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Multiple ways to evade the bacteriostatic action of glyphosate in rhizobia include the mutation of the conserved serine 90 of the nitrogenase subunit NifH to alanine

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1 **Multiple ways to evade the bacteriostatic action of glyphosate in rhizobia include the**
2 **mutation of the conserved serine 90 of the nitrogenase subunit NifH to alanine**

3

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16

17 **Key words:** *Bradyrhizobium*; Soybean; Glyphosate, Mechanism; Nitrogenase

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26 **Abstract**

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28 The genome resequencing of spontaneous glyphosate-resistant mutants derived from the
29 soybean inoculant E109 allowed identifying genes most likely associated with the uptake (*gltL*
30 and *cya*) and metabolism (*zigA* and *betA*) of glyphosate, as well as with nitrogen fixation (*nifH*).
31 Mutations in these genes reduce the lag phase and improve nodulation under glyphosate stress.
32 In addition to providing glyphosate resistance, the amino acid exchange Ser90Ala in NifH
33 increased the citrate synthase activity, growth rate and plant growth-promoting efficiency of
34 E109 in the absence of glyphosate stress, suggesting roles for this site during both the free-
35 living and symbiotic growth stages.

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51 **Introduction**

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53 Glyphosate (N-phosphonomethyl glycine) is the most used herbicide in the world. Since
54 the first glyphosate-resistant crop, a transgenic soybean variety, was introduced to the US
55 market in 1996, the use of this herbicide has increased drastically. During the last decades, the
56 adoption rates of glyphosate-resistant germplasms, including a vast diversity of major legumes
57 (e.g. soybean and alfalfa) and non-legume crops (e.g. cotton, maize and rice), have been
58 extremely high in both developed (e.g. US) and developing (e.g. Argentina) countries. The
59 cultivation of these transgenic crops in association with glyphosate has provided the most
60 effective and inexpensive weed management technology in history. However, although
61 glyphosate is toxicologically safe for humans and animals (both wildlife and domesticated) and
62 its environmental impact is lower than that of the multiple herbicides and tillage that it replaces,
63 the extended use of glyphosate generates the occurrence of glyphosate-resistant weeds, alters
64 the mineral nutrition, affects the animal microbiota, and increases the susceptibility to plant
65 pathogens [1].

66 Glyphosate inhibits the enzyme 5-enolpyruvyl-3-shikimate phosphate synthase
67 (EPSPS) involved in *de novo* synthesis of aromatic amino acids in plants, bacteria and other
68 organisms. A key feature of this systemic herbicide that explains its commercial success is the
69 particular ability to translocate rapidly to metabolic sinks, killing meristematic tissues away
70 from the application site and controlling a broad-spectrum of weeds, including perennial plants.
71 Current commercial glyphosate-resistant crops, including transgenic soybean cultivars, express
72 an insensitive EPSPS gene and not a glyphosate degradation gene, and thus, their natural
73 endophytes and commercial inoculants are indirectly exposed to glyphosate. A clear example
74 of the negative impact of glyphosate on plant-growth promoting bacteria is the reduction of
75 nitrogen fixation and yield in transgenic soybean production via the growth inhibition of

76 rhizobia [2]. This long-term situation evidences the need to improve the current inoculants for
77 the maximization of symbiotic nitrogen fixation in glyphosate-resistant crops. Unfortunately,
78 the potential benefits of engineered microbes in this agronomic topic is limited by the ecological
79 and health risks of the massive release of genetically modified microbes in agroecosystems [3].
80 Thus, the production of spontaneous glyphosate-resistant mutants could be an attractive
81 alternative to rapidly improve the inoculants available in the market.

82 Several glyphosate resistance mechanisms, including target alteration and control of the
83 uptake, export and degradation of glyphosate, have been reported in different microbes [4].
84 However, the emergence of glyphosate resistance in rhizobia has not been studied at the genetic
85 level. In this context, we here selected and studied spontaneous glyphosate-resistant mutants
86 derived from the soybean inoculant *Bradyrhizobium japonicum* E109 [5].

