

1 **Glucosinolates profile of *Arabidopsis thaliana* modified root colonization**
2 **of *Trichoderma* species**

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9
10 **Abstract**

11 *Trichoderma* is a genus of filamentous fungi with highly beneficial species for use in
12 agriculture due to its ability to combat disease, increase growth, tolerance to abiotic stresses
13 and resistance to biotic stresses in plants. To do this, *Trichoderma* must effectively colonize
14 the roots of the plant, being able to overcome the existing plant defenses. In this sense,
15 glucosinolates (GSLs) are a group of secondary metabolites present in cruciferous dishes
16 such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* with great antimicrobial capacity. In order to determine the
17 effect of the *A. thaliana*-roots GSLs profile in *Trichoderma* colonization, we have used
18 different *A. thaliana* mutants (*cyp*: absent in indolic GSLs; *myb*: absent in aliphatic GSLs;
19 *QKO*: absent in indolic and aliphatic GSLs; and *atr1D*: which hyperaccumulates indolic
20 GSLs) and inoculated them with the species *Trichoderma harzianum* and *T. parareesei*.
21 The results showed how in the roots of *A. thaliana* mutants absent from IGSLs an increase
22 occurs in the levels of root colonization of *Trichoderma*, without observing differences in
23 the rest of the mutants. This increased root colonization by *Trichoderma* results in an
24 increase in the formation of silques by *A. thaliana* and an increase in the systemic
25 resistance against *Botrytis cinerea* mediated by jasmonic acid, being more significant with
26 *T. harzianum*; in addition to an increase in tolerance to abiotic stresses such as salinity and
27 drought, being more significant with *T. parareesei*. Therefore, the presence of IGSLs in the

28 roots of cruciferous plants such as *A. thaliana* inhibits *Trichoderma*'s ability to root
29 colonization, reducing the fungus's ability to increase plant productivity, tolerance to
30 abiotic stresses and resistance to biotic stresses.

31 **Keywords:** glucosinolates; *Arabidopsis*, *Trichoderma harzianum*, *Trichoderma parareesei*,
32 systemic resistance, root colonization.

33

34 **1. Introduction**

35 The genus of filamentous fungi *Trichoderma* includes various species widely used as
36 biological control agents in agriculture due to different mechanisms of action and their
37 ability to grow naturally in very diverse habitats and climatic zones (Harman, 2006; Vinale
38 et al., 2008). Some species are able to mycoparasitize pathogenic fungi in crops, such as *T.*
39 *harzianum* on *Rhizoctonia solani* (Kullnig et al., 2000), to produce chemical compounds
40 that inhibit their growth and development, a mechanism known as antibiosis (Patil et al.,
41 2016), or to compete efficiently for space and nutrients in the rhizosphere (Segarra et al.,
42 2010). In addition, *Trichoderma* will be able to promote plant growth by enhanced
43 production of hormones (Zhang et al., 2013), and to increase the tolerance of plants against
44 abiotic stresses such as drought and salinity (Poveda, 2020a). Therefore, the root
45 application of *Trichoderma* represents an increase in plant productivity, as has already been
46 observed in the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* and in crops such as rapeseed (Poveda et
47 al., 2019a).

48 *Trichoderma*-roots colonization involves an ability to recognize and adhere to roots,
49 penetrate the plant and withstand toxic metabolites produced by the plant in response to
50 invasion. In this sense, the plant may perceive *Trichoderma* as hostile and the activation of
51 the plant's defences may limit penetration by the fungus to the root's outermost cell layers
52 (Poveda et al., 2020a). Transcriptomic studies have shown that during the first few hours of
53 interaction between the fungus and the plant, a broad genetic reprogramming occurs. This
54 is preceded by a transient decrease in the plant's immune response during the first 24 hours,

55 which is probably what allows colonization of the root to take place (Morán-Diez et al.,
56 2012).

