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1 **Silicon induced Fe deficiency affects Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn**
2 **distribution in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) growth in calcareous**
3 **conditions**

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16 **Abstract**

17 A protective effect by silicon in the amelioration of iron chlorosis has recently been
18 proved for Strategy 1 species, at acidic pH. However in calcareous conditions, the Si
19 effect on Fe acquisition and distribution is still unknown. In this work, the effect of Si
20 on Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn distribution was studied in rice (Strategy 2 species) under Fe
21 sufficiency and deficiency. Plants (+Si or-Si) were grown initially with Fe, and then Fe
22 was removed from the nutrient solution. The plants were then analysed using a
23 combined approach including LA-ICP-MS images for each element of interest, the
24 analysis of the Fe and Si concentration at different cell layers of root and leaf cross
25 sections by SEM-EDX, and determining the apoplastic Fe, total micronutrient
26 concentration and oxidative stress indexes. A different Si effect was observed
27 depending on plant Fe status. Under Fe sufficiency, Si supply increased Fe root plaque
28 formation, decreasing Fe concentration inside the root and increasing the oxidative
29 stress in the plants. Therefore, Fe acquisition strategies were activated, and Fe
30 translocation rate to the aerial parts was increased, even under an optimal Fe supply.
31 Under Fe deficiency, +Si plants absorbed Fe from the plaque more rapidly than -Si
32 plants, due to the previous activation of Fe deficiency strategies during the growing
33 period (+Fe+Si). Higher Fe plaque formation due to Si supply during the growing
34 period reduced Fe uptake and could activate Fe deficiency strategies in rice, making it
35 more efficient against Fe chlorosis alterations. Silicon influenced Mn and Cu
36 distribution in root.

37
38 **Key words:** rice (*Oryza sativa* L.), silicon, iron-deficiency, iron-localization,
39 micronutrients distribution.

40 1. Introduction

41 Among the grass species, rice is one of the crops most susceptible to Fe deficiency,
42 especially during the early stages of plant development in calcareous soils (pH > 7.5).
43 At such pH, available Fe in the soil is limited for plant optimal growth so deficiency
44 symptoms appear, and crop yield and quality could be severely reduced. To overcome
45 Fe deficiency, efficient plants develop different strategies. Dicots and non-
46 graminaceous plants increase the roots' Fe(III) reduction power through an Fe(III)-
47 chelate reductase coupled with an increase in the biosynthesis of a Fe(II) transporter;
48 rhizosphere acidification and the release of phenolic compounds have also been
49 described as tools to increase the available Fe in the rhizosphere (Strategy I).
50 Graminaceous plants (Strategy II) release specific Fe chelating agents, called
51 phytosiderophores (PS), to the rhizosphere in order to solubilize Fe from the soils. The
52 two strategies outlined above are not exclusive, and rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) employs both
53 strategies (Ishimaru et al., 2006).

54 Rice is a Si-accumulating plant species (Ma et al., 2006), and the major form of Si in
55 the xylem has been identified as monomeric silicic acid, which is further concentrated
56 through loss of water (transpiration) and polymerized (> 90%) in the form of silica gel.
57 Silicon's protective effect in the amelioration of Fe chlorosis has recently been proven
58 for Strategy 1 species, such as soybean and cucumber (Gonzalo et al., 2013; Pavlovic et
59 al., 2013; Bityutskii et al., 2014; Pavlovic et al., 2016). In cucumber, Pavlovic et al.,
60 (2013) demonstrated that the application of Si increased the root apoplastic Fe pool and
61 enhanced the expression of proteins involved in reduction-based Fe uptake. Moreover,
62 Si influenced the gene expression involved in the biosynthesis of Fe-mobilizing
63 compounds, thus resulting in enhanced accumulation of organic acids and phenolics
64 which mediate increased Fe availability in the rhizosphere and mobilization of root
65 apoplastic Fe (Pavlovic et al., 2013). It has also been shown for that crop, that
66 application of Si can facilitate mobility and xylem translocation of Fe towards the shoot,
67 along with the accumulation of Fe-chelating compounds, such as citrate, in xylem sap
68 and leaf tissues (Pavlovic et al., 2013; Bityutskii et al., 2014). However, Si's effect on
69 iron plant nutrition under Fe deficiency stress conditions clearly depends on the plant
70 species (Gonzalo et al., 2013), possibly due to the great differences observed in the Si
71 accumulation pattern among species and on mechanisms developed to overcome the

72 metal deficiency situations. Nevertheless, the mechanism that explains the role of Si in
73 Fe transport from root to shoot is still unclear (Hernández-Apaolaza, 2014).

74 An important tool in plant nutrition research is the visualization of element distribution
75 at different scales from the tissue to subcellular levels. This spatial information provides
76 important clues to understanding the mechanisms of regulation of the homeostasis of
77 essential and toxic minerals. Although numerous studies have investigated the cellular
78 distributions of macronutrients or metals/metalloids in hyperaccumulator plants,
79 visualization of trace elements in plant cells of nonhyperaccumulator species is more
80 challenging because of their low concentrations (Moore et al., 2014). Novel imaging
81 techniques such as synchrotron-based X-ray fluorescence (S-XRF), secondary ion mass
82 spectrometry (nanoSIMS), and laser-ablation inductively coupled plasma mass
83 spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) offer greater sensitivity and spatial resolution, suitable for
84 trace element determination in plant tissues.

85 For specifically visualizing ferric Fe in plants, Perls staining is one of the oldest
86 methods used (Roschztardt et al., 2009) because of its specificity, low-cost, and
87 simplicity. Other techniques such as transmission electron microscopy (TEM) or
88 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) have been used to create a 2-dimensional
89 representation of organelle position in relation to Fe dispersion (Lanquar et al., 2005),
90 resulting in high resolution *in situ* elemental maps. Furthermore, if energy-dispersive X-
91 ray analysis (EDX or EDAX) is used, the Fe distribution in the tissue could be
92 described. The large majority of the available information related to the localization of
93 Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn and Si in rice is focused on rice seeds using S-XRF (Lu et al., 2013).
94 However, a few studies have focused on the rice plant tissue. Moore et al., (2014)
95 investigated the cellular and subcellular localization of Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn and Si in node,
96 internode and leaf sheath of rice using S-XRF and nanoSIMS. They reported that Cu
97 and Si were generally localized in the cell wall, in the case of Si concretely in the cell
98 wall of the parenchyma and the phloem of the vascular bundles. Fe and Zn were
99 strongly localized in the vacuoles of specific cell types, and Mn was localized in the
100 parenchyma cells. Other studies focused on the roots of rice plants reported that Fe was
101 only localized in the epidermis of the root with a nonhomogeneous distribution (Moore
102 et al., 2011), and Si was localized in characteristic rings in the epidermal and
103 endodermal cell walls (Gong et al., 2006; Moore et al., 2011).

104

105 The aim of this work was to evaluate the possible effect of Si on Fe distribution in rice
106 when this element was suppressed from the nutrient solution using SEM-EDX and LA-
107 ICP-MS techniques for elemental localization. The distribution of other micronutrients
108 (Mn, Cu, and Zn) was also evaluated. To our knowledge, this is the first time that high
109 resolution images of micronutrients (Fe, Mn, Cu, and Zn) have been obtained for plants
110 under different Fe status.

111 **2. Material and Methods**

112 *2.1. Plant material and experimental design*

113 Rice (*Oryza sativa* L. cv. Marisma) plants were grown in a growth chamber with a
114 photosynthetic photon flux density at leaf height of 1000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
115 photosynthetically active radiation, 16-h, 25 °C, 40% humidity (day) and 8-h, 20 °C,
116 60% humidity (night). Rice seeds (generously provided by Arrozúa S.C.) were sterilized
117 with sodium hypochlorite (20%) and Tween 80 (0.1%) and germinated on filter
118 moistened paper with distilled water for one week in the dark at 28 °C. Homogeneous
119 seedlings were transferred to 1.6 L plastic boxes containing full-strength nutrient
120 solution (in mM: 1 $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$, 0.9 KNO_3 , 0.3 Mg SO_4 , 0.1 KH_2PO_4 , 0.035 NaCl , 0.010
121 H_3BO_3 , 0.00005 Na_2MoO_4 , 0.001 MnSO_4 , 0.0005 CuSO_4 , 0.0005 ZnSO_4 , 0.0001 NiCl_2 ,
122 0.0001 CoSO_4) with 60 μM Fe-EDTA and 1.5 mM H_4SiO_4 (+Si treatment) or 0 mM
123 H_4SiO_4 (-Si treatment) freshly prepared for 10 days. The pH was fixed at 7.5 by the
124 addition of 3 mM HEPES and readjusted every day. After that, half the +Si plants and
125 half the -Si plants were transferred to nutrient solution without Fe-EDTA (-Fe) and the
126 rest of material continued with 60 μM Fe-EDTA (+Fe) for 4 days more. The nutrient
127 solution was renewed every 4 days. Three biological replicates (+Fe+Si; +Fe-Si; -
128 Fe+Si, -Fe-Si) were performed per treatment.
129 Prior to analysis, roots and leaves were washed with 0.3 % HCl (v/v) and 0.1% Tween
130 80 and rinsed twice with distilled water.

