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1 The Role of Phosphorus Sources on Root Diameter, Root Length and Root 2 Dry Matter of Barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.)

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10 Abstract

11 Roots are the main plant organs that supply nutrients, water, hormones and physical support for the
12 plant. Phosphorus is one of the most limiting and important elements in root growth and crop
13 production. The aims of this study was to investigate the effects of different sources of phosphorus
14 treatments on root growth (root length, diameter and dry matter) of Barley. The two glasshouse pot
15 experiments results showed that under P deficiency, the weight of dry root significantly decreased and
16 the total root length of whole plant significantly increased with decrease of root diameter. Our results
17 suggested that soil fertility and root structure are widely recognized as important role of the soil
18 community and plant growth, the root structure and root extension can directly and indirectly affected
19 by soil fertility and specially P nutrient of the soil. Accordingly, root characteristics can determine the
20 circumstance of plant growth and crop production.

21 **Keywords:** Plant root growth, phosphorus deficiency, root characteristics, root morphology

22 1. Introduction

23 Soil nutrients and water are taken up by plant roots through the rhizosphere, the plant
24 rhizosphere is an important region that replete with rooting depth, distribution and
25 microorganisms, which is the communication zone between plant and soil. Therefore, root
26 development, architecture and rhizosphere processes have great effect on water uptake, soil
27 nutrient uptake, transformation, mobilization, and efficient use by plants (Marschner, 2012;
28 Shen et al., 2013; Jha et al., 2017). Root length per unit of the plant's dry mass is constituted
29 by means of root mass ratio, the distribution component and root excellence and tissue
30 density, the physical components (Ryser, 1998). Plants can produce longer roots either by
31 growing biomass supply or root fineness and/or decreasing root tissue density, leaving biomass
32 distribution unchanged (Manschadi et al., 2014; Abenavoli et al., 2016; Colombi et al., 2017).

33 Plant root can not only exceedingly control morphological traits to adaption of soil
34 environmental conditions, but also considerably modify rhizospher developments through thir
35 physiological actions, mainly the exudation of phosphatases, organic acids and several
36 signalling substances, redox changes and proton release (Hinsinger et al., 2009; Marschner,
37 2012; Shen et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2013; Gul and Whalen, 2016). The effectiveness of root
38 and rhizospher is extremely dependent on natural soil fertility and the amount of soil nutrient
39 supply, which is organized by the response of external nutrients. Therefore root growth and
40 development can be significantly constrained when the available soil nutrient is exceedingly
41 low (Li et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2010; Manschadi et al., 2014). Roots are able to enhance soil
42 organic matter by contributing to the soil resources of nitrogen, organic carbon and microbial
43 biomass (Xie et al., 2014; Rasmussen et al., 2015; Munda et al., 2016; Maji et al., 2017).
44 Accordingly, an understanding of factors that affect root growth and development are important
45 for improving nutrient cycling and uptake from soil to plant. The growth and development of
46 the fine root system is necessary for good plant growth and development and consequently for
47 satisfactory production (Mollier and Pellerin, 1999; Gao et al., 2010; Gahoonia et al., 1997;
48 Fageria and Moreira, 2011; Shi et al., 2013).

49 The capability of plant roots for P achievement is one of the main factor for root and plant
50 growth. The major characters and processes that lead to improved P acquisition include greater
51 root growth and higher root to shoot biomass ratio, improved root architecture, development
52 of root architecture, development of root hairs, increased production and exudation of
53 phosphatases, secretion of organic acids, increased expression of P transporters, and symbiotic
54 relations with mycorrhizal fungi and bacteria (Vanceet at al., 2003; Ramaekers et al., 2010;
55 Richardson et al., 2011; Meyer et al., 2017). It is widely documented that succsesful P
56 acquisition on efficiency will consequence in laeg gains in P use effective and crop yield,
57 subsequently on average only 15-30% of applied P fertilizer is uptake by crops in the year of
58 fertilizer application (Tilman et al., 2002; Syers et al., 2008). Therefore, more than 30% of soils
59 cultivated in the world suffer from P deficiency (Hinsinger, 2001). Resources of mineral
60 phosphate are becoming limited, and recent global reserves may be depleted in 50-100 years
61 (Cordell et al., 2009). Since the main organ for water and nutrient uptake, root play an important
62 role in P uptake from soil. Plant able to adapt to low P stress by exchanging root physiology
63 and morphology (Lynch and Brown, 2008; Lambers et al., 2006). Charasteristic root
64 morphology reactions to low P stress contain a higher root to shoot ratio (Hermans et al., 2006;
65 Ramaekers et al., 2010), a greater number of lateral root (Liu et al., 2004; Zhu and Lynch,

66 2004), extended total root length (Liu et al., 2004; Shen et al., 2013), additional root hairs
67 (Gahoonia et al., 2001; Ma et al., 2001), finer roots (Wissuwa, 2003; Marschner, 2012),
68 expansion of root cortical aerenchyma (Hinsinger et al., 2009; Postma and Lynch, 2010),
69 activity of microorganisms (P soilubilizing bacterias) in the soil (Gyaneshwar et al., 2002; Patel
70 et al., 2011), and mycorrhizal symbiosis (Bolduc and Hijri, 2011; Doubková et al., 2012;
71 Rodríguez-caballero et al., 2017).

72 Bio-inoculants can be considered as a type of Bio-fertilizer. Bio-inoculants include living
73 organisms that enhance the nutrient acquisition of the host plant through their continuous
74 presence within the plant's rhizosphere (Chen, 2006; Mirzaei Heydari, 2013). Many plants
75 have benefited from an association with micro-organisms under P-deficient conditions. These
76 associations can result either in better uptake of the available P in the soil, or in rendering
77 unavailable P sources accessible to the plant. Bio-inoculants utilize single or multiple strains
78 of naturally occurring microorganisms to change essential elements, such as P, from
79 unavailable to available forms via biological and chemical processes (Richardson, 1994:
80 Zheng, et al., 2011; Bokhorst et al., 2017). Bio-inoculants can be beneficial, and various claims
81 have often been made about their ability to promote plant and root growth and decrease the
82 need for chemical fertilizers (Rai, 2006; Magadlela et al., 2017; Sihi et al., 2017).

