

Abstract

The influence of biodegradable chelating ligands on arsenic and iron uptake by hydroponically grown rice seedlings (*Oryza sativa* L.) was investigated. Even though the growth solution contained sufficient Fe, the growth of rice seedlings gradually decreased up to 76% with the increase of pH of the solution from 7 to 11. Iron forms insoluble ferric hydroxide complexes at neutral or alkaline pH in oxic condition. Chelating ligands produce soluble 'Fe-ligand complex' which assist Fe uptake in plants. The biodegradable chelating ligand hydroxyiminodisuccinic acid (HIDS) was more efficient than those of ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), ethylenediaminedisuccinic acid (EDDS), and iminodisuccinic acid (IDS) in the increase of Fe uptake and growth of rice seedling. A total of 79 ± 20 , 87 ± 6 , 116 ± 15 , and 63 ± 18 mg dry biomass of rice seedlings were produced with the addition of 0.5 mM of EDDS, EDTA, HIDS, and IDS in the nutrient solution, respectively. The Fe concentrations in rice tissues were 117 ± 15 , 82 ± 8 , 167 ± 25 , and 118 ± 22 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ dry weights when 0.25 mM of EDDS, EDTA, HIDS, and IDS were added to the nutrient solution, respectively. Most of the Fe accumulated in rice tissues was stored in roots after the addition of chelating ligands in the solution. The results indicate that the HIDS would be a potential alternative to environmentally persistent EDTA for the increase of Fe uptake and plant growth. The HIDS also increased As uptake in rice root though its translocation from root to shoot was not augmented. This study reports HIDS for the first time as a promising chelating ligand for the enhancement of Fe bioavailability and As phytoextraction.

43

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Keywords: Arsenic, Iron, Chelating ligands, Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.), Hydroponics, Bioavailable,

HIDS.

47

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Iron is an essential micronutrient for plants, which plays important roles in respiration,
50 photosynthesis, and many other cellular functions such as DNA synthesis, nitrogen fixation, and
51 hormone production (Vert et al., 2002). Although abundant in nature it forms insoluble ferric
52 hydroxide complexes (also known as Fe-plaque) at neutral or alkaline pH in oxic condition
53 (Guerinot and Yi, 1994). The Fe-plaque formation in the rhizosphere soils, however, results in
54 the Fe deficiency to plants. In nature, rhizospheric microbes exude siderophores to the root-
55 plaque interface. These siderophores solubilize ferric iron in the rhizosphere, render its
56 bioavailability, and plants uptake the Fe by specific membrane receptors (Romheld, 1987).

57 Elevated levels of As in soil from natural and anthropogenic sources is a threat to plants'
58 health (Rahman et al., 2008). Remediation of contaminated soil is important to prevent As
59 deposition in food crops and its subsequent transfer into the human body through the food chains
60 (Rahman et al., 2008). Phytoremediation becomes a promising alternative and environmentally
61 safe technology for the remediation of environmental pollutants (Raskin et al., 1997; Tu et al.,
62 2002). An essential prerequisite for phytoremediation of contaminated soil is solubility and
63 bioavailability of As (Fitz and Wenzel, 2002). But the solubility and bioavailability of As
64 becomes reduced by adsorption to variable charged minerals (Fe and Al) at alkaline pH (Xu et
65 al., 2008). In the past decade, chelant-enhanced phytoremediation has received much attention
66 (Pastor et al., 2007). This technique aims to cleanse polluted soils by solubilizing the toxic
67 metals, allowing it to be accumulated in plants that would subsequently remove toxic metal from
68 the site. Publications on chelant-enhanced phytoremediation have increased steadily to about 15-
69 20 per year in the last few years, indicating that this is a growing and active research field
70 (Nowack et al., 2006).

71 Research on the interaction of plants with chelating ligands started in the 1950s with a
72 view to reduce the deficiencies of the essential nutrients such as Fe, Mn, Cu, and Zn (Wenger et
73 al., 2005). Among all soil-applied Fe fertilizers, synthetic Fe(III)-chelates, mainly Fe(III)-
74 chelates of polyaminecarboxylic acids with phenolic groups, such as ethylenediamine di(*o*-
75 hydroxyphenylacetic) acid (EDDHA), and ethylenediamine di(2-hydroxy-4-methylphenylacetic)
76 acid, are the most effective and commonly used (Alvarez-Fernandez et al., 2005). On the other
77 hand reports on As phytoextraction by chelating ligands is limited though a number of
78 investigations have been conducted on chelant-enhanced phytoextraction of Pb, Zn, Hg, Cu and
79 some other heavy metals (Luo et al., 2005). Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) has been
80 very popular to achieve this purpose, but it is quite persistent in the environment because of its
81 low biodegradability. This, in combination with its high affinity for heavy metal complexation,
82 results in an increased risk of leaching. EDTA also impairs plant growth severely, even at low
83 concentrations (Bucheli-Witschel and Egli, 2001).

