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This is the author's manuscript

Original Citation:

Availability:

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1671658> since 2018-07-31T09:14:26Z

Published version:

DOI:10.1016/j.jphotobiol.2018.05.027

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Geomagnetic field impacts on cryptochrome and phytochrome signaling

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18 **ABSTRACT**

19 The geomagnetic field (GMF) is an environmental element whose instability affects plant growth and
20 development. Despite known plant responses to GMF direction and intensity, the mechanism of
21 magnetoreception in plants is still not known. Magnetic field variations affect many light-dependent
22 plant processes, suggesting that the magnetoreception could require light. The objective of this work
23 was to comprehensively investigate the influence of GMF on *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Col-0)
24 photoreceptor signaling. Wild-type *Arabidopsis* seedlings and photoreceptor-deficient mutants
25 (*cry1cry2*, *phot1*, *phyA* and *phyAphyB*) were exposed to near null magnetic field (NNMF, ≤ 40 nT)
26 and GMF (~ 43 μ T) under darkness and different light wavelengths. The GMF did not alter
27 skotomorphogenic or photomorphogenic seedling development but had a significant impact on gene
28 expression pathways downstream of cryptochrome and phytochrome photoactivation. GMF-induced
29 changes in gene expression observed under blue light were partially associated with an alteration of
30 cryptochrome activation. GMF impacts on phytochrome-regulated gene expression could be
31 attributed to alterations in phytochrome protein abundance that were also dependent on the presence
32 of *cry1*, *cry2* and *phot1*. Moreover, the GMF was found to impact photomorphogenic-promoting gene
33 expression in etiolated seedlings, indicating the existence of a light-independent magnetoreception
34 mechanism. In conclusion, our data shows that magnetoreception alters photoreceptor signaling in
35 *Arabidopsis*, but it does not necessarily depend on light.

36
37 **Keywords:** *Arabidopsis thaliana*, cryptochromes, geomagnetic field, light-regulated genes,
38 magnetoreception, photomorphogenesis, phototropins, phytochromes, skotomorphogenesis.

39

1. Introduction

The Earth's magnetic field, or the geomagnetic field (GMF), is an environmental factor characterized by local differences in its magnitude and direction at the Earth's surface as well as polarity changes during the so called GMF reversals, which are always preceded by a reduction in the magnetic field (MF) intensity [1]. Due to its transient instability, the GMF has always been a natural feature able to influence the biological processes of living organisms, including plants. Over the past years, the progress and status of research on the effect of the MF on plants has been reviewed [2]. Interestingly, a correlation has been found between the occurrence of GMF reversals and the speciation of Angiosperms, implying a role for the GMF in plant evolution [1]. Furthermore, artificial reversal of the GMF has confirmed that plants can respond not only to MF intensity but also to MF direction and polarity [3].

One of the most interesting plant responses to GMF variations is the delay in flowering time, especially after exposure of plants to Near Null Magnetic Field (NNMF, ≤ 40 nT) conditions [4, 5]. Along with flowering time alteration, many other light-dependent plant processes appear to be influenced by MF variations including germination, leaf movement, stomatal conductance, chlorophyll content and plant vegetative growth [2, 6]. However, despite a plethora of reports on plant MF effects, the molecular basis underlying plant magnetoreception is still not known. A growing body of evidence supports a possible role for plant photoreceptors in magnetoreception. A better evaluation of MF effects on plant photoreceptor action is therefore warranted given their key role in regulating many aspects of plant development.

Photoreceptors perceive different light quality, quantity and intensity, and control multiple aspects of plant development largely through coordinated changes in gene expression. Despite their wavelength-dependent activation, crosstalk is known to occur between different photoreceptor families, especially photoperiodic flowering and photomorphogenesis [7]. The role of photoreceptors in mediating the response to MF changes has been mainly studied for cryptochrome, because the

65 radical pair mechanism forming the basis of Arabidopsis cryptochrome 1 and 2 (*cry1* and *cry2*) blue
66 light-activation appears to be affected by the external MF [8-10]. Indeed, cryptochrome plays an
67 important role with regards to the NNMF reported delay in flowering [11] and its associated changes
68 in auxin [12] and gibberellin [13] levels. In addition to cryptochrome, phytochrome B (*phyB*)
69 transcription appears to be enhanced by NNMF [4], thus indicating a possible role for this
70 photoreceptor in mediating NNMF-induced flowering delay.

71 MF influences on photomorphogenesis that have been observed under blue light appear to be
72 cryptochrome-dependent in Arabidopsis. However, expression of the photomorphogenesis-
73 promoting transcription factor elongation hypocotyl 5 (*HY5*) is not altered in response to different
74 MF intensities suggesting that the GMF influences other photomorphogenic signaling pathways [14,
75 15]. Besides cryptochromes and phytochromes, phototropins (*phot1* and *phot2*) are also important for
76 optimizing photosynthetic efficiency and promoting plant growth independent of gene expression
77 regulation [16, 17]. Thus, considering that the coordination of light-mediated plant development
78 involves multiple photoreceptors [18] and that the effects of the GMF on gene expression pathways
79 downstream of photoreceptor activation have been poorly explored, the main objective of this work
80 was to comprehensively investigate the influence of the GMF on photoreceptor signaling in
81 Arabidopsis.

82 To discriminate whether the GMF affects specific photoreceptor signaling pathways, we
83 exposed wild-type (WT) Arabidopsis seedlings and *cry1cry2*, *phot1*, *phyA* and *phyAphyB* mutants to
84 GMF and NNMF conditions. Photoreceptor phosphorylation is a primary event [17] associated with
85 cryptochrome, phototropin and phytochrome signaling. We therefore analyzed the influence of the
86 GMF on photoreceptor activation by monitoring their phosphorylation status and protein abundance.
87 Crosstalk between different photoreceptor pathways was also evaluated. To assess whether GMF
88 effects on cryptochrome and phytochrome activation could impact downstream signaling, we
89 evaluated the GMF influence on the expression of photomorphogenesis-promoting genes in addition
90 to photomorphogenic development by exposing WT Arabidopsis and photoreceptor-deficient

91 mutants to NNMF and GMF conditions. Taken together, our data provide further evidence for the
92 impact of the GMF on plant photoreceptor activation and signaling both in the presence and absence
93 of light.

94 **2. Materials and Methods**

95 *2.1. Plant material and growth conditions*

96 *Arabidopsis thaliana* ecotype Columbia-0 (*Col-0*) wild type (WT), *cry1cry2*, *phyA*, *phyAphyB* and
97 *phot1* seeds have been described previously [19]. Seeds were surface sterilized with 70 % v/v ethanol
98 for 2 min and then with 5% w/v calcium hypochlorite for 5 min. After 3-4 washes with sterile water,
99 seeds were sown on the surface of sterile agar plates (12x12 cm) containing half-strength Murashige
100 and Skoog (MS) medium [20]. Plates were vernalized for 48 h and then exposed vertically under a
101 homogenous and continuous light source at $120 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and $21^\circ\text{C} (\pm 1.5)$ before being kept in
102 the darkness at room temperature for 72 h. Plates were then transferred, in the same laboratory and at
103 the same time, under either NNMF (see “GMF control system”) or GMF (controls) and exposed to
104 different light regimes for a variable time (see “Light Treatment”).

105 *2.2. NNMF control system*

106 In order to reduce the GMF to NNMF, we built an octagonal triaxial Helmholtz coils (THC) system
107 which operates as reported earlier [3, 5]. Each pair of coils was connected to a DC power supply (dual
108 range: 0-8V/5A and 0-20V/2.5A, 50W) and to a computer via a GPIB connection. A three-axis
109 magnetometer probe, which was connected to the same computer, was inserted in the middle of the
110 THC. The real-time measurement of $B_{x,y,z}$, at the probe position was achieved by collecting 10 s
111 interval data which were transformed in total B by a software (VEE, Agilent Technologies) as detailed
112 elsewhere [3].

113 2.3. Light sources and treatments

114 Under both GMF and NNMF, white light was provided by a high-pressure sodium lamp source
115 (SILVANIA, Grolux 600W, Belgium), red light by an array of LEDs (SUPERLIGHT, Ultra bright
116 LED, λ 645-665) and blue light by an array of LEDs (SUPERLIGHT, Ultra bright LED, λ 465-475).
117 LED circuitry and spectral analysis is shown in Supporting Figure S1. Plates exposed to continuous
118 darkness were kept in paper boxes internally covered by a black cardboard.

119 Different exposure times and light fluencies were adopted to selectively induce photoreceptor
120 activation. Specifically, to monitor differences in *cry2* degradation, WT, *phyA* and *phyAphyB*
121 seedlings were exposed to $0.5 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ blue light for 8 h in the morning [21]. To evaluate the
122 phosphorylation level of *cry1* and *phot1*, WT, *phot1*, *cry1cry2* and *phyAphyB* seedlings were exposed
123 to $20 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ blue light for 15 min at noon [22]. To evaluate the possible influence of the
124 magnetic field intensity on *phyA* and *phyB* degradation, WT and *cry1cry2* plants were exposed under
125 $60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ red light for 3 h and 9 h, respectively in the morning [23].

126 For gene expression and morphological experiments, WT, *cry1cry2*, *phyAphyB* and *phot1*
127 seedlings were exposed for 72 h to different light regimes, depending on the set up of the experiment:
128 (i) 16-8 h light/darkness long-day white light (LD), (ii) $150 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ continuous white light (CW),
129 (iii) continuous darkness (CD), (iv) $20 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ continuous blue light (BL), and (v) $60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$
130 s^{-1} continuous red light (RL).

131 2.4. Protein extraction and phosphatase treatment

132 Three-day-old etiolated seedlings were harvested after the light treatment (see above) and then ground
133 directly in $100 \mu\text{l}$ 2x SDS buffer. After 4 min of incubation at 100°C , samples were centrifuged at
134 $13,000 \times g$ for 8 min and the supernatant used for SDS-PAGE. To confirm that reduced
135 electrophoretic mobility shifts observed reflected *cry1* and *phot1* phosphorylation, we also examined
136 the effect of λ -phosphatase treatment according to Shalitin et al. [24].

137 2.5. SDS-PAGE and Western Blot analysis

138 Thirty microliters of each sample were loaded on a 7.5% SDS-polyacrylamide (40% Acrylamide/Bis
139 Solution, 37.5:1, Biorad) gel and separated at 200 V for 40 min. Gel-run proteins were transferred on
140 a nitrocellulose membrane at 100 V for 1 h. After 1h blocking in 8% milk, membranes were probed
141 with the following primary antibodies overnight: anti-phyA (Agrisera); anti-phyB [25]; anti-cry1
142 [26], anti-cry2 [27], anti-phot1 [28] and anti-UGPase (Newmarket Scientific, U.K.) as a loading
143 control. Three TBS-T washings of 10 min each were performed before the incubation with the
144 secondary antibodies (anti-rabbit or anti-mouse horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated secondary
145 antibody (Promega, Italy) at room temperature for 1 h. All membranes were developed using Pierce®
146 ECL Plus Western blotting chemiluminescence substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rodano, Italy).
147 Membranes were stripped and re-probed to detect all protein of interest.

148 2.6. Total RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis

149 Arabidopsis WT, *cry1cry2*, *phyAphyB* and *phot1* roots and shoots were separately collected 72 h after
150 each light treatment under GMF and NNMF, immediately frozen in liquid N₂ and kept at -80°C for
151 further analysis. Thirty mg of frozen shoots and 10 mg of frozen roots were ground in liquid nitrogen
152 with mortar and pestle. Total shoot RNA was isolated using the Agilent Plant RNA Isolation Mini
153 Kit (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, US), while total root RNA was isolated using the
154 RNAeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), in accordance with the manufacturer's protocols.
155 RNA quality and quantity were monitored as reported previously [3]. cDNA was synthesized starting
156 from 1 µg RNA using the High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystem, Foster
157 City, CA, US), in accordance with the manufacturer's recommendations. Reaction mixtures were
158 prepared and incubated as already detailed [3].