83 Root growth and development are under genetic control, but environmental factors such as
84 mineral nutrition and soil physical conditions can also effect on root growth. Root growth and
85 development are very important for early P uptake of plants. P is therefore hormone regulated
86 according to the phosphorus status of the plant (Romer et al., 1986; Zhu et al., 2003; Fageria
87 and Moreira, 2011; Zeng et al., 2014). Because roots are out of sight in the soil and difficulties
88 associated with extracting whole root systems from the soil, information on total root length of
89 crops and phosphorus effects are limited. Therefore measurement and analysis of relations
90 between phosphorus, root diameter, total root length and root dry matter may be useful for
91 finding their relations to crop yield. Little is known about the effect of P fertilization on roots
92 diameter and total root length in barley which this study attempted to elucidate.

93 The aim of the present study was to clarify the root architecture and the comparison between
94 root diameters, total dry root weight of plant and total root length of whole plant in barley under
95 different P treatments.

96 **2. Materials and methods**

97 **2.1. Experiment 1: Horticultural sand experiment**

98 **2.1.1. Experimental design and culture practices**

99 The first pot experiments were conducted in a horticultural fine, silver sand (easy extracting
100 whole root systems from the horticultural sand and able to the nutrition) (Table 1.) with nutrient
101 supplied by Long Ashton nutrient solution (Hewitt, 1966). Plant were grown in a glasshouse
102 (12/25 C night/day mean air temperature; additional light, approximately $120 \mu\text{E s}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$ was
103 supplied by high pressure sodium lamps for 16hd^{-1}), watered with water distilled reverse to
104 10% w:w by osmosis every 2 days.

105 ((Table 1))

106 The experiment was a completely randomized 3×4 factorial design with 9 replicates per
107 treatment with 3 replications each being harvested at three sampling date. There were three
108 biological P treatments (vesicular arbuscular mycorrhizal inoculum (M) called Biagro from
109 Glenside Company Starling that located in Scotland), phosphorus solubilising bacteria:
110 Bacillus Spez (PSB) from Green Max Agro Tech Company that located in Germany and no M
111 & PSB (Control)), four fertilizer P treatments (no P (control), sodium dihydrogen
112 orthophosphate = $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (SP), ammonium magnesium phosphate = Struvite (AMP),
113 and powdered rock phosphate with 10% P (RP).

114 Fertilizers were mixed with horticultural sand and applied to each pot in the horticultural sand
115 before sowing in plastic cylindrical pipes (height 30 cm, diameter 11 cm, volume 2.55 L with
116 a $100 \mu\text{m}$ nylon mesh in the bottom to prevent mycorrhiza emergence). Following the
117 manufacturer's instructions barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L. cv. Static) seeds were inoculated with
118 M (1kg ha^{-1}) and PSB (2L ha^{-1}) applied before sowing two seeds at 7-8 cm depth per pot.
119 After germination the seedling were thinned to one plant per pot and the experiment was in 126
120 days (from 26/09/2011 to 30/01/2012)

121 **2.1.2. Measurements and data recorded**

122 At 22 days (early vegetative stage), 57 days (ear emergence) and 126 days (almost Ripe stage
123 stage) after sowing 3 pots per treatments were harvested to determine root length, leaf area,
124 root dry matter, stem dry matter, leaf dry matter and straw dry matter and yield components of
125 barley (as appropriate for stage of growth).

126 **2.2. Experiment 2: (Non Sterilized Field Soil & Sterilized Field Soil experiment)**

127 **2.2.1. Soil characteristics and experimental site**

128 The soil used for the second pot experiment in the glasshouse was sandy loam (Table 2) from
129 the same site as the field experiment at Henfaes Research Centre of Bangor University, which
130 had received no P fertilizers for many years. Soil samples were taken at depths of 0-25 cm after
131 removing 3 cm of the soil surface, in the winter of 2011.

132 ((Table 2))

133 **2.2.2. Soil sterilization procedures**

134 Sterilization and non-sterilization of the soil were the main factors in this experiment. The soil
135 (0-20 cm) was collected from the field at the Henfaes Research Centre of Bangor University.
136 The soil properties were analysed before sterilization. The sterilization of soil was achieved by
137 incubation of the wet soil for three days to allow spores to germinate then heating soil at 90°C
138 for 1 h (Trevors, 1996) to avoid oxidation of any organic matter. Sterilised soil could be useful
139 for understanding the effects of dead/life native microorganisms on plant growth.

140 **2.2.3. Experimental design and culture practices**

141 In the second pot experiment horticultural sand changed to the field soil. Also for control of
142 interaction between native microorganisms and M and PSB treatments, second experiment was
143 split in to sterilized and non-sterilized soil.

144 The pot experiment was set out as a randomized complete block design 2×3×4 factorial design
145 with six replicates per treatment with three replications each being harvested at two sampling
146 dates. Two seeds were initially sown in each pot. After germination the seedling were thinned
147 to one plant per pot. Barley seedswere sown on 6th January, and harvested on 6th June, 2012
148 (total 120 days). There were two soil factors (unsterilized soil and sterilized soil), three
149 biological P treatments (M, PSB and no M & PSB), four non-biological P treatments (no P
150 (control), super phosphate (SP), ammonium magnesium phosphate = Struvite (AMP) and RP.
151 Non-biological P fertilizers were applied to each pot and mixed with soil before sowing in the
152 plastic cylindrical pots in the appropriate treatments for each pot before sowing in the sandy
153 loam soil.

154 **2.3. Determination of root diameter, root length and root dry matter**

155 Roots were scanned and analyzed using the WinRHIZO software (WinRhizo 5.0a, Regent
156 Instruments Inc., Canada) for determine of root diameter and total root length of plant. After
157 root scanned the roots were dried (75 C° for 48 h) separately for dry root weight measurement.

158 **2.4. Statistical analyses**

159 Data were analysed by one-way and two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the
160 main factor and their interaction effects. Mean comparisons were conducted using Tukey test
161 by GenStat 14th Edition, SPSS version 19, and Sigma Plot version 12 at P = 0.05.

162 **3. Results**

163 **3.1. First Pot Experiment (Horticultural sand) results**

164 **3.1.1. Compare of root length and dry root weight**

165 The comparison between total dry root weight of plant and total root length of plant showed
166 that the root length was significantly increased by RP treatment in the third sample (ripe stage)
167 and also the root dry weight was significantly increased by AMP treatment in the second (ear
168 emergence) sample (Figure 1).

