

## The Citrus Rootstocks Cleopatra Mandarin, *Poncirus trifoliata*, Forner-Alcaide 5 and Forner-Alcaide 13 Vary in Susceptibility to Iron Deficiency Chlorosis

M. JOSÉ LLOSÁ, ALMUDENA BERMEJO, ANTONIO CANO, ANA QUIÑONES AND  
M. ANGELES FORNER-GINER<sup>1</sup>

### Abstract

We have studied the tolerance to iron chlorosis of four citrus seedling rootstocks: the two hybrids Forner-Alcaide 5 (F-A 5) and Forner-Alcaide 13 (F-A 13), as well as their parents [Cleopatra mandarin (*Citrus reshni* Hort. ex Tan.) and *Poncirus trifoliata* (L.) Raf.]. Six-month-old potted plants were grown in four different iron concentrations (0, 9, 18 and 36  $\mu$ M) and leaf iron content, dry weight, total chlorophyll content, catalase activity and root ferric chelate reductase (FCR) activity were measured after 60 days. F-A 5 had the highest FCR activity, total chlorophyll content, total dry weight and iron content in roots. *P. trifoliata*, a genus susceptible to iron chlorosis, showed the lowest total chlorophyll content, FCR activity and total dry weight. F-A 5 is an iron-chlorosis-tolerant rootstock, which may be suitable for use in soils that cause this problem.

Calcareous soils with high pH and restricted iron availability for plants are commonly found in the Mediterranean basin. The genus *Citrus* and related rootstock species are considered to be susceptible to iron chlorosis (6). Iron deficiency tolerance is determined by the rootstock (30) so rootstocks onto which citrus trees are grafted display differences in susceptibility. Previous field studies on the iron-deficiency tolerance of rootstocks resulted in more citrus trees being planted worldwide on Cleopatra mandarin in high pH soils, because of its high tolerance to chlorosis (7, 8). However, Cleopatra mandarin rootstock has some drawbacks in that it takes a long time to start bearing and fruits are smaller than on other rootstocks (7). Carrizo citrange is the most widespread rootstock in Spain and trees on Carrizo yield more than trees on Cleopatra mandarin. However the susceptibility of Carrizo to iron chlorosis necessitates expensive Fe chelate treatments to improve its performance, and consequently, production costs increase.

To date, there are no rootstocks available combining tolerance to CTV (citrus tristeza

virus), *Phytophthora* spp., and iron chlorosis; hence it is essential to search for new rootstocks that cover all these three characteristics. Conventional breeding is very slow for woody plant species such as citrus, so the search for new citrus rootstocks using physiological screening methods is an important topic for research. One of the goals of the citrus-rootstock breeding program at the Instituto Valenciano de Investigaciones Agrarias (IVIA) in Valencia, Spain, is to develop genetically improved rootstock with enhanced iron chlorosis tolerance.

Field trials have been carried out to select chlorosis-tolerant genotypes, however it takes a long time to obtain results and only a limited number of hybrids can be evaluated. New screening techniques are needed to identify chlorosis-tolerant genotypes, which can be used in breeding programs (24). We have over five hundred hybrid citrus rootstocks and we are developing greenhouse screening tests that are easier to implement than field trials in order to evaluate the iron chlorosis tolerance of the different rootstocks.

<sup>1</sup> Instituto Valenciano de Investigaciones Agrarias, Centro de Citricultura y Producción Vegetal, Carretera Moncada-Náquera Km. 4.5, 46113, Moncada, Valencia, Spain. Address correspondence to M. Angeles Forner-Giner: Tel: 34 96 3424000. Fax: 34 96 3424001. E-mail: forner\_margin@gva.es

There are several ways to assess a plant's iron nutritional status, such as measuring the total iron concentration in leaves (12, 29), the activity of two heme-proteins in leaves: peroxidase (EC 1.11.1.7) and catalase (EC 1.11.1.6) (2, 12), or measuring the root ferric chelate reductase activity; all have been used as tools for rootstock screening in *Citrus* and *Prunus* (12, 20, 23). We have included catalase and ferric chelate reductase activity in the present screening work.

