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Crop acquisition of phosphorus, iron and zinc from soil in cereal/legume intercropping systems: A critical review

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Abstract

• *Background* Phosphorus (P), iron (Fe) and zinc (Zn) are essential elements for plant growth and development but their availability in soil is often limited. Intercropping contributes to increased P, Fe and Zn uptake and thereby increases yield and improves grain nutritional quality and ultimately human health. A better understanding how intercropping leads to increased plant P, Fe and Zn availability helps to improve P-fertilizer-use efficiency and agronomic Fe and Zn biofortification.

• *Scope* This review synthesizes the literature on how intercropping of legumes with cereals increases acquisition of P, Fe and Zn from soil and recapitulates what is known about root-to-shoot nutrient translocation, plant-internal nutrient remobilization and allocation to grains.

• *Conclusions* Direct interspecific facilitation in intercropping involves below-ground processes in which cereals increase Fe and Zn bioavailability while companion legumes benefit. This has been demonstrated and verified using isotopic nutrient tracing and molecular analysis. The same methodological approaches and field studies should be used to explore direct interspecific P facilitation. Both niche complementarity and interspecific facilitation contribute to increased P acquisition in intercropping. Niche complementarity may also contribute to increased Fe and Zn acquisition, an aspect poorly understood. Interspecific mobilization and uptake facilitation of sparingly soluble P, Fe and Zn from soil, however, do not solely determine concentrations of P, Fe and Zn in grains. Grain yield and nutrient translocation from roots to shoots further influence the concentrations of these nutrients in grains.

Key words: Biofortification, cereals, intercropping, interspecific facilitation, legumes, micronutrients, niche complementarity, phosphorus, rhizosphere, root architecture, root exudates, soil microbes.

INTRODUCTION

Agricultural phosphorus (P) inputs have greatly increased soil fertility and crop production worldwide. However, excessive applications of P fertilizers and P-rich manures have led to an accumulation of P in many soils, which lowers P-fertilizer-use efficiency and leads to P losses via runoff and eutrophication of surface waters (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). It is therefore important to enhance P-use efficiency in crop production through optimized application of P fertilizers and utilization of residual P and other P pools from soils. Root-microbe-soil interactions may play a key role in the effective use of P in this respect (Shen *et al.*, 2013).

Deficiencies of iron (Fe) and zinc (Zn) in food are a global problem, impairing human health in general and development of children and pregnant and lactating women in particular (Stein, 2010). Micronutrient biofortification, the process of enriching micronutrients including Fe and Zn in the edible parts of crops, represents a sustainable, economical and easily implementable solution to overcome micronutrient malnutrition (Bevis, 2015). Biofortification can be achieved through management of crops and soils, and by plant breeding and genetic transformation. Recent studies on micronutrient biofortification have focused on management practices in single-species cropping (Xue *et al.*, 2012, 2014*a*, *b*, *c*; Soltani *et al.*, 2014), but less work has been done in intercropping systems.

Intercropping systems play an important role in increasing crop yield and quality and environmental quality through efficient utilization of land, light, water and soil nutrients (Brooker *et al.*, 2015). It is defined as growing individuals of at least two crop species in close proximity at (about) the same time, leading to enhanced interspecific interactions and crop diversity (L. Li *et al.*, 2014). The mechanisms underlying overall yield increase (over-yielding) of intercropping compared to monocropping systems have been explained by two major ecological principles leading to improved resource use: niche complementarity and interspecific facilitation (Fridley, 2001; Hauggaard-Nielsen and Jensen, 2005; Li *et al.*, 2007). The niche complementarity hypothesis suggests reduced competition due to complementary use of resources and niche differentiation between intercropped species in time, in space or in forms of a given resource (Tilman *et al.*, 2001).

Interspecific facilitation, as defined by Callaway (1995), is a beneficial effect of the individuals of one species on the growth or survival of the individuals of another species. This can occur directly through positive mechanisms, e.g. the amelioration of harsh environmental conditions, including favorable alteration of light, temperature and soil moisture and increased availability of a limiting soil nutrient (Sekiya *et al.*, 2011; L. Li *et al.*, 2014). Alternatively, facilitation may occur indirectly, e.g. via stimulation of beneficial soil microbes to release nutrients during mineralization of organic matter, mobilization of sparingly soluble inorganic nutrients, or transfer of nutrients through common mycorrhizal networks linking co-cultivated crop plant species (Bainard *et al.*, 2012; Walder *et al.*, 2012; Ehrmann and Ritz, 2013; Sun *et al.*, 2013; Tong *et al.*, 2015).

Most studies of nutrient efficiency in cereal/legume intercropping systems are concerned about nitrogen (N), especially with regard to legume N_2 fixation. Both hypotheses of 'niche complementarity' and 'interspecific facilitation' have been used mainly to explain such N use in legume/cereal intercropping systems (Hinsinger *et al.*, 2011). Studies on soil P or micronutrients such as Fe and Zn are relatively rare. Recently, this research field has received

more attention with the reported phenomena of enhanced soil P acquisition by cereals intercropped with legumes (Li *et al.*, 2007) and enhanced Fe and Zn uptake by legume crops intercropped with cereals (Zuo and Zhang, 2009), especially in China. Will niche complementarity and interspecific facilitation mechanisms in intercropping apply to crop uptake of P, Fe and Zn from sparingly soluble sources in soils? Some experiments have been performed on P and on Fe/Zn, respectively, in order to answer this question. Improved P, Fe and Zn uptake and utilization in intercropping are expected to influence grain nutritional quality (Dey, 2003; Musa *et al.*, 2011; Briat *et al.*, 2015; Dragicevic *et al.*, 2015). However, the effects of intercropping on the uptake of P, Fe and Zn by crops and accumulation in grains are largely unknown.

This paper reviews and synthesizes the literature on how intercropping of legumes and cereals influences the mobilization and acquisition of P, Fe and Zn from soils, and recapitulates what is known about root-to-shoot nutrient translocation, plant internal nutrient remobilization and allocation to grains. It also identifies topics in need of further research.

PHOSPHORUS ACQUISITION FROM SOIL – ADVANTAGES AND MECHANISMS *Observations*

Intercropping has been shown to increase the acquisition of P from sparingly soluble P in soils or other culture substrates in a wide range of systems including pot, rhizobox and hydroponic experiments, and under field conditions (Table 1). Intercropping of cereal/legume crops is the most commonly used system reported in the literature. Most studies have shown that intercropping increases P acquisition from organic or inorganic P sources.

