

# Root fungal endophytes improve the growth of antarctic plants through an enhanced nitrogen acquisition

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Mutualistic symbiosis with fungal endophytes has been suggested as a possible mechanism for extreme environment colonization by Antarctic vascular plants. Fungal endophytes improve plant stress tolerance and performance by increasing plant hormone production and the uptake of water and nutrients. However, there are still gaps regarding the mechanisms by which these process occur. This work explores the role of root fungal endophytes in the production of exolytic enzymes involved in endophyte-mediated mineralization and nutrient uptake, as well as their impact on the performance of Antarctic plants. Hence, we evaluated the ability of fungal endophytes isolated from the two native Antarctic vascular plants, *Colobanthus quitensis* and *Deschampsia antarctica*, to enzymatically degrade different nutrient sources, mediate nitrogen mineralization and enhance growth of the host plant. Single-spore derived isolates were identified using molecular and morphological approaches. *Penicillium chrysogenum* and *Penicillium brevicompactum* were identified as the dominant root endophytes in *C. quitensis* and *D. antarctica*, respectively. Root endophytes exhibited hydrolytic and oxidative enzymatic activities involved in carbohydrate or protein breakdown and phosphorus solubilization. In addition, the rates and percentages of nitrogen mineralization, as well as the final total biomass were significantly higher in *C. quitensis* and *D. antarctica* individuals with root endophytes relative to those without endophytes. Our findings suggest that root endophytes exert a pivotal ecological role based not only on their capability to breakdown different nutrient sources but also accelerating nitrogen mineralization, improving nutrient

acquisition and promoting plant growth in limited nutrient soils in Antarctic terrestrial ecosystems

1 **ROOT FUNGAL ENDOPHYTES IMPROVE THE GROWTH OF ANTARCTIC PLANTS**  
2 **THROUGH AN ENHANCED NITROGEN ACQUISITION**

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4 **Running head: N mineralization and hydrolytic-oxidative enzymes from root Antarctic**  
5 **endophytes**

6

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29

30 **ABSTRACT**

31 Mutualistic symbiosis with fungal endophytes has been suggested as a possible mechanism for  
32 extreme environment colonization by Antarctic vascular plants. Fungal endophytes improve plant  
33 stress tolerance and performance by increasing plant hormone production and the uptake of water  
34 and nutrients. However, there are still some gaps regarding the mechanisms by which these  
35 processes occur. This work explores the role of root fungal endophytes in the production of  
36 exolytic enzymes involved in endophyte-mediated nitrogen mineralization and nutrient uptake, as  
37 well as their impact on the performance of Antarctic plants. Hence, we evaluated the ability of  
38 fungal endophytes isolated from the two native Antarctic vascular plants, *Colobanthus quitensis*  
39 and *Deschampsia antarctica*, to enzymatically degrade different nutrient sources, mediate nitrogen  
40 mineralization and enhance growth of the host plant. Single-spore derived isolates were identified  
41 using molecular and morphological approaches. *Penicillium chrysogenum* and *Penicillium*  
42 *brevicompactum* were identified as the dominant root endophytes in *C. quitensis* and *D. antarctica*,  
43 respectively. Root endophytes exhibited hydrolytic and oxidative enzymatic activities involved in  
44 carbohydrate or protein breakdown and phosphorus solubilization. In addition, the rates and  
45 percentages of nitrogen mineralization, as well as the final total biomass, were significantly higher  
46 in *C. quitensis* and *D. antarctica* individuals with root endophytes relative to those without  
47 endophytes. Our findings suggest that root endophytes exert a pivotal ecological role based not  
48 only on their capability to breakdown different nutrient sources but also accelerating nitrogen  
49 mineralization, improving nutrient acquisition and promoting plant growth in limited nutrient soils  
50 in Antarctic terrestrial ecosystems.

51

52 **Keywords:** fungal endophytes, *Penicillium*, enzymes, mineralization, nitrogen uptake, Antarctic  
53 vascular plants.

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55 **INTRODUCTION**

56

57 Microbial endophytes are defined as symbiotic microorganisms capable of migrate into the plant  
58 endosphere, colonizing healthy plant tissues inter-and/or intracellularly and persisting for the  
59 whole or part of the life cycle without cause disease symptoms in the host plant (Porrás-Alfaro et  
60 al 2011; Hardoim et al 2015). In mutualistic symbiosis, microbial endophytes can enhance nutrient  
61 acquisition and transfer, promote growth, increase reproductive success, confer biotic defense or  
62 abiotic stress tolerance to their host plant (Bacon and White 2000; Hardoim et al 2015; Bacon and  
63 White 2016). For example, it has been proposed that the interaction between both, plant and  
64 mycorrhiza (van der Heijden et al. 2008) and plant and microbial endophytes (Rodríguez et al.  
65 2009) is a key factor for the performance and survival of plants in terrestrial ecosystems (Mandyam  
66 and Jumpponen 2005). Nevertheless, in cold-stressed habitats, where mycorrhizas are usually  
67 absent, fungal endophytes frequently act as the main root mutualistic symbionts (Mandyam and  
68 Jumpponen 2005; Upson et al. 2009).

69 Root-associated dark septate endophytes (DSE) share numerous similarities with  
70 mycorrhizal; nevertheless, most endophytes do not have an obligate biotrophic life stage and live  
71 at least part of their life cycle away from the plant (Mandyam and Jumpponen 2005; Newsham  
72 2011). The mechanisms for plant colonization and the nature of the symbiosis are poorly  
73 understood when compared with mycorrhizal fungi (Saikkonen 2007). In this context, the ability  
74 of fungal endophytes to transfer nutrients to the host is a relatively new discovery and the  
75 mechanisms of this transfer are unknown (Behie et al. 2012, 2014). Previous reports have  
76 demonstrated that fungal endophytes are able to produces extracellular enzymes and use different  
77 sources of carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus suggesting that fungal endophytes can access to and

78 process organic nutrient pools (Caldwell et al. 2000, Mandyam et al. 2010). Since almost all plants  
79 in natural ecosystems appear to be symbiotic with fungal endophytes (Rodriguez et al. 2009), it is  
80 important to investigate the potential role of root fungal symbionts in nutrient uptake and transfer  
81 (Behie et al. 2014) as well as their impact on the adaptation of symbiotic plants to stressful  
82 environments characterized by nutrient shortage.

83 The Antarctic continent represent one of the most stressful environments on Earth for plant  
84 life (Pointing et al 2015) entirely covered by permanent ice and snow, with only 2-3% of its surface  
85 area available for plant colonization and development (Convey et al. 2008). It is subject to severe  
86 environmental conditions, including cold temperatures and shortage of water and organic nutrients  
87 (carbon, organic matter, nitrogen and phosphorus) in its acidic soils (Convey et al. 2011, Convey  
88 et al. 2014). In these extreme conditions, only two native vascular plants, *Colobanthus quitensis*  
89 (Antarctic pearlwort) and *Deschampsia antarctica* (Antarctic hairgrass) occur naturally (Lewis-  
90 Smith 2003).

