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**Using mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes of non-legume plant species to study the formation and functioning of arbuscular mycorrhiza: a review**

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1 Using mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes of non-legume plant species to study  
2 the formation and functioning of arbuscular mycorrhiza: a review.

3

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5

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23 **Abstract**

24 A significant challenge facing the study of arbuscular mycorrhiza is the establishment  
25 of suitable non-mycorrhizal treatments that can be compared with mycorrhizal  
26 treatments. A number of options are available, including soil sterilisation (physical  
27 and chemical), comparison of constitutively mycorrhizal and non-mycorrhizal plant  
28 species, comparison of plants grown in soils with different inoculum potential, and the  
29 comparison of mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes with their mycorrhizal wild-  
30 type progenitors. Each option has its inherent advantages and limitations. Here, the  
31 potential to use mycorrhiza-defective mutant and wild-type genotype plant pairs as  
32 tools to study the functioning of mycorrhiza is reviewed. The emphasis of this review  
33 is placed on non-legume plant species, as mycorrhiza-defective plant genotypes in  
34 legumes have recently been extensively reviewed. It is concluded that non-legume  
35 mycorrhiza-defective mutant and wild-type pairs are useful tools in the study of  
36 mycorrhiza. However, the mutant genotypes should be well characterised and, ideally,  
37 meet a number of key criteria. The generation of more mycorrhiza-defective mutant  
38 genotypes in agronomically important plant species would be of benefit, as would be  
39 more research using these genotype pairs, especially under field conditions.

40

41 **Keywords:** Arbuscular mycorrhiza, mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotype, reduced  
42 mycorrhizal colonisation (*rmc*), *Solanum lycopersicum* (tomato), Micro-Tom.

43

## 44 **Introduction**

45 Arbuscular mycorrhiza are associations formed between the majority (80%) of  
46 terrestrial plant species, and arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi in the soil (Smith and  
47 Read 2008). The formation of mycorrhiza can benefit plants through enhanced  
48 acquisition of nutrients such as phosphorus (P), nitrogen, (N) and zinc (Zn)  
49 (Cavagnaro 2008; Clark and Zeto 2000; Gyaneshwar et al. 2002; Marschner and Dell  
50 1994; Rillig 2004a; Smith and Read 2008). In addition to their beneficial effects on  
51 plant nutrition, mycorrhiza provide other ecosystem services: for example,  
52 improvement of soil structure (Miller and Jastrow 1990; Rillig 2004b; Rillig and  
53 Mummey 2006; Tisdall 1991; Tisdall and Oades 1980), reduction of soil nutrient  
54 losses through leaching (Asghari and Cavagnaro 2011; Asghari and Cavagnaro 2012;  
55 Asghari et al. 2005; Bender et al. 2015; Bender and van der Heijden 2015; van der  
56 Heijden 2010) and the suppression of weeds (Rinaudo et al. 2010; Veiga et al. 2011),  
57 improvement of plant acquisition of nutrients from compost (Cavagnaro 2014;  
58 Cavagnaro 2015), as well as other benefits in the context of a changing climate and  
59 increased abiotic stress (Smith et al. 2010). Consequently, mycorrhiza have an  
60 important role in influencing plant communities, ecosystem productivity, and  
61 potentially agricultural productivity (Hartnett and Wilson 1999; O'Connor et al. 2002;  
62 van der Heijden et al. 1998a; van der Heijden et al. 1998b; Wagg et al. 2011).

63 In mycorrhizal legume species, where plants can be colonised by mycorrhizal  
64 fungi and nodulating bacteria simultaneously, common signalling pathways for the  
65 formation of mycorrhizal and rhizobial associations have been well studied (Hirsch  
66 and Kapulnik 1998; Horváth et al. 2011; Parniske 2008). This work has resulted in the  
67 identification of numerous genotypes defective for AM colonisation (referred to as a  
68 'mycorrhiza-defective mutants' hereafter) in model legume species. While the present

69 review focuses on non-legume mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes, it is important  
70 to mention that much of the research on the genetic basis of the AM symbiosis has  
71 been conducted using legume mutants (Ané et al. 2004; Endre et al. 2002; Imaizumi-  
72 Anraku et al. 2005; Lévy et al. 2004; Stracke et al. 2002), and thus they have been  
73 invaluable to the study of the AM symbiosis. For example, a symbiotic ‘toolkit’ has  
74 been collated using model legume species, containing 25 molecular components that  
75 work in concert to control AM colonisation (Delaux et al. 2013; Table 1). This  
76 symbiotic ‘toolkit’ provides useful information for developing mutant genotypes in  
77 non-legume plant species by looking for orthologs of genes in non-legumes that have  
78 a known function in AM symbiosis.