There are three possible outcomes of increased P acquisition in the whole intercropping system compared to the monocropping system (Table 1). First, P acquisition and yields of both crop species are enhanced. For example, maize/faba bean intercropping increased P acquisition and the grain yield per unit area of the maize row by 23.9% and 49.0%, respectively, and of the faba bean row by 37.3% and 22.0%, respectively, in P-deficient calcareous soils over four years in a field experiment (Li et al., 2007). Similar results were found by Mei et al. (2012) in a reclaimed desert soil. The second outcome of intercropping is an increase in P acquisition of one crop species and no change in the other crop. For example, in experiments of wheat/lupin in low-P sandy soils (Gardner and Boundy, 1983; Cu et al., 2005) and maize/faba bean in a calcareous soil (H. Li et al., 2014) intercropping, P acquisition of wheat or faba bean on a per-plant basis increased without influencing that of the companion crop. However, for the second outcome, the yield situation of each crop species in intercropping versus monocropping may vary under different conditions. The third outcome is that a crop species may increase the P uptake and yield of an accompanying crop species to its own detriment (Li et al., 2003a; S. Li et al., 2004; Hauggaard-Nielsen et al., 2009; Xia et al., 2013a), as observed in a maize/soybean intercropping in a calcareous soil (Xia et al., 2013a). Maize experienced an intercropping advantage in P acquisition and grain yield per unit area of the maize row but soybean, although mobilizing P, exhibited a decline in P uptake and grain yield.

Complementary P acquisition from soil P pools

Both spatial and temporal niche complementarities in root distribution are important in

determining the amount of P accessible to plants because of the low mobility of P in soils. Spatial complementarity can occur between two crop species with contrasting root architecture, leading to exploitation of different soil horizons (Li et al., 2006; C.C. Zhang et al., 2014; Fig. 1). For example, root compatibility between intercropped maize and associated faba bean allowed intercropped maize to spread underneath the roots of neighboring faba bean, increasing the soil space exploited for nutrients and water (Li et al., 2006). Intercropped species with contrasting phenologies (Rose et al., 2007) and/or growth periods (e.g. different sowing/harvest dates) (Li et al., 1999, 2007) may show differential requirements of nutrients (e.g. P and N) over time (Dessougi et al., 2003; Bainard et al., 2012; Amossé et al., 2014). Such temporal niche complementarity (Fig. 1) also allows for the later crop to receive mineral nutrients from mineralization of residues of an earlier harvested companion crop (Hinsinger et al., 2011). Relay intercropping, in which a second crop is planted before the first crop matures to grow simultaneously during part of the life cycle of each, combines spatial and temporal niche complementarities, and thus maximizes resource use. Roots of intercropped maize can enlarge the exploited soil volume to the rooting zone of previously harvested wheat, faba bean, chickpea or turnip and in this way benefit from nutrients and water remaining in the soil (Li et al., 2011; Xia et al., 2013b).

Spatial and temporal root complementarities have been attributed to the plasticity of root systems, i.e. 'root decisions' (Hodge, 2009), which adjust root location depending on nutrient availability and/or the presence of neighboring plants within a mono-species (Gersani *et al.*, 2001; Cahill *et al.*, 2010) or in intercropping (Hauggaard-Nielsen and Jensen, 2005; de Kroon, 2007; Cardinael *et al.*, 2015). How plants 'make decisions' to place their roots optimally for P acquisition in response to heterogeneity of the nutrient and the presence of neighboring plants is still a lively research topic (Croft *et al.*, 2012).

Biochemical niche complementarity can occur when two intercropped species tap into different pools of soil P (Fig. 1) such as inorganic and organic pools (Li *et al.*, 2008) or different chemical forms of each of these pools (Turner, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2012). Wheat and associated white lupin plants in mixed culture were shown to deplete water-extractable and citric-acid-extractable inorganic P fractions in a low-P soil (4 parts washed sand, 1 part garden soil), respectively (Cu *et al.*, 2005). Chickpea was able to mobilize soil organic P and leave more inorganic P available to the intercropped wheat or maize in low-P sandy soils (Li *et al.*, 2003*a*; S. Li *et al.*, 2004). Analytical studies on P mobilization from different P pools in soil need to separate the rhizosphere of each intercropped species from the bulk soil to allow for accurate P fractionation and measurement of changes in the amounts of the various pools (Makoi *et al.*, 2010; Hinsinger *et al.*, 2011; Betencourt *et al.*, 2012; Tang *et al.*, 2014; Dissanayaka *et al.*, 2015).

Interspecific facilitation

Interspecific facilitation in P uptake occurs when one species increases soil P availability and the intercropped companion species can take advantage of that. Both direct root-mediated and indirect microbe-mediated processes are known to be involved in altering P availability in the rhizosphere under intercropping conditions (Fig. 1).

Direct root-mediated facilitation. Plant roots can alter P availability in the rhizosphere through P uptake or exudation of P-mobilizing/immobilizing compounds, or uptake of other nutrients such as calcium (Ca) (Hinsinger, 2001; Vance *et al.*, 2003; Devau *et al.*, 2010). Phosphorus mobilization in intercropping has been recorded for the insoluble inorganic and organic soil P pools through release of protons/hydroxyls, carboxylates or enzymes such as phosphatases and phytase (Fig. 1).

Intercropped cereals benefit from legumes in terms of P acquisition mostly in alkaline and neutral soils in which rhizosphere acidification in response to N₂ fixation raises P availability (Jensen, 1996; Hinsinger, 2001; Hauggaard-Nielsen *et al.*, 2009). Increased N₂ fixation in legumes as a consequence of competition of cereals for nitrate further stimulates P acquisition (Hinsinger *et al.*, 2011). Several experiments have shown a lower rhizosphere pH for legumes than cereals, while pH values in the rhizospheres of cereal-legume mixtures have been found to be intermediate (Li *et al.*, 2003*a*; Cu *et al.*, 2005; H. Li *et al.*, 2008). In addition, not only proton excretion and hence rhizosphere acidification but also reduced N₂ fixation and release of hydroxyl ions and consequent increase in rhizosphere pH can raise P availability in the rhizosphere of durum wheat and chickpea in a P-limited neutral soil (Betencourt *et al.*, 2012). This may occur as a consequence of changes in surface charges of (hydr)oxides and clay minerals to which phosphate ions are bound, and enhanced desorption of phosphate ions (Hinsinger, 2001). However, causal relationships between pH changes and changes in P availability and P uptake or plant growth in intercropping conditions remain to be established (Li *et al.*, 2008; Betencourt *et al.*, 2012).

Carboxylates including malate and citrate mobilize P from calcium phosphates in calcareous soils and P bound to oxides and hydroxides of aluminum (Al) and Fe in acid soils (Hinsinger, 2001). In calcareous soils, growing white lupin has been shown to increase P uptake of intercropped wheat because the roots of white lupin exude citrate which competes with phosphate ions for calcium phosphates, thereby increasing P dissolution and hence P availability (Gardner and Boundy, 1983). Roots of faba bean secrete protons, malate and citrate into the rhizosphere, which mobilize sparingly soluble P and contribute to increased P uptake by maize in P-deficient calcareous soils (Li *et al.*, 2007). Recent evidence indicates that malate exuded by intercropped faba bean diffuses to the roots of intercropped maize (H. Li *et al.*, 2014). The quantitative effects of carboxylate release on P solubility in the rhizosphere and P uptake by plants are of major current interest (Gerke, 2015); therefore, additional work is needed to ascertain the extent of chelation-based or carboxylate-driven P mobilization in intercropping systems.