87

88 **Materials and methods**

89

90 Spontaneous glyphosate-resistant mutants derived from the wild-type strain E109 were
91 selected in RMM medium [6] supplemented with 7 mM glyphosate. Resistance to glyphosate
92 of each independent spontaneous mutant clone was confirmed by plating isolated colonies on
93 this selective medium (Fig. S1). The mutation sites associated with the stress-resistant
94 phenotype were identified as previously described [5]. The nucleotide sequences of the mutant
95 strains and wild type strain E109 were deposited in the EMBL Nucleotide Sequence Database,
96 accession numbers GR1 (SAMN24505280), GR2 (SAMN24518821), GR3 (SAMN24519010),
97 GR4 (SAMN24527104), GR5 (SAMN24529885) and E109 (SAMN24528291). For
98 complementation analysis, strain E109 was transformed with the plasmid pBBR1-MCS3
99 containing mutant alleles, as previously described [5]. For physiological studies under aerobic
100 conditions, bacterial cultures were grown in 125 mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 25 mL of

101 RMM medium supplemented with 50 mg/L yeast extract (RMM2 medium), incubated at 28°C
102 with shaking (250 rpm). Cells from stationary-growth cultures were used to inoculate fresh
103 RMM2 medium supplemented with 0 or 0.7 mM glyphosate at an initial optical density (OD
104 580 nm) of 0.05. Growth was monitored by measuring OD, and citrate synthase (CS) activity
105 and doubling time evaluated in exponentially growing cells as described previously [7].

106 The symbiotic efficiency was analyzed by growing rhizobia-inoculated soybean plants
107 in hydroponics and irrigated with the minimal medium INTA13 without nitrogen, as previously
108 described [5]. To analyze the nodulation abilities of mutants under herbicide stress, young
109 seedlings of transgenic glyphosate-tolerant soybean were exposed to an application of 90 mg/L
110 glyphosate at the stage of cotyledons. A week after herbicide treatment, the presence of nodules
111 was determined by visual evaluation. The plant growth-promoting efficiency of mutants in
112 wild-type glyphosate-sensitive soybean without glyphosate stress was analyzed two months
113 after inoculation, as previously described [5]. Total nitrogen content in plant matter was
114 established by the Kjeldahl method. The glyphosate-sensitive and glyphosate-tolerant soybean
115 seeds used were the commercial varieties Alim 5.09 and Andrea 63.1, respectively. The effect
116 of bacterial treatments on N₂O soil emissions was analyzed as previously described [8] with
117 slight modifications. Microcosms were prepared by placing approximately 150 g of agronomic
118 soil containing 2 μM of nitrate [9] into 500 mL sterilized bottles exposed to 150 μL of bacterial
119 culture grown for seven days in YEM medium and washed twice in physiological solution. The
120 microcosms were incubated at 25°C for 24 h, and the N₂O fluxes were measured by gas
121 chromatography [10].

122

123 **Results and Discussion**

124

125 Genomic analysis revealed that the spontaneous glyphosate-resistant mutant strains
126 GR1-GR5 are isogenic to their wild-type parental strain E109, with the exception of single
127 nucleotide substitutions on the genes *gltL* (Fig. 1a), *cya* (Fig. 1b), *zigA* (Fig. 1c), *betA* (Fig. 1d),
128 and *nifH* (Fig. 1e). These genes code for a glutamate transporter, an adenylate cyclase, a Zn-
129 binding metallochaperone, a choline dehydrogenase and an essential structural subunit of
130 nitrogenase, respectively (Fig. S2). Of these five well-known proteins, the only protein that has
131 been found to be directly associated with the emergence of glyphosate-resistant bacteria is the
132 glutamate transporter [11]. The transformation of strain E109 with the mutant alleles of *zigA*,
133 *betA* and *nifH* but not of *gltL* and *cya* increased its natural tolerance to glyphosate (Fig. S3),
134 suggesting that these are probably gain and loss-of-function mutations, respectively.