131 *2.2. Micronutrient concentration in plant tissue*

132 Plant sampling was performed four days after the Fe-deficiency induction (21 days-
133 old plants). To obtain the dry weights (DW), plants were oven dried at 60 °C to constant
134 weight. For micronutrient analysis, plant samples (0.1-0.3 g DW) were digested with 8

135 mL HNO₃ (65%), 2 mL H₂O₂ (30%), and 1 mL HF (40%), using a microwave (CEM
136 Corporation MARS 240/50, Matthews, NC, USA) following the procedure described by
137 Gonzalo et al., (2013). All reagents used were Suprapur grade (Merk KGaA, Darmstadt,
138 Germany). Samples were then filtered through a 0.20- μ m paper filter and made up to 20
139 mL with deionized water (type I reagent grade). Total Fe, Mn, Cu, and Zn
140 concentrations were determined by atomic absorption spectrometry using a Perkin-
141 Elmer AAnalyst TM 800 instrument (Perkin Elmer, Waltham, MA, USA). The ratio
142 between micronutrient concentration in leaves and root was calculated.

143 *2.3. Fe concentration in root apoplast and root apoplast Fe free tissue of rice plants*

144 The Fe concentration in root apoplast was analysed at day 1, 4 and 7 after the
145 removal of Fe from the nutrient solution following the procedure described by Bienfait
146 et al., (1985) with some modifications. Intact Fe-deficient roots of each treatment were
147 washed in a solution containing 0.5 mM CaSO₄ and 5 mM MES for 10 min. Then roots
148 were transferred to 21 mL of incubation solution containing 5 mM MES (pH 5.5), 0.5
149 mM CaSO₄, and 1.5 mM 2,2'-bipyridyl and incubated for 10 min under reductive
150 conditions by adding 0.5 g solid Na-dithionite under continuous N₂ bubbling. The red
151 Fe^{II} (bipyridyl)₃ complex was determined at 520 nm using an extinction coefficient of
152 8.65 mM⁻¹. After that, rice roots were washed as described, and Fe concentration in the
153 Fe apoplastic free tissue was determined by atomic absorption spectrometry, following
154 the procedure described above.

155 *2.4. 2-D image of Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn localization using laser ablation-ICP-MS*

156 Fresh roots of 21 day-old plants were washed and blotted dry with filter paper. Then,
157 root pieces (1 cm length) cut at five cm from root tip were embedded in 2% plant-agar
158 (Duchefa Biochemie, Haarlem, Netherlands) and sectioned transversally (200 μ m
159 thickness) using a vibrating blade microtome (VT1200S Leica Microsystem GmbH,
160 Wetzlar, Germany). Fresh sections were checked by an optical microscope (Nikon
161 Eclipse 90i, Japan) and mounted on double sided tape (Scotch, 3M 666, USA) bound to
162 microscope glass slides, dried for 24 h, and stored at room temperature until analysis.

163 Laser ablation was performed using the laser system LSX-213 from Teledyne Cetac
164 Technologies (Omaha, NE, USA) and the Photon Machines Analyte G2 ArF ablation
165 system (Photon Machines, Redmond, USA). The commercial ablation cell from

166 Teledyne Cetac Technologies was replaced by a novel Peltier-cooled ablation cell built
167 in-house, with lower washout times that improve the spatial resolution for imaging
168 studies. Two different ICP-MS instruments were coupled to LA: a quadrupole
169 instrument (model Agilent 7700cx; Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) and a
170 double focusing ICP-MS (Element II) from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Bremen,
171 Germany). Depending on the element of interest in the root sections as well as on its
172 spectral interferences, LA-ICP-MS measurements were performed using two possible
173 configurations. Thus, the study of Mn, Zn and Cu spatial distribution in rice roots
174 sections was carried out with the ArF ablation system coupled to the quadrupole ICP-
175 MS, while the analysis of Fe and Si was performed with the laser system LSX-213
176 coupled to the double focusing sector field ICP-MS. Determination of Fe and Si by
177 ICP-MS suffers from important spectral interferences (e.g. $^{40}\text{Ar}^{16}\text{O}^+$, $^{40}\text{Ca}^{16}\text{O}^+$, $^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O}^+$,
178 $^{14}\text{N}_2^+$, $^{14}\text{N}_2^1\text{H}^+$, etc.) and, therefore, ICP-MS was operated at medium mass resolution
179 ($R \sim 4000$) which is enough to obtain the total separation of polyatomic interferences in
180 the determination of the sought isotopes (^{56}Fe , and ^{29}Si). Nonetheless, the signal
181 intensity observed for ^{29}Si in the root sections was very low, and it was not possible to
182 obtain two-dimensional images for this element.

183 Concerning ICP-MS instruments, torch position and ion lens voltage settings
184 were optimized daily with a multi-elemental solution (including Li, Co, In, Y, Ce, and
185 U) of 1 ng g^{-1} in 1% (w/w) HNO_3 . Additionally, LA-ICP-MS coupling was also
186 optimized daily using a SRM NIST 612 glass standard for high sensitivity, low
187 background intensity, and $^{238}\text{U}/^{232}\text{Th}$ signal ratio close to 1 (to ensure a low
188 fractionation effect due to the ICP ionization efficiency). $^{248}\text{ThO}/^{232}\text{Th}$ signal ratio was
189 also measured for controlling oxide formation, being always below 2% and 20%
190 (quadrupole and sector field ICP-MS instruments, respectively) at the selected
191 conditions.

192 The root sections were ablated in scanning mode using a laser beam diameter of
193 $10 \mu\text{m}$. In this way, a two dimensional image that covers the whole section of the root
194 was obtained to evaluate the different distribution of the elements in the structures of
195 the tissue. Optimized analysis conditions for imaging of Cu, Mn, Zn and Fe in rice root
196 sections from different supplementation treatments are summarized in Table 1. Two-
197 dimensional images of elemental distributions were created using ImageJ-Fiji software.
198 The concentration of the elements was not performed but the samples of all treatments

199 were analysed under same work conditions. Therefore, the signal intensity of each
200 element may be directly correlated to the elemental concentration.

201 *2.5. Histochemical staining of Fe with Prussian Blue stain formation*

202 For the histochemical staining with Prussian Blue stain or ferrocyanide reaction, the
203 Roschztardt et al., (2009) protocol was followed. Sections were infiltrated with equal
204 volumes of 4% (v/v) HCl and 4% (w/v) K-ferrocyanide (Perls stain solution) for 15 min
205 and incubated for 30 min at room temperature. Samples were washed with distilled
206 water and observed in an Olympus Szx10 microscope (Fig. 3A-E), and photographs
207 were taken using the Softimaging solutions software.

208 *2.6. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and Energy Dispersive X-ray spectroscopy* 209 *(EDX)*

210 Plant material was analysed by SEM complemented with an energy dispersive X-ray
211 analyser (EDX) following the protocol for elemental analysis and metallocalization
212 study in plant material (de la Fuente et al., 2012). The organs and tissues analysed were
213 roots (root hairs, iron plaque, epidermis, parenchyma, endodermis and vascular
214 cylinder) and leaves (glandular trichomes, epidermis, and vascular cylinder). The root
215 and leaf cross sections have been made at half of their length. An example of SEM-
216 EDX analysis is shown in Fig. 3F-H. Samples were mounted onto conductive graphite
217 stubs and sputters and gold-coated in a BIO-RAD SC 502 apparatus to ensure electrical
218 conductivity and prevent charging under electron beams. Samples were examined with
219 a Hitachi S-3000N (Japan) SEM using an acceleration voltage of 20kV and a working
220 distance of 15 mm. Analyses were performed at room temperature. The qualitative
221 element composition of samples was determined using an INCAx-sight with a Si-Li
222 Detector (Oxford, England) with a detection limit of 10% of the main element. Three X-
223 ray analyses were done for each cell layer to quantify the relative amount of Si and Fe.

224 *2.7. Oxidative stress parameters*

225 Enzymes were extracted from 0.1 g of 21 days-old intact frozen Fe-sufficient roots with
226 1 mL extraction solution, freshly prepared containing 50 mM potassium phosphate
227 buffer at pH 7.8, 2 mM Na₂-EDTA, 10 mM DTT (1,4-Dithiothreitol), 20 mM ascorbic
228 acid, 0.6% PVPP (polyvinyl polypyrrolidone) and 50 µl protease inhibitors cocktail.

