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### **Trends in Plant Science**

# Magnetoreception: an unavoidable step for plant evolution --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	The geomagnetic field (GMF) is steadily acting on living systems, and influences many biological processes. In animals the mechanistic origin of the GMF effect has been clarified and cryptochrome has been suggested as chemical magnetoreceptor. Here we propose a possible role for the GMF variations on plant evolution
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## 1 Magnetoreception: an unavoidable step for plant evolution?

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10 The geomagnetic field (GMF) is steadily acting on living systems, and influences many

11 biological processes. In animals the mechanistic origin of the GMF effect has been clarified

12 and cryptochrome has been suggested as chemical magnetoreceptor. Here we propose a

13 possible role for the GMF variations on plant evolution.

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#### 15 The geomagnetic field and its dynamic changes

Throughout the evolutionary process, the geomagnetic field (GMF) has been a natural component 16 17 of the environment for living organisms. The present Earth's magnetism or GMF is slowly varying, 18 quite homogeneous and relatively weak. A magnetic field is usually measured in terms of its 19 magnetic induction **B** whose unit is given in Tesla (T). Its strength at the Earth's surface ranges 20 from less than 30 µT in an area including most of South America and South Africa (the so called south Atlantic anomaly) to over 60 µT around the magnetic poles in northern Canada and south of 21 22 Australia, and in part of Siberia. Most of the magnetic field observed at the Earth's surface has an internal origin. It is mostly produced by the dynamo action of turbulent flows in the fluid metallic 23 24 outer core of the planet, while little is due to external magnetic fields placed in the ionosphere and 25 the magnetosphere [1]: the former is the ionized atmospheric layer with maximum of ionisation at around 200 km altitude; the latter is the region several tens of thousands of kilometers far from the 26 27 Earth where the GMF extends its effects into space. It is the presence of the GMF that, through the 28 magnetosphere, protects the Earth, together with its biosphere, from the solar wind (a stream of 29 energetic charged particles emanating from the Sun) deflecting most of its charged particles. Only 30 occasionally, during the so called magnetic storms produced by a higher solar activity, some 31 amount of charged particles of the solar wind and cosmic rays penetrate the magnetosphere causing 32 stronger external magnetic fields of thousands of nT all over the planetary surface. In our planet 33 history, the GMF exhibited several changes of magnetic polarity, with the so-called geomagnetic 34 reversals or excursions, characterized by persistent times with the same polarity. They occurred

35 some hundred times since Earth formation and the mean time between a reversal and the next one 36 has been estimated around 300,000 years. Because the present normal polarity started around 37 780,000 years ago and a significant field decay has been occurring during the last 1000 years, an 38 imminent geomagnetic reversal would not be so unexpected. The South Atlantic anomaly, being a 39 surface manifestation of a reversed magnetic flux in the outer core, could be the initial symptom of 40 a next change of polarity [2]. Moreover, the extrapolation of the present behavior would predict a 41 GMF reversal in less than 1000 years, which is, in geological and evolutionary terms, a very short 42 time.

43 It is claimed that a possible GMF would have important consequences over the biosphere [3],

- 44 especially on humans and animals [4], but very little is known about the effect on plants.
- 45

#### 46 Plant magnetoreception

In the last 50 years several studies have been performed to evaluate plant responses to exposure to 47 48 different strengths of magnetic fields (MF), from near null (0-40 µT), to low (up to 40 mT) up to 49 extremely high values (up to 30 T). The reported results show a variety of plant responses at the biochemical (enzyme activity of ROS scavenging enzymes), molecular (gene expression of 50 51 cryptochrome pathway), cellular (ultrastructural studies and amyloplast displacement), and whole 52 plant (flowering delay and phenotypic effects) level [5]. Most of the reported results agree with the 53 fact that the impact of a MF on a biological organism varies depending on its application style, 54 time, and intensity. High intensity MF have destructive effects on plants; however, at low 55 intensities, these phenomena are of special interest because of the complexity of plant responses. Compared to studies in animals, very little is known about magnetoreception in plants, although 56 57 early studies on plants were initiated more than 70 years ago. Nevertheless, fundamental questions 58 such as whether or not plants perceive MF, the physical nature of the MF receptor(s), and whether 59 or not (G)MF has any bearing on the physiology and survival of plants are beginning to be resolved. 60

