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32	Abstract	Ericoid mycorrhizal plants dominate in harsh environments where nutrient-poor, acidic soil conditions result in a higher availability of potentially toxic metals. Although metal-tolerant plant species and ecotypes are known in the Ericaceae, metal tolerance in these plants has been mainly attributed to their association with ericoid mycorrhizal fungi. The mechanisms underlying plant protection by the fungal symbiont are poorly understood, whereas some insights have been achieved regarding the molecular mechanisms of heavy metal tolerance in the fungal symbiont. This review will briefly introduce the general features of heavy metal tolerance in mycorrhizal fungi and will then focus on the use of "omics" approaches and heterologous expression in model organisms to reveal the molecular bases of fungal response to heavy metals. Functional complementation in <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> has allowed the identification of several ericoid mycorrhizal fungi genes (i.e., antioxidant enzymes, metal tolerance in a metal-tolerant ericoid <i>Oidiodendron maius</i> isolate. Although a powerful system, the use of the yeast complementation assay to study metal tolerance in mycorrhizal symbioses has limitations. Thus, <i>O. maius</i> has been developed as a model system to study heavy metal tolerance mechanisms in mycorrhizal fungi, thanks to its high metal tolerance, easy handling and in vitro mycorrhizal fungi, thanks to its high metal tolerance, easy handling and in vitro mycorrhizal fungi resources.
33	Keywords separated by ' - '	Ericoid mycorrhizal fungi - Metal tolerance - Yeast model system - Omics approaches
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REVIEW

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# Model systems to unravel the molecular mechanisms of heavy metal tolerance in the ericoid mycorrhizal symbiosis

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Abstract Ericoid mycorrhizal plants dominate in harsh envi-10ronments where nutrient-poor, acidic soil conditions result in a 11 12higher availability of potentially toxic metals. Although 13metal-tolerant plant species and ecotypes are known in the 14Ericaceae, metal tolerance in these plants has been mainly attributed to their association with ericoid mycorrhizal fungi. 15The mechanisms underlying plant protection by the fungal 1617symbiont are poorly understood, whereas some insights have been achieved regarding the molecular mechanisms of heavy 1819 metal tolerance in the fungal symbiont. This review will brief-20ly introduce the general features of heavy metal tolerance in 21mycorrhizal fungi and will then focus on the use of "omics" approaches and heterologous expression in model organisms 22to reveal the molecular bases of fungal response to heavy 2324metals. Functional complementation in Saccharomyces cerevisiae has allowed the identification of several ericoid 25mycorrhizal fungi genes (i.e., antioxidant enzymes, metal 26transporters, and DNA damage repair proteins) that may con-2728tribute to metal tolerance in a metal-tolerant ericoid Oidiodendron maius isolate. Although a powerful system, 29the use of the yeast complementation assay to study metal 30 tolerance in mycorrhizal symbioses has limitations. Thus, 31O. maius has been developed as a model system to study 3233 heavy metal tolerance mechanisms in mycorrhizal fungi, thanks to its high metal tolerance, easy handling and in vitro 34 35mycorrhization, stable genetic transformation, genomics, and 36 transcriptomic and proteomic resources.

KeywordsEricoid mycorrhizal fungi · Metal tolerance · Yeast37model system · Omics approaches38

# Mycorrhizal fungi protect their host plant39from abiotic stress, including heavy metals40

Symbioses between plants and beneficial soil microorgan-41 isms, such as mycorrhizal fungi, promote plant growth by 42improving plant nutrition and competition, but they also help 43plants to cope with several environmental stresses (Jung et al. 44 2012). For example, it has been documented by several au-45thors that both ectomycorrhizal (ECM) and arbuscular mycor-46rhizal (AM) fungi can improve drought tolerance and enhance 47 salt tolerance of their host plants (Luo et al. 2011, 2014; Ma 48 et al. 2014; Talaat and Shawky 2014). Heavy metals are an 49important source of environmental stress because they can be 50very toxic at above threshold concentrations. Metal-adapted 51plant species or ecotypes survive in metal-contaminated envi-52ronments mainly thanks to exclusion or detoxification mech-53anisms (see e.g., Hall 2002; Ernst 2006; Verbruggen et al. 542009). However, plants can also achieve metal tolerance 55through the association with mycorrhizal fungi. In fact, in 56spite of some variations in metal accumulation in the host 57plant, most studies indicate that ECM and AM plants accu-58mulate less metal inside their tissues and grow better than non-59mycorrhizal plants do when exposed to an excess of heavy 60 metals (Adriaensen et al. 2004, 2005, 2006; Audet and 61 Charest 2006; Jourand et al. 2010; Walker et al. 2004). In 62 addition to protecting the plant from excess uptake, mycorrhi-63 zal fungi may also enhance plant internal detoxification (Luo 64 et al. 2014). 65

Plants in the family Ericaceae dominate in nutrient-poor 66 and stressful soil conditions. Metal-tolerant species and ecotypes have been found also in these plants and suggest specific 68

