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1	How root nutrient uptake affects rhizosphere pH: A modelling study
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20	

22 Abstract

Rhizosphere pH is the consequence of numerous, complex processes and is a key factor of 23 biogeochemistry at the soil-root interface. This work aimed at evaluating the impact of 24 25 nutrient root absorption on rhizosphere pH using a mechanistic model formalizing major nutrient cation and anion transport, under the influence of concentration, electric potential 26 27 gradients and of convection. The electrical neutrality of the system was maintained through a H^+ root efflux or influx (or equivalent opposite OH⁻ fluxes). The model outputs were 28 compared to the rhizosphere pH of maize (Zea mays L.), ryegrass (Lolium perenne L.) and 29 Alpine pennycress (Noccaea caerulescens (J. & C. Presl) F. K. Mey.) grown in three different 30 31 soils, determined with planar optodes. A global sensitivity analysis was carried out in order to highlight the dominating factors. The composition of 37 soil solutions from the literature was 32 used to predict rhizosphere pH. The model most of the time predicts the alkalinisation of the 33 34 rhizosphere by up to +3.3 pH units, given that in aerobic soils, nitrate is the most absorbed nutrient and its internalization is equilibrated by H⁺ root absorption (or equivalent OH⁻ 35 excretion). This alkalinisation is close to that observed in the rhizosphere of ryegrass and 36 37 Alpine pennycress. The rhizosphere pH predictions are very sensitive to the initial composition of the soil solution and quite insensitive to root absorption kinetics and soil 38 39 buffer power for the various nutrients. Because it favours nitrate diffusion, water content is positively correlated with rhizosphere alkalinisation. Moreover, the lower the root density, the 40 lower the effect of the root uptake on both ion concentrations and on rhizosphere pH. 41 Convection has little influence on rhizosphere pH. This study confirms the prominent role of 42 mineral nutrition in the determination of rhizosphere pH. The model therefore constitutes a 43 tool for understanding and predicting rhizosphere pH. 44

45



47 **1. Introduction**

It has long been established that soil pH in the vicinity of the roots may differ from that of the 48 bulk soil, by up to two units. The sign of this difference, i.e. alkalinisation or acidification of 49 the rhizosphere, and its intensity depends on plant and soil factors. Indeed, the root-mediated 50 pH changes in the rhizosphere has been explained by cation-anion exchange between root and 51 52 soil, root excretion of organic anions, root respiration (CO_2 production) and root-induced 53 redox processes (O_2 emission). These processes may be affected by nutritional constraints, such as Fe and P deficiencies or Al toxicity, whose effect on rhizosphere pH varies according 54 to the soil buffering capacity (Hinsinger et al., 2003; Neumann and Römheld, 2012). 55 56 Of these different processes, the cation and anion exchange balance appears to be most influential, because soil solution pH depends on the net charge from ions which do not react 57 to OH^{-} and H^{+} (Sposito, 1989) and all living plants have to take up ions (mainly as nutrients) 58 59 from this solution, modifying the net charge. The impact of plant mineral nutrition on rhizosphere pH has often been shown to be strong (Haynes, 1990; Marschner et al., 1986). 60 When more cations than anions are absorbed by the root cells, protons are released into the 61 apoplast to compensate for the excess positive charges in the cell, thereby resulting in a 62 decrease in the rhizosphere pH. However, when more anions are absorbed, either H⁺ is taken 63 64 up, or OH^{\circ} or HCO₃^{\circ} (resulting from the reaction of OH^{\circ} with CO₂) is excreted, thence leading to the alkalinisation of the rhizosphere (Haynes, 1990; Riley and Barber, 1969; Riley and 65 Barber, 1971). The release or uptake of H^+ by roots is therefore equivalent to the cation-anion 66 balance of root-absorbed ions (Hinsinger et al., 2003; Rufyikiri et al., 2001). However, it has 67 yet to be clearly established whether roots have a general tendency to acidify or to alkalinise 68 their neighbourhood. Although Cunningham (1964) showed that on average, plants absorb 69 more anions than cations, plants are often considered to acidify their rhizosphere, arguing that 70 they absorb more cations than anions (Sposito, 2016). 71

These modifications to the rhizosphere pH can have a feed-back effect on the mineral 72 nutrition of plants. They can affect the roots' uptake properties through competition between 73 H^+ and OH^- for sorption sites in apoplast and cell membrane, through modification of the 74 75 external electrochemical gradient or alterations to the root metabolism (Chaignon et al., 2009; Neumann and Römheld, 2012). However, the main effects of the rhizosphere pH on mineral 76 77 nutrition of plants occur through modification of the nutrient availability in soil. Rhizosphere 78 acidification can be regarded as a process selectively evolved in some species or group of 79 species to overcome P and Fe deficiencies. Indeed, most plant species, except Poaceae, can be gathered into the Strategy I group, which possesses an enhanced capacity to excrete H⁺ and 80 81 to reduce Fe(III) through a reductase system, in order to acquire Fe when it is poorly available. Similarly, increased proton exudation can also be triggered by P deficiency in 82 various plant species (Hinsinger et al., 2003; Neumann and Römheld, 2012). Alternatively, an 83 84 alkalinisation of the rhizosphere can reduce the availability of elements as demonstrated for P (Riley and Barber, 1971) and Cu (Bravin et al., 2009; Chaignon et al., 2009). 85 Mechanistic modelling based on the diffusion-convection equation of solutes in the 86 rhizosphere (Barber, 1995) has continuously developed in order to predict plant uptake of 87 both nutrients (Darrah et al., 2006; Keyes et al., 2013; Leitner et al., 2010; Ptashnyk et al., 88 2011) and of metallic contaminants (Custos et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2014; Mullins et al., 1986; 89 Puschenreiter et al., 2005; Sterckeman et al., 2004). One approach to improving the solute 90 91 uptake model would be to couple it to a model predicting rhizosphere pH (Gérard et al., 2017; 92 Szegedi et al., 2010). Nye (1972; 1981) was the first author to model the changes in rhizosphere pH from a constant 93 H^+ or HCO_3^- flux from the root surface and the diffusion of these species according to Fick's 94 law, taking into account the pH buffer capacity of the soil. Given that plants, except legumes, 95

96 on average absorb more anions than cations (Cunningham, 1964), root excretion of HCO_3^-

was fixed at a value estimated from the literature. The proton emission from well-nodulated 97 98 legume roots was fixed in a similar way. Close agreement between Nye's theory and experimental results was found in the case of rhizosphere acidification of submerged rice 99 100 (Kirk and Bajita, 1995) or of the growth zone of maize root tip (Schaller and Fischer, 1985). Nevertheless, these validations of Nye's model did not cover the case of a HCO₃⁻ efflux 101 which often occurs above root tips, in well-aerated soils where nitrate is the main form of 102 103 absorbed nitrogen (Blossfeld et al., 2010; Nye, 1981). Moreover, Nye's model is based on an *a priori* setting, namely an estimated H^+ or OH^- (or HCO_3^-) proton efflux to fit a situation 104 known to cause an acidification or alkalinisation of the root vicinity, respectively. This 105 106 approach does not apply to the general case, when the efflux of acid-base species resulting from the plant mineral nutrition is unknown. Therefore, a model determining the root efflux 107 of acid-base species from the balance of cation and anion root absorption would be an 108 109 improvement of the rhizosphere pH prediction.

We consequently developed such a model, and used it to evaluate the effect of major nutrient 110 root uptake on rhizosphere pH. The model describes the transport of major cations and anions 111 under the influence of both a concentration and an electric potential gradient, as well as their 112 reaction with the soil solid phase (soil buffer power). At the root surface, the elements are 113 114 taken up according to Michaelis-Menten kinetics and the electrical neutrality of the system is maintained through a proton or hydroxyl efflux (Bouldin, 1989). The model was tested by 115 comparing its outputs with the pH measured in the rhizosphere of three plants species 116 (ryegrass, maize and Alpine pennycress) grown in three different soils, using a non-invasive 117 optical method (Blossfeld et al., 2010). A global sensitivity analysis was then carried out in 118 119 order to highlight the most influential factors on the rhizosphere pH. This approach was completed by simulations using the composition of 37 soil solutions from various origins, 120 taken from the literature. 121

123 2. Materials and methods

124 **2.1. Model development**

The new and original model to compute the rhizosphere pH is derived rigorously from first principles. A simplified description of the model is given here, while an extensive version can be found in the Supplementary Material. The soil is divided into two compartments: the soil solution, where the electro-neutrality condition is verified locally and the solid phase, including the very thin electrical double layer (thickness ≈ 10 nm) at the surface of the solid phase. The electrical double layer is neglected because of its very small volume compared to that of the pore solution. Its influence is supposed to be part of the buffer power.

