

Cross-interference of plant development and plant–microbe interactions

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Plant roots are host to a multitude of filamentous microorganisms. Among these, arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi provide benefits to plants, while pathogens trigger diseases resulting in significant crop yield losses. It is therefore imperative to study processes which allow plants to discriminate detrimental and beneficial interactions in order to protect crops from diseases while retaining the ability for sustainable bio-fertilisation strategies. Accumulating evidence suggests that some symbiosis processes also affect plant–pathogen interactions. A large part of this overlap likely constitutes plant developmental processes. Moreover, microbes utilise effector proteins to interfere with plant development. Here we list relevant recent findings on how plant–microbe interactions intersect with plant development and highlight future research leads.

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Introduction

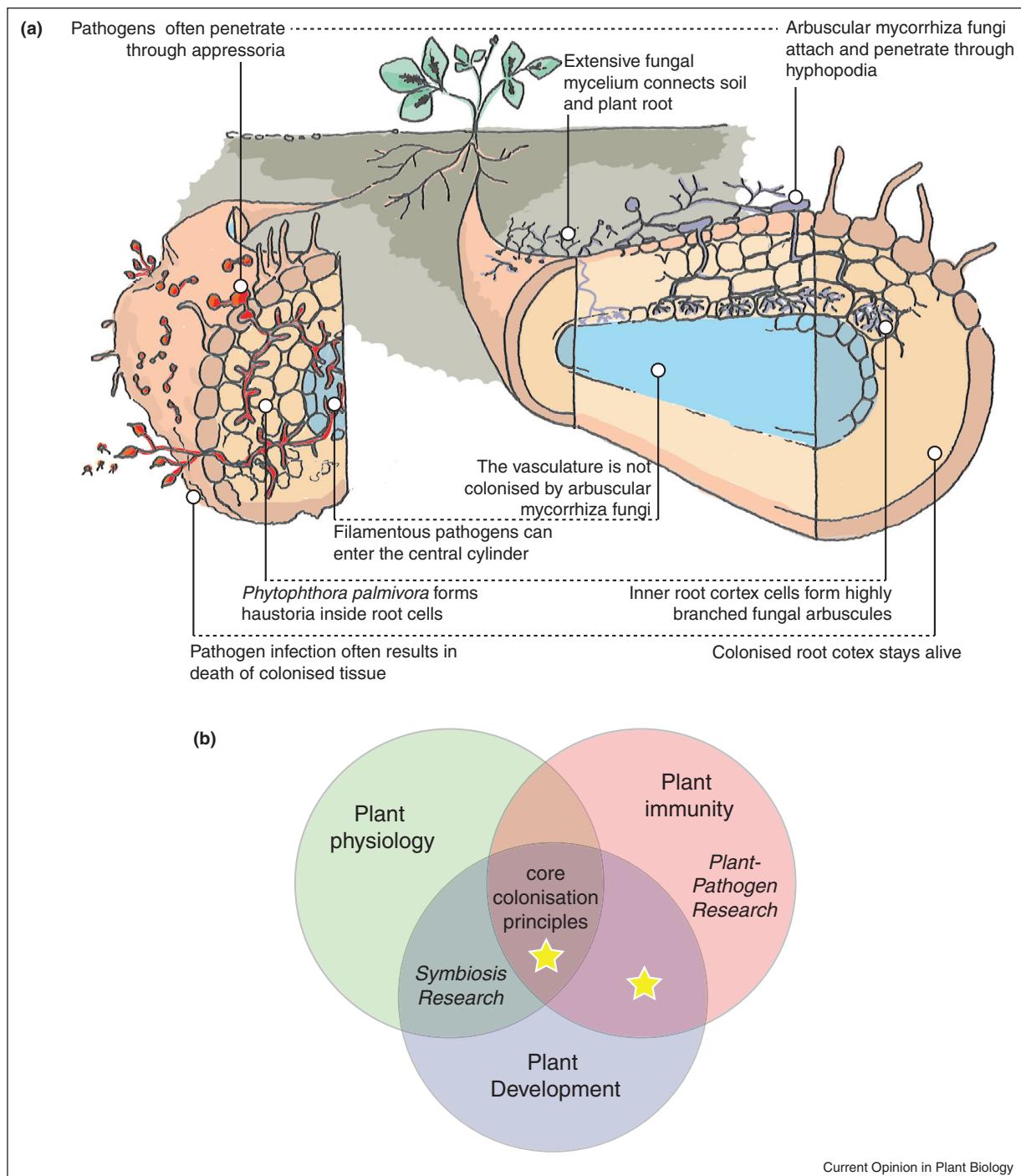
Plants' success in conquering land can in part be attributed to their ability to team up with filamentous micro-organisms. The oldest land plant fossils from the Rhynie chert give evidence of fungal structures inside plant cells [1] and more than 70% of all existing higher plants are colonised by arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi [2]. The fungal partner provides mineral nutrients such as phosphorus. Conversely, plants provide carbohydrates generated through photosynthesis. Plant carbohydrates are also attractive to root-infecting filamentous pathogens such as fungi and oomycetes. Pathogenic oomycetes such as *Phytophthora palmivora* and beneficial fungi represent extreme opposites but nevertheless share common root colonisation principles (Figure 1a) and therefore provide