159 2.7. Quantitative real time-PCR (qPCR)

160 qPCR assays were processed on a Stratagene Mx3000P Real-Time System (La Jolla, CA, USA) using
161 SYBR green I with ROX as an internal loading standard. The reaction mixture was 10 µl, comprising
162 5 µL 2X Maxima™ SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix (Fermentas International, Inc, Burlington, ON,
163 Canada), 0.6 µl 1:5 diluted cDNA and 300 nM primers (Integrated DNA Technologies, Coralville,
164 IA, US). Non-template controls (water template) were included. Primers were designed using Primer
165 3.0 software. Primers used for qPCR are reported in Supporting Table S1. The following genes were
166 analyzed: *ANS* (anthocyanidin synthase, At4g22880), *CHS* (chalcone synthase, At5g13930); *GST*
167 (glutathione S-transferase, At1g1037); *HY5* (elongated hypocotyl 5, At5g11260); *HYH* (HY5-
168 homolog, At3g17609); *LAF1* (MYB domain protein 18, At4g25560); *NDPK2* (nucleoside
169 diphosphate kinase 2, At5g63310); *PIF3* (phytochrome interacting factor 3, At1g09530); *PIN1* (pin-
170 formed 1, At1g73590); *PIN3* (pin-formed 3, At1g70940); *PKS1* (phytochrome kinase substrate 1,
171 At2g02950).

172 Four different reference genes *ACT1* (actin1, At2g37620), *eEF1Balpha2* (elongation factor
173 1b alpha-subunit 2, At5g19510), *TUB5* (tubulin beta-5 chain, At1g20010), *UBP6* (ubiquitin specific
174 protease 6, At1g51710), were initially used to normalize the results of the qPCR. The best of the four
175 genes was selected using the Normfinder software; the most stable gene was *eEF1Balpha2*. PCR
176 conditions used were as follows: *ACT1*, *ANS*, *CHS*, *LAF1*, *NDPK2*, *PIF3*, *PIN1*, *PIN3*, *PKS1*, *TUB5*,
177 *UBP6*: 10 min at 95°C, 45 cycles of 15 s at 95°C, 20 s at 57°C, and 30 s at 72°C, 1 min at 95°C, 30 s
178 at 55°C, 30 s at 95°C; *eEF1Balpha2*: 10 min at 95°C; 45 cycles of 15 s at 95°C, 30 s at 57°C, and 30
179 s at 72°C; 1 min at 95°C, 30 s at 55°C, 30 s at 95°C; *GST*: 10 min at 95°C; 45 cycles of 15 s at 95°C,
180 20 s at 59°C, and 30 s at 72°C; 1 min at 95°C, 30 s at 55°C, 30 s at 95°C; *HYH*: 10 min at 95°C; 45
181 cycles of 15 s at 95°C, 20 s at 58°C, and 30 s at 72°C; 1 min at 95°C, 30 s at 55°C, 30 s at 95°C;
182 *HY5*: 10 min at 95°C; 45 cycles of 15 s at 95°C, 20 s at 56°C, and 30 s at 72°C; 1 min at 95°C, 30 s at
183 55°C, 30 s at 95°C. Fluorescence was read following each annealing and extension phase. All runs

184 were followed by a melting curve analysis from 55°C to 95°C. Primer efficiencies for all primer pairs
185 were calculated using the standard curve method.

186 2.8. Morphological analyses

187 After 72 h treatments, all plates were photographed just before being sampled. All plate images were
188 used to measure hypocotyl and root lengths. Image analysis was performed using ImageJ software.

189 2.9. Statistical analyses

190 All experiments were performed at least three times (three biological replicates) and all data were
191 expressed as mean values with standard deviation. ImageJ software was used to quantify the protein
192 abundance in western blots relative to the loading control UGPase. Significant differences were
193 verified using a Student's t-test. With respect to gene expression experiments, each biological
194 replicate was analyzed using three technical replicates. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness-of-fit test
195 was used to determine the normality of all results. ANOVA followed by a Tukey and Bonferroni
196 *post-hoc* test was used to assess significant differences between treatments and the control. For
197 morphometric measurements, the shoot and root length mean from seedlings on each plate were used
198 in a two-tailed paired t-test analysis to compare the growth of seedlings exposed to the NNMF with
199 those grown simultaneously under GMF conditions. 95% confidence level ($P < 0.05$) was adopted to
200 judge the statistical significance of all our data, using SYSTAT 10.

201 3. Results

202 The availability of a triaxial Helmholtz coils (THC) system that could stably reduce the GMF to
203 NNMF was instrumental for investigating the influence of the GMF on photoreceptor signaling
204 cascade in Arabidopsis and to further assess the role of cryptochrome in magnetoreception.

205 3.1. The GMF enhances *cry1* phosphorylation and *cry2* degradation in response to BL

206 To monitor the GMF influence on photoreceptor signaling, we first investigated whether the GMF
207 can modulate photoreceptor activation levels. Therefore, we evaluated the GMF influence on the blue
208 light receptor signaling, by monitoring *cry1*, *cry2* and *phot1* activation. In WT, *phot1* and *phyAphyB*
209 seedlings exposed to NNMF, *cry1* phosphorylation following exposure to blue light (BL) was
210 practically absent compared to GMF conditions, whereas phosphorylation of the receptor was clearly
211 evident by a detection of a reduced mobility shift (Figure 1, arrow). Under NNMF, a significant ($P <$
212 0.05) reduction in BL-induced *cry2* degradation was also found, thus implying its lower activation
213 level in the absence of the GMF (Figure 2).

214 Having confirmed the influence of the GMF on cryptochrome activation, we then investigated
215 whether the GMF could affect the photoactivation of *phot1*, which also promotes the
216 photomorphogenic responses to BL in addition to cryptochrome [29]. To this purpose, we
217 investigated *phot1* autophosphorylation under BL (Figure 3). We also included cryptochrome and
218 phytochrome mutants to investigate the involvement of these photoreceptors on *phot1* activation in
219 response to changes in the MF. However, our results highlighted the persistence of *phot1*
220 autophosphorylation under NNMF (Figure 3, arrow) as was observed under GMF conditions. We
221 therefore conclude that the MF does not affect *phot1* autophosphorylation and photoactivation.

222 3.2. The GMF reduces *phyA* degradation and increases *phyB* degradation following RL exposure

223 We next investigated whether the GMF could affect red light (RL) signaling in Arabidopsis.
224 Activation of *phyA* and *phyB* results in their proteasome degradation following translocation to the
225 nucleus. RL-induced changes in *phyA* and *phyB* protein abundance was therefore used as a proxy for
226 their activation. After 3 h exposure to RL, *phyA* degradation was significantly ($P < 0.05$) enhanced
227 in WT seedlings exposed to NNMF with respect to GMF (Figure 4), thus indicating increased
228 activation of *phyA* in the presence of NNMF. The enhancement in RL-induced *phyA* degradation
229 under NNMF was less apparent in *cry1cry2* and *phot1* seedlings (Figure 4). These findings therefore

230 suggest that cryptochromes and phot1 may contribute to accelerating phyA degradation under NNMF
231 conditions..

232 With regards to phyB, a significantly ($P < 0.05$) lower level of RL-induced degradation was
233 observed in WT plants under NNMF when compared to GMF conditions (Figure 5). Therefore, phyB
234 activation appears to be attenuated by NNMF conditions. Although RL-induced degradation of phyB
235 was clearly apparent in WT seedlings under GMF conditions, this process did not occur in *cry1cry2*
236 or *phot1* seedlings (Figure 5). These findings therefore suggest that efficient phyB activation under
237 GMF conditions depends on the presence of cryptochromes and phot1.

238 3.3. The GMF impacts *Arabidopsis* gene expression under different light conditions

239 Having assessed the influence of the GMF on cryptochrome and phytochrome activation, we
240 investigated the impact of the GMF on gene expression changes under different light conditions and
241 the dependence of any of these changes on photoreceptor signaling. For these experiments,
242 continuous white light (CW) was used to permanently stimulate both cryptochrome and phytochrome
243 photoreception pathways, whereas BL and RL were used to selectively activate BL-responsive
244 receptors (including cryptochromes) and phytochrome, respectively. Continuous darkness (CD) was
245 also used to assess magnetoreception in the absence of light.

246 To evaluate the impact of the GMF on the expression of photomorphogenic-promoting genes,
247 we analyzed the transcript level of several representative genes that are known to operate downstream
248 of multiple photoreceptors (*HYH*, *HY5* and *LAF1*), genes encoding for factors mainly regulated by
249 phytochrome signals (*PKS1*, *PIF3* and *NDPK2*), anthocyanin biosynthesis genes which are
250 transcriptionally regulated by cryptochrome and phytochrome (*ANS* and *CHS*), genes encoding auxin
251 transporters whose transcriptional regulation is under cryptochrome and phytochrome control (*PIN1*
252 and *PIN3*), and finally genes involved in oxidative stress responses (*GST* and *NDPK2*). Considering
253 that roots appear to be one of the primary sites involved in GMF perception [3], we decided to
254 discriminate root and shoot light-dependent gene expression responses to the GMF.

255 Expression of light-related genes were first evaluated in WT seedlings grown under CW. In
256 order to assess the contribution of the GMF, data were expressed as the difference in fold changes
257 between GMF and NNMF conditions (i.e., GMF/NNMF), by considering NNMF as the control
258 condition where MF has a very low contribution. The GMF prompted a significant ($P < 0.05$) down-
259 regulation of *HYH* and *PKS1* and a significant ($P < 0.05$) up-regulation of *GST* and *ANS* in the shoots
260 of light-grown seedlings (Table 1), whereas in roots, the presence of GMF significantly ($P < 0.05$)
261 down-regulated *HYH*, *HY5*, *NDPK2* and *GST*, and up-regulated *PIN3* (Table 1). MF-induced
262 expression changes were also observed for gene targets that are not regulated by light. For instance,
263 a significant ($P < 0.05$) up-regulation of *HYH* in the shoots and roots of WT seedlings and a significant
264 ($P < 0.05$) down-regulation of *NDPK2* and *LAF1* in the roots was observed in the presence of GMF
265 (Table 1). These data clearly show that alteration in MF conditions can impact the expression of light-
266 and non-light-regulated gene targets.

267 We next assessed whether the above gene expression profiles under GMF or NNMF
268 conditions differed when BL or RL was used instead of CW (Supporting Tables S2 and S3).
269 Moreover, a comparison of gene expression profiles between WT seedlings and different
270 photoreceptor mutants was used to discriminate whether MF-induced changes in gene expression
271 could be attributed to a specific light signaling pathway. To simplify our data presentation, we have
272 only focused on those gene whose differential expression showed a significant ($P < 0.05$) difference
273 in the GMF versus NNMF conditions.

274 Overall, we found that under BL conditions (Figure 6), the changes in the MF impacted the
275 expression of 5 gene targets in the shoot of Arabidopsis seedlings (Figure 6a) and 7 gene targets in
276 the roots (Figure 6b). In the shoots of WT seedlings, expression of *HYH*, *PKS1*, *PIN1* and *PIN3* were
277 down-regulated in GMF versus NNMF conditions, whereas *PIF3* was up-regulated (Figure 6a).
278 Shoots obtained from *cry1cry2* mutant seedlings showed an absence of the down-regulation of *PKS1*
279 under GMF conditions. Likewise, both *PKS1* and *PIN3* expression levels were not significantly
280 affected by the GMF in the shoots of *phot1* seedlings. The *phyAphyB* mutant showed no effect of

281 GMF on the regulation of *PIF3* and *PIN1* in both shoots and roots. In the roots of WT seedlings
282 grown under BL, we found that the expression of *HYH*, *PIF3*, *CHS*, *PIN1* and *PIN3* was upregulated
283 in the presence of GMF versus NNMF, whereas the expression of *PKS1* and *NDPK2* was down-
284 regulated (Figure 6b). In the roots of *cry1cry2* seedlings, *HYH* and *CHS* were not significantly
285 different between GMF and NNMF conditions, whereas, the *phot1* mutant showed no regulation
286 changes for *PKS1*, *PIN1* and *PIN3* under GMF conditions. Finally, the *phyAphyB* mutant showed no
287 GMF associated changes in the regulation for *PKS1* and *PIN3*. Therefore, these gene expression
288 studies performed under BL (Figure 6 and Supporting Table S2) suggest that the GMF has an impact
289 not only on cryptochrome signaling, but also on phot1 and phytochrome signaling.