79         The advantage of using non-legume mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes is  
80 that they do not form associations with nodulating bacteria, thereby avoiding  
81 complications of multi-trophic interactions (Barker et al. 1998; Cavagnaro et al.  
82 2004a). As well as being important tools for investigating the molecular basis of AM  
83 colonisation (Barker and Larkan 2002), the mutant and wild-type pairs are also useful  
84 for studying the functioning of mycorrhiza because it is possible to compare  
85 mycorrhizal and non-mycorrhizal plants in native soil without any other experimental  
86 manipulation or intervention.

87         The intention of this review is to explore the potential and advantages of using  
88 pairs of mycorrhiza-defective mutants (as non-mycorrhizal controls) and  
89 corresponding wild-type genotypes to study the role of mycorrhiza in various aspects  
90 of plant and soil ecology, with the aim to stimulate more work using such genotype  
91 pairs. In this context, various alternative methods for establishing non-mycorrhizal  
92 controls are summarised, before describing different non-legume plant species that  
93 have mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes characterised and the nature of the

94 research they are used for. Emphasis is placed on non-legume mycorrhiza-defective  
95 mutants as legume mycorrhiza-defective mutants have been reviewed in detail  
96 previously (see Barker et al. 2002; Marsh and Schultze 2001; Paszkowski 2006). The  
97 review concludes with a brief discussion of research activities that could benefit from  
98 the use of mycorrhiza-defective mutant and wild-type pairs of non-legumes.

99

100 Non-mycorrhizal treatments in physiological and ecological studies

101 Most information on the functioning of mycorrhiza has come from studies in which  
102 plants colonised by AM fungi are compared to those that are not colonised by AM  
103 fungi (Rillig et al. 2008; Smith and Smith 1981b). However, there is no universally  
104 accepted method for establishing treatments in which AM fungi are absent but the  
105 remainder of the soil biota are present. This is especially challenging under field  
106 conditions, where the elimination of a single group of soil biota is extremely difficult  
107 (Carey et al. 1992; West et al. 1993). The various techniques used in an attempt to  
108 overcome this challenge do have limitations, but in many cases they are the only  
109 option available, and are therefore most appropriate.

110         The most widely used method for establishing non-mycorrhizal control  
111 treatments is that of modifying the soil via soil fumigation, disinfection or sterilisation  
112 to inactivate the AM fungal propagules (Endlweber and Scheu 2006; Koide and Li  
113 1989; Smith and Smith 1981a; Smith and Smith 1981b). While these methods  
114 effectively suppress viable AM fungi, they also adversely affect or eliminate other  
115 members of the soil biota. Consequently, such soil manipulation approaches introduce  
116 non-target effects into experiments, which may be potentially confounding (Koide  
117 and Li 1989; Rillig 2004a) and should be taken into account when interpreting results.

118 Using a mutant approach to control AM development, by comparing a  
119 mycorrhiza-defective mutant plant genotype to its mycorrhizal wild-type counterpart,  
120 avoids the need to sterilise or disinfect soil, or compare different plant species (Rillig  
121 et al. 2008). A number of mycorrhiza-defective mutant and wild-type genotype pairs  
122 have been described, both in legume and non-legume plant species (see Table 1). The  
123 present review focuses on non-legume mycorrhiza-defective mutants since the use of  
124 legume mutants to compare interactions in mycorrhizal and rhizobial symbioses has  
125 been amply reviewed previously (see Barker et al. 2002; Marsh and Schultze 2001;  
126 Paszkowski 2006; Shtark et al. 2010; Stacey et al. 2006).