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69 adaptation mechanisms (Sharples et al. 2000a: Rossini-Oliva et al. 2012). However, more important in these soil conditions 70seems to be the association of Ericaceae with ericoid mycor-71rhizal (ERM) fungi, which form intracellular symbioses in 7273 their fine hair roots (Fig. 1). Metal tolerance in ERM plants has been linked to the stress tolerance of their fungal partners, 7475which would increase host-plant tolerance as well (Bradley 76et al. 1981, 1982; Cairney and Meharg 2003). Soils colonized by Ericaceae are generally acidic, and the low pH and anaer-77obic soil conditions facilitate mobilization of heavy metal ions 78(Meharg and Cairney 2000). Bradley et al. (1981, 1982) dem-7980 onstrated for the first time the importance of ERM fungi in increasing resistance of Calluna vulgaris to heavy metals, and 81 other authors later described metal tolerance in ERM fungal 82 isolates from sites with different pollution (Martino et al. 83 2000a; Sharples et al. 2000b; Vallino et al. 2011). Despite 84 these observations, our understanding of the mechanisms un-85 derlying plant protection by the ERM fungi is still poor, 86 87 whereas increasing knowledge is being gathered on the mechanisms of heavy metal tolerance in ERM fungi. In particular, a 88 number of mechanisms has been identified in metal-tolerant 89 isolates of the ERM fungus Oidiodendron maius, a species in 90 91the Leotiomycetes (Ascomycetes) isolated from experimental plots in the Niepolomice Forest (Poland), a site heavily con-92taminated with industrial dusts and containing high concen-93 94trations of Zn, Cd, and Al (Martino et al. 2000a, 2000b, 2002, 2003; Vallino et al. 2005, 2009; Abbà et al. 2011; Khouja et al. 9596 2013, 2014).

97 Starting from a brief summary of the general features of 98 heavy metal tolerance in mycorrhizal fungi, this review will 99 focus on the use of yeast, a well-established fungal model 90 system, to identify genes involved in heavy metal tolerance 91 in fungi. Thanks to functional complementation of 92 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* metal-sensitive mutants, several Mycorrhiza

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genes that may contribute to metal tolerance were identified103in a heavy metal-tolerant isolate of the ERM species104Oidiodendron maius. We will also describe the features that105helped us to develop O. maius as a model system for ERM106fungi and some recent findings on the mechanisms of heavy107metal tolerance in this species.108

### Mechanisms of heavy metal detoxification in mycorrhizal fungi

Metal elements are directly or indirectly involved in all as-111 pects of microbial growth (Gadd 1993, 2010), with several 112of them playing essential functions (e.g., Zn, Cu, Mg, Fe) 113and some (e.g., Cs, Al, Cd, Hg, and Pb) having no known 114 function in most organisms and being therefore already toxic 115at low concentrations. In addition, heavy metals often influ-116ence the uptake and concentrations of essential elements such 117 as phosphorus and nitrogen (Krznaric et al. 2009; Luo et al. 118 2014). Molecular recognition allows organisms to differenti-119ate between essential and non-essential elements and, if nec-120essary, to partition them in different ways. The toxicity of 121heavy metals to both mycorrhizal fungi and their host plants 122can result from molecular disfunctions caused by the displace-123ment of essential metals in biomolecules (e.g., enzymes and 124transcription factors), from the binding of metals to thiol 125groups, which inhibits functions of the target biomolecules, 126and from overproduction of ROS as the consequence of 127blocked thiol groups (Sharma and Dietz 2009; 128Schützendübel and Polle 2002). 129

Emerging evidence suggests that the cellular mechanisms130involved in detoxification of excess heavy metals by mycor-131rhizal fungi include (similar to other fungi): (a) the biosorption132of metals to the fungal cell walls, (b) the binding of heavy133



Fig. 1 General features of ericoid mycorrhiza. a Cocultivation of *Vaccinium myrtillus* plantlets with *Oidiodendron maius* Zn, generating mycorrhizal plants; b *O. maius* Zn mycelium grown on Czapek-dox

agar medium; c *V. myrtillus* root with hyphal coils of *O. maius* Zn (cotton blue staining); d TEM section of a mycorrhizal *V. myrtillus* root cell: *f* indicates the fungal hyphae

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134metals to extracellular exudates and consequent possible precipitation, (c) the decreased uptake and/or removal of metal 135ions from the cytosol via transporters located at the plasma 136137membrane. (d) the chelation of metal ions in the cytosol by 138 compounds such as glutathione, metallothioneins and, rarely, phytochelatins, (e) the compartmentation of metals in the vac-139140 uole or other subcellular structures, (f) the repair of metaldamaged biomolecules, and (g) antioxidative mechanisms that 141 allow the fungus to directly or indirectly counteract accumu-142lation of ROS and oxidative stress (Bellion et al. 2006; 143Colpaert et al. 2011; Gallego et al. 2012; Seth et al. 2012). 144145Some of these mechanisms are constitutively present, whereas others are only activated when metals exceed a threshold val-146ue (Colpaert et al. 2011). 147

# Yeast as a model system to study fungal responseto heavy metals

Model systems are important tools to unravel the molecular 150mechanisms underlying biological processes. S. cerevisiae in 151particular is an attractive model organism due to the fact that it 152153is very easy to maintain in the lab and has a fast life cycle. In addition, its genome has been fully sequenced (Goffeau et al. 1541996), thus making genetic manipulation easier and analyses 155156based on high throughput approaches (i.e., "omics" approaches such as genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, 157metabolomics, and phenomics) more informative than in other 158159organisms.

