

# 1 A conceptual framework for the evolutionary selection of 2 biologically 'essential' elements

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8 **Standard texts dutifully list 16 essential elements for plant growth, yet the**  
9 **literature indicates that the boundary between essential and nonessential**  
10 **nutrients for plants is not always clear. When animals and “lower” organisms**  
11 **are considered, the team of 16 is considerably expanded and the notion of**  
12 **essentiality is blurred<sup>1</sup>. Why are some elements more important than others to**  
13 **plants and to organisms in general? Here I propose three criteria by which**  
14 **elements might have been selected in the development of organisms: low atomic**  
15 **weight, at least modest abundance, and ease of assembly into complex structures.**  
16 **Assembly of the structural elements C, N, S, P, and O is based on valency and**  
17 **ionic potential. The selection of monovalent elements (bar H<sup>+</sup>) and divalent**  
18 **elements (bar O<sup>2-</sup>) involves a trade-off between low atomic mass and low ionic**  
19 **potential. The essentiality of Mo and non-essentiality of As remain a problem for**  
20 **this model. This conceptual framework provides a basis for re-evaluating the**  
21 **function of an element in the nutrition of plants, animals and “lower” organisms.**

22

23 There are over 90 naturally occurring elements listed in the Periodic Table but only 16  
24 are known to be essential for plant growth. A few additional elements have roles in  
25 specific plants e.g. Si in some grass crops, and a few others are essential for animals

1 e.g. Se. Yet still, less than  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the known elements are currently considered  
2 'essential' for life. Why didn't life forms evolve to use more of the elements in the  
3 earth's crust? Were the other elements less abundant or less available when life  
4 started? Was there a different abundance of elements in the atmosphere or solution  
5 where life formed? What is special about the team of 16 elements?

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7 With apologies for the insinuation, if we were to design an organism from a selection  
8 of elements we might adopt the following criteria:

- 9 1. low atomic mass. If life is going to grow skyward to compete for light, or to  
10 move across the surface, it has to battle gravity. Aquatic environments might  
11 provide some exceptions but minimising weight seems sensible.
- 12 2. relatively abundant. Given the immobility of plants, and the likely low  
13 mobility of early organisms, and the limited mobility of many of the elements  
14 themselves, a non-limiting supply would seem desirable.
- 15 3. easily assembled. Reactive elements (as opposed to group 8 elements, precious  
16 metal such as Au, Pt) but 'appropriate' bonds would be required. The concept  
17 of ionic potential is relevant to this last requirement, as might be  
18 electronegativity.

19

20 If we were to design the necessarily complex structures required for organisms, we  
21 would need elements capable of multiple bonds. Group 4 meets this requirement with  
22 tetravalent elements. As might be expected from criterion 1, C, the element of lowest  
23 atomic mass in the group, is the framework for organisms. In environments where  
24 weight is less of an issue, such as the ocean, Si successfully provides the structure for  
25 some sponges.

At the other extreme, monovalent elements can only be terminal parts of structures, so group 1 elements and H simply complete charge balance. The same is probably so for group 7. In order for a C polymer to expand (grow) there must be attachment points i.e. incomplete parts of the structure. These points are “rented” by elements of valence 1 and possibly 2, while waiting for new building units of glucose (for starch, cellulose) or amino acids (for proteins) to attach to the structure. Hence these terminal points must involve bonds of only modest strength. In contrast non-attachment points of the structure could be terminally occupied by the more strongly bonded  $H^+$ .

Between these extremes, multivalent ions such as  $S^{6+}$ ,  $N^{5+}$  and  $N^{3-}$  contribute to structures, while divalent ions such as Mg and transition metals often have the role of “activators”, that is bridges between enzymes and substrates as shown in Table 9.1 of Gauch<sup>1</sup>.

The coulombic force of attraction between charged bodies is given by the product of the charges divided by the separation distance. Therefore the ionic potential (ip) of an element is a measure of potential bond strength:

$$ip = z/r_i$$

where  $z$  is the valence and  $r_i$  is the ionic radius (nm in this letter, to be consistent with SI units) of the element in that valence state. I have used a coordination number of 6 in all cases except for H, though this probably varies within organisms. The ionic radii were compiled from the CRC Handbook<sup>2</sup> and, where elements were missing, from on-line sources<sup>3,4</sup> that agreed with values that were common with the Handbook. The value for reduced C ( $C^{4+}$ , as in  $CH_4$ ) was problematic. In the absence of a listed value,

1 I have used the atomic radius of 0.077 nm, which theoretically should be an  
 2 underestimate of the ionic radius for the  $C^{4-}$  oxidation state. Hence the ip of 52 given  
 3 for  $C^{4-}$  is theoretically an overestimate.