84 Biodegradable chelating ligands, such as ethylenediaminedisuccinic acid (EDDS),
85 Hydroxyiminodisuccinic acid (HIDS), and iminodisuccinic acid (IDS) would be good choice and
86 alternative to less biodegradable EDTA. The physicochemical properties of EDDS, EDTA, and
87 IDS have already been discussed and tested for the phytoextraction of heavy metals by a number
88 of researchers (Helena et al., 2003; Evangelou et al., 2007). HIDS is a new chelating ligand
89 introduced by Nippon Shokubai Co. Ltd. It is one of the highly biodegradable (biodegradation
90 rate is about 22.4% within 48 h) and safe chelating ligands. It traps and inactivates various kinds
91 of metals ions over a wide range of pH, particularly Fe^{3+} and Cu^{2+} , as well as Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} ;
92 shows high stability in harsh conditions and high temperature (80 °C); is highly soluble in
93 aqueous alkaline solution (Sokubai, 2009). Because of high degradation rate and high stability
94 constant with Fe^{3+} ($\text{pK}_a\text{Fe}^{3+}$ is 12.5) of HIDS, we become interested to investigate the

95 effectiveness of the chelating ligand for the increase of Fe bioavailability and phytoremediation
96 of As. The EDTA, EDDS, and IDS were also used in the present study to compare the results of
97 HIDS. Our research approach was to find a biodegradable and eco-friendly chelating ligand that
98 is more desirable than EDTA or EDDS for Fe bioavailability and As phytoextraction.

99

100 **2. Materials and Methods**

101 *2.1. Seed sterilization*

102 Rice seeds of BRRI dhan 29 were collected from Bangladesh Rice Research Institute.
103 The seeds were surface-sterilized before using them in the experiment. For sterilization, about
104 100 g seeds were soaked in 200 mL of 1% methyl-1-butylcarbamoyl-2-benzimidazole carbonate
105 solution for 10 min. After that, the seeds were washed by deionized (DI) water (using an E-pure
106 system (Barnstead)) and kept in DI water at 20 °C for 24 h. The seeds were then washed and
107 transferred to DI water of 45 °C for 2 min, and of 52 °C for 10 min.

108

109 *2.2. Chemicals*

110 Stock solutions of EDTA, EDDS, HIDS, and IDS were prepared by dissolving
111 ethylenediamine-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid (Dojindo Molecular Technologies, Japan),
112 ethylenediamine-N, N'-disuccinic acid (Chelest), tetrasodium 3-hydroxy-2,2'-iminodisuccinate
113 (Nippon Syokubai, Japan), and tetrasodium iminodisuccinate (Bayer) in 0.1 M sodium
114 hydroxide, respectively. Other reagents were of analytical grade or better. All solutions were
115 prepared with DI water.

116

117 *2.3. Nutrient solution*

118 Sterilized rice seeds were germinated on pre-sterilized bloating paper (seed bed) with
119 standard murashige and skoog (MS)(Murashige and Skoog, 1962). Iron concentration in the
120 experimental solution was 0.36 mM while its concentration was 27.8 mg L⁻¹ in pre-experimental
121 solution (used for growing rice seedling prior to the experiment). The pH of the pre-experimental
122 solution was adjusted to 6.5 while the pH of experimental solution was 9.0. Rice seedlings were
123 grown on the seed bed for 1 wk. In preparing MS culture solution, FeSO₄·7H₂O was used as Fe
124 source instead of NaFe(III)-EDTA.

125

126 *2.4. Experimental setup*

127 Rice seedlings were transferred to the experimental solution after one week of growth in
128 pre-experimental solution. In the experimental solution, rice seedlings were grown in two steps.
129 In the first step, rice seedlings were grown with different concentrations of chelating ligands (up
130 to 2.50 mM) to observe the effect of chelating ligands on Fe uptake. In the second step, 6.0 μM
131 of As (Na₂HAsO₄·7H₂O) was added to the nutrient solutions containing 1.0 mM of chelating
132 ligands to see the effect of chelating ligands on Fe and As uptake. Iron concentration in the
133 experimental solution was 0.36 mM, and the pH of the solution was adjusted to 9 using 0.1 M
134 KOH. About 100 mL of the solution was taken into 250-mL polystyrene bottles with three
135 replications, and three uniform seedlings were cultivated in each bottle. The experiment was
136 performed following randomized design. Rice plants were grown in a plant growth chamber and
137 the conditions in the chamber were set as 14:10 h light/dark schedule, 100-125 μ E m⁻² s⁻¹ light
138 intensity, 22(±2) °C temperatures. Rice seedlings were grown in experimental solution for 5 d.

139

140 *2.5. CBE-extraction of Fe-plaques*

141 At harvest, the shoots were cut from 1 cm above the roots and separated. The Fe-plaques
142 from root surfaces were extracted using citrate-bicarbonate-ethylenediaminetetraacetate (CBE)-
143 technique, a modified method of dithionite-citrate-bicarbonate extraction by [Taylor and Crowder](#)
144 [\(1983\)](#) to determine the real amount of Fe and As contents in rice tissues. The CBE solution was
145 prepared from 0.03, 0.125 and 0.050 M of sodium citrate, sodium bicarbonate, and EDTA,
146 respectively. Roots were treated with 30 mL of CBE solution for 60 min at room temperature.
147 The roots were then rinsed with deionized water for 3 times, and the rinsed water was added to
148 the CBE-extracts to make a total of 30 mL.