57 In this connection, the successful *Trichoderma*-roots colonization supposes the activation
58 of a systemic plant resistance against the possible attack of pathogens or pests. This defense
59 occurs via induced systemic resistance (ISR), systemic acquired resistance (SAR) or both
60 of these (Mendoza-Mendoza et al., 2018), may indicate the presence of alternative induced
61 resistance mechanisms and a more complicated signaling network that connects the SAR
62 and ISR defense response pathways (Brotman et al., 2012; Nawrocka and Małolepsza,
63 2013). This variation depends on the species of plant, the strain of *Trichoderma* and the
64 pathogen against which the defense response is directed (Martínez-Medina et al., 2013;
65 Poveda et al., 2020b).

66 On the other hand, glucosinolates (GSLs) are a group of hydrophilic secondary metabolites
67 formed by a side chain and a sulphur-linked D-glucopyranose moiety (Rosa and Rodrigues,
68 2001), found in members of the *Brassicaceae* and close families (Buxdorf et al., 2013) such
69 as broccoli, cauliflower, cabbage or the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*, and also in
70 mustard or rapeseed (Halkier and Gershenzon, 2006). GSLs are produced in many tissues
71 of cruciferous plants, but differences in quantity and type of GSLs occur between different
72 parts and organs (Touw et al., 2020), having constitutive GSLs concentrations generally
73 higher in roots compared to shoots (van Dam et al., 2009).

74 The ability of plants in the Brassicaceae family to defend them against different plant-
75 pathogens has been widely demonstrated thanks to the presence in their tissues of GSLs
76 (Vig et al., 2009; Poveda et al., 2020c). Against fungi, it was demonstrated in 1937 how the
77 antifungal activity of mustard oils and of cruciferous plant extracts was due to the presence
78 of GSLs as secondary defense metabolites (Walker et al., 1937).

79 The antifungal capacity of the GSLs present in different cruciferous species, after their
80 hydrolysis (GSL hydrolysis products: GHPs), has been extensively studied (Bednarek et al.,
81 2009; Sánchez-Pujante et al., 2017; Poveda et al., 2020c). In *A. thaliana* has been observed
82 how indol-3-ylmethyl GSLs are constitutively produced in the phloem and transported to
83 epidermal cells for storage and to be activated to provide broad-spectrum defense against

84 fungi. Moreover, these authors observed that accumulation of the GSLs biosynthetic
85 enzymes is induced in epidermal cells attacked by the non-adapted barley powdery mildew
86 *Blumeria graminis* f.sp. *hordei*, while this biosynthesis is attenuated during interaction with
87 the virulent powdery mildew *Golovinomyces orontii*, concluding that epidermal *de novo*
88 synthesis of indol-3-ylmethyl GSLs contributes to broad-spectrum antifungal resistance and
89 that adapted powdery mildews may target this process (Hunziker et al., 2019). On the other
90 hand, in disease resistant and susceptible cabbage lines were observed how the major
91 infection with the causal agent of the blackleg (*Leptosphaeria maculans*) in susceptible
92 lines was consequence of a no accumulation of the AGSL glucoiberberin (GIV) and the
93 IGSLs glucobrassicin (GBS) and neoglucobrassicin (NGBS) (Robin et al., 2017).
94 Similarly, in *Sinapis alba*, *Brassica napus*, and *B. juncea* have been observed how against
95 the pathogenic fungus *F. oxysporum* occur an increase of p-hydroxybenzyl GSL content,
96 which does not happen after inoculation with non-pathogenic fungi *Rhizopus oryzae* and
97 *Fusarium graminearum* (Andini et al., 2019). Despite this, little is known about the role
98 that these defense compounds have in beneficial plant-microorganism interaction, as is the
99 case of the fungal genus *Trichoderma*.

100 The main objective of this work is to demonstrate how the profile of root GSLs in crucifers,
101 such as *A. thaliana*, is capable of modifying the ability of root colonization by *Trichoderma*
102 and, therefore, the benefits that this interaction implies for the plant.