4

5 Figure 1 shows the ip for the first 56 elements. I have shown only the commonest  
 6 biological oxidation states for most elements e.g.  $Mo^{6+}$ ,  $As^{5+}$ ,  $P^{5+}$ ,  $Cr^{3+}$ ,  $Fe^{2+}$ ,  $Mn^{2+}$ ,  
 7  $Cu^{2+}$ . Only for C (4+, 4-), N (5+, 3-) and S (6+, 2-) have I shown 2 oxidation states.  
 8 The rank order for + oxidation states is:  $N^{5+}$  (384),  $C^{4+}$  (250),  $S^{6+}$  (207),  $P^{5+}$  (131) and  
 9  $B^{3+}$  (111). Also over ip of 100 are  $As^{5+}$  (109),  $Mo^{6+}$  (101) and  $Si^{4+}$  (100). Only As and  
 10 Si are regarded as non-essential among the elements with ip > 100, but Si is used by  
 11 rice and sugarcane. Certainly As is bioactive as a toxin, but is it also essential?  $Cr^{6+}$   
 12 also has ip > 100 (136) though it is shown in the figure in its more common and less  
 13 toxic 3+ oxidation state. Among the – oxidation states, the rank order is  $C^{4-}$  (52),  $N^{3-}$   
 14 (20),  $O^{2-}$  (14) and  $S^{2-}$  (11). Therefore the elements with the highest ionic potentials  
 15 tend strongly to be the elements that form the ‘backbone’ of biological structures. The  
 16 high ip is due to both their high valence and their low  $r_i$ , the latter being largely a  
 17 consequence of their low atomic mass.

18

19 Why are light elements such as Li and Be not essential elements? Is it due to their  
 20 lower relative abundance compared to Na, Mg, K and Ca? But if so, why is the  
 21 common element Na not essential for plants? Figure 2 shows the ip for monovalent  
 22 and divalent elements. The lighter elements have higher ip which then tends to plateau  
 23 with increase in atomic mass. Perhaps Li (Fig 2a) forms too strong a bond or voltage  
 24 gradient to ‘rent’ attachment points. Possibly the same is partly true for Na, and might  
 25 represent the mechanism of specific Na toxicity if it substitutes excessively for K. K is

1 the lightest of the monovalents on the plateau of low  $i_p$  and is the dominant  
 2 monovalent cation in plants. The hypothesised monovalent site “renting” role of K  
 3 would explain its need at growing points (attachment points). Hence Rb could  
 4 partially substitute for K (Gauch Chapter 9)<sup>1</sup>, and Na is known to partially substitute  
 5 for K in halophiles<sup>5</sup>, subject to mass and  $i_p$  limitations respectively.

6  
 7 Similarly Be has the highest  $i_p$  among the divalent cations (Fig 2c). Mg and Ca might  
 8 represent a compromise between bond strength ( $i_p$ ) and atomic mass i.e. a weak bond  
 9 without too much mass. The arrows on Figure 2c are my suggestions for where on one  
 10 hand  $i_p$  might be too high and where on the other hand the elements might be too  
 11 weighty. The cluster of 10 divalent cations (including Ca) are mostly essential  
 12 elements, with Ti and Ge being the exceptions. Do they have a biological role or have  
 13 I selected the wrong oxidation states for their bioactive state?

14  
 15 Among the – charged monovalents F has the highest  $i_p$  (Fig 2b). As for Li, F might  
 16 form a voltage gradient too strong for casual charge balance, as indicated by their  
 17 standard electrode potentials. That is, their electronegativities and high  $i_p$  might result  
 18 in bonds or voltage gradients that are too strong for simple low energy charge balance,  
 19 or ‘renting’ of an incomplete structural site. Cl, Br and I have similar  $i_p$  but Cl is the  
 20 lightest. Some partial substitution of Br for Cl is known.

21  
 22 The relatively high negative  $i_p$  values for O and S have already been shown to be  
 23 associated with their essential role in biological structures. Se is not essential for  
 24 plants but is essential for animals, leaving only the heaviest element, Te, with no  
 25 apparent biological role (Fig 2d).

1

2 Therefore I suggest that for monovalent and divalent ions “essentiality” is associated  
3 with either:

4 higher values of ip for a structural bridging ( $O^{2-}$ ) or terminal role ( $H^+$ ), or  
5 is based on a compromise between low ip and low mass for a bridging (divalent  
6 cations) or charge balancing role ( $K^+$ ,  $Cl^-$ ).