127

#### 128 Generation and screening of mycorrhiza-defective mutants

129 Mycorrhiza-defective mutants can be generated in a number of ways, including *via*  
130 fast neutron bombardment (Li et al. 2001) and ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS)  
131 generally used to generate mutant plant genotypes (Engvild 1987; Froese-Gertzen et  
132 al. 1963; Koornneeff et al. 1982). Whatever the method used, M2 generation mutants  
133 are screened in the mutagenised populations for non-mycorrhizal phenotypes by  
134 growing the entire population of plants in soil containing AM fungal inoculum,  
135 together with the wild-type genotype, in order to compare their AM colonisation  
136 phenotype. Potential mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes are assessed at the M3  
137 generation and later (up to M9 in David-Schwartz et al. (2001) to ensure that a stable  
138 non-mycorrhizal phenotype persists. Paszkowski et al. (2006) screened for  
139 mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes in maize (*Zea mays*) in a novel manner.  
140 Maize roots that are colonised by AM fungi accumulate yellow pigment, which can be  
141 detected macroscopically (Klingner et al. 1995). Potential mycorrhiza-defective  
142 mutant genotypes from a Mutator-mutagenised population of maize were grown in

143 soil inoculated with *G. mosseae*. Plants with roots that displayed altered intensity or  
144 distribution of yellow pigmentation relative to the wild-type genotype, underwent  
145 further microscopic visual screening, ultimately revealing several non-mycorrhizal  
146 mutant maize plants.

147 The fast neutron bombardment method is a classical reverse genetics  
148 technique (Li et al. 2001). In consequence, the gene sequence(s) controlling  
149 mycorrhizal colonisation is not known until further research is undertaken. Both map-  
150 based sequencing and transcriptomic analyses have been used to identify gene  
151 sequences that had been disrupted using this approach in mycorrhiza-defective plant  
152 mutants (see below). Creation of fast neutron mutagenised seed libraries, and their  
153 subsequent screening for desired phenotypes, is a labour-intensive, albeit effective,  
154 method for generating and identifying mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes.

155 There are a number of desirable phenotypes that need to be considered when  
156 identifying potential mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes, and suitable criteria  
157 have been summarised by Rillig et al. (2008) as follows: (1) a non-mycorrhizal  
158 genotype should not, while the mycorrhizal genotype should, be colonised by AM  
159 fungi in the presence of a full suite of soil biota, and (2) the mutant and wild-type  
160 genotype pair should have matched growth properties, and similar soil microbial  
161 communities, when grown in a soil where AM fungi are absent. With these criteria in  
162 mind, currently reported legume mutant genotypes are first briefly listed (see Marsh  
163 and Schultze (2001) for details), and non-legume mutant genotypes are reviewed in  
164 more detail, including their method of mutagenesis, colonisation phenotype (where  
165 relevant), and use in research.

166

167 Currently described mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes



168 A number of mycorrhiza-defective mutant and wild-type genotype pairs, in both  
169 legume and non-legume species are available, although many more have been  
170 characterised in legumes. In legumes, mycorrhiza-defective mutants obtained using  
171 different mutagenic approaches have been identified in several plant species including  
172 pea (*Pisum sativum*) and fababean (*Vicia faba*) (Duc et al. 1989), lucerne (*M. sativa*)  
173 (Bradbury et al. 1991), barrel medic (*Medicago truncatula*) (Sagan et al. 1995), bean  
174 (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) (Shirtliffe and Vessey 1996), and *Lotus japonicus* (Senoo et al.  
175 2000), but these are not the focus of this review. In terms of non-legume species, there  
176 are currently reports of mycorrhiza-defective mutant and wild-type genotype pairs in  
177 tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) (Barker et al. 1998; David-Schwartz et al. 2001;  
178 David-Schwartz et al. 2003, Kapulnik and Bonfante, unpublished), maize  
179 (Paszkowski et al. 2006), rice (*Oryza sativa*) and petunia (*Petunia hybrid*) (Chen et al.  
180 2007; Chen et al. 2008; Gutjahr et al. 2008; Reddy et al. 2007) (see Table 1).