91 In Antarctic terrestrial ecosystems, nitrogen (N) supply regulates primary productivity,  
92 then the ability to acquire N at an early stage of availability is relevant to the success of  
93 photosynthetic organisms (Hill et al. 2011). The accumulation of faeces from penguins in rookeries  
94 (ornithogenic soils) represents an abundant source of organic nitrogen (Lindeboom 1984), which  
95 is mineralized for the benefit of Antarctic plants by soil microbial activities (Roberts et al. 2009).  
96 Nevertheless, in areas where there are low inputs of animal faeces, plants are largely dependent on  
97 organic nitrogen, which enters the soil as protein, in the form of short peptides (Hill et al. 2011).  
98 Thus, the growth of Antarctic plants may be limited both by slow rates at which proteins are  
99 decomposed to amino acids, as well as by low nitrogen mineralization rates to ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ )  
100 and nitrates ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ), the main forms in which antarctic plants are able to acquire and use this



101 nutrient (Rabert et al. 2017). But despite these limitations, antarctic plants are able to take up  
102 organic nitrogen directly either as peptides or amino-acids, conferring a key advantage for the  
103 acquisition of limiting nutrients in this stressful ecosystem (Hill et al. 2011).

104 Upson and coworkers (2009) reported the activity of DSE root-endophytic fungi in the  
105 nitrogen uptake involving organic nitrogen sources (mainly peptides), thus pointing out a possible  
106 second route of nitrogen assimilation. In this context, the role of these endophytes in litter protein  
107 breakdown and amino-acid mineralization could appear to be determinant for nitrogen acquisition.  
108 However, besides the study of Upson et al. (2009) and Hill et al. (2011) with *Deschampsia*  
109 *antarctica*, this complementary route for nitrogen acquisition has been seldom evaluated, for  
110 which the involved mechanism remains unknown for other species like *Colobanthus quitensis*.

111 To date, there have been few attempts to characterize the exolytic enzyme production  
112 mediated by fungal endophytes and its impact on the nutrient uptake process (but see, Mandyam  
113 and Jumpponen 2005; Mandyam et al. 2010). In fact, as far away we know, this mechanism has  
114 not been evaluated among antarctic vascular plants. Accordingly, the present study aims: *i*) to  
115 identify dominant root fungal endophytes associated with both native antarctic vascular plants, *ii*)  
116 to evaluate the ability of antarctic fungal endophytes to produce enzymatic extracellular machinery  
117 able to degrade the main nutrient sources, *iii*) to test the ability of plant-endophyte partnership to  
118 mineralize nitrogen, and *iv*) to assess the effect of fungal endophytes on growth of *C. quitensis* and  
119 *D. antarctica*.

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124 **METHODS**

125

126 *Isolation and identification of fungal endophytes*

127 We count with the authorization given by Chilean Antarctic Institute (INACH) to collect all these  
128 plants (authorization number: 1060/2014). Plants of *D. antarctica* and *C. quitensis* were collected  
129 from sites around of the Antarctic Polish Station “Henryk Arctowski” on King George Island,  
130 South Shetland Islands (62°09’S; 58°27’W during growing season (January 2013-2014). The study  
131 site corresponds to a fringe parallel to coast line (Western shore of Admirantly Bay, King George  
132 Island) with smooth slopes, influence of salt spray, abundant sandy substrate. This site experiences  
133 prevailing northwest winds which generate a high evaporative demand for plant and substrates  
134 with low water availability (Kozeretska et al. 2010; Molina-Montenegro et al. 2013). In these  
135 coastal areas, the ocean is the primary source of mineral salts and contributes to the salinity of  
136 freshwater bodies and soils (Kozeretska et al. 2010). Vegetation in this area is typical of the  
137 Maritime Antarctic ice-free soils and dominated mainly by flowering plants such as *D. antarctica*  
138 and *C. quitensis*, with these species occupying fairly large area adjacent to the cost line.

139 For isolation of root-inhabiting fungi, individual plants from *D. antarctica* and *C. quitensis*,  
140 were sampled and surface sterilized with bleach (0.5% active ingredient sodium hypochlorite) for  
141 1 min, washed with sterile water and treated with 70% alcohol for 2 min followed by several  
142 washes with sterile distilled water. The root fragments were cultured on agar water (1.5%) and  
143 incubated up to two months at 25 °C in darkness. Roots were routinely observed under a dissecting  
144 microscope, and the emerging fungi were transferred onto cornmeal agar and potato dextrose agar  
145 (CMA; PDA; Becton Dickinson & Co, Maryland). Single-spore derived isolates were obtained,  
146 purified and maintained by routine sub-culturing. After incubation and growing on solid media

147 plates, individual cultures were stored at 4°C. Additionally, mycelia pieces were kept in sterile  
148 glycerol at -80°C for long-term preservation. Colonies growing out from individual root fragments  
149 were identified according to taxonomical keys (Kieffer and Morelet 2000). Afterwards, the identity  
150 of single-spore derived fungal isolates was confirmed using molecular tools as described below.

151 The frequency of root fungal endophytes (FFE) was calculated according to the following  
152 formula:  $[(Nrc / Nra) \times 100]$ , where Nrc and Nra, are the number of roots from which fungi were  
153 independently isolated and the total number root fragments analyzed, respectively (Rosa et al.  
154 2010). The relative isolation frequency (RIF) corresponds to a measure of abundance of each of  
155 the fungal endophytes calculated by the following formula: percentage abundance of single fungal  
156 endophyte = (occurrence of single fungal endophyte x 100 / occurrence of total fungal endophytes)  
157 (Hoff et al. 2004). The values of relative isolation frequency (RIF) were considered to determine  
158 the most abundant fungal morphotypes in *D. antarctica* and *C. quitensis*.

159 The most abundant single-spore derived isolates from each Antarctic plant were used in  
160 the subsequent experiments including screening of enzymatic activities and nitrogen  
161 mineralization assays. The inoculum of fungal isolate was derived from single spore fungal isolates  
162 cultured on potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium diluted ten times and supplemented with 50–100  
163 mg/ml of ampicillin, tetracycline, and streptomycin. Fungal cultures were incubated at 22 °C with  
164 a 12 h light regime. After 5–14 days of growth, conidia were harvested from plates by adding 10  
165 ml of sterile water and gently scraping off spores with a sterile glass slide. The spore suspension  
166 was adjusted to 100 ml of 0.05% Tween-80, sterilized solution, filtered through four layers of  
167 sterile cotton cheesecloth gauze and spore concentration adjusted to  $10^7$ – $10^8$  spores/ml.