290 Under RL, we found that changes in the MF could affect the expression of 5 gene targets in
291 the shoots (Figure 7a) and 9 gene targets in the roots of Arabidopsis seedlings (Figure 7b). We
292 therefore conclude that the GMF can impact RL signaling by the phytochromes. In the shoots of WT
293 seedlings, expression of *PKS1*, *PIF3* and *GST* was down-regulated in the presence of GMF versus
294 NNMF, whereas *ANS* and *CHS* were up-regulated. In the shoots of *cry1cry2* mutants, *CHS* and *GST*
295 expression was not significantly affected by changes in the MF under RL conditions. However, the
296 MF changes observed for *PKS1* and *PIF3* expression under RL was lacking in the shoots of the
297 *phyAphyB* mutant, whereas no change in *GST* expression was detected in the shoots of the *phot1*
298 mutant. In the roots of WT seedlings grown under RL, the presence of GMF versus NNMF caused a
299 significant ($p < 0.05$) up-regulation of *LAF1* and a significant down-regulation of the other genes,
300 notably the phytochrome-related factors *PIF3* and *NDPK2* (Figure 7b). When compared to WT
301 seedlings no MF-dependent changes in expression were observed for *CHS* and *PIN3* in the roots of
302 the *cry1cry2* mutant under these light conditions. Likewise, exposure of seedlings to GMF versus
303 NNMF conditions did not alter *PIF3* and *NDPK2* expression in *phot1* mutant plants. *GST* expression
304 was also unaffected by changes in the MF in the roots of the *phyAphyB* mutant. (Figure 7b). Taken
305 together, these gene expression studies performed under RL (Figure 7 and Supporting Table S3) once

again suggest that the presence of the GMF can influence phytochrome, cryptochrome and phot1 signaling.

3.4. Skoto- and Photomorphogenic responses to GMF in *Arabidopsis* seedlings

Having evaluated that the GMF can impact light signaling by modulating both photoreceptor activation and light-dependent gene expression, we verified whether the GMF could affect the establishment of photomorphogenic responses, by measuring light-regulation of shoot and primary root growth. The skotomorphogenic growth phenotype of *Arabidopsis* shoots grown under CD, as well as the photomorphogenic growth under CW were not affected by MF variations (Supporting Figure S2). Similar results were also obtained when WT, *cry1cry2*, *phot1* and *phyAphyB* seedlings were exposed to GMF and NNMF and grown under either BL or RL (Supporting Figure S2). Therefore, we conclude that the GMF is unable to influence dark and light-regulated seedling establishment under the conditions used, despite affecting photoreceptor signaling by altering photoreceptor activation and light-related gene expression.

4. Discussion

During early photomorphogenesis, all photoreceptors play a key role in the genome-wide reprogramming of light signaling [30, 31]. Thereby, the evaluation of the GMF effect on different responses related to this process has been useful to investigate the light dependence of GMF influence on light signaling in *Arabidopsis* and to discriminate photoreceptor involvement in magnetoreception.

4.1. The GMF affects gene expression in a light-dependent and light-independent manner

Our gene expression analyses surprisingly highlight the occurrence of a light-independent response to the GMF in the roots of WT seedlings. In the absence of light (CD), the most highly regulated gene in response to MF changes is *NDPK2* (Table 1), which is involved in the oxidative stress signaling [32]. This result implies the presence of a light-independent root magnetoreception mechanism that

involves an oxidative response. These results are in agreement with our previous studies on GMF reversal [3]. Root light-independent responses to MF variations have been demonstrated in plants under a continuous high gradient MF application, with a magnetophoretic plastid displacement and a consequent induction of root curvature [33]. Therefore, our results indicate the possibility of a light-independent magnetoreception mechanism and further studies are now under way to better understand how roots are involved in magnetoreception.

Our gene expression analyses under continuous white light (CW) revealed a light-dependent influence of the GMF on photomorphogenesis-promoting genes (Table 1). GMF was reported not to influence *HY5* expression in the shoot of 7-day-old seedlings grown under LD conditions [4]. However, we found that the *HY5* expression level in the roots of WT seedlings is affected by the GMF under CW, thus implying a role of active photoreceptors in promoting this process. The observed down-regulation of *HY5* in the shoot might be related to changes in *CHS* transcription, which is regulated by *HY5* during photomorphogenesis [34]. Furthermore, under CW the GMF influence on the expression of auxin signaling (*PIN3*) and anthocyanin biosynthesis (*ANS* and *CHS*) genes could be related not only to changes in the expression of their promoting transcription factors [35, 36] but also to the strong GMF effect on *GST* transcription, whose involvement in the photomorphogenic response is mediated by multiple photoreceptors [37]. Therefore, our results suggest that the light signaling cascade is influenced by the GMF especially under light exposure.

4.2. The GMF influences blue light photoreceptor signaling

In agreement with previous reports [12, 13], we confirmed that the GMF affects gene expression under BL (Figure 6). In contrast to previous studies [15], our analyses showed an influence of the GMF on *CHS* transcripts in roots under BL, thus implying a possible GMF effect on anthocyanin expression levels under this light treatment. In this regard, the influence of BL on anthocyanin production has been already demonstrated at the protein level with MF intensity ten times higher than the GMF (500 μ T) [38]. Moreover, the reduction of *PKSI* expression in the shoot under BL suggest

354 a possible influence of the GMF on this gene, because BL normally enhances *PKS1* expression level
355 [39].

356 In WT plants, the opposite trend in *HYH*, *PIN1* and *PIN3* expression in the shoots compared
357 to the roots underlines a specific organ response to GMF under BL (Figure 6). In particular, the GMF-
358 induced reduction of *PIN1* transcript levels in the shoots is associated with the down-regulation of
359 the bZip transcription factor *HYH* [40] whose expression level is regulated by BL [36]. Conversely,
360 the higher expression level of *PIN1* observed in the roots is associated with the GMF-induced
361 upregulation of *HYH*, whose expression occurs autonomously in the root with respect to the shoot
362 [41].

363 Considering the key role of cryptochrome in promoting photomorphogenesis by modulating
364 auxin signaling and anthocyanin biosynthesis gene expression [42, 43], the GMF-induced regulation
365 of both *PIN1* and *CHS* transcript level (Figure 6) implies a GMF influence on cryptochrome mediated
366 photomorphogenesis. The cryptochrome dependence of GMF regulation of *PIN1* expression is in
367 agreement with previous work on Arabidopsis seedlings grown under BL [12]. *HYH* expression is
368 known to be enhanced by cryptochrome in a BL-dependent manner [40]. The observed cryptochrome-
369 dependent upregulation of *HYH* in the presence of the GMF highlights the possible influence of the
370 GMF on cryptochrome activation. The higher activation levels of cry1 and cry2 in the presence of
371 the GMF could then be directly related to *HYH* and *CHS* upregulation at the root level. We therefore
372 conclude that the gene expression changes detected here in the roots of Arabidopsis under BL could
373 partially depend on the GMF-influence on cryptochrome activation.

374 The finding that cry1 phosphorylation was practically absent in WT, *phot1* and *phyAphyB*
375 mutant lines exposed to BL under NNMF conditions (Figure 1) is in contrast with the recent results
376 that report a lack of difference in cry1 phosphorylation between NNMF and GMF [38]. However, in
377 our experiments, we used a higher fluence rate of BL that allowed us to visualize the GMF influence
378 on cry1 phosphorylation. Our findings also suggest that this impact of the GMF on cry1
379 phosphorylation occurs independently from phot1 and phytochrome. However, cryptochrome

380 magneto-sensitivity in plants has been hypothesized to play a crucial ecological role by affecting
381 cryptochrome signaling especially under low BL, such as those tested on cry2 activation [44]. In this
382 regard, NNMF conditions almost abolish cry2 degradation, independent of phytochrome signaling
383 (Figure 2). BL is known to reduce cry2 phosphorylation under NNMF [38]. Moreover, cry2
384 degradation is faster under a MF higher than the GMF [14], probably because of the increase in cry2
385 phosphorylation rate under high MF intensities [38].

386 Although there is little evidence to date to suggest that phot1 is involved in regulating gene
387 expression [40], our data highlight that *PKS1* and *PIN3* regulation in the both the roots and shoots of
388 *Arabidopsis* is partly dependent on phot1 in a GMF-dependent manner (Figure 6). In this regard,
389 *PKS1* expression is known to be regulated by BL via phyA to mediate phototropic bending by phot1
390 [39], while *PIN3* is involved in establishing phototropic curvature both in the shoot [45] and in the
391 root [46]. However, the persistence of phot1 phosphorylation under NNMF conditions (Figure 3)
392 indicates that the GMF appears not to affect phot1 signaling by changing phot1 phosphorylation and
393 therefore its activation level.

394 Despite the minimal role of phyA in mediating BL regulation of gene expression [40], we
395 observed a phytochrome-mediated regulation of *PIF3* and *PIN1* in the shoots and *PKS1* and *PIN3* in
396 the roots the presence of the GMF (Figure 6). Interestingly, phyA is known to induce *PKS1*
397 transcription under BL [39]. Therefore, the phytochrome-related change in *PKS1* expression level
398 suggests the influence of the GMF on the phytochrome signaling under blue light.

399 4.3. The GMF influences red light photoreceptor signaling

400 The present study also shows that gene expression is affected by the GMF not only under BL, but
401 also under RL (Figure 7). The observed GMF regulation of *HY5*, *LAF1*, *PKS1* and *PIF3*, whose gene
402 expression is specifically connected to RL [47], implies that the GMF may affect phytochrome
403 signaling. Moreover, RL treatment induced the regulation of genes related to auxin signaling and
404 anthocyanin biosynthesis, which confirms a GMF effect on genes targeted by *PIF3*, *HY5* and *LAF1*

transcription factors during photomorphogenesis [35, 48]. Although *GST* transcript levels are influenced by BL [37], our results shows that the GMF modulates the expression of *GST* in shoots and roots only under RL, thus suggesting the existence of a possible *GST*-specific RL-dependent magnetoreception mechanism.

The opposite trend of *CHS* expression changes observed in the roots versus the shoots under GMF conditions (Figure 7) suggests that different response pathways exist in these two organs, particularly under RL. Furthermore, the absence of GMF-induced changes in *HY5* expression levels in the shoot appears to exclude the possible interference of shoot-localized *HY5* on the abundance of *HY5* transcripts in the roots, as recently reported [49].

The gene expression data obtained for *phyAphyB* seedlings additionally suggest that the GMF impacts on phytochrome signaling (Figure 7). In particular, the observed down-regulation of *PKS1* expression in the shoots might be phyA-dependent, since this gene is known to be specifically regulated by phyA under red light [47]. Moreover, the observed down-regulation of *GST* in the root could also be phyA-dependent, since phyB does not influence *GST* transcription under RL [37]. By contrast, the up-regulation of *CHS* under GMF versus NNMF conditions could to be dependent on phyB. The impact of phytochrome on *CHS* expression is known to be phyB-dependent under RL and is induced by PIF3-promoted degradation [35]. Our western blot analysis suggests that these changes in gene expression could be, in part mediated by the GMF influence on phytochrome activation. Indeed, our data indicates that the GMF appears to positively affect phyB activation and negatively affect phyA activation (Figures 4 and 5).

