .

451 In calcareous soil, where P is precipitated as calcium phosphates and soil P availability is low,
452 both rhizosphere acidification and exudation of organic acids are obviously beneficial as they can
453 dissolve P from Ca-P compounds. In neutral or near neutral soils, where soil P is less fixed and its
454 availability relatively high, a better development of root system may be essential for the capture of
455 soil available P. In acidic soils, where P is fixed as oxides and hydroxides of Al and Fe and soil P
456 availability is low, exudation of organic acids is beneficial as it can dissolve P from Fe-P and Al-P
457 compounds. Apart from the low available P, the crops in the acid soils also suffered from Al toxicity.
458 The exudation of proton is not beneficial since concentration of Al^{3+} is higher in more acidic soil.
459 Thus it can be seen that different breeding strategies are required for consideration to improve P
460 acquisition in three different soil types. Therefore, further studies involving different types of soils
461 and more genotypes are required to determine root adaptations to low P stress.

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