135 Previous studies have shown the essential roles of the glutamate transporter and the
136 adenylate cyclase in the uptake of glyphosate in *Bacillus subtilis* [11] and of other phosphonate
137 antibiotics (fosfomycin and fosmidomycin) in *Escherichia coli* [12], respectively. Here, we
138 showed the emergence of a nonsense mutation within the *gltL* gene in strain GR1 (Fig. 1a) and
139 of a consensus sequence binding site for the transcriptional repressor factor HipB [13] within
140 the promoter of the *cya* gene in strain GR2 (Fig. 1b). Consequently, these mutant strains are
141 probably defective in glyphosate uptake.

142 Recent reports have described the important functions of the Zn-binding
143 metallochaperone ZigA and the choline dehydrogenase BetA in histidine degradation and
144 glycine-betaine biosynthesis in *Acinetobacter baumannii* [14] and alfalfa rhizobia [15],
145 respectively. In addition, glyphosate exposure induces the depletion of intracellular zinc
146 bioavailability and the expression of choline dehydrogenase [16, 17]. In this study, we showed
147 the occurrence of non-synonymous nucleotide substitutions within the *zigA* gene in strain GR3
148 (Fig. 1c) and within the *betA* gene in strain GR4 (Fig. 1d), which improved the ability of E109
149 to grow under glyphosate stress. Considering the previous works describing the functions of

150 *ZigA* and *BetA* in amino acid metabolism and our results, we propose that the *zigA* and *betA*
151 mutations probably modified the glyphosate metabolism.

152 Glyphosate acts as a bacteriostatic antibiotic against both Gram-negative and -positive
153 bacteria [18, 19]. In accordance with their higher resistance to glyphosate under solid media,
154 strains GR1-GR5 showed a shorter initial lag (Fig. 1f) and earlier nodulation (Fig. 1g) than
155 strain E109 under glyphosate stress, supporting the ability of these mutants to evade the
156 bacteriostatic effects of glyphosate in pure culture and *in planta*. These findings provide the
157 first genetic evidence that the alteration of the soybean-rhizobia symbiosis under glyphosate
158 stress is directly related to the antibiotic action on soybean rhizobia. In addition, significant
159 amounts of *nifH* transcript and NifH protein has been observed in soybean rhizobia under a
160 wide-range of free-living conditions including aerobic cultures [20-23], suggesting that the role
161 of NifH may not be restricted to the nitrogen fixation process. To our knowledge, however, this
162 is the first report describing a phenotype produced by *nifH* mutation outside of the nitrogen
163 fixation process.

164 Recently, phosphoproteome analysis of the bacterium *Zymomonas mobilis* ZM4 has
165 shown that the nitrogenase subunit NifH is phosphorylated at serine 90 under nitrogen-fixing
166 conditions [24]. Currently, there are no reports describing the possible role of this post-
167 translational modification. We have shown that this site is highly conserved in different
168 nitrogen-fixing strains from diverse phyla, including commercial inoculants E109 and
169 *Azospirillum brasilense* Az39 (Fig. 2a). In addition, we showed the emergence of a nucleotide
170 change within the *nifH* gene in strain GR5, which changes the serine 90 site to alanine (Fig.
171 1e). Based on this result, we propose future studies exploring the probable phosphorylation of
172 this residue in NifH from E109 and other legume microsymbionts.

173 Considering that the growth inhibition of microbes by bacteriostatic antibiotics has been
174 associated with reduced metabolism and suppressed cellular respiration [18, 25, 26], we studied