Chickpea, a species that effectively accesses organic P from phytate by enzymatic hydrolysis, was shown to facilitate P acquisition of wheat (Li *et al.*, 2003*a*) and maize (S. Li *et al.*, 2004). No such effect was found when the source of supplied P was FePO₄ (Li *et al.*, 2003*a*). In contrast, Wang *et al.* (2007) observed no intercropping effect using another soil and different species and growth duration when P was added as phytate, whereas biomass, P acquisition, phosphatase activity and P availability all increased when FePO₄ was supplied. Thus, the differences in the intercropping effect may be related to crop cultivar, growth duration or soil type, all of which may determine the outcome of interactions between intercropped plants.

Calcium uptake by roots may release phosphate from calcium phosphates and thereby increase

soil P availability to stimulate plant P uptake (Devau *et al.*, 2010). Given that Ca uptake can differ substantially between species with legumes generally taking up more Ca than cereals, Hinsinger *et al.* (2011) speculated that more available P could be released from the rhizosphere of legumes than cereals to facilitate P acquisition of intercropped cereals. In addition, it is primarily the uptake of Ca cations that through compensatory release of protons leads to the soil acidification effect of rhizobial N₂ fixation in legume roots. Such acidification may also increase P availability in calcareous soils to facilitate P uptake by cereals. However, no detailed studies on this subject have been conducted in intercropping systems, which leaves this hypothesis to be validated.

Most cereal/legume intercropping studies implicitly assume that cereals shall benefit from the legumes because the roots of legumes are known to secrete larger amounts of protons (Tang *et al.*, 1997; Hinsinger *et al.*, 2003), carboxylates (Neumann and Römheld, 1999; Pearse *et al.*, 2006), and phosphatases (Nuruzzaman *et al.*, 2006; Makoi *et al.*, 2010) per unit of rhizosphere soil weight than those of cereals. However, cereals can also change rhizosphere P availability, and one might well expect the stimulation of P uptake in legumes in intercropping with P-efficient cereals or even two-way facilitation among cereals and legumes (Hinsinger *et al.*, 2011). Betencourt *et al.* (2012) recently reported that durum wheat also enhanced the P uptake and growth of intercropped chickpea through rhizosphere alkalization in a neutral soil. This occurs as a consequence of enhanced desorption of phosphate ions on charged surfaces of iron oxides and clay minerals (Hinsinger, 2001).

Indirect microbe-mediated facilitation. In addition to direct root-induced chemical processes, indirect interspecific P facilitation in the rhizosphere can occur as a consequence of shifts in microbial community structure, biomass or activity (He *et al.*, 2013; Tang *et al.*, 2014; Fig. 1). However, to our knowledge, there have been very few studies on P-solubilizing/mobilizing microorganisms (Richardson *et al.*, 2009; L. Zhang *et al.*, 2014), phytate-mobilizing bacteria (Jorquera *et al.*, 2008) and other organic-P-mineralizing microbes in intercropping conditions (He *et al.*, 2013). Theoretically, rhizodeposits may release P via stimulation of mineralization of soil organic matter (carbon priming) and contribute to increased P uptake in the companion crop. However, this mechanism has never been explored in cereal/legume intercropping (Hinsinger *et al.*, 2011), in which only the status of soil carbon and N stocks has been recently studied (Cong *et al.*, 2014, 2015). Direct transfer of nutrients between intercropped species via common mycorrhizal networks is better documented for N (Johansen and Jensen, 1996; He *et al.*, 2009) than for P (Li *et al.*, 2009; Merrild *et al.*, 2013; Qiao *et al.*, 2015).

Mechanistic modeling

Using an elegant modeling approach, Raynaud *et al.* (2008) demonstrated that only a few neighboring roots of non-exuding species can benefit from increased P availability as a consequence of citrate release from the species with root exudates because of its spatially limited diffusion in soil. Functional-structural simulation software was used to determine the effects of root architecture on nutrient uptake and biomass production of maize, bean and squash in monoculture, and maize/bean and maize/bean/squash mixtures in low-N and low-P soils during the first 40 days of root growth (Postma and Lynch, 2012). Postma and Lynch (2012) concluded

that spatial niche differentiation due to differences in root architecture enables over-yielding in mixtures, but direct competition for immobile P and direct facilitation in P uptake by maize in response to root exudates of bean or squash might be negligible because interspecies root spacing was found to be too large. These simulation studies provide testable predictions on spatial niche complementarity and interspecific facilitation of P uptake.

RHIZOSPHERE EFFECTS ON IRON AND ZINC UPTAKE BY LEGUME PLANTS INTERCROPPED WITH CEREALS

Observations

It has been demonstrated that intercropping legumes with cereals improved the micronutrient nutrition of legumes grown in both rhizobox and pot experiments and under field conditions. For example, intercropping with barley, oat, wheat or maize increased the chlorophyll, HCl-extractable Fe (so-called 'active Fe') and total Fe concentrations in young leaves of peanut, thus alleviating Fe chlorosis in calcareous soils (Zuo *et al.*, 2000, 2003; Inal *et al.*, 2007; Zuo and Zhang, 2008, 2009; Fig. 2A–B). It is interesting that the active Fe and chlorophyll concentrations in young leaves of peanut were closely (negatively) related with the distance to neighboring maize plants in the field (Zuo *et al.*, 2000). In addition, Fe and also Zn concentrations in the whole shoot of peanut were raised by co-culture of peanut with barley, oat, wheat or maize in calcareous sandy soils in a glasshouse (Zuo and Zhang, 2008). Finally, the improvement of Fe and Zn nutrition led to an increase in Fe and Zn concentrations in grains of legumes in intercropping systems of maize/peanut grown in a calcareous sandy soil (Zuo *et al.*, 2000; Zuo and Zhang, 2009) and wheat/chickpea in a calcareous soil (Gunes *et al.*, 2007).