means to identify more general plant processes required for both, pathogenic and beneficial interactions [8]. Traditionally, plant–pathogen research has focussed on immune suppression strategies while symbiosis research revealed a strong contribution of cellular and developmental processes for microbial colonisation, especially through studies of interactions between nitrogen-fixing bacteria and legume roots leading to the development of dedicated organs, the root nodules [3]. More recently, the contribution of developmental processes intersecting with plant–pathogen interactions gained growing interest in order to elucidate core colonisation principles (Figure 1b). Changes in root development are visible through reprogramming of colonised plant tissues resulting in significant morphological and structural alterations and the formation of specific cellular interfaces for nutrient exchange, collectively termed symbiosomes [4•] (Box 1). Here we specifically highlight plant components that support a cross-interference of development and plant–microbe interactions and also discuss recent findings that microbial effector proteins can modulate plant development processes.

Plant–microbe interactions intersect with plant development

Alterations of plant development by filamentous micro-organism can often result in striking phenotypes and altered plant physiology. Examples are the induction of lateral roots by *Aphanomyces euteiches* [5] and AM fungi [6], or the vascularisation of companion cells in *Verticillium longisporum*-infected *Arabidopsis thaliana* [7]. Mutants allow us to pinpoint processes with common effects on beneficial and detrimental interactions. Table 1 lists mutants, which have been characterised initially by their symbiosis phenotypes and subsequently found to have developmental phenotypes. Knowledge on how these mutants affect interactions with pathogens is still limited but testing them using suitable root pathogens is likely to reveal some common processes [8]. Unsurprisingly, the mutated genes are quite often involved in hormone signalling and thus have been also hit in screens for developmental alterations. Examples include *Medicago truncatula* sickle, *CRE1* and *DELLAs*. *SICKLE* encodes an *Arabidopsis* EIN2 orthologue, an essential component of ethylene signalling. The sickle plants display triple response phenotypes affecting both above-ground and below-ground plant organs and are highly susceptible to the filamentous necrotrophs *Rhizoctonia solani* and *Phytophthora medicaginis* but conversely form numerous nodules and are hyper-colonised by AM fungi [9]. The

Figure 1



Commonalities and contrasts of pathogenic and symbiotic microbe interactions with plant roots. **(a)** Structural similarities and differences in *Medicago truncatula* root colonisation between a filamentous oomycete pathogen (left) and arbuscular mycorrhiza fungi (right). **(b)** Growing research interest (indicated by stars) focusses on core colonisation principles requiring the integrated study of plant physiology, plant immunity and plant development and of developmental aspects of plant-microbe interactions, a traditional topic of symbiosis research.

cytokinin receptor *MtCRE1* promotes invasion by both pathogenic and symbiotic bacteria [10,11] but its importance for filamentous microbes has not been assessed yet. The use of *della* mutants recently enabled identification

of gibberellic acid (GA3) as a repressor of accommodation structure formation in *M. truncatula* and *Pisum sativum* [12^{**},13^{*}]. Strikingly, a dominant negative DELLA protein rescues *cyclops*, a common symbiosis pathway

Box 1 Symbiosomes, different or all the same?