229 The extracts were centrifuged at $14,000 \times g$ for 15 min at 4°C . Total superoxide
230 dismutase activity (SOD; EC 1.15.1.1) was assayed according to Giannopolitis and Ries
231 (1977). One unit of SOD activity was defined as the amount of enzyme that causes 50%
232 NBT reduction by superoxide radicals. Catalase activity (CAT, EC 1.11.1.6) was
233 measured by monitoring the decrease in absorbance at 240 nm as a consequence of
234 H_2O_2 consumption (Aebi, 1984). Total phenolic concentration was measured according
235 to Ainsworth and Gillespie (2007) using Folin-Ciocalteu reagent.

236 2.8. Statistical analyses

237 Statistical analysis was carried out with SPSS (v. 24.0), using a Levene test for
238 checking homogeneity of variances and ANOVA or Welch's tests ($p < 0.10$). *Post hoc*
239 multiple comparisons of means were carried out using Duncan's test ($p < 0.10$) or
240 Games-Howell's test ($p < 0.10$).

241 3. Results

242 3.1. Silicon effect on micronutrient localization under Fe-sufficient conditions

243 Micronutrient localization was analysed in rice plants using two different approaches.
244 The first consisted of the collection of a two dimensional (2-D) image for each element
245 (Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn) using a laser ablation system coupled to an ICP-MS (Fig. 1, 2). In
246 this way, it was possible to study the elemental distribution from a root cross section.
247 The second approach consisted of the analysis of Fe concentration at different cell
248 compartments of root and leaf cross sections using SEM-EDX (Table 2, Fig. 3). LA-
249 ICP-MS results showed that $^{56}\text{Fe}^+$ was mainly localized in the outer layers, probably at
250 the epidermis (iron plaque), with heterogeneous distribution. The signal intensity was
251 higher when Si was applied, but Si did not affect Fe distribution (Fig. 1B). Also $^{56}\text{Fe}^+$
252 was localized in the vascular cylinder, but the signal intensity was low, and no
253 differences were observed depending on Si supply. The SEM-EDX determinations
254 showed that in root cross sections, Fe concentration was significantly higher in the root
255 hairs, endodermis, and vascular cylinder when Si was not applied (Table 2). However,
256 in the presence of Si, Fe concentration increased significantly in cells of epidermis and
257 also increased, but not significantly, in the root surface forming the Fe plaque. In the

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258 leaf cross sections, Fe concentration was significantly higher in the cells of the
259 epidermis and the vascular cylinder when Si was not applied (Table 2).

260 Furthermore, oxidative stress parameters were analysed in roots (Fig. 4). Results
261 showed a significant increase of SOD activity and total phenolic concentration after 14
262 days of Si supply, but CAT activity was not affected by Si addition.

263 The study of Mn, Cu and Zn distribution in root cross sections was only performed by
264 LA-ICP-MS. The 2D-images obtained showed that all elements analysed were localized
265 in the outer layers, probably in the epidermis and also in the vascular cylinder. The
266 signal intensity of $^{55}\text{Mn}^+$, $^{63}\text{Cu}^+$ and $^{66}\text{Zn}^+$ in the epidermis and in the vascular cylinder
267 (excluding the emerged secondary root) of Fe-sufficient roots were lower when Si was
268 added to the nutrient solution (Fig. 2B, 2C, 2D).

269 *3.2. Silicon effect on micronutrients localization under Fe-deficient conditions*

270 Results showed that $^{56}\text{Fe}^+$ was mainly localized in the outer layers, probably at
271 epidermis, with a heterogeneous distribution (Fig 1C). The signal intensity was lower
272 when Si was applied, contrary to what has been observed in plants grown with a normal
273 Fe supply. Also $^{56}\text{Fe}^+$ was localized in the vascular cylinder, but the signal intensity was
274 very low, and no differences were observed depending on Si supply (Fig. 1C), similar to
275 what was observed in plants under Fe sufficiency. Moreover, the analysis of the Fe
276 concentration (in percentage) at different cell compartments of root and leaf cross
277 sections carried out by SEM-EDX showed that in the case of roots, the Fe concentration
278 was significantly higher in the cells of the endodermis and the vascular cylinder when
279 Si was applied. In root hairs and epidermis, no significant differences were obtained. In
280 the case of leaves, there were no significant differences in the Fe concentration of the
281 cell layers analysed with respect to Si supply (Table 2).

282 In Fe-deficient roots, the signal intensity of $^{55}\text{Mn}^+$ in the epidermis and in the vascular
283 cylinder increased in an important way with Si application (Fig. 2B). When no Si was
284 applied, the signal of $^{55}\text{Mn}^+$ was localized in spots along the epidermis. The application
285 of Si led to an increase of the $^{63}\text{Cu}^+$ signal intensity in the vascular cylinder, but no
286 differences with respect to Si addition were observed at the root epidermis (Fig. 2C).
287 When Si was applied, it was observed that the signal intensity of $^{63}\text{Cu}^+$ increased in the

288 vascular cylinder. However, the signal intensity of $^{66}\text{Zn}^+$ in the epidermis and in the
289 vascular cylinder did not change with Si application (Fig. 2D).

290 *3.3. Effect of Si application and Fe status on micronutrients concentration*

291 In Fe-sufficient roots (Fig. 5A), the Fe concentration increased significantly (by 4.5-
292 fold), and the Mn concentration decreased significantly (by 2.6-fold) in -Si treatments
293 compared to +Si treatments. The Cu and Zn concentrations were not affected by Si
294 supply (Fig. 5A). The Fe deficiency caused significant increases in Mn, Cu and Zn
295 concentration compared to Fe-sufficient plants. A comparison between the Si treatments
296 showed that for Fe-deficient roots, the Fe concentration increased significantly (by 2-
297 fold), and Mn concentration decreased significantly (1.6-fold) in -Si compare to +Si
298 treatments. Similar to what happened under Fe sufficiency, the Cu and Zn
299 concentrations in the root were not affected by Si supply under Fe deficiency.

300 Furthermore, the ratio shoot/root micronutrient concentration was calculated in rice
301 plants to evaluate the effect of Si on the translocation of Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn to the shoot
302 (Fig. 5B). The shoot/root concentration ratio showed that the Si supply significantly
303 enhanced (by 4-fold) the Fe translocation from root to shoot in Fe-sufficient plants and
304 by 1.6-fold in Fe-deficient plants. However, Si supply significantly decreased the Mn
305 and Zn translocation in Fe-sufficient plants although Cu translocation was not affected.
306 Under Fe deficiency, Mn, Cu and Zn translocation was not affected by Si supply.

307 The root apoplastic Fe concentration was significantly lower in the presence of Si
308 independent of Fe status (Fig. 6A). Interestingly, in Fe-sufficient roots, the Fe
309 apoplastic concentration decreased gradually in -Si, but it remained constant in +Si.
310 Nevertheless, under Fe-deficient conditions the apoplastic Fe in +Si decreased more
311 slowly than in -Si. The Fe concentration in the free Fe apoplastic root tissue (after
312 washing the apoplastic Fe) was significantly higher in the presence of Si under Fe
313 sufficiency, but in Fe-deficient roots, Si supply did not affect it (Fig. 6B).

314 *3.4. Iron status effect on silicon distribution in rice plants*

315 Si concentration (as a percentage) was analysed indifferent cell compartments using
316 SEM-EDX (Table 2). In the roots of Fe-sufficient plants, no differences in the Si
317 concentration were observed in the root hairs, endodermis and in the vascular cylinder

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318 between Si treatments. Although, as expected, in iron plaque, epidermis and
319 parenchyma Si concentration increased when Si was added to the nutrient solution. A
320 similar situation was found in leaves, in which Si concentration increased when Si was
321 added. Roots of Fe-deficient plants showed no differences in Si concentration in root
322 hairs, iron plaque, endodermis and parenchyma between Si-treated and non-treated
323 plants. On the other hand, Si concentration increased, as expected, in the root epidermis
324 and vascular cylinder when Si was supplied, as well as in glandular trichomes, the
325 epidermis and the vascular cylinder of leaves.

326 In the +Si treatments, Si concentration only increased in root parenchyma under Fe
327 sufficiency and in the root vascular cylinder under Fe deficiency. In leaf, an increase in
328 Si concentration was only found in the glandular trichomes under Fe deficiency. In the -
329 Si treatments, Si concentration was higher in the epidermis and endodermis of the roots
330 with Fe in the nutrient solution. No differences have been observed in leaf Si
331 concentration related to the Fe nutrition of the plants.