The two citrus rootstocks Forner-Alcaide 5 (F-A 5) and Forner-Alcaide 13 (F-A 13) are both hybrids of "Cleopatra" mandarin x *P. trifoliata* obtained through traditional hybridization by J. B. Forner at IVIA. Field evaluation showed that F-A 5 is more tolerant to iron chlorosis than Carrizo citrange, although F-A 13 is less tolerant than F-A 5 and Carrizo (16).

To study the physiological basis of iron-chlorosis tolerance, a greenhouse experiment was carried out to evaluate the contribution of catalase and root ferric chelate reductase activity to iron-chlorosis tolerance of F-A 5 and F-A 13 compared to their parents, Cleopatra mandarin and *P. trifoliata*.

### Materials and Methods

**Experimental conditions.** Seeds of all rootstocks were harvested from the mother seed trees held in the germplasm collection at IVIA (Moncada) Valencia, Spain. Seeds were sown on 55 x 40 cm trays containing a mixture of peat and siliceous sand (3:2 vol:vol) in an aphid-proof greenhouse with a cooling system that kept temperatures between 15 °C and 28 °C and 80% relative humidity. Plants were grown with supplementary light (< 50 mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, 400-700 nm) to extend the photoperiod to 16 h. Five-month-old plants were transplanted into 5-L plastic pots containing siliceous sand (peat remains were previously eliminated from the roots) and kept in the greenhouse. After transplanting, the plants were irrigated three times a week for 2 wk to acclimatize them to the new substrate, and after 2 wk a nutrient solution (3 mM Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, 3 mM KNO<sub>3</sub>, 2 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 3 mM H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 18 μM Fe and trace elements according to Hoagland and

Arnon (22)) was added to the irrigation water. Nutrient solution pH was adjusted to 6.0 with 1M KOH or 1M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. After this period, the plants were divided into four groups that received either 0, 9, 18 or 36 μM Fe with six replicate plants per 4 Fe levels x 4 rootstocks. All iron was applied as Fe-EDDHA added to the watering with nutrient solution and applied three times per week for 60 days. Plants were then randomly distributed and a row of buffer plants, not included in the experiment, was placed around the perimeter. At the end of the experiment, the plants were uprooted and after separating the different organs, their fresh weight was determined. After taking a leaf sample for analysis, young leaves, stems and roots were harvested, dried in an oven at 60°C for 72 h and their dry weight determined again. Total dry weight was determined as the sum of the total dry weight of leaves, stems and roots.

**Iron analysis.** Iron content was determined in young leaves by humid digestion and resolution by atomic absorption analysis (10) with an atomic absorption spectrometer (Perkin-Elmer Aanalyst 200, Madrid, Spain)

**Catalase activity.** A fresh sample of 2 g of recently fully expanded young leaves was homogenized in a Polytron 3100 (Kinematica, Lucerne, Switzerland) using 10 ml phosphate buffer (10 mM, pH 6.5) containing 0.25 g of insoluble polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVPP, Sigma, Barcelona, Spain). The crude extract was centrifuged at 12000 rpm at 4°C for 30 min, and the supernatant was used for the catalase assay.

The reaction medium (2 ml) contained 50 mM phosphate buffer pH 7.0, and 100 μl of the supernatant obtained after centrifugation of the crude extract. The reaction was started by adding 100 μL of 10 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Catalase activity was spectrophotometrically determined by the decrease in hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) (3). The reaction was monitored at 240 nm in a spectrophotometer UV-1610 (Shimadzu Corp., Kyoto Japan), at room temperature. The molar extinction coefficient used was 43.6 M<sup>-1</sup>cm<sup>-1</sup>. Catalase activity was expressed as mmol H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> consumed x (min x g of protein)<sup>-1</sup>.

**Ferric chelate reductase activity.** Ferric

chelate reductase (FCR) activity was determined in young roots (20 mg fresh weight) (9). They were washed with 0.2 mM  $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  solution for 5-10 min, and subsequently placed in a 50 ml Falcon tube containing 0.2 mM  $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 0.1 mM Fe(III)-EDTA and 0.3 mM bathophenanthrolinedisulphonate (BPDS) in 10 ml of 5 mM (N-morpholino)-ethanesulphonic acid (MES) pH 5.5 for 24 h at room temperature in the dark. Color development due to the generation of the Fe(II)-BPDS<sub>3</sub> complex was determined in a microplate reader UVM340 (AsysHitech GmbH, Eugendorf, Austria) at 535 nm. A calibration curve for Fe(II)-BPDS<sub>3</sub> was used to determine Fe(III) reduction ( $R^2=0.998$ ). FCR activity was expressed as  $\mu\text{mol Fe(II)} \times (\text{hour} \times \text{g fresh weight})^{-1}$ .