Molecular and physiological processes in the rhizosphere in intercropping

Plant species have evolved different physiological mechanisms to increase Fe and Zn uptake and these are summarized by the terms 'Strategy I' and 'Strategy II' (see Marschner, 2011). The current biochemical model of Fe and Zn acquisition in intercropping (Fig. 3) is thus that strategy II supplements strategy I of Fe and Zn uptake in legume crops intercropped with cereals. For instance, when peanut (a Strategy I plant) and maize (a Strategy II plant) grow together in a calcareous sandy soil, phytosiderophores (PS, high-affinity Fe(III) chelators) secreted by maize roots help to solubilize Fe(III) in form of Fe(III)-PS complexes. Fe(III)-PS may diffuse from the root surface of maize to that of peanut. At the root apoplast of peanut, it may be then reduced to Fe(II) which is taken up by the Fe-deficient peanut. The evidence from molecular studies supports this reduction-based PS facilitation hypothesis in peanut/maize intercropping, in which the transcript levels of the gene encoding a Fe(III)-chelate reductase (AhFRO1) and genes encoding Fe(II) transporters (AhIRT1, AhNRAMP1 and AhDMT1) were always higher in the roots of intercropped peanut than in the roots of monocropped peanut (Ding et al., 2009, 2010; Xiong et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2014; Shen et al., 2014; Fig. 3). However, there is still lack of direct evidence that intercropped peanut reduced PS-chelated Fe(III) to Fe(II) in the apoplast for Fe uptake. Deoxymugineic acid (DMA) is a type of PS secreted by maize roots and was detected in the rhizosphere of peanut plants intercropped with maize, and a Fe(III)-DMA transporter was expressed on the peanut root surface (Xiong et al., 2013a; Figs. 2C and 3). This suggests that interspecific facilitation of Fe uptake is also likely to result from direct uptake of Fe(III)-DMA

by the intercropped peanut. However, the relative roles of these two (reduction-based and direct) uptake pathways of Fe(III)-PS are unclear.

Radio-isotopic experiments further support the PS-mediated facilitation of Fe uptake by intercropping of Strategy I and II plants. Cesco *et al.* (2006) found that Fe-deficient citrus plants increased ⁵⁹Fe-uptake from a dialysis tube to which suspension containing amorphous ⁵⁹Fe hydroxide was added in the presence of Fe-deficient barley plants or after addition of barley root exudates to the nutrient solution in hydroponics. Similarly, enhancement of ⁵⁹Fe uptake and alleviation of Fe chlorosis were also observed in Fe-deficient citrumelo 'Swingle' in the presence of the grasses *Poa pratensis* L. and *Festuca rubra* L. in solution culture (Cesco *et al.*, 2006; Fig. 2D-i). Leaf re-greening is an indication of Fe uptake and was not observed when citrumelo 'Swingle' and the *yellow stripe 3 (ys3)* maize mutant (not able to release PS) were co-cultivated (Cesco *et al.*, 2006; Fig. 2D-ii).

Phytosiderophores are highly specific for Fe, but if present in excess they may also form quite strong complexes with Zn and other micronutrients. Transgenic plants and mutants over-expressing Fe(III) reductases and Fe(II) transporters also show an increased Zn accumulation (Zhu *et al.*, 2007). For example, the expression of barley *HvNAS1* in tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) doubled the Fe and Zn concentrations in leaves (Takahashi *et al.*, 2003). It is therefore speculated that PS-mediated direct interspecific facilitation of Zn also occurs in intercropping of Strategy I and II plants (Fig. 3).

The experimental results about the effect of intercropping on PS release are inconsistent. Ding et al. (2009) and Xiong et al. (2013a) recorded substantially larger amounts of PS secreted by roots of maize intercropped with peanut than that of monocropped maize grown in calcareous sandy soils. In contrast, Inal et al. (2007) found the PS concentrations in the rhizosphere solution samples of maize were decreased by intercropping with peanut in a calcareous soil. The experimental results regarding the transcript levels of genes in relation to the reduction of Fe(III)-PS to Fe(II) for uptake by intercropped peanut were also inconsistent. Ding et al. (2009, 2010) showed that when Fe deficiency symptoms appeared in mono-cropped peanut, transcript levels of the Fe(III)-chelate reductase gene AhFRO1 and Fe²⁺-regulated transporter gene AhIRT1 were higher in roots of intercropped than mono-cropped peanut in glasshouse pot experiments. However, Xiong et al. (2013b) found the expression of Fe-acquisition genes (mRNA) including both AhFRO1 and AhIRT1 were significantly upregulated by monocropping in glasshouse pot experiments. These conflicting findings may be explained by differences in the growth stages and conditions or Fe supplies (Table 2). For instance, Guo et al. (2014) found that the expression levels of AhFRO1 and AhYSL1 (the yellow stripe1-like family transporting Fe(III)-DMA gene) were higher in intercropping from day 46 to day 53, while their expressions were significantly lower than those in monocropping at day 69 when the plants were grown in pot experiments under greenhouse conditions.

Root and microbial responses to intercropping

Our understanding at the molecular and physiological levels has recently undergone major advances (Briat *et al.*, 2015). However, the roles of root morphology and microbes of the rhizosphere in Fe and Zn acquisition in intercropping remain poorly studied and understood (Table 2). Zuo *et al.* (2003) highlighted the possibility that root morphological changes and shifts

in composition and structure of microbial communities may also play a critical role in intercropping-facilitated Fe uptake. Pot experiments have demonstrated that co-culturing peanut with maize in Fe-deficient soils often increases the length and the number of lateral roots and root hairs of peanut. Simultaneously, rhizodermal transfer cells are formed in the subapical zone of peanut roots in response to intercropping (Zuo *et al.*, 2003). Intercropping decreased microbial abundance and activity in the rhizosphere of peanut grown in a calcareous sandy soil; Zuo *et al.* (2003) speculated that this may slow the degradation of mucous layers containing considerable amounts of root exudates, including PS. The thickness of mucous layers on the root surface of peanut was indeed increased by intercropping (Zuo *et al.*, 2003). These root morphological and microbial responses to intercropping may increase Fe uptake by intercropped peanut through increases in root surface area for Fe absorption and in PS-mediated interspecific facilitation.

Cluster roots of Banksia attenuata L. facilitate the acquisition of P and manganese (Mn) by the neighboring shrub (Scholtzia involucrata L. colonized by arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi) by making the nutrients more available for their neighbors in soils which consist of oligo-trophic coarse sand of low water-holding capacity and are severely nutrient impoverished and strongly leached (Muler et al., 2014). The dual AM/ectomycorrhizal (EM) host Melaleuca preissiana L. exhibited enhanced EM colonization, favored EM over AM fungi and increased concentrations of P, Mn, Ca, Fe and boron (B) in the shoot when interacting with both the EM host Eucalyptus marginata L. and a non-mycorrhizal nutrient-mining plant with cluster roots (Banksia menziesii L.) in microcosms in which mesh barriers prevented the intermingling of roots (Teste et al., 2014). The results show that a synergistic effect between EM hyphal scavenging and mobilization of limiting nutrients by cluster roots played a role in the observed nutrient facilitation. One may also speculate that facilitative uptake of micronutrients by legumes intercropped with cereals occurs via the hyphae of mycorrhizal fungi or rhizobia, accessing the nutrients mobilized by the roots of companion plants and/or by microbes (Jin et al., 2014). Bacteria also release siderophores and other compounds that mobilize Fe from minerals. Interactions among crop plants, bacteria, and soil organic substances were shown to promote the formation of soluble Fe³⁺-complexes and thereby Fe availability for crop plants (Colombo *et al.*, 2014). Studies on the effects of microbes in the rhizosphere on Fe and Zn nutrition in intercropping are virtually non-existent. We know of only one report showing that there was no significant effect of soil sterilization on the Fe nutrition of peanut intercropped with maize in calcareous sandy soils (Fang et al., 2004).