175 the activity of CS, which plays crucial roles in central carbon and energy metabolism [7], and
176 the bacterial growth rate. In contrast with other glyphosate-resistant mutant strains (GR1-GR4),
177 strains GR5 showed increased CS activity (Fig. 2b) and lower duplication time (Fig. 2c) than
178 strain E109 in exponentially growing cells without glyphosate stress. Similar to commercial
179 alfalfa inoculants [27], several soybean inoculants including strain E109 have conserved nitrate,
180 nitrite, and nitric oxide reductases related to the production of the greenhouse gas nitrous oxide
181 (N_2O) from nitrate, but lost the N_2O reductase associated with the degradation of N_2O to gas
182 nitrogen [28]. Consequently, strain E109 and other important legume inoculants are high N_2O -
183 emitting rhizobia [8, 28]. As expected, the complementation of strain E109 with the pYC7
184 cosmid containing the N_2O reductase cluster, suppressed the high N_2O -emitting phenotype of
185 strain E109 (Fig. 2d). In addition, strain GR5 showed significantly decreased N_2O emissions
186 compared to strain E109 in microcosm assays (Fig. 2d). Therefore, our results suggest a
187 possible link between glyphosate resistance and the metabolic shifts induced by the S90A
188 mutation.

189 Interestingly, large differences in plant productivity (Fig. 3a) and nodule biomass (Fig.
190 3b) were observed between strain E109 and strain GR5 in soybean inoculation assays without
191 glyphosate stress, suggesting that the putative phosphorylation site of NifH from strain E109
192 can also play functions in the symbiotic nitrogen-fixing process. Soybean plants inoculated with
193 GR5 had increases between 21% (data not shown) and 8% (Fig. 3c) in nitrogen content of leaves
194 with respect to plants inoculated with the parental strain E109 in chamber and field conditions,
195 respectively. These results are in line with the positive effects of a high CS activity on the
196 bacterial growth rate of *Rhizobium tropici* and nodulation of common bean [29]. A possible
197 mechanism to explain the benefits of S90A mutation and high CS activity on symbiotic nitrogen
198 fixation could be the respiratory protection of nitrogenase and the increase of the reducing
199 equivalents as well as of ATP needed for the nitrogen fixation process [30]. In biotechnological

200 terms, the non-genetically modified mutant strain GR5 can be applied to increase the
201 production, environmental safety and nutritional quality of both conventional and glyphosate-
202 tolerant soybean varieties.

203

204 **Figure Legends**

205

206 **Figure 1. Mutations responsible for the glyphosate resistance phenotype in spontaneous**
207 **mutant strains derived from the commercial soybean inoculant E109 and the ability of**
208 **these mutants to bypass the bacteriostatic effects of glyphosate both in pure culture and**
209 ***in planta*.** As compared to the genome of their parental strain E109, the genomes of the
210 glyphosate-resistant strains (a) GR1, (b) GR2, (c) GR3, (d) GR4 and (e) GR5 display mutations
211 only within the *gltL* (yellow), *cya* (green), *zigA* (light blue), *betA* (red) and *nifH* (orange) genes,
212 which code for a glutamate transporter, an adenylate cyclase, a Zn-binding metallochaperone,
213 a choline dehydrogenase and a subunit of nitrogenase, respectively. Mutations are highlighted
214 in gray and their impact on nucleotide and amino acid sequences are described on the right. (f)
215 The duration of the lag phase of E109 (a slow-growing bacterium) and its glyphosate-resistant
216 derived mutants GR1-GR5 was evaluated in RMM2 medium with or without glyphosate stress.
217 Values represent mean \pm SD (n=3). (g) The ability of strains E109 and GR1-GR5 to nodulate
218 glyphosate-tolerant soybean was analyzed in minimal medium INTA13 without nitrogen.
219 Rhizobia-treated plants were either exposed or not to an application of glyphosate. The
220 inoculation experiment was performed twice using eight replicates for each treatment, with the
221 same results. Roots with (+) or without (-) nodules are highlighted.