160 The most straightforward "omics" approaches to investigate cellular responses to heavy metal exposure in 161162S. cerevisiae have been proteomics (Hu et al. 2003; Vido et al. 2001) and transcriptomics (Hosiner et al. 2014). 163Although mainly descriptive, both approaches have provided 164 165useful information on the influence of heavy metals on gene 166 and protein expression. For example, a recent trascriptomic experiment showed that the acute (30 min) metal stress by 167168Ag, Al, As, Cd, Co, Hg, Mn, Ni, V, and Zn induces differential expression in about 15 % of the yeast transcripts, with some 169 common processes being activated by distinct groups of 170metals, but also unique expression patterns for particular 171metals (Hosiner et al. 2014). 172

Interesting results have been also derived from deletomics, 173174i.e., the analysis of a deletion mutant collection covering nearly the entire yeast genome. A nearly complete set (96 % of all 175annotated ORFs) of gene-disrupted mutants was obtained in 176S. cerevisiae by Giaever et al. (2002). The phenotypic conse-177quence of gene loss in individual yeast mutants (e.g., increase 178or decreased growth upon metal exposure) can in fact lead to 179the identification of the metabolic pathways involved. 180

The screening of the yeast deletion mutant collection to
assess the role of non-essential genes in the response to heavy
metals (Zn, Cd, Hg, Cu, Ag, Cr, As and Ni) revealed a major

role of the vacuole for metal sequestration and detoxification. 184A wide range of additional cellular functions likely involved in 185general stress response and repair of damage caused by metals 186 were also identified, such as the GSH and reduced sulfur me-187 tabolism, metal chelation, antioxidant defense, protein turn-188 over, mRNA decay and trafficking, structural and functional 189integrity of the membranes, and DNA repair. The chemical 190 properties of the metals likely define the responsive genes and 191the cell toxicity effects. For example, it is not surprising that 192Cd and Hg raised similar responses because they share a sim-193ilar thiophilicity and lack of redox activity, as well as Mn, Ni, 194 Zn, and Co, that are all non-redox transition metals, whereas 195Fe(III) is redox-active and was the most divergent metal in-196 vestigated (Jin et al. 2008; Ruotolo et al. 2008). In addition, 197 Ruotolo et al. (2008) suggested that components of the high-198affinity Fe transport pathway contributed to the yeast tolerance 199 to Cu, Mn, Ni, Co, and Zn, but not to Fe, suggesting that Fe 200 homeostasis requires different mechanisms. Bleackley et al. 201(2011) suggested a lack of metal-specificity based on the re-202 sults of a new deletome screening showing that Mn, Ni, Zn, 203and Co sensitivity was common to a number of deletion 204strains. These authors discussed that promiscuity in metal 205binding in proteins likely preceded metal binding specificity 206 during evolution, and the overlap in tolerance pathways may 207be interpreted as a relic of metal binding promiscuity. 208However, most of the vacuolar deletion strains were sensitive 209 to Mn, Zn, Ni, and Co (all of which are stored in the vacuole), 210but not to Fe. 211

# Yeast functional complementation to identify ERM212fungal genes involved in heavy metal tolerance213

Omics approaches in yeast have been instrumental to investi-214gate fungal responses to heavy metals, and they have 215unraveled common as well as metal-specific pathways. 216However, S. cerevisiae is not very tolerant to heavy metals, 217and whereas its deletome/transcriptome can help to explain 218stress response of fungi when exposed to heavy metals, it 219has limitations to unravel mechanisms underlying heavy metal 220tolerance in metal-tolerant filamentous fungi. Other method-221ologies, employing the yeast model system for heterologous 222expression and functional complementation of deletion mu-223tants, have been helpful in identifying genes from metal-224tolerant ECM and AM mycorrhizal fungi (Courbot et al. 2252004; González-Guerrero et al. 2005; Lanfranco et al. 2002). 226Functional complementation of yeast mutations was used for 227the first time in ERM fungi as a targeted approach to demon-228strate the role of Cu/Zn superoxide dismutase (SOD) enzyme 229in metal tolerance (Vallino et al. 2009). The synthesis of anti-230oxidant enzymes such as catalases, peroxidases, and SODs is 231known to protect fungi from the oxidative stress caused by 232heavy metals (Guelfi et al. 2003; Jacob et al. 2001; Todorova 233

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234et al. 2008). In particular, SODs play a protective role against free superoxide radical toxicity (Fridovich 1995) and their 235induction by heavy metals has been described in plants, ani-236 237mals, and microorganisms (Chongpraditnun et al. 1992; Yoo 238 et al. 1999; Vido et al. 2001). Exposure of O. maius Zn, a metal-tolerant isolate derived from the Niepolomice (Poland) 239240contaminated soil, to Zn and Cd increased the amount and activity of both intracellular and extracellular SOD enzymes 241that could help both the ERM fungus and the host plant to 242 cope with ROS formation (Chiapello et al. 2015; Martino et al. 2432002; Vallino et al. 2009). As these enzymes are 244245metalloenzymes, like most oxidoreductases, the increased production of an extracellular Cu/Zn SOD in O. maius Zn 246may also reduce metal toxicity thanks to its metal binding 247capacity (Vallino et al. 2009). A metal-sensitive yeast mutant 248lacking this enzyme regained metal tolerance to Zn, Cu, and 249 250Cd when transformed with the O. maius Zn full-length cDNA 251coding for this enzyme.

