

Effect of biodegradable chelating ligand on iron bioavailability and radish growth

著者	Hasegawa Hiroshi, Rahman M. Azizur, Saitoh K., Ueda K.
journal or publication title	Journal of Plant Nutrition
volume	33
number	6
page range	933-942
year	2010-04-01
URL	http://hdl.handle.net/2297/24293

doi: 10.1080/01904161003696494

1 **Effect of Biodegradable Chelating Ligand on Iron Bioavailability**
2 **and Radish Growth (*Raphanus sativus* L.)**

3
4
5 **H. Hasegawa^{*}; M. Azizur Rahman; K. Saitoh; K. Ueda**

6
7
8
9 Graduate School of Natural Science & Technology, Kanazawa University, Kakuma, Kanazawa
10 920-1192, Japan

11
12
13
14
15 *Corresponding author

16 E-mail: hhiroshi@t.kanazawa-u.ac.jp

17 Tel/Fax: 81-76-234-4792

18
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 Abstract:

26 The effect of chelating ligands on iron uptake and growth of radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.) was
27 investigated. The ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) increased ⁵⁵Fe uptake in roots of
28 radish though its subsequent translocation from roots to shoots and leaves did not increased.
29 About 70%-80% of the total ⁵⁵Fe was distributed in the roots while about 5%-15% and 11%-17%
30 were in shoots and leaves, respectively. The EDTA increases iron uptake into the roots of radish,
31 but not in the above ground parts of the plant. The growth of radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.)
32 decreased drastically in alkaline condition (pH > 9), even though the concentration of iron was
33 sufficient in the growth medium. The growth of radish was enhanced successfully by the
34 addition of hydroxyiminodisuccinic acid (HIDS) and EDTA. This might be because HIDS and
35 EDTA solubilize iron from its precipitation with hydroxides at higher pH, and increase iron
36 bioavailability. The influence of EDTA and HIDS on radish growth was comparable. Increase of
37 radish growth by ethylenediaminedisuccinic acid (EDDS) and methylglycinodiacetic acid
38 (MGDA) was less than those by EDTA and HIDS. Considering the reproducibility of the radish
39 growth (biomass production) at pH 10, HIDS is supposed to be more effective compared to
40 EDTA.

41

42

43

44

45

46 **Keywords:** Iron (Fe), Chelating ligands, Radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.), HIDS, Bioavailability.

47

48

49

50 **1. Introduction:**

51 Iron is an essential micronutrient for plants, which plays important roles in respiration,
52 photosynthesis, and many other cellular functions such as DNA synthesis, nitrogen fixation, and
53 hormone production (Vert et al. 2002). Although abundant in nature, iron often is unavailable to
54 plants, especially at neutral or alkaline pH, because it forms insoluble ferric hydroxide
55 complexes in the presence of oxygen (Cohen et al. 1998; Guerinot and Yi 1994). The
56 precipitation of iron hydroxide is also known as iron plaque. Iron plaque formation in the
57 rhizosphere, however, may results iron deficiency to the plants. Plants use two distinct strategies
58 to assimilate iron from the environment. Grasses release low molecular weight and high affinity
59 Fe(III)-chelate compounds called phytosiderophores, which solubilize ferric iron in the
60 rhizosphere and are recognized for uptake by specific membrane transporters (Bienfait 1988;
61 Chaney 1987; Romheld and Marschner 1986). Iron uptake in dicots and nongrass monocots is
62 mediated by a plasma membrane-bound ferric reductase that transfers electrons from
63 intracellular NADH (Buckhout et al. 1989) to Fe(III)-chelates in the rhizosphere (Chaney, Brown,
64 and Tiffin 1972). The ferrous ions (Fe^{2+}) released from the chelates by this process are
65 subsequently transported into the cytoplasm via a separate transport protein (Kochian 1991; Fox
66 et al. 1996).

67

68 In iron deficient condition, dicots and nongrass monocots stimulate a number of
69 processes to enhance iron accumulation from the soil. Root-mediated acidification of rhizosphere
70 by iron deficient plants to enhance solubilization of Fe^{3+} from iron hydroxides is an interesting
71 strategy (Chaney, Brown, and Tiffin 1972; Bienfait et al. 1983). In nature, rhizospheric microbes
72 have been reported to exude siderophores to the root-plaque interface. These siderophores
73 solubilize ferric iron in the rhizosphere and are recognized for uptake by specific membrane

74 receptors and render its phytoavailability (Bienfait 1988; Chaney 1987; Romheld and Marschner
75 1986).