149

150 *2.6. Sample preparation*

151 After rinsing with deionized water for four times, the root samples were kept on clean
152 absorbent paper to remove the water from the root surfaces. Both the root and the shoot samples
153 were dried at 65 °C until they reached in a constant weight. Then the dried samples were
154 weighted and taken into 50-mL polyethylene tubes for digestion. Five mL of 65% HNO₃ were
155 added to the sample and kept for 12 h. The samples were heated on a heating block at 95 °C for 2
156 h. After cooling to room temperature, 3 mL of 30% hydrogen peroxide were added, and the
157 samples were heated again at 105 °C for 20 min. Then, the digests were diluted to 30 mL with DI
158 and analyzed for As and Fe.

159

160 *2.7. Chemical analysis*

161 Arsenic and Fe were analyzed using graphite-furnace atomic absorption spectrometer (Z-
162 8100, Hitachi, Japan). Certified standard reference material 1573a (tomato leaf from NIST,
163 USA) was used to check the accuracy of analysis. Arsenic concentration in certified standard
164 reference materials was $0.112 \pm 0.004 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dry weight (all the reported data in this article are

165 expressed as dry weight) while the measured concentration was $0.114 \pm 0.002 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$. The
166 concentrations detected in all samples were above the instrumental limits of detection (≥ 0.01
167 μM in water sample).

168 All chemical reagents used in this experiment were of analytical grade. Glassware and
169 dishes were washed with detergent and 1 N HCL solution, and rinsed with DI water for eight
170 times before use. In each analytical batch, at least two reagent blanks and three replicate samples
171 were included.

172

173 **3. Results and Discussions**

174 *3.1. Effect of pH on rice growth*

175 Rice seedlings were grown in nutrient solution adjusted to different pH ranging between
176 6 and 11. Results show that the biomass production of rice seedlings was affected by the pH
177 significantly. The highest biomass of rice seedling ($83 \pm 7 \text{ mg}$) was observed at pH 7, which was
178 about 16, 19, 43, and 76% higher than those at pH 8, 9, 10, and 11, respectively (Fig. 1). The rice
179 growth remain unchanged, and even died at pH 10 and 11. Rice plants have a tendency of higher
180 Fe uptake than that of other plants (Becker and Asch, 2005). But the pH of the growth medium
181 plays an important role in Fe bioavailability and uptake. Even though the Fe is sufficient in
182 growth medium, it forms insoluble ferric hydroxide complexes at alkaline pH in oxic condition
183 (Cohen et al., 1998). Therefore, Fe bioavailability and uptake decreases drastically. In the present
184 study, it was observed that the Fe concentrations in tissues of rice seedlings were highest at pH 7
185 compared to those at other pHs (Fig. 2). This trend of Fe uptake in rice tissues is correlated to
186 that of biomass production of rice seedlings (Fig. 1). The result implies that the influence of pH
187 on rice growth is the ultimate effect of reduced Fe bioavailability and uptake. Moreover, Fe
188 concentrations on root surfaces of rice seedlings were lowest at pH 7 and 8 compared to those at

189 other pHs (Fig. 2). High level of Fe on root surfaces of rice seedling at pH 11 reveals the
190 formation of Fe-hydroxides (Fe-plaque) on root surfaces, which decreased the Fe uptake in rice
191 tissues. Formation of Fe-plaques on the roots of wetland plants (Hansel et al., 2001) and
192 hydroponically grown rice seedling (Hu et al., 2005) have also been reported. The precipitation
193 of ferric (oxyhydro)-oxides (FeO_x) and its association with phytoplankton surfaces, both in
194 natural conditions and laboratory cultures, has been reported by Tang and Morel (2006).
195 Robinson et al. (2006) also found the occurrence of Fe-plaque on aquatic macrophytes collected
196 from the Taupo Volcanic zone, New Zealand.

197 The Fe deficiency results in Fe-chlorosis in green leaves, which retards plant growth, and
198 leads to the reduction of crop yields (Guerinot and Yi, 1994). The results of the present study
199 also reveal that the growth of rice seedling decreased drastically at higher pH, which is the
200 consequence of Fe-chlorosis.

201

202 3.2. Influence of chelating ligands on Fe uptake-translocation

203 Influence of EDDS, EDTA, HIDS, and IDS on Fe uptake and translocation in rice
204 seedlings were investigated at different concentrations of the ligands ranging between 0.1 and
205 2.5 mM. Results showed that Fe uptake in rice seedling differed significantly with the type and
206 concentrations of the chelating ligands. Iron uptake was highest at 0.25 mM of the chelating
207 ligands compared to the control treatment. Iron uptake decreased gradually with the increase of
208 chelating ligand concentrations above 0.25 mM (Fig. 3). The effectiveness of HIDS and EDDS
209 in the increase of Fe uptake in rice tissues was higher than that of EDTA and IDS. Iron
210 concentrations in roots of rice seedling were 35 ± 3 and $44 \pm 2 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ when the HIDS
211 concentrations in the nutrient solution were 0.10 and 0.25 mM, respectively. These
212 concentrations were significantly higher than those of other chelating ligands.

213 Iron concentrations in shoots of rice seedlings were significantly lower than those in
214 roots, and were about identical up to 0.25 mM of chelating ligand treatment. Iron content in
215 shoots decreased with the gradual increase of chelating ligands from 0.25 to 2.50 mM (Fig. 3).
216 The results indicate that the translocation of Fe from roots to shoots was not affected by lower
217 dose of the chelating ligands. The translocation of Fe was inhibited by the chelating ligands at
218 higher doses (> 0.25 mM).

