

1 **High water uptake ability was associated with root aerenchyma formation in**
2 **rice: evidence from local ammonium supply under osmotic stress conditions**

3

4 Cuimin Gao ^{a,b}, Min Wang ^{a*}, Lei Ding ^c, Yupei Chen ^a, Zhifeng Lu ^a, Jun Hu ^a,
5 Shiwei Guo ^{a*}

6

7^a Jiangsu Provincial Key Lab of Solid Organic Waste Utilization, Jiangsu

8Collaborative Innovation Center of Solid Organic Wastes, Educational Ministry

9Engineering Center of Resource-saving fertilizers, Nanjing Agricultural University,

10Nanjing 210095, Jiangsu, China

11^b Institute of Plant Nutrition, Agricultural Resources and Environmental Sciences,

12Henan Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Zhengzhou 450002, China

13^c Louvain Institute of Biomolecular Science and Technology, Université catholique de

14Louvain, Louvain-la-Neuve B-1348, Belgium

15

16

17

18 **Corresponding author:**

19Name: Shiwei Guo, Tel: +86-25-84396393, e-mail: sguo@njau.edu.cn,

20Address: Weigang 1, Nanjing, Jiangsu province, China 210095

21Name: Min Wang, Tel: +86-25- 84395212, e-mail: minwang@njau.edu.cn,

22Address: Weigang 1, Nanjing, Jiangsu province, China 210095

23

24

25Abstract

26 Root water uptake is strongly influenced by the morphology and anatomical
27 structure of roots, which are regulated by nitrogen forms and environmental stimuli.
28 To further illustrate the roles of different nitrogen forms on root water uptake under
29 osmotic stress, a split-root system was supplied with different nitrogen forms and
30 osmotic stress simulated by adding 10% (w/v) polyethylene glycol (PEG, 6000). The
31 local effects of nitrogen form and osmotic stress on root morphology, anatomical
32 structure, root lignin content, and water uptake rate were investigated. Under osmotic
33 stress conditions, ammonium markedly promoted the formation and elongation of the
34 lateral root, whereas a significant decrease in numbers of lateral roots was observed
35 under local nitrate supply. Under nitrate supply in split-root systems, osmotic stress
36 significantly promoted root cell death and more aerenchyma formation, as well as
37 accelerated the lignification of the root. However, osmotic stress had no negative
38 effect on the root anatomical structure under ammonium supply. The root water
39 uptake rate was significantly higher in split-root supplied with ammonium than nitrate
40 under osmotic stress conditions. In conclusion, the high water uptake ability in local
41 ammonium supply was associated with the more lateral roots development and the
42 lower cell death, aerenchyma formation and lignification under osmotic stress.

43 **Key words:** Nitrogen forms; Aerenchyma; Osmotic stress; Split-root systems; Water
44 uptake

45

46Abbreviations

47 PEG: polyethylene glycol (molecular weight 6,000 Da; PPFD: photosynthetic
48 photon flux density; PBS: phosphate-buffered saline; RFW: root fresh weight; Pn:
49 photosynthetic rate; g_s : stomatal conductance; C_i : intercellular CO₂ concentration
50

511. Introduction

52 Roots play a vital role in delivering water from the growing environment to
53shoot to keep normal metabolism in higher plants (Steudle and Peterson 1998). The
54ability of root water uptake is determined by its morphological, anatomical,
55biochemical and molecular characteristics, which are the results of interaction of
56genotype and its growing environment (Schiefelbein and Benfey 1991; Henry et al.
572012). Morphological, anatomical, biochemical and molecular characteristics of root
58have a strong plasticity (Robinson 1994), which is easy to be influenced by growing
59environment, such as nutrient deficiency (Linkohr et al. 2002; Gahoonia and Nielsen
602004; Insalud et al. 2006; Maniou et al. 2014; Abiko and Obara 2014), waterlogging
61(Kadempir et al. 2014; Marashi and Mojaddam 2014), drought (Cruz et al. 1992;
62Henry et al. 2012; Chimungu et al. 2015) and nitrogen forms (Gao et al. 2010; Yang et
63al. 2012; Ding et al. 2015).

64 Root hydraulic conductivity is an important parameter reflecting root water
65absorption capacity. The flux of water through the soil-plant-air continuum is driven
66by the differences in water potential and affected by hydraulic conductivity of roots,
67xylem and shoot (Frensch 1997; Knipfer and Fricke 2011). Water flux from root
68surface to shoot is composed of two steps; the first step is radial transport that water
69from the root surface to the root xylem; the second step is axial transport that water is
70delivered from root to shoot via xylem (Frensch 1997). Hydraulic resistances occur at
71the root and shoot limit the water transport through the plant (Landsberg and Fowkes
721978; Frensch 1997). The pressure of osmotic and hydrostatic are prevailing driving
73forces in xylem and shoot, and the hydraulic resistance in this process is weak, while
74hydraulic resistance is relatively great in root radial water transport, which is caused
75by complex, composite anatomical structure of roots (epidermis, exodermis, cortex,
76endodermis and stele) (Frensch 1997; Rieger and Litvin 1999; Miyamoto et al. 2001;
77Knipfer and Fricke 2011). In addition to Casparian band, the number of passage cells
78in the endodermis, the suberization of the endodermis or exodermis (Melchior and

79Steudle 1993; Steudle 2000), root diameter, root cortical width and aerenchyma may
80also cause variability in root hydraulic conductivity (Melchior and Steudle 1993;
81Rieger and Litvin 1999; Yang et al. 2012).

82 Aerenchyma, the parenchyma tissue comprising a high proportion of intracellular
83space (Evans 2004), takes a central role in transporting oxygen from the aerial
84environment to roots (Videmšek et al. 2006). There are two types of root aerenchyma
85presenting in wetland plants, such as rice, including constitutive and inducible
86aerenchyma (Arikado et al., 1990). Constitutive aerenchyma, forming in aeration
87condition, is beneficial for rice growth (Jackson et al., 1985). However, the
88aerenchyma formed in upland crops (e.g. maize and wheat) is inducible, and it is
89beneficial for plants to acclimate abiotic stresses, including waterlogging (Abiko et al.
902012; Marashi and Mojaddam 2014), nutrient deprivation (Siyiannis et al. 2012;
91Maniou et al. 2014).

92 In whole root systems, we previously demonstrated that ammonium could
93increase the resistance of rice seedlings to osmotic stress as compared to nitrate,
94which closely related to the higher aquaporin activity, more lateral roots formation
95and lower aerenchyma formation in rice seedlings supplied with ammonium than
96those of rice seedlings supplied with nitrate under osmotic stress conditions, leading
97to a higher root water absorption ability, and enhanced the tolerance to osmotic stress
98(Li et al. 2009; Gao et al. 2010; Yang et al. 2012; Ding et al. 2015; Gao et al. 2017). In
99rice seedlings fed with nitrate, osmotic stress significantly promoted ethylene
100production and the formation of root cortical aerenchyma (Gao et al. 2017), and
101inhibiting root elongation and lateral root formation (Ding et al. 2015), resulting in the
102suppression of water uptake and rice growth. At the same time, in split-root systems,
103we also proved that local osmotic stress decreased photosynthetic characteristics and
104rice growth when rice seedlings supplied with nitrate (Chen et al., 2006, in Chinese).
105However, it still remains unclear that the effect of different nitrogen forms and
106osmotic stress on rice water uptake, root morphology and structure in the split-root

107systems. Therefore, the four treatments (detailed description in the section of plant
108material and growth conditions) were designed in present study. Here with a split-
109root system, we investigated the effect of local nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on
110the rice plant growth, photosynthetic rate, root morphology and anatomical structure,
111and we also determined the root lignin content, water uptake. We analyzed the
112physiological mechanism of osmotic stress inhibited water uptake in rice seedlings
113when half of the roots were supplied with nitrate. Furthermore, the response of root
114morphology and anatomical structure to different nitrogen forms and osmotic stress
115was preliminarily explored.

