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Dark septate endophyte decreases stress on rice plants

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ABSTRACT

Abiotic stress is one of the major limiting factors for plant development and productivity, which makes it important to identify microorganisms capable of increasing plant tolerance to stress. Dark septate endophytes (DSEs) can be symbionts of plants. In the present study, we evaluated the ability of DSE isolates to reduce the effects of water stress in the rice varieties Nipponbare and Piauí. The experiments were performed under gnotobiotic conditions, and the water stress was induced with PEG. Four DSEs were isolated from the roots of wild rice (*Oryza glumaepatula*) collected from the Brazilian Amazon. Plant height as well as shoot and root fresh and dry matter were measured. Leaf protein concentrations and antioxidant enzyme activity were also estimated. The DSEs were grown *in vitro* in Petri dishes containing culture medium; they exhibited different levels of tolerance to salinity and water stress. The two rice varieties tested responded differently to inoculation with DSE. Endophytes promoted rice plant growth both in the presence and in the absence of a water deficit. Decreased oxidative stress in plants in response to inoculation was observed in nearly all inoculated treatments, as indicated by the decrease in antioxidant enzyme activity. DSE fungi were shown to increase the tolerance of rice plants to stress caused by water deficiency.

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Introduction

Rice is one of the most consumed cereals in the world due to its nutritional value and because it represents an affordable source of protein.¹ Rice belongs to the genus *Oryza*, which comprises two cultivated species (*Oryza glaberrima* and *Oryza sativa* L.) and a great diversity of wild species (not cultivated).²

Water deficiency is one of the most important causes of abiotic stress and compromises global food production, including the production of rice. This stress causes irreversible oxidative damage because the activity of the plant's antioxidant system is not sufficient to limit the reactive oxygen species (ROSs) derived from byproducts of aerobic and photosynthetic metabolism to non-toxic levels. ROSs therefore accumulate in the plant tissues,³ where they can cause

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32 damage to cell organelles; oxidize important biological
33 molecules such as nucleic acids, lipids and proteins; and com-
34 promise the integrity of the cell membrane and decrease
35 photosynthesis.⁴

36 Plants respond to these stresses by producing catalase
37 (CAT) and ascorbate peroxidases (APX), the primary enzymes
38 responsible for the maintenance of H₂O₂ at non-toxic levels
39 in cell compartments.⁵ However, in a scenario of prolonged
40 stress, the antioxidant system cannot prevent cell damage
41 caused by oxidation, and other mechanisms become relevant.
42 Positive effects of plant associations with beneficial microor-
43 ganisms under stress conditions have been reported.⁶⁻⁸

44 Dark septate endophytes (DSEs) are conidial or sterile
45 ascomycetous fungi that colonize living plant roots without
46 causing any apparent negative effects.^{9,10} They are charac-
47 terized by intense dark pigmentation and the formation of
48 septate hyphae and occasionally microsclerotia, as well as
49 various arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF). These fungi can
50 be grown in culture medium and can colonize several plant
51 species. They can be found in plant cortical cells inter- and
52 intracellularly and are present in several environments, even
53 under drought conditions, in the presence of heavy metals
54 and in oligotrophic soils.¹¹⁻¹⁶ The hypotheses presented thus
55 far for the dominance of DSEs in stressed environments and
56 their effects on host plant protection are primarily related
57 to the presence of the pigment melanin at the endophytes'
58 hyphae and microsclerotia.¹² Melanin can act as an antioxi-
59 dant agent and also bind heavy metal ions, thereby protecting
60 cell structures from the oxidative damage produced under
61 such conditions.¹⁷ However, the DSE action mechanisms
62 involved in plant protection have not yet been elucidated,¹⁸
63 but likely involve the presence of extraradical hyphae and
64 extracellular enzymes that can improve soil exploration by
65 roots.¹³

66 The goals of the present study were to assess the ability
67 of DSE fungi, originating from tropical soils, to grow under
68 stress conditions and to induce stress tolerance in rice plants
69 (*O. sativa* L.).