76
77 Research on the interaction of plants with chelating ligands started in the 1950s with a
78 view to alleviating deficiencies in the essential nutrients Fe, Mn, Cu, and Zn (Wenger, Tandy,
79 and Nowack 2005). EDTA has become very popular to achieve this purpose but has the
80 disadvantage that it is quite persistent in the environment due to its low biodegradability. EDTA
81 also impairs plant growth severely, even at very low concentrations. Therefore, biodegradable
82 chelating ligands could be the best alternatives to EDTA for the increase of iron availability to
83 plants. The biodegradable chelating ligands would solubilize precipitated iron in the rhizosphere
84 without any harmful environmental effects. In this study, we investigated the effects of
85 biodegradable chelating ligands on growth of radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.), and iron uptake by
86 the plant at different pH. Our research approach was to increase iron phytoavailability using
87 biodegradable chelating ligands, when iron becomes unavailable because of its precipitation with
88 hydroxides.

89

90 **2. Materials and Methods:**

91 **2.1. Experimental setup**

92 Before use in the experiment, seeds of radish were stored in refrigerator at 4°C. They
93 were sterilized with 0.25% NaClO and 25 µM Tween20 solution for two minutes, and rinsed
94 with 5 ml of deionized water using an E-pure system (Barnstead) for five times. The standard
95 Murashige and Skoog (MS) growth medium was modified using 0 and 10 µM FeCl₃·6H₂O for
96 Fe-deficient and -sufficient condition, respectively (Table 1). 10 mM chelating ligand were used
97 in the MS medium before the cultivation of radish. Seeds were grown on 4 ml of modified MS
98 medium in a 14-ml sterilized polystyrene tube. After screening from light for 3 days, the plants

99 were grown in a growth chamber, where the condition was set as 14:10 h light/dark schedule,
100 180 $\mu\text{M photon m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ light intensity from cool white fluorescent lights and 20 °C temperatures.
101 The experiments were run for 2-3 weeks. For the measurement of dry-weight, plant samples
102 were dried at 90 °C until they reached a constant weight.

103

104 **2.2. Extraction of extracellular fractions of iron and chemical analysis**

105 Extra and intracellular fractions of iron in radish were determined by radiochemical
106 measurements of ^{55}Fe . For intracellular iron, samples were successively rinsed with 5 ml of
107 deionized water, 5 ml of 0.047 M Ti(III)-citrate-EDTA solution and again with 5 ml of deionized
108 water. For total iron (corresponding to intra and extracellular iron), other samples were rinsed
109 with 5 ml of EPW. Both of the samples, in which ^{55}Fe retained as a tracer, were directly added
110 to 5 ml of liquid scintillation solutions [3.0 g of 2-(4-tert-butylphenyl)-5-(4-biphenyl)-1,3,4-
111 oxadiazole / 500 ml toluene] in 20 ml vials. Radiochemical activity of ^{55}Fe was measured using
112 the tritium mode of the liquid scintillation counter (LSC-6101, Aloka, Japan). The concentration
113 of Fe(III) was calculated from Fe(III)/ ^{55}Fe (III) ratio in sample solutions.

114

115 **2.3. Chemicals**

116 Stock solution of Fe(III) was prepared by dissolving $\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Nacalai Tesque,
117 Kyoto) in 1M HCl (TAMAPURE-AA-100, Tama Chemicals, Tokyo) and was standardized by
118 using inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (Optima 3300XL, Perkin-Elmer,
119 USA). Stock solution of ^{55}Fe (III) was prepared by dissolving $^{55}\text{FeCl}_3$ (PerkinElmer Life &
120 Analytical Sciences, specific activity; >111 GBq/g, 37MBq) in 1M HCl (TAMAPURE-AA-100).
121 They were diluted to the desired concentration ratios of Fe/ ^{55}Fe . Stock solutions of EDTA, HIDS,
122 IDS, MGDA and EDDS were prepared by dissolving ethylenediamine-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid
123 (Dojindo Molecular Technologies, Japan), tetrasodium 3-hydroxy-2,2'-iminodisuccinate

124 (Nippon Syokubai, Japan), tetrasodium iminodisuccinate (Bayer), methylglycine-N,N-diacetic
125 acid (BASF) and ethylenediamine-N, N'-disuccinic acid (Chelest) in 0.1 M sodium hydroxide,
126 respectively. Other reagents were of analytical grade or better. All solutions were prepared with
127 deionized water.

