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Review

Molecular dialogues between *Trichoderma* and roots: Role of the fungal secretome

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ABSTRACT

Trichoderma species are opportunistic fungi residing primarily in soil, tree bark and on wild mushrooms. Trichoderma is capable of killing other fungi and penetrating plant roots, and is commonly used as both a biofungicide and inducer of plant defence against pathogens. These fungi also exert other beneficial effects on plants including growth promotion and tolerance to abiotic stresses, primarily mediated by their intimate interactions with roots. In root-microbe interactions (both beneficial and harmful), fungal secreted proteins play a crucial role in establishing contact with the roots, fungal attachment, root penetration and triggering of plant responses. In Trichoderma-root interactions, the sucrose present in root exudates has been demonstrated to be important in fungal attraction. Attachment to roots is mediated by hydrophobin-like proteins, and secreted swollenins and plant cell wall degrading enzymes facilitate internalization of the fungal hyphae. During the early stage of penetration, suppression of plant defence is vital to successful initial root colonisation; this is mediated by small soluble cysteine-rich secreted proteins (effector-like proteins). Up to this stage, Trichoderma's behaviour is similar to that of a plant pathogen invading root structures. However, subsequent events like oxidative bursts, the synthesis of salicylic acid by the plants, and secretion of elicitor-like proteins by Trichoderma spp. differentiate this fungus from pathogens. These processes induce immunity in plants that help counter subsequent invasion by plant pathogens and insects. In this review, we present an inventory of soluble secreted proteins from Trichoderma that might play an active role in beneficial Trichoderma-plant interactions, and review the function of such proteins where known.

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1. Introduction

Soil fungi belonging to the ascomycete genus Trichoderma have the potential to provide environmentally-friendly biocontrol of plant diseases. They directly antagonize many plant pathogens, while at the same time promoting plant growth and triggering resistance to subsequent pathogenic attack (Chet, 1987; Druzhinina et al., 2011; Lorito et al., 2010; Mukherjee et al., 2013). Trichoderma spp. colonise and penetrate the surface of plant roots, where growth is then limited mostly to the apoplast, the epidermis and the first few cortical cell layers. Certain strains of Trichoderma are reported to be systemic endophytes (Druzhinina et al., 2011). Promotion of root growth is commonly reported in the literature, and production/stimulation of phytohormones is also recorded (Contreras-Cornejo et al., 2013). Though not identical, there are certain analogies between Trichoderma and ectomycorrhizae, as far as their interaction with roots is concerned (Harman et al., 2004). Mycorrhizal fungi are tightly linked symbionts of plant roots. As such, they are able to colonise extracellularly (ectomycorrhizae) or intracellularly (endomycorrhizae), while evading the plant immune system (Zuccaro et al., 2014). At the opposite end of the spectrum of fungal-plant interactions are the soilborne pathogens that penetrate the root and cause diseases. The factors that define the outcome of fungal colonisation (endophytic, symbiotic or pathogenic) are not fully understood. It is clear, though, that the fungus is capable of following a wider range of lifestyles than it may exhibit in any one interaction. This outcome is determined by the fungal and host genotypes, among other factors. Trichoderma has been defined as an opportunistic symbiont based on the ability to grow saprophytically in the soil as well as in close association with plant roots (Harman et al., 2004). Traditionally the host response has been postulated to be an induced systemic resistance (ISR) reaction (like that imparted by the rhizobacteria that grow on, and not inside the roots). However, Trichoderma-mediated induced defence has often been found to be ISR or SAR (SAR is the systemic acquired resistance triggered by biotrophic and hemibiotrophic pathogens, while ISR is employed more against necrotrophs), or both (probably in keeping with the ability to grow both on and in the roots). Intriguingly, it was recently shown that the progeny of Trichoderma-primed tomato plants can inherit a resistant state, providing protection from nematodes (Medeiros et al., 2017). The molecular mechanisms of Trichoderma-root interactions are only beginning to be understood. The secretomes of Trichoderma species are rich in carbohydrate active enzymes (CAZymes), other enzymes, and many proteins with no obvious enzymatic activity including small secreted proteins (reviewed by de Mojana di Cologna et al. (2018). Small cysteine-rich secreted proteins belonging to the ceratoplatanin (CP) family have been studied from the functional to the structural levels as plant immunity stimulators (Djonovic et al., 2007; Seidl et al., 2006; Vargas et al., 2008). The CP paralogs may have different roles depending on the plant species, the Trichoderma strain and the pathogen used to assay resistance in the plant (Crutcher, 2012; Crutcher et al., 2015; Gaderer et al., 2015; Salas-Marina et al., 2015). Apart from these, many other secreted proteins, notably the hydrophobins and many

CAZymes, have been found to be involved in the interaction between Trichoderma and roots (Moran-Diez et al., 2009; Samolski et al., 2012; Viterbo and Chet, 2006). In a new twist in the story, our recent findings point to the involvement of certain components of the Trichoderma secretome in inducing susceptibility in host plants - perhaps by suppressing initial plant resistance, which aids fungal root penetration (Lamdan et al., 2015). Bioinformatic predictions suggest that some secreted Trichoderma proteins could have plant intracellular targets (Schmoll et al., 2016), which provides a promising direction for future experiments. Thus, knowledge from pathogens and mycorrhizal fungi will be a valuable guide for future work on Trichoderma, while keeping in mind that the details will surely differ. All these issues are addressed and critically analysed in the current review. Since several Trichoderma genomes have been sequenced, and these include species from distinct ecosystems and lifestyles, we also analyse the genomic potential of the Trichoderma species in setting-up dialogue with plants.

2. Trichoderma-induced plant defence: interplay of signals/hormones

Root-microbe interactions can be either beneficial, as in the case of Trichoderma and mycorrhiza, or pathogenic. Trichoderma exerts beneficial effects on plants in terms of improvement or maintenance of soil productivity, increased percentages and rates of seed germination, nutrient uptake, growth promotion, alleviation of adverse effects caused by environmental damage and systemic defence stimulation against pathogen attack and abiotic stress, without the need of establishing any contact with the invader (Hermosa et al., 2012; Rubio et al., 2017a; Shoresh et al., 2010). Systemic defence stimulation primes the plant immune response, acting against subsequent attack by any class of pathogens. Bacteria and fungi are the most familiar, however Trichoderma also primes defence against nematodes (Martínez-Medina et al., 2017; Medeiros et al., 2017; Sharon et al., 2001), insects (Coppola et al., 2017) and viruses (Elsharkawy et al., 2013; Vitti et al., 2016). Thus, as with mycorrhiza, plants do not perceive Trichoderma as an enemy. However, to achieve such "true-friend" status, Trichoderma had to develop opportunistic mechanisms for effective utilization of root exudate components (Vargas et al., 2009) and overcoming the early plant defences (Moran-Diez et al., 2012). Plants are capable of establishing immune responses that can be highly specific, with restricted self-reactivity, and that often generate a lifelong memory of the encountered attackers (Spoel and Dong, 2012). The first active line of defence, known as the innate immune response, occurs when evolutionarily conserved epitopes of microbe-derived molecules, called microbeassociated molecular patterns (MAMPs), such as betaglucans and chitin (major components of the fungal cell wall), are detected by cell-surface pattern recognition receptors (PRRs). Similarly, PRRs also respond to molecules, such as cell wall oligomers or cuticular fragments, released by microbial hydrolytic activity on plant tissues, which are referred to as damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs).

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