103 **2. Materials and methods**

104 **2.1. Plant and fungi**

105 The *A. thaliana* ecotype Col-0, along with different mutants with different glucosinolate
106 profiles, all of them kindly provided by Dr. Vicent Arbona from the Jaume I University,
107 were the plants used in this study. The following have been used: the double knockouts
108 *cyp79b2/cyp79b3* (called in this document as *cyp*) absent in indolic GSLs (IGSLs) (Zhao et
109 al., 2002); double knockouts *myb28/myb29* (called in this document as *myb*) absent in
110 aliphatic GSLs (AGSLs) (Sønderby et al., 2007); the quadruple mutant resulting from their
111 crossing, which knocks out both pathways (called in this document as *QKO*) (Sønderby et

112 al., 2007); and the *atr1D* mutant which hyperaccumulates IGSLs by overexpression of
113 IGSLs biosynthetic genes *CYP79B2*, *CYP79B3* and *CYP83B1* (Bender and Fink, 1998).

114 *Arabidopsis* seeds were surface-sterilized by vigorous sequential shaking in 70% ethanol
115 and 5% sodium hypochlorite solutions for 10 min each and then washed thoroughly four
116 times in sterile distilled water.

117 *T. harzianum* CECT 2424 (referred from here as strain Th) and *T. parareesei* CECT 20106
118 (referred from here as the Tp strain) (Spanish Type Culture Collection, Valencia, Spain)
119 were used throughout this study. Strains were routinely grown on potato-dextrose-agar
120 (PDA, Sigma-Aldrich, Madrid, Spain) in the dark at 28°C and the spores were stored at
121 –80°C in a 20% glycerol solution. Spores were harvested from 7-day-old PDA dishes as
122 previously described Poveda et al. (2019b).

123 **2.2. Plant growth and *Trichoderma* inoculation**

124 Seeds were grown on Murashige and Skoog (MS) (Duchefa, Haarlem, Netherlands) solid
125 medium (agar 1%) with sucrose (1%) in a growth chamber at 22°C, 40% relative humidity
126 (RH), and a 16 h light/8 h dark photoperiod at 80–100 $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, for 10 days. 20
127 *Arabidopsis* seedlings (per condition) were individually transferred to 0.2 L-pots,
128 containing a mixture of peat/vermiculite (3:1) sterilized by autoclave (twice, 24 hours
129 apart) and maintained in a greenhouse at $22 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$.

130 Each plant was inoculated by *Trichoderma* with 1 mL of a conidial suspension containing
131 2×10^7 spore mL^{-1} , determined using a haemocytometer, one week after the seedlings had
132 been transplanted.

133 **2.3. Abiotic stress and productivity quantification**

134 In order to analyze the response of the different *A. thaliana* plants inoculated with
135 *Trichoderma*, their productivity was analyzed under normal conditions and under saline
136 stress.

137 Regarding saline stress, *Arabidopsis* plants were watered with a 200 mM NaCl solution
138 every two days, starting from the development of the third true leaf (two-week-old plants)

139 until the end of its development cycle (11 weeks). The drought stress was developed due to
140 a progressive reduction in watering from the development of the third true leaf (two-week-
141 old plants). The pots were irrigated twice a week in weeks 3 and 4, once a week in weeks 5
142 and 6, and once every two weeks until the end of the life cycle (weeks 7–11).

143 The siliques from 15 *Arabidopsis* plants per condition were collected at the end of the life
144 cycle and counted (11 weeks). Three biological replicates were made, with 15 plants per
145 replicate and condition.

146 **2.4. Quantification of *Trichoderma*-root colonization**

147 In order to quantify the differences in root colonization by *Trichoderma* according to the
148 glycosylate profile of the host plant, its quantification was carried out by qPCR.

149 For the analyses of *Trichoderma*-root colonization, for each *Arabidopsis* mutant and
150 *Trichoderma* inoculant, roots from five plants per each treatment were pooled and root
151 pools from three independent assays were considered. Roots were collected in 5-week-old
152 plants. All root material was washed with water until there was no remaining substrate,
153 immediately frozen with liquid nitrogen, and pulverized with a mortar.