181

182 Loss-of-function mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes

183 In addition to the identification and characterisation of mutant genotypes that cannot  
184 be colonised by AM fungi, mutants that are defective in an aspect of mycorrhizal  
185 functioning have also been characterised. A mutant in *Medicago truncatula* that is  
186 defective in the gene encoding for the mycorrhiza-induced phosphate transporter,  
187 *MtPT4*, and affected in colonisation by AM fungi (Javot et al. 2007), has been used in  
188 a number of studies (Grønlund et al. 2013; Javot et al. 2011, Watts-Williams et al.,  
189 unpublished). In rice (*Oryza sativa*) and Chinese milk vetch (*Astragalus sinicus*),  
190 similar mutants have been characterised for the genes *OsPT11* and *AsPT4*,  
191 respectively, orthologues of *MtPT4* (Xie et al. 2013; Yang et al. 2012). Isotope tracer  
192 studies, used in conjunction with the *MtPT4* and *OsPT11* mutants, confirmed that the

193 mycorrhizal pathway of P uptake had been successfully shut down (Yang et al. 2012,  
194 Watts-Williams et al., unpublished). Future work using these mutants, and work on  
195 developing other loss-of-function mutants in mycorrhiza-induced nutrient transporter  
196 genes (including nitrate and ammonium transporters) will contribute considerably to  
197 the understanding of plant-AM fungus nutrient relations.

198

199 Mycorrhiza-defective tomato mutants

200 *76R* and *rmc*

201 The mycorrhiza-defective tomato mutant *rmc* (*reduced mycorrhizal colonisation*) was  
202 first identified and described by Barker et al. (1998), and it has since been used  
203 widely by researchers, alongside its wild-type progenitor 76R, in a number of field  
204 and glasshouse studies covering many aspects of soil and plant ecology. Field studies  
205 have been undertaken on sites in Australia and the United States, and glasshouse  
206 studies have used a range of AM fungal species and soils containing native AM  
207 fungal communities (from Europe, Australia and the United States).

208         The degree to which the 76R and *rmc* genotypes are colonised, and the  
209 colonisation phenotypes they express, is highly influenced by fungal identity (Gao et  
210 al. 2001). Consequently, a number of different colonisation phenotypes have been  
211 described (see Gao et al. 2001 for photos of colonisation phenotypes). Before  
212 discussing these phenotypes, it is important to note that there has recently been a  
213 major revision of the nomenclature of AM fungi (Krüger et al. 2012; Redecker et al.  
214 2013). In this review, for the sake of clarity, the names of the AM fungi are used as in  
215 the original publications; however, the revised species names are also provided, for  
216 ease of comparison with future work.

217 Several species of AM fungi that colonise the wild-type 76R genotype  
218 normally are unable to colonise the *rmc* genotype, giving the Pen<sup>-</sup> phenotype:  
219 *Rhizophagus irregularis* (formerly known as *Glomus intraradices* Schenck and Smith  
220 [DAOM 181602]), *G. fasciculatum* [Thaxter] Gerd. & Trappe emend. Walker &  
221 Koske [LPA7], and *G. etunicatum* Becker and Gerdemann [UT316 A-2]) (Gao et al.  
222 2001; Manjarrez et al. 2008). The *rmc* genotype displays the Coi<sup>-</sup> phenotype with  
223 other species of AM fungi which can penetrate the root epidermal cells but cannot  
224 colonise cortical cells (*Scutellospora calospora* [Nicolson & Gerdemann] Walker &  
225 Sanders [WUM 12(2)], *Gigaspora margarita* Becker and Hall, *G. coronatum*  
226 Giovannetti [WUM16], formerly known as *G.* ‘City Beach’, and *G. mosseae*  
227 [Nicholson & Gerdemann] Gerdemann and Trappe [NBR4-1]) (Gao et al. 2001;  
228 Manjarrez et al. 2008). For *S. calospora*, the AM fungal symbiosis can be functional  
229 (in terms of C transfer from plant to fungi) but colonisation is of an intermediate  
230 morphology, and is restricted to root epidermal cells (Gao et al. 2001; Manjarrez et al.  
231 2010; Manjarrez et al. 2008; Poulsen et al. 2005). Interestingly, for  
232 *G. intraradices* Schenck and Smith WFVAM23 (referred to  
233 as *G. versiforme* [Karsten] Berch in (Gao et al. 2001), see (Gao et al. 2006)), full,  
234 functional mycorrhizal development (Myc<sup>+</sup>) has been shown to occur in *rmc* roots,  
235 although the rate of colonisation is much slower than in 76R roots (Gao et al. 2001;  
236 Manjarrez et al. 2008; Poulsen et al. 2005).