332 **4. Discussion**

333 *4.1. Silicon effect on micronutrient concentration and localization under Fe-sufficient* 334 *conditions*

335 Silicon application to the nutrient solution of rice plants affected the Fe concentration
336 and localization in root and leaf in a different way depending on the Fe status. Under Fe
337 sufficiency, Si supply favoured the Fe deposition in the root surface (iron plaque) on the
338 epidermis (Fig.1, Fig. 3G, Table 2). Iron plaque is abundantly formed on root surfaces
339 of common aquatic plants such as paddy rice (Wu et al., 2012). Moore et al., (2011)
340 indicated that its formation occurred exclusively outside the exodermal cells, probably
341 due to the blockage by the Casparian strip. The Fe distribution was not homogeneous
342 along the epidermis; there were distinct regions of accumulation along the outer edge of
343 the epidermis and along the boundary of the exodermis where entry is blocked. These
344 authors also showed that Fe plaque is composed of fine needles approximately 10 nm
345 thick and 200 to 300 nm long, and this is why the Fe plaque does not appear as a sharp
346 line in the nanoSIMS images (Moore et al., 2011). This fact was also evident in our
347 study (Fig.3G), in which, using SEM-EDX analysis, a discontinuous Fe accumulation
348 was detected along the root surface. The high standard deviation in Fe concentration

349 determined by EDX quantification of the Fe plaque also showed this heterogeneity
350 (Table 2). Experimental results obtained by LA-ICP-MS also supported this fact,
351 showing discontinuous spots in the outer layers (Fig.1B, C). However, the mechanism
352 behind the uneven formation of Fe plaque is poorly understood. Moreover, previous
353 studies demonstrated that there were many factors influencing the formation of Fe
354 plaque, such as radial oxygen loss (ROL), genotype, pH, Eh and presence of
355 microorganisms (Wu et al., 2012). Other factors, such as the presence of Si, can
356 significantly increase Fe plaque formation (Wu et al., 2016). Fe plaque contains ferric
357 hydroxides (63%), goethite (32%) and minor concentrations of siderite (5%), whose
358 structure was characterized as amorphous or crystalline iron (oxyhydr) oxides. Iron
359 oxides are able to combine with silicate to form iron silicate and deposit on root
360 surfaces, or Si may precipitate as negatively charged silica particles in which Fe and
361 other positive charge elements could be absorbed (Liu and Zhu, 2005). This would lead
362 to the depletion of Fe and the rest of micronutrients from the solution (Liu and Zhu,
363 2005) and, therefore, the reduction in the micronutrient uptake into the plant (Howeler,
364 1973). Kirk and Bajita (1995) have demonstrated that Fe oxidation in the rice
365 rhizosphere causes a substantial solubilisation of Zn from highly insoluble fractions in
366 soil and that the solubilized Zn can be re-adsorbed by amorphous Fe(OH)₃.
367 LA-ICP-MS results presented here (Fig.1) showed that the ⁵⁶Fe⁺ signal intensity in the
368 outer layers was higher when Si was applied, but Si did not affect Fe distribution. In our
369 experimental conditions, iron was applied as Fe (III)-EDTA in the nutrient solution at a
370 pH of 7.5. The low stability of this chelate at pH > 6.5 leads to Fe plaque formation. By
371 contrast, Si supply decreased the Fe concentration in the root hairs, root endodermis,
372 root vascular cylinder, leaf vascular cylinder and leaf epidermis (Table 2). These areas
373 are directly related to Fe absorption and Fe transport inside the plant. As we mentioned
374 above, the presence of Si increased the iron plaque on the root surface, possibly limiting
375 the entry of Fe into the plant. A proposed hypothesis indicates that Si addition enhances
376 the oxidation capacity of rice roots and therefore increases Fe precipitation in the
377 growth media or at the root surface, forming the Fe plaque (Fu et al., 2012). The Fe
378 plaque may acts as a barrier reducing the Fe uptake by the plant (Batty and Younger
379 2003). This hypothesis was supported by the lower Fe concentration in the root tissue
380 (Fig. 5A) and in the root apoplast (Fig. 6A) of rice plants when Si was supplied under
381 Fe-sufficient conditions (it should be taken into account that Fe plaque has been
382 removed by acid-washing procedures, see Materials and Methods section). This

383 condition may activate Fe deficiency strategies in Fe-sufficient plants. An opposite Si
384 effect on Fe absorption was observed in soybean plants (Gonzalo et al., 2013), where Si
385 supply increased the Fe concentration in root and leaf tissue under Fe sufficiency. This
386 shows the influence of plant species on Si effect on micronutrient absorption.

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388 Total Fe concentration was subdivided into Fe concentration in the apoplast and Fe in
389 the free apoplastic tissue after washing the apoplast. Si addition contributed to a
390 decrease in the apoplastic Fe concentration in Fe-sufficient rice roots in comparison to –
391 Si treatment, but maintained the apoplastic Fe concentration constant over time (Fig.
392 6A). However, when Si was not applied, the apoplastic Fe was gradually consumed. An
393 opposite effect was observed under Fe sufficient conditions in cucumber plants, since Si
394 addition increased the apoplastic Fe concentration in roots in comparison with -Si
395 treatment (Pavlovic et al., 2013). The cation binding capacity of the apoplast cell walls
396 can contribute significantly to this effect; further research is needed to clarify this
397 finding and to compare the cell wall composition under +Si and –Si. On the other hand,
398 Fe concentration on the apoplastic free root tissue (Fig. 6B) was significantly higher in
399 the presence of Si under Fe sufficiency. This was correlated to the LA-ICP-MS images
400 (Fig. 1B). Finally, a higher Fe translocation from root to shoot in Fe-sufficient plants
401 (Fig. 5B) was obtained. Consistent with our results, Fu *et al.* (2012) reported that Si
402 application in rice increased Fe transportation from root to shoot under Fe sufficiency.
403 The proposed mechanisms that increase the Fe transport under Fe-sufficient conditions
404 comprises Fe plaque formation that induced Fe deficiency under a normal Fe supply;
405 the Fe deficiency mechanisms were activated, increasing the Fe transport to the shoot
406 (Fig. 5B). The induction of Fe deficiency by Si was also supported by the increase of
407 SOD activity (Fig. 4A) and total phenolic compounds (Fig. 4C) in root. Several authors
408 have reported that Fe deficiency enhanced SOD activity in leaves of peach, *Medicago*
409 *ciliaris*, maize and rape (M'sehli et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2007; Tewari et al., 2013), and
410 also increased the phenolic accumulation in roots of red clover (Jin et al., 2007) and
411 *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Siso-Terraza et al., 2016). Both parameters play an important role
412 in protecting plants against oxidative damage caused by Fe deficiency.

413 Manganese, Cu, and Zn signal intensities were lower when Si was added to the nutrient
414 solution (Fig. 2). These elements were localized mainly in the outer layers, probably in
415 the cell walls of the epidermis which contain negatively charged sites that bind metal

416 ions (Sattelmacher, 2001). Also, these elements may be retained by the iron plaque due
417 to adsorption or co-precipitation mechanisms (Liu and Zhu, 2005). Otte *et al.* (1989)
418 and Zhang *et al.* (1998) suggested that an increase in the root surface covered with iron
419 plaque (which is favoured by Si addition), diluted the global Zn concentration in plaque,
420 which gave lower signal intensity. The same could be ascribed to Mn and Cu
421 distribution.

422 Moreover, the Mn transporters (OsNramp5; OsMTP9) are localized in the plasma
423 membrane of the epidermis and exodermis of rice roots (Sasaki *et al.*, 2012), so a
424 greater amount of this element is expected at these locations. Little is known about the
425 molecular mechanisms for Zn and Cu uptake in rice (Sasaki *et al.*, 2016). Under
426 reducing conditions, Mn is maintained as soluble Mn^{2+} , but under ROL this Mn^{2+}
427 should be oxidized to Mn^{4+} and precipitated as MnO_2 at the root outer layers. In the case
428 of $^{63}Cu^+$ and $^{66}Zn^+$ elemental images, the signal intensity decreased in the vascular
429 cylinder (Fig. 2C, 2D) when Si was applied.