Symbiosomes are specialised intracellular interfaces formed by filamentous microorganisms inside plant cells [4*]. Their core structure is a plant cell wall-piercing microbial hypha engulfed by the plant protoplast. Symbiosomes have been termed haustoria of fungi and oomycetes, invading hyphae of fungi such as *Colletotrichum* sp. and *Magnaporthe oryzae*, coils of *Piriformospora indica* and other fungi and arbuscules of AM fungi. Symbosome shape varies greatly and factors influencing it are not fully understood. Nevertheless, they are all assumed to have two main functions: nutrient transfer and microbial effector delivery. Extensive branching of symbiosomes is likely attributable to efficient nutrient and information exchange and often assigned to beneficial symbiosis. Whether fossil symbosome-like structures serve mutual nutrient exchange or are extensive one-way pathogenic haustoria will remain unresolved.

Plant and microbe are separated by a specialised membrane termed extrahaustorial membrane (EHM), periarbuscular membrane (PAM) or extrainvasive hyphae membrane (EIHM) depending on the microorganism. PAMs in rice and legumes harbour phosphate transporters which are absent from the remaining plasma membrane [51,52]. Conversely, EHMs of pathogenic fungi and oomycetes are lacking numerous transmembrane proteins including immune receptors. Notably, membrane adhering proteins are still present [53,54]. Differences in symbosome membrane protein composition [53] compared to the plasma membrane often are attributed to presence of a sealing neckband structure, found in many obligate biotrophs. Absence of a neckband at the PAM and EHMs of *Phytophthora* species highlights the need for further research into membrane protein separation mechanisms. Mechanisms resulting in formation and decoration of symbosome membranes largely remain elusive. Exclusive PAM integration of the MtPt4 phosphate transporter has been attributed to repolarisation of secretion timed with MtPt4 promoter activation during arbuscule formation [55]. Another open question is the point of new membrane material deployment. The neck, the oldest part of a symbosome, shows accumulation of plant endomembrane compartments and callose deposition. However, candidate vesicle-fusion sites can be traced all over haustoria and the fine branches of arbuscules [53,56]. Future work using photo-convertible fluorescent probes will shed light on temporal and spatial changes in symbosome membrane processes.

mutant thus bypassing symbiosis signalling and supporting the hypothesis of GA signalling repression by this pathway. Notably, DELLA proteins are also known to bind JAZ proteins [14], repressors of the jasmonate pathway. Hence contribution of jasmonate-related defence responses depending on GA and dominant negative DELLA proteins might provide further clues about the role of hormonal balance in regulation of mycorrhizal symbiosis. Since hormonal pathways link development to immunity, it remains to be untangled whether specific microbes interfere with them to suppress immunity or to alter development.

Plant-microbe interactions utilise similar chemical signatures

Chitin-derived microbial signals are triggers of plant symbiotic responses [15*]. Interestingly, similar but not identical chitin-derived signals are also perceived by peripheral plant immune receptors. Chitin-binding LysM domain-containing receptor-like kinases are key players

in both symbiosis and defence. Numerous activities ranging from immune suppression upon perception of symbiotic signatures in *Arabidopsis*, cell death induction upon ectopic expression in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves [16] and involvement in symbiotic [17] to pathogenic interaction with filamentous microbes [18**] have been assigned to them. The finding that a LysM receptor of the symbiosis-incapable *Arabidopsis* perceives symbiotic Nod-factors to suppress immunity [19] shows that specificity of signal integration from LysM receptors and their downstream targets are not fully resolved. It is therefore possible that chitin-derived signals of plant origin may also play a role in developmental processes.

Cutin is a structural component of above-ground organs. However, plant cutin monomers have been shown to be a crucial signal for infection structure formation by filamentous pathogens [20]. Recently this was extended to pathogenic oomycetes (*P. palmivora* and *A. euteiches*) and beneficial AM fungi [21*,22]. A mutant of *M. truncatula* RAM2, a glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase, failed to display appressorium formation by the filamentous plant pathogen *P. palmivora* as well as arbuscule development by beneficial AM fungi. The altered seed coat of *ram2* mutants points to its involvement in development [22].