219 Although abundant in nature, Fe is often unavailable to plants, especially at neutral or
220 alkaline pH, because of the formation of insoluble ferric hydroxide complexes in oxic condition
221 (Robinson et al., 2006). Precipitation of Fe in the rhizosphere, however, may result in the Fe
222 deficiency to the plants. Chelating ligands are used in agriculture as additives in micronutrient
223 fertilizers for the increase of Fe bioavailability. Although some chelating ligands have been
224 reported to increase Fe uptake/translocation in plant, inhibition of Fe uptake/translocation by
225 ligands has also been reported. Chaney et al. (1972) reported that
226 bathophenanthrolinedisulfonate (BPDS) was the most effective inhibitor of Fe
227 uptake/translocation, followed by EDTA > DTPA (diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid) > CDTA
228 (diaminocyclohexanetetraacetic acid) >> EDDHA. The BPDS inhibited ⁵⁹Fe movement to the
229 exudate by 99.7% even at the lowest level of competitor. The BPDS inhibits Fe translocation by
230 10-100 times compared to those of EDTA, DTPA, or CDTA. Chaney et al. (1972) also observed
231 that EDDHA, the chelator with the highest Fe³⁺ stability constant, only slightly inhibited or
232 actually promoted Fe uptake/translocation, whereas the BPDS with the highest Fe²⁺ stability
233 constant was a severe inhibitor. Thus, stability constant of Fe-ligand (logK_{FeL}) would be one of
234 the important determinants for the promotion or inhibition of Fe uptake/translocation.

235

236 *3.3. Effect of chelating ligands on rice growth*

237 Rice seedlings were grown in alkaline nutrient solution (pH 9) containing 0.10, 0.25,
238 0.50, 1.00, and 2.50 mM of chelating ligands and 0.36 mM of Fe. Results show that the growth
239 of rice seedlings was increased with the increase of HIDS and EDTA concentrations up to 1.0
240 mM, and the growth was decreased at 2.5 mM of chelating ligand concentrations (Fig. 4). The
241 highest biomass production (141 ± 21 mg) of rice was observed when 1.0 mM of EDTA was
242 added to the nutrient solution followed by 127 ± 8 , 82 ± 19 , and 75 ± 4 mg for HIDS, EDDS, and
243 IDS, respectively.

244 Chelating ligands have been used to enhance Fe bioavailability (Alvarez-Fernandez et al.,
245 2005). The concentration of chelating ligands in the nutrient medium is important for the
246 solubilization of precipitated Fe and the increase of its bioavailability. In the present study, it was
247 observed that the rice seedling produce highest biomass at 1.0 mM chelating ligand
248 concentrations, and the growth remain unchanged, and even died at higher concentration (>1.0
249 mM).

250 Although the growth of all organisms is dependent on the acquisition of the proper
251 quantities of trace elements, excess amount of some metals such as Fe, zinc, manganese, and
252 copper produce toxic effects (Morel and Hering, 1993). However, ferric ions and their
253 complexes, which have low solubility in aquatic system, are extensively buffered by chelation
254 (Morel and Hering, 1993), and increase their dissolved concentration. The dissolved
255 concentration of Fe determines its rate of uptake by the organisms. Anderson and Morel (1982)
256 reported that the Fe uptake rate in laboratory cultures of the marine diatom *Thalassosira*
257 *weissflogii* is a unique function of the free ferric ion concentration at the presence of 10^{-5} M of
258 various chelating ligands (1.4×10^7 cells L^{-1}). Hudson and Morel (1990) reported that in Fe-
259 limited culture of marine diatom *Thalassosira weissflogii* (10^7 cells L^{-1}) containing 10^{-8} M Fe
260 and 10^{-5} M EDTA and with white-light illumination, both the thermal dissociation of FeEDTA

261 and its photoreduction and reoxidation contribute to the formation of the dissolved inorganic
262 Fe(III) pool responsible for the Fe uptake. In this case, growth of rice seedlings was inhibited by
263 the free ferric ion that was increased by the addition of higher level of chelating ligands.

264 Toxicity of chelating ligands on plants has not been studied extensively. So, it is difficult
265 to interpret the direct toxicity of chelating ligands on plants. Since most of the chelating ligands
266 are synthetic compounds, no nutrient carriers in the plasma membrane are thought to exist
267 (Berne and Levy, 1998). Also, synthetic chelates cannot slip through the plasma membrane as
268 they are too large and polar to move through the plasma lemma lipid bilayer (Berne and Levy,
269 1998). Tanton and Crowdy (1972) observed that most solutes moved into some endodermal
270 passage cells adjacent to the casparian strip intracellularly to the other side of the strip, and then
271 extracellularly to the xylem. The passage cells may include the aquaporins and there may be
272 selectivity toward molecules. Paul et al. (2003) reported that Swiss chard uptakes a considerable
273 amount of EDTA from chelator-buffered hydroponic solution through transpirational flow that
274 occurs via apoplastically.