1162. Materials and methods

1172.1. Plant material and growth conditions

118 Rice seeds (*Oryza sativa* L., cv. ‘Shanyou 63’ hybrid *indica* China) were
119disinfected in 10% H₂O₂ (w/w) for 30 mins and then germinated in 2.0 mmol L⁻¹
120CaSO₄ solutions. The seedlings were transplanted into 7 L plastic buckets containing a
121quarter-strength mixture of ammonium (A) and nitrate (N) nutrient solution (A: N =
1221:1, for composition, see below), when seedlings had developed an average of two
123visible leaves. Three days after transplantation, seedlings were supplied with half-
124strength nutrient solution for a further three days, and then cultured in full-strength
125nutrient solution for seven days. The uniform seedlings with eight roots, by removing
126extra roots (including the seminal roots) were selected for the split-root experiment.
127The seminal root is a root directly developed from the radicle of the seed, and there is
128only one seminal root under normal growth conditions. Therefore, we removed the
129seminal root when rice seedlings were transferred into split-root systems. At the same
130time, eight adventitious roots were remained per plant to ensure that the length of rice
131root was as consistent as possible when transplanting. Roots of the seedlings were
132carefully divided into two halves and transferred into split-root systems, supplied with
133ammonium and nitrate nutrition on either of both sides or each side, respectively.
134After another seven days, osmotic stress was simulated by adding polyethylene glycol

135(PEG, molecular weight 6,000 Da) to a concentration of 10% (w/v) in the nutrient
136solution (−0.15 MPa) (Michel and Kaufmann 1973). Four treatments were included:
137A-N, half of the roots were supplied with ammonium and the other half with nitrate;
138A-AP, both sides of roots were supplied with ammonium and half of the roots under
139osmotic stress; N-NP, both sides of roots were supplied with nitrate and half of the
140roots under osmotic stress; AP-NP, half of the roots were supplied with ammonium
141and the other half with nitrate, both sides under osmotic stress.

142 Nutrient composition of hydroponic culture solution was as follows:
143macronutrients (mmol L^{−1}): 2.85 N as (NH₄)₂SO₄ or Ca(NO₃)₂, 0.32 P as KH₂PO₄, 1.02
144K as K₂SO₄ and KH₂PO₄, 1.65 Mg as MgSO₄, 0.1 Si as Na₂SiO₃·9H₂O; micronutrients
145(μmol L^{−1}): 35.8 Fe as Fe-EDTA, 9.1 Mn as MnCl₂·4H₂O, 0.52 Mo as
146(NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄·4H₂O, 18.5 B as H₃BO₃, 0.15 Zn as ZnSO₄·7H₂O, and 0.16 Cu as
147CuSO₄·5H₂O. The Ca²⁺ content in ammonium solution was compensated by adding
148CaCl₂. Dicyandiamide, as nitrification inhibitor was added to each nutrient solution to
149prevent ammonium oxidation (Willey and Tang 2006; Xie et al. 2008). Nutrient
150solutions were changed every two days, and pH was adjusted to 5.50 ± 0.05 daily with
1510.1 mol L^{−1} HCl or 0.1 mol L^{−1} NaOH. The temperature in the growth chamber was
152maintained at 30/18°C day/night. The light was supplied with SON-T AGRO 400 W
153bulbs, maintaining a light intensity at a minimum of 1000 μmol photons m^{−2} s^{−1}
154(photosynthetically active radiation) at the leaf level for 14 h photoperiods.

1552.2. Gas exchange and chlorophyll content measurements

156 Gas exchange measurements were determined on fully expanded leaves by a
157portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400, Li-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA). The leaf
158temperature during the measurements was maintained at 28 ± 1.0°C, with a
159photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) of 1500 μmol photons m^{−2} s^{−1}. The CO₂
160concentration in the cuvette was maintained at 400 μmol CO₂ mol^{−1} with a CO₂
161mixture, and the relative humidity was maintained at 40%. Data were recorded after
162equilibration to a steady-state (approximately 15 mins).

163 Following the gas exchange measurements, the chlorophyll content (SPAD) of
164 the leaves was non-destructively quantified using a portable SPAD-502 chlorophyll
165 meter (Konica Minolta Sensing, Inc., Japan).

1662.3. Leaf area measurements

167 The leaf area was measured by the imprint gravimetric method, assuming that all
168 leaves were homogenous. The leaf area (SLA) of the fully expanded leaf per gram
169 was measured by imprint method, and the total leaf area was calculated as follows:

170 The total leaf area = SLA $\times$ dry weight of total leaf

171 Where the dry weight of total leaf was oven-dried at 105°C for 30 mins, and then
172 at 70°C until constant weight, and then weighted using a balance with an accuracy of 1
173 / 10000.

1742.4. Cell death and root morphology measurements

175 Cell death was estimated by trypan blue staining (Duan et al. 2010). The 7-8 cm
176 long newly formed adventitious roots were immersed in trypan blue (Beijing Solarbio
177 Science & Technology Co., Ltd. China) solution (10 mg mL⁻¹) for 15 mins at room
178 temperature. Then, the samples were rinsed with 0.01 M phosphate buffer solution
179 (PBS pH=7.4) until no floating color attached to the root surface. Root samples were
180 observed by light microscopy (LG-PS2, Olympus, Japan). The dark color of roots
181 stained with trypan blue was counted as cell death. Rice roots were immersed in water
182 and gently separated with a toothpick to avoid injury before imaged. Root
183 morphology (root length, root surface area, root volume and root tips) of each root
184 was analyzed by a LA1600 scanner (Canadian Regent Win RHizo2003b).

1852.5. Root aerenchyma and porosity measurements

186 Root pieces (approximately 1-2 mm) were cut at distances of 3-4 cm from the
187 root apex of 7-8 cm long newly formed adventitious roots using a razor blade. Then
188 root pieces were vacuum infiltrated and fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde (in 0.1 M
189 phosphate buffer, pH=7.0) for 3-5 h. After washing with phosphate buffer, root
190 samples were subjected to dehydrated in a series of ethanol gradient and dried with a

vacuum freeze-dryer (ES-2030; Hitachi, Inc.). Dried root sections were glued onto specimen stubs and gold-coated with a vacuum ion sputter (ES-1010; Hitachi). Finally, root cross sections were observed and photographed by using a scanning electron microscope (3000N; Hitachi).

The determination of root porosity was according to a published method (Kludze et al. 1993; Kim et al. 1999; Wu et al. 2011; Yang et al. 2012). Adventitious roots were cut into 1-1.5 cm long segments using a razor blade and well mixed. Root segments (0.7-0.8 g) were separated from rice roots, and then the fresh weight of the root segments was determined before placing them into a 25-mL Pyrex pycnometer flask. The Pyrex pycnometer flask was filled with degassed water and was weighed before (W_1) and after (W_2) adding root segments. Root segments were then transferred to a scintillation vial, containing degassed water, and vacuum-infiltrated until no air bubbles were detected. The vacuum-infiltrated root segments were returned to the flask filled with degassed water and reweighed (W_3). Water temperature was measured after each weighing to correct the values. Root porosity was calculated as follows (Fan et al. 2003):

$$\text{Porosity (\%)} = (W_3 - W_2) \times 100 / (W_1 + \text{RFW} - W_2)$$

Where RFW represents root fresh weight.