Our results suggest that GMF-mediated alterations in phytochrome signaling may also dependent on cryptochromes and phot1 despite the fact that these photoreceptors are not activated by RL. We found the presence of cryptochromes influenced the GMF-induced expression changes of *PKS1*, *CHS* and *GST* in the shoots of Arabidopsis seedlings, as well as the expression of *NDPK2*, *CHS* and *PIN3* in the root (Figure 7). Moreover, our data suggest that the presence of phot1 contributes to GMF-mediated changes in the expression of *PIF3*, *NDPK2* and *GST* both in the roots

and shoots of *Arabidopsis* seedlings under RL (Figure 7). The GMF regulation of some genes is dependent on phot1 or cryptochromes as is the case for *GST*, whose expression has been already reported to be influenced by the cryptochrome under RL [37]. For other genes such as *PKS1*, *PIN3* and *CHS* the regulation also involves phyA and phyB. Interestingly, the GMF-mediated changes in phytochrome activation levels seem to require the presence of cry1, cry2 and phot1 (Figures 4 and 5). Therefore, the effect of the GMF on phytochrome regulated genes may result from a modulation of phytochrome activation status that is also dependent on cryptochrome and phot1 signaling. Although *Arabidopsis* seedlings respond to the GMF under both dark and light conditions by altering photoreceptor signaling, we found that the GMF does not affect *Arabidopsis* skotomorphogenic and photomorphogenic development, at least under the conditions examined in the present study.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, the results of this work highlight for the first time the influence of the GMF on photoreceptor signaling both under red and blue light. Overall, despite the absence of a GMF-induced changes in *Arabidopsis* seedling photomorphogenesis, our studies reveal a significant GMF-dependent differential shoot/root regulation of genes expressed following photoreceptor activation after 72 h exposure to GMF with respect to NNMF conditions. Under BL, the GMF regulation of gene expression appears to be partially dependent on cryptochrome activation, which is enhanced in terms of increased cry1 phosphorylation and cry2 degradation. Under RL, the GMF-dependent regulation of light-induced genes is partially mediated by phyA and phyB, whose activation is altered by cry1, cry2 and phot1 in their inactive form (Figure 8). Moreover, considering that the RL response to GMF is not limited to phyA and phyB [50], the contribution of other phytochromes to this response cannot be excluded. Therefore, despite the involvement of cryptochrome, and the possibility of a cryptochrome-based radical pair mechanisms, magnetoreception in *Arabidopsis* appears to be different from the mechanism thought to be responsible for the ability of migratory songbirds to detect the direction of the geomagnetic field. Our data also support the hypothesis for a possible light-

457 independent root magnetoreception mechanism. Therefore, *Arabidopsis* magnetoreception alters
458 photoreceptor signaling, but that is does not necessarily depend on light. Other processes besides
459 photoreceptor activation are probably involved in GMF perception and studies are under way to better
460 evaluate this aspect.

461

462 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

463 The authors are grateful to Davide Patono and Cinzia M. Berteà for technical assistance. This work
464 was supported by the School of Pharmaceutical and Biomolecular Sciences of the University of Turin
465 Italy, by a grant from the University of Turin local research (to M.E.M.) and for funding support from
466 the UK Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BB/M002128/1 to J.M.C.). We
467 are indebted to Akira Nagatani, Margaret Ahmad, Alfred Batschauer and Tatsuya Sakai for
468 antibodies.

469 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

470 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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603

604 **Table 1.** GMF-dependent shoot and root gene expressions in 3-day-old etiolated *Arabidopsis* WT

605 seedlings grown for 72 h under either GMF or NNMF conditions using different light conditions.

606 Data are expressed as fold changes (mean \pm SD) with respect to NNMF (i.e., GMF/NNMF).

607

<i>Function</i>	<i>Gene</i>	<i>CD</i>		<i>CW</i>	
		<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Root</i>	<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Root</i>
<i>Transcription</i>	<i>HYH</i>	2.00 (\pm 0.00)	1.45 (\pm 0.36)	-1.58 (\pm 0.06)	-1.41 (\pm 0.12)
<i>factors regulated</i>	<i>HY5</i>	-1.35 (\pm 0.47)	1.22 (\pm 0.19)	1.08 (\pm -0.13)	-1.61 (\pm 0.06)
<i>by COP1/SPA1</i>	<i>LAF1</i>	n.e.	-1.30 (\pm 0.09)	n.e.	1.06 (\pm -0.16)
<i>complex</i>					
<i>Phytochrome-related factors</i>	<i>PKS1</i>	-1.28 (\pm 0.03)	-1.08 (\pm 0.11)	-1.91 (\pm 0.03)	1.23 (\pm -0.15)
	<i>PIF3</i>	1.32 (\pm 0.26)	1.08 (\pm 0.1)	-1.10 (\pm 0.12)	-1.07 (\pm 0.18)
	* <i>NDPK2</i>	-1.50 (\pm 0.26)	-3.42 (\pm 0.51)	1.14 (\pm -0.17)	-2.09 (\pm 0.35)
<i>Anthocyanin</i>	<i>ANS</i>	n.e.	1.11 (\pm 0.19)	3.85 (\pm -1.04)	-1.02 (\pm 0.12)
<i>biosynthesis</i>	<i>CHS</i>	n.e.	1.16 (\pm 0.41)	-1.43 (\pm 0.13)	-1.70 (\pm 0.13)
<i>Auxin signaling</i>	<i>PIN1</i>	-1.03 (\pm 0.04)	1.22 (\pm 0.09)	-1.09 (\pm 0.41)	-1.17 (\pm 0.07)
	<i>PIN3</i>	1.72 (\pm 0.48)	1.02 (\pm 0.04)	1.01 (\pm -0.2)	1.25 (\pm -0.05)
<i>Oxidative response</i>	<i>GST</i>	-1.59 (\pm 0.44)	-1.59 (\pm 0.44)	2.04 (\pm -0.17)	-2.68 (\pm 1.01)

608

609 Boldfaced numbers indicate a significant ($P < 0.05$) difference between NNMF and GMF treatment.

610 CD, continuous darkness; CW, continuous white light; n.e.= not expressed; *= this gene is also

611 associated to the oxidative response.

612

613 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

614 Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the supporting information tab for this
615 article.

616

617

Accepted manuscript

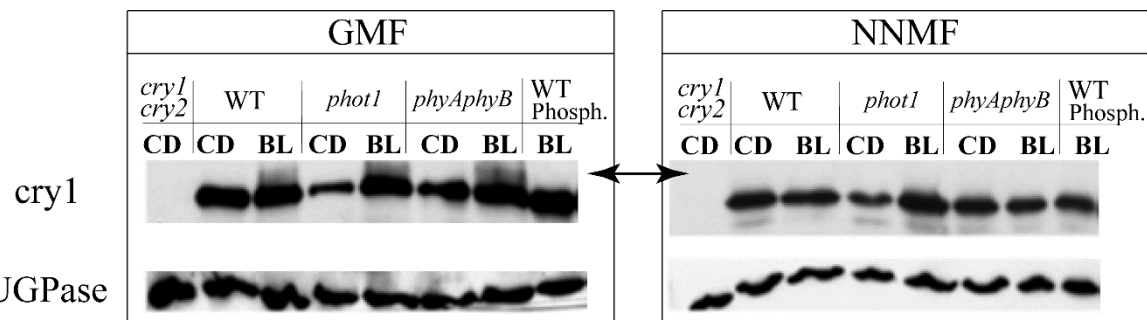


Figure 1. *cry1* phosphorylation level in 3-day-old WT, *phot1* and *phyAphyB* etiolated seedlings exposed to either GMF or NNMF conditions and grown either in continuous darkness (CD) or under 20 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ blue light (BL) for 15 min. Arrows indicate the position of the phosphorylated *cry1* protein. Phosph., phosphatase treatment. UGPase, loading control.

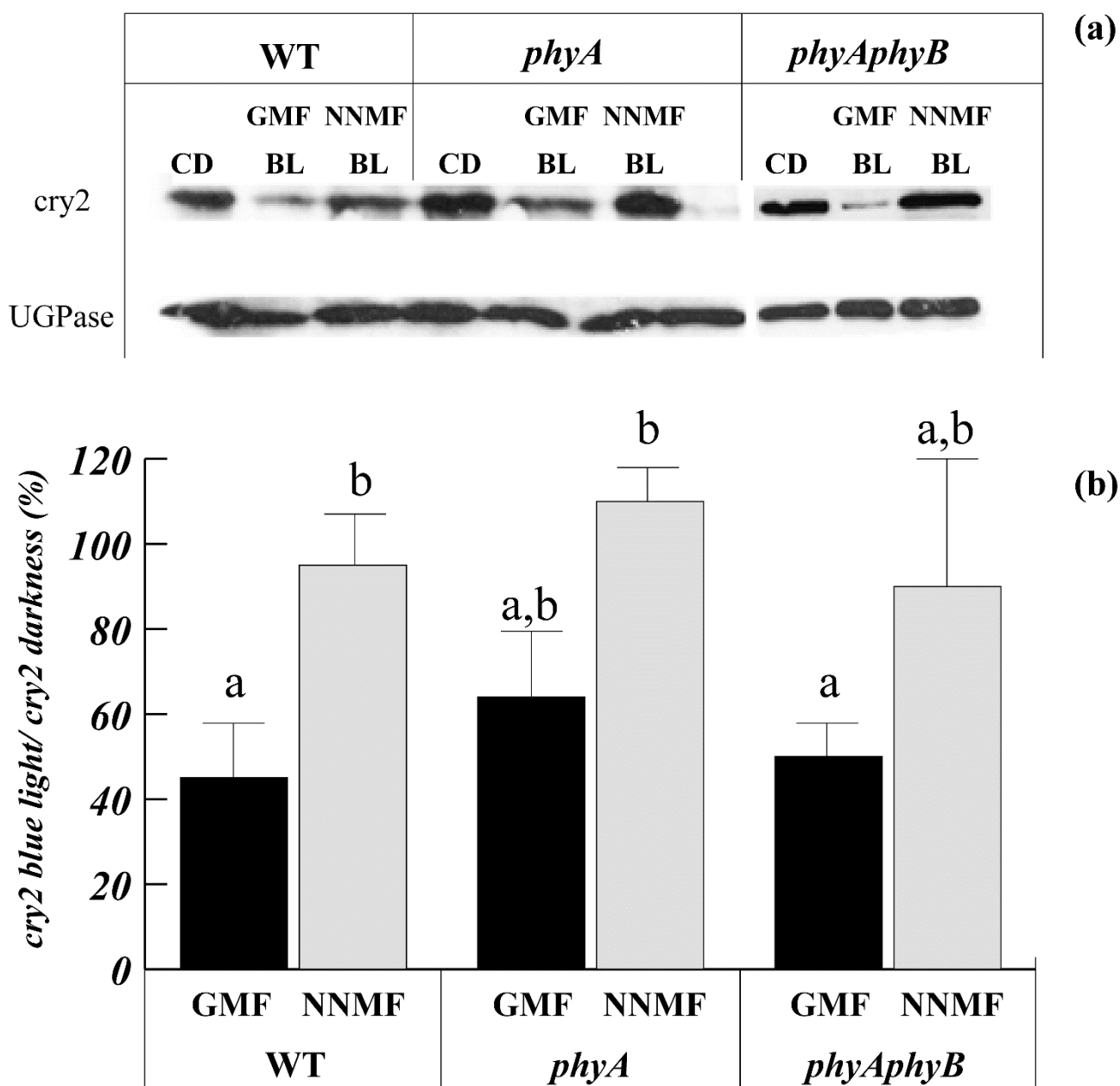


Figure 2. cry2 degradation in 3-day-old WT, *phyA* and *phyAphyB* etiolated seedlings exposed to either GMF or NNMF conditions under either continuous darkness (CD) or 0.5 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ blue light (BL) for 8 h. (a) Western blot analysis with anti-cry2 antibody and anti-UGPase antibody. (b) Western blot image analysis expressed as the percentage of cry2 protein quantity after the blue light treatment with respect to dark controls. Bars indicate SD. Different letters in the same group indicate significant ($P < 0.05$). differences.