275

276 *3.4. Influence of chelating ligands and As on rice growth*

277 Chelating ligand treated rice seedlings were grown with and without As to investigate the
278 effect of As and chelating ligands on rice growth. Results show that As does not have a
279 consistent effect on rice growth as chelating ligand has. Rice growth was not affected by As
280 when chelating ligand was not treated. The highest growth of rice seedling was observed in
281 HIDS treated medium. The inconsistent effect of chelating ligand and As on rice growth suggest
282 that in the presence of chelating ligands lower level of As in the growth medium does not affect
283 rice growth significantly. It has been reported that rice growth is not affected by low level of As
284 though the growth decrease drastically with the increase of As in the soil. Abedin and Meharg

285 (2002) also reported that low level of As in water (about 2.0 mg L^{-1}) does not show toxicity to
286 both rice germination and rice growth, but the rice germination and growth were adversely
287 affected by higher As level.

288

289 *3.5. Influence of chelating ligands and As on Fe uptake/translocation*

290 Iron uptake in rice seedling was affected by chelating ligands and As significantly. Iron
291 concentration was measured both in root surfaces and plant tissues. Results show that the Fe
292 concentration was higher in rice root surfaces of control treatment (without chelating ligands)
293 while its concentration was higher in plant tissues of ligand treated nutrient solution (Fig. 5). The
294 highest Fe contents were found in tissues of rice seedlings treated with EDTA or HIDS and As.
295 Increasing Fe uptake by chelating ligands, especially EDTA and HIDS, can be explained by the
296 adsorption of As(III)-EDTA/-HIDS complex on the Fe-plaques of rice root surfaces and
297 dissociation of the complex to release of Fe(III)-EDTA/-HIDS into solution. The release of
298 Fe(III)-EDTA/-HIDS into the culture solution results in the increase of Fe uptake. Adsorption of
299 metal-EDTA to the surface of Fe oxides and dissociation of the complex and release of Fe(III)-
300 EDTA has been reported by Nowack and Sigg (1997).

301 Strong ligands, such as EDTA, complex with metals in natural systems. Adsorption of
302 uncomplexed EDTA on metal oxides (Fe-oxides, Al-oxides) has been studied previously
303 (Bowers and Huang, 1985; Blesa et al., 2000). The EDTA has been reported to exist as complex
304 species of metals (mainly CaEDTA, ZnEDTA, and Fe(III)EDTA) in natural waters (Xue et al.,
305 1995). Dissolution reactions of Fe-oxides in the presence of metal-EDTA complexes have also
306 been reported by Nowack and Sigg (1997).

307

308 *3.6. Arsenic uptake/translocation affected by chelating ligands*

309 Arsenic contents in roots, shoots, and root surfaces of rice seedling were determined to
310 assess the effect of chelating ligands on As uptake. Results show that As was stored mostly in
311 roots followed by shoots and root surfaces (Fig. 6). Previous studies with rice also reported
312 higher content of As in rice roots (Abedin et al., 2002). The higher storage of As in roots and
313 lower translocation to shoots can be explained by the reduction of arsenate to arsenite in roots,
314 complexation with thiols, and sequestration in the root vacuoles (Zhao et al., 2009).

315 Formation of Fe-plaque on rice root surfaces and its effect on As uptake in rice have been
316 well explained in literature (Liu et al., 2006). Although Fe-plaque inhibits the As uptake (Zhang
317 et al., 1998), increase of the uptake of toxic and nutrient elements in plants and organisms by Fe-
318 plaque has also been reported (Ye et al., 2001). The effects of Fe-plaque on the uptake of nutrient
319 and/or toxic elements depend on the amount of Fe-plaque on root surfaces (Zhang et al., 1998).
320 Otte et al. (1989) reported higher concentration of Zn in roots of *Aster tripolium* L. coated with
321 500-2000 nmol Fe cm⁻² compared to those coated with less than 500 or more than 2000 nmol Fe
322 cm⁻². Even though the increasing amount of Fe-plaque elevates As accumulation on the root
323 surfaces, it does not affect As uptake in rice shoots. The Fe-plaque acts as “buffer” to prevent the
324 translocation of As from roots to shoots Liu et al. (2004).

325 Present study also report that the As contents in roots and shoots were higher in rice
326 seedlings grown with chelating ligands compared to those grown without chelating ligands (Fig.
327 6). Arsenic content in roots was highest when the rice seedlings were grown with HIDS while
328 the content was identical when grown with EDTA, EDDS, or IDS. The results suggest that
329 chelating ligands increased As uptake in rice root significantly, though its translocation from root
330 to shoot was not increased. The use of chelating ligands, especially the EDTA, EDDS, IDS, etc.
331 for the increase of heavy metals have been studied extensively (Jean et al., 2008; Marques et al.,

332 2008). Present study reports a better/comparable performance of HIDS to that of others studied
333 previously for the first time.

334 Arsenate has a high adsorptive affinity to Fe oxides (Zhao et al., 2009). Chelating ligands
335 solubilization/desorption As from the Fe-plaque of rice roots, and rice plant readily uptakes
336 desorbed/soluble As from the nutrient solution. The results of the present study reveal that the
337 HIDS is stronger than EDTA, EDDS, or IDS for dissolution/desorption of precipitated As. Since
338 the EDTA is not readily biodegradable, and is persistent in the environment, the biodegradable
339 HIDS would be a good alternative to EDTA in the phytoextraction/phytoremediation of As.