132

2.1.1. Transport in soil solution

133 The various ions contained in the soil solution are H_3O^+ , OH^- , HCO_3^- and *n* ionic species

134 $M_i^{z_i^+}$ of valence z_i (Ca²⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Na⁺, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, P ions and SO₄²⁻ as well as Zn²⁺

in a specific soil). Organic ions, such as organic or amino acids were not taken into account.

136 The valence of the P ions is taken as -1.5, as in soil solution at pH around 7, phosphates in the

soil solution are constituted in nearly equal parts of $H_2PO_4^-$ et HPO_4^{2-} (Barber, 1995). The

138 concentrations of the OH^- and HCO_3^- ions are given from the H_3O^+ concentration according

to the following equilibrium conditions:

- 140 $[H_3O^+][OH^-] = K_e$ (1)
- 141 $[H_3O^+][HCO_3^-] = k_{CO_3}$ (2)

142 where K_e is the water ionic product and k_{CO_2} is assumed to be proportional to the (uniform) 143 partial pressure of CO₂ (P_{CO_2}) in the soil. Micro-organism mediated processes and root 144 emissions of CO₂ were not formalized.

145 As the objective is to compute the pH, the electro-neutrality of the soil solution

146
$$[H_{3}O^{+}] + \sum_{j=1}^{n} z_{j}[M_{j}^{z_{j}+}] = [OH^{-}] + [HCO_{3}^{-}] = \frac{K_{e} + k_{CO_{2}}}{[H_{3}O^{+}]}$$
(3)

has to be verified rigorously. Using Eqs. (1-3) gives for a given partial CO₂ pressure

$$(P_{\text{co}_2})$$
 the concentrations $[H_3O^+]$, $[OH^-]$ and $[HCO_3^-]$ as a function of the sum of the ion
charges $(\sum_{j=1}^{n} z_j [M_j^{z_j+}])$. Fulfilling the electro-neutrality condition (i.e. adding Eq. (3) to the
transport equations) requires adding a supplementary unknown, the (electric) streaming
potential ψ . Therefore, the molar mass fluxes for the *n* ion species (M^{z_i+}) are given as the
sum of a convective term due to the water movement with the velocity **v**, as well as a
diffusive term written in the Nernst-Planck form to take into account the electric effects on the
ions diffusive motion:

155
$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}} = \left[\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}\right]\mathbf{v} - \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}}\left(\mathbf{\nabla}\left[\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}\right] + \frac{F_{z_{i}}\left[\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}\right]}{RT}\mathbf{\nabla}\psi\right) \quad 1 \le i \le n$$
(4)

156
$$\frac{\partial [\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}+}]}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}+}} \quad 1 \le i \le n+3 \quad (5)$$

157 Similar equations are written for the molar flux of H_3O^+ , OH^- and HCO_3^- . The introduction 158 of the diffusion equation in the Nernst-Planck form allows a rigorous determination of the 159 evolution of the rhizosphere pH from the properties of the soil and the mineral nutrition of the 160 plant for the mineral nutrients $[M_i^{z_i+}]$ $(1 \le i \le n)$ without any additional hypotheses.

161 Due to the electro-neutrality condition, adding the *n* transport equations for the nutrients plus 162 the transport equations for H_3O^+ , OH^- and HCO_3^- weighted by the valence of each ion leads 163 to

164 $\nabla . \mathbf{I}_c = \mathbf{0} \ (6)$

165 with
$$\mathbf{I}_{c} = F\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_{i} \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}} + \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{H}_{3}\mathbf{O}^{+}} - \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{O}\mathbf{H}^{-}} - \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{O}_{3}^{-}}\right)$$
 (7)

The electric current in the soil solution is divergence free. The convective part being necessarily 0 due to the electro-neutrality condition, \mathbf{I}_c only depends on the n+1 gradients $\nabla[\mathsf{M}_i^{z_i+}]$ and $\nabla\psi$. As no electric current occurs in the soil, the electric current \mathbf{I}_c is locally zero in the soil solution (see SM for details) and the gradient of the streaming potential $\nabla\psi$ is easily deduced from the gradients of $\nabla[\mathsf{M}_i^{z_i+}]$ ($1 \le i \le n$). The molar flux $\mathbf{J}_{\mathsf{M}_i^{z_i+}}$ for the *n*

171 $M_i^{z_i+}$ species is consequently written:

172
$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}} = [\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}]\mathbf{v} - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{D}_{ij} \nabla [\mathbf{M}_{j}^{z_{j}^{+}}] \qquad 1 \le i \le n$$
(8)

where the diffusion coefficient \mathbb{D}_{ij} is given as a function of the molecular diffusive coefficients $\mathcal{D}_{M_i^{ij+}}$ as

175
$$\mathbb{D}_{ij} = \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}} \left\{ \delta_{ij} + \frac{z_{i} z_{j} [\mathbf{M}_{k}^{z_{k}^{+}}] \left(D_{\mathbf{H}} - \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{M}_{j}^{z_{j}^{+}}} \right)}{\sum_{k=1}^{n} z_{k}^{2} \mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{M}_{k}^{z_{k}^{+}}} [\mathbf{M}_{k}^{z_{k}^{+}}] + \left([\mathbf{H}_{3}\mathbf{O}^{+}] + \frac{K_{e} + k_{CO_{2}}}{[\mathbf{H}_{3}\mathbf{O}^{+}]} \right) D_{\mathbf{H}} \right\} \qquad 1 \le i, j \le n \quad (9)$$

176 where δ_{ii} is the Kronecker symbol and the diffusion coefficient $D_{\rm H}$ is given by

177
$$\left(1 + \frac{K_e + k_{CO_2}}{[H_3O^+]^2}\right) D_H = \mathcal{D}_{H_3O^+} + \frac{K_e}{[H_3O^+]^2} \mathcal{D}_{OH^-} + \frac{k_{CO_2}}{[H_3O^+]^2} \mathcal{D}_{HCO_3^-}$$
(10)

Finally, the proton concentration $[H_3O^+]$ is computed from the electro-neutrality condition (Eq. 3).

180 181

2.1.2. Transport in soil

182 The transport equations in the soil solution are then up-scaled to the soil scale using a183 classical two-scale homogenization technique. At the interface between the soil solution and

- the solid phase (including the thin electric double layer), the $M_i^{z_i^+}$ species $(1 \le i \le n)$ are
- adsorbed according to the soil buffer power $b_{M_3^{2^+}}$. A simultaneous flux of H_3O^+ , OH^- or

HCO $_{3}^{-}$ is necessary to maintain the electro-neutrality of the soil solution. These fluxes are implicitly computed. The final result (see Supplementary Material) is

188
$$\left(\theta + b_{\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}}\right) \frac{\partial \left[\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}\right]}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v}_{D} \cdot \nabla \left[\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}\right] = \nabla \cdot \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{D}_{ij}^{*} \nabla \left[\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}\right] + S_{\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}^{+}}}\right) \quad 1 \le i \le n$$
(11)

189 where θ is the volumetric liquid fraction of the soil (considered to be constant), and \mathbf{v}_D the 190 Darcy velocity (water volumetric flux per unit surface area of the soil). The buffer power $b_{M_i^{irt}}$ 191 is calculated as the ratio of the concentration of solid-phase sorbed ion (i.e. exchangeable, mol 192 m⁻³ soil) to that of the ion in solution (mol m⁻³ solution) (Roose et al., 2001). No feedback 193 effect of pH on soil buffer power for ions was taken into account. The source term $S_{M_i^{z_i+}}$ is 194 added in order to describe the production of nitrate from organic matter (Supplementary 195 Material).