237 Recently, a meta-analysis was conducted on 22 published studies that have  
238 compared the 76R and *rmc* genotype pair in terms of growth and tissue nutrient  
239 concentrations (Watts-Williams and Cavagnaro 2014). Tissue P concentrations were  
240 generally higher (often significantly so) in the 76R genotype than the *rmc* genotype,  
241 in both root and shoot tissue, in soils with low and high P concentrations. A similar

242 trend was recorded for tissue copper and sulphur concentrations, with concentrations  
243 in the 76R plants higher than that in *rmc* plants. Furthermore, the meta-analysis  
244 confirmed that the colonisation phenotype displayed by the AM fungi had a  
245 significant influence on the extent to which roots were colonised. The results of the  
246 meta-analysis also highlighted that there was no substantial mycorrhizal growth  
247 response in either of the two tomato genotypes. It is important to note that, with  
248 respect to the criteria for assessing suitable mycorrhiza-defective mutant and wild-  
249 type pairs by Rillig et al. (2008), the 76R/*rmc* pair are matched in terms of growth in  
250 the absence of AM fungi in all studies (Cavagnaro et al. 2004a; Facelli et al. 2010;  
251 Poulsen et al. 2005) except one (Marschner and Timonen 2005).

252         The precise genome location of the *Rmc* locus has been identified and found to  
253 include a close match to the *CYCLOPS/IPD3* gene (Larkan et al. 2013). This gene is  
254 essential for intracellular regulation of both rhizobial and mycorrhizal symbioses in  
255 legumes (Larkan et al. 2013). So far, nearly all cloned legume genes required for  
256 nodulation and AM colonisation have their putative orthologs in non-legume plants  
257 (Zhu et al. 2006). This is because the two symbioses share some signalling pathways  
258 (Zhu et al. 2006), suggesting that the more recent symbiosis between nodulating  
259 bacteria and plants may have evolved from the ancient symbiosis between AM fungi  
260 and plants (Doyle 1998; Parniske 2008; Wang et al. 2010). Further identification of  
261 the gene sequences associated with the *Rmc* locus will be useful information for past  
262 and future work using the *rmc* mutant (Larkan et al. 2013).

263         The 76R and *rmc* genotypes continue to be valuable for numerous studies  
264 focusing on different aspects of plant nutrition (Cavagnaro et al. 2010; Cavagnaro et  
265 al. 2007b; Poulsen et al. 2005; Watts-Williams and Cavagnaro 2012; Watts-Williams  
266 et al. 2013; Watts-Williams et al. 2015; Watts-Williams et al. 2014), plant

267 competition (Cavagnaro et al. 2004a; Facelli et al. 2010; Neumann and George 2005),  
268 mycorrhizal formation and colonisation phenotypes (Cavagnaro et al. 2004b; Gao et  
269 al. 2001; Manjarrez et al. 2010; Manjarrez et al. 2008; Manjarrez et al. 2009), soil  
270 ecology (Cavagnaro et al. 2012; Cavagnaro et al. 2007a; Cavagnaro et al. 2006;  
271 Hallett et al. 2009; Marschner and Timonen 2005), soil greenhouse gas emissions  
272 (Cavagnaro et al. 2012; Cavagnaro et al. 2008; Lazcano et al. 2014), and plant  
273 genetics (Barker et al. 2005; Gao et al. 2006; Larkan et al. 2007; Ruzicka et al. 2013;  
274 Ruzicka et al. 2012).

#### 275 *Micro-Tom mutants*

276 Micro-Tom, which is a model tomato genotype that has been used extensively in  
277 genetic studies because of its small size and rapid life cycle (Carvalho et al. 2011;  
278 Meissner et al. 1997), has also been used to create three mycorrhiza-defective mutant  
279 genotypes (David-Schwartz et al. 2001; David-Schwartz et al. 2003). The mutants  
280 M20 and M161 were obtained by fast-neutron bombardment mutagenesis, whilst the  
281 BC1 mutant is an F2 segregant of the cross between wild-type and M161 genotypes.  
282 All mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes of the Micro-Tom variety are pre-  
283 mycorrhizal infection (*pmi*) mutants. Specifically, the M161 mutant displayed the  
284 *Myc*<sup>-</sup> phenotype, and was unable to form mycorrhiza when grown in soil inoculated  
285 with *G. intraradices* spores (David-Schwartz et al. 2001). However, a low level of  
286 AM colonisation (vesicular and arbuscular) occurred when ‘whole’ inoculum (spores,  
287 root segments, external hyphae) was applied to the soil, or when M161 was grown in  
288 a field soil (Rillig et al. 2008). When the M161 mutant was grown in the presence of  
289 its AM-colonised wild-type progenitor, arbuscules, vesicles and internal hyphae  
290 developed in roots at a rate similar to that of the wild-type. Similarly, the M20 mutant  
291 displayed the *Myc*<sup>-</sup> colonisation phenotype, and was able to resist AM fungal