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169

170 ***Extracellular enzymes activities***

171 Extracellular hydrolytic and oxidative enzymatic activities were assayed in solid media using five  
172 Petri dishes plates per assay (Krishnam et al. 2016). A basal medium composed of mineral salts  
173 was used and supplemented with the appropriate target substrate as described below. Each plate  
174 containing the tested culture media was inoculated with a 5-mm fungal plug cored from PDA  
175 slants. Petri dishes of each isolates were incubated in darkness in different growth chambers, over  
176 a period of four weeks at three different temperatures 4°C, 15° C and 25°C (Krishnam et al. 2016).  
177 For detection of amylase, cellulase and hemicellulase activities (polysaccharides hydrolases), 1%  
178 of starch [ $\alpha$ -1,4 glucan], cellulose-azure (Green and Highley 1997) and xylan were used as carbon  
179 sources. The strength of activity was classified based on the diameter of the hydrolyzed zone or  
180 the development or disappearance of color in the solid media. All halo tests were performed  
181 incorporating negative controls, consisting of plugs with active mycelia subjected to a process of  
182 inactivation by pulses of UV light (5.6 J/cm<sup>2</sup> per pulse, each pulse of 15 minutes, three pulses)  
183 according to protocols described by Krishnamurthy and coworkers (2007). Hydrolysis of fatty acid  
184 ester (1% Tween 40) was determined by an opaque halo of calcium palmitate crystals. Protein  
185 hydrolysis was determined by formation of a clear halo in basal medium supplemented with gelatin  
186 (4 g/l) as the sole nitrogen source. A positive test was indicated by liquefaction in the tube after  
187 chilling for a period of 30 min as previously described (Mandyam et al. 2010). Urease activity was  
188 tested on urea agar plates with 2% urea and phenol red and confirmed by the formation of a pink-  
189 colored clear zone surrounding plugs (MacFaddin 2000). Pikovskaya's agar medium was used to  
190 assay phosphate solubilization (Nautiyal 1999). Phenoxidase activity was assayed using  
191 lignolytic indicator dyes, Poly R-478, Remazol Brilliant Blue and O-dianisidine (0.01%) (Oses et  
192 al. 2006).

193 ***Plant growth and axenic production of individuals***

194 Soil samples from field were submitted to sterilization process (121°C/1.5 atmospheres for 2.5  
195 hour) in order to obtain sterilized soil for the following experiments. After this procedure, soil sub-  
196 samples were cultivated on PDA plates using a serial dilution method with the purpose to check  
197 microbial removal from soil before transplanting endophyte-free plants to pots. Current condition  
198 for total nitrogen content was based on the average of 15 soil samples taken from the study site  
199 ( $7.8 \pm 0.8$  mg/kg). It is well known that thermal soil sterilization may affect nutrient availability  
200 and soil samples were therefore tested for differences in total nitrogen in sterilized and non-  
201 sterilized soil samples ( $n = 5$ ); no difference was found between both soils samples ( $t = 0.93$ ;  $p =$   
202  $0.77$ ).

203 To assess the effect of fungal endophytes on the nitrogen mineralization process in *C.*  
204 *quitensis* and *D. antarctica*, a manipulative experiment was conducted involving endophyte-free  
205 plants (hereafter, E- plants or control) and endophyte-free plants re-inoculated with single spore  
206 fungal endophyte, growing on sterilized Antarctic soil (hereafter, E+ plant or treatment).  
207 Endophyte-free plants of each species were obtained from samples collected at the study site.  
208 Samples were transported and planted in 300 ml plastic pots filled with Antarctic soil from the  
209 study site and maintained in a climatic chamber at 4° C with a photon flux density (PFD) of 190  
210  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and 16/8 h light/dark photoperiod mimicking Maritime Antarctica climatic conditions  
211 for four months.

212 To remove fungal endophyte infections from Antarctic plants, the commercially available  
213 fungicide Benlate (containing benomyl [methyl [1-butylamino carbonyl]-1H-benzimidazol-2-yl]  
214 carbamate, DuPont, Wilmington, DE, USA) was used as treatment. Benomyl was chosen because  
215 no phytotoxic effects have been detected on perennial ryegrass (Spiering et al. 2006). Leaves and

216 roots were completely submerged in tap water containing 2 g/l of Benlate and maintained for 1 h  
217 at room temperature. Thereafter 10-12 tillers ( $6.0 \pm 0.3$  cm height) were transplanted to pots (50  
218 ml) filled with sterilized soil taken from the study site. In order to reinforce the removal treatment  
219 of fungal endophytes, tillers were sprinkled with Benlate solution (2 g/l) once a week. After 4–5  
220 weeks of growth, newly emerged tillers were examined microscopically in order to evaluate the  
221 success of endophyte elimination after Benlate treatment. Detection of fungal infection was tested  
222 using two approaches including detection by light microscopy techniques, and culture-based  
223 methods (Bacon and White 2000).

224 Firstly, to assess the success of endophyte elimination after Benomyl treatment, the  
225 infection status was checked microscopically on a subset of at least 10% of new emerged plants ( $n$   
226 = 50). Clearing and staining methods were conducted to quantify percentage of endophytic  
227 colonization or percentage of infested root length (Bacon and White 2000; Spiering et al. 2006).  
228 Endophyte occurrence in tissues was quantitatively determined by counting aniline blue-stained  
229 endophyte hyphae in leaf and roots cross-sections. This method is a reliable and direct measure of  
230 the amount of viable endophyte mycelium (Spiering et al. 2006). Secondly, after Benlate treatment,  
231 endophyte-free plants were submitted to re-isolation protocols using culturing-based methods  
232 described previously. The samples of plant tissue that showed no outgrowth of fungi into the  
233 surrounding solid media were considered clean or endophyte-free plants suitable for use in the  
234 subsequent experiments. This procedure was carried out to ensure that nitrogen mineralization  
235 experiments included endophyte-free plants only. Thus, an endophyte-free individual of *D.*  
236 *antarctica* corresponds to a tussock composed by 10 tillers, of  $6.0 \pm 0.3$  cm height,  $550.5 \pm 8.5$  mg  
237 of weight and for *C. quitensis* corresponds to 6 rosettes, of  $3.0 \pm 0.1$  cm height,  $825.0 \pm 5.5$  mg of  
238 weight (fig. 1B).

239 Endophyte-free plants obtained after Benomyl treatment were re-inoculated with an  
240 inoculum of fungal endophyte derived from single spore isolates to re-generate endophyte-plant  
241 symbiotic association but with a single isolate. The most dominant fungal endophytes isolated  
242 from each host plant were used as inoculum. Re-inoculated plants with single spore derived  
243 endophytic isolates (10 ml of  $10^8$  spores per pot) and non-inoculated plants (10 ml of  $10^8$  spores  
244 suspension per pot previously sterilized) of *D. antarctica* and *C. quitensis* were cultivated in  
245 growth chambers in the same conditions described earlier. After this period, with the aim to assess  
246 the re-colonization of aseptically grown tillers with a single dominant fungal endophyte, the  
247 infection status was checked microscopically and re-isolation protocols using culturing-based  
248 methods were conducted as described previously.