Material and methods

70 DSE isolates A, B, C and D (ERR 01, ERR 04, ERR 16 and ERR
71 46, respectively) obtained from the roots of wild rice (*Oryza*
72 *glumaepatula*) in the Brazilian Amazon by Ribeiro et al.¹⁹ were
73 tested. These isolates are stored at COFMEA (Embrapa Agrobi-
74 ology Culture Collection of Micorrhizal Fungi), and they were
75 only partially taxonomically defined up to now.¹⁹ These iso-
76 lates were previously characterized through amplification and
77 sequencing of the internal transcribed space (ITS1-5S-ITS2),
78 and it was possible to position the isolates at the order level.¹⁹
79 Following this analysis, A101 is a member of Calosphaeriales,
80 A102 is member of Capnodiales and A103 and A106 are
81 members of Pleosporales. The ITS1-5S-ITS2 sequences are also
82 deposited at the NCBI GenBank, accession numbers KR817246,
83 KR817247, KR817248 and KT780724.¹⁹

84 Nipponbare, an improved variety commonly used in rice
85 studies, and Piauí, a wild variety grown in a dry land system,
86 were used in all assays involving plant-fungus interactions.

The capacity of the DSE isolates to grow under stress con- 87
ditions was tested in two preliminary tests in Petri dishes. 88
Both were placed in a phytotron, using growth medium with 89
sodium chloride (NaCl) or polyethylene glycol (PEG 6000) for 90
the induction of salt and water stress, respectively. The PEG 91
6000 is a widely used polymer to simulate the effect of drought 92
in studies involving organisms, primarily because it is chemi- 93
cally inert and non-toxic.²⁰ 94

95 For salt stress, 0.2, 0.4, 0.7 or 1 mol L⁻¹ NaCl was added to
96 the culture medium at 26 °C to obtain an osmotic potential
97 of -0.49, -0.99, -1.73, and -2.43 MPa, respectively. A control
98 treatment was included with no salt addition. The salt con-
99 centrations needed to obtain the different osmotic potentials
100 were calculated using the Van't Hoff equation²¹:

$$\psi_{os} = -RTC,$$

101 where, ψ_{os} = osmotic potential (atm); R = ideal gas
102 constant (0.082 atm. 1 mol⁻¹⁰ K⁻¹); T = temperature (°K); Q5
103 C = concentration (mol L⁻¹). 104

105 Fungal mycelial discs 7 mm in diameter, grown for two
106 weeks in potato-dextrose-agar (PDA) growth medium, were
107 placed in Petri dishes containing 39 g L⁻¹ commercial PDA
108 medium (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) with the addi-
109 tion of 0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.7 or 1 mol L⁻¹ NaCl. Three replicates of each
110 treatment were performed. The dishes were grown for 9 days
111 at 26 °C. Colony diameter was measured after 9 days using a
112 caliper and expressed in mm.

113 Stress due to PEG addition was measured by placing fungal
114 mycelial discs, also 7 mm in diameter, in Petri dishes contain-
115 ing Hoagland solution solidified with Phytigel (2.5 g L⁻¹), to
116 which PEG-6000 had been added at different concentrations
117 (0, 79.791, 121.139, 180.231 and 264.246 g L⁻¹) to obtain 0, -0.1,
118 -0.2, -0.4, and -0.8 MPa water resistances, respectively.²⁰ The
119 incubation conditions were the same as the above.

Growth promotion of rice plants by DSE under water deficit

120 The experiment was maintained in the phytotron in a ran- 121
domized complete block design in a factorial arrangement 122
5 × 2 × 5 (four inoculated fungi and an uninoculated control), 123
two rice varieties (Nipponbare and Piauí), and 5 PEG concentra- 124
tions (0, 79.791, 121.139, 180.231 and 264.246 g L⁻¹), with four 125
replicates (two plants = one experimental unit). The rice plants 126
were grown in Hoagland solution solidified with 2.5 g L⁻¹ Phy- 127
tagel at a mean temperature of 26 °C. 128

129 The seeds of the two tested rice varieties were sterilized 130
with 2.5% sodium hypochloride and 70% ethanol for 3 min and 131
inoculated with fungal mycelia grown for two weeks in PDA, 132
followed by pre-germination for 5 days in Petri dishes contain- 133
ing Hoagland solution solidified with 1% agar. Fungal mycelial 134
discs 7 mm in diameter were placed on the dishes' surface 135
close to the seedlings. The control treatments consisted of 136
non-inoculated seeds without the addition of fungal mycelial 137
discs to the growth medium with one PDA disc added (7 mm 138
in diameter). 139

140 Following seed pre-germination, the seedlings were trans- 141
ferred into pots containing sterile half-strength Hoagland 142
solution supplemented with 0.3 g L⁻¹ MgSO₄ and solidified 143
with 2.5 g L⁻¹ Phytigel.²² The pots were kept under a 12 h

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