**Chlorophyll content.** Five young leaves per plant were randomly collected and three 8 mm diameter discs excised per leaf were used for the chlorophyll content determination. Chlorophylls were extracted with N,N-dimethylformamide for 72 h in the dark at 4°C and quantified by measuring the absorbance at 647 and 664 nm (32) using a Shimadzu UV-1601 spectrophotometer (Shimadzu Corp.,

Kyoto, Japan).

**Statistical analyses.** All the data correspond to the mean of at least six replicate plants. ANOVA and regression analysis were performed with Statgraphics Plus for Windows, version 5.1 (Statistical Graphics, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, USA).

## Results

**Growth.** Cleopatra mandarin exhibited higher leaf dry weight per plant than the trifoliolate leaved *P. trifoliata*, F-A 5 or F-A 13 (Table 1). F-A 5 and F-A 13 had a higher leaf weight than *P. trifoliata*. None of the leaf dry weights were affected by the iron treatments regardless of rootstock except *P. trifoliata* ( $R^2=0.49$ ). F-A 5 and Cleopatra mandarin had a more developed root system than F-A 13 and *P. trifoliata*. The absence of iron from the nutrient solution (0  $\mu\text{M}$ ) reduced root dry weight of *P. trifoliata* ( $R^2=0.34$ ) and F-A 5 ( $R^2=0.32$ ).

F-A 5 and Cleopatra mandarin had the greatest total dry weight and *P. trifoliata* the lowest. *P. trifoliata* dry weight was affected by Fe concentration ( $R^2=0.52$ ). The ratio of root dry weight:shoot dry weight was not affected by Fe concentration (data not shown).

**Table 1.** Dry matter and shoot length of four citrus rootstocks grown with different levels of Fe in the nutrient solutions (values are means of six replicates)<sup>2</sup>.

Rootstock	Treatment	Dry wt leaves (g)		Dry wt roots (g)		Total dry wt (g)	
Cleopatra m.	0 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	9.32		5.39		24.36	
	9 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	9.63		6.05		26.53	
	18 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	8.65		6.05		23.45	
	36 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	9.68	ns	6.48	ns	26.14	ns
<i>P. trifoliata</i>	0 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	1.19		2.65		8.24	
	9 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	2.21		4.71		17.21	
	18 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	2.50		4.64		17.17	
	36 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	2.50	Q( $R^2=0.49$ )	4.07	Q( $R^2=0.34$ )	17.53	Q( $R^2=0.52$ )
F-A 5	0 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	3.47		5.11		21.04	
	9 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	3.51		6.36		25.82	
	18 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	3.89		6.31		24.45	
	36 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	3.80	ns	6.84	L( $R^2=0.32$ )	24.80	ns
F-A 13	0 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	3.81		4.55		19.45	
	9 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	4.49		5.07		23.10	
	18 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	3.83		3.70		21.54	
	36 $\mu\text{M}$ Fe	4.31	ns	5.01	ns	21.31	ns

<sup>2</sup> (L) linear or (Q) quadratic effect of Fe treatment, (ns) no significant quadratic or linear regression

**Table 2.** Iron content in leaves and roots, and catalase activity (mmol H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> consumed x (min x g protein)<sup>-1</sup> in leaves of four citrus rootstocks grown with different levels of Fe in the solutions (values are means of six replications)<sup>2</sup>.