128

129 **3. Results and Discussions**

130 **3.1. ⁵⁵Fe uptake in tissues of radish influenced by EDTA**

131 ⁵⁵Fe uptake in roots of radish seedling was increased by EDTA though its translocation
132 from roots to shoots and leaves was not increased (Fig. 1). About 68%, 15% and 17% of the total
133 iron was accumulated in roots, stems and leaves of radish, respectively, when EDTA was not
134 added to the growth medium. With the addition of EDTA to the growth medium, the amounts
135 changed to 84%, 5% and 11% in roots, stems and leaves, respectively. It is important that iron
136 uptake in roots increased by 22% with the addition of EDTA in the culture medium though iron
137 translocation from roots to stems and leaves decreased by 66% and 33%, respectively after the
138 addition of EDTA to the growth medium. The results elucidate that chelating ligands increase
139 iron uptake into plant's roots, but iron translocation from roots to above ground parts of plants
140 might not be affected by its concentrations in roots. Plants translocate iron from roots to aerial
141 parts according to their needs.

142

143 Iron content was higher in leaves of radish compared to that in stems (Fig. 1). It might be
144 due to photosynthesis in leaves of green plants. Green plants translocate most of the iron to the
145 leaves to perform photosynthesis, in which many metabolic processes are activated by iron (Briat
146 et al. 1995; Hendry and Rocklebank 1985; Kampfenkel, Van Montagu, and Inze 1995; Prescott
147 and John 1996; Somers and Shive 1942), and iron itself is a prosthetic group of many enzymes
148 (Janneke and Stéphane 2005; Knaff 2004). Iron is an essential micronutrient for plants, which

149 plays important roles in respiration, photosynthesis, and many other cellular functions such as
150 DNA synthesis, nitrogen fixation, and hormone production (Vert et al. 2002).

151

152 **3.2. Radish growth affected by Fe at different pH**

153 Radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.) was grown with and without Fe(III) at different pH ranged
154 between 7 and 10. Biomass productions of radish were almost constant in the pH range of 7-9 in
155 the nutrient medium. However, biomass production of the plant was about 62-73% higher in
156 solutions with 10 μ M iron than those without iron (Fig. 2). At pH 10, radish growth decreased
157 drastically. The dry biomass of the plant was 14.04 ± 7.92 mg and 12.52 ± 5.50 mg in nutrient
158 solution with iron and without iron, respectively. The result implies that the influence of iron on
159 plant growth is directly related to the pH of the growth medium.

160

161 Iron plays important roles in photosynthesis in plants (Vert et al. 2002). Although iron is
162 sufficient in growth medium, its availability is mostly dependent on pH. In alkaline pH condition
163 iron forms insoluble ferric hydroxide complexes in the presence of oxygen (Cohen et al. 1998).
164 Iron deficiency results chlorosis in green leaves, which retards plant growth, and leads to the
165 reduction of crop yields (Guerinot and Yi 1994). The results of the present study also showed
166 that radish growth decreased drastically at higher pH, which might be the consequence of iron
167 chlorosis.

168

169 **3.3. Influence of chelating ligands and pH on radish growth**

170 The influence of chelating ligands and pH of the growth medium on biomass production
171 of radish was studied. Results show that biomass production decreased drastically at pH 10,
172 when chelating ligands were not applied (Fig. 3). This was due to the drastic reduction of iron
173 availability to the plant because of insoluble ferric hydroxide formation. The depletion in

174 biomass production was enhanced up to 29% and 31% by the addition of HIDS and EDTA in the
175 growth medium, respectively. However, EDDS was ineffective in the increase of biomass
176 production of the plant (Fig. 3). The result suggests that the efficiency of HIDS in the increase of
177 iron phytoavailability at higher pH is comparable with that of EDTA. Thus, HIDS, a
178 biodegradable chelating ligand, would be alternative to environmentally persistent and non-
179 biodegradable EDTA.