7

8 The model suggests that a certain amount of inter-replacement can occur between  
9 non-structural elements with similar ip e.g. Ca and Mg; K, Rb and Na; Cl and Br. This  
10 is not intended to imply complete substitutability. There might be certain chemical  
11 tasks that are element specific, and other tasks for which substitution is possible  
12 simply on the basis of similar ip. Similarly it would be foolish to suggest that ip is the  
13 sole basis for substitutability, as there is evidence to the contrary, with Mg being  
14 replacable by Co but not by Mn for photosynthetic phosphorylation (Gauch p226)<sup>1</sup>.

15

16 Another puzzle is the essential nature of Mo. As can be seen in Figure 1, the  
17 hexavalent oxidation state provides a large ip, and hence Mo sits on a peak in the  
18 cycle of ip versus atomic number, suggestive of a structural role in organisms. Yet Mo  
19 is not part of the structure of organisms but rather is needed both for  $N_2$  fixation and  
20 for assimilatory  $NO_3$  reduction.

21

22 The elements of high ip tend to be enriched in biological structures compared with  
23 their abundance in crustal rocks<sup>6</sup>. The shape of the Banin- Navrot plots for  
24 biological/crustal enrichment could be a reflection of the conditions under which  
25 organisms evolved, as the authors<sup>6</sup> speculated, but given the increased abundance of

1 free O<sub>2</sub> sometime over the last 4 billion years since the first organisms, the shape  
 2 could additionally contain a reflection of a second phase of evolution during which a  
 3 degree of protection from oxidative processes was required. Energy for organisms  
 4 could initially be derived from reduced compounds but eventually other energy  
 5 systems developed. For example, elements in the first enrichment peak and following  
 6 descent of the Banin-Navrot plot for plants are associated with photosynthesis.  
 7 Similarly, the assimilation of N<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub> as opposed to the absorption of reduced N  
 8 ions creates additional metabolic requirements on organisms, which includes  
 9 protection from O<sub>2</sub> in the case of nitrogenase. Since Mo is required for the  
 10 assimilation of neutral (N<sub>2</sub>) and oxidised forms of N (NO<sub>3</sub>) I speculate that Mo  
 11 became an essential element after reduced forms of N became less abundant i.e. sole  
 12 NH<sub>4</sub> supply could make Mo non-essential. Elements required for photosynthesis as an  
 13 energy source and elements required for assimilatory NO<sub>3</sub> reduction might not have  
 14 been among the initial group of essential elements.

15  
 16 Minerals in rocks and soil have Si as their primary structural element, again indicating  
 17 that tetravalent elements are ideal for forming complex structures. Soil is the interface  
 18 between geochemical and biochemical processes. Its composition reflects both its  
 19 origin in rocks and the input of dead organisms. The composition of some  
 20 sedimentary rocks (limestone, coal) can themselves reflect the activity of organisms.  
 21 This interface is conceptualised in Figure 3. While rocks are based on Si, Fe(III) and  
 22 Al structures, organisms are generally based on C, N, P structures. Both have the  
 23 divalent elements S, Fe(II), O, Ca and Mg in common. My hypothesis/contention is  
 24 that complex structures emerged based on elements with high ip and low atomic mass  
 25 compared with rocks. These elements are currently, and possibly were, of modest

1 relative abundance in the crust: P 0.1% 6<sup>th</sup>, S 0.05% 11<sup>th</sup>, C 0.03%, 19<sup>th</sup> and N in trace  
 2 amounts only, though abundant in the atmosphere (78%, 1<sup>st</sup>). Crystallisation of  
 3 minerals from cooling magma probably forced an increase in the relative  
 4 concentration of these elements into the solution and gaseous phases. This is  
 5 essentially the reciprocal of the Goldschmidt model for crystallisation from magma <sup>7</sup>.  
 6 Bridging (other than O<sup>2-</sup>) and terminal charge balancing (other than H<sup>+</sup>) elements  
 7 associated with C structures were provided by elements that were a compromise  
 8 between the need for low ip and low atomic mass.