A simple approximation of the homogenized diffusion coefficient at the soil scale is providedby the relation:

- $\mathbb{D}_{ii}^* = \theta^{3/2} \mathbb{D}_{ii} \quad (12)$
- 199

2.1.3. Boundary conditions

The model is solved in a cylindrical unit soil volume around the root. At the surface of the roots in cylindrical coordinates ($r = r_0$) the mass flux of species $M_i^{z_i+}$ ($1 \le i \le n$) is given by a Michaelis-Menten relation ($v_D < 0$):

203
$$\mathbf{v}_{D}[\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i^{+}}}] - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{D}_{ij} \frac{\partial [\mathbf{M}_{j}^{z_{j^{+}}}]}{\partial r} \bigg|_{r=r_{0}} = -I_{max}^{i} \frac{[\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i^{+}}}]}{K_{m}^{i} + [\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i^{+}}}]} \quad (13)$$

As with the interface conditions between the soil solution and the solid phase, a simultaneous flux of H_3O^+ , OH^- or HCO_3^- at the surface of the root is necessary to maintain the electroneutrality of the system, which is implicitly calculated (Eq. (14) in Supplementary Material). Note that all fluxes are in the soil and not in the plant as some chemical reactions (including 208 CO₂ release) may occur at the soil/plant interface, but with the constraint of charge

209 conservation. The periodicity condition around each root is simulated by setting a null flux for

each ionic species i at the boundary of the root zone of influence:

211
$$\mathbf{v}_{D}[\mathbf{M}_{i}^{z_{i}+}] - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{D}_{ij} \left. \frac{\partial [\mathbf{M}_{j}^{z_{j}+}]}{\partial r} \right|_{r=r_{1}} = 0 \quad (14)$$

The root absorption functions along the root, above the growth zone are assumed to be 212 213 invariable in space and time for all the ions considered (Barber, 1995). This corresponds to young active and growing roots, as those for which variations in the rhizosphere pH have 214 215 been measured (e.g. Blossfeld et al. (2010); Marschner and Römheld (1983); Marschner et al. (1986); Marschner et al. (1982)). The ion transport is supposed to be purely radial, in a zone 216 sufficiently distant from the root apex for the growth effects (as described by Kim et al. 217 (1999)) to be negligible. The realism of the simulated uptakes according to the mean plant 218 composition is discussed in Supplementary Material (2.2, Table S1). 219

220

2.1.4. Initial conditions

The initial soil composition is assumed to be uniform. The initial value of P_{CO_2} is deduced from the initial pH and composition of the soil solution, according to Eq. (3) and does not vary with time.

224

2.1.5. Model parameters and numerical solution

The model parameters concern self-ionization of water, the solubility of CO₂ in water, soil water content, soil buffer power for each ion, diffusion properties of the ions in water, root geometry and root ion absorption properties (K_m^i and I_{max}^i for each nutrient $1 \le i \le n$). These are given in Table 1. The root absorption parameters are set at the same level for the three plant species, based on the relatively little data available from the literature (see

230 Supplementary Material).

The equations were solved using the pdepe function of Matlab®, using hundred space stepslogarithmically distributed and an adaptive time step.

233

234 **2.2. Model validation**

The model was experimentally evaluated by comparing its output, *i.e.* the soil pH at the root surface (rhizoplane), to pH measured in the rhizosphere of ryegrass (*Lolium perenne* L., Prana cultivar), maize (*Zea mays* L. cv INRA MB862) and the Zn and Cd hyperaccumulator Alpine pennycress (*Noccaea caerulescens* (J. & C. Presl) F. K. Mey., Viviez population) grown in three different soils. For this, data previously produced by Blossfeld et al. (2010) were used (see 2.2.2).

241 2.

2.2.1. Plant cultivation

Plants were grown on three soils, designated as A, B and C, sampled in the Ap horizon of 242 243 Cambisols (Table 2). Soils A and B were a loam with a pH (H₂O) of 6.2 and a silt loam soil with a pH (H₂O) of 8.1, respectively. Soil C was chosen because it was also a loam and its 244 245 bulk soil pH fell between those of soils A and B. Soil C also enabled the measurement of pH 246 in the rhizosphere of ryegrass on a slightly acidic soil, as this plant only rarely grew on soil A in pot cultivation, because of the toxicity of a highly available Zn content (Blossfeld et al., 247 2010). This Zn level, however, affected neither the growth of Alpine pennycress which is 248 hypertolerant to this metal, nor that of maize, probably because this is still heterotrophic (see 249 250 below).

Plants were transplanted to or sown in PVC rhizoboxes (height 300 mm, width 150 mm, depth 50 mm) that were filled with the soil. During cultivation, the rhizoboxes were placed on a rack inclined at 45° in order to force the roots to grow along the front plates. The transparent side being placed against the rack, the roots were protected from light. The plants were grown and investigated in a growth chamber The cultivation period of the three species in the

rhizoboxes prior to the measurements differed due to the specific root growth of individual
species, *i.e.* 6-8 weeks for alpine pennycress, 4-5 weeks for ryegrass and 8-9 days for maize.

258

2.2.2. Measurement of rhizosphere pH

259 Rhizosphere pH was measured using planar pH optodes, according to the device described by Blossfeld et al. (2010). The optode, a 10 µm inert polymer film measuring a few square 260 centimetres, was placed on a single root or on several roots, at the soil surface, behind the 261 262 rhizobox glass. This film contained a dispersed and immobilized dye which reacts to protons. The measurement was based on the fluorescence decay time of the dye and was carried out 263 via an optical glass fibre from outside the rhizobox, which was connected to a light source and 264 265 measuring device. The glass fibre was moved automatically by an x-y stepper motor device. By this means, the pH value could be measured in a line scanning mode, at 2 to 3 mm steps 266 and 4 s intervals. This enabled the evolution of the pH in the rhizosphere to be mapped, as 267 268 illustrated in Blossfeld et al. (2010). To evaluate the model, we used three types of measured data (Table 3): 269

The average pH along the axis of a single root, which can be considered as the pH at the rhizoplane. This was available for all the plant species in the three soils, except ryegrass which did not grow in soil A.

The average pH in a portion of the root network, a planar optode being placed on
several young roots. This was not available for ryegrass in soil A.

• The pH of the bulk soil as measured with the optode.

The latter was used as the initial pH value, while the other two were compared to the model
outputs. The pH measurements showed that the functioning of roots was rather uniform along
their axes, except for maize, as will be shown and discussed later.

279 2.2.3. Analysis of the soil solution and rhizosphere pH simulations

Because the initial concentrations of anions and cations in the soil solutions were not 280 281 determined in the work of Blossfeld et al. (2010), these were measured de novo for the validation of the model, in the following manner. Approximately one kilogram of soil was put 282 in a pot and maintained close to the water holding capacity (WHC) for 21 days by regular 283 watering from the bottom. A microsuction cup (Rhizon soil moisture sampler, Eijkelkamp, 284 Giesbeek, The Netherlands), placed in the centre of the soil, enabled us to sample the soil 285 286 solution. The day before the solution sampling, the soil was watered to WHC. Less than 30 minutes were required to sample around 10 ml of soil solution. Anions (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, PO_4^{3-} , 287 SO_4^{2-}) and cations (Ca^{2+} , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Na^+ , NH_4^+) were determined using ionic chromatography 288 289 (Dionex AS50/EG40/IC25, Sunnyvale, CA, USA) and a certified solution from Sigma-Aldrich (reference number 89886). Induced coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry 290 (iCAP 6300 DUO, Thermo Scientific, UK) was used to determine Al, Fe, Mn and Zn in the 291 292 solution. In this case, three certified solutions from SCP Science were used (reference numbers 701-021-067, 701-021-432 and 140-025-038). 293 Using these soil solution compositions (Table 4), soil pH at the root surface or in the 294

rhizosphere (mean value over r_I) was simulated for the three plant species (for Alpine pennycress, ryegrass and maize) in the three soils (A, B and C), fixing the initial pH at the value in

297 the bulk soil and neglecting the nitrate source, so $S_{M_i^{z_i^+}} = S_{NO_3^-} = 0$. The simulation

conditions were adapted to the root age and density (Table 3). In total, the model outputs werecompared to 15 measurements of the rhizosphere pH.

300 **2.3.** Sensitivity analysis

304

301 A sensitivity analysis was carried out using Matlab® in order to evaluate which of the 41 302 factors (including the nitrate source) had the greatest impact on the variation of the pH at the 303 root surface (ΔpH):

$$\Delta pH = Y = pH_f - pH_i \tag{15}$$

where pH_i is the initial pH, corresponding to that of the non-rhizospheric (bulk) soil and pH_f is the soil pH at the end of the simulation.

307 Factors (X_j) were ranked according to standardized regression coefficients (*SRC*) (Faivre et 308 al., 2013; Saltelli et al., 2004).

$$SRC_j = \beta_j \sqrt{\frac{Var(X_j)}{Var(Y)}} \quad (16)$$

310 in which Var() is the variance, β_j is the regression coefficient of X_j , according to the

311 correlation

312
$$Y = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \beta_j X_j + \varepsilon \quad (17)$$

313 where *Y* is the output of the model and ε the model error, N = 41.