Essential components of specific plant-microbe interactions gain additional roles

Studies of core symbiosis players, the receptor kinase SymRK and the Calcium and calmodulin dependent kinase CCaMK revealed their unexpected involvement in responses to pathogen and mechanical cues. SymRK is important for root hair resistance to mechanical stresses [23]. CCaMK was proposed to cope with stress triggered by penetration events of mycorrhizal fungus and the pathogenic fungus *Colletotrichum trifolii* [24]. CCaMK is presumed to be the main sensor of the nuclear calcium spiking triggered specifically by endosymbionts [25]. However, this protein is also a major regulator of bacterial communities associated with rice roots in natural environments [26] suggesting sources other than endosymbionts may be producers of CCaMK-read calcium signatures. A possible mechanism underlying fine-tuning of root microbiome by CCaMK is its role in abscisic acid (ABA) signalling and reactive oxygen species homeostasis recently demonstrated in rice leaves [27*]. Overexpression of wheat CCaMK in *Arabidopsis* resulted in plants which were less susceptible to ABA during germination and seedling growth [28]. Thus, CCaMK although initially implied only in symbiosis might have additional functions. This is supported by the presence of CCaMK/DMI3 in Charophyta, since AM fungal mycorrhiza has not been reported from these green algae [29].

Another link between microbial accommodation and development is provided by MLO proteins. MLO has been

Table 1

Examples of mutants impaired symbiosis and defects in development. Abbreviations: Aa, *Alternaria alternata*; Ae, *Aphanomyces euteiches*; API, altered primordia invasion; Bc, *Botrytis cinerea*; BTB/POZ, BR-C, ttk and bab/Pox virus and Zinc finger; CCaMK, calcium and calmodulin dependent kinase; ccd8, carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase; CEP1, C-terminus encoded peptide; CRE1, cytokinin receptor 1; Ct, *Colletotrichum trifolii*; EIN2, ethylene insensitive 2; Gm, *Glycine max*; GPAT, glycerol phosphate acyl transferase; HAR, hypernodulated abberant root; LATD, lateral deficiency; LCO, lipochitoooligosaccharide; Lj, *Lotus japonicus*; Lot1, low nodulation and trichome distortion; LRI, lateral root induction; LRR-RLK, leucine rich repeat receptor-like kinase; LysM-RLK, lysine motif RLK; Mt, *Medicago truncatula*; NAP1, Nck-Associated Protein1; NARK, Nodule Autoregulation Receptor Kinase; NFP, Nod factor perception; NSP, Nod signalling pathway; PIR1, 121F-specific p53 inducible RNA 1; Pm, *Phytophthora medicaginis*; Pp, *Phytophthora palmivora*; PRAF, PH, RCC1 and FYVE;Ps, *Pisum sativum*; RAM2, required for arbuscular mycorrhiza2; RDN1, root determined nodulation; RIT, required for infection thread; ROP9, Rho-related GTPases 9; Rs, *Ralstonia solanacearum*; R. solani, *Rhizoctonia solani*; Sl, *Solanum lycopersicum*; SUNN, super numeric nodule; SymRK, symbiotic receptor kinase; Va, *Verticillium albo-atrum*.

Gene/locus	Protein	Rhizobial symbiosis	Fungal symbiosis	Pathogen	Development	Refs
MtSUNN/LjHAR1/GmNARK	LRR-RLK Clavata	Repress	Repress	Susceptibility to Va	Root growth	[57–60]
MtCRE1	Cytokinin receptor	Nodulation	?	Susceptibility to Rs	Repression of LRI	[10,11,61]
MtRAM2	GPAT	Not involved	Promote	Susceptibility to Pp and Ae	Seed coat	[21*,22]
Mtsickle	EIN2	Repress	Repress	Susceptibility to Pm and R. solani, resistance to Va	Plant growth, root hairs	[9,60,62]
CCaMK	Kinase	Required	Required	Susceptibility to Ct	Repress ABA signalling, ROS homeostasis	[24,26,27*,28,63]
Slccd8	CCD	?	Promote	Resistance to Bc and Aa	Strigolactones synthesis	[64]
MtNFP	LysM-RLK	Required	LCO signalling, LRI	Resistance to Ae, Ct and Va	Not involved	[17,18**,59,65]
MtROP9 SymRK	Rac1 small G protein LRR-RLK	Infection Thread Required	Repress Required	Resistance to Ae ?	Root and root hairs Root hair touch response	[66] [23]
MtNSP1	GRAS transcription factor	Required	Promote	?	Strigolactones synthesis	[67,68]
MtNSP2	GRAS transcription factor	Required	Promote	?	Strigolactones synthesis	[68]
LjLot1	?	Infection Thread	Not involved	?	Trichome, pollen tube	[69]
OsD3	F-Box	?	Required	?	Strigolactone signalling	[70]
LjBRUSH	?	Temperature dependent	?	?	Defect depending on temperature	[71]
LjnsRING MtRDN1 LjKLAVIER	RING protein Unknown function LRR-RLK	Required Repress Repress	?	?	Shoot, root growth Root Meristem, vasculature, shoot growth and flowers	[72] [73] [74]
MtCEP1	Signalling peptides	Promote	?	?	Repression of LRI, inducer of cortical division	[75]
MtZR1 MtLATD	PRAF protein Nitrate transporter	Promote Infection Thread and nodulation	?	?	Root LRI, root hairs, ABA response, root meristem	[76] [77–79]