252Targeted approaches, such as yeast functional complementation with the OmSod1 gene, normally rely on existing 253knowledge and may be helpful confirming the role of individ-254ual components in heavy metal tolerance, but they would miss 255256so far unidentified mechanisms that can be better addressed by untargeted approaches. Untargeted approaches are in fact an 257important source of novel information, especially if they are 258259supported by functional assays (Ruytinx et al. 2011). Metalsensitive yeast mutants have been used to screen by functional 260complementation whole cDNA libraries from mycorrhizal 261 262fungi (Leonhardt et al. 2014a; Osobová et al. 2011; Ramesh 263 et al. 2009) in order to identify genes capable of conferring to the transformants the ability to grow in metal-containing me-264265dia. The same approach has lead, in the metal-tolerant ERM fungus O. maius Zn, to the identification of some metal trans-266porters (Khouja et al. 2013), but also to the discovery of the 267 268novel protein OmFCR, a member of the PLAC8-domain con-269 taining proteins, likely involved in DNA damage repair (Abbà 270et al. 2011). These genes are described in the following 271paragraphs.

### 272 O. maius Zn gene coding for metal transporters

Membrane transporters can reduce heavy metal toxicity be-273274cause they can regulate cytoplasmic metal concentrations either by limiting metal uptake or by increasing metal efflux 275and/or compartmentation in cell organelles (Pócsi 2011). In 276277order to identify membrane transporters involved in heavy 278metal tolerance in O. maius Zn, functional screening of a cDNA library obtained from this ERM fungus growing on 279Cd-amended medium was performed in the zinc-sensitive 280281 $\Delta zrc1$  mutant of S. cerevisiae. Two full-length cDNAs were isolated and further characterized in yeast, respectively 282encoding OmZnT1, a member of the cation diffusion 283

facilitator family of zinc transporters, and OmFET, a member 284 of the iron permease family (Khouja et al. 2013; Fig. 2b). 285

Zn homeostasis has been largely investigated in yeast, 286 whereas much less is known in filamentous fungi. In mycor-287rhizal fungi, although many putative Zn-transporter genes 288have been identified in silico (e.g., Tamayo et al. 2014), only 289 a few have been functionally characterized in yeast: the 290RaZIP1 and RaZIP2 from Russula atropurpurea (Leonhardt 291et al., 2014b), HcZnt1 from Hebeloma cylindrosporum 292 (Blaudez and Chalot 2011), GiZnT1 from Rizophagus 293irregularis (renamed RiZnT1; González-Guerrero et al. 2942005), and OmZnT1 and OmFET from O. maius Zn (Khouja 295et al. 2013). In yeast, OmZnT1 was located in the ER mem-296 brane and was able to restore growth of Zn and Co sensitive 297 mutants lacking vacuolar transporters, suggesting that it could 298detoxify zinc by delivery and compartimentation into the ER, 299 a common strategy of metal tolerance. Similarly, the ER-300 resident CDF proteins ZHF1 from the yeast 301 Schizosaccharomyces pombe (Clemens et al. 2002) and 302 HcZnT1 from the basidiomycete Hebeloma cylindrosporum 303 (Blaudez and Chalot 2011) have been demonstrated to confer 304 zinc tolerance in yeast. The release of the O. maius Zn genome 305 sequence (http://genome.jgi.doe.gov/; Kohler et al. 2015) 306 revealed the presence of two other putative Zn-CDF trans-307 porters in this organism. 308

OmFET is a low-affinity iron transporter that has also been 309 found in other filamentous fungi, but it has been fully charac-310 terized only in S. cerevisiae (Kosman 2003), showing relative-311 ly low substrate specificity. Measurement of intracellular ion 312 concentration indicates that yeast transformants constitutively 313 expressing OmFET contained significantly less Zn than cells 314did harboring the empty vector, which would explain the pos-315itive selection of OmFET during the screening of the O. maius 316cDNA library (Khouja et al. 2013). Although this transporter 317 belongs to the iron permeases family, we could not find sig-318 nificant iron accumulation in the OmFET-expressing yeast, as 319compared to control cells, while the magnesium content was 320 always significantly higher in OmFET-expressing cells than in 321 control cells. It was thus suggested that OmFET could en-322 hance zinc tolerance in yeast by increasing the cellular content 323 of magnesium, which has a general protective effect against 324 different heavy metal cations such as manganese, copper, 325nickel, cadmium, and cobalt in yeast (Blackwell et al. 1998; 326 Joho et al. 1991; Karamushka and Gadd 1994) and zinc and 327 cadmium in plants (Kupper and Kochian, 2010; Pedler et al. 328 2004). 329

# *O. maius* Zn gene coding for components of the DNA damage repair system

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A novel gene conferring Cd resistance was isolated from a 332 cDNA library obtained from *O. maius* Zn exposed to Cd by 333 functional complementation of a metal-sensitive yeast mutant 334