340

341 **4. Conclusions**

342 The use of chelating ligands in the phytoextraction of toxic metals and in the increase of
343 essential nutrient elements is not new at all. Especially, the EDTA and EDDS have been widely
344 used in agriculture for long time to serve the above purposes. The use of EDTA, however, has
345 the disadvantage that it is quite persistent in the environment due to its low biodegradability.
346 Therefore, looking for biodegradable chelating ligands is an important concern to the
347 researchers. In this study the effectiveness of HIDS for the increase of Fe bioavailability and As
348 phytoextraction was investigated, and the results were compared with those of EDTA, EDDS,
349 and IDS. The Fe limiting condition was induced by increasing the pH of the growth solution.
350 Results show that the performance of HIDS was more effective than that of other chelating
351 ligands. HIDS is a newly introduced, biodegradable and environmentally harmonious chelating
352 ligands with high chelating capability. Therefore, it would be a good alternative to the EDTA.

353

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357

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Figure Captions:

Fig. 1: Growth of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) affected by the pH of nutrient solution. Results are presented as mean and the error bars express \pm SD ($n = 3$).

Fig. 2: Fe concentration in roots, root surfaces, and shoots of rice seedling (*Oryza sativa* L.) as affected by the pH of nutrient solution. Results are presented as mean and the error bars express \pm SD ($n = 3$).

Fig. 3: Fe uptake and translocation in rice seedling (*Oryza sativa* L.) as affected by chelating ligand concentrations in the nutrient solution. Results are presented as mean and the error bars express \pm SD ($n = 3$).

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506 Fig. 4: Growth of rice seedling (*Oryza sativa* L.) affected by chelating ligand concentrations in
507 the nutrient solution. Results are presented as mean and the error bars express \pm SD ($n = 3$).

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509 Fig. 5: Fe concentration in root surfaces and plant tissues (roots and shoots) of rice seedling
510 (*Oryza sativa* L.) as affected by chelating ligands and arsenic in the nutrient solution.
511 As(+) and As(-) indicate with and without arsenic, respectively.

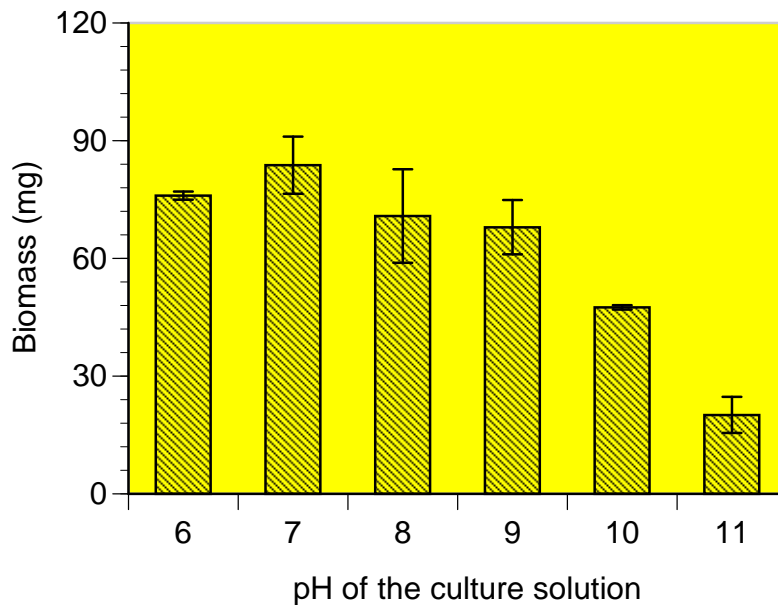
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513 Fig. 6: As concentration in roots, shoots, and root surfaces of rice seedling (*Oryza sativa* L.) as
514 affected by chelating ligands in the nutrient solution.