More to be learned from laboratory to field

Most studies demonstrating improved Fe and Zn nutrition of legume crops in response to the presence of cereals have been carried out in pots, rhizoboxes or hydroponic culture in the glasshouse (Fig. 2; Table 2). Studies in the field can yield quite different results from glasshouse experiments (Figs. 2 and 4; Table 2). In fact, intercropping was found to be unable to correct lime-induced Fe chlorosis in peanut on a poorly-aerated calcareous soil (Fig. 4A). In pot experiments, maize barely grew beyond the seedling or elongation stage and intercropping maize only slightly affected the growth of companion peanut in calcareous soils. Root, shoot and grain weights of short-lived peanut were thus rarely decreased substantially by co-cultivated maize and over-yielding even occurred (Table 2). However, these effects were not observed in the field

where the tall maize plants shaded the short-stemmed peanut or soybean to decrease biomass production of the latter (Fig. 4B–G). Shading was found to impair nutrient acquisition in intercropping systems of wheat (*Triticum turgidum durum*) with alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*) or soybean (Whitehead and Isaac, 2012), and of maize with soybean (Gong *et al.*, 2015), mainly due to reduced photosynthetic capacity and biomass accumulation of the shaded crop as compared to monocropping.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN INTERSPECIFIC ROOT INTERACTIONS AND ABOVE-GROUND BIOMASS AND NUTRIENT ACCUMULATION

Mass fluxes of water, nutrients and photosynthetic organic materials between above-ground and below-ground components of crops are influenced by intercropping (Malézieux *et al.*, 2009). It has been reported that below-ground (root) interactions played a more important role than above-ground (shoot) interactions in crop growth and intercropping advantages in maize/potato intercropping (Wu *et al.*, 2012). The present review suggests that both interspecific root physiology (e.g. root secretion of carboxylates and PS) and morphology (e.g. length and distribution of roots in soil profiles) contribute to plant acquisition of P, Fe and Zn from sparingly soluble sources in soils. It is difficult to quantify the actual contribution of root physiology to shoot biomass and to P, Fe and Zn accumulation, but research continues in an attempt to evaluate the relationships between the interspecific root biomass and its distribution and above-ground biomass and nutrient accumulation, especially in diverse plant communities.

Root over-production in mixtures has been suggested to contribute to increased total biomass production in diverse plant communities over time through effects on the availability and acquisition of nutrients in soil (Tilman *et al.*, 1996; de Kroon *et al.*, 2012). The total productivity of diverse plant communities may also partly depend on below-ground interactions that cause overall roots to be distributed deeply in soil profiles. Mueller *et al.* (2013) evaluated the links among diversity, overall root depth distribution and total productivity using data from a 12-year experiment, and observed that the overall proportion of deep-root biomass increased with species richness and was positively correlated with above-ground productivity in artificial grasslands. Mommer *et al.* (2015) recently showed that diversity enhanced overall root length and decreased total root loss and root mortality of the whole community, resulting in root over-production in an experimental grassland community. These results allow us to reaffirm that the total productivity and the use of resources by diverse plant communities depend on overall production of roots or root distribution in the soil profile.

Indeed, the contributions of individual species in diverse plant communities are not just additive in comparison with monoculture systems, but also result in positive or negative interaction effects on root biomass production, root distribution, nutrient acquisition and above-ground productivity, which need further investigation. Across eleven monocropped grassland plant species (i.e. legumes, high-nitrogen rhizomatous C_3 species and a separate gradient of differentiation from tall- to short-stature species) and soil depth (0-95 cm) examined, strong positive correlations were observed between the density of fine roots and depletion of soil water and N, but there were no relationships with the biomass of coarse roots (Craine *et al.*, 2003). Thus, we speculate that the differentiation of coarse and fine root biomass between monoculture and diverse plant communities also plays an important role in the relationship between plant diversity and nutrient acquisition/biomass production.

Compared to the above-mentioned diverse plant communities (e.g. grassland systems), very few studies have been conducted to evaluate relationships between interspecific root interactions and nutrient acquisition/biomass productivity as affected by intercropping of cereals with legume crops, especially under field conditions (Dordas et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2012). It appears that there are positive links between root growth space and root length density of the individual crop species and the corresponding above-ground growth in intercropping systems, but there is a lack of direct evidence and statistically significant data (Li et al., 2001a, b, 2006, 2011). A recent study reported 'competition-recovery-over-yielding' dynamics in root length density, root growth space and corresponding shoot biomass of maize intercropped with faba bean or chickpea in a calcareous soil under field conditions (Xia et al., 2013b). The total root length and root growth space of intercropped maize on a per-plant basis was initially lower than (at the maize elongation stage) and then equal to (at the maize tasseling stage) and finally larger than (after earlier maturing legume crop harvest at maize grain-filling stage) in monocropped maize. The same was also found in maize shoot growth on a per-plant basis, and the dynamics of root length and root growth space correlated well with the dynamics of shoot biomass of maize (Xia et al., 2013b). The relationships between responses of root system and shoot growth and the uptake of P, Fe and Zn in cereal/legume intercropping need further elucidation.

INTERCROPPING AFFECTS NUTRIENT ALLOCATION IN CROP PLANTS

Intercropping influences nutrient distribution among different plant parts or translocation of nutrients from root to shoot and/or from shoot to grains, but the effects vary, depending on types of nutrient elements and crop species. For example, in a pot experiment Xiao *et al.* (2013) found that Fe concentrations decreased in the shoots but increased in the roots of cucumber in intercropping with green garlic compared to monocropping in an alkaline soil, indicating that intercropping decreased the translocation of Fe from roots to shoots. In a field experiment with wheat/chickpea intercropping, intercropping stimulated Fe translocation from shoots to seeds of chickpea, showing higher Fe concentrations in seeds but not in shoots to seeds of wheat, showing higher Zn concentrations in the shoot but not in grains (Gunes *et al.*, 2007).

Our latest findings show that although intercropping stimulated total uptake of Fe, Mn, copper (Cu) and Zn in the above-ground parts of maize, it decreased the concentrations of these nutrients in the grains due to reduced translocation of the nutrients from the vegetative tissues to the grains (Xia *et al.*, 2013*c*). Therefore, grain nutritional status in intercropping systems is not only determined by facilitation effects on the overall uptake of individual nutrients from soil but also by the translocation of nutrients to grains via the xylem and phloem within plants.