2.6. Root lignin measurement

Root lignin contents were determined according to Vander et al. (1998) and Iiyama and Wallis (1990) with slight modification. Firstly, the cell wall was collected by grinding frozen rice roots in liquid nitrogen and followed by sequential extraction with methanol: water (1:1) twice, methanol: chloroform (2:1), acetone, ethanol and distilled water, centrifuged 10000 g 10 mins for each extraction. Samples were lyophilized for lignin content determination. Cell walls (5-15 mg) were digested with 2.5 ml AcBr (25%, v/v, acetyl bromide in acetic acid) and 0.1 ml 70% HClO_4 for lignin content measurement. After incubation at 70°C for 30 mins and immediately ice-cooled, the samples were transferred to a 50 mL volumetric flask containing a

mixture of 10 mL 2M NaOH, 12 mL acetic acid and 0.1 mL hydroxylamine hydrochloride. The solution was adjusted up to 50 mL with acetic acid, shaken up, and analysed at 280 nm after 1-2 h. The lignin content was estimated by a specific absorption coefficient value for graminaceous lignin of $20 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ L cm}^{-1}$ (Iiyama and Wallis 1990).

2.7. Water uptake rate measurement

Measurement of water uptake rate was adjusted from a published method (Gao et al. 2010; Yang et al. 2012). The water uptake rate was determined by weighing the nutrient solution between 9:30 and 11:30 AM. The rice seedlings were transplanted from split-root systems to a 2L plastic bucket after blotting lightly with bibulous paper to remove excess nutrient solution and then sealed bucket tightly. The plastic bucket was filled with a nutrient solution, which was consistent with that in the split-root systems, and weighed (W_1) before transplantation of rice seedlings. After two hours later, the plastic bucket was weighed (W_2) again after moving rice seedlings away. Subsequently, the root was blotting lightly with bibulous paper to remove the excess nutrient solution, and then, the bibulous paper was weighed before (W_3) and after (W_4) blotting root. Water uptake rate was calculated as follows:

$$\text{Water uptake rate (g g}^{-1}\text{FW h}^{-1}\text{)} = \{W_1 - W_2 - (W_4 - W_3)\} / (\text{RFW} * 2).$$

Where RFW represents root fresh weight.

2.8. Plant biomass

Rice seedlings were harvested and separated into root, stem and leaf fractions. All samples were oven-dried at 105°C for 30 mins, and then at 70°C until constant weight, and then weighted the shoot and root biomass, separately.

2.9. Statistical analyses

All data were analyzed by SigmaPlot 10.0 and the SPSS 18.0 statistical software package. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) among different treatments was performed using SPSS 18.0. Significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among treatments are indicated by different letters in the figures and tables.

2473. Results

2483.1. Effects of nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on shoot growth and leaf

249photosynthesis

250 Compared to A-N treatment, rice seedlings in treatment of AP-NP showed a
251suppression in the shoot biomass, plant height, tiller number, leaf area, photosynthetic
252rate (Pn), stomatal conductance (g_s), intercellular CO₂ concentration (C_i), but there
253was no significant difference in the SPAD value and transpiration rate (E) between
254them (Table 1). Local osmotic stress significantly decreased the plant growth and gas
255exchange parameters (excluding C_i) when rice seedlings supplied with nitrate
256nutrition (treatment of N-NP), comparing with supplied with ammonium nutrition
257(treatment of A-AP) (Table 1).

258

259Table 1

260Effects of different nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on shoot growth and leaf photosynthesis of
261rice seedlings in split-root systems.

Parameters	A-N	A-AP	N-NP	AP-NP
Shoot biomass (g DW plant ⁻¹)	4.19±0.23 b	4.82±0.17 a	2.35±0.66 d	3.08±0.35 c
Plant height (cm)	70.9±3.3 a	66.0±3.8 b	59.8±2.8 c	64.4±0.4 b
Tiller number	11.2±1.5 b	13.7±1.6 a	5.5±1.0 d	9.2±1.3 c
Leaf area (cm ²)	928±81 a	1034±92 a	444±127 c	633±42 b
SPAD value	41.3±0.7 a	42.0±0.7 a	35.0±1.7 b	41.7±0.4 a
Pn (μmol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	25.8±0.9 a	22.6±0.7 b	17.6±1.5 c	23.2±0.8 b
g_s (mol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	0.49±0.05 a	0.34±0.02 b	0.27±0.05 c	0.33±0.03 b
C_i (μmol L ⁻¹)	297±3 a	263±6 b	263±6 b	266±6 b
E (mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹)	6.31±0.32 ab	6.64±0.36 a	5.68±0.67 b	6.04±0.56 ab

262Net photosynthetic rate (Pn), stomatal conductance (g_s), intercellular CO₂ concentration (C_i),
263transpiration rate (E). Rice seedlings were supplied with ammonium (NH₄⁺, A) or nitrate (NO₃⁻, N)
264in the absence or presence of osmotic stress [NH₄⁺ + 10% (w/v) PEG 6000, AP; NO₃⁻ + 10% (w/v)
265PEG 6000, NP]. Values represent the means ± SD, and different letters indicate significant
266differences among treatments at $P < 0.05$ significance level.

267

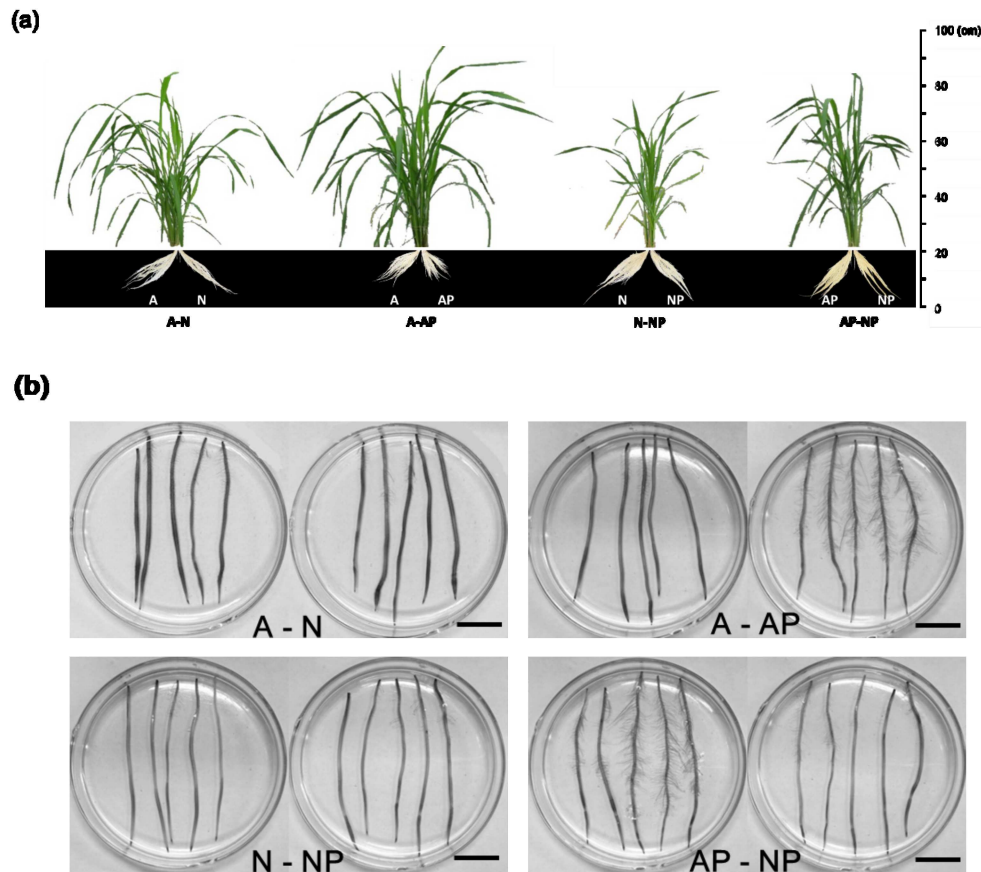
2683.2. Effects of nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on root growth and water

269uptake in split-root systems

270 There was no significant difference in root biomass and root length between two
271 sides of the A-N and AP-NP treatments (Fig. 1a and Table 2). Osmotic stress
272 significantly restricted root growth compared with that in non-osmotic stress side,
273 when rice seedlings supplied with nitrate alone. However, there was no difference in
274 root biomass either root sides in the presence or absence of osmotic stress, when rice
275 seedlings supplied with ammonium alone. Root surface area and volume of rice
276 seedlings supplied with ammonium were significantly higher than nitrate under
277 normal water conditions (Table 2), whereas more root tips were found in ammonium
278 condition as compared with nitrate under osmotic stress conditions. Under normal
279 water conditions, the root average diameter of rice seedlings supplied with nitrate was
280 bigger than that supplied with ammonium. However, osmotic stress significantly
281 caused root thinner in rice seedlings supplied with nitrate, while had no effect on that
282 of rice seedlings supplied with ammonium.