430 *4.2. Silicon's effect on micronutrients' concentration and localization under Fe-* 431 *deficient conditions*

432 Under Fe deficiency, Si supply significantly increased Fe concentration in endodermal
433 and vascular cylinder cells of roots (Table 2) compared to the epidermal cells and root
434 surface. Although the SEM-EDX analysis did not show significant differences in the
435 percentage of Fe deposited in the root surface and in the epidermis depending on Si
436 supply, elemental images obtained by LA-ICP-MS for $^{56}Fe^+$ indicated that the signal
437 intensity of Fe in the outer layers of root decreased with Si application (Fig. 1C). Since
438 no more Fe was added to the nutrient solution, Fe plaque formed during the Fe
439 sufficient period could function as an Fe source on plant demand. Rice plants may
440 release phytosiderophores (PS) to solubilize this Fe (III) from Fe plaque and take it up
441 into the plant under Fe-deficient conditions. The chelation strategy is less sensitive to
442 pH than the reduction strategy (Morrissey and Guerinot, 2009), so under our
443 experimental condition (pH 7.5), the transport of Fe-PS appears to be predominant.
444 Therefore, the plant responds to Fe deficiency increasing the phytosiderofore (PS)
445 production that will allow solubilisation of the Fe plaque and translocation of the Fe to
446 the shoot. The higher Fe translocation rate from root to shoot observed in rice plants
447 with Si supply at Fe deficiency (Fig. 5B) may reduce the Fe concentration in the outer

1 448 layers. As observed in Fe-sufficient plants, the Fe distribution along the epidermis of
2 449 rice roots was heterogeneous, showing spots of accumulation along the outer layer (Fig.
3 450 1C). Silicon supply decreased Fe concentration in root tissue (Fig. 5A) and in root
4 451 apoplast (Fig. 6A), as occurred under Fe sufficiency. As such, the remaining iron plaque
5 452 continued to act as a barrier reducing Fe uptake by the plant. An opposite Si effect on
6 453 Fe absorption were observed in cucumber plants; since Si supply increased Fe
7 454 concentration in leaf and root tissue, under Fe deficiency (Pavlovic et al., 2013;
8 455 Bityutskii et al., 2013) attributed to a high amount of Fe in the root apoplastic pools
9 456 when Si was added (Pavlovic et al., 2013). However, Si supply had no effect on root Fe
10 457 concentration of Fe-deficient soybean plants (Gonzalo et al., 2013). The different
11 458 responses observed in soybean, cucumber and rice suggest that the effect of Si in plants
12 459 grown under iron deficiency was plant-specific. It should be noted that the total Fe
13 460 concentration of Fe-sufficient rice roots was similar to the total Fe concentration of rice
14 461 roots after four days of Fe deficiency in presence of Si (Fig. 5A). This may be explained
15 462 by the fact that the rice roots were washed with 0.3 % HCl (v/v) before Fe
16 463 determination such that the Fe plaque deposited in the root surface was removed.

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30 464 From the viewpoint of plant mineral nutrition, the apoplast appears to be of interest
31 465 since the mineral elements may be adsorbed or fixed to cell wall components which can
32 466 serve as storage for nutrient acquisition. Silicon-supplied plants showed a significantly
33 467 lower Fe concentration in the root apoplast, but the depletion of this Fe pool was slower
34 468 than in -Si plants (Fig. 6A). Similar results were observed in cucumber, but after the
35 469 first day of Fe deficiency, no differences regarding plant Si addition were observed
36 470 (Pavlovic et al., 2013). This lower apoplastic Fe concentration observed in root with Si
37 471 supply was accompanied by higher Fe translocation to shoot (Fig. 5B). By contrast,
38 472 Pavlovic et al., (2013) found a significant decrease (about two-fold) in Fe root-to-shoot
39 473 translocation rate in Fe-deficient cucumber when Si was applied. However, Si
40 474 application in Fe-deficient cucumber increased the citrate concentration in the xylem
41 475 sap. Indirect evidence for long distance organic ligand-assisted transport of metals has
42 476 been extensively reported. Possible ligand candidates are a range of small molecules,
43 477 including carboxylates such as citrate and malate, amino acids including nicotianamine,
44 478 histidine, cysteine and PS (Alvarez-Fernandez et al., 2014).

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52 479 Localization of Mn and Cu was also affected by Si supply under Fe-deficient
53 480 conditions, increasing their signals not only in the outer layer but also in the vascular

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481 cylinder in a significant manner (Fig. 2B, C). In +Si plants, the high $^{55}\text{Mn}^+$ signal
482 intensity at the vascular cylinder (Fig. 2B) suggests the profusely described Fe/Mn
483 antagonism; this effect was not relevant under Si deficiency. This may also be related to
484 an increase in root to shoot translocation, not only for Fe, but for the rest of
485 micronutrients favoured by Si. Moreover, the higher signal intensity for $^{55}\text{Mn}^+$ in the
486 root outer layers also suggests the Fe deficiency induced higher Mn uptake (Fig. 5A).
487 Regarding total metal concentration, it seems that the absorption of Mn, Cu, and Zn into
488 the root was mainly influenced by Fe status, not by Si supply. Even Mn concentration in
489 +Si was significantly higher, suggesting the blocking activity of the plaque on Fe uptake
490 enhanced the antagonistic effect with Mn. The higher concentration of these metals in
491 the root tissue in -Fe conditions (Fig.4A) was likely due to the increased abundance of
492 the corresponding plasma membrane metal transporters (IRT1) or Fe-chelating
493 compounds (PS) resulting from the deficiency of Fe which have a poor metal specificity
494 and are capable of taking up other divalent metals in addition to the one involved in the
495 deficiency (Morrissey and Guerinot, 2009). By contrast, Bityutskii et al., (2014) found
496 that in Fe-deficient cucumber Si addition decreased Mn and Zn concentration in root
497 and leaf tissues compared to -Si treatment, probably as a consequence of the increase of
498 Fe due to the Si supply.

34 499 *4.3. Iron status effect on silicon distribution in rice plants*

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500 Two transporters (Lsi1 and Lsi2) for Si uptake have been identified in rice (Ma et al.,
501 2006; 2007). Lsi1 is responsible for the uptake of Si from soil into the root cells (influx
502 transporter; Ma et al., 2006), and Lsi2 is responsible for the subsequent transport of Si
503 out of the cortical cells towards the stele (efflux transporter; Ma et al., 2007). Lsi1 and
504 Lsi2 are located in both endo- and exodermis cell layers of rice roots (Sasaki et al.,
505 2016). They are mainly expressed in the mature zone of the root, but not in the root
506 hairs (Ma et al., 2007; Yamaji and Ma, 2007; 2011). The SEM-EDX confirmed that in
507 the roots of the plants treated with either Fe condition, no differences related to Si
508 supply were observed in the root hairs, possibly because Lsi1 and Lsi2 were not
509 expressed. These transporters are downregulated when Si is present in the media (Sasaki
510 et al., 2016). On the contrary, differences related to Si supply were observed in the
511 endodermis; in -Si plants, Si concentration in the endodermis (originally from the seed)
512 was higher under Fe sufficiency, indicating a possible Fe modulation of Si transporters.
513 In +Si plants, no differences were observed related to the Fe status as these transporters

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514 were downregulated due to the presence of Si, and Fe did not seem to exert any
515 influence on them. A similar situation has been found in Fe plaque, epidermis and in
516 endodermis. Further research using genetic approaches would be necessary to confirm
517 this.

518 **5. Conclusions**

519 A different Si effect was observed depending on plant Fe status. Under Fe sufficiency,
520 Si supply increased Fe root plaque formation. This plaque acts as a barrier, reducing Fe
521 uptake and, in turn, inducing Fe deficiency and oxidative stress signals in the plants. In
522 contrast, Mn, Cu and Zn concentration in roots decreased when Si was added. Under Fe
523 deficiency, +Si plants absorbed Fe from the plaque more efficiently than –Si plants; the
524 previous activation of Fe deficiency strategies during the growing period (+Fe)
525 decreased the Fe concentration in roots. However, Si supply significantly increased Mn
526 uptake, clearly showing Fe/Mn antagonism, as well as the Cu concentration, suggesting
527 a Fe/Cu antagonism, due to the non-specificity of transporters. In conclusion, as Si is an
528 essential element for rice, special care should be taken to avoid crop losses due to a Si-
529 induced Fe, Mn, Cu, and/or Zn deficiency.

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670 [colour Fig.]Fig. 1 Distribution of Fe obtained by LA-ICP-MS in a root cross section of
671 rice grown in Fe-sufficient (+Fe) or Fe-deficient (-Fe) conditions with (+Si) or without
672 (-Si) supply. (A) Optical image of the area analysed, (B) Qualitative distribution of
673 $^{56}\text{Fe}^+$ along the root cross section, (C) Qualitative distribution of $^{56}\text{Fe}^+$ along the root
674 cross section with a lower scale to emphasize the differences. The scale bar is in counts
675 s^{-1} .