154 Following the methodology described by Poveda et al. (2019b), DNA was extracted using
155 the cetyl-trimethyl-ammonium bromide (CTAB) extraction method. A mix was prepared in
156 a 10 µl volume using 5 µl of Brilliant SYBR Green QPCR Master Mix (Roche), 10 ng of
157 DNA, the forward and reverse primers at a final concentration of 100 nM, and nuclease-
158 free PCR-grade water to adjust the final volume. The *Actin* genes of *Trichoderma*
159 and *Arabidopsis* were used as reference genes for the calculation of host plant and fungus
160 DNA, and their corresponding primer pairs are indicated in Table 1. Amplifications were
161 performed in an ABI PRISM 7000 Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystems,
162 Foster City, CA, USA) programmed for 40 cycles under the following conditions:
163 denaturation, 95°C for 15 s; annealing, 60°C for 1 min; extension, 72°C for 1 min. Each
164 PCR was performed in triplicate by using the DNA extracted from the roots collected.
165 Cycle threshold values served to calculate the amount of fungal DNA using standard

166 curves. Values of *Trichoderma* DNA were referred to the amount of *Arabidopsis* DNA in
167 every corresponding sample, normalizing to 1 the value of Col-0+Th.

168 **2.5. Biotic stress test**

169 In order to analyze the possible differences in resistance to biotic stresses as a consequence
170 of the different levels of root colonization by *Trichoderma* observed, foliar inoculation with
171 a pathogen was carried out.

172 For the biotic stress test, the phytopathogenic fungal strain *Botrytis cinerea* CECT 20973
173 (Spanish Type Culture Collection, Valencia, Spain) was used, following the methodology
174 described by Poveda et al. (2019b). The strain was maintained in the same way as in the
175 case of *Trichoderma* strains.

176 The tests of infection with the necrotrophic fungus *B. cinerea* were performed on leaves of
177 the *A. thaliana* wild-type ecotype Col-0 and the GSLs-mutants, keeping plants in
178 transparent plastic compartments with high humidity (close to 90%). Three leaves of 5
179 plants were inoculated per condition. The inoculation of this pathogen was carried out by
180 positioning a drop of 5 μ l of a germination solution containing 1000 spores of *B.*
181 *cinerea* (20 mM glucose, 20 mM KH_2PO_4 , pH 6.5 adjusted by KOH) in the center of each
182 leaf. The compartments were placed in a light chamber (Fitotron AGP-1400-HR, Radiber
183 SA, Barcelona, Spain) with a photoperiod of 16 h of light (80–100 E/m²/s) and 8 h of
184 darkness at a temperature of 22°C and a relative humidity of 40%–50%. Data were
185 obtained from three biological replicates with five plants per replicate for each condition,
186 and three leaves per plant.

187 **2.6. Defense-genes expression studies**

188 In order to analyze the defensive responses involved in the results obtained by infection
189 with *B. cinerea*, the expression analysis of defense genes was performed by RT-qPCR.

190 For gene expression studies, the pooled roots and pools of 2 leaves per plant of 5 plants per
191 condition and repetition were used for RNA extraction with the TRI reagent (Ambion,
192 Austin, TX, USA), following the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA was synthesized from

193 2 µg of RNA, which was treated with DNase RQ1 (Promega Biotech Ibérica, Alcobendas,
194 Spain), and then used for reverse transcription with an oligo(dT) primer with the
195 Transcriptor First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Takara Bio, Inc., Tokyo, Japan), following
196 the manufacturer's protocol. Gene expression was analyzed by RT-qPCR, using an ABI
197 PRISM 7000 Sequence Detection System with Brilliant SYBR Green QPCR Master Mix
198 (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA). All PCR reactions were performed in triplicate in a total
199 volume of 10 µL for 40 cycles under the following conditions: denaturation, 95 °C, 30 s;
200 annealing, 60 °C, 1 min; extension, 72 °C, 1 min. Threshold cycles (CT) were determined
201 using the 7000 SDS System Software (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA), and
202 CT values were calculated using the *Arabidopsis Actin* gene as an endogenous control. The
203 primers used are given in Table 1: genes of the isochorismate synthase 1 (*ICSI*),
204 pathogenesis-related protein 1 (*PR-1*), lipoxygenase 1 (*LOX1*), and vegetative storage
205 protein (*VSP2*). Data were expressed using $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001).
206 The choice of these defense genes is based on previous studies in *Arabidopsis* (Poveda et
207 al., 2019a, 2019b).

208 **2.7. Vitality test and indirect quantification of ROS in tissues**

209 In order to analyze and quantify the damage produced by the pathogen *B. cinerea* on the
210 leaves of *A. thaliana* in other ways, the viability test was carried out and the ROS produced
211 were quantified indirectly, following the methodology described by Poveda (2020b).