#### 61 Are there magnetoreceptors in plants?

Unlike plants, some animals show an evident utilization of GMF for their own purposes. For instance, a model of avian magnetoreception postulates a magnetic sensory system in the eye that delivers a magnetic reference direction and employs the blue-light photoreceptor protein cryptochrome to sense the GMF. The unique biological function of cryptochrome supposedly arises from a photoactivation reaction involving transient radical pair formation by photo-induced electron transfer reactions. The radical-pair mechanism is currently the only physically plausible mechanism by which magnetic interactions that are orders of magnitude weaker than  $k_{\rm B}T$  can affect chemical 69 reactions. The kinetics and quantum yields of photo-induced flavin—tryptophan radical pairs in 70 cryptochrome are indeed magnetically sensitive and cryptochrome is a good candidate for a 71 chemical magnetoreceptor. Cryptochromes have also attracted attention as potential mediators of 72 biological effects of extremely low frequency (ELF) electromagnetic fields and possess properties 73 required to respond to Earth-strength (approximately 50 µT) fields at physiological temperatures 74 [6].

75 Recently, a combination of quantum biology and molecular dynamics simulations on plant cryptochrome has demonstrated that after photoexcitation a radical pair forms, becomes stabilized 76 77 through proton transfer, and decays back to the protein's resting state on time scales allowing the 78 protein, in principle, to act as a radical pair-based magnetic sensor ([7] and references therein) (Fig. 79 1A). Furthermore, the elimination of the local geomagnetic field weakens the inhibition of 80 Arabidopsis thaliana hypocotyl growth by white light, and delays flowering time. The expression changes of three A. thaliana cryptochrome-signaling-related genes, (PHYB, CO and FT) suggest 81 82 that the effects of a near-null magnetic field are cryptochrome-related and might involve a 83 modification of the active state of cryptochrome and the subsequent signaling cascade [8]. Figure 84 1A shows the proposed involvement of cryptochrome in plant magnetoreception.

85

#### 86 Why a plant magnetoreceptor?

87 Magnetoreception in animals is well documented, especially in the context of orientation during 88 migration, whereas the role of this mechanism in plants is less understood. As sedentary organisms, 89 plants should not require long distance orientation. Pollen and seed dispersal are passive 90 mechanisms of dispersion that do not require orientating systems. Thus, there must be some other 91 reason for plant magnetoreception. Physiological oscillations occur under constant conditions of 92 light, temperature and humidity. We commonly refer to these oscillations as endogenous biological 93 rhythms. There are several examples of plant responses to oscillations including tigmotropism, 94 phototropism and gravitropism. Understanding the mechanisms of plant tropic reactions is a central 95 problem in plant biology because tropisms comprise the complete signal response chain that plants use to maintain growth and development. Oscillating magnetic fields induce oscillation of Ca<sup>2+</sup> ions 96 and change the rate and/or the direction of  $Ca^{2+}$  ion flux; moreover, they affect distribution of 97 98 amyloplasts in the statocytes of gravistimulated roots because amyloplasts are more diamagnetic 99 than the aqueous cytoplasm [9]. However, these magneto-biological effects are probably based on 100 ion cyclotron resonance (ICR) and might not depend on radical pair-based magnetic sensor. 101 Geomagnetic storms induce aberration at the plant cellular and tissue level, and alter the patterns of

leaf attachment to the stem [10]. Because plants react to changes in the GMF, we cannot excludethe potential contribution of GMF to plant adaptation and eventually evolution.

