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The PHYTOGLOBIN-NO cycle regulates plant mycorrhizal symbiosis

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12 Spotlight Article

*To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: jgk@nipgr.ac.in **Corresponding author websites** Dr Jagadis Gupta Kapuganti Website: http://www.nipgr.res.in/research/dr_jagadis.php Twitter: https://twitter.com/DrJagadisNIPGR **Keywords:** nitric oxide, phytoglobin, mycorrhiza, S-nitrosoglutatione reductase, symbiosis

30 Abstract

The production of the redox-active, signalling molecule, NO has long been associated with interactions between microbes and their host plants. The emerging evidence now suggests that specific NO signatures and cognate patterns of *PHYTOGLOBIN1* (*PHYTOGB1*) expression, a key regulator of cellular NO homeostasis, may help determine either symbiosis or pathogenicity.

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37 Main Text

Mycorrhizal fungi spend a minor portion of their life cycle as free living organisms 38 39 and a majority of their life cycle associated with their respective host plant. It has been estimated that over 90% of land plants are associated with Mycorrhizal fungi 40 [1]. Among various mycorrhizal associations the arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) 41 association with plants is one of the most important, as they play a major role in 42 shaping both agricultural and natural ecosystems and their associated productivity. 43 AM fungi establish themselves in root cortical cells facilitating the uptake of key 44 45 molecules, especially phosphorous, to their host plant, thus providing a unique source of essential micronutrients under limiting conditions, promoting plant growth. 46 In turn, AM fungi receive photosynthate from their host plants [1]. AM fungi also 47 48 convey additional advantages to their host plants such as increasing disease 49 resistance due to presence of 'elicitor' molecules on their surface which trigger 50 microbial associated molecular pattern (MAMP) immunity [2] and further, activation of the symbiotic regulatory (SYM) pathway, which partially supresses the host 51 52 immune response facilitating colonization [3].

The accumulating evidence suggests that the free radical signalling molecule, nitric 53 oxide (NO) plays a key role in plant symbiotic interactions [3]. AM fungi have also 54 55 been reported to induce disease resistance in soybean against Phytophthora sojae, an economically significant pathogen of this plant. Further, NO is thought to be a key 56 component in the signalling network establishing this resistance [4]. In the 57 association between leguminous plants and rhizobium bacteria both partners 58 59 contribute to NO production [5]. Significantly, NO plays a key role from the initial stages of the interaction through the development of mature root nodules and their 60 subsequent senescence [5]. In this context, nitrate reductase (NR), mitochondrial 61 electron transport chain mediated nitrite NO reduction and nitric oxide synthase-like 62 (NOS-like) activity have all been proposed to generate the observed NO production. 63 Further, an important function for NO turnover has also been studied [5]. Thus, a 64 delicate balance between NO production and removal is thought to determine key 65 signalling outputs associated with plant-microbe symbiosis [5]. 66

The major NO scavenging pathways are thought to be mediated by phytoglobin (Pgb) and S-nitrosoglutatione reductase (GSNOR). Phytoglobins are a group of nonsymbiotic hemoglobins. These hexacoordinate hemoglobins are functionally and genetically distinct from symbiotic hemoglobins and possess high affinity for both oxygen and NO under certain conditions such as hypoxia, thereby functioning as effective molecular scavengers for these molecules [5]. The generated nitrate via oxygenation of NO via Pgb can subsequently become a substrate for NR to produce
nitrite and concomitantly, NO. This cycling of NO mediated by Pgb is termed the
"Pgb-NO cycle" [5]. Although NO is known to play a key signal in the establishment
of AM fungal-plant interactions the underpinning molecular details have remained
enigmatic.

Excitingly, Martinez-Medina et al.,[6] now demonstrate that NO-dependent 78 regulation of PHYTOGB1 (class 1 hemoglobin) transcription plays a key role in these 79 mycorrhizal-plant interactions. Significantly, they also identify specific NO-based 80 signatures that precede colonisation by Rhizophagus irregularis, employed as a soil 81 inoculant in agriculture and horticulture, that regulate PHYTOGB1 expression. Using 82 transgenic tomato hairy roots, these authors demonstrated that PHYTOGB1 controls 83 the levels of NO in tomato roots during colonization of the AM fungus, R. irregularis. 84 Further, PHYTOGB1 also modulated NO accrual during the interaction of tomato 85 plants with the necrotrophic fungal pathogen, Fusarium oxysporum. In the case of 86 *R. irregularis*, initial contact with the fungus or exudates derived from its germinating 87 spores, generated rapid and subtle oscillations of NO accumulation, specifically in 88 tomato epidermal and root hair cells, followed subsequently by transcriptional up-89 regulation of PHYTOGB1 at the later stages of this response. Remarkably, cell wall 90 extracts from R. irregularis failed to induce these NO oscillations, suggesting 91 recognition of microbial associated molecular patterns (MAMPS) [7] by their cognate 92 pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) [7] were not integral to this response. Rather, 93 the observed signature of NO accumulation appeared to be an early plant response 94 to diffusible factors released from germinating spores of AM fungi. In addition, this R. 95 irregularis induced NO signature also triggered activation and subsequent analogous 96 oscillations in the expression pattern of NO-inducible PHYTOGB1, presumably 97 reducing NO levels (Fig 1A). Overexpression of PHYTOGB1 in tomato hairy roots, 98 further decreasing NO levels, promoted increased R. irregularis colonisation but did 99 not alter the abundance of arbuscules in the colonized areas, supporting a role of 100 PHYTOGB1 in the early events of root colonization and its extension, but not in 101 arbuscule formation. Counter-intuitively, RNAi silencing of PHYTOGB1 also resulted 102 in enhanced colonization, suggesting perturbing NO oscillations per se is sufficient to 103 enhance AM fungal colonization, possibly by disrupting plant immune responses that 104 might be activated by this NO signature. 105