249

#### 250 ***Assisted plant growth and nitrogen mineralization***

251 Individuals of both Antarctic plant species, endophyte-free plants (E-) and endophyte-free plant  
252 but re-inoculated (E+) with a single dominant endophyte were transferred to pots (300 ml), filled  
253 with sterilized soil taken from the study site and put in a growth chamber to obtain enough  
254 vegetative material. The most regular and homogeneous individuals of both Antarctic plant  
255 species, endophyte-free plants (E-) and endophyte-free plant but re-inoculated (E+) with a single  
256 dominant endophyte (n = 7) were selected for the nitrogen mineralization experiments. At the onset  
257 and at the end of the nitrogen mineralization experiment (t = 60 days), in order to determine the  
258 status of endophytic colonization of roots, three random individuals of *C. quitensis* and *D.*  
259 *antarctica* were microscopically checked for endophytic infection (percentage of infested root  
260 length).

261           Considering the total nitrogen content in Antarctic soils at the start of the growing season,  
262 we applied the nitrogen equivalent to 8.0 mg/kg (Roberts et al. 2009) before the start of the  
263 experiment (t = 0 days). According to a previous report, urea pellets were added to the soil as a  
264 source of nitrogen (Jumpponen et al. 1998). Urea was chosen because is an intermediate compound  
265 in the degradation pathway of uric acid. Uric acid is rapidly degraded by aerobic and anaerobic  
266 microorganisms, through allantoin and urea and then to ammonium in summer when soils thaw  
267 (Lindeboom 1984). Further urea dissolves slowly over a 4-5-months period then nitrogen pulses  
268 were avoided during the experiment (Jumpponen et al. 1998).

269           Total nitrogen determination was performed using a Kjeldahl digestion method (Allen 1989).  
270 Approximately 0.05 g of catalyst (lithium sulphate : copper sulphate in 10:1 ratio) and 1mL of  
271 digest reagent (33 g of salicylic acid, 1 L of concentrated sulphuric acid) was added to 0.2 g of soil  
272 sample in a digestion tube, and then heated at 370 °C in a digestion block for 6 hours or until the  
273 solution goes clear. The digested soil sample was cooled, and then cautiously diluted with about  
274 10ml of water followed by filtration through Whatman N° 44 filter paper. The filtrate was further  
275 diluted to 50 mL in a volumetric flask, and the concentrations of the individual elements were  
276 determined through flame atomic absorption spectrometry. Organic nitrogen (nitrate and  
277 ammonium) was extracted from 5 g of air dried soil sample with 50 mL 2M potassium chloride  
278 solution for 30 min and filtered through Whatman paper N° 42. The samples were later analyzed  
279 colorimetrically for nitrate and ammonium using a continuous flow injection analyzer (FIAflow2,  
280 Burkard Scientific, Uxbridge, UK) (Knepel 2003).

281           Each E+ and E- plant received 50 ml of tap water every four days. Pots positions within the  
282 growth chambers were changed every five days to avoid block effect. The experimental treatments  
283 were carried out over 60 days and percentage of nitrogen mineralization was estimated as the



284 percentage of N-urea (source of nitrogen) transformed to  $\text{N-NH}_4^+$ , measured in 50 g soil sub-  
285 samples. Final total biomass was also measured in each individual plant at the end of the  
286 experimental period, including fallen leaves. All tissues were oven-dried at 70 °C for 72 h, and  
287 weighted with an electronic precision balance (Boeco BBI-54, Germany).

288

## 289 DATA ANALYSIS

290 Nitrogen mineralization percentage was compared between treatments with repeated measures  
291 ANOVA, with the endophyte infection status being the independent variable for each species. The  
292 final percentages of nitrogen mineralization as well as the final total biomass were compared  
293 between inoculated and non-inoculated individuals with a t-test for independent samples, as  
294 implemented in the R language software (R-Core Team, 2015). All analyses were performed  
295 independently for each species after testing for normality and homogeneity of variances using the  
296 Shapiro-Wilks and Bartlett tests, respectively (Zar 1999).

297

## 298 RESULTS

299

### 300 *Isolation and identification of fungal endophytes*

301 Different fungal endophytes were isolated from roots of symptomless individuals of *D. antarctica*  
302 and *C. quitensis* host plants (Table 1). Seven different fungal morphotypes were independently  
303 isolated with different relative isolation frequencies (RIFs) from both Antarctic plants;  
304 corresponding to fungi from the genus *Penicillium* sp.- I (78%), *Alternaria* sp (13.2%), and  
305 *Phaeosphaeria* sp (8.8%) were isolated from *D. antarctica*, and *Penicillium* sp - II (65%),  
306 *Geomyces* sp (19%) and *Microdochium* sp (16%) were isolated from *C. quitensis*. Single-spore

307 derived fungal isolates *Penicillium* sp - I and *Penicillium* sp – II were independently recovered  
308 from 133 individuals of *D. antarctica* (73.8%) and from 96 individuals of *C. quitensis* (64%),  
309 respectively (Table 1). On the base of the values of relative isolation frequencies (RIFs), the most  
310 frequent fungal endophytes from each species was isolated from a single spore, purified and used  
311 in later experiments. According to Molina-Montenegro et al. (2016), the two most-abundant fungal  
312 morphotypes corresponded to two isolates of Antarctic fungal endophyte, hereafter, AFE (AFE001  
313 and AFE002), which represented more than 65% and 78% of the total fungal morphotypes  
314 recorded in *C. quitensis* (AFE001) and *D. antarctica* (AFE002), respectively. Isolates, AFE001  
315 (Genebank accession number: KJ881371) and AFE002 (GeneBank accession number KJ881370)  
316 were identified as *P. chrysogenum* and *P. brevicompactum*, respectively.

317

### 318 *Extracellular enzymes activities*

319 The most dominant single-spore derived fungal endophyte *P. chrysogenum* and *P.*  
320 *brevicompactum*, isolated from *C. quitensis* and *D. antarctica*, respectively, were able to exhibit  
321 hydrolytic and oxidative enzymatic activities involved in nutrient conversion and assimilation such  
322 as carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus (Table 2). The maximum intensities of enzymatic reactions  
323 under controlled conditions were obtained within the first two weeks at 15°C and at four weeks at  
324 4°C while in 25°C the intensities decreased in all enzymes in both fungal endophytes. *P.*  
325 *chrysogenum* and *P. brevicompactum* isolates displayed positive reaction for amylase, cellulase,  
326 laccase, gelatinase and urease. *P. chrysogenum* was able to use most of the carbon, nitrogen and  
327 phosphate substrates (Table 2). Proteins and urea were both hydrolyzed by *P. chrysogenum* and *P.*  
328 *brevicompactum* isolates. The fatty acid ester, Tween 40, was hydrolyzed by both dominant  
329 isolates. The intensities of some enzymatic hydrolysis and oxidations were different between the

330 isolates and also under different temperatures of incubation. The intensity of cellulase at 4°C was  
331 higher in *P. chrysogenum* than in *P. brevicompactum*. However, the intensity of hemicellulase  
332 displayed by *P. chrysogenum* was higher at 15°C rather than 4°C. The intensity esterase was  
333 higher *P. chrysogenum* than *P. brevicompactum* in both temperatures. *P. chrysogenum* and *P.*  
334 *brevicompactum* showed no lignolytic activities when Poly R-478 and RBB were used as substrate  
335 but reacted positively with O-dianisidine.