The factors were sampled using random sampling of uniform distributions (Table S2). The

initial pH (Figure S3) was calculated according to Eq. 3, randomly sampling P_{CO_2} , as follows.

After sampling all the concentrations of the transported ions, their charge balance (CB, mol_c

 m^{-3}) was calculated according to

318
$$CB = \sum_{j=1}^{n} z_j [M_j^{z_j^+}] \quad (18)$$

319 as well as the sum of absolute charges:

320
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} |z_j| [M_j^{z_j^+}]$$
 (19)

Solution compositions were retained when the relative charge balance (CB_r , dimensionless)

322 satisfied the following condition:

323
$$0 < CB_r = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} z_j [M_j^{z_j^+}]}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} |z_j| [M_j^{z_j^+}]} < 0.2$$
(20)

Negative charge balances were discarded, as they led to very acidic initial pH, falling beyond of the range of natural pH. The upper limit of CB_r (0.2) was chosen by rounding the mean relative charge balance measured on soils worldwide (see 2.4), which is 0.12. P_{CO_2} was then randomly sampled between 3 10³ ppmv and 10⁵ ppmv (Sposito, 2016), to calculate the 328 corresponding solution pH according to Eq. (3). The final sample size was 20,000. The model
329 was run for two durations: one and four weeks.

330

331 2.4. Simulating rhizosphere pH in 37 soils sampled worldwide

As the 20,000 random cases simulated in the sensitivity analysis could not all be 332 representative of the reality of soil solution composition, we analysed the output of the model 333 334 on a set of data originating from real soils. In Tables 7.2 and 7.3 of his book, Wolt (1994) summarized the solution composition of soil horizons sampled worldwide by various authors. 335 From this data set, we kept the solution composition from 35 surface horizons, for which our 336 337 calculations based on Eq. 3 led to an initial pH close to that measured. Indeed, for some of them, it was impossible to reproduce the measured pH, probably because of errors or missing 338 data in the reported solution composition. In most of the solutions, there was no phosphate 339 content, probably because this ion was below the detection limits. The NH_4^+ and the SO_4^{2-} 340 contents were not always available. However, as will be shown later, these ions have a limited 341 342 influence on rhizosphere pH and the simulations could usefully be carried out with null values for P ions, NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} . The solution composition of soils used to validate the model, i.e. 343 soils B and C were added to those from Wolt (1994). Solutions from soil A were not used 344 345 because of its exceptionally high Zn content. The 37 solutions (Table S3) were used to simulate ΔpH . For these simulations, nitrate source $(S_{NO_3^-})$, soil buffer powers and root 346 absorption parameters of the different ions were taken as averages of the distributions used in 347 the sensitivity analysis (Table S2). The root radius (r_0) , the mean distance between roots (r_1) 348 and the volumetric water content (θ) were taken as 1 10⁻⁴ m, 5.5 10⁻³ m (Lin et al., 2016) and 349 0.25, respectively. P_{CO_2} was taken as 3 10³ ppmv (around10 times the atmospheric pressure). 350 The water volumetric flux v_D was 2.5005 10⁻⁸ m s⁻¹ and $S_{NO_3^-}$ was zero. The model also 351

enabled a calculation of other variables, such as the final composition of the rhizospheresolution and the amounts of ions taken up by the root.

354

355 **3. Results and discussion**

356 3.1. Model validation

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3.1.1. Ryegrass and Alpine pennycress

The simulated rhizosphere pH was compared to 15 measured values (Table 5). In the case of ryegrass and Alpine pennycress, along the surface of a single young root and in root network, an alkalinisation of the rhizosphere was systematically measured. In soil A, the alkalinisation ranged from 1.2 to 1.4 pH unit. In soil B, this ranged from 0.4 to 0.9 pH units, while in soil C, it varied between 0.3 and 1.7 pH units. It must be noted that pH measured in the bulk soil with the planar optodes was close to that determined with dry soil dispersed in a 0.01 M CaCl₂

solution, and was slightly lower than that measured in water (Table 2).

All the simulations predicted a clear alkalinisation of the rhizosphere. In soil A, the simulated 365 pH at the root surface was 6.4, i.e. 0.8 units above the initial pH (= 5.6) and 0.4 units below 366 the measured value (Table 5). In the root network, the simulated pH was 7.7, i.e. 0.7 unit 367 above the measured one. In soil B, the simulation produced a rhizoplane alkalinisation of 0.2 368 369 pH unit. The rhizoplane pH was 0.2 units below that measured at the rhizoplane of ryegrass (7.6 against 7.8) and 0.8 units below that measured at the rhizoplane of Alpine pennycress 370 (7.6 against 8.4). For root networks, the simulations (pH = 8.0) were closer to the measured 371 372 values (pH = 7.9) in both ryegrass and Alpine pennycress. In soil C, the simulated rhizoplane pH was 0.7 pH units above that in the bulk soil (= 6.2). It was 0.9 units below that measured 373 at the rhizoplane of Alpine pennycress (6.9 against 7.8), but 0.4 units above that measured at 374 the rhizoplane of ryegrass (6.9 against 6.5). In all the simulations, the initial P_{CO_2} fell within 375

the range that has been observed in soils [up to 100 times the atmospheric partial pressure 376 377 (Sposito, 2016)].

Overall, these results show a reasonably good fit between the model predictions and the 378 379 measured pH values at the root surface of ryegrass and Alpine pennycress. To interpret the differences between measurements and simulations, it is important to bear in mind the 380 relationship between the solution pH, the ion charge balance (CB) and the CO_2 partial 381 pressure (P_{CO_2}) (Eq. (3), Figure 1). There is a quasi-discontinuity in the function pH = f(CB)382 at CB = 0. Therefore, when the charge balance is close to zero, the pH varies strongly with 383 384 even a very small changes in charge balance. Moreover, in the case of a positive charge balance, the value at which P_{CO_2} is fixed also has a considerable impact on the calculated pH, 385 as shown by the curves for different P_{CO_2} . The characteristics of the function determining the 386 pH explain the variability of the deviations between measured and simulated rhizospheric pH. 387 Indeed, this law may transform small uncertainties in the composition of the soil solution and 388 the CO₂ pressure, related to sampling and analysis, into wide variations in the pH calculation. 389 390 However, this does not prevent the model from being used. Indeed, instead of using the initial 391 solution composition to predict the initial soil pH, the latter measured in the bulk soil can be imposed, thereby slightly adjusting the composition of the soil solution or of the partial CO₂ 392 pressure. To illustrate this, slightly increasing the NO₃⁻ content of 0.08 mol m⁻³ in soil A, i.e. 393 +0.7% of the total charges in solution, gives a simulated alkalinisation of the rhizosphere of 394 1.3 pH units (corresponding to the measured alkalinisation), instead of 0.8 units. 395

396

3.1.2. Maize

This adequation was not observed in the case of maize, whose rhizosphere pH was clearly 397 different from that of the two other species and from the simulation results. Indeed, when 398 measured along a single young root, the rhizoplane pH decreased from 0.2 to 0.7 pH units 399 (Table 5). At the rhizoplane of a single older root, this increased by only 0.1 to 0.3 pH units 400

when measured in soils B and C, while it decreased by 0.1 units in soil A. None of the
rhizoplane pH simulations led to an acidification, but did generate alkalinisation which most
frequently, was above that of the single older root in soil B and C.

404 As already shown by Blossfeld et al. (2010) (particularly in Fig. 6 of their article), there was an acidification of the rhizosphere of maize, at about 15 to 25 mm from the apex. This 405 phenomenon had already been observed by other authors (Peters and Felle, 1999; Pilet et al., 406 407 1983)Schaller and Fischer (1985). This acidification could be explained by the acid growth theory (Rayle and Cleland, 1992), which states that growing cells excrete protons into the 408 cell-wall at an enhanced rate, resulting in a cell-wall loosening to facilitate the root 409 410 elongation. This acidification zone is alternatively explained by a higher nutrient uptake in the growth zone that would constitute a large nutrient sink, particularly for K^+ , whose root 411 absorption would be equilibrated by proton excretion (Kim et al., 1999; Taylor and Bloom, 412 413 1998).