292 colonisation in the presence of spores or (dead) pieces of mycorrhizal root, but was  
293 not resistant to colonisation in the presence of a live mycorrhizal wild-type progenitor  
294 plant (David-Schwartz et al. 2003). A third Micro-Tom mutant (BC1) has been  
295 identified, which is highly resistant to AM fungal colonisation when grown in field  
296 soil (1.2% root length colonised) (Rillig et al. 2008). However, this genotype has not  
297 yet been tested for resistance to AM fungal colonisation when grown in the presence  
298 of the mycorrhizal wild-type plant.

299         That mycorrhiza-defective Micro-Tom mutants can be colonised when grown  
300 in the presence of the wild-type plant needs to be taken into consideration when using  
301 these mutant genotypes. In contrast to Micro-Tom mutant genotypes, the *rmc* mutant  
302 genotype cannot be colonised in the presence of its wild-type progenitor or other  
303 nurse plants (Cavagnaro et al. 2004a). Rillig et al (2008) tested the Micro-Tom mutant  
304 genotypes for the selection criteria (see above) for mycorrhiza-defective mutant  
305 plants. They found that only the BC1 mutant met all the prescribed criteria while the  
306 other two mutants did not, for the following reasons: the M161 plants had a larger  
307 root biomass than wild-type when both were grown in the absence of AM fungi, and  
308 M20 gave rise to more soil microbial biomass than the wild-type. The Micro-Tom  
309 mutant M161 has so far been used in two published studies comparing mycorrhizal  
310 and non-mycorrhizal plants for root exudates involved in signal exchange between  
311 host plants and AM fungi (Gadkar et al. 2003; Sun et al. 2012). These mycorrhiza-  
312 defective mutant and wild-type Micro-Tom pairs could be of considerable utility in  
313 the study of mycorrhizal functioning.

314

315 Other non-legume mutants

316 In maize, Mutator-mutagenised F2 families of the normal line W64A were screened  
317 by Paszkowski et al. (2006) for alteration in yellow root pigmentation compared to  
318 wild-type roots (see above for detail on screening). From this screen, the authors  
319 described seven mycorrhiza-defective mutants in maize and categorised them into  
320 three colonisation phenotype classes: *nop1* (***no perception I***) mutants, which showed  
321 a marked reduction in intraradical colonisation by *G. mosseae*, but displayed  
322 occasional root sectors containing normal mycorrhizal structures (appressoria and  
323 arbuscules), *tac1* (***taciturn I***) mutants, which had lower colonisation levels than the  
324 wild-type genotype (45% compared to 86% root length colonised) and slightly  
325 modified fungal structures, and *Pram1* (***Precocious arbuscular mycorrhiza I***)  
326 mutants, which are in fact colonised more rapidly and intensely than the wild-type,  
327 becoming saturated with intraradical fungal structures (arbuscules and vesicles) much  
328 earlier. These maize mutants represent the first mycorrhiza-defective mutant plants to  
329 be characterised in an agronomically important cereal crop. Future research using  
330 these mutants will be very useful for research into nutrient uptake in cereal crops,  
331 especially in field trials. However, to our knowledge, no such studies have yet been  
332 reported in the literature.

333 Reddy et al. (2007) used a transposon-mutagenised population of petunia  
334 (W138, Gerats et al. 1990) in order to identify and characterise a mycorrhiza-  
335 defective genotype in this line. The resulting mycorrhiza-defective petunia genotype,  
336 *pam1* (***penetration and arbuscule morphogenesis I***), displayed a strong decrease in  
337 AM fungal colonisation compared to its wild-type progenitor. *G. intraradices* formed  
338 complex appressoria on *pam1* roots but could not easily penetrate the epidermal cells.  
339 Where the fungus did penetrate epidermal cells, the resulting hyphae were distorted  
340 compared to those in the wild-type roots, and did not progress further except in the