336

### 337 ***Assisted plant growth and nitrogen mineralization***

338 At the initial stage of the experiment (t = 0), as expected, there was no evidence of endophytic root  
339 infection in non-inoculated *C. quitensis* and *D. antarctica* individuals. However, after inoculation  
340 with dominant root endophytes, root systems of all inoculated individuals were colonized by the  
341 mycelium superficial or intercellularly. An encroachment of fungal endophytes into the root tissue  
342 was detectable. Moreover, an infection pattern characterized by black microsclerotia and pigmented  
343 hypha distributed irregularly along the roots was observed. The fungal infection progressed during  
344 the experimental period. By the end of nitrogen mineralization experiment (t = 60 days), the  
345 percentage of infested root length in *C. quitensis* inoculated with *P. chrysogenum* reached  $88.5 \pm$   
346  $1.6 \%$  and  $91.2 \pm 0.9 \%$  in *D. antarctica* inoculated with *P. brevicompactum*.

347 The total biomass accumulation at the end of the experiment was significantly higher in *C.*  
348 *quitensis* (27%) and *D. antarctica* (22%) individuals infected with root endophytes (E+) compared  
349 to endophyte-free (E-) plans ( $t$ -test = 9.11;  $p < 0.0001$  and  $t$ -test = 6.13;  $p < 0.0001$ , respectively  
350 (Fig. 1). The final percentage and rate of mineralization in *C. quitensis* infected with *P.*  
351 *chrysogenum* (E+) was significantly higher ( $t$ -test = 10.19;  $p < 0.0001$ ) than in individuals without  
352 endophytes (E-) (Fig. 2). The repeated measures ANOVA revealed that the percentage of

353 mineralization increased significantly with time ( $F_{4, 112} = 503.03$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) in both treatments.  
354 Furthermore, the percentage of nitrogen mineralization increase in the presence of endophytes was  
355 more pronounced than in their absence, as shown by the significant interaction between treatment  
356 (E+ and E-) and time ( $F_{4, 112} = 9.04$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ; Fig. 2). Similarly, *D. antarctica* individuals  
357 inoculated with *P. brevicompactum* showed a significantly higher final percentage of  
358 mineralization ( $t$ -test = 2.84;  $p = 0.016$ ) compared to those without the inoculums (Fig. 2). In the  
359 same way, final percentage of mineralization significantly increased with presence of endophyte  
360 ( $F_{4, 112} = 7.01$ ;  $p = 0.031$ ) and time ( $F_{4, 112} = 206.97$ ;  $p < 0.001$ , respectively; Fig. 2A).

361

## 362 DISCUSSION

363 In the present work, the dominant fungal endophytes *Penicillium chrysogenum* and *Penicillium*  
364 *brevicompactum* were found to inhabit roots of antarctic plants improving its growth through of  
365 accelerated mineralization and exolytic enzymes production. A previous report documented the  
366 occurrence of dark septate endophytes (most of them members of Heliotales) associated to  
367 Antarctic plants (Upson et al. 2009) which are different to those fungal endophytes reported in the  
368 present study. The *Penicillium* group is a large and polyphyletic group, which comprises the most  
369 catabolically and anabolically diverse microorganisms described to date (Houbraken et al 2011).  
370 Being part of this cosmopolitan genus several species of *Penicillium* species has been previously  
371 reported in alpine and tundra soils (Gunde-Cimerman et al. 2003). Accordingly, Zucconi and  
372 coworkers (1996) pointed out that the majority of Antarctic fungi are ecotypes of cosmopolitan  
373 species that show mesophilic-psychrotolerant behavior as an adaptation to the cold Antarctic  
374 climate. Particularly in Antarctica, various *Penicillium* species has been documented to be part of  
375 the endophytic community of the native plants, appearing in rhizoids of the non-vascular leafy

376 liverwort *Cephaloziella varians* (Newsham 2010) and the moss *Bryum argenteum* (Bradner et al.  
377 2000).

378 Several studies indicate that fitness benefits conferred by mutualistic fungi contribute to -  
379 or are- responsible for plant adaptation to abiotic stress (Stone et al 2000; Bacon and White 2016).  
380 Mutualistic fungi may confer tolerance to drought, metals, disease, heat and herbivory, and/or  
381 promote growth and nutrient acquisition. According to previous reports, there is a consensus that  
382 plants without fungal endophytes apparently are unable to tolerate habitat-imposed abiotic and  
383 biotic stresses (Malinowski et al. 2005; Rodriguez et al. 2008; Gond et al. 2015).

384 In Maritime Antarctic soils the release of nitrogen slowly as decomposition is limited by  
385 low temperatures that impose several restrictions for plant life. Then the ability to acquire N at an  
386 early stage of availability during a short growth season is key to the success of vascular plants.  
387 Previous works have addressed two nitrogen assimilation pathways available for plants in  
388 Antarctic environments: those of the plant itself (Hill et al. 2011) and those derived from the  
389 mutualistic symbiosis between plant and fungal endophytes (Upson et al. 2009). However, the  
390 mechanisms involving nitrogen uptake and transfer to the host mediated by fungal endophytes  
391 remain unknown. Regarding the later, our work shows that, in addition of being root endophytes,  
392 *P. chrysogenum* and *P. brevicompactum*, are able to exudate a wide range of hydrolytic and  
393 oxidative enzymes such as amylase, cellulase, lipase, protease, urease and xylanase under suitable  
394 conditions. In our study, we found no evidence for lignolytic enzymes using complex polymeric  
395 dyes (Remazol Brilliant Blue and Poly R-478), however, a weak lignolytic activity was found only  
396 when O-dianisidine was used as a substrate. These differential lignolytic activities suggest that the  
397 exolytic enzymes of these fungi are capable of degrading just some types of simple lignin

398 structures, but not more complex lignin molecules that require high oxidation potentials for  
399 degradation (Oses et al 2006).

400 The root endophytes *P. chrysogenum* and *P. brevicompactum* could behave in a facultative  
401 biotrophic way (Fesel and Zuccaro 2016) and be involved in the metabolizing of complex  
402 substances accumulated in organic matter pools as in Antarctic rhizospheric soil (Yergeau and  
403 Kawalchuk 2008, Krishnam et al. 2016). These facultative biotrophic behaviors have been  
404 proposed as a competitive advantage over other saprotrophs (Fesel and Zuccaro 2016). But  
405 moreover, this endophytic lifestyle (i.e. facultative-biotrophic) has been recognized as an ancestral  
406 feature and an important part of the model of plant-fungal endophyte interactions known as  
407 “mutualism-parasitism continuum paradigm” (Mandyam and Jumpponen 2015; Fesel and Zuccaro  
408 2016).