According to experimental results from single-species cropping of wheat, a dilution effect was observed in relation to the concentrations of Zn, Fe, Cu and Mn in grains, which were negatively correlated with grain yields (Jarrell and Beverly, 1981; Fan *et al.*, 2008; Zhao and McGrath, 2009). Higher grain yields of cereals on a per-plant basis in intercropping than in monocropping may also lead to a dilution effect. For instance, in a maize-based intercropping experiment with turnip, faba bean, chickpea and soybean at various P application rates, grain yields of intercropped maize were significantly higher than those of monocropped maize on a per-plant

basis, but the concentrations (on a dry-weight basis) of Fe and Cu in grains were negatively correlated with grain yields across the treatments (Xia et al., 2013*c*).

Intercropping may also affect the interactions (synergism and antagonism) between mineral elements, which in turn affect nutrient allocation between plant parts. For example, there is a strong antagonism between P and Zn which affects their uptake from soil, and their mobility within plants (Warnock, 1970; Zhu *et al.*, 2002). In a study by Inal *et al.* (2007), intercropping increased the concentrations of Fe, Zn, P and potassium (K) in shoots of intercropped peanut and maize but lowered the concentration of Ca, and did not affect those of N and Mn. Xiao *et al.* (2013) found that the concentrations of N, P, K, Ca and Mn in cucumber shoots and roots were significantly higher but the magnesium (Mg) concentrations were lower in intercropping with green garlic than monocropping. The quantitative relationships among nutrients in intercropping appear to be different from those in monocropping. Further study is needed in this respect.

CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

Phosphorus, Fe and Zn nutrition of cereals and/or legumes can be improved by intercropping the two crops through the increased availability of P, Fe and Zn in the rhizosphere (Fig. 5). Thorough soil exploitation by complementarity of root systems in space and time in intercropping allows for an efficient use of P, Fe and Zn in soil. The increased release of exudates (e.g. protons, carboxylates, phosphatases and PS) from crop plant roots and soil microbes under intercropping may increase the solubility of P, Fe and Zn which can benefit both intercropped cereals and legumes. Adaptive root-microbe responses in intercropping enable flexible improvements of crops to exploit sparingly soluble nutrients in soil. Much has been learned at the molecular and whole soil-plant levels about P, Fe and Zn acquisition in single-species cropping. However, our understanding with respect to the foraging for these nutrients by roots and microbes and nutrient allocation to different plant tissues is rather limited for intercropping systems (Fig. 5).

This review has focused on P acquisition advantages in the whole cereal/legume intercropping system (Fig. 1) and on PS-mediated interspecific facilitation of Fe and Zn uptake by legumes intercropped with cereals (Fig. 3). By bringing these two aspects together, we identify the value of studies on P and on Fe/Zn uptake in intercropping in informing each other. Interspecific facilitation of Fe/Zn uptake occurring in the direction of cereals to legumes has been supported by evidence from studies using radio-isotopic tracing (Cesco *et al.*, 2006) and molecular biotechnology (Xiong *et al.*, 2013*a*). However, there is no direct mechanistic evidence for interspecific facilitation of P uptake. Isotopic and molecular physiological methods need to be applied to understand the nature of interspecific P facilitation. Niche complementarity may also contribute to increasing Fe and Zn acquisition in cereal-legume intercropping systems, an aspect not fully understood that needs to be explored in future research. The relative importance of niche complementarity and interspecific facilitation for nutrient acquisition should be quantified for various intercropping systems so that complementarity and facilitation can be manipulated to increase P and Fe/Zn acquisition in low- and high-input agricultural ecosystems.

Future research is also warranted in the following aspects. (1) Interactions between root growth and microbes on plant acquisition of P, Fe and Zn under intercropping need to be further explored (Tables 1 and 2). Such studies should be expanded to combinations of new crop species

and soil types, particularly acid soils and in field situations. (2) Time-course studies in intercropping systems will further elucidate the dynamics of P, Fe and Zn mobilization and acquisition from soil, and their association with translocation of the nutrients from roots to shoots and to grains. (3) Use of multi-disciplinary approaches, covering soil science, plant physiology, agronomy and ecology, may help to design effective intercropping systems that maximize the use of P, Fe and Zn from soil available pools and accumulation of Fe and Zn in grains together with appropriate farming practices. In this respect, all components including crop species, farming practices and environmental conditions must be considered together in a holistic fashion as shown in Fig. 5.

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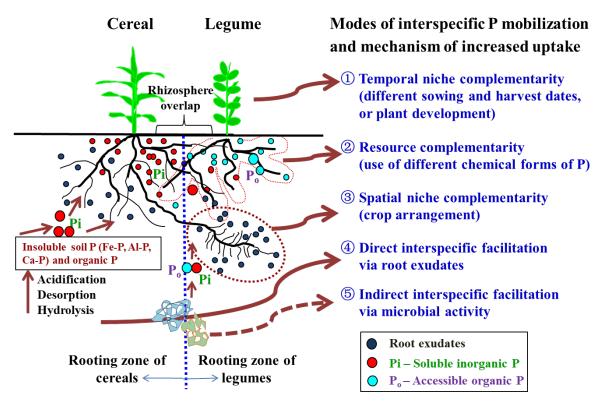


FIG. 1. Schematic overview of possible direct and indirect modes of increased phosphorus (P) uptake in cereal-legume intercropping. Temporal, spatial and resource complementarity and direct and indirect mobilization are indicated.