On the other hand, the lower alkalinisation observed here in the root network or in older 414 415 maize roots (i.e. away from the apex) could be due to a much lower nitrate uptake by the 416 maize than by ryegrass and Alpine pennycress. Indeed, maize is completely heterotrophic from 0 to around 75 degree-days (about 7 days after germination) and completely autotrophic 417 418 from around 250 degree-days (Girardin, 2000; Nadeem et al., 2014). Between 75 degree-days and 250 degree-days, maize becomes progressively autotrophic. Therefore, 8-9 day-old maize 419 seedlings (that is 88 to 99 degree-days), as used in the present experiment, were only slightly 420 421 autotrophic. That means that the seedling was mostly provided with mineral nutrients from the caryopsis reserves and that it absorbed only a minor part of these nutrients from the soil 422 423 solution. Nadeem et al. (2014) demonstrated that phosphorus was exclusively provided by the maize seed until 75 degree-days and was increasingly absorbed from the soil solution from 424 that date until complete autotrophy was attained and the seed P reserves were exhausted. 425

Similar schemes could be drawn for the other nutrients, and particularly for nitrogen (Mollier,
2015, personal communication). Eight to nine day-old maize would therefore consume
nitrogen mostly from the seed reserves and absorb fewer nitrates from the soil solution than
ryegrass and Alpine pennycress, which are much older and completely autotrophic. Therefore,
at the rhizoplane of maize behind the acidification zone, the sum of charges is only slightly
higher, as is, consequently the pH of the solution.

432

433 **3.2. Sensitivity analysis**

434

443

444

3.2.1. Simulating root uptake over one week

Those ions which most frequently accumulated at the root surface, i.e. their concentrations at the rhizoplane was higher at the end of the simulations than at in the initial condition, were Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^+ , SO_4^- and Cl^- . In contrast, K^+ , NH_4^+ NO_3^- and P ions⁻ were clearly depleted (Fig S2). The sum of these balances led to a positive final charge balance of the transported ions, resulting from the mostly negative initial and final charge uptakes (Fig 2). As a consequence, in the vast majority of the cases, ΔpH was positive, reflecting an alkalinisation of the rhizosphere, whose mean value was 0.36 (Fig 2).

442 The most influential factor on ΔpH was the initial nitrate concentration in the soil solution

([NO₃⁻]) (Fig. 3) (SRC = 0.81). The more NO₃⁻ in the soil solution, the more the pH increased

at the root surface. This is due to the root uptake of NO_3^- , as shown by the depletion of this

ion in the rhizosphere in most of the simulations (Fig. S2), which is compensated for by the

root absorption of H^+ (or equivalent excretion of OH^-). Nitrate was the most taken-up ion,

447 representing 64% of the absorbed ion absolute charges (Table 6).

448 The second factor was the initial Ca^{2+} concentration ([Ca^{2+}]) in the soil solution (*SRC* = -

449 0.63). This could be explained by the fact the higher $[Ca^{2+}]$, the higher its uptake by the roots

in exchange for H^+ , which tended to reduce ΔpH . However, this explanation would be 450 contradictory to the fact that, Ca^{2+} generally accumulated at the root surface (Fig. S2). The 451 explanation can be found in another phenomenon. During the random sampling for the 452 constitution of the simulation dataset, the initial solutions with a negative charge balance were 453 discarded (Eq. (20)). This process favoured the higher $[Ca^{2+}]$, as can be seen from the initial 454 distribution of this factor (Fig. S3). Because the initial charge balance is a linear combination 455 of the charges of each ion, there is therefore a positive correlation between the initial charge 456 balance and the $[Ca^{2+}]$. Moreover, the relationship between the pH and the charge balance 457 (Fig. 1) shows that the pH curve slope decreases as the charge balance increases. Therefore, 458 as $[Ca^{2+}]$ rises, the initial charge balance increases and the higher it is, the lower ΔpH will be. 459 The initial sulphate concentration had a positive effect on ΔpH (SRC = 0.55). One could 460 expect that the root absorption of SO_4^{2-} would alkalinise the rhizosphere, as that of NO_3^{-} did. 461 However, SO_4^{2-} accumulated in the rhizosphere (Fig. S2). Again, the explanation of the $[SO_4^{2-}$ 462 463] effect relies on the dataset sampling process and the calculation of the initial charge balance, which made the initial sulphate concentration negatively correlated to that of the initial charge 464 balance (Fig. S3). The relationship between the pH and the charge balance (Fig. 1) shows that 465 in the vicinity of a zero charge balance, the slope of the pH curve strongly increases as the 466 charge balance decreases. It is this trend which explains that the higher the $[SO_4^{2}]$, the lower 467 the initial charge balance and pH and the greater the variation in pH (ΔpH) will be. 468

469 The fourth influential factor is $[Mg^{2+}]$, with *SRC* = -0.26. Its effect can be explained in a 470 similar manner to that of $[Ca^{2+}]$, although being less intense, because the initial concentration 471 of Mg^{2+} is lower than that of Ca^{2+} (Fig. S3).

472 The average distance between roots r_1 , also had a negative effect on ΔpH (Fig. 3, SRC = -

473 0.15). This can be explained by the fact that the higher r_1 , the greater the amount of ions in the

rhizosphere and as a consequence, the lower the effect of the root uptake on ion 474 475 concentrations and therefore, on solution pH. The water content θ also had a positive effect on ΔpH (SRC = 0.12). This variable takes part in the calculation of the element content in soil 476 $(\text{term }(\theta + b_{M_i^{z_i^+}}) \frac{\partial [M_i^{z_i^+}]}{\partial t} \text{ in Eq. (11)})$, although its contribution is very slight when compared 477 to the buffer power $b_{M_i^{z_i+}}$. θ is also involved in the calculation of the homogenized diffusion 478 coefficient at the soil scale (Eq. (12)). Increasing θ enhances ion diffusion in general and NO₃⁻ 479 in particular, whose contribution dominates those of the other ions. Therefore, θ is positively 480 correlated to ΔpH because it favours NO₃⁻ uptake. 481

It must be noted that although absorbed by the root in such a way that their concentrations decreased in the rhizosphere during uptake, K⁺, NH₄⁺ and P ions had no strong effect on ΔpH because their concentration variations (and those of the associated charges) was small compared to that of NO₃⁻. Whatever the ion, the buffer power and the root absorption parameters had very little or no significant influence on the variation of pH in the rhizosphere. The nitrate source term ($S_{NO_3^-}$) had no significant influence: over one week, it represented on average only 2% of the initial stock of NO₃⁻.

489 **3.2.2.** Simulating root uptake over four weeks

490 After a four-week uptake, ΔpH had a mean value of 0.45 and was therefore slightly more 491 positive than after a one-week uptake (Fig. 2). This again corresponded to the positive final 492 charge balance of the transported ions.

493 The four most influential factors were the same as for the one-week uptake simulations -

494 $[NO_3^-]$ (*SRC* = 0.97), $[Ca^{2+}]$ (*SRC* = -0.75), $[SO_4^{2-}]$ (*SRC* = 0.70) and $[Mg^{2+}]$ (*SRC* = -0.32) -

and ΔpH were affected in the same sense, but a little more intensively, as reflected by higher

496 SRC (Fig 4). Compared to the one-week simulations, r_1 regressed to the seventh place (SRC =

497 -0.08), indicating that the buffer effect of the rhizosphere volume would decrease with uptake 498 duration, because of the depletion of nitrate in the rhizosphere solution. In contrast, θ gained 499 one place compared to the one-week uptake, as did [Cl⁻], which appears to positively affect 500 ΔpH because, as with [SO₄²⁻], this is negatively correlated to the initial charge balance. As 501 after four weeks, $S_{NO_3^-}$ represented only 8% of the initial NO₃⁻ stock, the nitrate source only 502 slightly reduced the nitrate depletion and had nearly no effect on ΔpH .

503

3.2.3. Main lessons from the sensitivity analysis

The first conclusion which can be drawn from the sensitivity analysis is that the general trend 504 to rhizosphere pH is alkalinisation. The second point is that the main factor affecting the 505 506 alkalinisation level is by far the initial nitrate concentration in solution. The third conclusion 507 is that the soil buffer power and the root absorption parameters (K_m and I_{max}), whatever the ion, have little or no influence on the rhizosphere pH. This justifies the use of the same root 508 509 absorption parameters for the three different plant species. The sensitivity analysis also showed that the root density (or r_1) and the soil humidity could both have an influence on the 510 rhizosphere pH. 511

512 The final conclusion concerns the sensitivity analysis itself. Despite the conditions imposed

for the sampling of the ion concentrations in the initial solution (Eq. (20)), there was a

dependency of the initial charge balance on major ion concentrations (Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , SO_4^{2-}),

which artificially made the latter influential variables. This bias in the sensitivity analysis also

shows how strongly ΔpH depends on the initial ionic composition of the solution. This

517 justifies a statistical analysis of the model using more realistic soil solution compositions.