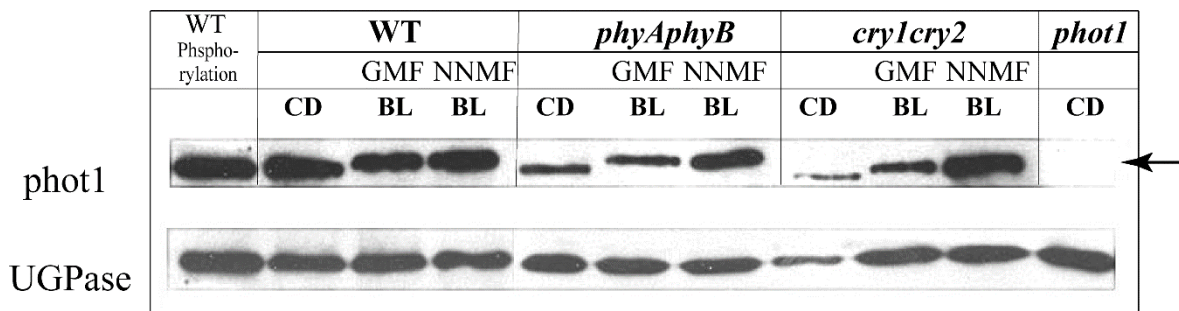


Figure 3. *phot1* phosphorylation in 3-day-old WT, *phot1*, *phyAphyB* etiolated seedlings exposed to either GMF or NNMF conditions under either continuous darkness (CD) or 20 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ blue light (BL) for 15 min. The arrow indicates the position of the phosphorylated protein. UGPase, loading control.

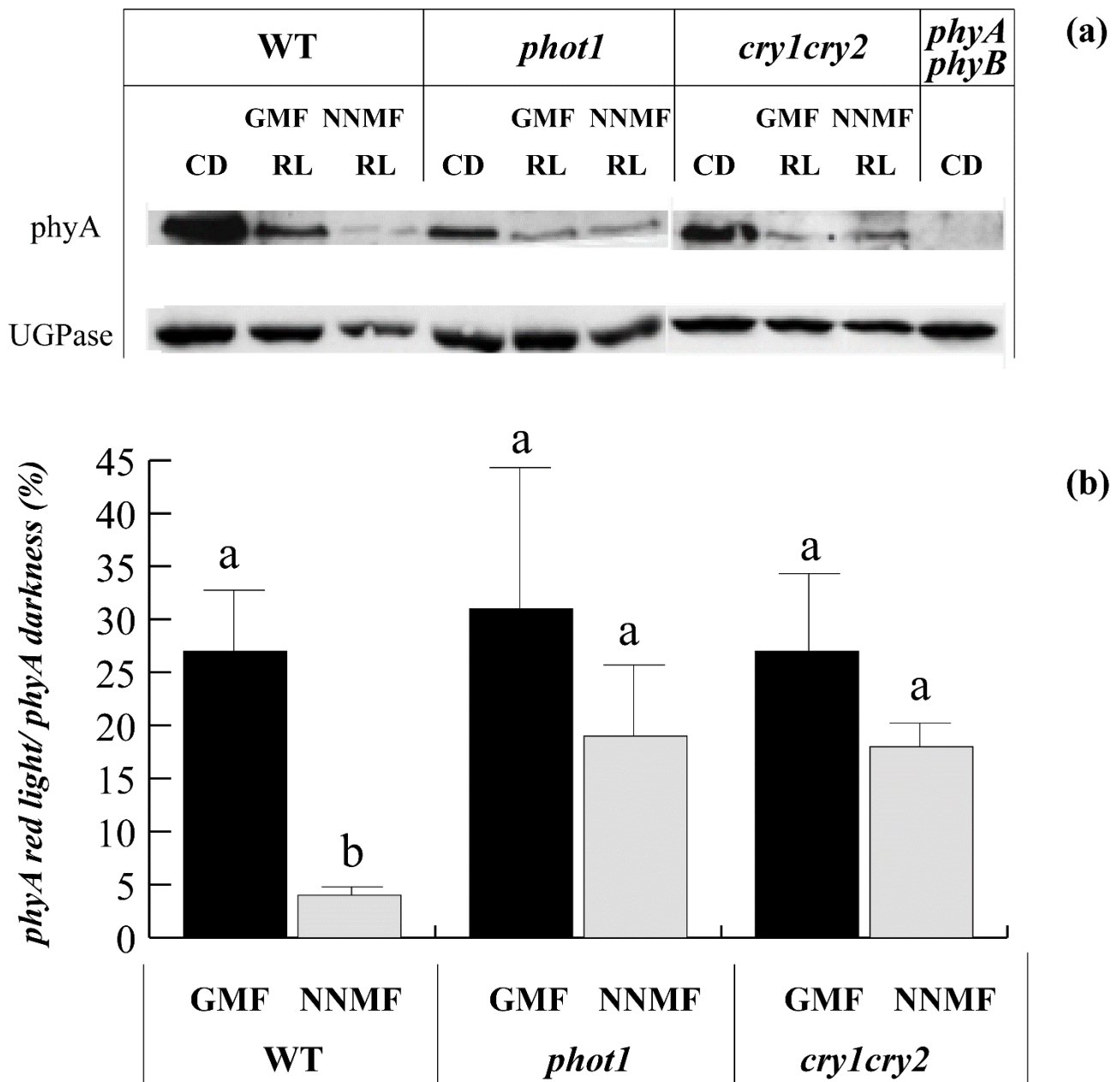


Figure 4. *phyA* degradation in 3-day-old WT, *phot1*, *cry1cry2* and *phyAphyB* etiolated seedlings exposed to either GMF or NNMF conditions under either continuous darkness (CD) or 60 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ red light (RL) for 3 h. (a) Western blot analysis with anti-*phyA* antibody and anti-UGPase antibody. (b) Western blot image analysis expressed as the percentage of *phyA* protein quantity after the red-light treatment with respect to dark controls. Bars indicate SD. Different letters in the same group indicate significant ($P < 0.05$). differences.