283 Under normal water conditions, no significant difference in lateral root formation
284 between rice seedlings supplied with ammonium and nitrate was observed. However,
285 there was more lateral root formation of rice seedlings supplied with ammonium than
286 that supplied with nitrate under osmotic stress conditions (Fig. 1b). Compared to the
287 control side, local osmotic stress significantly promoted the formation of lateral root
288 in rice seedlings supplied with ammonium, while only a few lateral roots were
289 observed in rice seedlings supplied with nitrate.

290 Osmotic stress significantly inhibited root water uptake rate (except NP side in
291 AP-NP treatment) in rice seedlings supplied with ammonium and nitrate on both sides
292 or each side of split-root systems (Table 2), compared with that in rice seedlings
293 absence of osmotic stress. Compared to the control side, local osmotic stress
294 decreased the water uptake rate by 38% and 68% in rice seedlings supplied with
295 ammonium and nitrate, respectively.



296

297 Fig. 1. Effects of nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on the growth of rice seedlings in split-root
 298 systems. (a) Whole plant, (b) lateral root, bars=2cm. Rice seedlings were supplied with
 299 ammonium (NH_4^+ , A) or nitrate (NO_3^- , N) in the absence or presence of osmotic stress [NH_4^+ +
 300 10% (w/v) PEG 6000, AP; NO_3^- + 10% (w/v) PEG 6000, NP].

301

302 Table 2

303 Effects of different nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on root growth and water uptake of rice
 304 seedlings in the split-root systems.

Parameters	A-N		A-AP		N-NP		AP-NP	
	A	N	A	AP	N	NP	AP	NP
Root biomass (g DW plant ⁻¹)	0.54±0.02 bcd	0.46±0.08 cde	0.60±0.02 b	0.55±0.06 bcd	0.80±0.07 a	0.37±0.10 e	0.50±0.05 bcd	0.43±0.05 de
Root length (cm)	1055±152 bc	1041±164 bc	991±126 bc	835±101 c	1403±136 a	1435±128 a	1271±218 ab	1044±179 bc
Root surface area (cm ²)	501±27 b	425±33 c	420±43 cd	341±60 e	630±28 a	556±20 b	359±30 de	366±6 cde
Root volume (cm ³)	19.13±1.80 a	13.87±0.15 b	12.5±0.82 bc	11.12±2.53 bc	20.36±2.03 a	18.77±0.74 a	12.13±0.65 bc	10.35±1.44 c
Number of root tips	849±235 bc	984±337 bc	890±62 bc	762±119 bc	1457±269 a	1174±317 ab	1437±161 a	729±46 c

Root average diameter (mm)	1.21±0.05 cd	1.31±0.04 ab	1.22±0.07 cd	1.27±0.03 bc	1.36±0.01 a	1.14±0.02 de	1.23±0.05 bc	1.07±0.08 e
Root water uptake (g g ⁻¹ FW h ⁻¹)	1.49±0.40 ab	1.39±0.17 abc	1.58±0.16 a	0.99±0.18 d	1.42±0.06 abc	0.45±0.17 e	1.03±0.20 cd	1.13±0.19 bcd

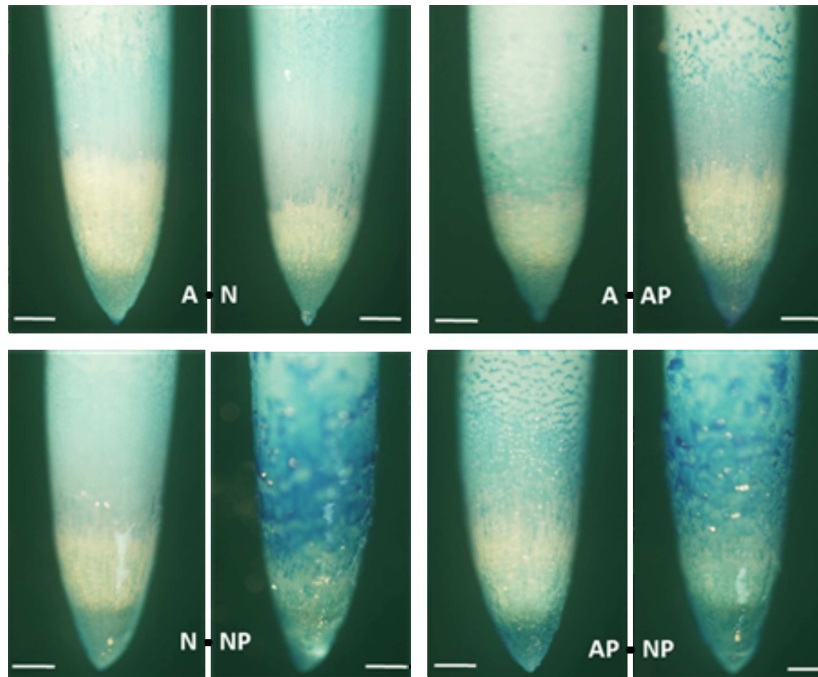
Rice seedlings were supplied with ammonium (NH₄⁺, A) or nitrate (NO₃⁻, N) in the absence or presence of osmotic stress [NH₄⁺ + 10% (w/v) PEG 6000, AP; NO₃⁻ + 10% (w/v) PEG 6000, NP]. Values represent the means ± SD, and different letters indicate significant differences among treatments at *P* < 0.05 significance level.

309

3. Effects of nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on root cell death, aerenchyma formation and lignin content in split-root systems

No significant difference in the root cell death (the dark color of root tips stained with trypan blue) and aerenchyma formation was observed between rice seedlings supplied with ammonium and nitrate under non-osmotic stress conditions (Fig. 2, 3). However, osmotic stress significantly accelerated root cell death and increased aerenchyma formation in rice seedlings, when local root supplied with nitrate but not ammonium nutrition (Fig. 2, 3). Local osmotic stress significantly promoted root cell death and aerenchyma formation in rice seedlings fed with nitrate nutrition, but had no negative effects on root cell death and aerenchyma formation when rice seedlings supplied with ammonium (Fig. 2, 3).