104

#### 105 **The geomagnetic field and plant evolution**

106 Along with gravity, light, temperature and water availability, the GMF has been present since the 107 beginning of plant evolution. Apart from gravity, all other factors, including the GMF, changed 108 consistently during plant evolution thereby representing important abiotic stress factors eventually 109 contributing to plant diversification and speciation. Some authors have pointed out that during 110 geomagnetic reversals, the biological material of the Earth is exposed to more intense cosmic 111 radiation and/or UV light. As a consequence, mutations may occur, and this may lead to higher 112 rates of speciation [11]. Mass-extinction events profoundly reshaped Earth's biota during the early and late Mesozoic and terrestrial plants were among the most severely affected groups. Several 113 114 plant families were wiped out, while some new families emerged and eventually became dominant (Fig. 1B). The behavior of the GMF during the Mesozoic and Late Paleozoic, or more precisely 115 116 between 86 and 276.5 millions of years (Myr), is of particular interest. Its virtual dipole moment (VDM) seems to have been significantly reduced ( $\approx 4 \times 10^{22}$  Am<sup>2</sup>) compared to today's values [12]. 117 118 Because the strength of the GMF is strongly reduced during polarity transitions, when compared to 119 stable normal or reversed polarities, we propose that these variations might be correlated to plant 120 evolution. We do not have measurable records of GMF polarity reversal before late Jurassic, therefore we compared variations of GMF polarity with diversion of families and orders of 121 122 Angiosperms in the Tertiary and Cretaceous periods. Angiosperms are regarded as one of the 123 greatest terrestrial radiations of recent geological times. The oldest Angiosperm fossils date from 124 the early Cretaceous, 130–136 Myr ago, followed by a rise to ecological dominance in many 125 habitats before the end of the Cretaceous [13]. We found that the periods of normal polarity 126 transitions overlapped with the diversion of most of the familial Angiosperm lineages (Fig. 1B, 127 inset). This correlation appears to be particularly relevant to Angiosperms compared to other plants. 128 Patterns of diversification reconstructed onto phylogenetic trees depend on the age of lineages, their 129 intrinsic attributes, and the environments experienced since their origins. Global environments have 130 changed considerably during the history of Angiosperm radiation; e.g., the rise of grasses to dominance during the late Tertiary has been linked to global cooling and drying. We argue that 131 132 magnetoreception might be a relevant factor in plant evolution.

133

#### 134 **Further studies and directions**

The fragmentation of studies conducted so far regarding the biophysical and biological effects of GMF provided preliminary insights on the physiological perturbations caused on plants. To achieve a noteworthy breakthrough and confirm the role of magnetoreception in plants, it is mandatory to identify the biochemical nature of magnetoreceptor(s) and to explore the downstream cellular pathways that convert the biophysical event to cellular responses, eventually leading to regulation of plant growth and development.

141 Despite numerous papers on the effect of GMF on plants, many unanswered questions 142 remain and will have to be addressed in future studies: (i) why should plants regulate their 143 physiological processes in response to variation of GMF? (ii) How does GMF affect plant 144 development and do cryptochrome-related biophysical mechanisms play a role in plant 145 magnetoreception? (iii) Do geological variations of GMF have a role in plant evolution?

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#### 178 Figure legend

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180 Figure 1. Magnetoreception and plant evolution. (A) Cryptochrome activation and inactivation reactions. Blue light activates cryptochrome through absorbing a photon by the flavin cofactor. The 181 182 electron transfer pathway leading from the protein surface to the FAD cofactor buried within the 183 protein is shown. FAD becomes promoted to an excited FAD\* state and receives an electron from a nearby tryptophan, leading to the formation of the [FADH• + Trp•] radical pair, which exists in 184 singlet <sup>(1)</sup> and triplet <sup>(3)</sup> overall electron spin states by coherent geomagnetic field-dependent 185 186 interconversions. Under aerobic conditions, FADH• slowly reverts back to the initial inactive FAD 187 state through the also inactive FADH<sup>-</sup> state of the flavin cofactor. (**B**) The evolutionary history of 188 plants. The abundance and diversity of plant fossils increase into the Silurian Period where the first 189 macroscopic evidence for land plants has been found. There is evidence for the evolution of several 190 plant groups of the late Devonian and early Carboniferous periods (homosporous ferns and 191 gymnosperms). From the late Devonian through the base of the late Cretaceous period, 192 gymnosperms underwent dramatic evolutionary radiations and became the dominant group of 193 vascular plants in most habitats. Flowering plants probably also originated during this time, but they 194 did not become a significant part of the fossil flora until the middle of the Cretaceous Period. Inset, 195 direct comparison of GMF polarity and diversion of Angiosperms. It is interesting to note that most 196 of the diversion occurred during periods of normal magnetic polarity. 197

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