Rootstock	Treatment	Fe leaves (mg)	Fe roots (mg)	Catalase
Cleopatra m.	0 µM Fe	252.3 def	1394.3 fgh	22.8
	9 µM Fe	375.1 bc	3370.7 cde	32.9
	18 µM Fe	389.3 b	4994.8 ab	52.5
	36 µM Fe	535.9 a	5406.7 a	46.4
<i>P. trifoliata</i>	0 µM Fe	94.9 h	984.5 h	25.4
	9 µM Fe	164.4 fgh	2060.5 efgh	34.6
	18 µM Fe	217.8 efg	2924.7 def	49.6
	36 µM Fe	297.6 cde	4615.2 abc	41.7
F-A 5	0 µM Fe	168.0 gh	1379.0 fgh	27.3
	9 µM Fe	225.5 efg	2785.3 def	27.5
	18 µM Fe	269.1 de	3621.0 bcd	40.4
	36 µM Fe	296.8 cde	5422.0 a	34.5
F-A 13	0 µM Fe	162.8 gh	1321.3 gh	28.6
	9 µM Fe	282.1 de	2821.1 def	31.0
	18 µM Fe	309.0 bcde	2609.2 defg	33.9
	36 µM Fe	333.7 bcd	4968.8 ab	31.2

<sup>2</sup> Within each column, values with the same letter are not significantly different at 5%. (L) linear or (Q) quadratic effect of Fe concentration, (ns) no significant quadratic or linear regression.

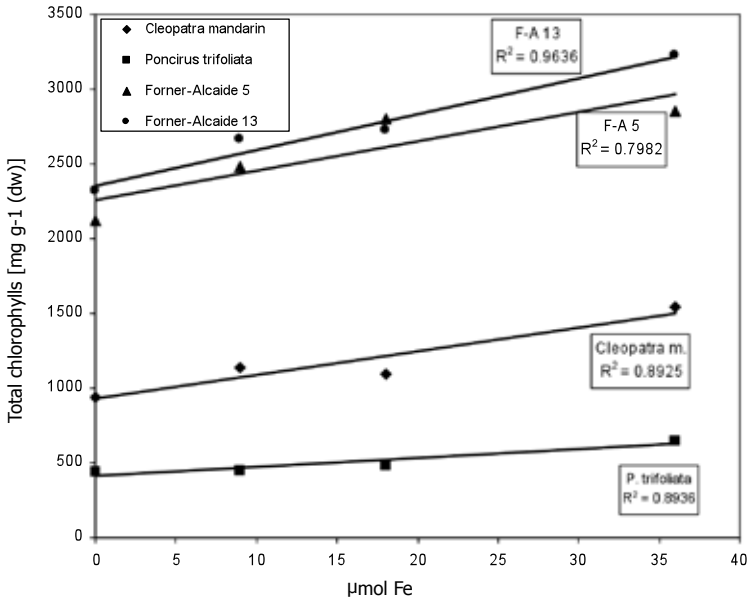
**Iron concentration.** The iron concentration in young leaves after 60 days of Fe treatments increased significantly as applied Fe increased (Table 2). F-A 5 and F-A 13 did not show any changes in foliar iron concentration among Fe treatments above 0 µM. Cleopatra mandarin generally had higher iron concentrations in leaves for any given treatment than *P. trifoliata*, F-A 5 or F-A 13. The Fe treatments had a significant effect on root iron concentration in all rootstocks (Table 2). At any given level of Fe, there were no significant differences in root Fe content among the rootstocks.

**Catalase activity.** The different concentrations of iron did not affect the catalase activity in any of the rootstocks (Table 2).

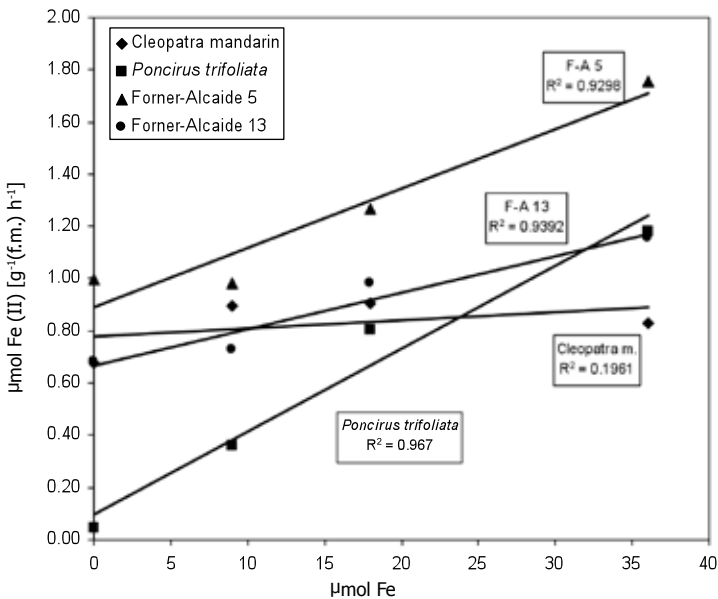
**Chlorophylls.** The two hybrids, F-A 13 and F-A 5, had the highest levels of total chlorophyll in the 0, 9 and 18 µM Fe treatments, while for 36 µM treatment F-A 13 was significantly higher than F-A 5 (Fig. 1). Total chlorophyll in leaves of Cleopatra mandarin was lower than in the F-A rootstocks, but significantly higher than *P. trifoliata*, except at 18 µM Fe in nutrient solution, where the two were not significantly different. Despite