169 ((Figure 1))

170 **3.1.2. Total root length and root dry matter**

171 The comparison between total dry root weight of plant and total root length of plant showed
172 that under P deficiency, the weight of dry root decreased and the total root length increased
173 (could be with a decrease of root diameter) (Figure 1). It seems that under lack of P, plants
174 increase of root length and decrease root diameter thereby may be achieving a greater surface
175 area and increasing the volume of soil that is explored by the roots (Division and Ridge, 2000;
176 Toro et al., 1997a; Wang, et al., 2010).

177 ((Figure 2))

178 **3.2. Second pot experiment (Non Sterilized & Sterilized Field Soil) results**

179 **3.2.1. Root diameter**

180 The root diameter was significantly increased by soil treatments in the first and second samples.
181 The lowest root diameter of the first and second sample were observed in the C (no P fertilizer)

182 treatments in the unsterilized and sterilized soil and also the highest root diameter of the first
183 and second sample were in the SP treatment in the unsterilized and sterilized soil (Figure 2,4).

184 **3.2.2. Total root length**

185 The root length was significantly increased by soil treatments in the first and second samples.
186 The highest root length of the first and second sample were observed in the C (no P fertilizer)
187 treatments in the unsterilized and sterilized soil and also the lowest root length of the first and
188 second sample were in the SP treatments in the unsterilized and sterilized soil (Figure 3,5).

189 **3.2.3. Root dry matter**

190 The root dry weight was significantly increased by soil treatments in the first and second
191 samples. The highest dry root weight of the first and second sample were observed in the SP
192 treatments in the unsterilized and sterilized soil and also the lowest dry root weight of the first
193 and second sample were in the C (no P fertilizer) treatments in the unsterilized and sterilized
194 soil (Figure 3,5).

195 **3.2.4. Compare of roots diameter, root length and dry root weight**

196 The comparison between roots diameter, root length and dry root weight of plant showed that
197 the root length was significantly increased by C (no P fertilizer) treatment in the first and second
198 samples and also the root dry weight was significantly increased by SP and AMP treatments in
199 the first and second samples.

200 **4. Discussion**

201 It is well known that root growth and characteristics plays a key role in plant adaptation to low
202 P stress (Liu et al., 2004; Lynch, 2011; Hamadoun, et al., 2016). The aim of the present study
203 was to clarify the comparison between root diameters, total dry root weight of plant and total
204 root length of whole plant in barley under different P fertilizer treatments, mainly focusing on
205 the responses of p deficiency and root growth in barley.

206 In the present study, showed that root architecture of barley (root diameters, total dry root
207 weight of plant and total root length of whole plant) was significantly correlated with amount
208 of P concentration in the soil. This suggests that the root diameter and total root length of plant
209 is particularly important in the barley plant. In the low P treatment, the root capacity to uptake
210 and mobilise P in the soil becomes more important. The results, showed that under P

211 deficiency, the weight of dry root (Figure 1, 3, 5) decreased and the total whole root length
212 (Figure 1, 5) significantly increased with decrease of root diameter (Figure 2, 4). The greatest
213 root dry weight was obtained in M+SP treatment under sterilized soil and the smallest root dry
214 weight was achieved in M treatment under unsterilized soil (Figure 3, 5). The associated this
215 effect with P deficiency improved root characteristic, which seemed to be relatively more
216 effective at low P in the soil. It seems that under lack of P, plants increase of root length and
217 decrease root diameter thereby achieving a greater surface area and increasing the volume of
218 soil that is explored by the roots (Toro et al., 1997b; Vierheilig et al., 2000; Wamberg et al.,
219 2003; Herdler et al., 2008; Fernandes et al., 2014).

220 Improvement of root architecture may increase the rhizosphere microbial communities (Hao et
221 al., 2008; Trabelsi, et al., 2017), release more organic acid and increase the utilization of P
222 sources with sustainability (Haynes, 1982; Feng et al., 2016; Munda, et al., 2016), changing
223 some of chemical, biological and physical properties in the rhizosphere (Walker et al., 2003;
224 Shen et al., 2013; Maji, et al., 2017) and Shoot P uptake, rhizosphere properties and growth
225 plants (Marschner et al., 2007). Zhu and Lynch (2004) resulted that sustained lateral rooting
226 encourages maize seedling growth under P-limiting conditions. The benefit of a large root
227 system in T149 in higher low-P tolerance was best in the calcareous soil. The hybrid T149 took
228 up more P and produced more shoot biomass and leaf area than T222, results of this research
229 showed that increasing root can increase P uptake under low P stress (Feng et al., 2016; Imtiaz
230 et al., 2016). Lynch (2011) has suggested that root architecture may be more effective for P
231 acquisition. The results may be related to ability of mycorrhiza to increase nutrient uptake,
232 especially P uptake, via mycorrhizal hyphae and extension of the root system. This result is in
233 agreement with that of other researchers (Pellerin et al., 2007; Maji et al., 2017), who concluded
234 that mycorrhiza are capable of taking up, translocating and transferring water and nutrients
235 from soil to the roots of plants. Likewise mycorrhiza play an important role in absorption of
236 poorly available forms of nutrients, and increase the nutrient bioavailability through
237 mobilization of key nutrients (especially P) by mechanisms of development of the depletion
238 zone that from the root surface around the root system through the hyphae to the crop plants
239 (Bolan, 1991; Imtiaz et al., 2016; Munda et al., 2016; Rodríguez-caballero et al., 2017).

240 The previous studies indicated that the development of the root architecture system and the
241 capability to release organic acid anions can be important to enhance P acquisition in the plant
242 (Shen et al., 2013). In cropping cultivation, the rhizospheres can intersection each other and
243 form an enormous continuum with growth of root systems in the complete root area, where

244 root/rhizospher interface occur between plants, soils, and even among different plant species
245 in intercropping cultivation (Shen et al., 2011; Shen et al., 2013; Rodríguez-caballero et al.,
246 2017). The improvement of plant growth and nutrient uptake after the bio-inoculation has
247 already been informed in several studies with related environmental characteristics (Alguacil
248 et al., 2011).

249 The results of two pots experiments have shown that under P deficient of soil the barley root
250 architecture is an effective approach for increasing P uptake and nutrient use efficiency, which
251 thinner roots with longer roots can develop rhizospher area with low use of P assimilation.
252 This effect has not previously been recorded in the literature.