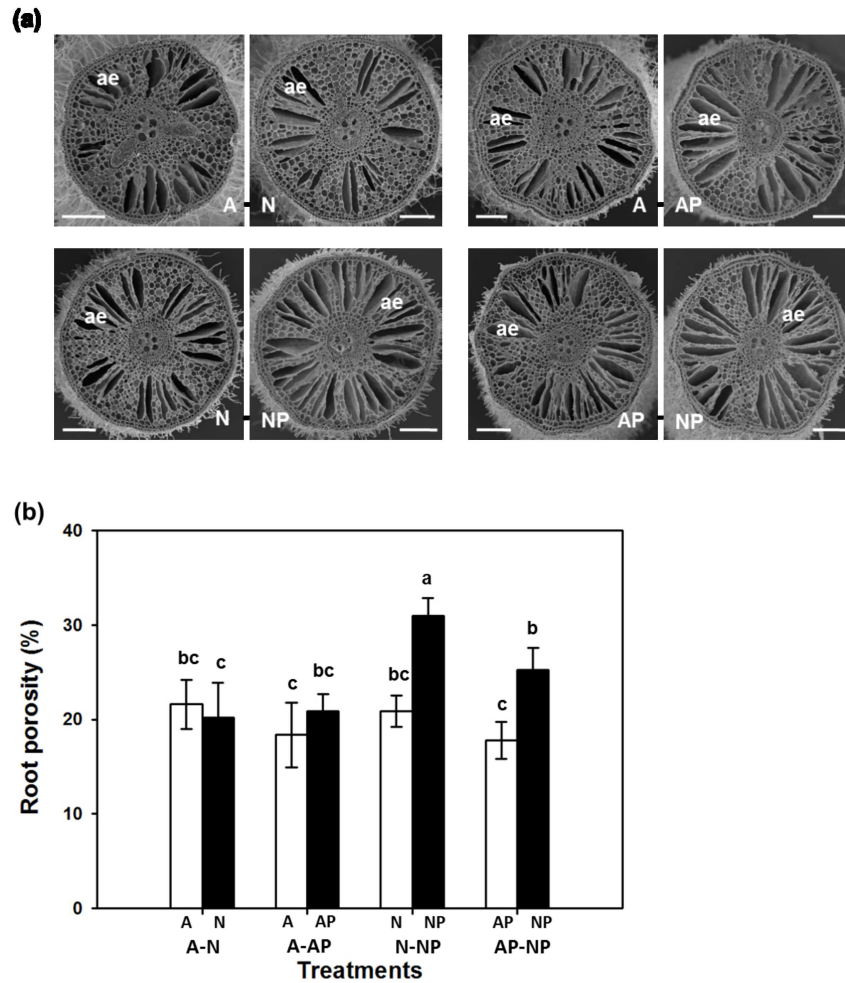
321



322

323Fig. 2. Effects of nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on root cell death of rice seedlings in split-root
 324systems. Rice seedlings were supplied with ammonium (NH_4^+ , A) or nitrate (NO_3^- , N) in the
 325absence or presence of osmotic stress [NH_4^+ + 10% (w/v) PEG 6000, AP; NO_3^- + 10% (w/v) PEG
 3266000, NP]. The dark color of root tips region stained with trypan blue was estimated as cell death.
 327Bars = 500 μm .

328



329

330 Fig. 3. Effects of nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on root aerenchyma formation of rice

331 seedlings in split-root systems. (a) Scanning electron micrographs of transverse sections were cut

332 at distances of 3–4 cm from root apex of 7–8 cm long newly formed adventitious roots of rice

333 seedlings in split-root systems. ae, aerenchyma. Bars = 200 μ m. (b) Root porosity of rice seedlings

334 in split-root systems. Rice seedlings were supplied with ammonium (NH_4^+ , A) or nitrate (NO_3^- , N)

335 in the absence or presence of osmotic stress [NH_4^+ + 10% (w/v) PEG 6000, AP; NO_3^- + 10% (w/v)

336 PEG 6000, NP]. Values represent the means $\pm$ SD, and different letters indicate significant

337 differences among treatments at $P < 0.05$ significance level.

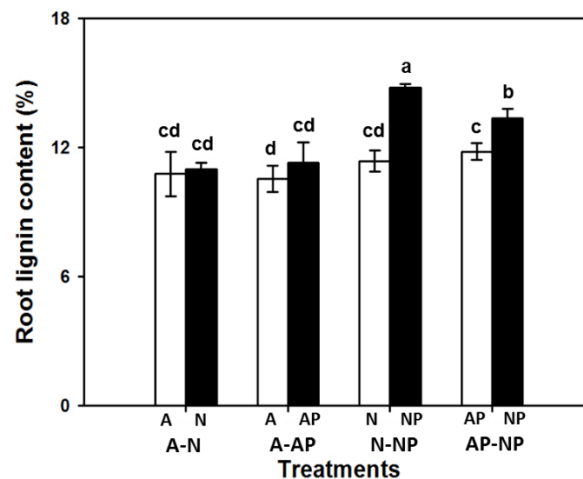
338

339 Compared to A-N treatment, osmotic stress significantly increased root lignin

340 content in local root supplied with nitrate, whereas did not affect on other local root

341 supplied with ammonium in treatment of AP-NP (Fig. 4). When rice seedlings

342supplied with nitrate alone, the root lignin content in local root with osmotic stress
 343was higher than that under normal water conditions. However, no significant
 344difference in root lignin content was observed in rice seedlings supplied with
 345ammonium in the presence or absence of osmotic stress (Fig. 4).
 346



347
 348Fig. 4. Effects of nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on root lignin of rice seedlings in split-root
 349systems. Rice seedlings were supplied with ammonium (NH_4^+ , A) or nitrate (NO_3^- , N) in the
 350absence or presence of osmotic stress [NH_4^+ + 10% (w/v) PEG 6000, AP; NO_3^- + 10% (w/v) PEG
 3516000, NP]. Values represent the means $\pm$ SD, and different letters indicate significant differences
 352among treatments at $P < 0.05$ significance level.
 353

354 A significantly negative correlation was found between root porosity and root
 355water uptake in local root supplied with nitrate in the absence or presence of osmotic
 356stress across all the treatments. However, there was no correlation between them in
 357the local root supplied with ammonium in the absence or presence of osmotic stress
 358(Fig. 5).

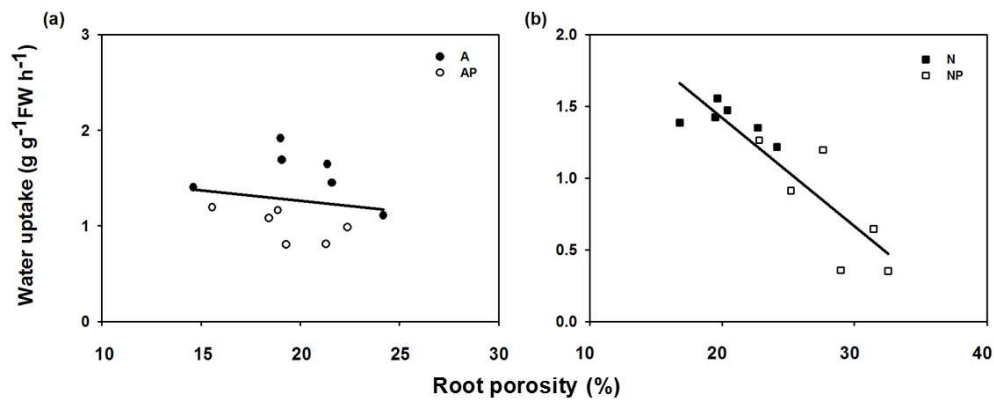


Fig. 5. Relationships between root porosity and root water uptake under ammonium (a) and nitrate (b) treatments in the split-root systems. Lines represent linear regressions, and the regression equations are (a) $y = -0.022x + 1.700$, $R = 0.169$, $P > 0.05$; (b) $y = -0.076x + 2.935$, $R = 0.884$, $P < 0.01$.

3644. Discussion

Our previous studies have demonstrated that osmotic stress apparently inhibited the rice biomass, photosynthetic rate and water uptake rate in rice seedlings supplied with nitrate, while had no effects on rice seedlings supplied with ammonium. Furthermore, we have proved that the higher aquaporin activity, more lateral roots formation and lower aerenchyma formation in rice seedlings supplied with ammonium could lead to a higher root water absorption ability, and enhance the tolerance to osmotic stress, comparing with rice seedlings supplied with nitrate (Li et al. 2009; Gao et al. 2010; Yang et al. 2012; Ding et al. 2015; Gao et al. 2017). The previous studies were based on the whole root systems; however, the effects of different nitrogen forms and osmotic stress on rice seedling growth, root morphology and structure in split-root systems are still poorly understood. Similar results were found in the split-root systems and whole-root systems, osmotic stress significantly decreased the rice biomass, photosynthetic rate and water uptake rate in rice seedlings when the local root was supplied with nitrate, while does not affect that of rice seedlings in local root were was supplied with ammonium (Table 1, 2). In present split-root systems, we preliminarily explored the response mechanism of root

381 morphology and anatomical structure to different nitrogen forms and osmotic stress.