180

181 Biomass production of radish was about 10-31% worse compared to the control
182 treatments (without chelating ligands) even after the addition of chelating ligands in the growth
183 medium (Fig. 3). The highest depletion (52%) in biomass was observed in EDDS treated radish
184 at pH 9. It can be concluded from the results that chelating ligands are effective in the increase of
185 plant growth at higher pH (>10). The use of chelating ligands at lower pH (<9) would produce
186 negative results, as observed in the present study.

187

188 Radish was also grown at pH 10, with and without chelating ligands and iron (Fig. 4).
189 Results show that plant biomass was lowest (13.00 ± 5.50 mg), when both iron and ligand were
190 not applied to the medium. With the addition of $10 \mu\text{M}$ of Fe(III), biomass of EDDS and MGDA
191 treated radish did not differ from the control treatment (without chelating ligand). The plant
192 biomass production was increased by 17%, 29%, and 31% with the addition of IDS, HIDS, and
193 EDTA, respectively (Fig. 4). Considering the reproducibility with the smaller standard deviation,
194 HIDS appears to be better chelating ligand for the increase of plant growth.

195

196 **3.4. Effect of chelating ligands on height and fresh biomass production of radish**

197 Radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.) was grown in alkaline growth medium (pH 10) containing
198 10 mM and $10 \mu\text{M}$ of chelating ligands and Fe(III), respectively. At this pH, Fe(III) becomes

199 precipitated, and iron phytoavailability decreased significantly. In the present study, it was
200 observed that chelating ligands increased iron uptake into radish plant, which results in the
201 increase of the plant growth (biomass production) (Fig. 4). It was also observed that some
202 chelating ligands increased plant height compared to the control one (Fig. 5). It might be due to
203 the increase of iron uptake by chelating ligands.

204

205 Plant height is an important parameter of growth. Auxin and gibberellin are mainly
206 responsible for the cell elongation leading to the increase of plant height (Rayle and Cleland
207 1992; Yang, Davies, and Reid 1996). Although information about the direct role of iron in the
208 plant cell elongation is limited, iron might play important role in plant elongation as it is
209 involved in many metabolic processes of plant (Hendry and Rocklebank 1985; Kampfenkel, Van
210 Montagu, and Inze 1995; Vert et al. 2002), and as it is a prosthetic group of many enzymes
211 (Janneke and Stéphane 2005; Knaff 2004).

212

213 **5. Conclusion:**

214 The use of chelating ligands, especially EDTA, has been widely applied from long time
215 for the increase of iron phytoavailability. EDTA used for this purpose for long time. Recently,
216 leaching of metals due to the huge application of EDTA in the crop fields, and the non-
217 biodegradability of EDTA raise the question whether this chelating ligand would be used any
218 more or not. Therefore, ascertain of an effective substitute of EDTA with biodegradable
219 characteristics comes in the focus of scientific community in this field. The present study was
220 initiated keeping this point in mind. This article describes the preliminary findings of the study.
221 From our study, we propose HIDS as the best alternative to EDTA for the increase of iron
222 phytoavailability at alkaline pH. More investigation is needed to establish this proposal.

223

224 **6. Acknowledgements:**

225 This research was supported partly by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research (18510071)
226 from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS).

227

228 **7. References**

229 Bienfait, H. F. 1988. Mechanisms in Fe-efficiency reactions of higher plants. *Journal of Plant*
230 *Nutrition* 11:605-629.

231 Bienfait, H. F., R. J. Bino, A. M. Blik, J. F. Duivenvoorden, and J. M. Fontaine. 1983.
232 Characterization of ferric reducing activity in roots of Fe-deficient *Phaseolus vulgaris*.
233 *Physiologia Plantarum* 59 (2):196-202.

234 Briat, J. F., I. Fobis-Loisy, N. Grignon, S. Lobreaux, N. Pascal, G. Savino, S. Thoiron, N. von
235 Wiren, and O. Van Wuytswinkel. 1995. Cellular and molecular aspects of iron
236 metabolism in plants. *Biology of the Cell* 84:69-81.