its much higher leaf DW (Table 1), Cleopatra mandarin had a lower concentration of chlorophyll in those leaves per unit of DW than F-A 5 or F-A 13 (Fig. 1).

**Root ferric chelate reductase activity.** In plants grown without iron in the nutrient solution, the four rootstocks differed significantly in FCR activity (i.e. differed in y-intercepts in Fig. 2). F-A 13 had high FCR activity in the treatment without any iron in solution, similar to Cleopatra mandarin but lower than F-A 5. *P. trifoliata* was very low compared to all other rootstocks. In the case of F-A 13, FCR activity increased ( $R^2=0.939$ ) in line with an increase in iron concentration in solution. F-A 5 had the highest FCR activity for any given iron treatment and activity increased ( $R^2=0.929$ ) linearly with increasing iron in solution. The treatments did not affect all rootstocks equally (i.e. the slopes of the regressions differed). Cleopatra mandarin displayed no significant difference in FCR activity as iron increased, at least in the range tested here, whereas *P. trifoliata*, F-A 5 and F-A 13 all showed significant linear increases in FCR activity in roots as iron in the medium rose.



**Fig. 1.** Total chlorophylls (chl<sub>a</sub>+Chl<sub>b</sub>) (mg·g<sup>-1</sup> dry weight) of different rootstocks grown for 60 days with four different Fe concentrations.



**Fig. 2.** Root ferric chelate reductase activities (μmol Fe (II)·g<sup>-1</sup> (f.m.)·h<sup>-1</sup>) of different rootstocks grown 60 days with four different Fe concentrations.

### Discussion

F-A 5 and F-A 13 are two citrus rootstocks, both Cleopatra mandarin x *P. trifoliata* hybrids, developed at the Centro de Citricultura y Producción Vegetal at IVIA (Moncada, Spain) and currently commercialized in Spain. The productivity of trees on F-A 5 and F-A 13 is higher than trees on Carrizo citrange, but their tree size is also smaller (16). Thus, these two hybrids have high production efficiency per unit of canopy volume. Both hybrids also are resistant to CTV and tolerant to salinity (18), and their horticultural performance in experimental plots has been very good (17). Now, we have tested these rootstocks for susceptibility to iron chlorosis.

A number of authors have classified iron tolerance of citrus rootstocks in terms of growth and chlorosis parameters of shoots (5, 21, 34). Iron deficiency tolerance is primarily determined by the rootstock, but the scion cultivar also exerts an effect. Cleopatra mandarin is considered a tolerant genotype to iron chlorosis whereas *P. trifoliata* is very susceptible to iron chlorosis (7). Table 1 shows how zero iron treatments affected leaf weight. Differences were found among the different genotypes included in the experiment: Cleopatra mandarin has larger entire leaves than *P. trifoliata*, F-A 5 and F-A 13 which all have smaller trifoliate leaves. Pestana et al. (30) describe an increase in root biomass in Troyer and *C. taiwanica* (Tan. and Shim.) orange plants grown in the absence of Fe. This response has already been described for other species (25, 26, 36); however, no root morphological changes were found in response to low Fe in peach (31). Here, root weight increased with increasing iron in the treatments. Some authors used the root:shoot ratio to assess the distribution of photoassimilates between shoots and roots (26), and an effect of Fe on root:shoot ratio in some young citrus rootstocks has been described (30). Pestana et al. (30) connected the constant root:shoot ratio of Swingle citrumelo with its high susceptibility to iron chlorosis, but in our experiment all rootstocks had a constant root:shoot ratio so it was impossible for us to correlate the root:shoot ratio to iron

chlorosis susceptibility.