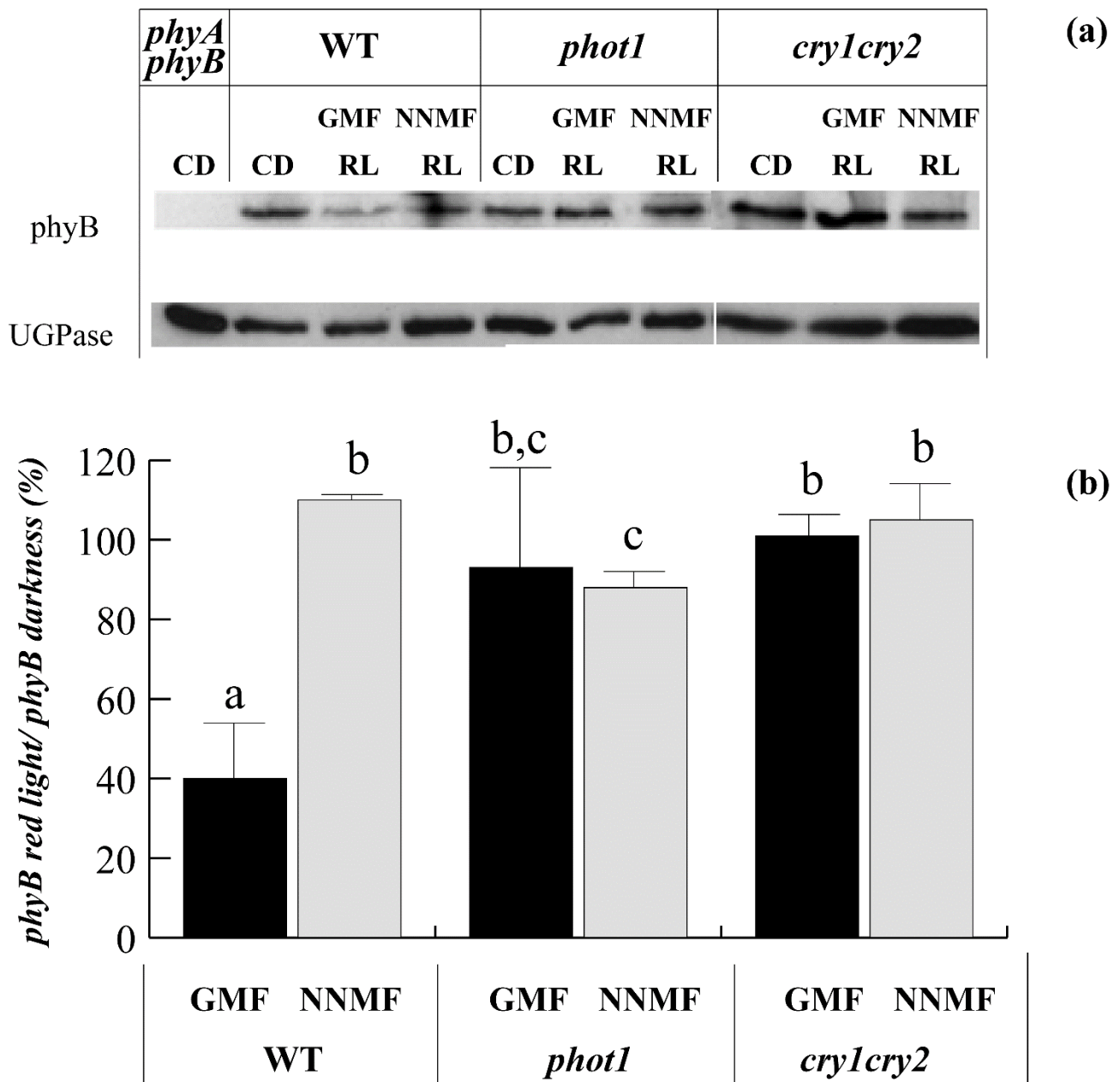
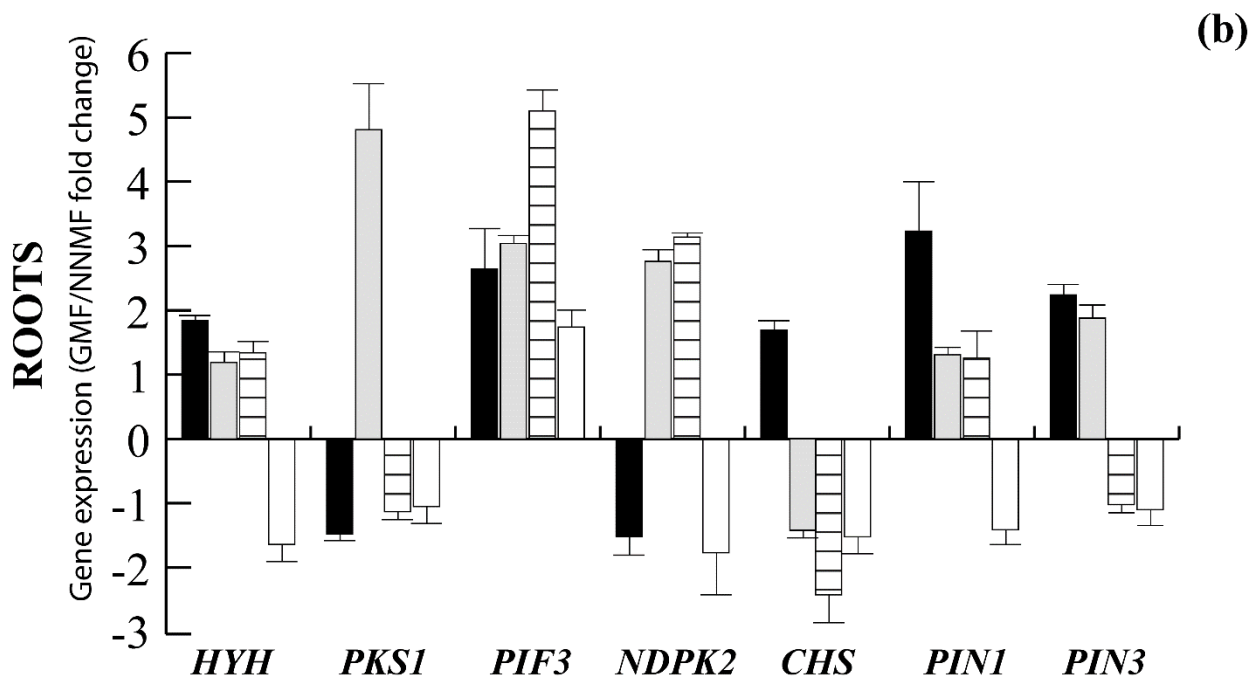
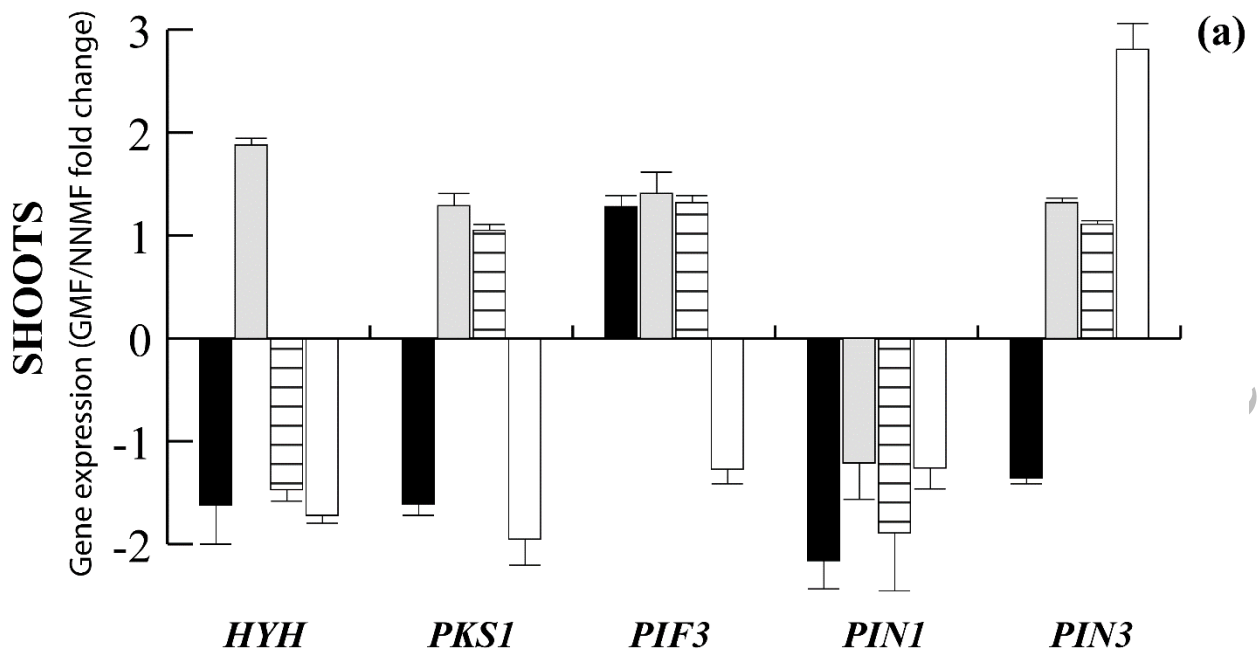
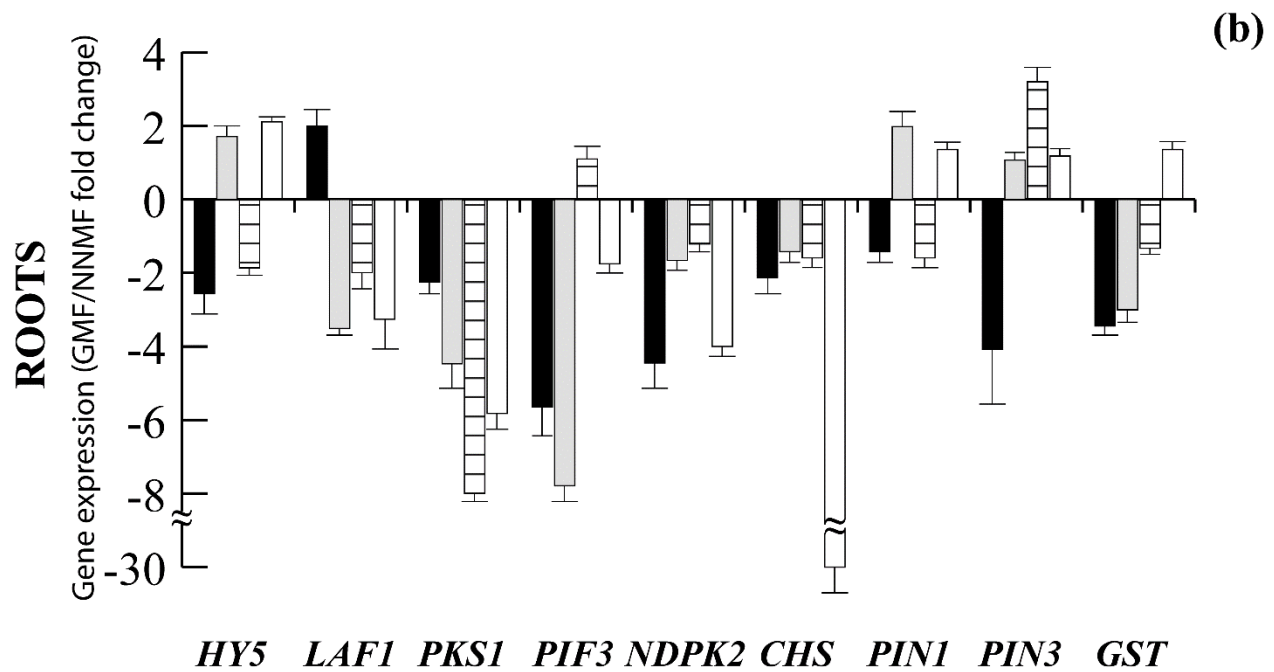
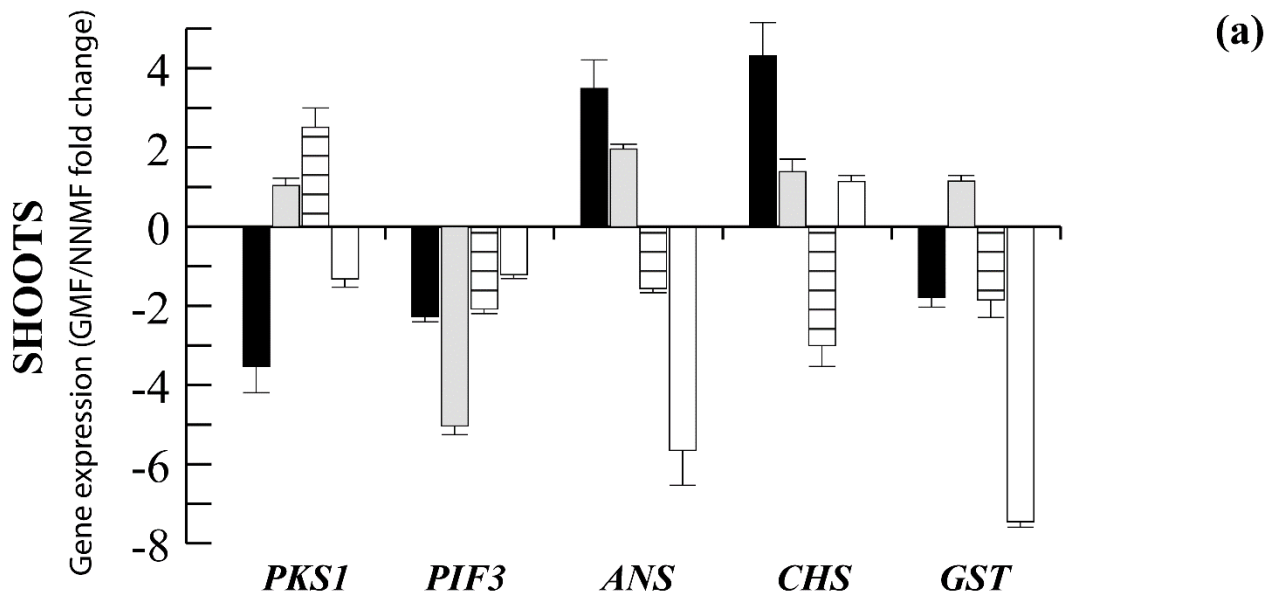


Figure 5. phyB degradation in 3-day-old WT, *phot1*, *cry1cry2* and *phyAphyB* etiolated seedlings exposed to either GMF or NNMF conditions under either continuous darkness (CD) or 60 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ red light (RL) for 3 h. (a) Western blot analysis with anti-phyB antibody and anti-UGPase antibody. (b) Western blot image analysis expressed as the percentage of phyB protein quantity after the red-light treatment with respect to dark controls. Bars indicate SD. Different letters in the same group indicate significant ($P < 0.05$). differences.



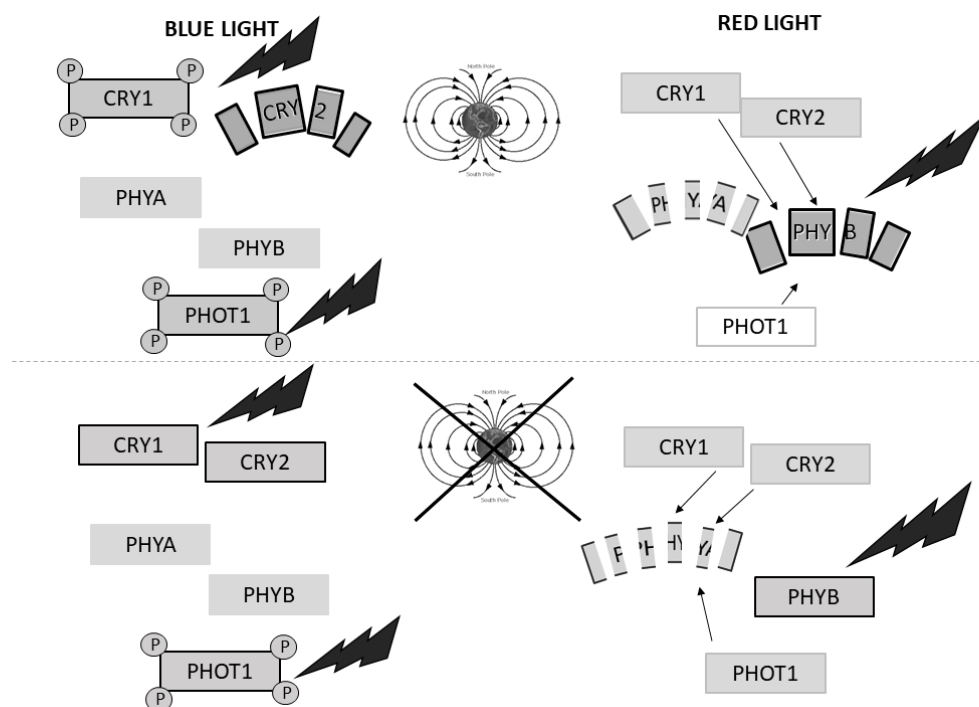
WT
 cry1cry2
 phot1
 phyAphyB

Figure 6. GMF effects on the expression of gene targets in either the shoots (a) or roots (b) of 3-day-old etiolated *Arabidopsis* WT, *cry1cry2*, *phot1* and *phyAphyB* seedlings grown for 72 h in the presence of GMF or NNMF conditions under continuous blue light. Data are expressed as fold changes (mean \pm SD) with respect to NNMF conditions (i.e., GMF/NNMF). Bars indicate SD.



WT
 cry1cry2
 phot1
 phyAphyB

Figure 7. GMF effect on the expression of gene targets in either the shoots (a) or roots (b) of 3-day-old etiolated *Arabidopsis* WT, *cry1cry2*, *phot1* and *phyAphyB* seedlings grown for 72 h in the presence of GMF or NNMF conditions under continuous red light. Data are expressed as fold changes (mean \pm SD) with respect to NNMF conditions (i.e., GMF/NNMF). Bars indicate SD.