222

223 **Figure 2. Effects of the S90A mutation on the citrate synthase activity and growth rate of**
224 **strain E109.** (a) Alignment of amino acids of partial NifH proteins from strains belonging to

225 different phyla showing that the serine 90 phosphorylation site recently identified in
226 *Zymomonas mobilis* ZM4 is a conserved site of this nitrogenase subunit. *Bradyrhizobium*
227 *japonicum* E109 (WP_011084578), *Zymomonas mobilis* ZM4 (WP_011241556), *Azospirillum*
228 *brasilense* Az39 (AIB12323), *Clostridium bornimense* (WP_044035927), *Nostoc* sp. PCC 6720
229 (CAA83510). (b) Citrate synthase activity and (c) duplication time of the wild-type strain E109
230 and the mutant strains GR1-GR5 were evaluated in exponential growing cells without
231 glyphosate stress. Strain GR5 contains the S90A mutation. Values represent mean \pm SD (n =
232 4). Significant differences between inoculants were analyzed with ANOVA followed by
233 Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (n.s.: not significant, ****p < 0.0001, ***p < 0.001). (d)
234 Average N₂O fluxes from the soil microcosm inoculated with soybean rhizobia. Values
235 represent mean + SEM (n = 20). *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, t-test.

236

237 **Figure 3. Effects of the S90A mutation on the plant growth-promoting efficiency of the**
238 **inoculant.** The productivity (a) and nodule biomass (b) of glyphosate-sensitive soybean plants
239 inoculated with the wild-type strain E109 and the mutant strains GR1-GR5 were analyzed in
240 the absence of nitrogen in the substrate and without glyphosate stress. Strain GR5 contains the
241 S90A mutation. All values are means + SEM (n = 24). Significant differences between
242 inoculants were analyzed with ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (n.s.:
243 not significant, ****p < 0.0001). (c) Leaf nitrogen content in 3-month-old soybean plants
244 treated with different bacterial inoculants under field conditions. Values represent mean + SEM
245 (n = 9). *p < 0.05; t-test.

246

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249

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253

254 **Conflict of interest.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1

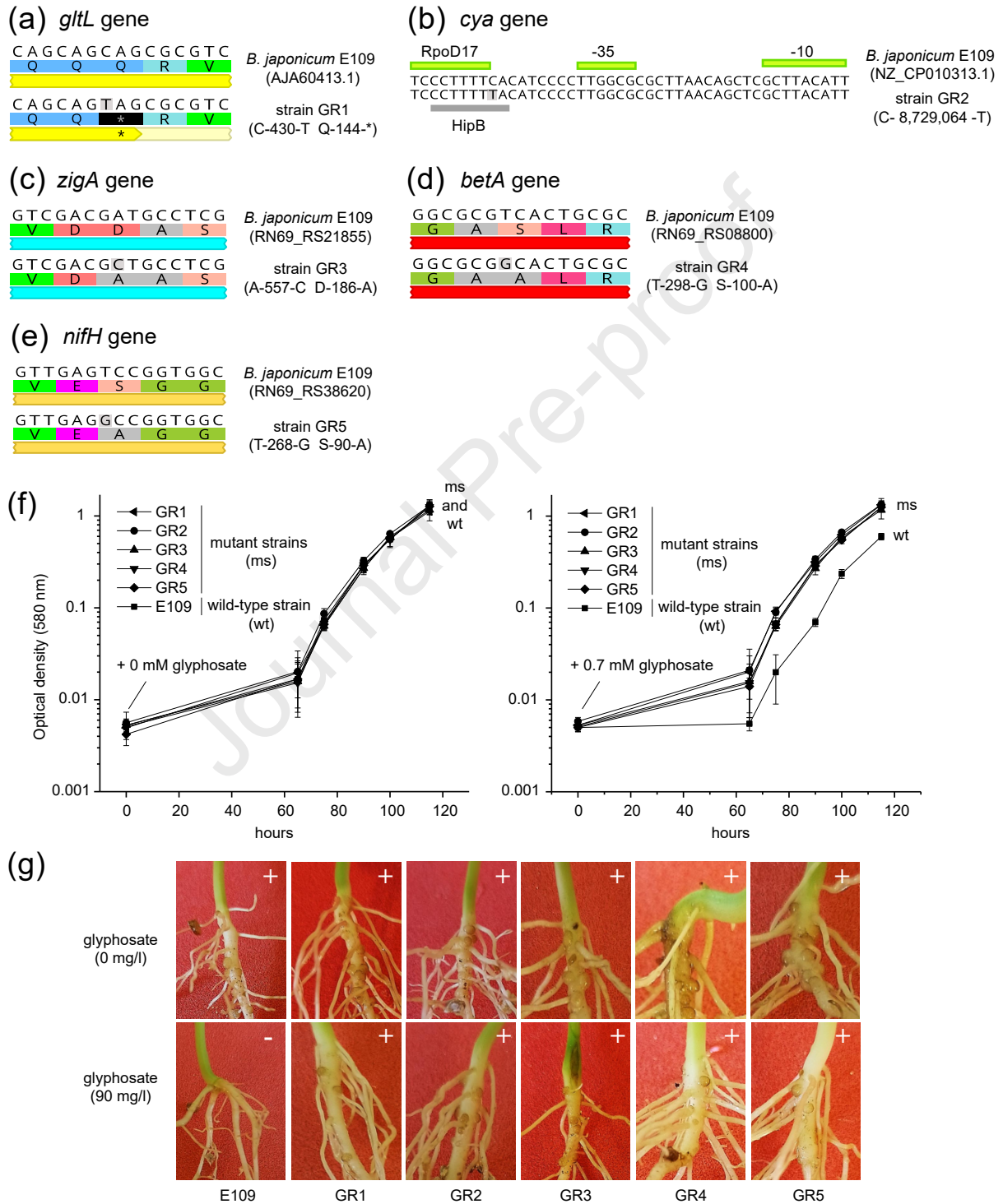
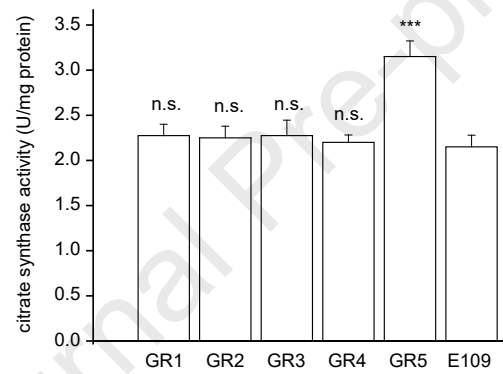