409 Considering the short growing season in Antarctica and its narrow window of opportunities  
410 for plants, the ability to quickly produce and activate complex enzymatic machinery may represent  
411 a key ecological advantage to symbiotic plants in accelerating of recycling and assimilation of  
412 limiting nutrients. In this context, it has been proposed that a balanced symbiosis mechanism (or  
413 “fine-tuning”) regulating these enzymatic activities under environmental, physiological and  
414 genetic control within the host plant tissues could provide huge ecological advantages resulting in  
415 fitness benefits for both partners (Kogel et al. 2006). The higher nitrogen mineralization rates from  
416 urea to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and increase in total plant biomass found in inoculated (E+) individuals of both *C.*  
417 *quitensis* and *D. antarctica*, when symbiotic are consistent with the presence of extracellular  
418 hydrolytic enzymatic activities (proteinase and urease) observed in fungal cultures, strongly  
419 suggesting not only an efficient uptake and nutrient transfer mechanisms, at least for the scarce  
420 nitrogen sources, but also, that fungal endophytes are not detrimental to the host plant (Jumpponen

421 et al. 1998; Upson et al. 2009; Behie and Bidochka 2014). Indeed, the positive symbiotic status  
422 (E+) was consistent with the presence of extracellular hydrolytic enzymatic activities (proteinase  
423 and urease) observed in fungal cultures. Therefore, our results suggest that being symbiotic with a  
424 target Antarctic fungal endophyte partner could be a critical advantage in terms of plant survival  
425 and development, particularly, when competing for limiting nitrogen resources with soil microbes  
426 and other non-vascular plants (Upson et al. 2009; Hill et al 2011). Our results support the  
427 hypothesized mechanisms to explain microbe-mediated enhanced plant growth that include  
428 increase the absorption of nutrients by plants from the rhizosphere due to activities of microbes on  
429 roots (Bacon and White 2016)

430 Our work is consistent with previous report, in which have identified dark septate  
431 endophytes have been identified out as relevant agents during inorganic nitrogen uptake,  
432 increasing the plant biomass in *D. antarctica* (Upson et al. 2009). Also, our findings are similar to  
433 those found by Jumpponen et al. (1998), who found that inoculation with fungal endophytes  
434 significantly, increased the biomass of the host plant species using urea as a main nitrogen source.  
435 This finding suggests that mutualistic association between plant-root fungal endophytes, could  
436 facilitate and increment the rate of acquisition of organic nitrogen in both Antarctic vascular plants.  
437 In a recent work, Molina-Montenegro and workers (2016) found that cross-inoculation of antarctic  
438 root endophyte described in this work also improve the ecophysiological performance and yield in  
439 lettuce (*Latuca sativa*) under drought condition showing potential for biotechnological  
440 approaches.

441

442

443

444 **CONCLUSIONS**

445

446 Our study demonstrates how root fungal endophytes improve the growth of Antarctic vascular  
447 plants *D. antarctica* and *C. quitensis* through an enhanced nitrogen acquisition. Firstly, it was  
448 demonstrated that fungal endophytes *Penicillium chrysogenum* and *Penicillium brevicompactum*  
449 dominant root endophytes isolated from *C. quitensis* and *D. antarctica*, respectively; exhibited  
450 enzymatic activities involved in carbohydrate or protein breakdown and phosphorus solubilization.  
451 Secondly, the rates and percentages of nitrogen mineralization, as well as the final total biomass,  
452 were significantly higher in *C. quitensis* and *D. antarctica* individuals with root endophytes  
453 relative to those without endophytes. This work contributes to understand how the higher  
454 mineralization rate of organic nitrogen performed by plant-endophyte association and the exolytic  
455 enzymes produced by fungal endophytes (proteases and ureases) may drive an efficient nitrogen  
456 conversion, access and recycling, increasing plant growth in Antarctic environments. Our results  
457 showed that endophyte-assisted nitrogen mineralization is an advantageous mechanism to compete  
458 for organic nitrogen resources with soil microbes and other plants, preferentially for  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , as  
459 suggested in previous works (Hill et al. 2011; Behie and Bidochka 2014; Bacon and White 2016).  
460 Therefore, this symbiotic mechanism of nitrogen uptake could explain, at least in part, the survival  
461 and establishment of vascular plants in Antarctic environments (Smith-Lewis, 2003; Upson et al.  
462 2009, Hill et al. 2011). We are far from a clear understanding of mechanisms underlying nutrient  
463 uptake by plants in the poor soils of Antarctic environment, this study has identified a promising  
464 aspect in endophyte-assisted nitrogen mineralization as part of nitrogen uptake and transfer  
465 mechanisms for plants and the relevance of mutualistic symbiosis in extreme environments.  
466 Finally, we suggest that the future researches should be addressed to explore the molecular and



467 functional dissection the plant-fungal endophytes relationship, identifying mechanisms underlying  
468 to this symbiosis to help explain the colonization, performance and spread of plants inhabiting  
469 stressful environments as those found in Antarctica (Fesel and Zuccaro 2016).

470

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472

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480

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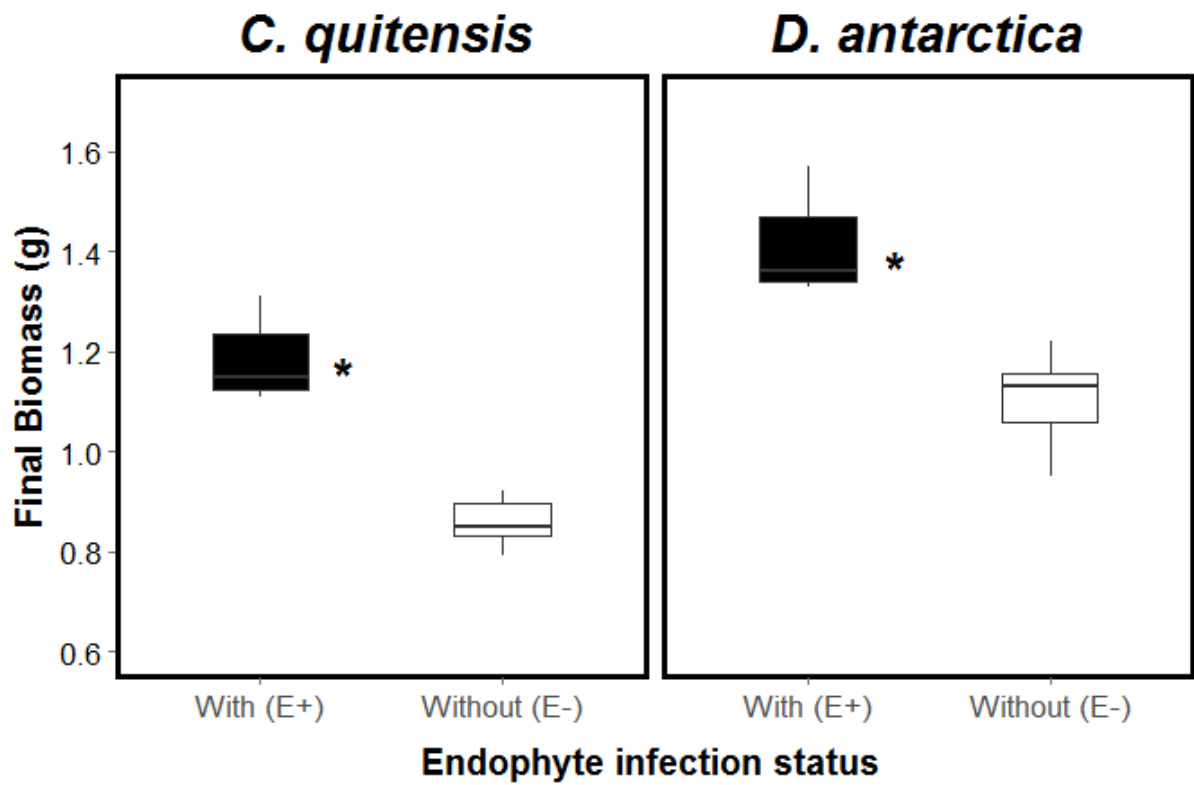