676 [colour Fig.]Fig. 2 Qualitative images obtained by LA-ICP-MS from the root cross
677 section of rice grown in Fe-sufficient (+Fe) or Fe-deficient (-Fe) conditions with (+Si)
678 or without (-Si) supply. (A) Optical image of the area analysed, (B) manganese ($^{55}\text{Mn}^+$),
679 (C) copper ($^{63}\text{Cu}^+$), and (D) zinc ($^{66}\text{Zn}^+$). The scale bar is in counts s^{-1} .

680 [colour Fig.]Fig. 3 A selection of optical root tissues of rice stained with Perls blue: (A)
681 apical young meristem, and root cross sections grown in (B) Fe- and Si-sufficient
682 conditions (+Fe +Si), (C) Fe-sufficient and Si-deficient conditions (+Fe -Si), (D) Fe-
683 deficient and Si-sufficient conditions (-Fe +Si) and (E) Fe- and Si- deficient conditions
684 (-Fe -Si). Ep: epidermis; P: parenchyma; En: endodermis; Vc: vascular cylinder. A
685 selection of the SEM images and EDX analysis after Perls staining of the Fe and Si
686 concentration in: (F) root hair, (G) plaque, (H) vascular cylinder of the rice root grown
687 in Fe- and Si- sufficient (+Fe+Si) conditions.

688 Fig. 4 Effect of Si supply on enzyme activities (A) SOD and (B) CAT, and (C) total
689 phenolic concentration of Fe-sufficient rice roots grown with 1.5 mM H_4SiO_4 during 14
690 days. Data are means \pm SE (n=3). Significant differences between treatments ($P < 0.05$)
691 are indicated by different letters according to Duncan's test.

692 Fig. 5 Effect of Si supply on Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn distribution within the plant tissue of
693 rice grown in Fe-sufficient (+Fe) or Fe-deficient (-Fe) conditions. (A) Total
694 concentration in root and (B) translocation factor (ratio shoot/root concentration). Data
695 are means \pm SE (n=3). Significant differences between treatments ($P < 0.10$) are
696 indicated by different letters according to Duncan's test.

697 Fig. 6 Fe concentration in (A) the root apoplast at day 1, 4 and 7 of Fe-deficiency and in
698 (B) the apoplast root tissue at day 7 of Fe-deficient rice. The black line indicates growth
699 without Si (-Si), the grey line with Si (+Si), the continuous line is Fe sufficient (+Fe),

700 and the dotted line Fe deficient (-Fe). Data are means \pm SE (n=3). Significant
701 differences between treatments ($P < 0.10$) are indicated by different letters according to
702 Duncan's test.

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704 **Tables**

705 **Table 1** Operating conditions of the ICP-MS and laser ablation instruments for imaging
 706 studies of rice roots sections

ICP-MS	Thermo Element 2	7700cx ICP-MS
RF Power	1330 W	1600 W
Cooling gas	15.5 L min ⁻¹	15 L min ⁻¹
Auxiliary gas	0.8 L min ⁻¹	1.0 L min ⁻¹
Nebuliser gas (Ar)	0.8 L min ⁻¹	1.0 L min ⁻¹
Cones	Ni (skimmer and sampler)	Ni (skimmer and sampler)
Isotopes	²⁹ Si, ⁵⁶ Fe	⁶⁶ Zn, ⁶³ Cu, ⁵⁵ Mn
Sample time	5 ms	10 ms
Mass window	100%	-
Samples per peak	10	-
LA System	LSX-213	Analytes G2 ArF
Laser Energy	100% (~3.6 mJ)	100% (~7 mJ)
Repetition rate	5 Hz	15 Hz
Spot diameter	10 μm	10 μm
Scan speed	5 μm s ⁻¹	5 μm s ⁻¹
Ablation mode	single line scan	single line scan
Carrier gas (He)	1 L min ⁻¹	0.9 L min ⁻¹

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708 **Table 2** SEM-EDX analysis of the Fe and Si concentration (%) in the different cell
 709 layers of the rice root and rice leaf. Data are means \pm SD (n=3). Significant differences
 710 between treatments ($P < 0.1$) within the same line are indicated by different letters.

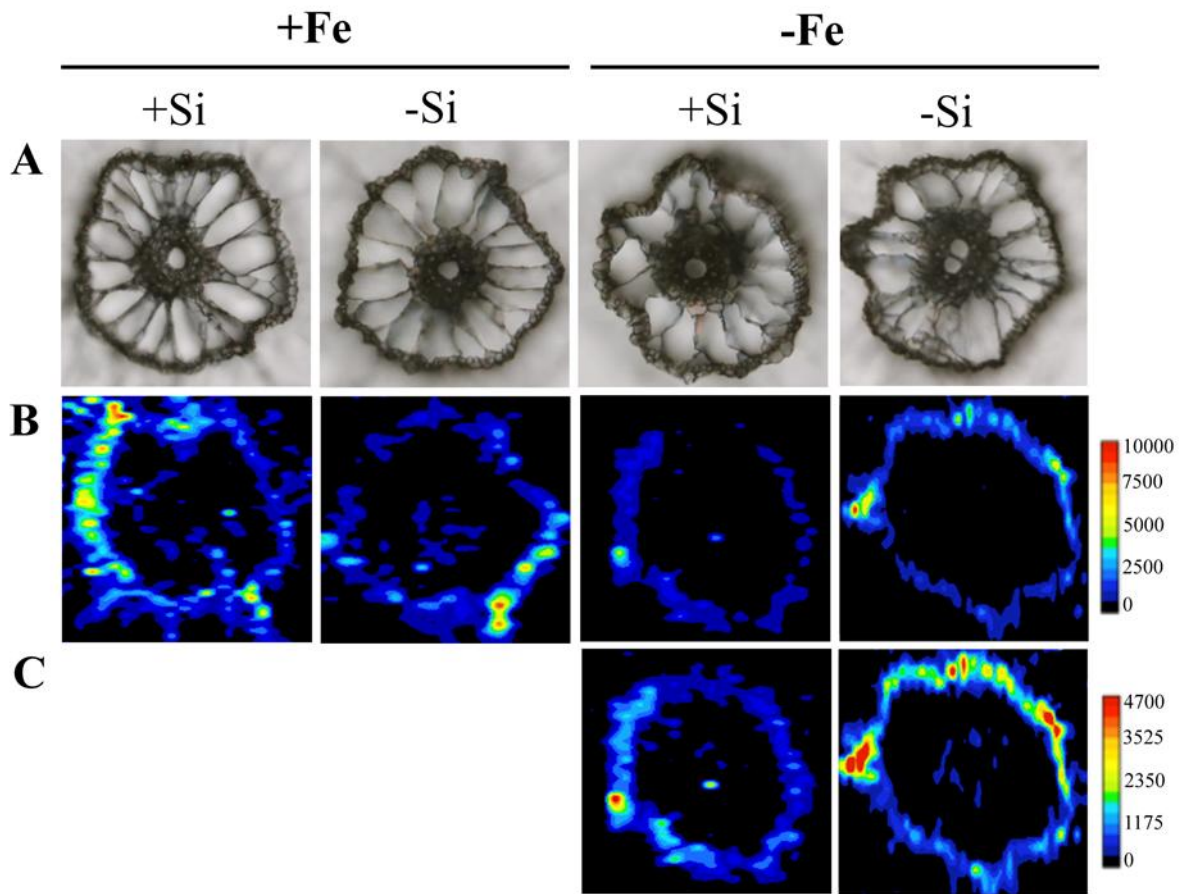
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		%	Fe-sufficiency		Fe-deficiency	
			+Si	-Si	+Si	-Si
Root	Root-hairs	Si	0.00 \pm 0.00 a	0.04 \pm 0.08 a	0.00 \pm 0.00 a	0.06 \pm 0.10 a
		Fe	1.56 \pm 0.63 b	2.57 \pm 0.94 a	1.74 \pm 0.43 ab	0.54 \pm 0.28 b
	Plaque	Si	0.30 \pm 0.18 a	0.00 \pm 0.00 c	0.18 \pm 0.11 ab	0.07 \pm 0.07 bc
		Fe	2.21 \pm 1.53 a	0.98 \pm 0.07 ab	1.70 \pm 0.60 ab	0.00 \pm 0.00 b
	Epidermis	Si	0.35 \pm 0.12 a	0.20 \pm 0.02 c	0.26 \pm 0.07 ab	0.14 \pm 0.03 d
		Fe	1.35 \pm 0.31 b	0.67 \pm 0.80 a	1.38 \pm 0.49 b	0.60 \pm 0.11 b
	Endodermis	Si	0.31 \pm 0.11 ab	0.52 \pm 0.24 a	0.29 \pm 0.04 ab	0.21 \pm 0.06 b
		Fe	1.25 \pm 0.60 bc	5.44 \pm 0.70 a	1.53 \pm 0.39 b	0.50 \pm 0.16 c
	Parenchyma	Si	0.28 \pm 0.06 a	0.11 \pm 0.04 b	0.08 \pm 0.01 b	0.14 \pm 0.04 b
		Fe	1.26 \pm 0.19 a	1.10 \pm 0.04 a	0.45 \pm 0.05 b	0.43 \pm 0.05 b
	Vascular cylinder	Si	0.16 \pm 0.05 b	0.15 \pm 0.05 b	0.31 \pm 0.04 a	0.05 \pm 0.09 b
		Fe	0.58 \pm 0.27 b	2.16 \pm 0.83 a	1.61 \pm 0.64 a	0.27 \pm 0.08 b
Leaf	Glandular trichomes	Si	6.78 \pm 1.44 b	2.32 \pm 0.42 c	12.43 \pm 1.04 a	3.64 \pm 0.27 c
		Fe	1.23 \pm 0.20 a	0.92 \pm 0.24 a	0.32 \pm 0.10 b	0.17 \pm 0.06 b
	Epidermis	Si	17.59 \pm 4.62 a	1.06 \pm 0.45 c	15.28 \pm 5.21 a	0.58 \pm 0.28 c
		Fe	1.01 \pm 0.25 b	2.21 \pm 0.76 a	0.00 \pm 0.00 bc	0.15 \pm 0.09 c
	Vascular cylinder	Si	1.98 \pm 0.22 a	0.11 \pm 0.13 b	1.67 \pm 0.38 a	0.34 \pm 0.14 b
		Fe	0.34 \pm 0.17 b	1.99 \pm 0.86 a	0.52 \pm 0.05 b	0.32 \pm 0.11 b