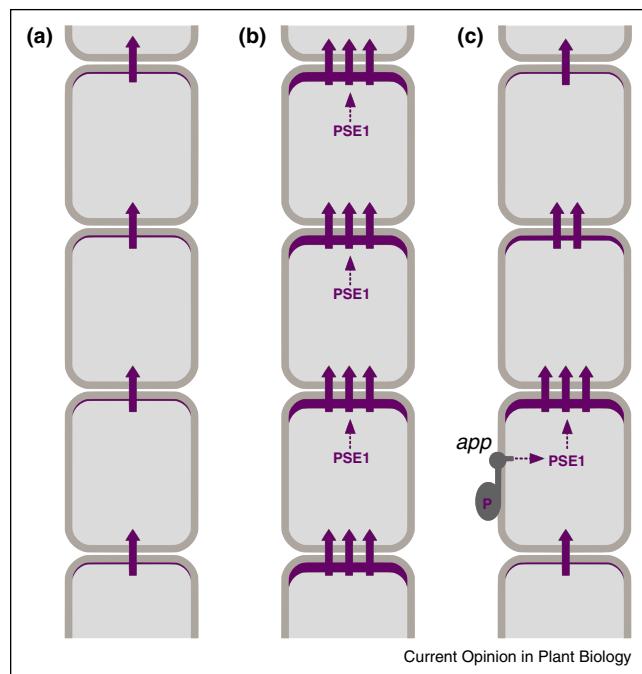
Gene/locus	Protein	Rhizobial symbiosis	Fungal symbiosis	Pathogen	Development	Refs
<i>LjNAP1/MtRIT</i>	SCAR/WAVE	Infection Thread	?	?	Pollen tube, trichome, seed coat	[80,81]
<i>LjPIR1</i>	SCAR/WAVE	Infection Thread	?	?	Pollen tube, trichome	[81]
<i>LjCRINKE</i>	?	Infection Thread	?	?	Pollen tubes, root hairs, trichome, pods	[82,83]
<i>MtAPI</i> <i>Ljsym74-3 Ljsym80</i> <i>Mtnoot7/PsCOCHLEATA</i>	?	?	?	?	Root hairs	[84]
	BTB/POZ-ankyrin domain	?	?	?	Root hairs	[85]
		?	?	?	Leaf and flower development	[86]

initially described as an essential component for barley colonisation by the biotrophic pathogen *Blumeria graminis* [30]. However, some mutants of MLO homologs are affected in AM fungus colonisation, display aberrant root development [31] and are crucial for pollen tube reception during fertilisation [32]. These examples support the general concept that similar functional principles and genetic elements can be employed in plant processes of development as well as plant–microbe interactions. It is thus exciting to explore the numerous development mutants available in symbiosis plant systems for their effects on beneficial or detrimental interactions.

Microbial effectors can alter plant development mechanisms

Filamentous plant microbes have evolved small secreted molecules termed effectors which interfere with host cell metabolism in order to support colonisation. Recent genome sequencing of the AM fungus *Rhizophagus irregularis* enabled identification of potential effectors. Homology-based and sequence-based searches uncovered Crinkler (CRN) effector-encoding genes [33••]. First identified in *Phytophthora infestans*, CRNs were soon recognised as an ancient family with predominant nuclear localisation [34] also present in fungi. Some pathogen CRNs trigger cell death when overexpressed as mature proteins in *N. benthamiana* [35] but the underlying functional mechanisms remain to be elucidated. It will be interesting to see whether CRNs of symbiotic AM fungi carry similar activities. Further recent work on effectors highlighting their importance for plant immune suppression and promotion of plant susceptibility [36–38] will not be discussed in detail here.