F-A 5 and Cleopatra mandarin had a higher total dry weight than the other two rootstocks (Table 1). It is clear, however, that plants grown with little or no iron were smaller and produced less dry matter than those grown with high levels of Fe. This is especially true in *P. trifoliata* where the reduction in growth was about 53% in the absence of Fe. The evaluation of growth parameters may not be sufficient to evaluate iron-chlorosis tolerance in citrus rootstocks (30).

Percent dry weight of iron in chlorotic leaves, is frequently greater than in green leaves (1, 27). This was called the "chlorosis paradox" (33) and results from either the inactivation of iron in leaves or from an inhibition of leaf growth due to iron chlorosis (27, 28). This phenomenon did not occur in young hydroponically grown citrus seedlings (12). Chouliaras et al. (13) found that the absence of iron in the nutrient solution reduced catalase activity in leaves of citrus plants when enzyme activity was used as an indicator of iron chlorosis in orange cultivars. This is in agreement with our results in that 0  $\mu\text{M}$  Fe decreased catalase activity in all the rootstocks except F-A 13; however, the increase of catalase activity is not significantly correlated with the iron concentrations (Table 2).

Chouliaras et al. (13) also found that catalase and peroxidase activity were significantly higher in leaves of two cultivars grafted on *C. aurantium* than when they were grafted on Swingle citrumelo so *C. aurantium* was more tolerant to iron chlorosis than Swingle citrumelo. These results disagree with those obtained in our experiment, because catalase activity in Cleopatra mandarin, an iron-chlorosis-tolerant rootstock, did not differ from the susceptible *P. trifoliata* at any given level of Fe tested.

Iron catalyzes chlorophyll biosynthesis (11) and is believed to affect leaf chlorophyll content. F-A 5 and F-A 13 maintained significantly higher chlorophyll contents than Cleopatra mandarin and *P. trifoliata* (Fig. 1). Sudahono et al. (34) reported that the values of chlorophyll may give information not only

about the degree of chlorosis but also about the different behavior of genotypes to iron chlorosis. The chlorophyll data suggest that *P. trifoliata* was the most sensitive of all the rootstocks in agreement with the results published by other authors (7, 21) and the data also suggest that F-A 5 and F-A 13 are tolerant to iron deficiency.

Determination of FCR activity has been widely used as a screening technique for selecting iron chlorosis-tolerant genotypes (12, 20, 23). Increases in FCR activity when iron was omitted from the nutrient solution have been found in other woody plants under different experimental conditions (12, 14). Several reports have indicated that in other fruit tree species, iron deficiency alone does not always produce increases in FCR activity (19, 31, 35). Tagliavini et al. (35) did not find any FCR induction in iron-deficient rootstocks. There have been other preliminary reports that the addition of iron to the nutrient solution of Fe-deficient trees may cause an enhancement of root FCR activity (4, 15).

Under our working conditions, an increase in root FCR activity was observed with increasing iron concentration in the nutrient solution, except in Cleopatra mandarin, in which no differences were found among the four iron treatments applied (Figure 2). F-A 5, F-A 13 and *P. trifoliata* displayed increased FCR activity with increasing iron concentration in the medium. FCR activity of *P. trifoliata* was the lowest for the 0 and 9  $\mu\text{M}$  Fe treatments.

In conclusion, the results indicated that the rootstock F-A 5 showed high FCR activity in roots, high chlorophyll content in leaves and iron content in roots, and also high total dry weight. F-A 5 is an iron-chlorosis-tolerant rootstock like Cleopatra mandarin, but as it does not have the important agronomic drawbacks associated with Cleopatra mandarin, it is a valuable rootstock for soils affected by this abiotic problem.

#### Acknowledgements

This work was supported by research projects to M.A. Forner GV05/217 from the *Generalitat Valenciana*, RTA2008-0060 from

INIA (Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia, Spain) and the financial help of the European Community (FEDER and ESF funds). We thank to A. Calatayud for her advice during the preparation of this manuscript and Juan Rodríguez-Gamir in his statistical assistance.