253 ((Figure 3, 4, 5, 5, 7))

254 **Conclusion**

255 The present research concludes the importance of bio-inoculates in improving P availability,
256 growth root and shoot and mobilization of soil P to barley crop. In conclusion, tolerance to low
257 P in barley can be improved by transforming root morphology. Increasing root length
258 (especially decreasing root diameter) may enhanced the ability of barley plants to take up P
259 and nutrition from the deficient soil and increase the growing of barley plants.

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- 423

424 **Table 1- Analysis of Variance of the Effect of biological and non-biological P fertilizers and in**
 425 **unsterilized soil and sterilized on growth indices and P uptake**

SOV	DF	Mean Squares									
		Total Root Lebgh (S1)	Total Root Lebgh (S2)	Root DW (S1)	Root DW (S2)	Shoot DW (S1)	Shoot DW (S2)	R/S (S1)	RR/S (S2)	Total P Uptake (S1)	Total P Uptake (S2)
Replication	2	175372**	394463**	0.05*	0.002ns	3.86**	0.27ns	0.001**	0.00ns	24.8**	1.6ns
Soil (S)	1	1443300**	4110144**	25.20**	30.22**	174.6**	915.7**	0.05**	0.03**	1999**	4776**
Biological P (B)	2	114056ns	182371**	0.13**	0.01**	2.50**	16.06**	0.001**	0.00**	7.16*	135**
S*B	2	567928ns	948738ns	0.01ns	0.01**	2.12**	0.30ns	0.00ns	0.00**	36.05**	1.8*
Non- Biological P (N)	3	532852ns	8416349ns	0.54**	0.06**	19.56**	11.47**	0.001**	0.00**	129.1**	91.1**
S*N	3	3310592**	1168373**	0.13**	0.05**	0.61*	0.66*	0.001**	0.00**	5.00*	6.9**
B*N	6	817947ns	1239210ns	0.05**	0.005*	0.69**	0.14ns	0.00ns	0.00*	5.5**	1.07ns
S*B*N	6	79097ns	1288239ns	0.03*	0.007**	0.32ns	0.31ns	0.00ns	0.00*	8.8**	1.51*
Error	46	560207	1387370	0.01	0.002	0.15	0.16	0.00	0.00	1.52	0.52
C.V.	-	5.36	4.69	5.52	3.09	2.83	2.03	6.04	3.69	5.08	2.16

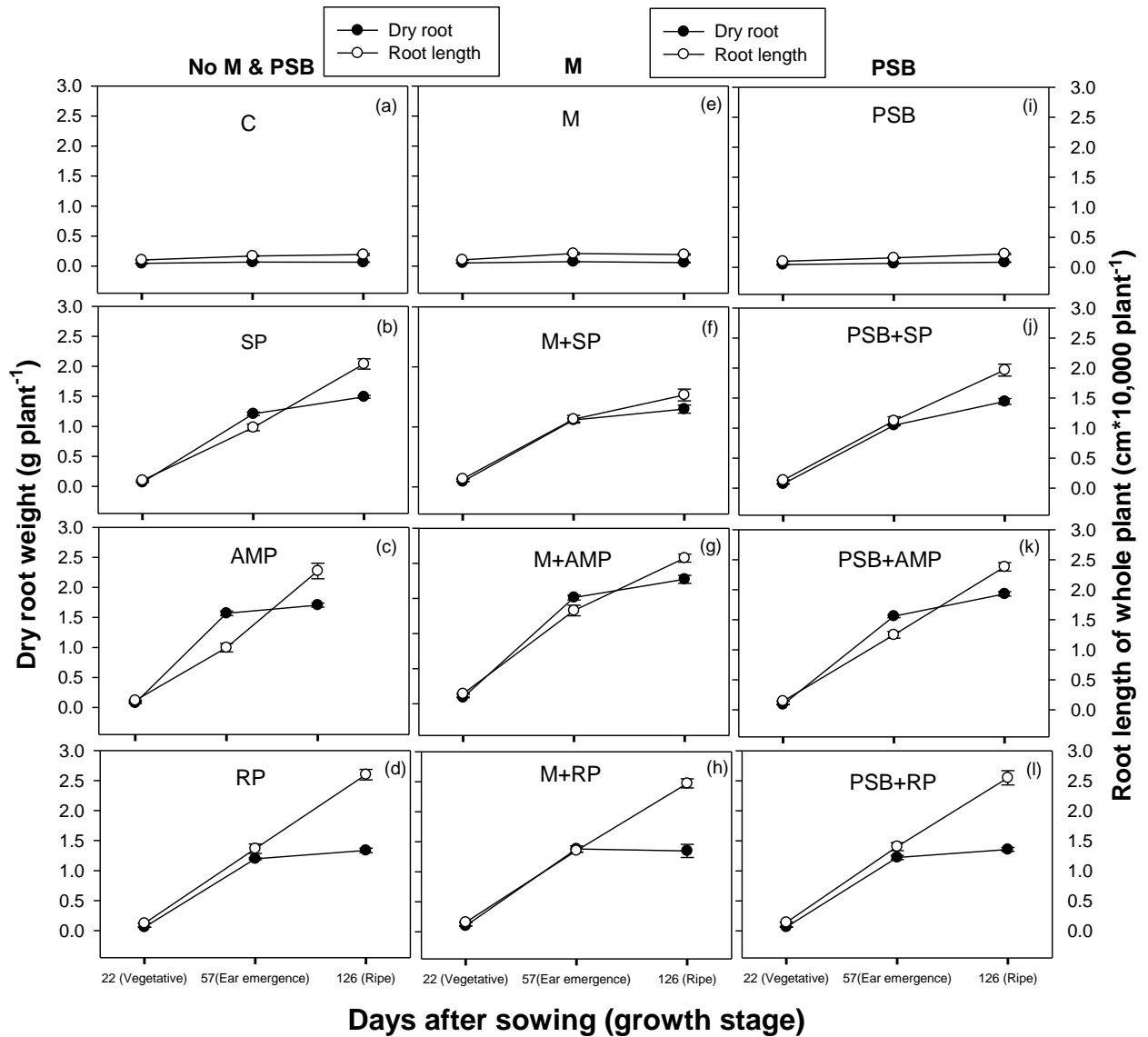
426 *, ** and ns denotes significant effect at 5 and 1 percent and non-significant effect, respectively