237 Buckhout, Thomas J., Paul F. Bell, Douglas G. Luster, and Rufus L. Chaney. 1989. Iron-Stress
238 Induced Redox Activity in Tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill.) Is Localized on the
239 Plasma Membrane. *Plant Physiology* 90 (1):151-156.

240 Chaney, R. L. 1987. Complexity of iron nutrition: Lessons for plan-soil interaction research.
241 *Journal of Plant Nutrition* 10:963-994.

242 Chaney, Rufus L., John C. Brown, and Lee O. Tiffin. 1972. Obligatory Reduction of Ferric
243 Chelates in Iron Uptake by Soybeans. *Plant Physiology* 50 (2):208-213.

244 Cohen, Clara K., Tama C. Fox, David F. Garvin, and Leon V. Kochian. 1998. The Role of Iron-
245 Deficiency Stress Responses in Stimulating Heavy-Metal Transport in Plants. *Plant*
246 *Physiology* 116 (3):1063-1072.

- 247 Fox, T. C., J. E. Shaff, M. A. Grusak, W. A. Norvell, Y. Chen, R. L. Chaney, and L. V. Kochian.
248 1996. Direct Measurement of ^{59}Fe -Labeled Fe^{2+} Influx in Roots of Pea Using a Chelator
249 Buffer System to Control Free Fe^{2+} in Solution. *Plant Physiology* 111 (1):93-100.
- 250 Guerinot, M. L., and Y. Yi. 1994. Iron: Nutritious, Noxious, and Not Readily Available. *Plant*
251 *Physiology* 104 (3):815-820.
- 252 Hendry, G. A. F. , and K. J. B. Rocklebank. 1985. Iron-Induced Oxygen Radical Metabolism in
253 Waterlogged Plants. *New Phytologist* 101 (1):199-206.
- 254 Janneke, B., and L. Stéphane. 2005. Biogenesis of iron-sulfur proteins in plants. *Trends in Plant*
255 *Science* 10 (7):324-331.
- 256 Kampfenkel, K., M. Van Montagu, and D. Inze. 1995. Effects of Iron Excess on *Nicotiana*
257 *plumbaginifolia* Plants (Implications to Oxidative Stress). *Plant Physiology* 107 (3):725-
258 735.
- 259 Knaff, D. B. 2004. *Ferredoxin and ferredoxin-dependent enzymes*. Netherlands: Springer
- 260 Kochian, L. V. 1991. *Mechanisms of micronutrient uptake and translocation in plants*. Madison,
261 WI: Soil Science Society of America.
- 262 Prescott, Andy G., and Philip John. 1996. DIOXYGENASES: Molecular Structure and Role in
263 Plant Metabolism. *Annual Review of Plant Physiology and Plant Molecular Biology* 47
264 (1):245.
- 265 Rayle, D L., and R E Cleland. 1992. The Acid Growth Theory of auxin-induced cell elongation is
266 alive and well. *Plant Physiology* 99 (4):1271-1274.
- 267 Romheld, Volker, and Horst Marschner. 1986. Evidence for a Specific Uptake System for Iron
268 Phytosiderophores in Roots of Grasses. *Plant Physiology* 80 (1):175-180.
- 269 Somers, I. I., and J. W. Shive. 1942. The Iron-Manganese Relation in Plant Metabolism. *Plant*
270 *Physiology* 17 (4):582-602.

271 Vert, Gregory, Natasha Grotz, Fabienne Dedaldechamp, Frederic Gaymard, Mary Lou Guerinot,
272 Jean-Francois Briat, and Catherine Curie. 2002. IRT1, an Arabidopsis Transporter
273 Essential for Iron Uptake from the Soil and for Plant Growth. *Plant Cell* 14 (6):1223-
274 1233.

275 Wenger, K., S. Tandy, and B. Nowack. 2005. *Effects of chelating agents on trace metal*
276 *speciation and bioavailability*. Vol. 910. Washington, DC.: American Chemical Society.

277 Yang, T., P. J. Davies, and J. B. Reid. 1996. Genetic Dissection of the Relative Roles of Auxin
278 and Gibberellin in the Regulation of Stem Elongation in Intact Light-Grown Peas. *Plant*
279 *Physiology* 110 (3):1029-1034.

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296 Table 1: Composition of modified Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium used for radish
 297 (*Raphanus sativus* L.) growth.