518

519 **3.3. Simulating rhizosphere pH in 37 soils**

To test the model in more realistic conditions, the rhizosphere pH was simulated using a well-documented series of various soil solutions taken from Wolt (1994).

522

3.3.1. General trend of rhizosphere pH and effect of solution composition

Let us consider first the results of the simulation of a four-week uptake of ions. The simulated initial pH was close to the measured one (Fig. S4). On average, the rhizosphere pH increased by 1.1 units (Table S4). For each soil, the sign of ΔpH corresponded to that of ΔCB , the variation in charge balance in the soil solution at the root surface being expressed as

$$\Delta CB = CB_f - CB_i (21)$$

with the subscript *f* for "final" (t = 1 or 4 week) and *i* for "initial" (t = 0). CB_f results from ion root uptake and ion accumulation at the root surface through convection.

In 32 of the 37 soils (i.e. 86% of the soils), ΔpH was positive. In 26 soils over the 32 where 530 ΔpH was positive, the charge balance of the ions absorbed by the roots (*RCB*, mol_c m⁻¹) was 531 negative, indicating that the root absorbed mainly anions (Table S4). This absorption of 532 anions caused the alkalinisation of the rhizosphere. This alkalinisation was not perturbed by 533 the accumulation of ions due to convection, *i.e.* the convection leading to the accumulation of 534 cations or the accumulation of anions was not sufficient to counteract anion root absorption. 535 In these 26 cases, NO₃⁻ uptake represented 80% (against an overall mean of 62%) of the total 536 absolute charge uptake, showing that the rhizosphere alkalinisation was mainly the 537 consequence of nitrate uptake. Fourteen soils had a particularly high ΔpH , ranging from 538 nearly 1.7 to 3.3. These values explain the mean ΔpH of 1.1, higher than that estimated during 539 the sensitivity analysis ($\Delta pH = 0.45$ after 4 weeks of uptake), the rest of the soils having a 540 mean ΔpH of 0.30. Thirteen of these high ΔpH soils had an initial pH between *ca* 4.7 and 6.0, 541 which corresponds to the pH zone, where a small change in charge balance can strongly affect 542 543 the solution pH (Fig. 1). One of them (Tujunga), had an initial pH of 7.0, beyond the high

variation zone of this parameter. However, this soil with high initial cation contents, showed a 544 very positive charge balance (23.7 mol_c m^{-3} versus 5.2 mol_c m^{-3} on average) after 4 weeks. 545 due to an elevated uptake of NO_3^- (representing 91% of the absorbed charges). 546 In 6 soils out of the 32 where ΔpH was positive (for instance in soils Cecil unamended, 547 Fyfield, and Grove), RCB was positive (i.e. dominated by cation absorption) (Table S4). In 548 these cases, however, ΔCB was still positive, leading to a positive ΔpH . Although the root 549 absorption, after 4 weeks of uptake, tended to acidify the rhizosphere, this was not sufficient 550 to significantly reduce the positive charge balance created at the rhizoplane after the initial 551 uptake. This shows that the initial uptake plays an important role in rhizosphere pH, in 552 determining a charge balance which will be slow to modify afterwards. At the beginning of 553 uptake, nitrate is quickly absorbed, causing alkalinisation at the rhizoplane. Afterwards, 554 although nitrate is less absorbed than cations, the absorption of cations is not quick enough to 555 556 acidify the rhizoplane solution.

In the 5 soils where ΔpH was negative, correlatively with ΔCB , *RCB* was positive, indicating that the plant predominantly absorbed cations, which was compensated for by an acidification at the rhizoplane. In these soils, nitrate represented only 3.6% of the absorbed charges, while K^+ represented 68%. This is due to a lack of NO₃⁻ in the initial solution (0.03 mol.m⁻³ against 8.3 mol.m⁻³ on average), and not to an excess of K⁺ (0.25 mol.m⁻³ against 0.85 mol.m⁻³ on average).

563

3.3.2. Effect of uptake duration

The results obtained after a one-week uptake simulation were close to those of a four-week uptake. ΔpH after a one-week uptake was on average 0.2 unit lower than that after a fourweek uptake (Table 7). Up to 1 week of uptake, concentrations of Ca²⁺, Cl⁻, Mg²⁺, Na⁺ and SO₄²⁻ in the soil solution increased slightly because of convection and then stabilized over time, probably because of an equilibrium between convection and retro-diffusion.

Concentrations of K⁺, NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻ and P ions decreased because of root absorption. The decrease rate of NO₃⁻ was much higher than that of the other ions (Table 7). The charge balance in the rhizoplane solution regularly increased from +1.20 mol_c m⁻³ to +8.12 mol_c m⁻³ after 12 weeks. The proportion of Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, P ions and SO₄²⁻ in the total absolute charge uptake continuously increased, while that of NO₃⁻ strongly decreased from 69.8% to 51.7% as did that of NH₄⁺ also, but to a far lesser extent (Table 8).

575 As mentioned above, the first week of uptake determined most of ΔpH at the rhizoplane even for the consecutive weeks and on average, increasing the simulation time to 8 and 12 weeks 576 only slightly increased ΔpH , by a few hundredths of pH units. This is due to the fact that 577 within the first week, there is a strong decrease in anion (i.e. mainly nitrate) concentration in 578 the solution, and therefore an increase in the charge balance and in the pH. This initial 579 580 increase in rhizosphere pH is sharp, because of the discontinuity in pH = f(CB) (Figure 1). However, after this increase, the same function shows that pH only slightly increases with 581 CB. In some cases, ΔpH after four weeks was slightly lower than those after one week (Table 582 S4), indicating the beginning of a depletion of the rhizosphere solution with the ions 583 dominating the initial root uptake. This was particularly the case in the Xanthozem soil, which 584 585 ΔpH was clearly positive after one week (+2.5), decreased to 0.6 after 4 weeks and became negative (-0.55) after 8 weeks of uptake. In this exceptional soil, nitrate uptake was relatively 586 low after 8 weeks, representing only 15% of the absorbed charges, while it was 50% after 1 587 week. The uptake of K⁺ after 8 weeks was higher, with 24% of the absorbed charges, and 588 NH_4^+ exceptionally high, with 53%. This is the consequence of an exceptionally high 589 ammonium concentration in the soil solution (4.03 mol.m⁻³ against 0.75 mol.m⁻³ on average). 590

Simulations taking into account a nitrate source $(S_{NO_3^-})$ in the model were also carried out. After a one-week uptake, with the nitrate source, ΔpH was on average 2.3% lower than without a source. After 12 weeks, the difference was 0.6% (Table S4). This confirms the sensitivity analysis which showed that nitrification had nearly no effect on rhizosphere pH variation.

596 **4.** Conclusions

597 Many simplifications have been made during the modelling, because of a lack of knowledge and for the sake of mathematical and numerical simplicity: the same absorption parameters 598 599 were used for the three plant species, soil water content was considered to be constant, microorganism mediated processes and root emissions of O₂ and CO₂ were not formalized, no 600 feedback effect of pH on soil buffer power for ions was taken into account and organic ion 601 602 release and uptake was neglected. However, the model predicted the same alkalinisation trend as that measured with the planar optodes. The simplifications therefore appear reasonable and 603 604 the result supports the theory that the nutrient root uptake, in aerobic soils, is the important process responsible for the modification of the pH in the root vicinity (Hinsinger et al., 2003). 605 The simulations also suggest that among the nutrients, nitrogen is the one which most 606 607 influences the rhizosphere pH. In aerobic soils without ammonium fertilization, nitrate is around 5 to 400 times more absorbed than the other ions. As its depletion in the root vicinity 608 is compensated for by the root absorption of H^+ (or the equivalent excretion of OH^-), the 609 610 rhizosphere of non-leguminous crops in non-flooded soils might generally be more alkaline than the bulk soil. 611

This work also showed that the variations in the rhizosphere pH were dependent on the initial pH, more than on its evolution through root ion absorption. It highlighted how extremely this initial pH was sensitive to the initial composition of the soil solution, in such a way that small errors in analyses would produce a strong uncertainty about the calculated initial pH.