427

428

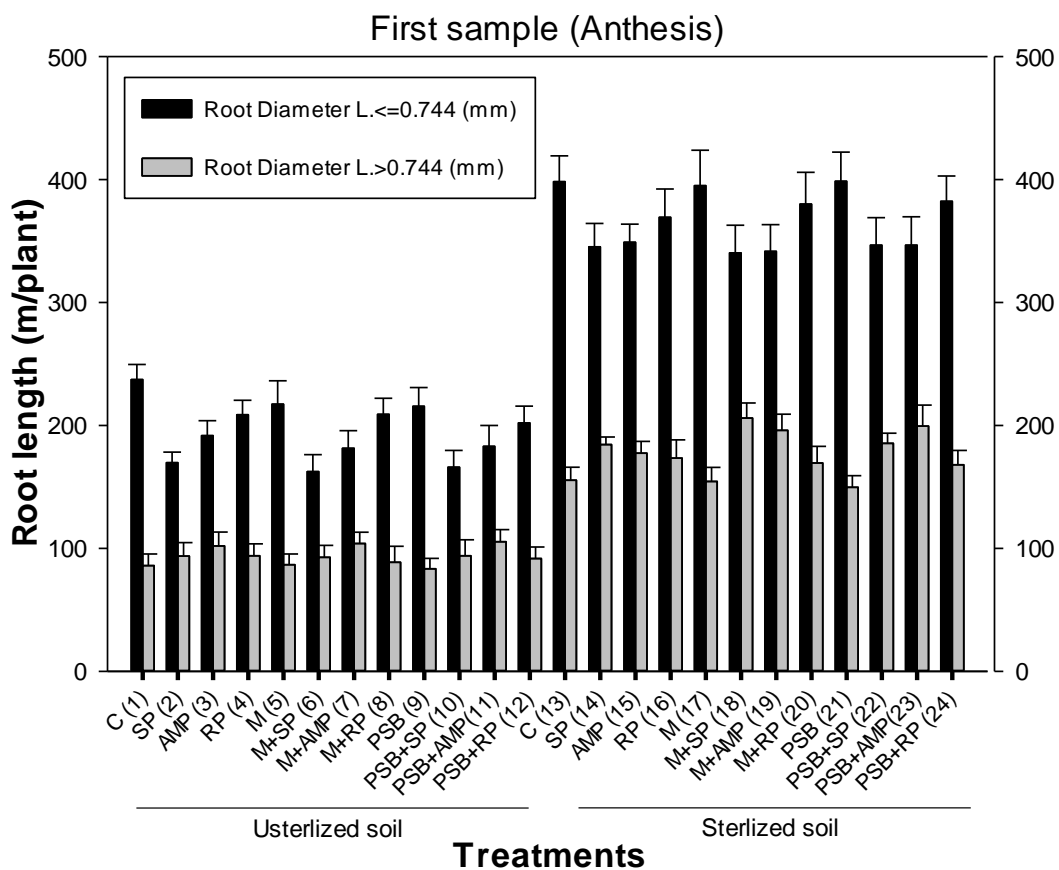
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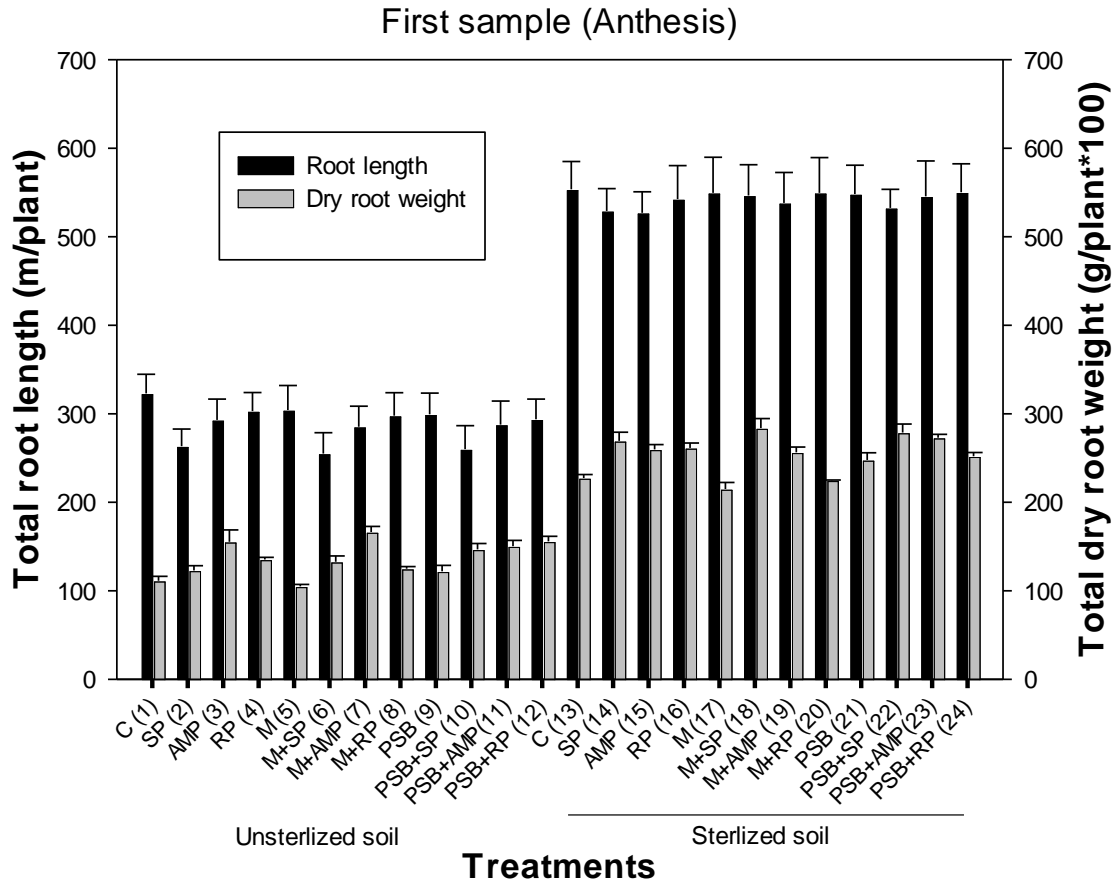
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432 **Figure 1:** Mean values of total dry root weight and total root length of plant at vegetative stage (22
 433 das), ear emergence (57 das), and ripe stage (126 days). (a) Effect of no P on dry root weight and root
 434 length; (b) Effect of SP on dry root weight and root length; (c) Effect of AMP on dry root weight and
 435 root length; (d) Effect RP on dry root weight and root length; (e) Effect of M on dry root weight and
 436 root length; (f) Effect of M+SP on **dry root weight** and **root length**; (g) Effect M+AMP on dry root
 437 weight and root length; (h) Effect M+RP on dry root weight and root length; (i) Effect of PSB on dry
 438 root weight and root length; (j) Effect of PSB+SP on dry root weight and root length; (k) Effect
 439 PSB+AMP on dry root weight and root length; (l) Effect PSB+RP on dry root weight and root length.
 440 Error bars show standard error of means (n=3).