#### Literature Cited

1. Abadia, J. 1992. Leaf responses to iron deficiency: a review. *J. Plant Nutr.* 15:1699-1713.
2. Bar-Akiva, A., M. Kaplan and R. Lavon. 1967. The use of biochemical indicators for diagnosing micronutrient deficiencies of grapefruit under field conditions. *Agrochimica* 11:283-288.
3. Brees, R.F. and I.W. Sizer. 1952. A spectrophotometric method for measuring the breakdown of hydrogen peroxide by catalase. *J. Biol. Chem.* 195:137-140.
4. Bohórquez, J.M., F.J. Romera and E. Alcántara. 2001. Effect of Fe<sup>3+</sup>, Zn<sup>2+</sup> and Mn<sup>2+</sup> on ferric reducing capacity and regreening process of the peach rootstock Nemaguard (*Prunus persica* (L.) Batsch). *Plant Soil* 237:157-163.
5. Byrne, D.H., R.E. Rouse and Sudahono. 1995. Tolerance to citrus rootstocks to lime-induced chlorosis. *Subtrop. Plant Sci.* 47:7-11.
6. Carpena-Artes, O., J.J. Moreno, J.J. Lucena and R.O. Carpena-Ruiz. 1995. Response to iron chlorosis of different hydroponically grown Citrus varieties. Pp. 147-151. In: J. Abadia (ed.). *Iron nutrition in soils and plants*. Kluwer Academic Publisher, Dordrecht, The Netherlands.
7. Castle, W.S. 1987. Citrus rootstocks. Pp. 361-369. In: R.C. Rom and R.F. Carlson (eds.) *Rootstocks for fruit crops*. John Wiley and Sons, New York.
8. Castle, W.S. and J.A. Manthey. 1998. Screening citrus rootstocks for iron-deficiency tolerance. *Fruits* 53: 375-381.
9. Chaney, R.L., J.C. Brown and L.O. Tiffin. 1972. Obligatory reduction of ferric chelates in iron uptake by soybeans. *Plant Physiol.* 50: 208-213.
10. Chapman, H.D. and P.R. Pratt. 1961. *Plant analysis*. P. 48. In: H.D. Chapman (ed.). *Methods of analysis for soils, plants and waters*. Div. Agr. Sci. University of California, Riverside, Calif., USA.
11. Chereskin, B.M. and P.A. Castelfranco. 1982. Effects of iron and oxygen on chlorophyll biosynthesis. II. Observations on the biosynthesis pathway in isolated etiochloroplasts. *Plant Physiol.* 68: 112-116.
12. Chouliaras, V., I. Therios, A. Molassiotis and G. Diamantidis. 2004. Iron chlorosis in grafted sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis* L.) plants: physiological and biochemical responses. *Biol. Plantarum* 48: 141-144.