382 Root morphology and anatomical structure are closely related to the ability of

383 root water uptake (Schiefelbein and Benfey 1991; Henry et al. 2012). The lateral root

384 is an essential component of the root, which plays an important role in the absorption

385 of water and nutrient. The development of lateral roots is strongly influenced by the

386 local environments, i.e., drought, nitrogen forms and nutrients (nitrogen, phosphorus

387 or potassium) availability (Sattelmacher and Thoms 1995; Johnson et al. 1996; Zhang

388 et al. 2009; Lima et al. 2010; Ding et al. 2015). It was demonstrated that locally

389 nitrate supply stimulated lateral root production and elongation (Granato et al. 1989;

390 Zhang et al. 1999), whereas, high nitrate concentration had a strong inhibit on lateral

391 root development (Zhang et al. 1999). On the other hand, Lima et al. (2010) reported

392 that ammonium stimulated lateral root via a higher number of first-and higher-order

393 lateral roots. In our studies, local osmotic stress significantly promotes the lateral root

394 formation and elongation in rice seedlings supplied with ammonium (AP sides of A-

395 AP and AP-NP treatments), but only a little lateral root formation, when rice seedlings

396 supplied with nitrate (NP sides of N-NP and AP-NP treatments) (Fig. 1b, Table 2).

397 Osmotic stress significantly promoted ethylene production in rice seedlings fed with

398 nitrate, comparing with ammonium (Ding et al. 2015; Gao et al. 2017). It has been

399 demonstrated ethylene accumulation positively controls auxin biosynthesis, and

400 thereby inhibiting root elongation (Xu et al. 2013; Ding et al. 2015) and lateral root

401 formation (Negi et al., 2008). Therefore, under osmotic stress conditions, lateral root

402 formation and elongation of rice seedlings supplied with ammonium were beneficial

403 to maintain a higher ability of water uptake (Wasson et al. 2012), thus increased

404 drought resistance. According to ways of plant response to drought stress, drought

405 resistance mechanisms have been identified three adaptation types: drought escape,

406 drought avoidance and drought resistance (Price et al., 2002). In N-NP plant, the

407 biomass of N root side was significantly greater than that of NP root side, and the root

408 average diameter of NP root side was thinner than that of N root side. We speculated

409that the response of rice supplied with nitrate to osmotic stress might be a drought
410avoidance mechanism. When rice seedlings supplied with nitrate, osmotic stress
411promoted the transportation of photosynthetic products to the half root in the absence
412of osmotic stress, stimulating the root growth, and then improving the absorption of
413water. The different response of root morphology and anatomical structure to nitrogen
414forms and osmotic stress might be due to the distinct resistance mechanisms of
415ammonium and nitrate.

416 The development and growth of lateral roots lead to an increase in absorbing
417surface area, promoting water uptake, while root anatomical structure, such as
418Casparian bands, the number of passage cells in the endodermis, lignin deposition in
419sclerenchyma and stellar cells, suberization of the endodermis or exodermis and root
420cortical width, are closely related to root hydraulic conductivity, (Melchior and
421Steudle 1993; Rieger and Litvin 1999; Steudle 2000; Schreiber 2010; Ranathunge and
422Schreiber 2011), which plays a crucial role in the ability of water uptake (Mu et al.
4232006). Yang et al. (2012) explained that the reduction of water uptake rate caused by
424nitrate in osmotic stress rice seedlings was due to the larger aerenchyma formation in
425the root cortex, which could decrease root hydraulic conductivity and further impeded
426the water radial transports in the cylinder. In split-root systems, we also found that
427osmotic stress increased aerenchyma formation and root porosity supplied with local
428nitrate, but no promoting effect with ammonium was observed in the treatment of AP-
429NP. Moreover, local osmotic stress significantly promoted the aerenchyma formation
430and increased root porosity in root of N-NP treatment, but not in the treatment of A-
431AP (Fig. 3). Furthermore, when rice seedlings supplied with nitrate, significant
432negative correlation was observed between root porosity and water uptake rate,
433whereas, this negative correlation was not found in ammonium (Fig. 5). Therefore, the
434excess aerenchyma formed in roots of rice seedlings supplied with local nitrate under
435osmotic stress conditions markedly restrict water uptake and reduce the drought
436resistance, resulting in lower biomass accumulation, comparing with rice seedlings

437locally supplied with ammonium. However, aerenchyma formation was beneficial for
438upland plants adapting to the suboptimal growing environment (Fan et al., 2003). For
439example, root cortical aerenchyma formation in maize enhanced drought tolerance by
440reducing root respiration, resulting to increase greater root length in deeper soil layers
441for absorbing water from drying soil (Zhu et al. 2010){Zhu, 2010 #2396}{Zhu, 2010
442#2396}. The other studies showed that the aerenchyma formation in roots of wheat
443enhanced the ability to waterlogging tolerance (Marashil & Mojaddam, 2014; Xu et
444al., 2013), which transports the oxygen from aerobic shoots to anaerobic roots
445(Armstrong, 1971). Therefore, we hypothesize that root cortical aerenchyma
446formation is a double-edged sword. The exceeded aerenchyma formation in root of
447rice seedlings supplied with local nitrate caused by osmotic stress causes
448disadvantageous effect on rice growth, but root cortical aerenchyma formation
449enhance the drought tolerance for maize, which was beneficial to maize growth, and
450enhanced the ability to waterlogging tolerance for wheat, which transports the oxygen
451from aerobic shoots to anaerobic roots. The adaptation to the local environment and
452differences in species, rice is a wetland plant, but maize and wheat are upland plants,
453resulting in double effects of root cortical aerenchyma formation on adversity
454tolerance ability.

455 The aerenchyma formation is considered as a specific status of programmed cell
456death (Jackson and Armstrong 1999; Evans 2004; Joshi and Kumar 2012). Under
457normal water condition, there were no visible cell death, which was assessed by
458trypan blue stained, were observed in both supplied with local ammonium and nitrate;
459while the cell death in roots of nitrate-supplied rice seedlings significantly increased,
460comparing with ammonium-supplied rice seedlings under osmotic stress conditions
461(Fig. 2). At the same time, we also found that local osmotic stress significantly
462promotes the cell death in root of NP in N-NP treatment, but not in AP of A-AP
463treatment (Fig. 2). As a result, the effects of different nitrogen forms and osmotic
464stress on root cell death were consistent with those of aerenchyma formation in whole

465root (Gao et al. 2017) and split-root systems (Fig. 2, Fig. 3), indicating that osmotic
466stress induces root cell death and cause more aerenchyma formation in the rice
467seedlings supplied with nitrate. Meanwhile, in whole root systems, we have
468demonstrated that water stress increased additional aerenchyma formation in rice
469seedlings fed with nitrate rather than ammonium (Yang et al. 2012; Gao et al. 2017).
470Furthermore, compared to control treatment, water stress increased ethylene
471production in water-stressed roots under nitrate nutrition, in association with faster
472ethylene synthesis and regulated by the related genes (*ACS*, *L.S.D.*, *EDS* and *PAD*),
473promoting the formation of root cortical aerenchyma. However, no significant
474differences in these factors, causing additional aerenchyma formation, when rice
475seedlings fed with ammonium without water stress or subjected to water stress
476conditions (Gao et al. 2017).