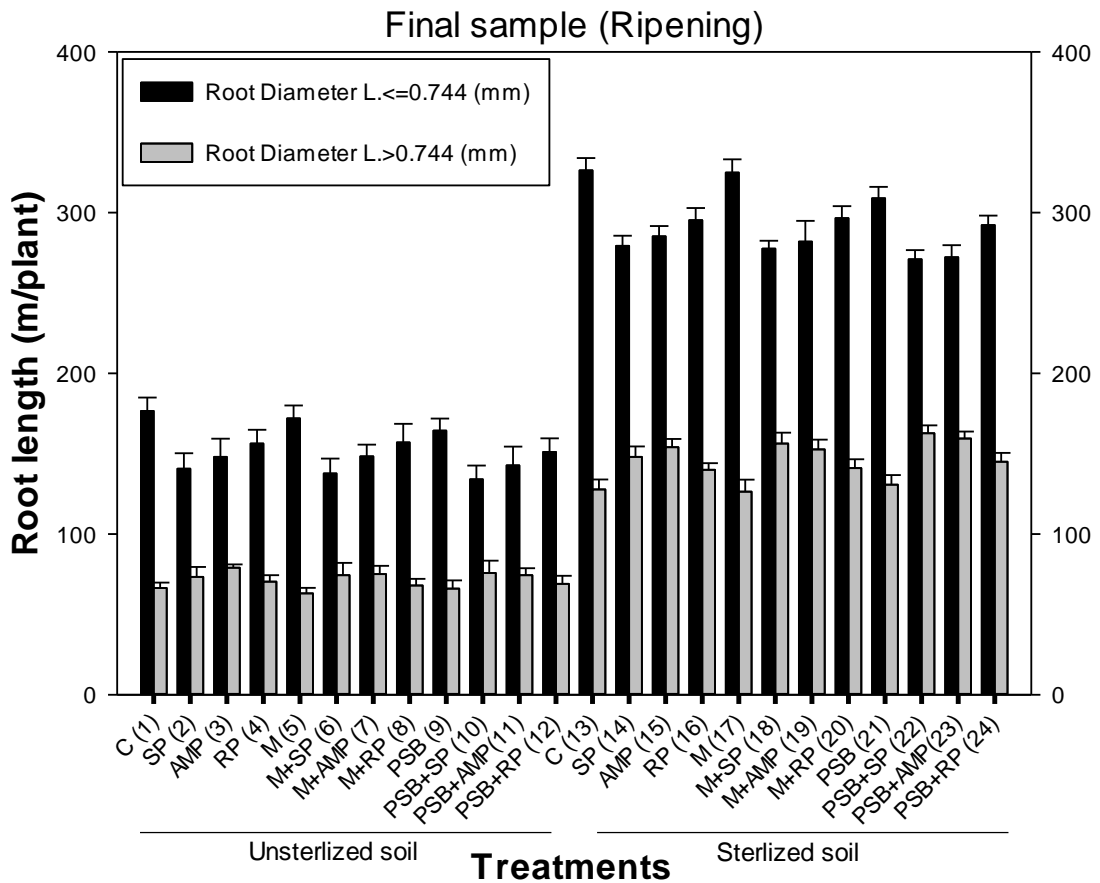


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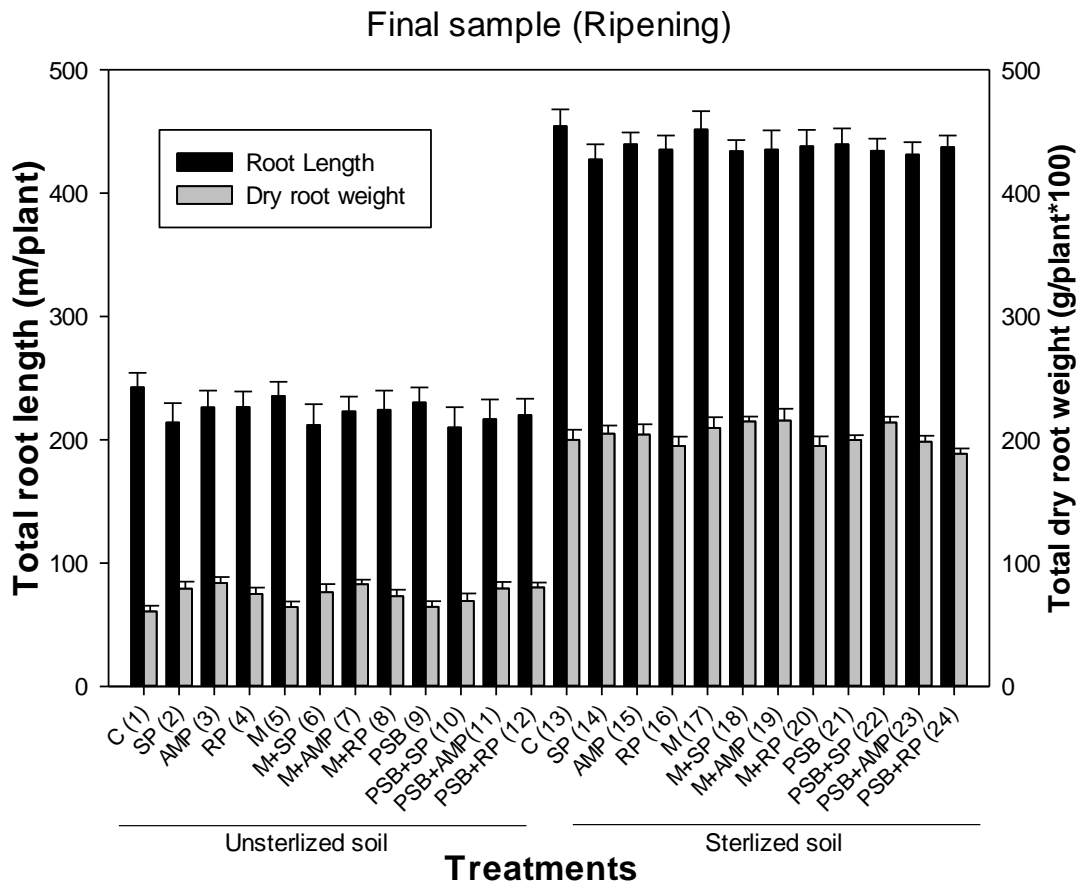
442 **Figure 2:** Effect of non-biological phosphorus fertilizers (Super-phosphate (SP), ammonium
 443 magnesium phosphate (AMP) and powdered rock phosphate (RP)) and biological phosphorus fertilizers
 444 (vesicular arbuscular mycorrhizal (M), phosphorus solubilising bacteria (PSB) and no P, M & PSB (C))
 445 on **root length** in unsterilized soil and sterilized soil in the anthesis and ripe stage. Error bars show
 446 standard error of means (n=3).