Figure 2

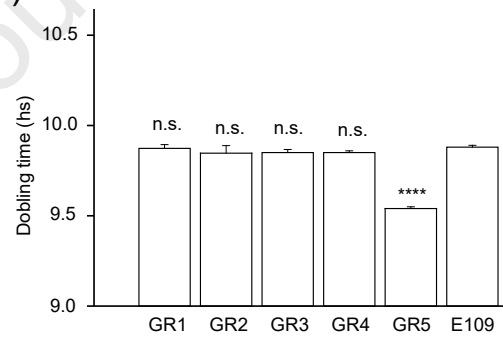
(a)

| | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------|-------|---------------------------|
| | * | ***** | * * * * |
| <i>B. japonicum</i> E109 | EDVMKVGYQDIRC | VE | SGGPEPGVGCAGRGVITSINFLEEN |
| <i>Z. mobilis</i> ZM4 | EDVLKLGKDKIC | VE | SGGPEPGVGCAGRGVITSINFLEEN |
| <i>A. brasilense</i> Az39 | EDVLKIGYKGIK | VE | SGGPEPGVGCAGRGVITSINFLEEN |
| <i>C. bormimense</i> | DSIMKIGYGGTK | VE | SGGPEPGVGCAGRGIITSIGMLERL |
| <i>Nostoc</i> sp. PCC 6720 | HEVMLTGFRGVR | VE | SGGPEPGVGCAGRGIITAINFLEEN |

(b)



(c)



(d)

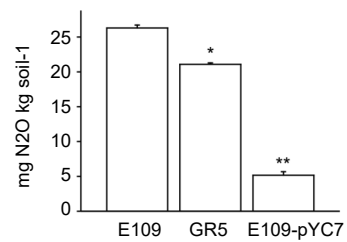


Figure 3