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**Fig 2** Heterologous expression in yeast of *O. maius* Zn genes. **a** The *yap1*-deficient yeast strain was transformed with a pFL61-cDNA library of *Oidiodendron maius* Zn exposed to CdSO<sub>4</sub> and, the yeast cells were spread on SD-agar plates containing a linear concentration gradient (0–100 mM) of CdSO<sub>4</sub>: the clones growing at the highest concentrations

were all expressing OmFCR1; **b** functional complementation of the metal-sensitive  $\Delta zrc1$  yeast strains by OmFET and OmZnT1; **c** localization of OmFET/GFP on the yeast plasma membrane by epifluorescence microscopy, and corresponding bright field image

 $(\Delta vap 1)$ . The new gene was called *O. maius* fungal cadmium 335 336 resistance 1 (OmFCR1) because of the structural and functional similarities with its ortholog in Arabidopsis thaliana plant 337 cadmium resistance (AtPCR). These genes both harbor a 338 339 PLAC-8 (or DUF614) conserved domain whose function remains unknown despite a number of studies that attributed 340 different roles to members of this protein family, ranging from 341342 the control of cell cycle and cell size in both animal and plants (Frary et al. 2000; Guo et al. 2010; Jimenez-preitner et al. 343 2011, 2012; Rogulski et al. 2005) to a function in cadmium 344resistance for AtPCR (Song et al. 2004). OmFCR1 is likely to 345confer Cd resistance by interacting with components of the 346 mismatch repair (MMR) system involved in DNA damage 347 repair (Abbà et al. 2011; Fig. 2a). More recently, another gene 348which also harbors a PLAC-8 domain was identified in the 349genome of O. maius Zn. This gene, called OmFCR2, was able 350 351to rescue the Cd-sensitive phenotype in mutant yeast, although less pronounced than OmFCR1 (Di Vietro et al. 2014). 352Expression of OmFCR1 in O. maius Zn, as measured by 353 real-time qPCR, significantly increased after 24 h of Cd expo-354sure, while the expression of OmFCR2 was constant and gen-355erally lower than OmFCR1 expression. Hence, these two 356 357 genes share a similar function in Cd response but show a different expression trend, thus suggesting a possible modula-358tion of the response to Cd, just like it would be expected for 359paralogs (Gabaldon and Koonin 2013). Besides, both 360 OmFCR1 and OmFCR2 promoter regions harbor putative 361 metal response elements (MRE), suggesting that the metal-362mediated induction has been conserved after duplication (Di 363 364Vietro et al. 2014). The generation of OmFCR1 knock-out mutants in O. maius Zn had not resulted in a Cd-sensitive 365phenotype, and a possible explanation is that OmFCR2 could 366

contribute to the resistant phenotype in the OmFCR1 knock-<br/>out mutants, together with a number of cellular/molecular re-<br/>sponses activated by the fungus and described in other studies<br/>(Martino et al. 2000b, 2003; Khouja et al. 2013; Vallino et al.<br/>370<br/>371369<br/>370

### O. maius as a model system for ericoid mycorrhizal fungi 372

Yeast has been very helpful in the identification of heterolo-373 gous genes involved in metal tolerance from mycorrhizal fun-374gi, by both targeted and untargeted functional complementa-375 tion. However, the use of the yeast system has limitations for 376 the study of metal tolerance mechanisms in mycorrhizal fungi 377 because it mainly reveals mechanisms based on individual 378 molecular components (e.g., metal transporters, antioxidant 379 enzymes, etc.) rather than more complex cellular functions. 380 In addition, some of the mechanisms that operate in mycor-381 rhizal fungi may also confer protection to the host plant, a 382potential feature that could not be tested in yeast. Hence, the 383 elucidation of the mechanisms of heavy metal homeostasis in 384 mycorrhizal fungi and their possible roles in plant protection 385require the development of mycorrhizal model systems, pos-386 sibly with characteristics of heavy metal tolerance, ease of 387 laboratory handling, knowledge of the genome sequence, 388 and availability of genetic transformation protocols. For 389 ERM, O. maius Zn is emerging as a model system to investi-390 gate cellular processes related to heavy metal tolerance. This 391 ascomycete can be easily grown in vitro, where it produces 392asexual conidia containing a single haploid nucleus, which 393 can germinate to produce a homokaryotic mycelium. In addi-394 tion to the haploid genome and easy culturing, tools have been 395developed for O. maius over the years, such as genetic 396

397 transformation and omics databases. This ERM fungus is also a relatively easy system to study the expression and function 398 of fungal genes during mycorrhizal interactions (Kohler et al. 399 400 2015), but it will be also an interesting model system for the 401 functional study of genes from other less genetically tractable mycorrhizal fungi by heterologous expression, and for the 402 403 identification of common pathways in mycorrhizal interac-404 tions. For example, constitutive expression in O. maius Zn of an AM fungal gene induced during arbuscule development 405 resulted in a higher percentage of Vaccinium myrtillus root 406 colonization (Lanfranco et al. unpublished data). 407