Therefore, it seems nearly impossible to precisely predict the initial pH from the initial 616 solution composition. This is contrary to the pH at the rhizoplane which after a few weeks of 617 root uptake, should generally stabilize from then on. However, it is the charge balance (CB) 618 619 which determines the trend of the rhizosphere pH and generally, the plant roots increase CB, as they take up nitrates more than the other ions. Therefore, there is no doubt that most 620 frequently the rhizosphere pH is higher than that of the bulk soil. Moreover, despite the 621 622 uncertainty on the initial pH prediction, the model can be used to predict the rhizosphere pH, fixing the initial pH (which can be measured in 0.01 CaCl₂). 623

624 The model considers that the partial pressure of carbon dioxide is constant, being adjusted to

625 the initial solution composition. However, in presence of roots and micro-organisms, P_{CO_2}

probably vary, influencing both the pH and the solution composition. Therefore, it would be

627 logical that P_{CO_2} should be measured, in the rhizosphere and CO₂ concentration taken into

account in the model. Indeed, excretion of CO_2 could for instance limit the extent of the alkalinisation zone.

630

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755 Figure captions

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Fig. 1. Relationship between pH, partial CO_2 pressure (P_{CO_2}) and sum of ion charges

758 $(\sum_{j} z_j [M_j^{Z_j^+}])$ in soil solution, as deduced from Eq. (3).

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Fig. 2. Global sensitivity analysis of the model. Frequency distribution of a) ΔpH and b) of the charge balance (*CB*, Eq. (18)) after 1 and 4 weeks of uptake. Mean values of ΔpH are 0.36 and 0.45 for 1 and 4 weeks of uptake, respectively. Mean values of *CB* are 3.12 mol_c m⁻³, 7.35 mol_c m⁻³ and 9.72 mol_c m⁻³ for initial, 1 and 4 weeks of uptake, respectively.

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Fig. 3. Global sensitivity analysis of the model. Ranking of the model variables based on their standardized regression coefficients (*SRC*) for the simulation of ΔpH after one week of uptake (Eqs. (16) and (17)). Variables are described in Table 1.

768

Fig. 4. Global sensitivity analysis of the model. Ranking of the model variables based on their standardized regression coefficients (SRC) for the simulation of ΔpH after four weeks of uptake (Eqs. (16) and (17)). Variables are described in Table 1.

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Table 1. Model variables.

Symbol	Definition	Value
K _e	Water self-ionization constant	$10^{-14} \text{ mol}^2 \text{ L}^{-2}$
$k_{\rm CO_2}$	CO ₂ dissolution constant	$3.7 \ 10^{-8} P_{\rm CO_2} / \ln 10 \text{ in mol}^2 \ L^{-2} $
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{H_3O^+}}$	Diffusion coefficient of H_3O^+ in water	9.31 $10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} \ddagger$
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{HCO}_{3}^{-}}$	Diffusion coefficient of HCO ₃ ⁻ in water	$1.18 \ 10^{-9} \ m^2 \ s^{-1} \ \ddagger$
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{OH}^{-}}$	Diffusion coefficient of OH ⁻ in water	5.27 10^{-9} m ² s ⁻¹ ‡
$\mathcal{D}_{Ca^{2+}}$	Diffusion coefficient of Ca ²⁺ in water	7.93 10^{-10} m ² s ⁻¹ ‡
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{K}^{+}}$	Diffusion coefficient of K ⁺ in water	$1.96 \ 10^{-9} \ \mathrm{m}^2 \ \mathrm{s}^{-1} \ \ddagger$
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{Mg}^{2+}}$	Diffusion coefficient of Mg ²⁺ in water	7.05 10^{-10} m ² s ⁻¹ ‡
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{Zn}^{2+}}$	Diffusion coefficient of Zn ²⁺ in water	$7.15 \ 10^{-10} \ \mathrm{m}^2 \ \mathrm{s}^{-1}$
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{Na}^+}$	Diffusion coefficient of Na ⁺ in water	$1.13 \ 10^{-9} \text{m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} \ddagger$
${\cal D}_{ m NH_4^+}$	Diffusion coefficient of NH4 ⁺ in water	$1.98 \ 10^{-9} \text{m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} \ddagger$
${\cal D}_{\rm Cl^-}$	Diffusion coefficient of Cl ⁻ in water	$2.03 \ 10^{-9} \text{m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} \ddagger$
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{NO}_3^-}$	Diffusion coefficient of NO ₃ ⁻ in water	$1.90 \ 10^{-9} \ \mathrm{m}^2 \ \mathrm{s}^{-1} \ddagger$
$\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{SO}_4^{2-}}$	Diffusion coefficient of SO ₄ ²⁻ in water	$1.07 \ 10^{-9} \ \mathrm{m}^2 \ \mathrm{s}^{-1} \ddagger$
${\cal D}_{ m P}$	Diffusion coefficient of P ions in water	7.9 10^{-10} m ² s ⁻¹
θ	Volumetric water content	$0.24 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$
$b_{M_i^{z_i^+}}$	Buffer power	See Table 2
r_0	Mean root radius	10 ⁻⁴ m § ¶
r_1	Thickness of the rhizosphere	2.5 10 ⁻² m §
I ^{Ca} max	Maximum root influx of Ca ²⁺	$1.042 \ 10^{-9} \ \text{mol m}^{-2} \ \text{s}^{-1} \ \text{\#}$
K_m^{Ca}	Michaelis constant for Ca ²⁺	$3.9 \ 10^{-2} \ \text{mol m}^{-3}$
I_{max}^{K}	Maximum root influx of K ⁺	$5.02 \ 10^{-8} \ \text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-2} \ \text{s}^{-1}$
K_m^{K}	Michaelis constant for K ⁺	$3.2 \ 10^{-2} \ \text{mol m}^{-3}$
I_{max}^{Mg}	Maximum root influx of Mg ²⁺	$6.5 \ 10^{-9} \ \text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-2} \ \text{s}^{-1}$
K_m^{Mg}	Michaelis constant for Mg ²⁺	0.44 mol m^{-3}
$I_{max}^{ m Na}$	Maximum root influx of Na ⁺	0
$K_m^{\rm Na}$	Michaelis constant for Na ⁺	-
$I_{max}^{\rm NH4}$	Maximum root influx of NH_4^+	$1.0\ 10^{-7}\ \text{mol}\ \text{m}^{-2}\ \text{s}^{-1}$
$K_{max}^{\rm NH4}$	Michaelis constant for NH_4^+	$5.4 \ 10^{-2} \ \text{mol m}^{-3}$
$I_{max}^{\text{Zn-Nc}}$	Maximum root influx of Zn^{2+} in <i>N. caerulescens</i>	$1.66 \ 10^{-12} \ \text{mol m}^{-2} \ \text{s}^{-1}$
$K_m^{\mathrm{Zn-Nc}}$	Michaelis constant for Zn^{2+} in <i>N. caerulescens</i>	$2.83 \ 10^{-3} \ \text{mol m}^{-3}$
I_{max}^{Zn}	Maximum root influx of Zn^{2+} in other species	9 10^{-13} mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹
$K_m^{\rm Zn}$	Michaelis constant for Zn^{2+} in other species	$2.8 \ 10^{-3} \ \text{mol m}^{-3}$
I_{max}^{CI}	Maximum root influx of Cl ⁻	0
K_m^{Cl}	Michaelis constant for Cl ⁻	-
$I_{max}^{NO_3^{CH}}$	Constitutive maximum root influx of NO ₃	3.75 10 ⁻⁸ mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹
$K_m^{\mathrm{NO}_3^{CH}}$	Constitutive Michaelis constant for NO ₃ ⁻	1.6 10 ⁻² mol m ⁻³
$I_{max}^{\mathrm{NO}_3^{IH}}$	Induced maximum root influx of NO ₃ ⁻	$1.9 \ 10^{-7} \ \text{mol NO}_3^{-} \ \text{m}^{-2} \ \text{s}^{-1}$

$K_m^{\mathrm{NO}_3^{IH}}$	Induced Michaelis constant for NO ₃ ⁻	$8.5 \ 10^{-2} \ \text{mol m}^{-3}$
$I_{max}^{SO_4}$	Maximum root influx of SO ₄ ²⁻	$1.1 \ 10^{-9} \ \text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-2} \ \text{s}^{-1}$
$K_m^{SO_4}$	Michaelis constant for SO_4^{2-}	$7 \ 10^{-2} \ \text{mol m}^{-3}$
I_{max}^{P}	Maximum root influx of P ions	$3.26 \ 10^{-8} \ \text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-2} \ \text{s}^{-1}$
$K_m^{\mathbf{P}_4}$	Michaelis constant for P ions	$5.8 \ 10^{-3} \ \text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-3}$
$S_{\rm NO_3^-}$	Source of NO ₃ ⁻ from mineralization	$1.70 \ 10^{-7} \ \text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-3} \ \text{s}^{-1} \ \text{\#}$

† Source: Nye (1972).
‡ Source: Li and Gregory (1974).
§ Source: Blossfeld et al. (2010);

¶ Source: Sterckeman et al. (2004).