447
 448 **Figure 3:** Effect of non-biological phosphorus fertilizers (Super-phosphate (SP), ammonium
 449 magnesium phosphate (AMP) and powdered rock phosphate (RP) and biological phosphorus fertilizers
 450 (vesicular arbuscular mycorrhizal (M), phosphorus solubilising bacteria (PSB) and no P, M & PSB (C)
 451 on **root length** and **dry root weight** in unsterilized soil and sterilized soil in the anthesis and ripe stage.
 452 Error bars show standard error of means (n=3).



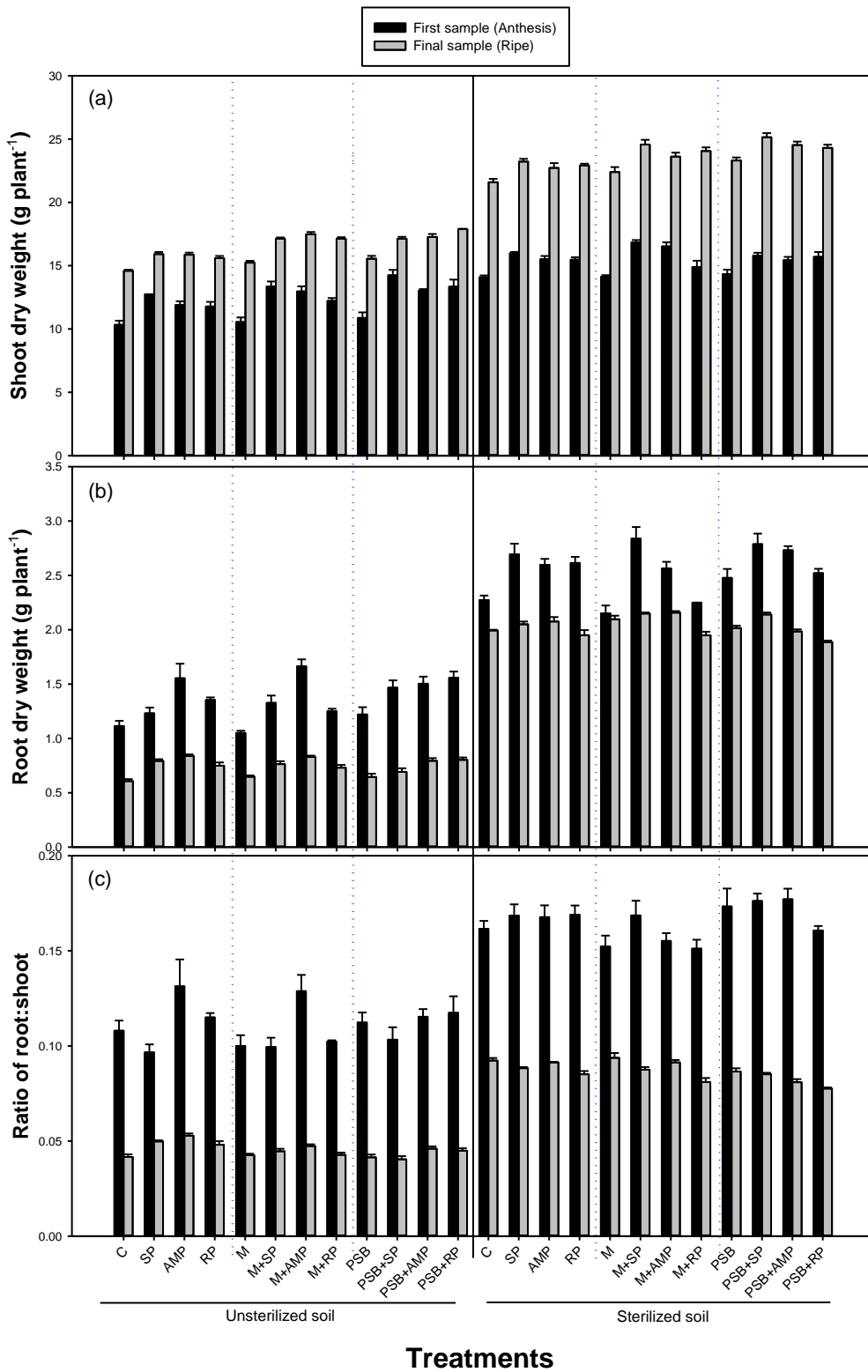
453
 454 **Figure 4:** Effect of non-biological phosphorus fertilizers (Super-phosphate (SP), ammonium
 455 magnesium phosphate (AMP) and powdered rock phosphate (RP) and biological phosphorus fertilizers
 456 (vesicular arbuscular mycorrhizal (M), phosphorus solubilising bacteria (PSB) and no P, M & PSB (C)
 457 on **root length** in unsterilized soil and sterilized soil in the anthesis and ripe stage. Error bars show
 458 standard error of means (n=3).