**Figure 1**(on next page)

Total biomass accumulation in individuals of *Colobanthus quitensis* and *Deschampsia antarctica* with (E+) and without (E-) root fungal endophytes after mineralization assay

*Penicillium chrysosgenum* and *Penicillium brevicompactum* were used as root fungal endophytes for *C. quitensis* and *D. antarctica*, respectively. The mean and quartile distribution of individual plants (n = 7) are indicated. Asterisks denote significant differences between treatments ( $p < 0.05$ ) as determined by a *t*-test

Figure 1.

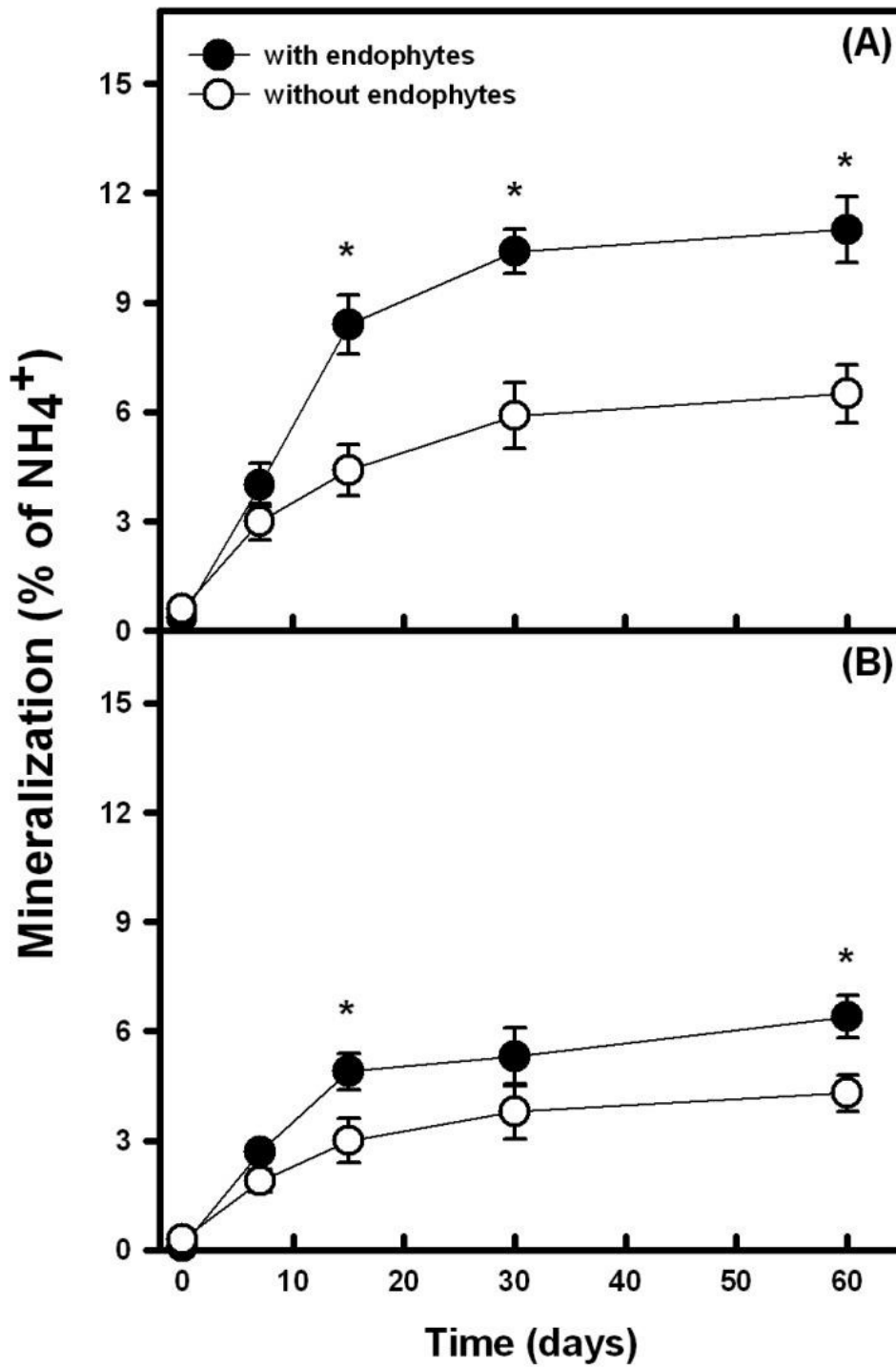


**Figure 2** (on next page)

Kinetic of nitrogen mineralization in soils in contact with axenic individuals of *Colobanthus quitensis* and *Deschampsia antarctica* inoculated (E+) or not inoculated (E-) with root fungal endophytes

Individual plants (n = 7) emerging from benomyl-treated cultures were cultured in 300 ml pots containing autoclaved antarctic soil supplemented with urea as unique nitrogen source. Mineralization was estimated as the percentage of N-urea transformed to  $\text{N-NH}_4^+$ . Asterisks denote significant mean differences between treatments

Figure 2.



**Table 1** (on next page)

Relative isolation frequencies (RIF) from root fragments of the Antarctic vascular plants *Colobanthus quitensis* and *Deschampsia antarctica* growing in coastal area in King George Island, South Shetland Islands

(a) The relative isolation frequencies (RIF) for each fungus are calculated as percentage between the number of roots colonized with single isolate divided by number of colonized root



1 **Table 1.** Relative isolation frequencies (RIF) from root fragments of the Antarctic vascular plants *Colobanthus quitensis* and *Deschampsia antarctica*  
 2 growing in coastal area in King George Island, South Shetland Islands.