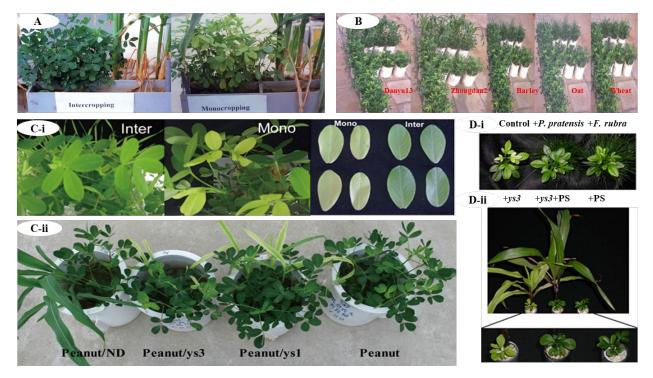


FIG. 2. Images of studies conducted in rhizoboxes (A), pots (B, C-ii and D) and hydroponic cultures (C-i) on alleviation of Fe chlorosis in peanut and citrus by intercropping with graminaceous species. (A) Peanuts intercropped with maize showing no Fe-deficiency symptoms (left) and peanuts without root interaction with maize showing Fe chlorosis (right) in a calcareous sandy soil. (B) Alleviation of Fe chlorosis in young leaves of peanut plants grown together with two maize genotypes (Danyu 13 and Zhongdan 2), barley, oat or wheat in a calcareous sandy soil. (C-i) Improved Fe nutrition in peanuts co-cultured with Fe-deficient wheat (Inter) compared with mono-cultured peanuts (Mono) in hydroponic culture. (C-ii) Alleviation of Fe chlorosis in young leaves of peanut grown with maize of wild type (ND, Nongda 108) or *yellow stripe 1 (ys1)* mutant unable to take up phytosiderophores (PS) compared to mono-cropped peanut and peanut intercropped with the PS secretion-defective yellow stripe 3 (ys3) mutant in a calcareous soil. (D-i) Alleviation of Fe chlorosis in leaves of Citrumelo 'Swingle' grown for five weeks together with Poa pratensis L. or Festuca rubra L. in a calcareous soil. (D-ii) 'Swingle' grown in intercropping with yellow stripe 3 (ys3) maize plants unable to release phytosiderophores (PS), showing clear Fe chlorosis, compared to PS-amended plants. (A), (B) and (D) reproduced from Zuo and Zhang (2009), Zuo and Zhang (2008) and Cesco et al. (2006), respectively, with the permission of Springer Science and Business Media. (C) reproduced from Xiong et al. (2013a) with the permission of John Wiley and Sons.

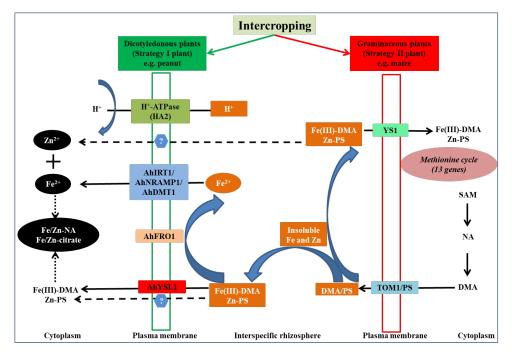


FIG. 3. Model of molecular mechanisms of phytosiderophore (PS)-mediated Fe and Zn uptake in dicotyledonous plants (Strategy I, e.g. peanut) intercropped with graminaceous plants (Strategy II, e.g. maize). Maize plants secrete PS or deoxymugineic acid (DMA) into the rhizopshere via the transporter of mugineic acid 1 (TOM1) or PS. In soil, otherwise insoluble Fe and Zn are desorbed and incorporated into Fe(III)-PS and Zn-PS complexes. The Fe-PS and Zn-PS are taken up by maize via the yellow stripe 1 (YS1) plasma membrane transporter of maize roots. Three molecules of S-adenosylmethionine (SAM) supplied from the methionine cycle combine to form nicotianamine (NA) which is converted to DMA for a continuous supply. The Fe(III)-DMA may be utilized by peanut via two pathways: reduction- or transporter-mediated uptake. In the reduction-based pathway, peanut roots release H⁺ through H⁺-ATPase 2 (HA2) and reduces Fe³⁺ via the ferric reduction oxidase 1 (AhFRO1) to Fe^{2+} , which is then taken up via iron-regulated transporter 1 (AhIRT1), natural resistance-associated macrophage protein 1 (AhNRAMP1), or divalent metal-ion transporter 1 (AhDMT1). In the transporter-mediated pathway, the Fe(III)-DMA is taken up directly via the yellow stripe1-like 1 (AhYSL1) transporter in the root epidermis. Free Zn^{2+} and Zn-PS may be taken up like Fe. Root-shoot translocation of Fe and Zn is mediated by Fe/Zn-NA or Fe/Zn-citrate complexes (Cornu et al., 2015). '?' indicates unknown pathway. The illustration is based on Varanini et al. (2008), Zuo and Zhang (2009) and Xiong et al. (2013a), with the permission of John Wiley and Sons.

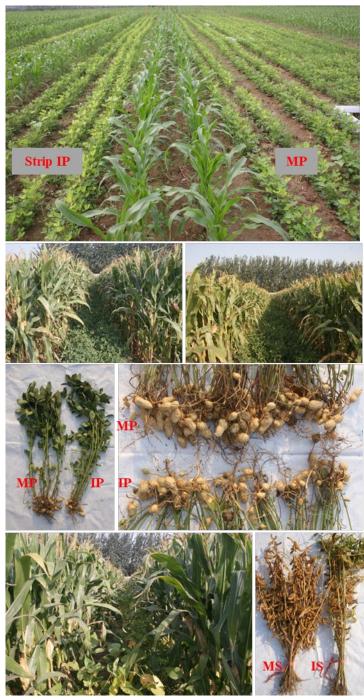


FIG. 4. Peanut and soybean strip intercropping with maize in the field. (A) Strip intercropping unable to correct Fe chlorosis in peanuts (IP) on a poorly-drained calcareous soil compared to mono-cropped peanuts (MP). (B) Two rows of maize intercropped with two rows of peanut. (C) Two rows of maize intercropped with four rows of peanut. (D) Comparison of a single plant of mono-cropped peanut (MP) with a single plant of intercropped peanut (IP) from (B). (E) Comparison of pods of six mono-cropped peanut plants (MP) with six intercropped peanut plants (IP) from (B). (F) Two rows of maize intercropped with two rows of soybean. (G) Comparison of 10 mono-cropped soybean plants (MS) with 10 intercropped soybean plants (IS) from (F).

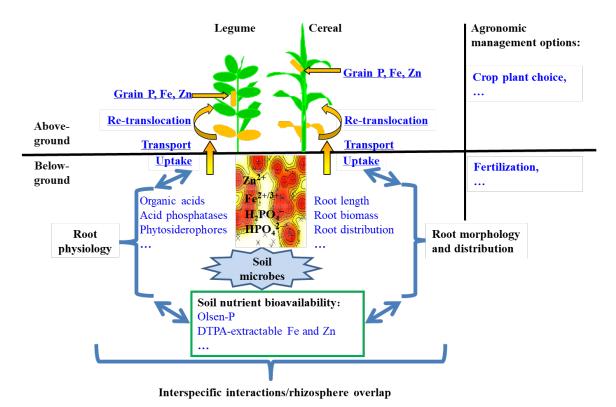


FIG. 5. Summary overview of soil/rhizosphere-plant processes involved in P, Fe and Zn uptake from soil and translocation to grains in legume-cereal intercropping.