459

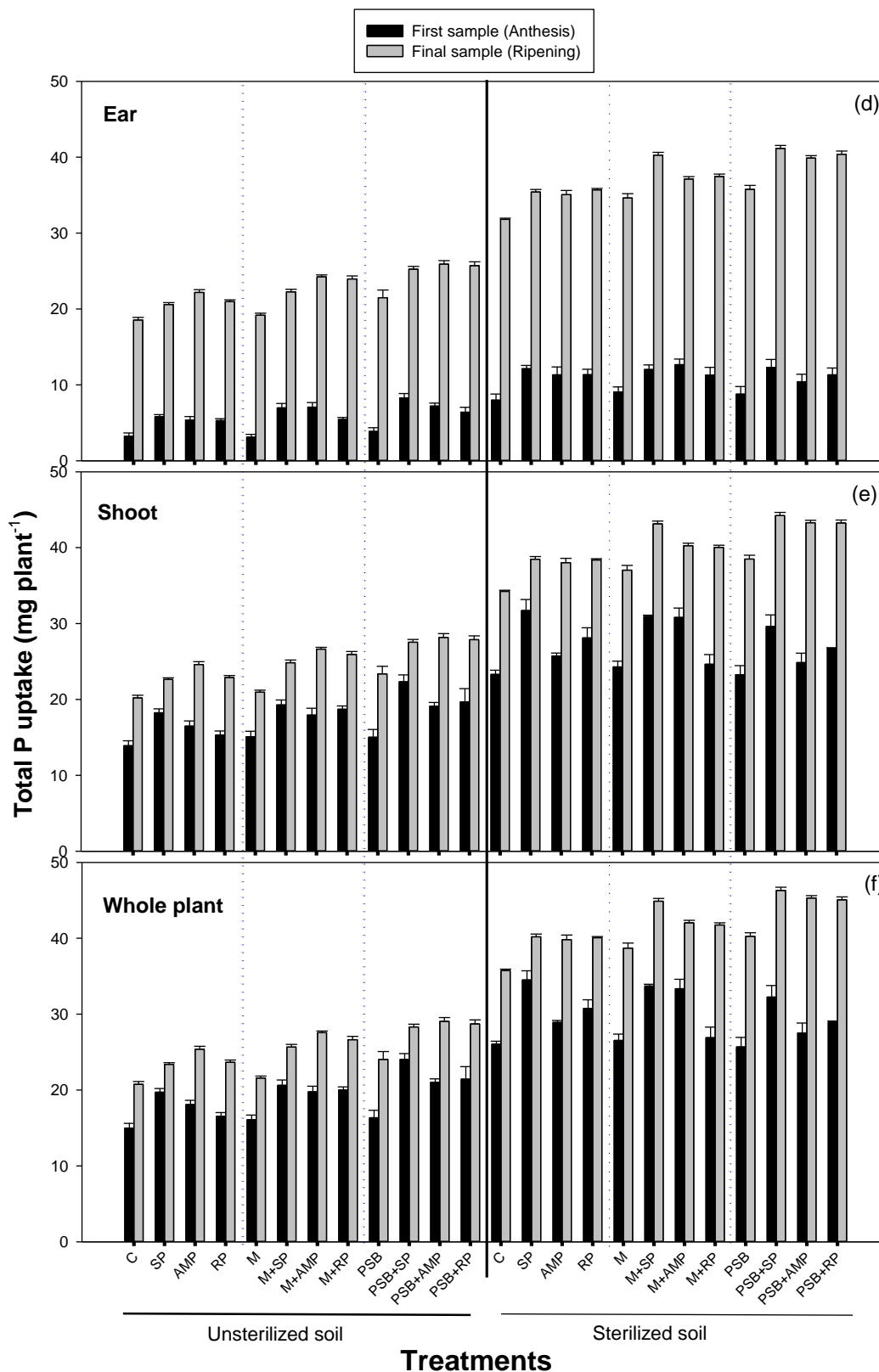
460 **Figure 5:** Effect of non-biological phosphorus fertilizers (Super-phosphate (SP), ammonium
 461 magnesium phosphate (AMP) and powdered rock phosphate (RP) and biological phosphorus fertilizers
 462 (vesicular arbuscular mycorrhizal (M), phosphorus solubilising bacteria (PSB) and no P, M & PSB (C)
 463 on **root length** and **dry root weight** in unsterilized soil and sterilized soil in the anthesis and ripe stage.
 464 Error bars show standard error of means (n=3).

465



467

468 **Fig. 6.** Effect of non-biological phosphorus fertilizers (Super-phosphate (SP), ammonium magnesium
 469 phosphate (AMP) and powdered rock phosphate (RP)) and biological phosphorus fertilizers (vesicular
 470 arbuscular mycorrhizal (M), phosphorus solubilising bacteria (PSB) and no M & PSB (C)) on shoot dry weight
 471 (a), root dry weight (b) and ratio of root:shoot (c) in unsterilized soil and sterilized soil in the anthesis and
 472 ripe stage. Error bars show standard error of means (n=3).



473

474 **Fig. 7.** Effect of non-biological phosphorus fertilizers (Super-phosphate (SP), ammonium magnesium
 475 phosphate (AMP) and powdered rock phosphate (RP)) and biological phosphorus fertilizers (vesicular
 476 arbuscular mycorrhizal (M), phosphorus solubilising bacteria (PSB) and no M & PSB (C)) on total P uptake of
 477 ear(a), shoot(b), whole plant(c) in unsterilized soil and sterilized soil in the anthesis and ripe stage.
 478 Error bars show standard error of means (n=3).

479

480 **Supplementary**

481 **Table 1:** Properties of the used in the first pot experiment.

Sand (%)	100
pH	5.7
Available P (Olsen P) (mg kg ⁻¹)	4.6
P index	0
Available K (mg kg ⁻¹)	53
K index	0
Available Mg (mg kg ⁻¹)	165
Mg index	3
Total organic C (%)	0

488

489 **Table 2:** Properties of the used in the 2nd pot experiment.

Particle size distribution	(%)	490
Sand	83.2	
Silt	13.5	491
Clay	3.3	
Textural class	Sandy loam	492
pH	5.9	
Available P (Olsen P) (mg kg ⁻¹)	11.5	
P index	1	
Available K (mg kg ⁻¹)	78	
K index	1	
Available Mg (mg kg ⁻¹)	55	
Mg index	2	
Total organic C (%)	0.65	