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9 <b>Host plant</b>	<b>N° of plants analyzed</b>	<b>N° of plants with isolated endophyte [n° (%)]</b>	<b>N° of roots analyzed</b>	<b>N° of colonized roots [n° (%)]</b>	<b>N° of root with single isolate [n° (%)]</b>	<b>Relative isolation frequency RIF (%)<sup>(a)</sup></b>	<b>Isolated fungal endophyte</b>
15 <i>D. antarctica</i>	180	133 (73.8)	1160	963 (83)	752 (64.8)	78.0	Penicillium sp.- I
		15 (8.3)			92 (7.9)	9.6	Alternaria sp I
		12 (6.6)			74 (6.4)	7.7	Alternaria sp II
		8 (4.4)			45 (3.9)	4.7	Phaeosphaeria sp
23 <i>C. quitensis</i>	150	96 (64)	1250	839 (67)	562 (45)	65.0	Penicillium sp - II
		31 (20.6)			164 (13)	21.9	Geomyces sp
		18 (12)			113 (9.0)	13.1	Microdochium sp
26 <b>Total</b>	<b>330</b>		<b>2410</b>	<b>1802</b>			

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28 (a) The relative isolation frequencies (RIF) for each isolated fungus are calculated as a percentage between the number of roots colonized with single isolate divided  
 29 by the number of colonized root.

**Table 2** (on next page)

Hydrolytic and oxidative enzymes present in the fungal endophyte *Penicillium chrysogenum* and *Penicillium brevicompactum* isolated from vascular plants *Colobanthus quitensis* and *Deschampsia antarctica* growing in the King George Island, South She

- a) *Cellulose azure assay*: (-) no color release under or around mycellium; (+) blue color < 2 cm diam; (++) blue color about 2 cm diam; (+++) blue color > 2 cm diam
- b) *Amylase / hemicellulose assay*: (-) absence of clearing halo around mycellium, negative for amylase; (+) clearing 1-3 cm diam; (++) clearing 3-6 cm diam; (+++) opaque halo 6 cm diam.
- c) *Esterase assay*: (-) absence of opaque halo around mycellium, negative for esterase; (+) opaque halo 1-3 cm diam; (++) opaque halo 3-6 cm diam; (+++) opaque halo 6 cm diam.
- d) *Phenoloxidase assay*: (-) remaining blue color (Remazol Brilliant Blue) or red color (Poly R-478) or absence of pink color (O-dianisidine) under or around mycellium, means negative for phenoloxidase; (+) discoloration of blue or red color or formation of pink color under mycellium at the center, visible only on the underside of the plate; (++) discoloration of blue or red color or formation of a pink color under most of mycellium but not extending to margin seen from under side of the plate; (+++) discoloration of blue or red color or formation of pink color extending beyond margin of fungal colony and visible from the topside of the plate. Wood decay fungi *Trametes versicolor* was used as positive control.
- e) *Gelatine assay*: (-) absence of liquefaction at 4° C, negative for gelatinase; (+) liquefaction < 25% medium; (++) liquefaction 26-50% medium; (+++) liquefaction 51-75% medium; (++++) liquefaction 76-100% medium.
- f) *Phosphate-solubilising assay*: (-) strong discoloration of magenta color under or around mycellium; (+) magenta color < 2 cm diam; (++) magenta color about 2 cm diam; (+++) magenta color > 2 cm diam.
- g) *Urease-assay*: (-) pink color remains under or around mycellium plug; (+) discoloration of pink color < 2 cm diam; (++) discoloration about 2 cm diam; (+++) discoloration about > 2 cm diam.

- 1 **Table 2** Hydrolytic and oxidative enzymes present in the fungal endophyte *Penicillium chrysogenum* and *Penicillium brevicompactum* isolated from  
 2 the Antarctic vascular plants *Colobanthus quitensis* and *Deschampsia antarctica* growing in the King George Island, South Shetland Islands.

Hydrolytic and oxidative enzymes produced by fungal endophytes isolated from Antarctic vascular plants								
Assay	Substrate	<i>P. chrysogenum</i>			<i>P. brevicompactum</i>			
		4° C	15 °C	25° C	4° C	15 °C	25° C	
Cellulase <sup>a</sup>	Cellulose-azure	++	+++	+	+	+++	-	
Amylase <sup>b</sup>	Starch	++	+++	+	++	+++	-	
Hemicellulase <sup>b</sup>	Xylan	+	++	+	+	+	-	
Esterease <sup>c</sup>	Fatty acid ester (Tween 40)	+++	++++	+	++	+++	+	
Phenoloxidase <sup>d</sup>	Remazol Brilliant Blue	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Poly R-478	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	O-dianisidine	+	+	-	+	+	-	
Proteinase <sup>e</sup>	Gelatin	++	+++	+	++	+++	+	
Phosphate-solubilizing <sup>f</sup>	Tricalcium phosphate	++	++	+	+	+	+	
Urease <sup>g</sup>	Urea	++	+++	+	++	+++	+	

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17 <sup>a</sup> *Cellulose Azure assay*: (-) no color release under or around mycelium; (+) blue color, <2 cm diam; (++) blue color about 2 cm diam; (+++) blue color  $\square$  2 cm diam.

18 <sup>b</sup> *Amylase / hemicellulase assay*: (-) absence of clearing halo around mycelium, negative for amylase; (+) clearing 1–3 cm diam; (++) clearing 3–6 cm diam; (+++) clearing .6 cm diam.

19 <sup>c</sup> *Esterase assay*: (-) absence of opaque halo around mycelium, negative for esterase; (+) opaque halo 1–3 cm diam; (++) opaque halo 3–6 cm diam; (+++) opaque halo 6 cm diam.

20 <sup>d</sup> *Phenoloxidase assay*: (-) remaining blue color (Remazol Brilliant Blue) or red color (Poly R-478) or absence of pink color (O-dianisidine ) under or around mycelium, means negative for phenoloxidase;  
21 (+) discoloration of blue or red color or formation of pink color under mycelium at the center, visible only on the underside of the plate; (++) discoloration of blue or red color or formation of pink color  
22 under most of mycelium but not extending to margin, seen from under side of the plate; (+++) discoloration of blue or red color or formation of pink color extending beyond margin of fungal colony and  
23 visible from the topside of the plate. Wood decay fungi *Trametes versicolor* was used as positive control.

24 <sup>e</sup> *Gelatinase assay*: (-) absence of liquefaction at 4° C, negative for gelatinase; (+) liquefaction, <25% medium; (++) liquefaction 26–50% medium; (+++) liquefaction 51–75% medium; (++++) liquefaction  
25 76–100% medium.

26 <sup>f</sup> *Phosphate-solubilizing assay*: (-) strong discoloration of magenta color under or around mycelium; (+) magenta color, <2 cm diam; (++) magenta color about 2 cm diam; (+++) magenta color >2 cm  
27 diam

28 <sup>g</sup> *Urease-assay*: (-) pink color remains under or around mycelium plug; (+) discoloration of pink color, <2 cm diam; (++) discoloration about 2 cm diam; (+++) discoloration about >2 cm diam