212 Reduction of triphenyltetrazolium chloride (TTC) by tissue to the red-colored insoluble
213 triphenylformazan (TF) is directly linked to the activity of the mitochondrial respiratory
214 chain. Thus, only living tissues should reduce TTC to TF. From pools formed from 1 leaf
215 per plant and 5 plants per condition and repetition, 100 mg were transferred to 1 mL of 1%
216 TTC in triplicate and incubated for 48 h at 37 °C. After incubation, 100 mg of Ballotini
217 Glass Balls 0.15–0.25 mm diameter and others 100 mg of 1 mm diameter were added to
218 each sample in 1,5 mL Eppendorf tubes, shaking vigorously by a pulse of 20 s in Silamat
219 S6 (Ivoclar Vivadent, Madrid, Spain). After centrifuging the samples for 15 min at 10,000
220 rpm, the supernatant was removed and 1 mL of isopropanol was added per tube. The
221 samples were again agitated in Silamat and centrifuged in the same way, and the

222 supernatant was used to quantify its absorbance at 620 nm, being an indirect measure of the
223 vitality of the *A. thaliana*-tissues.

224 The indirect quantification of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in *A. thaliana*-tissues was
225 carried out by measuring electrolyte leakage, which really measures cellular oxidative
226 damage related to the production of ROS. From each pools formed from 1 leaf per plant
227 and 5 plants per condition and repetition, 1 cm² of fresh tissue was briefly mixed with water
228 and floated on 5 mL of double-distilled water for 6 h at room temperature. The conductivity
229 of the water was measured using a Crison™ Conductimeter GLP31 (Crison, Barcelona,
230 Spain). This represented the electrolyte leakage from the tissues (Reading 1). Then,
231 samples were boiled for 20 min at 90 °C. After the liquid cooled down, the conductivity of
232 the water was measured again. This represented the total ions present in the tissues
233 (Reading 2). Electrolyte leakage, an indirect measurement of ROS, was represented as the
234 percentage of total ions released [(Reading 1/Reading 2) × 100].

235 **2.8. Statistical analysis**

236 The statistical analysis of the data was carried out with the Statistix 8.0 software. One-way
237 ANOVA using Tukey's multiple range test at $P < 0.05$ was used for pairwise comparisons
238 (Tukey, 1949); different letters indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$).

239 **3. Results**

240 **3.1. *Arabidopsis* productivity**

241 In plants without stress, inoculation with Th significantly increased the formation of
242 siliques per plant, not observed with the application of Tp in Col-0. No significant
243 differences between Col-0 and the different GSLs-mutants of *A. thaliana* were quantified
244 without the application of *Trichoderma*. In the *cyp*, *myb* and *QKO* mutants, the application
245 of Th also suggested a significant increase compared to non-inoculated plants, without
246 finding differences again in the case of Tp. Furthermore, the increase in productivity
247 quantified in *cyp* and *QKO* mutants with Th is significantly greater than in Col-0 and *myb*
248 with Th. On the other hand, inoculation with Th and Tp did not lead to significant

249 differences in the number of siliques formed per plant in the case of the *atr1D* mutant (Fig.
250 1A).

251 Under salinity stress, *cyp* and *QKO* mutants show a significant decrease in the number of
252 siliques formed per plant compared to Col-0, while *myb* mutant does not show significant
253 differences, and *atr1D* mutant significantly increases them. The application of Th in Col-0
254 supposes a significant increase in its productivity, being even more significant with the
255 application of Tp. The same results were observed in *myb*, *cyp* and *QKO* mutants, with the
256 latter two being a more significant increase compared to non-inoculated plants. In *atr1D*
257 mutant, the application of *Trichoderma* does not suppose significant differences in the
258 number of siliques that each plant forms (Fig. 1B).