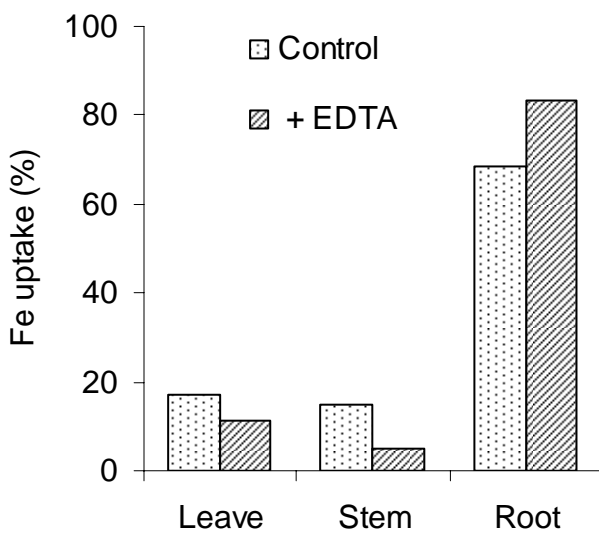
298

Compounds	(mg l ⁻¹)
NH ₄ NO ₃	1650
KNO ₃	1900
CaCl ₂ · 2H ₂ O	440
MgSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O	370
KH ₂ SO ₄	170
H ₃ BO ₃	6.2
MnSO ₄ · 4H ₂ O	22.3
ZnSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O	8.6
KI	0.83
Na ₂ MoO ₄ · 2H ₂ O	0.25
CuSO ₄ · 5H ₂ O	0.025
CoCl ₂ · 6H ₂ O	0.025
Thiamine hydrochloride	15
Nicotinic acid	25
Pyridoxine hydrochloride	0.25
Sucrose	30000
Agar	18000

299

300

301



302

303 Fig.1: Effect of EDTA on iron (^{55}Fe) uptake in different parts of radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.).