477 Besides, the deposition of lignin in outer cortical layers is considered to be
478necessary for aerenchyma formation (Purnobasuki and Suzuki 2004). Extensive
479amounts of aerenchyma were observed in the root cortex of maize (Abiko et al. 2012)
480and wheat (Xu et al. 2013), which was associated with a heavy lignin deposition in
481the outer cortical layers of root. In present studies, compared to A-N treatment,
482osmotic stress markedly increases the lignin content in the root of rice seedlings
483supplied with local nitrate, whereas it does not affect that of rice seedlings supplied
484with local ammonium (Fig. 4). Meanwhile, compared to normal water conditions,
485local osmotic stress promotes the lignin content in the root of NP in N-NP treatment,
486but not in AP of A-AP treatment (Fig. 4). More aerenchyma was formed in the root,
487which is unanimous with higher lignification of the root in rice seedlings local fed
488with nitrate (Fig. 3, Fig. 4). Osmotic stress significantly accelerated the lignification
489of root relative to plants grown in well-watered conditions (Cruz et al. 1992; Lee et al.
4902007). Furthermore, in the whole root systems, osmotic stress significantly increased
491aerenchyma formation in root of rice seedlings supplied with nitrate (Yang et al. 2012;
492Gao et al. 2017), which were associated with deeper color of cross-section peripheral

493and middle column of root stained by Safranin (Fig. S1), which could estimate root
494lignification (Duan et al. 2010), and higher lignin content (Fig. S2). Therefore, we
495conferred that lignin is deposited in root cortical cells and related to aerenchyma
496formation.

497**5. Conclusion**

498 Under osmotic stress conditions, more lateral root development and the lower
499cell death, aerenchyma formation and lignification in local ammonium supply resulted
500in a higher water uptake rate. This implicates that root development depends on local
501nitrogen supply, which contributes to the resistance of rice to osmotic stress.

502

503**Authors' contributions**

504CM Gao conceived, designed and performed the experiments, and was a major
505contributor in writing the manuscript. M Wang analyzed and interpreted the data, and
506was another major contributor in writing the manuscript. L Ding, YP Chen and ZF Lu
507performed the experiments. J Hu, SW Guo conceived and designed the experiments,
508and revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

509**Acknowledgements**

510We are grateful to Dr. Xiuxia Yang for her skillful assistance and thank anonymous
511reviewers for their suggestions on this manuscript.

512

513**Funding**

514This work was financially supported by the National Key R&D Program
515(2016YFD0200305), the National Basic Research Program of China
516(2015CB150505), the Young Elite Scientists Sponsorship Program by CAST
517(2018QNRC001), the Innovative Research Team Development Plan of the Ministry of
518Education of China (IRT_17R56) and the Fundamental Research Funds for the
519Central Universities (KYT201802).

520

521**Declaration of interest**

522 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

523References

- 524Abiko T, Kotula L, Shiono K, Malik AI, Colmer TD, Nakazono M., 2012. Enhanced formation of
525 aerenchyma and induction of a barrier to radial oxygen loss in adventitious roots of *Zea*
526 nicaraguensis contribute to its waterlogging tolerance as compared with maize (*Zea mays* ssp.
527 mays). Plant Cell Environ. 35, 1618-1630.
- 528Abiko T, Obara M., 2014. Enhancement of porosity and aerenchyma formation in nitrogen-deficient
529 rice roots. Plant Sci. 215, 76-83.
- 530Arikado H, Ikeda K, Taniyama T., 1990. Anatomico-ecological studies on the aerenchyma and the
531 ventilating system in rice plants. Bull. Fac. Biores. Mie Univ. 3, 1-24.
- 532Armstrong W., 1971. Radial oxygen losses from intact rice roots as affected by distance from the apex,
533 respiration and waterlogging. Physiol. Plant 25, 192-197.
- 534Chen G, Zhou Y, Guo SW, Shen QR., 2006. Effect s of different nitrogen forms on rice seedlings growth
535 with partial root s exposed to water stress. Chinese J. Rice Sci. 20, 638-644.
- 536Chimungu JG, Maliro MFA, Nalivata PC, Kanyama-Phiri G, Brown KM, Lynch JP., 2015. Utility of
537 root cortical aerenchyma under water limited conditions in tropical maize (*Zea mays* L.). Field
538 Crop Res. 171, 86-98.
- 539Cruz RT, Jordan WR, Drew MC., 1992. Structural changes and associated reduction of hydraulic
540 conductance in roots of *Sorghum bicolor* L. following exposure to water deficit. Plant Physiol.
541 99, 203-212.
- 542Ding L, Gao CM, Li YR, Li Y, Zhu YY, Xu GH, Shen QR, Kaldenhoff R, Kai L, Guo, SW., 2015. The
543 enhanced drought tolerance of rice plants under ammonium is related to aquaporin (AQP).
544 Plant Sci. 234, 14-21.
- 545Duan Y, Zhang W, Li B, Wang Y, Li K, Han C, Zhang Y, Li X., 2010. An endoplasmic reticulum
546 response pathway mediates programmed cell death of root tip induced by water stress in
547 *Arabidopsis*. New Phytol. 186, 681-695.
- 548Evans DE., 2004. Aerenchyma formation. New Phytol. 161, 35-49.
- 549Fan M, Zhu J, Richards C, Brown KM, Lynch JP., 2003. Physiological roles for aerenchyma in
550 phosphorus-stressed roots. Funct. Plant Biol. 30, 493-506.
- 551Frensch J., 1997. Primary responses of root and leaf elongation to water deficits in the atmosphere and
552 soil solution. J. Exp. Bot. 48, 985-999.
- 553Gahoonia TS, Nielsen NE., 2004. Root traits as tools for creating phosphorus efficient crop varieties.
554 Plant Soil 260, 47-57.
- 555Gao CM, Ding L, Li YR, Chen YP, Zhu JW, Gu M, Li Y, Xu GH, Shen QR, Guo SW., 2017. Nitrate increases
556 ethylene production and aerenchyma formation in roots of lowland rice plants under water
557 stress. Funct. Plant Biol. 44, 430-442.
- 558Gao YX, Li Y, Yang XX, Li HJ, Shen QR, Guo SW., 2010. Ammonium nutrition increases water
559 absorption in rice seedlings (*Oryza sativa* L.) under water stress. Plant Soil 331, 193-201.
- 560Granato TC, Raper CD, JR., 1989. Proliferation of maize (*Zea mays* L.) roots in response to localized
561 supply of nitrate. J. Exp. Bot. 40, 263-275.
- 562Henry A, Cal AJ, Batoto TC, Torres RO, Serraj R., 2012. Root attributes affecting water uptake of rice

563 (*Oryza sativa* L.) under drought. J. Exp. Bot. 63, 4751–4763.

564Iiyama K, Wallis AF., 1990. Determination of lignin in herbaceous plants by an improved acetyl
565 bromide procedure. J. Sci. Food Agr. 51, 145-161.

566Insalud N, Bell RW, Colmer TD, Rerkasem B., 2006. Morphological and physiological responses of
567 rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) to limited phosphorus supply in aerated and stagnant solution culture.
568 Ann. Bot. 98, 995-1004.

569Jackson M, Fenning T, Jenkins W., 1985. Aerenchyma (Gas-Space) formation in adventitious roots of
570 rice (*Oryza Sativa* L.) is not controlled by ethylene or small partial pressures of oxygen. J Exp
571 Bot 75, 457-461.

572Jackson M, Armstrong W., 1999. Formation of aerenchyma and the processes of plant ventilation in
573 relation to soil flooding and submergence. Plant Bio. 1, 274-287.

574Johnson JF, Vance CP, Allan DL., 1996. Phosphorus deficiency in *Lupinus albus* (altered lateral root
575 development and enhanced expression of phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase). Plant Physiol.
576 112, 31-41.

577Joshi R, Kumar P., 2012. Lysigenous aerenchyma formation involves non-apoptotic programmed cell
578 death in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) roots. Physiol. Mol. Biol. Pla. 18, 1-9.

579Kadempir M, Galeshi S, Soltani A, Ghaderifar F., 2014. The Effect of flooding and nutrition levels on
580 reproductive growth stages of aerenchyma formation and ethylene production in soybean
581 (*Glycine max* L.). Int. J. Adv. Biol. Biom. Res. 2, 487-495.

582Kim J, Jugsujinda A, Carbonell-Barrachina A, DeLaune R, Patrick Jr W., 1999. Physiological functions
583 and methane and oxygen exchange in Korean rice cultivars grown under controlled soil redox
584 potential. Bot. Bull. Acad. Sin. 40, 185-191.