An increasing number of studies from non-filamentous pathogens reports effectors interfering with plant development and plant hormone physiology not directly related to defence [39,40]. Striking recent examples are insect-transmitted phytopathogenic *Phytoplasma* effectors that interfere with plant development [41]. SAP54 alters floral development, resulting in leaf-like flowers similar to those of *Phytoplasma*-infected plants [42••]. SAP11 binds and destabilises *Arabidopsis* TCP transcription factors which control plant development and promote the expression of jasmonate biosynthesis genes [43]. TENGU leads to dwarfism and witches' broom symptoms in *Arabidopsis*, while auxin-related genes are being downregulated [44]. Exciting data by Okazaki *et al.* show that the symbiotic bacterium *Bradyrhizobium elkanii* induces the symbiotic accommodation program in a type III secretion system dependent manner likely mediated by bacterial effectors [45••]. Finally, plant-parasitic nematodes interfere with auxin transport during root infection [46]. The beet cyst nematode *Heterodera schachtii* delivers the effector protein Hs19C07 which interacts with auxin influx carrier LAX3 to control feeding site development in *Arabidopsis* [47].

Figure 2

Model of *Phytophthora parasitica* PSE1 activity. (a) In wild-type plants auxin flux (thick arrows) is established through polar localisation of PIN auxin efflux carriers (blue crescents). (b) Overexpression of PSE1 in plant roots stabilises PINs in the membrane and interferes with their recycling, resulting in overall root growth and morphology changes. (c) In natural root infections PSE1 is expressed in *P. parasitica* appressoria (app) and injected in the first penetrated cell and only locally stabilises PINs resulting in a far less dramatic tissue-wide effect.

Knowledge on filamentous effectors interfering with tissue or organ development is now emerging too. The *Phytophthora parasitica* effector PSE1 interferes with auxin partitioning during root infection in *Arabidopsis*. Expression of PSE1 in plants resulted in root curling and aberrant root hair phenotypes. It is conceivable that PSE1 interferes with stability or endocytosis cycling of auxin efflux carriers [48^{••}] (Figure 2). Often, the most challenging part is to show that perturbations described through mutants also occur during microbial colonisation of wild-type plants as these effects can often be limited to a single cell. A recent study reports that the smut fungus *Ustilago maydis* utilises Tin2 to stabilise the maize kinase ZnTTK1 resulting in higher anthocyanin biosynthesis for the cost of lignin biosynthesis. This may lead to altered cell wall composition thereby affecting penetration and migration of the fungus as well as changes in vascular tissue characteristics [49[•]]. In summary, it is exciting to see that effectors provide a handle to pinpoint elements of plant development which might not be traceable using knock-out approaches; however, their significance needs to be scrutinised. Pharmacological approaches to modulate development can have effects in addition to the process of interest. In analogy, single

plant target studies cannot always explain the full phenotype caused by an effector. Thus, future effector multi-target research and awareness of technical limitations of effector studies are important.

Concluding remarks

While historically plant-pathogen research and symbiosis research did not have much common ground, both communities are merging into one. The growing demand for disease resistant crops which retain the ability for sustainable bio-fertilisation through use of symbiotic microbes demands research into possibilities to tweak interactions towards beneficial outcomes. One emerging feature is the modulation of plant development by microbial effectors. Unravelling plant target processes will provide inroads to establish genetic control of pathogens while keeping unwanted developmental defects in check.

Certainly, numerous questions remain to be answered. Symbiosomes (Box 1) are at the heart of symbiosis and therefore pose an interesting target to tweak interaction outcomes. Comparative approaches will reveal whether interaction-type specific symbosome membrane decorations exist and can be exploited to prevent formation of haustoria while maintaining beneficial arbuscules. Genome sequencing of *R. irregularis* gave access to predicted symbiotic effector inventories [33^{••},50^{••}]. Their comparison with pathogen effector sets and further sequencing will soon allow delineation of the ‘must have’ equipment for symbiosis. Effector gene repertoires of filamentous pathogen genomes are subject to frequent changes to escape perception by the plant immune system and to adapt to new host environments. It will be interesting to see whether effector repertoires of different *R. irregularis* isolates vary as much as in some filamentous pathogens.

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