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

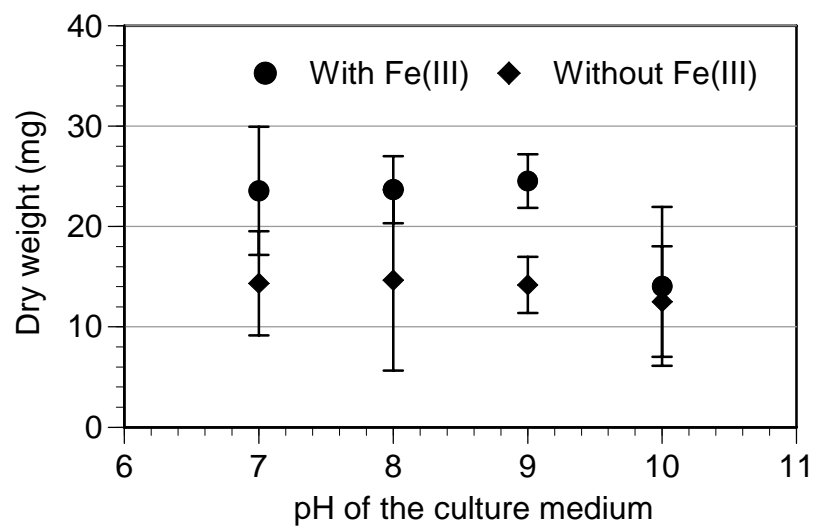
314

315

316

317

318



319

320

321 Fig. 2: Growth of radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.) affected by iron at different pH.

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

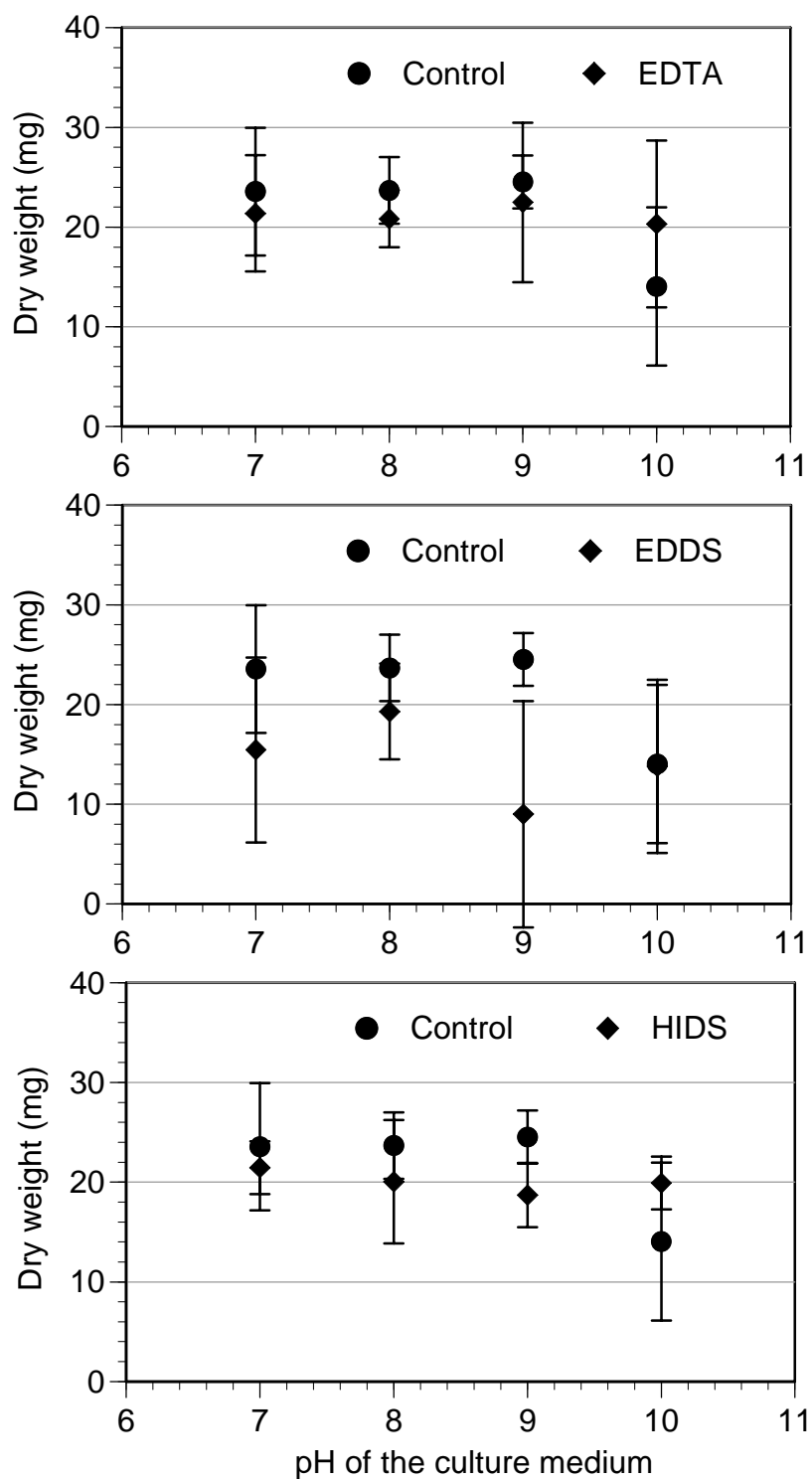
332

333

334

335

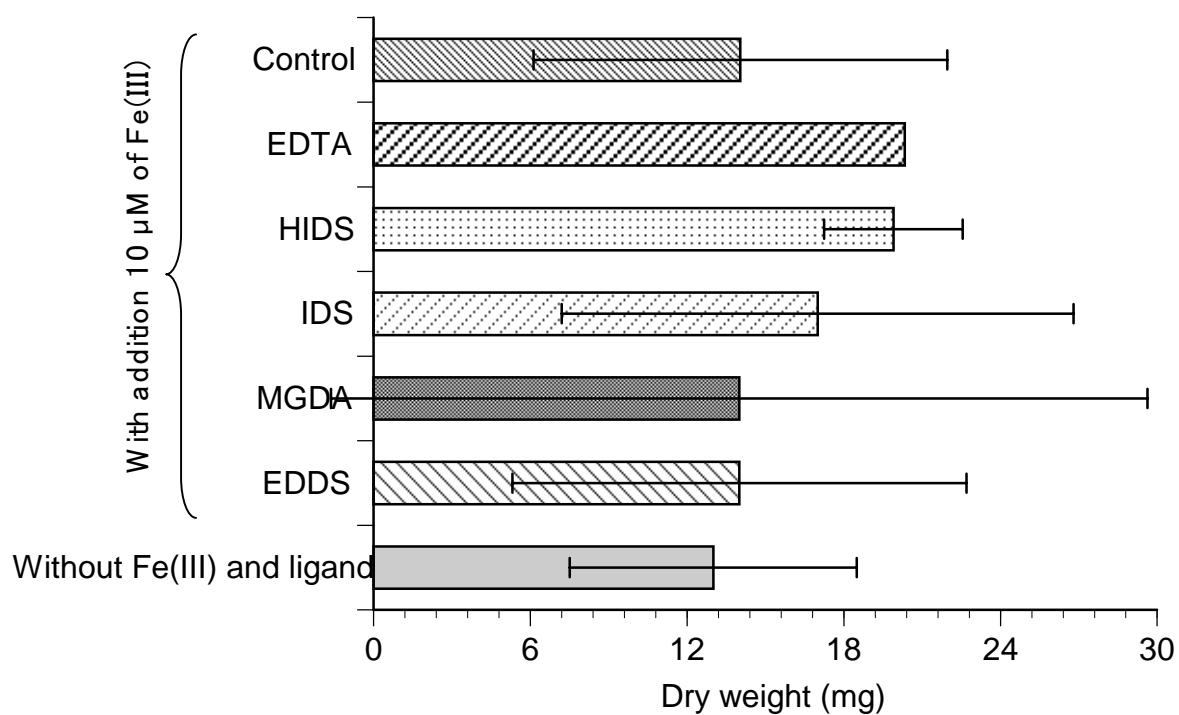
336



337

338

339 Fig. 3: Effect of chelating ligands on radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.) growth. Concentrations of
 340 chelating ligands (EDTA, EDDS, and HIDS) and Fe(III) in growth medium were 10 mM and 10