# 408 Omics approaches to identify mechanisms of heavy 409 metal tolerance in *O. maius* Zn

410 Large-scale experiments involving omics techniques are now routinely used in various research disciplines, including my-411 412 corrhizal research (Kohler et al. 2015; Laparre et al. 2014; Tisserant et al. 2012, 2013; Vincent et al. 2011), and some 413omics approaches have been recently applied also to ERM 414fungi. A first attempt to investigate ERM fungal genes in-415416 volved in zinc tolerance through an untargeted approach was through the sequencing of a small EST collection (Vallino 417 et al. 2005). By monitoring variation in gene expression after 418 419treatment with high Zn concentrations through reverse Northern blot hybridization, 16 unigenes were shown to be 420 421 either up or downregulated. However, none of them 422 corresponded to previously reported heavy metal responsive 423 or stress-related genes. The fully sequenced genome of O. maius Zn and the availability of transcriptomic data need 424 425to be further exploited to understand the molecular mechanisms and cellular processes underlying heavy metal tolerance 426 427 in ERM fungi.

428 Comparative high-throughput proteomics, another "omic" 429 approach, was more recently applied to investigate protein 430 accumulation in O. maius Zn exposed to zinc and cadmium 431(Chiapello et al. 2015). Cadmium selectively induced molecular chaperones of the Hsp90 family, cytoskeletal proteins, 432 and components of the translation machinery, while zinc sig-433 nificantly upregulated metabolic pathways related to energy 434 production and carbohydrate metabolism, suggesting that ad-435aptation of this isolate to Zn exposure mainly involved the 436 437 primary metabolism. Common proteins induced by the two metal ions were the antioxidant enzyme Cu/Zn SOD (further 438 supporting earlier experiments by Abbà et al. 2009 and 439Vallino et al. 2009) and ubiquitin. The covalent attachment 440 of ubiquitin to lysine residues of proteins is a post-441 translational modification originally described as a destruction 442tag that directs misfolded or disused proteins to the protea-443 444 some (Hall 2002). Some components of the proteasome were identified by 2-DE in the mycelium exposed to both cadmium 445 and zinc suggesting the induction of the proteolytic activity 446

eliminating ubiquitinated proteins as defence mechanism.447Several proteins involved in ubiquitin-dependent proteolysis448were also identified by Muller et al. (2007) when comparing449the gene expression profiles of a Zn-tolerant and a Zn-450sensitive Suillus luteus isolate exposed to increasing external451zinc concentrations.452

An interesting protein identified by shotgun proteomics 453 and induced in O. maius Zn by both cadmium and zinc was 454the enzyme agmatinase, a key enzyme in the biosynthesis of 455 polyamines (Dudkowska et al. 2003). Identification of 456agmatinase in the O. maius proteome in response to metals 457 is very intriguing. Polyamines are positively charged small 458 molecules found in prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells; putres-459cine and spermidine, in particular, are believed to occur in all 460 living cells and to be implicated in many fundamental cellular 461 processes (Igarashi and Kashiwagi 2000; Kusano et al. 2008). 462 In plants, polyamine accumulation appears to be a universal 463 response to stress, including toxic heavy metal concentrations 464 (Alcázar et al. 2010; Minocha et al. 2014). In fungi, poly-465 amines are essential to support growth and to regulate a wide 466 variety of biological processes (Davis 1996; Valdés-Santiago 467 et al. 2010), but little is known about their possible role in 468 stress tolerance (Valdés-Santiago and Ruiz-Herrera 2014). 469 Polyamine accumulation in response to heavy metals was in-470vestigated in the ECM fungus Paxillus involutus, where lead 471and zinc exposure specifically increased cellular concentra-472 tions of some polyamines (Zarb and Walters 1995; 1996). 473Although the role of polyamines in the ERM fungal response 474 to environmental stress requires further investigations, the re-475 sults by Chiapello et al. (2015) suggest that the biosynthetic 476 pathway leading to their formation is induced by both zinc and 477 cadmium in O. maius Zn. 478

# Genetic transformation of O. maius Zn to identify479mechanisms of metal tolerance480

Further tools have been developed for O. maius Zn and in-481 clude protocols for stable genetic transformation (Fig. 3) by 482 both PEG- and Agrobacterium-mediated transformation 483(Martino et al. 2007; Abbà et al. 2009). Although several 484 ECM fungi have been stably transformed (Combier et al. 4852003; Kemppainen et al. 2005; Marmeisse et al. 1992; Pardo 486 et al. 2002; Rodriguez-Tovar et al. 2005), O. maius Zn re-487 mains so far the only example of genetic transformation of 488 an endomycorrhizal fungus. Genetic transformation of 489O. maius Zn has been used to disrupt gene functions in order 490 to identify possible alterations in the fungal phenotype. The 491complete and stable inactivation of a target gene via homolo-492gous recombination at the wild-type locus (gene knock-out) is 493 in fact the most direct way to explore gene function, and it was 494 successfully applied in O. maius Zn for the first time among 495mycorrhizal fungi. The SOD1-null mutant showed an 496