Source: for root absorption parameters and source of nitrate, references are given in

Supplementary Material.

Soil parameter		Soil A	Soil B	Soil C
	Clay	208	162	204
Particle size distribution (g kg ⁻¹)	Silt	469	602	454
	Sand	323	236	342
pH (H ₂ O)		6.2	8.1	6.3
pH (CaCl ₂)		5.7	7.4	5.9
$CaCO_3 (g kg^{-1})$		0	13	<1
Organic C (g kg ⁻¹)		26.4	16.9	15.7
P Olsen (mg P kg ⁻¹)		4.6	34.1	5.5
C/N ratio		16.8	12.9	8.9
CEC cmol _c kg ⁻¹		11.8	12.0	11.0
Evolutions (amol la	Ca ²⁺	7.1	12.6	9.0
	K^+	0.6	0.5	0.3
)	Mg ²⁺	1.2	0.4	3.5
	Ca ²⁺	30.3	33.5	14.6
	Mg^{2+}	22.4	20.9	8.5
	\mathbf{K}^{+}	23.1	23.7	48.3
Buffer power h	Na ⁺	23.0	23.0	23.0
Butter power, $D_{M_i^{z_i^+}}$	Zn^{2+}	300	2760	270
	Cl	0.4	0.4	0.4
	NO ₃ †	0.4	0.4	0.4
	SO4 ²⁻ †	6.0	6.0	6.0

Table 2. Main characteristics of the soils used to validate the model.

Table 3. Conditions of the model validation. The pH measurement conditions refer to

790 Blossfeld et al. (2010).

	Simulation conditions					
nu manurament conditions	r_{l}	Time	pH location			
primeasurement conditions	mm	days				
	Ryegrass					
Average pH along the surface of a single young root	25.0	4	Rhizoplane			
Average pH in root network	5.5	28	Mean in simulation domain			
	Alpine pennycress					
Average pH along the surface of a single young root	25.0	4	Rhizoplane			
Average pH in root network	5.5	42	Mean in simulation domain			
	Maize					
Average pH along the surface of a single young root	25.0	4	Rhizoplane			
Average pH along the surface of a single young root	25	8	Rhizoplane			

Ion	Unit	Soil A	Soil B	Soil C
Ca ²⁺		1.638	2.632	4.322
\mathbf{K}^+		0.363	0.295	0.087
Mg^{2+}		0.375	0.134	2.868
Mn^{2+}	mol m ⁻³	0.029	< 7.1 10 ⁻⁶	< 7.1 10 ⁻⁶
Na^+		0.399	0.023	0.636
$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$		0.071	< 1.9 10 ⁻³	0.020
Zn^{2+}		0.411	< 7.8 10 ⁻⁶	$< 7.8 \ 10^{-6}$
Cl		0.480	0.436	1.242
NO_3^-	$m_{0}1 m^{-3}$	3.842	3.219	11.907
P ions	morm	$< 2.5 \ 10^{-4}$	0.174	$< 2.5 \ 10^{-4}$
\mathbf{SO}_4^{2-}		0.653	0.416	0.793
Charge balance	$mol_c m^{-3}$	0.112	1.102	0.387

Table 4. Ionic composition of the soil solutions of soils A, B and C.

Table 5. Comparison of measured and simulated pH in the rhizosphere of three plant species grown in three soils. The simulation conditions are
 given in Table 3.

pH measurement conditions	Soil A		Soil B		Soil C	
	Measured	Simulated	Measured	Simulated	Measured	Simulated
			Rye	grass		
Average pH along the surface of a single young root			7.8***	7.6	6.5*	6.9
Average pH in root network			7.9***	8.0	7.7***	7.6
Bulk soil (start of simulation)			7.4	7.4	6.2	6.2
	Alpine pennycress					
Average pH along the surface of a single young root	6.8***	6.4	8.4***	7.6	7.8***	6.9
Average pH in root network	7.0***	7.7	7.9***	8.0	n.d.‡	7.7
Bulk soil (start of simulation)	5.6	5.6	7.5	7.5	6.1	6.1
			Ma	nize		
Average pH along the surface of a single young root	4.9***	6.4	7.1***	7.6	6.0	6.9
Average pH along the surface of a single older root	5.5***	6.5	7.5***	7.6	6.5*	6.9
Bulk soil (start of simulation)	5.6	5.6	7.4	7.4	6.2	6.2

804 ‡ n.d.: not determined.

805 * Significant at the 0.05 probability level

806 *** Significant at the 0.001 probability level

- **Table 6.** Global sensitivity analysis. Mean percentage of each ion in the total absolute charge
- 810 uptake.

Ion	Part in the total absolute charge uptake (%)				
	1 week	4 weeks			
Ca ²⁺	0.83	1.36			
\mathbf{K}^+	16.69	21.10			
Mg^{2+}	3.65	6.01			
$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	6.79	5.91			
NO ₃	63.69	54.88			
P ions ⁻	7.51	9.32			
SO_4^{2-}	0.85	1.40			

- **Table 7.** Simulation of the rhizosphere pH using the composition of 37 soils sampled
- worldwide. Mean ion concentrations at the rhizoplane after 0, 1, 4, 8 and 12 weeks of root
- 823 uptake.

Ion	Concentration at the rhizoplane, mol m ⁻³								
1011	Initial	1 week	4 weeks	8 weeks	12 weeks				
Ca ²⁺	4.81	5.10	5.16	5.16	5.16				
Mg ²⁺	1.02	1.09	1.10	1.10	1.09				
\mathbf{K}^+	0.72	0.68	0.66	0.63	0.61				
NO ₃ ⁻	7.83	6.69	4.39	2.48	1.26				
SO_4^{2-}	1.57	1.70	1.70	1.70	1.70				
$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	0.28	0.24	0.20	0.18	0.16				
P ions	4.70E-03	3.20E-03	2.74E-03	2.51E-03	2.36E-03				
Na ⁺	1.05	1.11	1.11	1.11	1.11				
Cl	1.54	1.60	1.60	1.60	1.60				
Charge balance	+1.20	+2.74	+5.08	+6.95	+8.12				
∆pH	0	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1				

Table 8. Simulation of the rhizosphere pH using the composition of 37 soils sampled worldwide. Cumulated root uptake of the different ions and

Ion	Cumulated root uptake, mol m ⁻¹				Part in the total absolute charge uptake, %			
1011	1 week	4 weeks	8 weeks	12 weeks	1 week	4 weeks	8 weeks	12 weeks
Ca ²⁺	3.85E-07	1.54E-06	3.08E-06	4.62E-06	1.0	1.4	1.8	2.1
Mg^{2+}	1.26E-06	5.07E-06	1.01E-05	1.52E-05	2.8	3.5	4.3	4.9
\mathbf{K}^+	1.55E-05	6.10E-05	1.20E-04	1.76E-04	20.3	26.8	32.0	35.2
NO ₃ ⁻	1.20E-04	3.95E-04	6.28E-04	7.79E-04	69.8	61.8	55.6	51.7
SO ₄ ²⁻	2.95E-07	1.18E-06	2.36E-06	3.54E-06	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.7
$\mathbf{NH_4}^+$	7.45E-06	2.54E-05	3.96E-05	4.87E-05	4.8	4.7	4.1	3.7
P ions	3.20E-07	1.27E-06	2.54E-06	3.80E-06	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.8
Na ⁺	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cl	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cations					29.0	36.5	42.2	45.8
Anions					70.6	63.0	57.1	53.3
Charge balance	-9.47E-05	-2.99E-04	-4.51E-04	-5.27E-04				

part in the total absolute charge uptake after 1, 4, 8 and 12 weeks of root uptake.