665

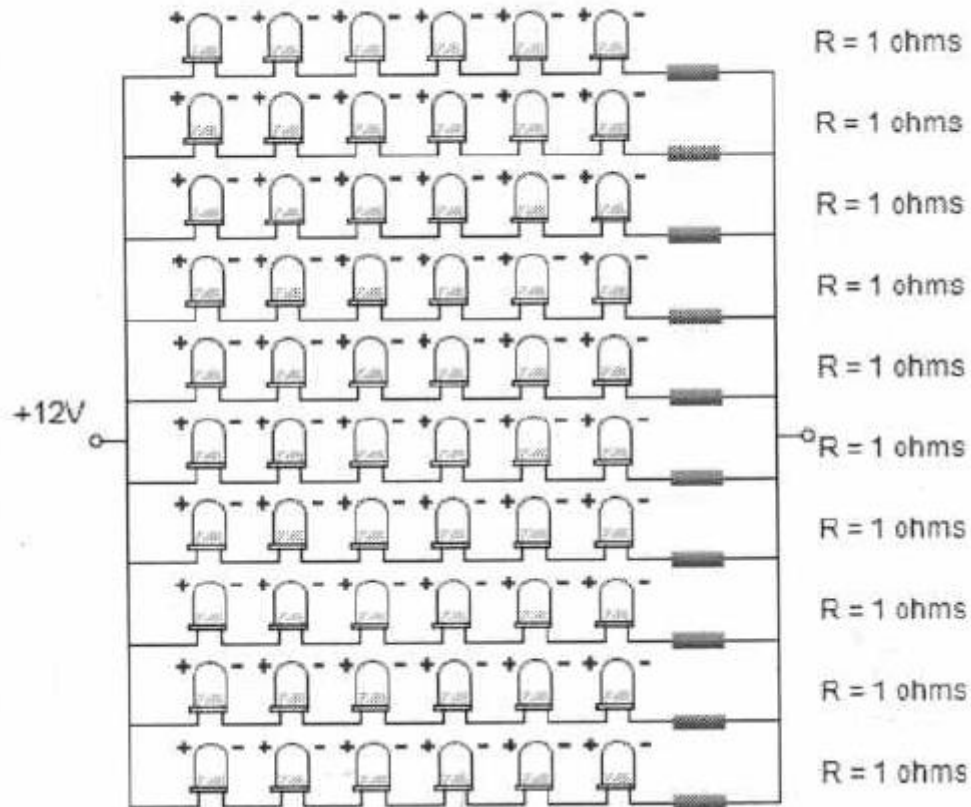
666 **Figure 8.** Geomagnetic field influence on photoreceptor activation and signaling. Under blue light,
 667 the GMF regulation of gene expression is mainly dependent on cryptochromes, whose activation is
 668 enhanced in terms of increased cry1 phosphorylation and cry2 degradation. By contrast, phot1
 669 phosphorylation is not affected by the GMF. Under red light, cry1 and phot1 in their inactive form
 670 contribute to the GMF-dependent increase in phyB activation and the GMF-dependent decrease in
 671 phyA: phyB degradation is indeed enhanced by the GMF, whereas that of phyA is enhanced under
 672 NNMF conditions.

673

Supplementary Figure S1. Circuitry and spectral analysis of LEDs

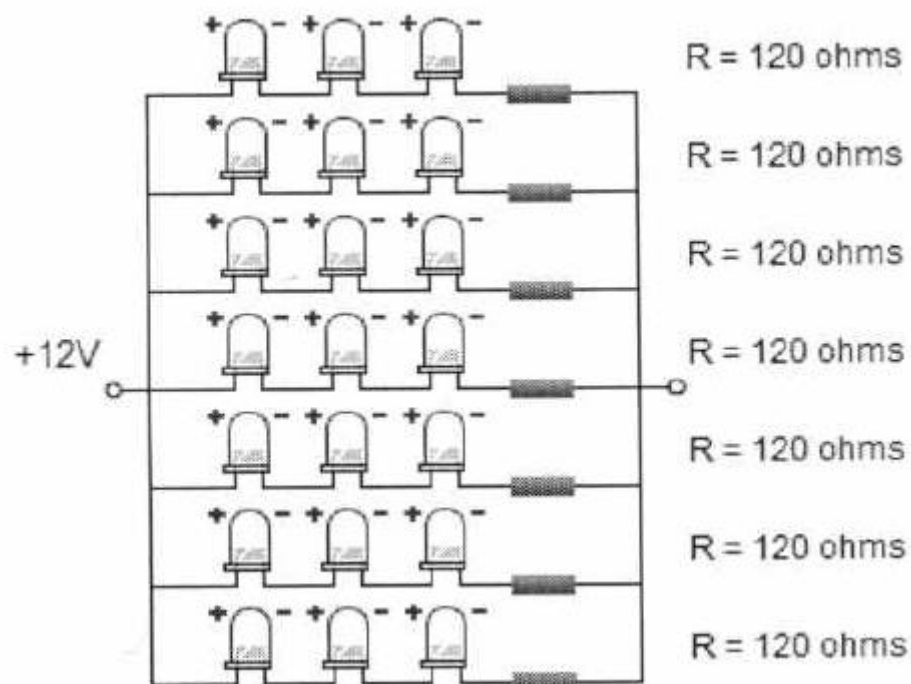
LEDs were arranged in arrays as depicted below, according to the manufacturer's instructions. Red LEDs were assembled using the following scheme:

Solution 0: 6 x 10 array uses 60 LEDs exactly

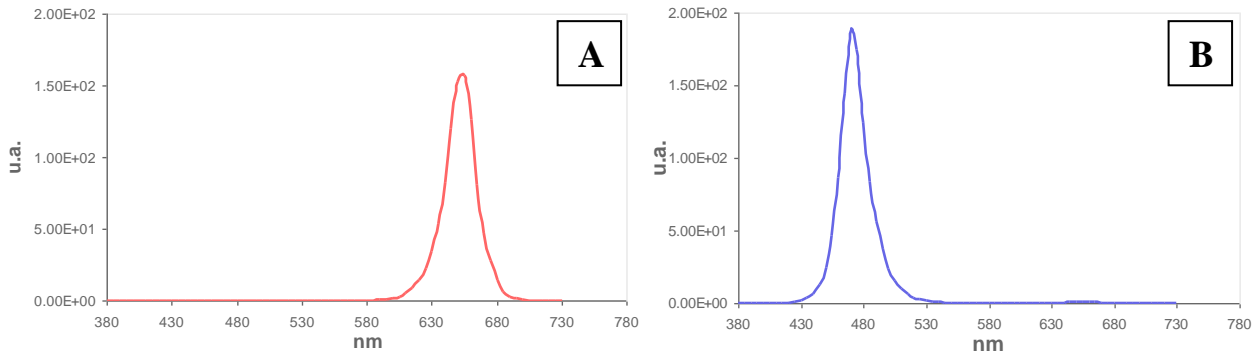


Blue LEDs were assembled using the following scheme:

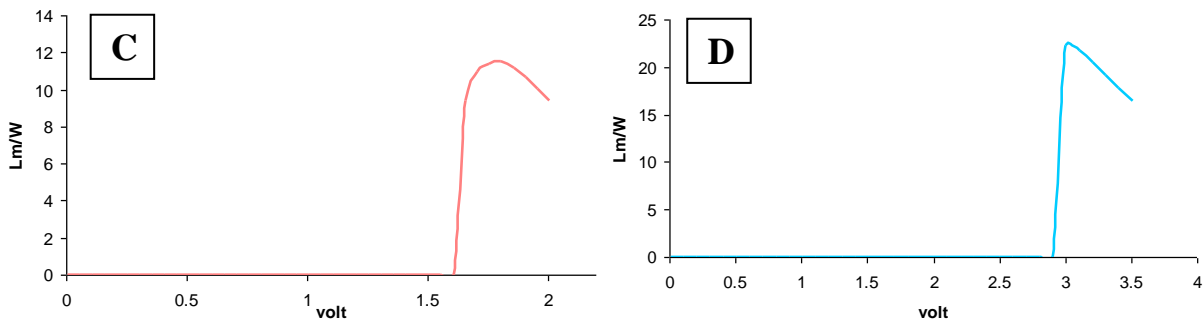
Solution 0: 3 x 7 array uses 21 LEDs exactly



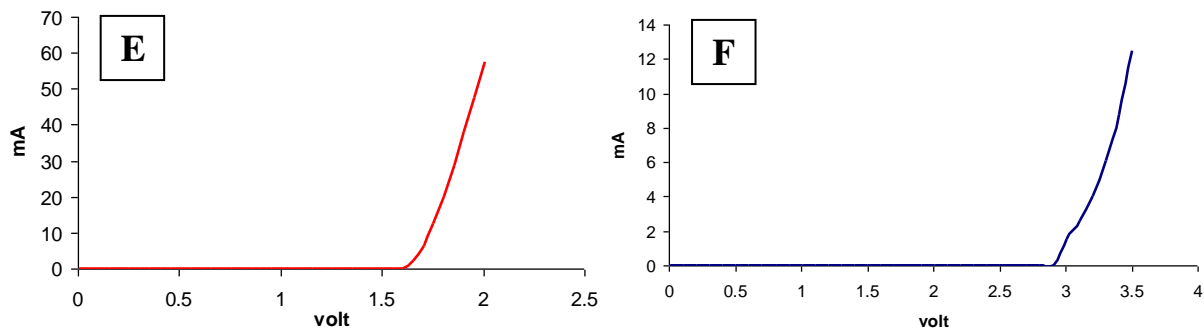
The determination of the emission wavelength was accomplished by means of spectroradiometry by measuring the radiation emitted on a white plane and directly from the LEDs. The red LEDs showed a peak emission at 655 nm (Figure A), whereas blue LEDs had a peak emission at 470 nm (Figure B) (u.a., arbitrary units).



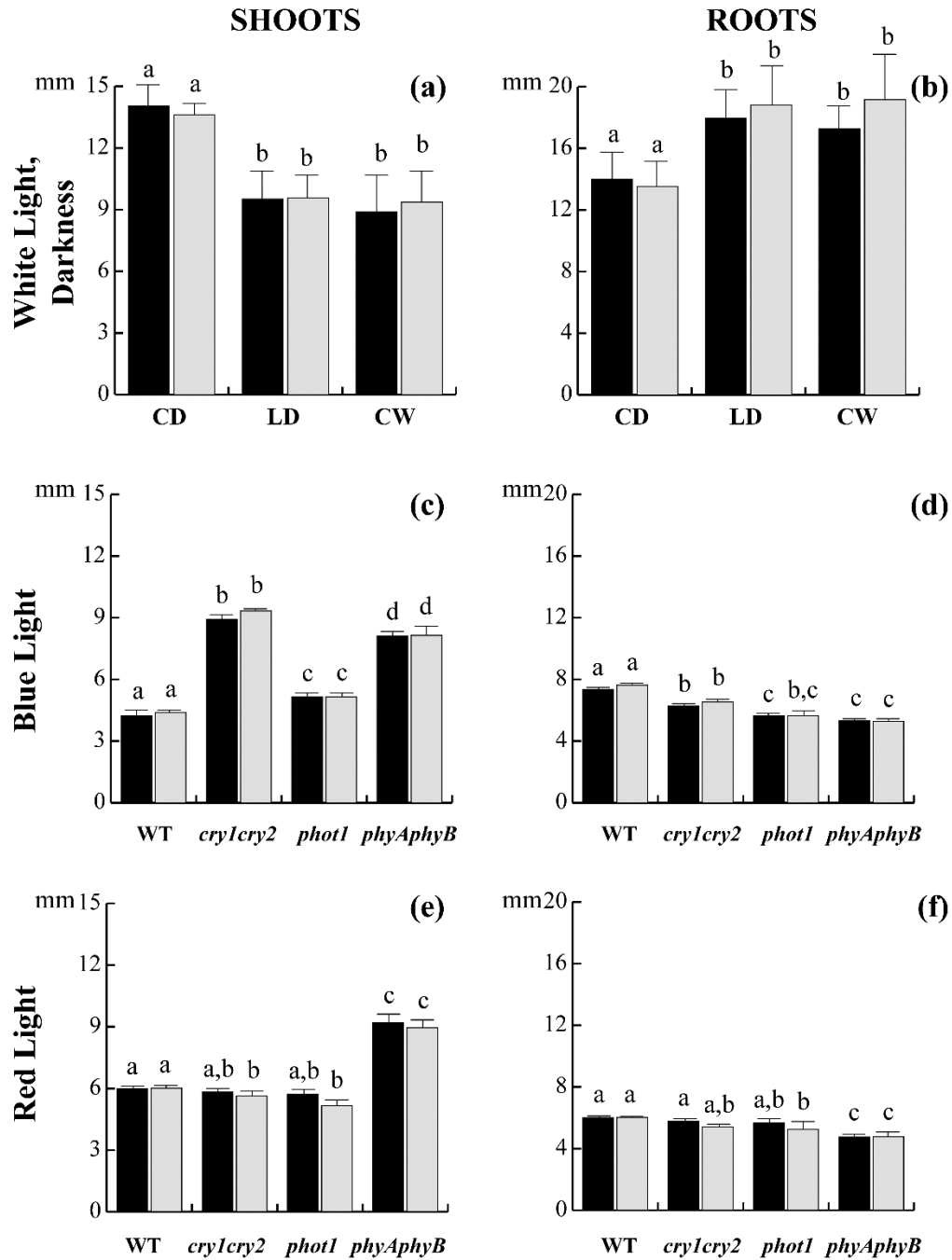
The light efficiency was measured on individual LEDs by using an integrating sphere. The luminance, expressed as Lm W^{-1} as a function of the applied tension, is shown for red LEDs (Figure C) and for blue LEDs (Figure D).