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Fig 3 Genetic manipulation of Oidiodendron maius Zn. a O. maius Zn mutants selected for their hygromycin B resistance after Agrobacterium tumefaciens-mediated transformation; b. confocal microscopy images of O. maius Zn expressing EGFP (b.1 free living mycelium; b.2 hyphal coil; b.3 Vaccinium myrtillus colonized root); c oxidative stress tolerance assay

of O. maius Zn (stress-tolerant WT isolate), O. maius A (stress-sensitive WT isolate), and the O. maius  $\Delta GOGAT / \Delta APC15$  strain (a stresssensitive mutant obtained by random genetic transformation): the three strains were grown on media amended with 15 mM ZnSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.3 mM CdSO<sub>4</sub>, or 0.75 mM menadione

497 imbalanced ROS homeostasis as well as a decreased Cd and Zn tolerance and a decrease of the formation of mycorrhizal 498 coils with respect to the wild-type (WT) strain. These results 500suggested that the ROS scavenging has an important role not 501only in the stress defence but also in the signaling between O. maius Zn and its host plant (Abbà et al. 2009). 502

503In addition to the disruption of target genes by homologous recombination, genetic transformation can be used for random 504505insertional mutagenesis. This approach has been used in 506O. maius Zn to build up a library of more than 2000 random mutants. This library was screened for sensitivity to heavy 507 metals (Zn and Cd) and oxidative stress (menadione), and a 508number of mutants with altered phenotype and/or impaired 509510growth in one or more of these conditions were selected. One of these mutants, in addition to an altered metal stress 511tolerance (Figs. 3c and 4), also showed impaired N-512metabolism and was further characterized (Khouja et al. 5135142014). The glutamate synthase (GOGAT), a key enzyme in nitrogen metabolism, and its adjacent gene, APC15, were par-515516tially deleted. Genetic transformation was used to 517recomplement the disrupted OmAPC15 gene with the functional O. maius Zn gene, and assays on two OmAPC15-518519recomplemented strains ascribed the metal sensitive phenotype to the deletion of the OmGOGAT gene. The 520521OmGOGAT-deleted strain also showed a reduction of the glu-522 tamine synthetase (GS) activity and an upregulation of the 523alternative NADP-glutamate dehydrogenase pathway for glutamate biosynthesis, suggesting a strong alteration of the N-524525assimilation pathway. Unless they were supplemented with glutamine, O. maius Zn transformants lacking OmGOGAT 526were very sensitive to zinc. A number of studies in plants 527528demonstrate the significance of nitrogen containing metabolites in the response to heavy metals (Sharma and Dietz 2006) 529530and report in particular the involvement of glutamine and GS

enzyme activity in the tolerance mechanisms to oxidative 531stress induced by metals (Hradilová et al. 2010; Ker and 532Charest, 2010; Kieffer et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2008). 533Glutamine synthetase was found to be upregulated by Cd in 534several plant species (Kieffer et al. 2008; Rana et al. 2008; 535Sarry et al. 2006; Wang et al. 2008) and was positively corre-536lated with Cd tolerance in the hyperaccumulator Noccaea 537caerulescens (Tuomainen et al. 2006). Nitrogen uptake via 538glutamine/glutamate cycle is also linked to the glutathione 539biosynthesis (Li et al. 1993; Matés et al. 2002), and a possible 540role of glutathione is to reduce the concentration of free metal 541ions in the cell and prevent an increase in the production of 542reactive oxygen species under heavy metal stress (Xu et al. 5432009). This could suggest that a possible reduced glutathione 544biosynthesis in the OmGOGAT-deleted strain would 545



Fig. 4 Stress tolerance of the Oidiodendron maius Zn wild-type (white bars, O. maius WT) and the O. maius  $\Delta GOGAT / \Delta APC15$  strain (light gray bars, O. maius -/-). The two fungal strains were grown in liquid media supplemented or not (control) with 10 mM ZnSO4, 0.1 mM CdSO4 or 0.5 mM of menadione. The bars represent the average of three replicates, with standard deviation. Asterisk indicates significant differences between the O. maius WT and O. maius -/- strains

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546contribute to its stress-sensitive phenotype and to its selection in the random-mutant screening. Exogenously supplied gluta-547mine could compensate the defect of glutamine biosynthesis, 548549and the beneficial effect of glutamine was particularly evident when mycelia were exposed to zinc, as reported for plants 550(Hradilová et al. 2010; Rossini Oliva et al. 2012). These re-551552sults by Khouja et al. (2014) demonstrate interplay between heavy metal tolerance and nitrogen metabolism and that some 553intermediate of nitrogen metabolism might be central to the 554fungal response to heavy metals. 555

Pythochelatins play an important role in metal tolerance in 556557 plants, and gene coding for pythochelatin synthase, or putative homologs of this enzyme, have been recently found in some 558fungal genomes (Bolchi 2011, Shine 2015). Phytochelatin Q3/Q2 559 synthase genes seem to be absent in O. maius Zn (unpublished 560data), making this fungus an interesting system for heterolo-561562 gous expression of this gene, in order to evaluate whether it confers higher metal tolerance and/or whether it affects the 563564expression of other defense genes.