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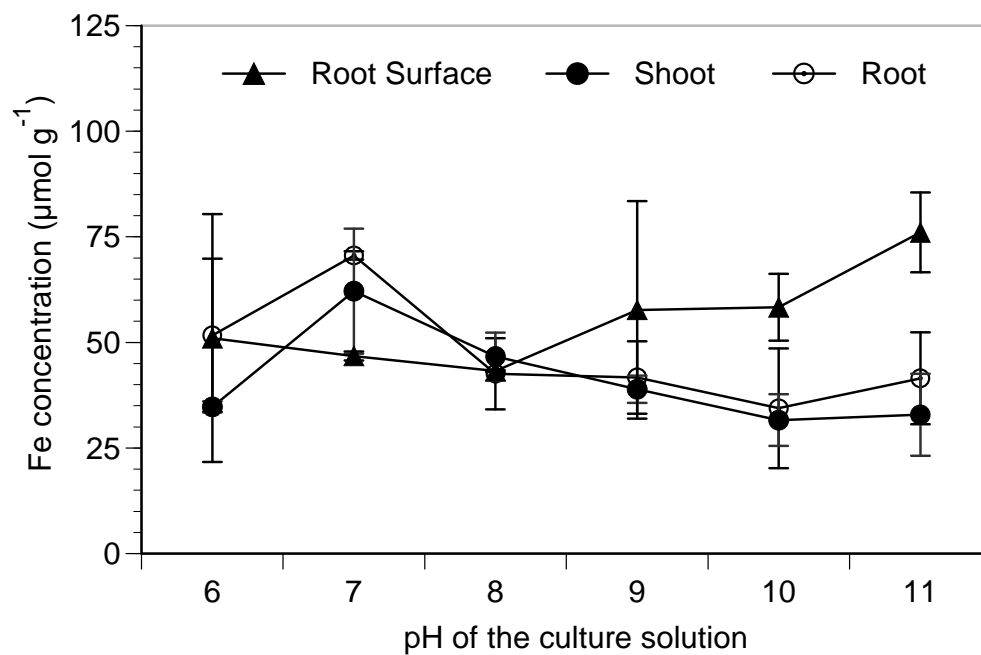
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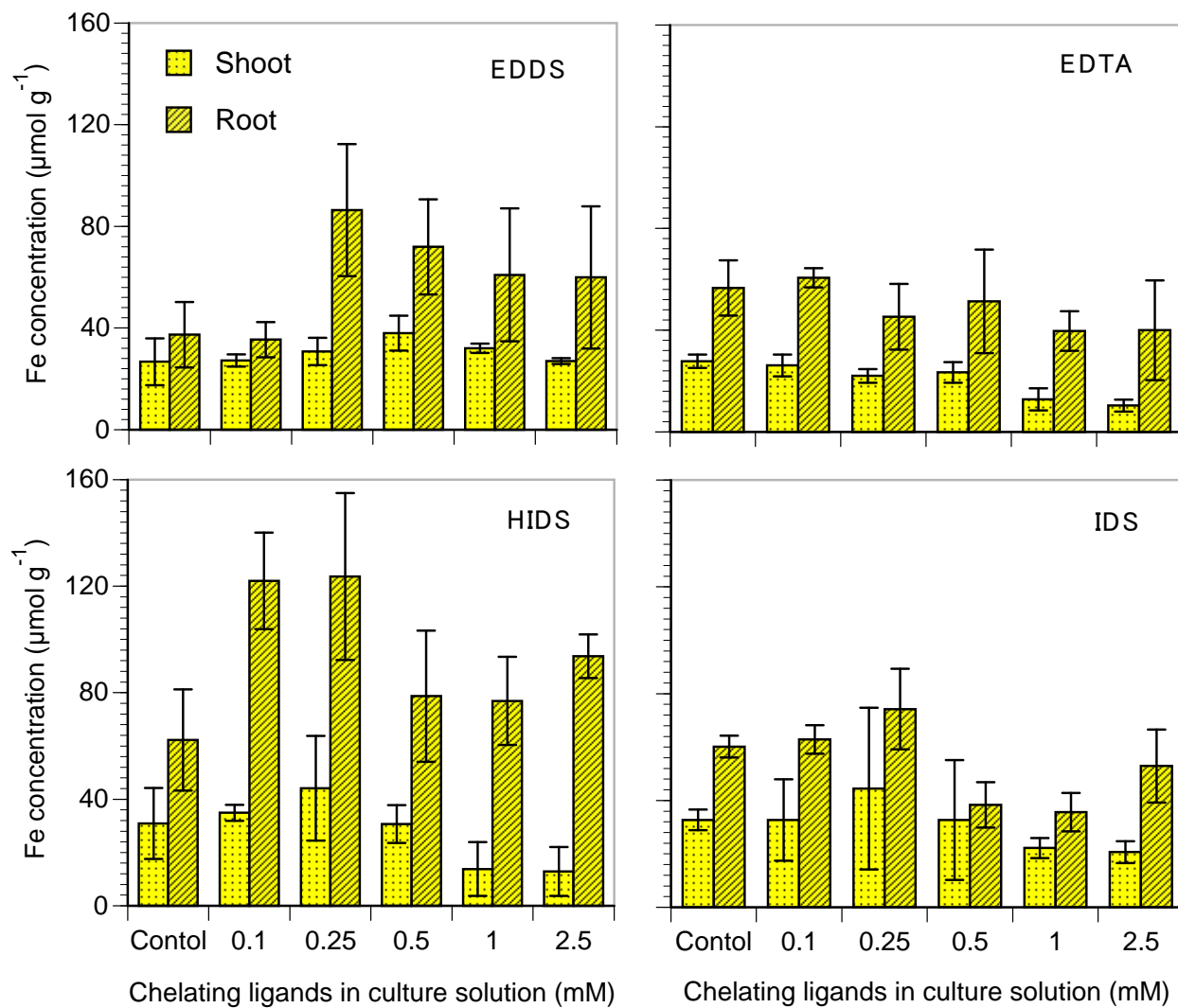
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528 express \pm SD ($n = 3$).



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531 Fig. 3: Fe uptake and translocation in rice seedling (*Oryza sativa* L.) as affected by chelating