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714 **Fig. 1**

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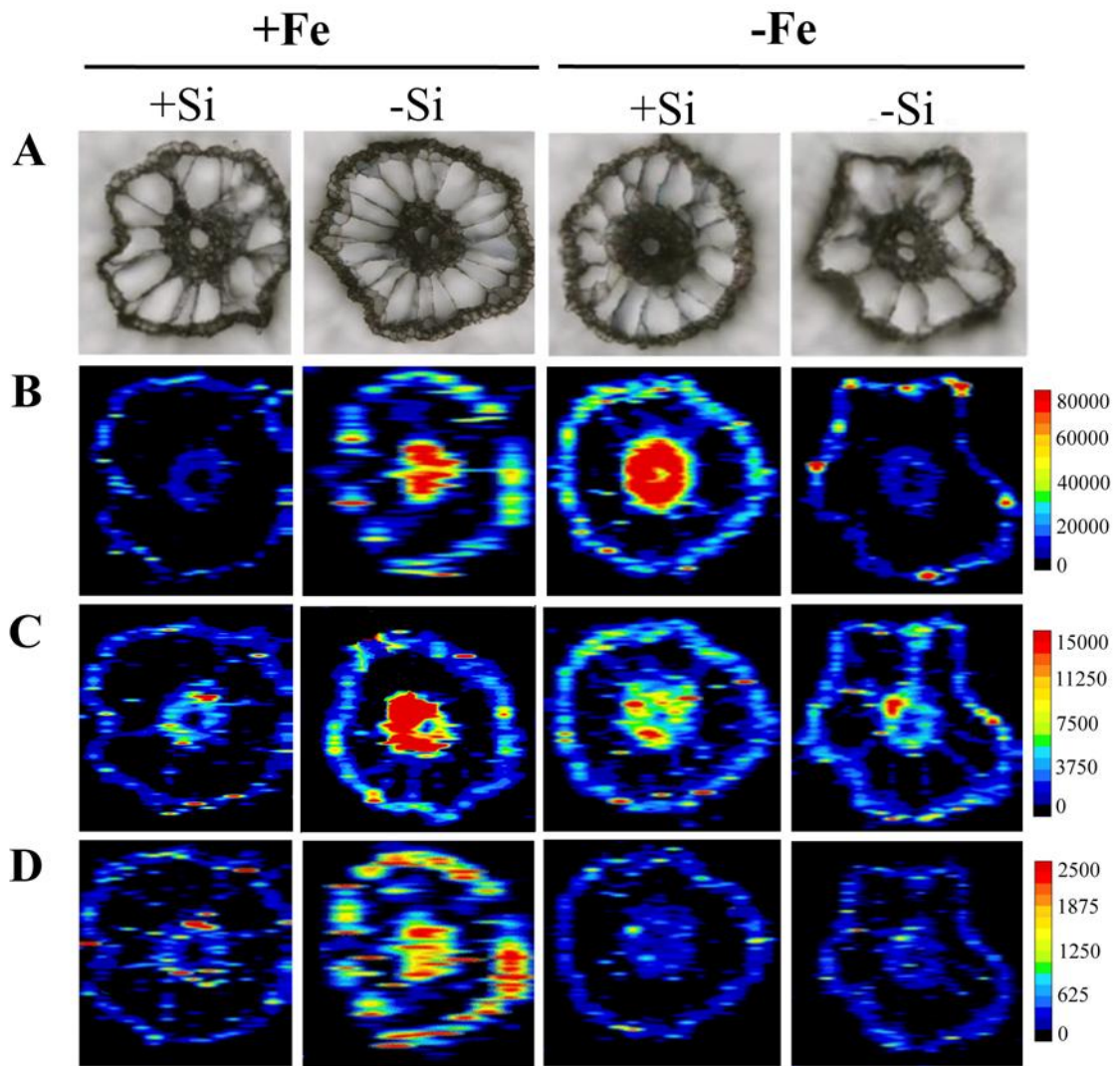


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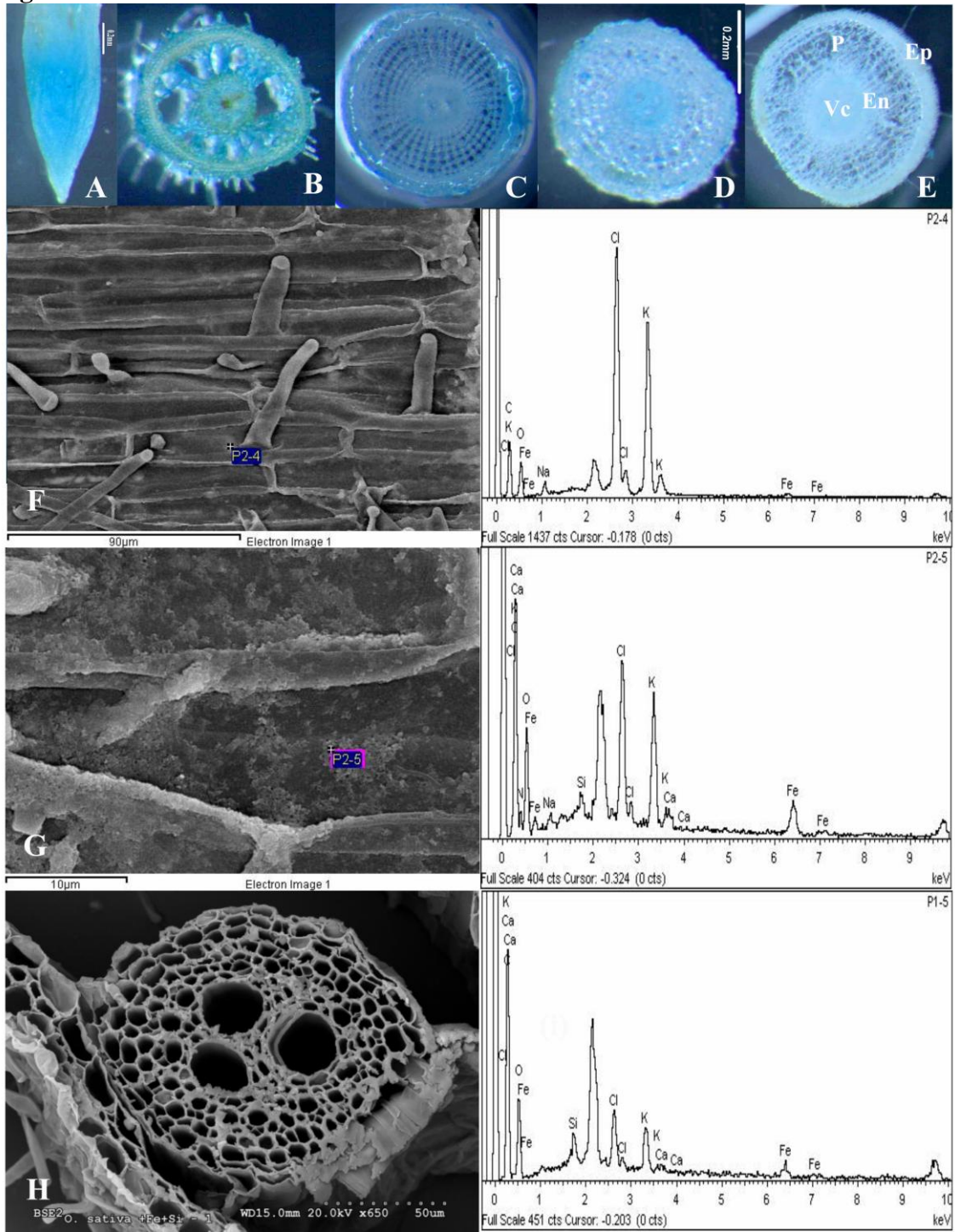
718 **Fig. 2**