585Kludze H, DeLaune R, Patrick W., 1993. Aerenchyma formation and methane and oxygen exchange in
586 rice. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 57, 386-391.

587Knipfer T, Fricke W., 2011. Water uptake by seminal and adventitious roots in relation to whole-plant
588 water flow in barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.). J. Exp. Bot. 62, 717-733.

589Landsberg J, Fowkes N., 1978. Water movement through plant roots. Ann. Botany 42, 493-508.

590Lee BR, Kim KY, Jung WJ, Avice JC, Ourry A, Kim TH., 2007. Peroxidases and lignification in
591 relation to the intensity of water-deficit stress in white clover (*Trifolium repens* L.). J. Exp.
592 Bot. 58, 1271-1279.

593Li Y, Gao YX, Ding L, Shen QR, Guo SW., 2009. Ammonium enhances the tolerance of rice seedlings
594 (*Oryza sativa* L.) to drought condition. Agr. Water Manage. 96, 1746-1750.

595Lima JE, Kojima S, Takahashi H, von Wirén N., 2010. Ammonium triggers lateral root branching in
596 *Arabidopsis* in an AMMONIUM TRANSPORTER1; 3-dependent manner. Plant Cell 22,
597 3621-3633.

598Linkohr BI, Williamson LC, H. FA, Ottoline Leyser HM., 2002. Nitrate and phosphate availability and
599 distribution have different effects on root system architecture of *Arabidopsis*. Plant J. 29, 751-
600 760.

601Lu Y, Wassmann R, Neue HU, Huang C., 1999. Impact of phosphorus supply on root exudation,
602 aerenchyma formation and methane emission of rice plants. Biogeochemistry 47, 203-218.

603Maniou F, Chorianopoulou SN, Bouranis DL., 2014. New insights into trophic aerenchyma formation
604 strategy in maize (*Zea mays* L.) organs during sulfate deprivation. Front Plant Sci. 5, 581-592.

605Marashil SK, Mojaddam M., 2014. Adventitious root and aerenchyma development in wheat (*Triticum*
606 *aestivum* L.) subjected to waterlogging. Int. J. Biosci. 5, 168-173.

607Melchior W, Steudle E., 1993. Water transport in onion (*Allium cepa* L.) roots (changes of axial and
608 radial hydraulic conductivities during root development). Plant Physiol. 101, 1305-1315.

609Michel BE, Kaufmann MR., 1973. The osmotic potential of polyethylene glycol 6000. Plant Physiol.
610 51, 914-916.

611Miyamoto N, Steudle E, Hirasawa T, Lafitte R., 2001. Hydraulic conductivity of rice roots. J. Exp. Bot.
612 52, 1835-1846.

613Mu Z, Zhang S, Zhang L, Liang A, Liang Z., 2006. Hydraulic conductivity of whole root system is
614 better than hydraulic conductivity of single root in correlation with the leaf water status of
615 maize. Bot. Stud. 47, 145-151.

616Negi S, Ivanchenko MG, Muday GK., 2008. Ethylene regulates lateral root formation and auxin
617 transport in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Plant J. 55, 175-187.

618Purnobasuki H, Suzuki M., 2004. Aerenchyma formation and porosity in root of a mangrove plant,
619 *Sonneratia alba* (Lythraceae). J. Plant Res. 117, 465-472.

620Price AH, Cairns JE, Horton P, Jones HG, Griffiths H., 2002. Linking drought-resistance mechanism to
621 drought avoidance in upland rice using a QTL approach : Progress and new opportunities to
622 integrate stomatal and mesophyll responses. J. Exp. Bot. 53, 989-1004.

623Ranathunge K, Schreiber L., 2011. Water and solute permeabilities of *Arabidopsis* roots in relation to
624 the amount and composition of aliphatic suberin. J. Exp. Bot. 62, 1961-1974.

625Rieger M, Litvin P., 1999. Root system hydraulic conductivity in species with contrasting root
626 anatomy. J. Exp. Bot. 50, 201-209.

627Robinson D., 1994. The responses of plants to non-uniform supplies of nutrients. New Phytol. 127,
628 635-674.

629Sattelmacher B, Thoms K., 1995. Morphology and physiology of the seminal root system of young
630 maize (*Zea mays* L.) plants as influenced by a locally restricted nitrate supply. J. Plant Nutr.
631 Soil Sci. 158, 493-497.

632Schiefelbein JW, Benfey PN., 1991. The development of plant roots: new approaches to underground
633 problems. Plant Cell 3, 1147-1154.

634Schreiber L., 2010. Transport barriers made of cutin, suberin and associated waxes. Trends Plant Sci.
635 15, 546-553.

636Siyiannis VF, Protonotarios VE, Zechmann B, Chorianopoulou SN, Muller M, Hawkesford MJ,
637 Bouranis DL., 2012. Comparative spatiotemporal analysis of root aerenchyma formation
638 processes in maize due to sulphate, nitrate or phosphate deprivation. Protoplasma 249, 671-
639 686.

640Steudle E., 2000. Water uptake by roots: effects of water deficit. J. Exp. Bot. 51, 1531-1542.

641Steudle E, Peterson CA., 1998. How does water get through roots? J. Exp. Bot. 49, 775-788.

642Vander P, Vårum KM, Domard A, El Gueddari NE, Moerschbacher BM., 1998. Comparison of the
643 ability of partially N-acetylated chitosans and chitoooligosaccharides to elicit resistance
644 reactions in wheat leaves. Plant Physiol. 118, 1353-1359.

645Videmšek U, Turk B, Vodnik D., 2006. Root aerenchyma -formation and function. Acta Agriculturae
646 Slovenica 87, 445 - 453.

647Wasson AP, Richards RA, Chatrath R, Misra SC, Prasad SV Sai, Rebetzke GJ, Kirkegaard JA,
648 Christopher J, Watt M., 2012. Traits and selection strategies to improve root systems and
649 water uptake in water-limited wheat crops. J. Exp. Bot. 63, 3485-3498.

650Willey N, Tang S., 2006. Some effects of nitrogen nutrition on caesium uptake and translocation by
651 species in the Poaceae, Asteraceae and Caryophyllidae. Environ. Exp. Bot. 58, 114-122.

652Wu C, Ye Z, Shu W, Zhu Y, Wong M., 2011. Arsenic accumulation and speciation in rice are affected
653 by root aeration and variation of genotypes. J. Exp. Bot. 62, 2889-2898.

654Xie HL, Jiang RF, Zhang FS, McGrath SP, Zhao FJ., 2008. Effect of nitrogen form on the rhizosphere
655 dynamics and uptake of cadmium and zinc by the hyperaccumulator *Thlaspi caerulescens*.
656 Plant Soil 318, 205-215.

657Xu QT, Yang L, Zhou ZQ, Mei FZ, Qu LH, Zhou GS., 2013. Process of aerenchyma formation and
658 reactive oxygen species induced by waterlogging in wheat seminal roots. Planta 238, 969-982.

659Yang XX, Li Y, Ren BB, Ding L, Gao CM, Shen QR, Guo SW., 2012. Drought-induced root
660 aerenchyma formation restricts water uptake in rice seedlings supplied with nitrate. Plant Cell
661 Physiol. 53, 495-504.

662Zhang H, Jennings A, Barlow PW, Forde BG., 1999. Dual pathways for regulation of root branching by
663 nitrate. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 96, 6529-6534.

664Zhang Z, Yang F, Li B, Egrinya E A, Li J, Duan L, Wang B, Li Z, Tian X., 2009. Coronatine-induced
665 lateral-root formation in cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum*) seedlings under potassium-sufficient
666 and-deficient conditions in relation to auxin. J. Plant Nutr. Soil Sci. 172, 435-444.

667Zhu J, Brown KM, Lynch JP., 2010. Root cortical aerenchyma improves the drought tolerance of maize
668 (*Zea mays* L.). Plant Cell Environ. 33, 740-749.