Figures E and F, show the $I V^{-1}$ ratio values as a function of applied tension in red and blue LEDs, respectively.



Supporting Figure S2



Morphometric measurements of *Arabidopsis thaliana* WT, *cry1cry2*, *phot1* and *phyAphyB* mutant line seedlings grown under different light conditions for 72 h either in the GMF (black columns) or NNMF (grey columns) conditions. (a) WT shoots, (b) WT roots, (c) blue light exposed shoots, (d) blue light exposed roots, (e) red light exposed shoots, (f) red light exposed roots.

Lengths are reported as mean values (bars indicate SD). CD (continuous darkness); LD (Long -day white light); CW (continuous white light). Different letters in the same group indicate significant ($P < 0.05$) differences.

Supplementary Table S1. Primers used in quantitative real time PCR experiments

Gene code	Gene	Forward primer (5'-3')	Reverse primer (5'-3')
At4g22880	<i>ANS</i>	CTAACAACGCGAGTGGACAA	ACCGACAGAGAGAGCCTTGA
At5g13930	<i>CHS</i>	GGCTCAGAGAGCTGATGGAC	CATGTGACGTTTCCGAATTG
At5g15840	<i>CO</i>	ATTCTGCAAACCCACTTGCT	CCTCCTTGGCATCCTTATCA
At1g68050	<i>FKF1</i>	CTAAGGTCAGGGGAGGCATAC	ACAGTTGCGAAGGAGAGTGAA
At1g10370	<i>GST</i>	AACCGGTGAGTGAGTCCAAC	AGCGACAAACCACTTTTCGT
At3g17609	<i>HYH</i>	TGATGAGGAGTTGTTGATGG	TGTTGCGCTGATACTCTGTT
At5g11260	<i>HY5</i>	ATCAAGCAGCGAGAGGTCAT	CGACAGCTTCTCCTCCAAAC
At4g25560	<i>LAF1</i>	ATGGCGAAGACGAAATATGG	GCTTTGATGGGAACAGTGGT
At2g18915	<i>LKP2</i>	CGATGCTCTTGAACCTGACA	CCT TGAAACTCGATGCCATT
At5g63310	<i>NDPK2</i>	TCCGTCTTTTCTCTCGCAAT	TGCTCCTCAGCCAATTCTTT
At1g09530	<i>PIF3</i>	GACTATGGTGGACGAGATCCCTAT	GACAGTAACAGGAGACGACACATC
At1g73590	<i>PIN1</i>	AACCACCACGCCGAATTACTC	CACCGTCCGTTGCCAATACT
At1g70940	<i>PIN3</i>	GCCGAAGCAAGTCAACGAAA	AGCGACGAGAGCCCAAATAA
At2g02950	<i>PKS1</i>	TTGGTGTGTTTGGAGCTGAG	GAGTCGACGACGGTTCTCTC
	<i>Housekeeping genes</i>		
At2g37620	<i>ACT1</i>	TGCACTTCCACATGCTATCC	GAGCTGGTTTTGGCTGTCTC
At5g19510	<i>eEF1Balpha2</i>	ACTTGTACCAGTTGGTTATGGG	CTGGATGTACTCGTTGTTAGGC
At1g20010	<i>TUB5</i>	TGAATGCATGGTCCTCGACA	GCAAGTCACACCGCTCATTGT
At1g51710	<i>UBP6</i>	GAAAGTGGATTACCCGCTG	CTCTAAGTTTCTGGCGAGGAG

Supporting table 2. GMF contribution to **hypocotyl** and **root** gene expressions of 3-day-old etiolated *Arabidopsis* **WT**, *cry1cry2*, *phot1* and *phyaphyb* seedlings grown for 72 h under either GMF or NNMF conditions using **blue** light exposition. Data are expressed as fold changes (mean \pm SD) with respect to NNMF conditions (i.e., GMF/NNMF).

<i>Function</i>	<i>Gene</i>	WT		<i>cry1cry2</i>		<i>phot1</i>		<i>phyAphyB</i>	
		<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Root</i>	<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Root</i>	<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Root</i>	<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Root</i>
<i>Transcription factors regulated by COP1/SPA1 complex</i>	<i>HYH</i>	-1.62 (\pm 0.37)	1.84(\pm0.08)	1.88 (\pm0.06)	1.19(\pm 0.18)	-1.47(\pm0.11)	1.34(\pm0.09)	-1.71(\pm0.10)	-1.64(\pm0.21)
	<i>HYS</i>	1.07(\pm 0.20)	1.14(\pm 0.13)	-1.22(\pm 0.33)	-1.16(\pm 0.07)	1.05(\pm 0.07)	-1.56(\pm0.04)	1.37(\pm0.20)	1.66(\pm0.06)
	<i>LAF1</i>	n.e.	1.07(\pm 0.32)	n.e.	-1.13(\pm 0.22)	n.e.	1.44(\pm 0.20)	n.e.	1.18(\pm 0.32)
<i>Phytochrome-related factors</i>	<i>PKS1</i>	-1.61 (\pm 0.10)	-1.48(\pm0.07)	1.29 (\pm0.11)	4.81(\pm0.76)	1.05(\pm 0.08)	-1.13(\pm 0.06)	-1.95(\pm0.39)	-1.05(\pm 0.19)
	<i>PIF3</i>	1.28 (\pm 0.07)	2.64(\pm0.51)	1.41 (\pm0.26)	3.04(\pm0.06)	1.32(\pm0.10)	5.10(\pm0.31)	-1.27(\pm 0.17)	1.74(\pm0.18)
	* <i>NDPK2</i>	-1.12(\pm 0.39)	-1.52(\pm0.29)	-1.16(\pm 0.17)	2.16(\pm0.19)	-1.14(\pm 0.11)	3.14(\pm0.03)	-2.17(\pm0.31)	-1.77(\pm0.60)
<i>Anthocyanin biosynthesis</i>	<i>ANS</i>	1.11(\pm 0.33)	1.17(\pm 0.10)	-1.01(\pm 0.48)	1.77(\pm 0.81)	1.12(\pm 0.09)	1.65(\pm 0.72)	1.34(\pm 0.13)	1.15(\pm 0.21)
	<i>CHS</i>	1.67(\pm 0.81)	1.69(\pm0.14)	5.44(\pm 4.53)	-1.42(\pm 0.12)	1.23(\pm 0.21)	-3.83(\pm0.32)	1.11(\pm 0.30)	-2.16(\pm0.25)
<i>Auxin signaling</i>	<i>PIN1</i>	-2.16 (\pm 0.36)	3.23(\pm0.87)	-1.21 (\pm 0.43)	1.31(\pm0.04)	-1.89(\pm0.10)	1.26(\pm 0.24)	-1.26(\pm 0.25)	-1.41(\pm0.22)
	<i>PIN3</i>	-1.36 (\pm 0.03)	2.24(\pm0.06)	1.32 (\pm0.01)	1.88(\pm0.17)	1.11(\pm 0.01)	-1.02(\pm 0.08)	2.81(\pm0.30)	-1.10(\pm 0.18)
<i>Oxidative response</i>	<i>GST</i>	1.24(\pm 0.27)	1.16(\pm 0.51)	-1.23(\pm 0.39)	-1.20(\pm 0.09)	-1.76(\pm0.29)	1.05(\pm 0.07)	1.23(\pm0.10)	1.03 (\pm 0.04)

Boldfaced numbers indicate a significant ($p < 0.05$) difference between NNMF and GMF treatment; *= this gene is associated to the oxidative response either.

Supporting Table S3. GMF-dependent shoot and root gene expressions in 3-day-old etiolated *Arabidopsis* WT, *cry1cry2*, *phot1* and *phyaphyb* seedlings grown for 72 h under either GMF or NNMF conditions using red light. Data are expressed as fold changes (mean \pm SD) with respect to NNMF conditions (i.e., GMF/NNMF).

<i>Function</i>	<i>Gene</i>	WT		<i>cry1cry2</i>		<i>phot1</i>		<i>phyAphyB</i>	
		<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Root</i>	<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Root</i>	<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Root</i>	<i>Shoot</i>	<i>Root</i>
<i>Transcription factors regulated by COP1/SPA1 complex</i>	<i>HYH</i>	-2.03(\pm0.89)	-2.05(\pm0.73)	-2.21(\pm0.48)	7.65(\pm1.65)	-2.53(\pm0.55)	1.92(\pm0.22)	-1.51(\pm0.15)	-5.33(\pm0.78)
	<i>HYS</i>	-1.02(\pm 0.47)	-2.56(\pm0.74)	-1.17(\pm 0.14)	1.71(\pm0.18)	-2.53(\pm0.54)	-1.86(\pm0.13)	2.55(\pm0.41)	2.11(\pm0.09)
	<i>LAF1</i>	n.e.	2.00(\pm0.38)	n.e.	-3.51(\pm0.15)	n.e.	-1.99(\pm0.34)	n.e.	-3.26(\pm0.90)
<i>Phytochrome-related factors</i>	<i>PKS1</i>	-3.53(\pm0.67)	-2.25(\pm0.58)	1.04 (\pm 0.17)	-4.47(\pm0.45)	2.51(\pm0.35)	-8.00(\pm0.29)	-1.32(\pm 0.10)	-5.82(\pm0.41)
	<i>PIF3</i>	-2.27(\pm0.14)	-5.64(\pm1.05)	-5.03 (\pm0.21)	-7.79(\pm0.62)	-2.08(\pm0.18)	1.10(\pm 0.18)	-1.21(\pm 0.16)	-1.75(\pm0.12)
	* <i>NDPK2</i>	0.96(\pm 0.05)	-4.45(\pm0.70)	-1.41(\pm 0.10)	-1.66(\pm0.19)	-3.63(\pm0.72)	-1.21(\pm 0.09)	-12.56(\pm1.07)	-4.00(\pm0.26)
<i>Anthocyanin biosynthesis</i>	<i>ANS</i>	3.49(\pm0.72)	n.e.	1.96 (\pm0.06)	n.e.	-1.56(\pm0.04)	n.e.	-5.65(\pm0.84)	n.e.
	<i>CHS</i>	4.31(\pm0.65)	-2.13(\pm0.43)	1.39 (\pm 0.31)	-1.42(\pm0.24)	-3.00(\pm0.46)	-1.29(\pm 0.13)	1.14(\pm 0.14)	-30.97(\pm3.09)
<i>Auxin signaling</i>	<i>PIN1</i>	1.56(\pm 0.57)	-1.42(\pm0.24)	-1.16(\pm 0.16)	1.98(\pm0.38)	-2.14(\pm0.31)	-1.59(\pm0.18)	-1.38(\pm0.05)	1.36(\pm0.09)
	<i>PIN3</i>	1.30(\pm 0.26)	-4.08(\pm1.57)	-1.21(\pm 0.08)	1.07(\pm 0.08)	-4.09(\pm0.81)	3.20(\pm0.16)	1.16(\pm 0.06)	1.18(\pm 0.09)
<i>Oxidative response</i>	<i>GST</i>	-1.78(\pm0.40)	-3.44(\pm0.21)	1.15 (\pm 0.11)	-3.00(\pm0.34)	-1.85(\pm0.44)	-1.33(0.10)	-7.45(\pm0.16)	1.36(\pm0.07)

Boldfaced numbers indicate a significant ($p < 0.05$) difference between NNMF and GMF treatment.; n.e.= not expressed; *= this gene is also associated to the oxidative response.