### Perspectives for the study of metal tolerance in ERM 565566 fungi

567 As illustrated above, fungal model systems have been instru-568mental to identify some of the molecular components of heavy metal tolerance in ERM fungi. However, they have been used 569to investigate individual genes of single organisms (i.e., 570O. maius Zn) that could represent specific detoxification 571mechanisms. An interesting point will be to understand 572whether and how many of these tolerance mechanisms are 573574the results of environment-driven adaptive evolution possibly found at the population level. 575

Heavy metal toxicity represents a strong selection pressure, 576 577 and adaptation of ecto- and endomycorrhizal fungi to heavy metal soil pollution of anthropic origin is suggested by several 578579studies (Adriaensen et al. 2005; Colpaert et al. 2004; Krznaric 580et al. 2009; Leyval et al. 1997; Meharg and Cairney 2000). Similarly, metal-tolerant ERM fungi with metal-specific toler-581ance mechanisms have been isolated from polluted sites. For 582583example, Sharples et al. (2001) isolated As-tolerant strains of Rhizoscyphus ericae from the roots of C. vulgaris collected in 584an As/Cu-contaminated mine. These fungi were able to spe-585cifically transport arsenate out of the hyphae, thus 586representing a barrier for arsenate uptake into the plant. 587Similarly, increased zinc efflux was found to be an adaptive 588mechanism of zinc tolerance in isolates of the ECM Suillus 589bovinus collected from soils heavily contaminated with this 590metal (Ruytinx et al. 2013). 591

Some indications of adaptive metal tolerance were also 592593reported for O. maius by Vallino et al. (2011), who investigated a number of fungal isolates derived from soils with differ-594ent pollutants, namely a serpentine site enriched in Cr and Ni, 595

an industrial soil mainly contaminated with Cd and Zn, and a 596non-polluted soil. These O. maius isolates showed a statisti-597 cally significant difference in their ability to grow in the pres-598 ence of the metal contaminants typical of the site of origin. 599The isolates more tolerant to Cr and Ni were those originated 600 from the serpentine site, while the isolates more tolerant to Zn 601 and Cd were those from the industrially polluted site enriched 602 in these contaminants (Vallino et al. 2011). Some genetic fea-603 tures were further investigated in these isolates. In particular, 604 DNA mutation rate (in terms of base substitution and inser-605tion/deletions) was assessed for specific regions of the fungal 606 genome that have different significance in metal tolerance: the 607 "functional" gene coding for the Cu/Zn SOD, already demon-608 strated to play a role in metal tolerance (Vallino et al. 2009), 609 and the "neutral" ribosomal ITS gene. O. maius isolates from 610 all sites, polluted and non-polluted, showed higher mutation 611 rates in the functional Sod1 locus, important for fungal surviv-612 al, than in the neutral ITS locus (Vallino et al. 2011). In addi-613 tion, O. maius isolates from heavily polluted industrial soils 614 showed a significantly higher mutation rates in the Sod1 locus 615than fungi from less polluted or non-polluted sites. The accu-616 mulation of mutations was not the result of a random process 617 because a higher mutation rate was calculated for the Sod1 618 promoters of metal-exposed than non-exposed isolates, while 619 the mutation rate was similar when the coding sequence was 620 considered (Vallino et al. 2011). Although limited to a single 621 locus and to a small population of ERM fungi, these observa-622 tions would indicate that mutagenesis induced by environ-623 mental stress may target specific gene regions and suggest a 624 rapid evolution of key pathways, like stress signaling, driven 625 by the need of defense of the organism (Nikolaou et al. 2009). 626

It will be therefore interesting to extend these types of anal-627 yses to whole genomes. Sequencing of fungal genomes is 628 becoming relatively simple and cost-effective and, based on 629 the already fully sequenced genome of O. maius Zn, 630 resequencing of several other O. maius isolates from metal-631 tolerant and metal-sensitive populations should provide addi-632 tional information on the evolution of metal tolerance molec-633 ular mechanisms. 634

### Conclusions

Metal-tolerant ERM fungal isolates can successfully colonize 636 heavy metal-polluted soils and protect their host plants from 637 metal toxicity through mechanisms that are still largely un-638 known. By contrast, a combination of targeted and untargeted 639 approaches together with the use of yeast as a model system 640 for heterologous gene expression have helped us to unravel 641 some of the mechanisms underlying ERM fungal metal toler-642 ance. An emerging model system for ERM fungi is O. maius, 643 a species for which metal-sensitive and metal-tolerant isolates 644 are available. Genome, transcriptome, and proteome 645

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646 databases, as well as genetic tools, have been developed for the metal-tolerant isolate O. maius Zn, and they have been 647 instrumental in identifying not only tolerance mechanisms 648 649 already known from other organisms but also novel molecular 650 components and metabolic pathways involved in metal tolerance. Multiple mechanisms likely enable metal-tolerant ERM 651652 fungi to protect themselves and their host plant from toxic compounds. Further use of omics approaches is already in 653 progress to compare metal-tolerant and metal-sensitive ERM 654 655isolates, as well as transcriptomic analyses of the host plant 656 under different conditions. These data will help not only in 657 dissecting the molecular and cellular pathways involved in heavy metal tolerance in ERM fungi, but hopefully also in 658 revealing the mechanisms underlying mycorrhiza-modulated 659 host plant tolerance to heavy metals. 660

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- Q2. "Bolchi 2011" is cited in text but not given in the reference list. Please provide details in the list or delete the citation from the text.
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