341 rare instance where hyphae produced lateral branches between cells and small lateral  
342 appendages. In addition, two stabilised *pam1* mutant lines (*pam1S1* and *pam1S2*)  
343 were isolated and characterised. The two stabilised mutant lines displayed reduced  
344 extra- and intra-radical AM fungal colonisation compared to *pam1*, and thus the  
345 *pam1S1* line was used for subsequent experiments (Reddy et al. (2007). As with the  
346 Micro-Tom mutants, the *pam1S1* mutant could be colonised by AM fungi when  
347 grown in the presence of a nurse plant. However, intraradical colonisation lacked  
348 arbuscule formation, and there was no contribution to the plant's shoot P or Cu  
349 nutrition as a result of root colonisation.

350 In rice, a large number of mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes were  
351 characterised by Gutjahr et al. (2008), who were interested in identifying rice lines  
352 that were defective in one of a number of signalling steps in the common SYM  
353 pathway both upstream and downstream of  $Ca^{2+}$  spiking (see Parniske (2008) for  
354 recent review). The authors searched for relevant insertion lines in both T-DNA and  
355 Tos17 databases and found one insertion in CASTOR, three in POLLUX, two in  
356 CCMAK, and three in CYCLOPS (IPD3, see Table 1). The nine *sym* mutants were  
357 then grown in soil inoculated with spores of *G. intraradices* and assessed for  
358 colonisation phenotype. Root colonisation in all the mutants was restricted to hyphal  
359 colonisation in the epidermal cells, with no cortical colonisation and thus no  
360 arbuscules or vesicles forming in any of the mutants.

361 A gene required for mycorrhizal colonisation in rice, *OsDMI3* (*does not make*  
362 *infections 3*), has been identified. Chen et al. (2007) searched a rice Tos17 mutant  
363 database for *OsDMI3* insertion lines, identifying two, but ultimately using just one  
364 (NF8513) for subsequent experiments. When grown in soil inoculated with *G.*  
365 *intraradices*, the *OsDMI3* mutant roots showed occasional penetration of the cortical



366 cells, without any arbuscule formation. However, most observed fungal growth  
367 (appressoria and external hyphae) was restricted to the root surface.

368 Similarly, Chen et al. (2008) characterised three knockout mutants defective in  
369 AM fungal colonisation (NC0263, NC2713, NC2794), by searching for putative  
370 *Tos17* insertion lines available for *OsIPD3*, another gene required for mycorrhiza  
371 formation in rice. When inoculated with *G. intraradices*, the root epidermal cells of  
372 the three *OsIPD3* mutants could not be penetrated, and there was no intraradical  
373 colonisation of the roots by the AM fungi (i.e., no hyphae, arbuscules or vesicles)  
374 except in one root segment of a NC2713 mutant, that displayed aborted intracellular  
375 fungal hyphae. There is no explanation given for this observation in NC2713, but it is  
376 assumed that the observed aborted hyphae did not confer functionality of the  
377 symbiosis. Chen et al. (2008) noted that the colonisation phenotype displayed by the  
378 *OsIPD3* mutants was comparable to that of the previously identified *OsDMI3* mutant  
379 genotype (Chen et al. 2007).

380

381 Future directions

382 Mycorrhiza-defective plant mutant genotypes have the potential to be used in a broad  
383 range of studies. Future uses of both legume and non-legume mutant genotypes may  
384 be extended to areas of study where mycorrhiza have previously been shown to  
385 improve plant or soil health but hypotheses have not yet been tested using a  
386 mycorrhiza-defective mutant, such as soil nutrient cycling (Jeffries and Barea 1994;  
387 Read and Perez-Moreno 2003) and interactions with foliar-feeding insects (Gange and  
388 West 1994; Gehring and Whitham 1994; Wamberg et al. 2003) and foliar pathogens  
389 (Campos-Soriano et al. 2012; Nair et al. 2015; West 1997). Research that directly  
390 compares plant nutrient uptake via the direct (i.e., *via* root epidermal cells) and

391 mycorrhizal pathways could utilise appropriate mycorrhiza-defective mutant and  
392 wild-type genotype pairs (Poulsen et al. 2005), in conjunction with the use of stable  
393 or radioactive isotopes (Merrild et al. 2013; Watts-Williams et al. 2015). It would also  
394 be useful for future studies using mycorrhiza-defective mutant and wild-type pairs to  
395 continue to integrate molecular biology methods (e.g., quantification of gene  
396 expression) with more commonly reported physiological variables (e.g., plant nutrient  
397 concentration).