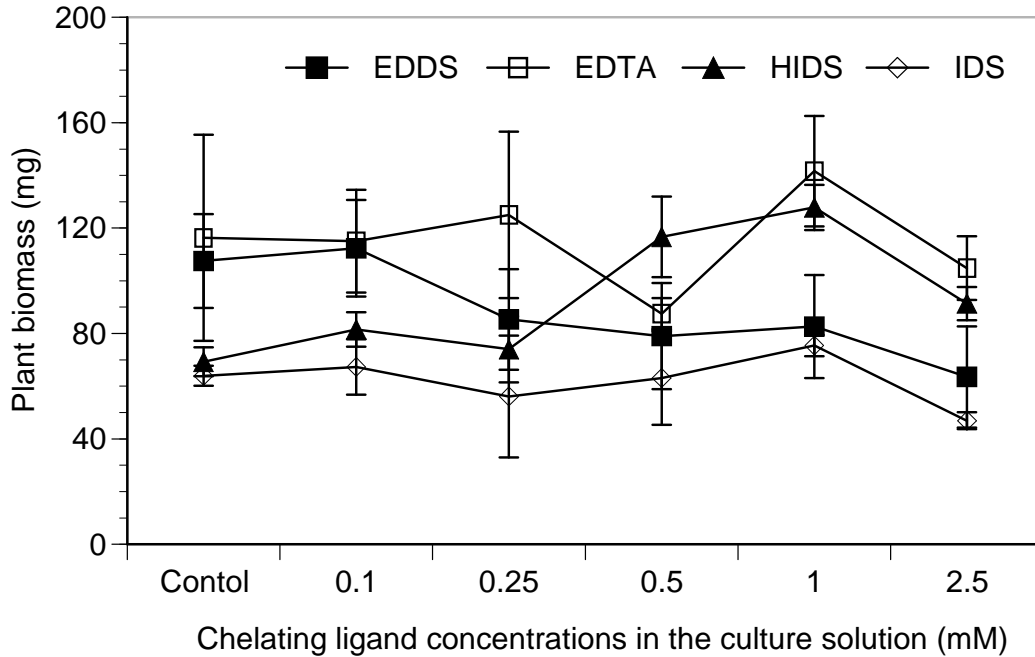
532 ligand concentrations in the nutrient solution. Results are presented as mean and the error

533 bars express \pm SD ($n = 3$).

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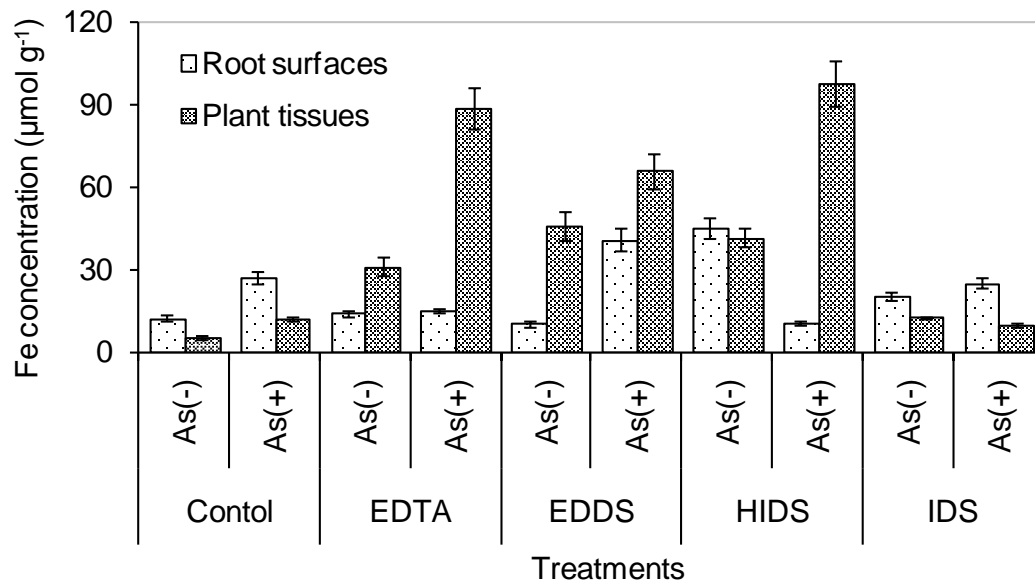


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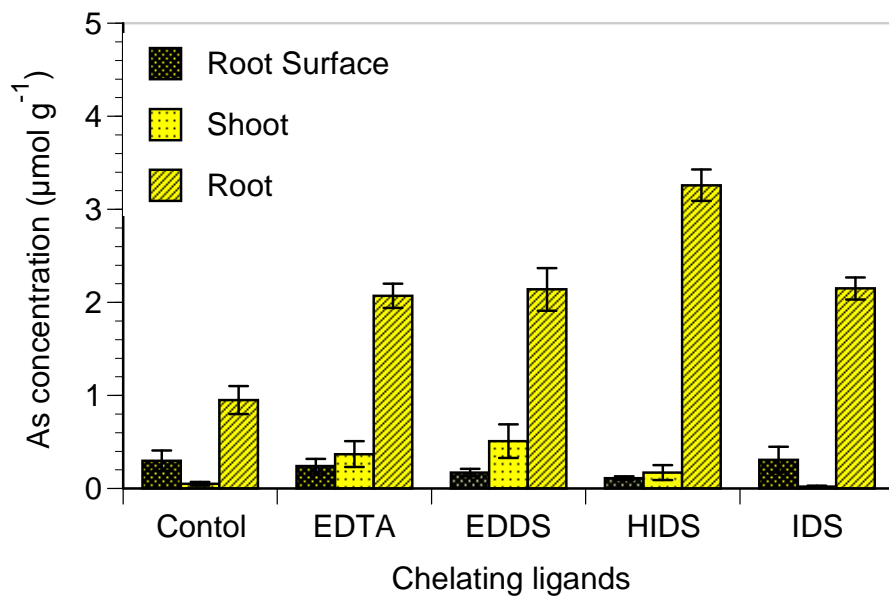
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