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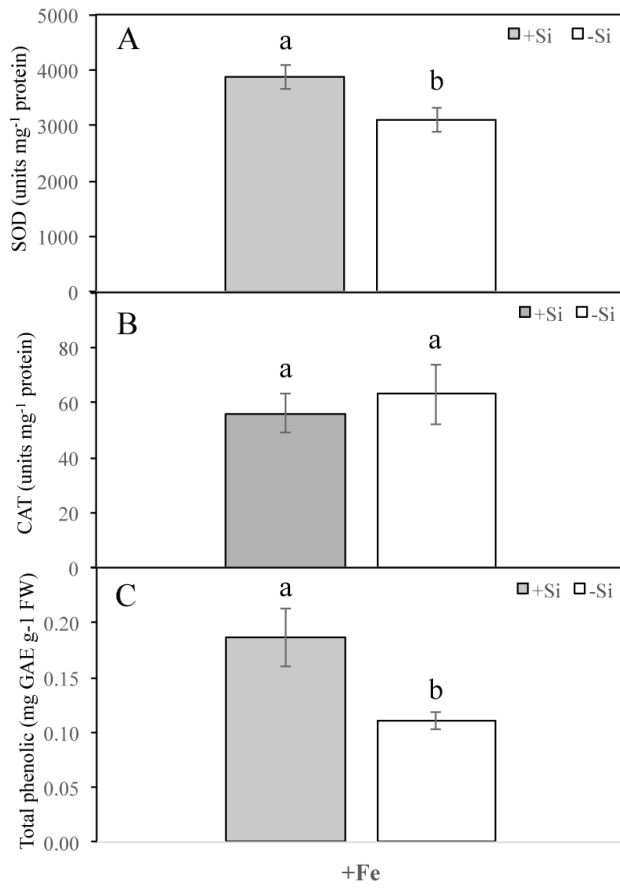
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723 **Fig. 3**



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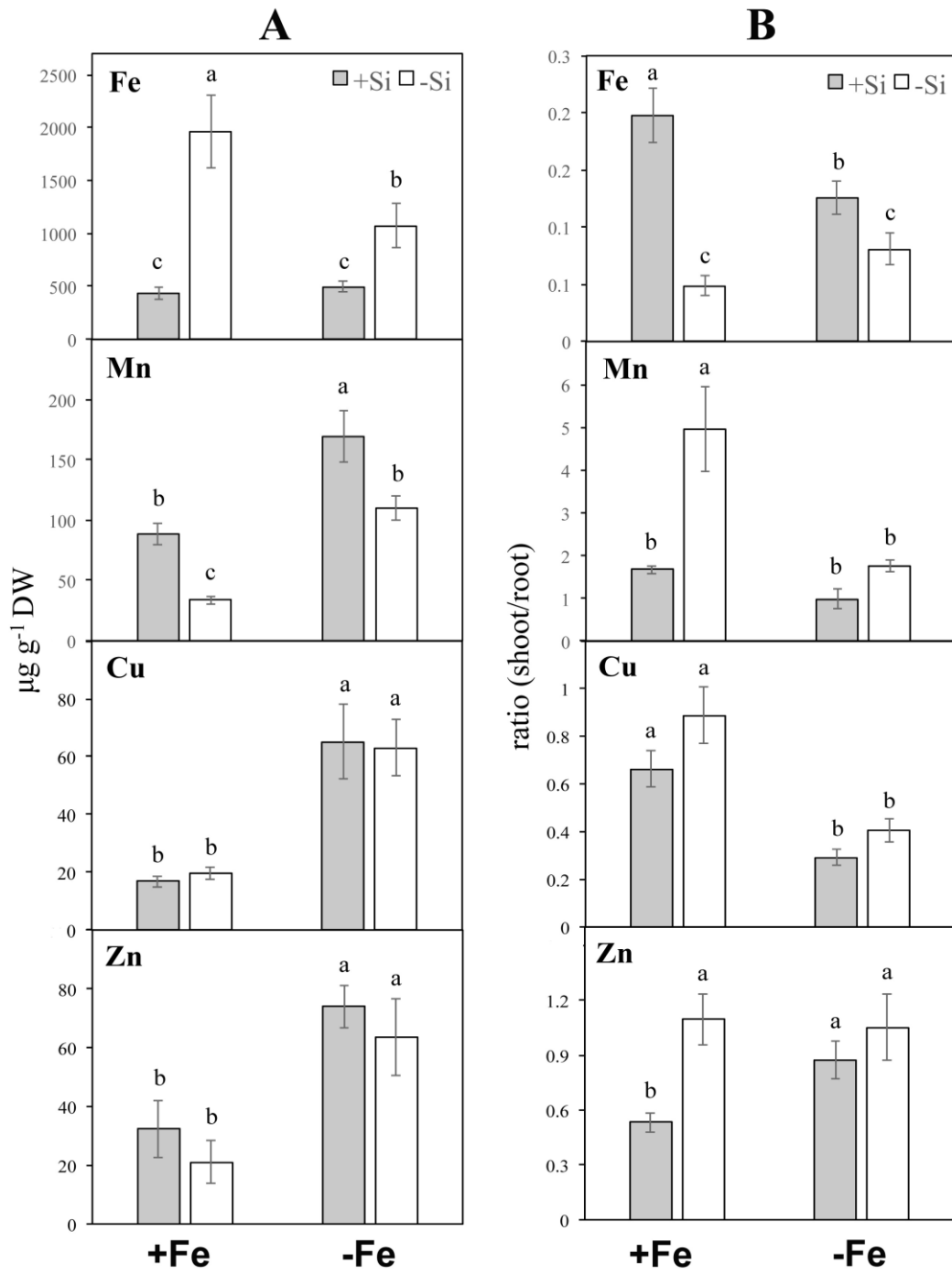
726 **Fig. 4**



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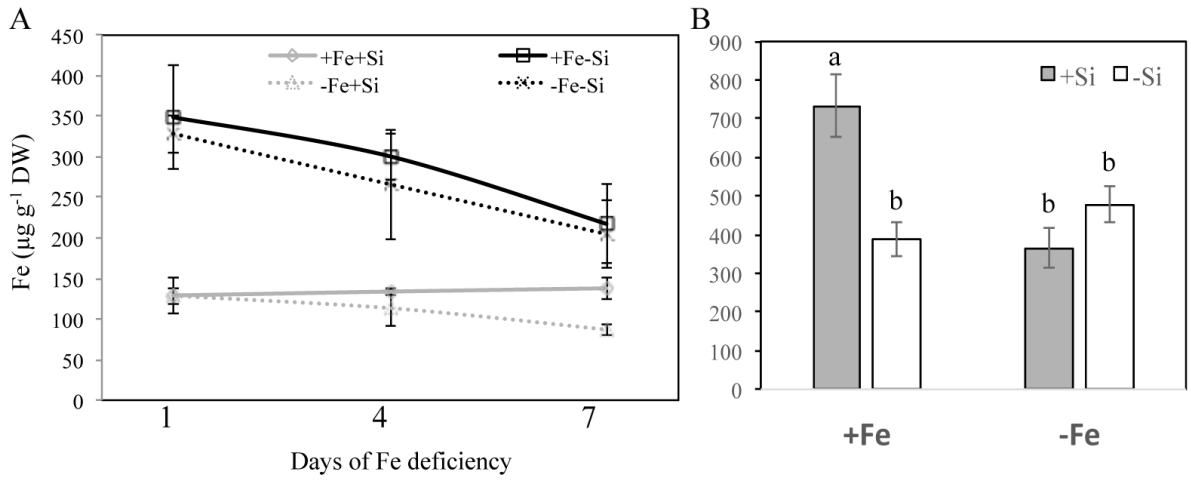
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729 **Fig. 5**



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732 **Fig. 6**



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CONTRIBUTIONS

SC-G carried out experiments, SR-M, BF and RP analysed samples by laser ablation; LH-A and VdF analysed samples by SEM-EDX; SC-G and LH-A planned research and wrote the paper.