398         The intention of this review was to explore the potential to use mycorrhiza-  
399 defective mutant genotypes to study the formation and functioning of mycorrhizas in  
400 non-legumes. This approach has both strengths and limitations. Nevertheless, such  
401 mutant and wild-type genotype pairs are proving to be useful tools in the study of  
402 arbuscular mycorrhiza, and it is hoped that this review will stimulate and inform  
403 further research using this approach.

404

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Table 1. List of non-legume mycorrhiza-defective mutant genotypes and their properties. 'Stage affected' category follows the steps in AM symbiosis proposed by Delaux et al. (2013).

| <b>Mutant</b>                                  | <b>Plant species</b>   | <b>Stage affected</b>                    | <b>Method of mutagenesis</b>          | <b>Reference</b>  |
|--|--|--|---------------------------------------|---|
| <i>rmc</i>                                     | Tomato ( <i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> L. cv 76R)                  | Dependent on AM fungal isolate, see text | Fast neutron mutagenesis              | Barker et al. (1998)  |
| <i>M161</i>                                    | Tomato ( <i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> L. cv. Micro-Tom)           | Pre-symbiotic                            | Fast neutron mutagenesis              | David-Schwartz et al. (2001)                                      |
| <i>M20</i>                                     | Tomato ( <i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> L. cv. Micro-Tom)           | Pre-symbiotic                            | Fast neutron mutagenesis              | David-Schwartz et al. (2003)                                      |
| <i>BC1</i>                                     | Tomato ( <i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> L. cv. Micro-Tom)           | Pre-symbiotic                            | F2 segregate of wild-type and M161    | Kapulnik and Bonfante (unpublished) cited in Rillig et al. (2008) |
| <i>nopel</i>                                   | Maize ( <i>Zea mays</i> ) W64A                                   | Pre-symbiotic                            | Transposon mutagenesis (Mutator)      | Paszkowski et al. (2006)  |
| <i>taci1</i>                                   | Maize ( <i>Zea mays</i> ) W64A                                   | Intraradical colonisation                | Transposon mutagenesis (Mutator)      | “”  |
| <i>Pram1</i>                                   | Maize ( <i>Zea mays</i> ) W64A                                   | Intraradical colonisation (enhanced)     | Transposon mutagenesis (Mutator)      | “”  |
| <i>pam1, pam1S1, pam1S2</i>                    | Petunia ( <i>Petunia hybrida</i> ) W138                          | Intraradical colonisation                | Transposon mutagenesis                | Reddy et al. (2007)   |
| <i>OsDMI3</i> (NF8513)                         | Rice ( <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. cv. Nipponbare)                    | Pre-symbiotic                            | Retrotransposon Tos17 insertion line  | Chen et al. (2007)  |
| <i>OsIPD3</i> (NC0263, NC2713, NC2794)         | Rice ( <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. cv. Nipponbare)                    | Pre-symbiotic                            | Retrotransposon Tos17 insertion lines | Chen et al. (2008)  |
| <i>CASTOR</i> (1B-08643)                       | Rice ( <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. ssp. <i>japonica</i> cv. Dongjin)  | Pre-symbiotic                            | T-DNA insertion                       | Gutjahr et al. (2008)   |
| <i>POLLUX</i> (1C-03411)                       | Rice ( <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. ssp. <i>japonica</i> cv. Hwayoung) | Pre-symbiotic                            | T-DNA insertion                       | “”  |
| <i>POLLUX</i> (NC6423, ND5050)                 | Rice ( <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. cv. Nipponbare)                    | Pre-symbiotic                            | Retrotransposon Tos17 insertion lines | “”  |
| <i>CCAMK</i> (NE1115, NF8513)                  | Rice ( <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. cv. Nipponbare)                    | Pre-symbiotic                            | Retrotransposon Tos17 insertion lines | “”  |
| <i>CYCLOPS</i> (IPD3) (NG0782, NC2415, NC2713) | Rice ( <i>Oryza sativa</i> L. cv. Nipponbare)                    | Pre-symbiotic                            | Retrotransposon Tos17 insertion lines | “”  |



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