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 10 This analysis suggests that the team of 16 isn't necessarily exclusive. The concept of  
 11 ionic potential suggests that substitutions can take place at least to some degree, and  
 12 that therefore there are degrees of essentiality. C, H, N, P, S and O are critical for the  
 13 biological structure, hence their role is immutable; some ions could be amenable to a  
 14 degree of substitution (K by Rb and Na), while some elements (such as Si in grass  
 15 crops and V in N-fixing Azotobacter) can sometimes fill a role. Given the example<sup>8</sup>  
 16 that the uptake of cationic nutrients by mycorrhizal beech was largely influenced by ip  
 17 it could be expected that various organisms have evolved roles for a wide range of  
 18 elements, some "essential" and some opportunistic. Experimental substitution of ions  
 19 for those of similar ip might therefore help to explain:

- 20 1. why some elements are non-essential but appear to have a role in at least some  
 21 plants e.g. Si in grass crops
- 22 2. whether the stimulatory effects of non-essential elements is due to partial  
 23 replacement of deficient essential elements e.g. Na for K.
- 24 3. the mechanism of toxicities e.g. Cd displacing Ca, and the reverse, the partial  
 25 alleviation of toxicities e.g. Mg for MnII.



- 1        4. the triggering of genes by elements i.e. genetic by environmental interactions  
2            e.g. Arabidopsis under Al exposure<sup>9</sup>.

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#### 4    References

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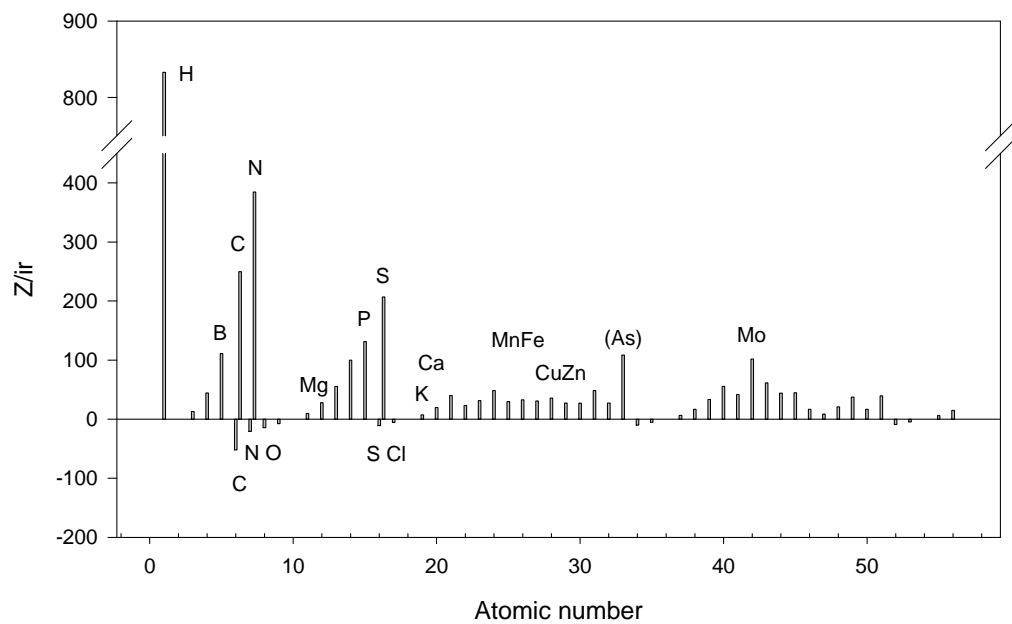
1    Figure legends

2        1. The ionic potential (valence/ionic radius in nm) of the first 56 elements  
3            of the periodic table.