13. Chouliaras, V., K. Dimassi, I. Therios, A. Molasiotis and G. Diamantidis. 2004. Root-reducing capacity, rhizosphere acidification, peroxidase and catalase activities and nutrient levels of *Citrus taiwanica* and *C. volkameriana* seedlings, under Fe deprivation conditions. *Agronomie* 24:1-6.
14. De la Guardia, M.D., A. Felipe, E. Alcántara, J.M. Fournier and F.J. Romera. 1995. Evaluation of experimental peach rootstocks grown in nutrient solutions for tolerance to iron stress. Pp: 201-205. In: J. Abadia (ed). Iron nutrition in soils and plants. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, The Netherlands.
15. De la Guardia, M.D. and E. Alcántara, 2002. A comparison of ferric-chelate reductase and chlorophyll and growth ratios as indices of selection of quince, pear and olive genotypes under iron deficiency stress. *Plant Soil* 241:49-56.
16. Forner, J.B., M.A. Forner-Giner and A. Alcaide. 2003. Forner-Alcaide 5 and Forner-Alcaide 13: two new citrus rootstocks released in Spain. *Hort-Science* 38:629-630.
17. Forner-Giner, M.A., A. Alcaide, E. Primo-Millo and J.B. Forner. 2003. Performance of Navelina orange on 14 rootstocks in Northern Valencia (Spain). *Scientia Hort.* 98:223-232.
18. Forner-Giner, M.A., A. Alcaide, E. Primo-Millo and J.B. Forner. 2009. Performance of Forner-Alcaide 5 and Forner-Alcaide 13, hybrids of Cleopatra mandarin x *Poncirus trifoliata*, as salinity-tolerant citrus rootstocks. *J. Amer. Pomol. Soc.* 63:72-80.
19. Gogorcena, Y., J. Abadía and A. Abadia. 2000. Induction of in vivo root ferric chelate reductase activity in fruit tree rootstock. *J. Plant Nutr.* 23:9-21.
20. Gogorcena, Y., J. Abadía and A. Abadia. 2004. A new technique for screening iron-efficient genotypes in peach rootstocks: elicitation of root ferric chelate reductase by manipulation of external iron concentrations. *J. Plant Nutr.* 27:1-15.
21. Hamzé, M., J. Ryan and M. Zaabout. 1986. Screening citrus rootstocks for lime-induced chlorosis tolerance. *J. Plant Nutr.* 9:459-469.
22. Hoagland, D.R. and D.S. Arnon. 1950. The water culture method for growing plants without soil. *California Agric. Exp. Sta. Circ.* 374. University of California, Berkeley, Calif. 32 pp.
23. Jimenez, S., J. Pinochet, M.A. Moreno and Y. Gogorcena. 2008. Tolerance response to iron chlorosis of *Prunus* selections as rootstocks. *Hort-Science* 43:304-309.
24. Jolley, V.D., K.A. Cook, N.C. Hansen, Stevens W.B. 1996. Plant physiological responses for genotypic evaluation of iron efficiency in strategy I and strategy II plants: a review. *J. Plant Nutr.* 19:1241-1255.
25. Marschner, H., E.A. Kirkby and I. Cakman. 1996. Effect of mineral nutritional status on shoot-root partitioning of photoassimilates and cycling of mineral nutrients. *J. Exp. Bot.* 47: 1255-1263.
26. McDonald, A.J.S., T. Ericsson and C. Larsson. 1996. Plant nutrition, dry matter gain and partitioning at the whole-plant level. *J. Exp. Bot.* 47: 1245-1253.
27. Morales, F., R. Grasa, A. Abadía and J. Abadia. 1998. Iron chlorosis paradox in fruit trees. *J. Plant Nutr.* 21:815-825.
28. Morales, F., R. Grasa, Y. Gogorcena, A. Abadía and J. Abadia. 2000. Where is Fe located in iron-chlorotic peach leaves? P. 99. 10<sup>th</sup> International Symposium on Nutrition and Interactions in Plants, Houston, Texas, USA.
29. Pestana, M., A. De Varennes and E. A. Faria. 2003. Diagnosis and correction of iron chlorosis in fruit trees: a review. *Food Agric. Environ.* 1:46-51.
30. Pestana, M., A. De Varennes, J. Abadía and E. Aruajo Faria. 2005. Differential tolerance to iron deficiency of citrus rootstocks grown in nutrient solution. *Scientia Hort.* 104:25-36.
31. Romera, F.J., E. Alcántara and M.D. De la Guardia. 1991. Characterization of the tolerance to iron chlorosis in different peach rootstocks grown in nutrient solution. I: Effect of bicarbonate and phosphate. *Plant Soil* 130:115-119.
32. Romero-Aranda, R., J.L. Moya, F.R. Tadeo, F. Legaz, E. Primo-Millo and M. Talon. 1998. Physiological and anatomical disturbances induced by chloride salts in sensitive and tolerant citrus: beneficial and detrimental effects of cations. *Plant Cell Environ.* 21:1243-1253.
33. Romheld, V. 2000. The chlorosis paradox: Fe inactivation as a secondary event in chlorotic leaves of grapevine. *J. Plant Nutr.* 12:629-1643.
34. Sudahono, D.H. Byrne and R.E. Rouse. 1994. Greenhouse screening of citrus rootstocks for tolerance to bicarbonate-induced iron chlorosis. *HortScience* 29:113-116.
35. Tagliavini, M., A.D. Rombolá and B. Marangoni. 1995. Response to iron deficiency stress of pear and quince genotypes. *J. Plant Nutr.* 18:2465-2482.
36. Viti, R. and F. Cinelli. 1993. Lime-induced chlorosis in quince rootstocks: methodological and physiological aspects. *J. Plant Nutr.* 16:631-641.