Authors	Crop species	Study	Soil pH	P source	Beneficiary	Loser	Types of	Study of root	Suggested	
	combination	type					improved P	physiology	mechanism	
							uptake	and morphology		
Gardner and Boundy (1983)	Wheat/lupin	Field	Alkaline	Inorganic	Wheat	None	(2)	None	Facilitation	
Horst and Waschkiew (1987)	Spring wheat/white lupin	Pot	Acid	Inorganic	Wheat	-	-	Yes	Facilitation	
Li et al. (2001a, b)	Wheat/maize or soybean	Field	Alkaline	Inorganic	Wheat	None	(2)	None	Niche differentiation	
Dessougi et al. (2003)	Maize/groundnut	Pot	Acid	Inorganic	Maize	—	-	Yes	Increased root length and root	
									P-uptake rate	
Li et al. (2003a)	Wheat/chickpea	Pot	Acid	Organic	Wheat	Chickpea	(3)	Only physiology	Facilitation	
Li <i>et al</i> . (2003 <i>b</i>)	Maize/faba bean	Field	Alkaline	Inorganic	Both	None	(1)	Root barrier	Root interactions	
S. Li <i>et al</i> . (2004)	Maize/chickpea	Hydroponic	Acid solution	Organic	Maize	Chickpea	(3)	Only physiology	Facilitation	
Cu et al. (2005)	Wheat/white lupin	Soil column	Alkaline	-	Wheat	None	(2)	Only physiology	Complementarity	
Li et al. (2007)	Maize/faba bean	Field	Alkaline	Inorganic	Both	None	(1)	Only physiology	Facilitation	
Wang et al. (2007)	Wheat/chickpea	Pot	Acid	Inorganic	Both	None	(1)	Yes	Rhizosphere interactions	
Hauggaard-Nielsen et al. (2009)	Barley/spring pea	Field	Acid	_	Barley	Pea	(3)	None	None	
Li et al. (2009)	Rice/mung bean with AM inoculation	Pot	Acid	Inorganic	Both	None	(1)	Only morphology	Improved AM	
Betencourt et al. (2012)	Durum wheat/chickpea	Pot	Alkaline	Inorganic	Both	None	(1)	Only physiology	colonisation Facilitation	
Mei et al. (2012)	Maize/faba bean	Field	Alkaline	Inorganic	Both	None	(1)	None	Complementarity	
Xia et al. (2013a)	Maize/faba bean, chickpea,soybean	Field	Alkaline	Inorganic	Maize, faba	Soybean	(1) + (3)	None	and facilitation Complementarity	
	or turnip				bean, chickpea,				and facilitation	
H. Li et al. (2014)	Maize/faba bean	Rhizobox	Alkaline	Inorganic	Faba bean	None	(2)	Only physiology	Facilitation	
Lelei and Onwonga (2014)	Maize/white lupin	Field	Neutral	Inorganic	Maize	Lupin	(3)	None	Facilitation	
Dissanayaka et al. (2015)	Maize/white lupin	Pot	Acid	Inorganic	Maize	None	(2)	Yes	Facilitation	

TABLE 1. List of studies showing increased phosphorus (P) uptake in intercropping systems compared to monocropping

-, data not available; AM, arbuscular mycorrhizas.

Type of improved P uptake: (1), Both partners benefit; (2), One partner benefits with no negative effect on its companion; (3), One partner benefits with negative effect on its companion. Wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.), white lupin (*Lupinus albus* L.), maize (*Zea mays* L.), soybean (*Glycine max* L.), groundnut or peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.), chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.), faba bean (*Vicia faba* L.), barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.), spring pea (*Pisum sativum* L.), rice (*Oryza sativa* L.), mung bean (*Vigna radiata* L.), turnip (*Brassica campestris* L.).

chlorosis alleviation															
Authors	Crop species combination	Study type	pH of growth medium	Growth stage	Root Fe conc	Young leaf chlorophyll conc.	Young leaf active Fe conc.	Shoo t /stem Fe conc.	Seed Fe conc	Root biomas s	Shoot biomass	Seed biomass	Total biomass	Study of root morphology & physiology	Suggested mechanism
Zuo et al. (1997)	Maize/peanut	Rhizobox	Alkaline	3 months	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	Only morphology	Physiology
Zuo et al. (1998a)	Maize/peanut	Pot	Alkaline	2 months	+	+	+	+	N/A	+	+	N/A	+	Yes	Physiology
	Wheat/peanut	Pot	Alkaline	2 months	+	+	+	+	N/A	+	+	N/A	+	Yes	Physiology
Zuo et al. (1998b)	Maize/peanut	Soil-solution	Alkaline-acid	N/A	N/A	N/A	+	N/A	N/A	ns	ns	N/A	N/A	Yes	Physiology
															Rhizosphere
Zuo et al. (2000)	Maize/peanut	Field	Alkaline	Flowering	N/A	+	+	N/A	N/A	+	-	N/A	N/A	No	effect of maize
Fang et al. (2004)	Maize/peanut	Pot	Alkaline	Acicula	ns	N/A	+	+	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	+	Soil microbes	Root interactions
														Physiology, isotope	
Cesco et al. (2006)	Poa or F/C	Pot	Alkaline	5 weeks	N/A	+	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	method	Direct facilitation
Inal et al. (2007)	Maize/peanut	Pot	Alkaline	35-60 days	N/A	+	N/A	+	N/A	N/A	-	N/A	N/A	Only physiology	Physiology
Zuo and	Maize, barley														
Zhang (2008)	oat or wheat/peanut	Pot	Alkaline	55-70 days	N/A	+	+	+	N/A	+	ns	N/A	N/A	Only physiology	Physiology
Ding et al. (2009)	Maize/peanut	Pot	Alkaline	Flowering	N/A	+	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Only physiology	Physiology
Jiao et al. (2012)	Maize/peanut	Field	Alkaline	Maturity	N/A	N/A	N/A	+	+	N/A	-	N/A	N/A	No	Physiology
Xiong <i>et al.</i> (2013 <i>a</i>)	Maize/peanut	Pot	Alkaline	32-35 days	N/A	+	+	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Only physiology,	Direct interspecific
	Wheat/peanut	Hydroponic	Alkaline	2 weeks	+	+	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	molecular method	facilitation
Xiong <i>et al.</i> (2013 <i>b</i>)	Maize/peanut	Pot	Alkaline	63 days	N/A	+	+	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	ns	Only physiology	Physiology
Shen et al. (2014)	Maize/peanut	Pot	Alkaline	45 days	N/A	N/A	ns	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	ns		Physiology
				65 days	N/A	N/A	+	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	ns	Only physiology	

TABLE 2. Growth and Fe nutritional responses of dicotyledonous plants to intercropping with graminaceous plants and proposed mechanisms of

Crop species: barley (Hordeum vulgare L.); C, citrumelo 'Swingle'; F, Festuca rubra L.; maize (Zea mays L.); oat (Avena sativa L.); Poa, Poa pratensis L.; peanut (Arachis hypogaea L.); wheat (Triticum aestivum L.).

conc., concentration; +, increase; -, decrease; ns, not significant; N/A, data not available.