 341 μ M, respectively.



342

343

344 Fig. 4: Effects of chelating ligands and Fe(III) on growth of radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.) in

345 alkaline condition (pH 10).

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

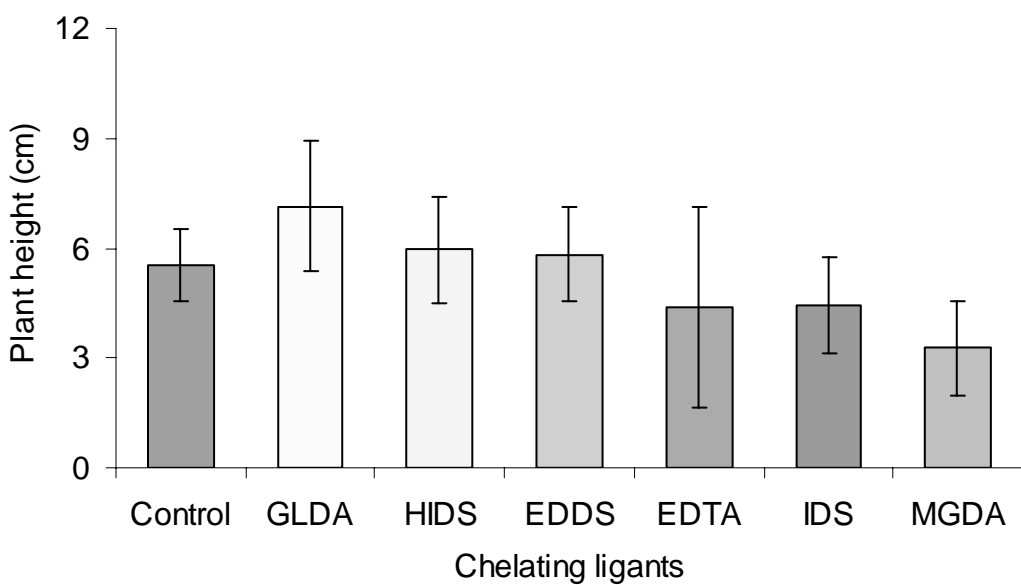
353

354

355

356

357



358

359 Fig. 5: Effect of chelating ligands on height of radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.) in alkaline condition
360 (pH 10). Concentrations of chelating ligands and Fe(III) in growth medium were 10 mM and 10
361 μ M, respectively.

362