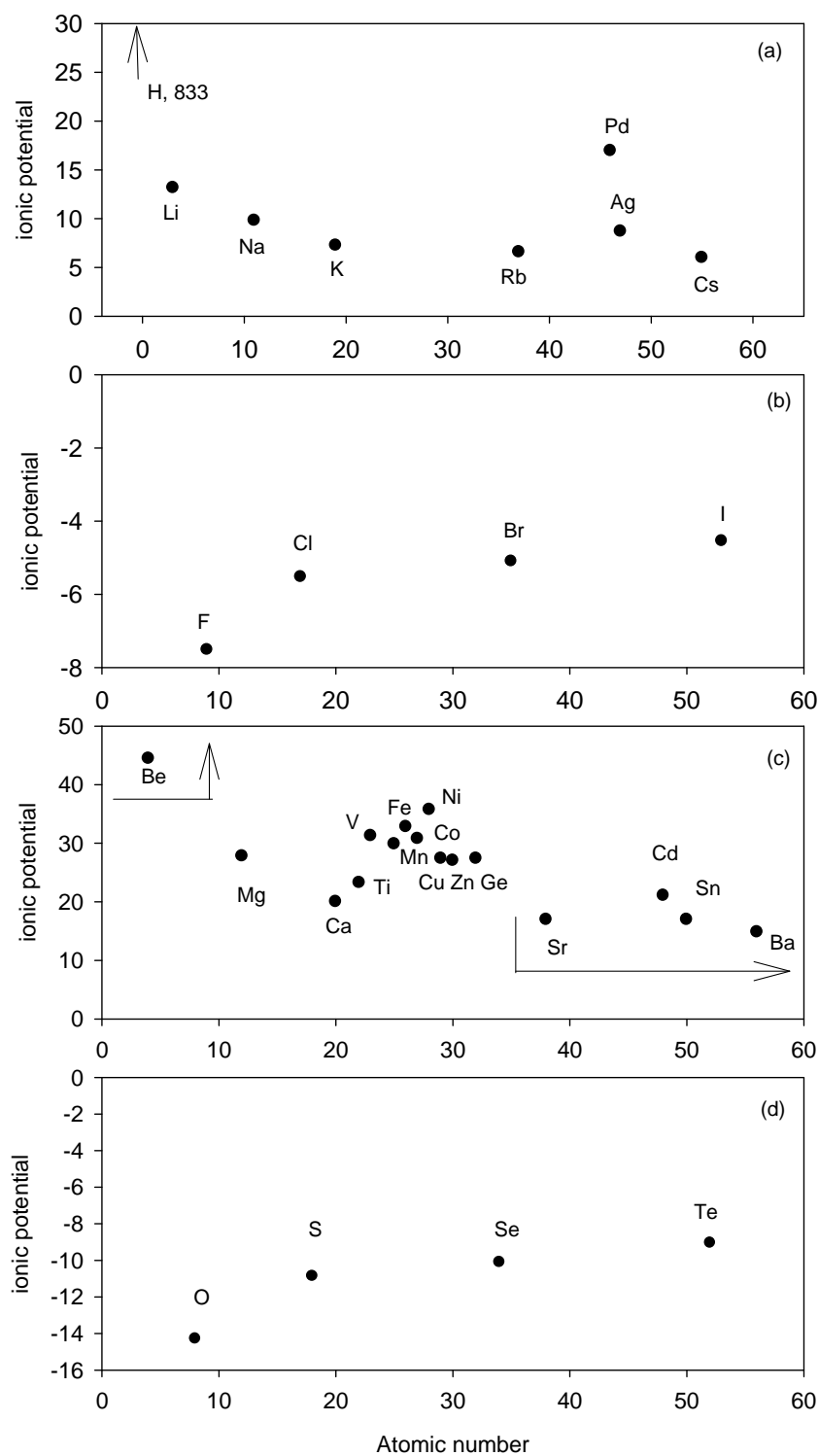
4        2. The relationship between ionic potential, ip, and atomic number for  
5            a) monovalent cations, b) monovalent anions, c) divalent cations and  
6            d) divalent anions.

7        3. The biochemical: geochemical interface of the major elements.

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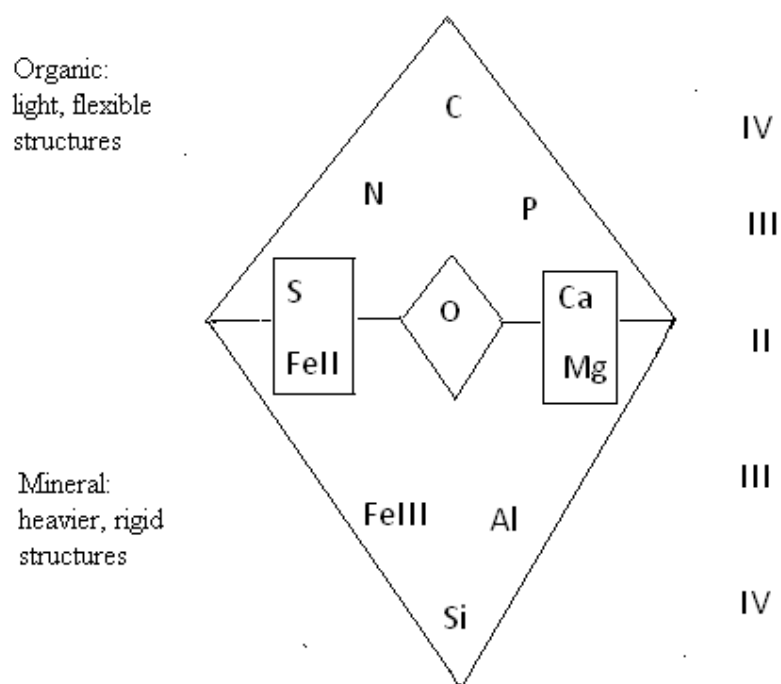


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