In complete contrast, challenge with the pathogenic fungus, F. oxysporum, failed to 106 induce subtle NO oscillations restricted to root epidermal cells. Rather, this pathogen 107 triggered a stronger and temporally sustained production of NO throughout the root. 108 Despite these high NO levels, PHYTOGB1 was repressed after 24 hours post F. 109 oxysporum challenge, implying this response might be driven by F. oxysporum to aid 110 pathogenesis. In this context, high chronic NO levels are thought to promote 111 pathogen susceptibility by negatively regulating key plant immune responses and 112 promoting cell death (Fig 1B) [8], both favouring F. oxysporum infection. Thus, a 113 distinct NO signature generated in tomato root epidermal cells reports the 114 subsequent establishment of a symbiotic interaction with *R. irregularis*. Significantly, 115 a highly dissimilar NO signature was produced by tomato roots in response to 116 117 challenge with F. oxysporum. Further, the transcriptional profile of PHYTOGB1 expression was also markedly different during these two distinct types of plantmicrobe interactions. Thus, Martinez-Medina and co-authors [6] provide new insights into the associations of microbes with their host plants, by the discovery that specific NO signatures and cognate patterns of *PHYTOGB1* expression may help determine either symbiosis or pathogenicity.

This interesting study supports and extends the findings of Gupta *et al.*, [9], which 123 showed the mutualistic endophyte, Trichoderma aspelloides, generates a specific 124 NO signature during the early stages of an interaction with Arabidopsis thaliana 125 roots. Further, it has also recently been demonstrated that Trichoderma harzianum 126 triggers a rapid and transient burst of NO in roots of tomato. This NO accumulation 127 correlated with expression of PHYTOGB1 suggesting the possible importance of the 128 Pgb-NO cycle in establishment of beneficial Trichoderma plant interactions [10]. 129 Tight NO regulation can also be important under abiotic stress. For instance, flooding 130 stress leads to an NO increase in specialised cortical cells promoting lysegenous 131 aerenchyma formation and the PHYTOGB1-NO cycle is thought to be integral to this 132 process [11]. Importantly, the enzyme responsible for NO production in plant-AM 133 fungal interactions still remains to be established. Reductive pathways including NR 134 and PM NI-NOR (Plama membrane Nitrite:NO reductase) may be responsible but 135 these pathways produce NO at low oxygen conditions. However, plant roots often 136 experience hypoxia and hence it is plausible that low root oxygen tensions might 137 trigger mycorrihization via NO signalling. Martinez-Medina and co-authors [6] found 138 increased AM fungal colonization in Pgb over expression lines. Previously it was 139 demonstrated that overexpression of Pgb in barley roots leads to low internal oxygen 140 which can trigger limited NO production, resulting in further activation of Pgb [12]. 141 This mechanism might also explain the observed increased mycorrhization of tomato 142 lines overexpressing Pgb [6]. 143

Selection of plant genotypes with increased Pgb activity and by extension enhanced symbiotic ability could be the target of future breeding programs to both convey resistance against pathogens and promote colonization of beneficial microbes. Taken together, the accumulated evidence suggests that tight regulation of the NO-Pgb cycle plays an important role in NO homeostasis facilitating discrimination between microbial pathogens and symbionts.

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197 Figure Legend

198 **Fig 1**

(A) Scheme summarizing the role of nitric oxide (NO) in arbuscular 199 mycorrhizal (AM) in symbiosis with plants. At pre-symbiotic stages several 200 myc factors released by fungal spores trigger NO production via oxidative or 201 reductive NO biosynthetic pathways. The produced NO eventually activates 202 symbiotic regulatory pathway DMI1, DMI2, DMI3 (does not make infection 203 genes). Activation of this pathway provides further room for fungus to grow 204 and reach cortical cells. NO in turn induces phytoglobin1 (PHYTOGB1). The 205 induced PHYTOGB1 further scavenge NO and keep the NO levels low for 206 active colonization. 207

(B) During the interaction with necrotrophs such as *Fusarium*, infection
pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) generated by fungus are
recognised by plant pattern-recognition receptors (PRRs) leads to production
of high levels of NO and reactive oxygen species (ROS). High levels of NO or
its reaction with ROS probably may cause Tyr-nitration of PHYTOGB1 leads
to its inactivation, thus in turn increase NO production and subsequently
initiates cell death.

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