259 As drought stress is concerned, only *myb* mutant has significantly less silique formation per
260 plant compared to the other mutants. The application of Th in Col-0 significantly increases
261 its productivity, being even greater with the application of Tp, similar results to those
262 obtained with *QKO* mutant. In *cyp* mutant, the application of Th and Tp also supposes an
263 increase in the number of siliques per plant, being significantly greater with Tp, and being
264 in both cases significantly greater than in the case of Col-0. This significant increase after
265 the application of Th is also observed in *myb* mutant, still remaining below the value of
266 Col-0 without inoculating, but equaling it when the fungus applied in *myb* is Tp. *atr1D*
267 mutant does not show significant differences when *Trichoderma* is applied (Fig. 1C).

268 ***Trichoderma*-roots colonization**

269 Regarding the root colonization of *A. thaliana* by *Trichoderma*, both in Th and Tp (Figure
270 2A and 2B, respectively) there is a significant increase in the levels of colonization of the
271 *cyp* and *QKO* mutants with respect to Col-0. On the contrary, in the *atr1D* mutant a
272 significant decrease in colonization levels in Th and Tp, with respect to Col-0, is quantified.
273 In the case of the *myb* mutant, there are no significant differences compared to Col-0 in Th
274 and Tp colonization.

275 **Effect of *Trichoderma* in *Arabidopsis*-roots defense**

276 The RT-qPCR analysis of the expression levels of different genes related to plant defense
277 showed how there are no significant differences between the different mutants of *A.*
278 *thaliana* in the expression levels of the four genes studied. In Col-0 with both *Trichoderma*
279 species the expression of the genes of synthesis and response to SA (*ICS1* and *PR-1*)
280 increases significantly, and the expression of the genes involved in synthesis and response
281 to JA (*LOX1* and *VSP2*) decreases significantly. Same results were obtained for all the
282 mutants studied, except for the *atr1D* mutant, where no significant differences were
283 observed after the fungal application. Furthermore, in the case of the *cyp* and *QKO* mutants,
284 the increase in the expression of the genes related to SA is even more significant (Fig. 3).

285 **Effect of *Trichoderma* in *Arabidopsis*-leaves defense against biotic stress**

286 Regarding the systemic expression of defense genes in the different mutants of *A. thaliana*
287 inoculated with *Trichoderma*, we could see how there are no significant differences in the
288 expression of the different genes studied between the different mutants. In Col-0, root
289 inoculation with *Trichoderma* significantly increases the expression of JA-related genes
290 (*LOX1* and *VSP2*), this increase being significantly greater with Th than with Tp, in
291 addition, the expression of SA-related genes (*ICS1* and *PR-1*) is significantly reduced. The
292 application of *Trichoderma* supposes a significant increase in the expression of the genes
293 related to JA also in *cyp*, *myb* and *QKO* mutants, being also significantly higher with Th
294 than with Tp, and in the case of *cyp* and *QKO* mutants being significantly higher than in the
295 case of *myb* mutant. With respect to SA, the application of *Trichoderma* also supposes a
296 decrease in the expression of its genes in *cyp* and *QKO* mutants, with no differences
297 between the inoculated and non-inoculated plants in the case of *myb* and *atr1D* mutants.
298 Furthermore, *atr1D* mutant also does not significantly changed the expression of its JA-
299 related genes after *Trichoderma* inoculation.

300 After foliar infection of *A. thaliana* with the necrotrophic fungus *B. cinerea* we were able to
301 observe how *cyp* and *QKO* mutants were significantly more affected by the pathogen
302 compared to Col-0, while *myb* mutant was similarly affected, and *atr1D* mutant was
303 significantly less affected than Col-0. In Col-0 plants inoculated with Th and Tp, a
304 significant reduction in the diameter of the lesions was observed compared to the plants
305 without inoculation, being even more significant in the case of Th. The same significant

306 increases with the application of *Trichoderma* were observed in the rest of the *A. thaliana*
307 mutants, observing the same differences between Th and Tp, being significantly higher than
308 those observed in Col-0 in the case of *cyp* and *QKO* mutants, and significantly less in the
309 case of *myb* and *atr1D* mutants (Fig. 5 and Fig. S1).

310 **DISCUSSION**

311 The hypothesis of the fundamental role of glucosinolates in the root colonization of
312 cruciferous plants by endophytic fungi is currently being studied in depth (Poveda et al.,
313 2020d). The ability of *T. harzianum* to colonize the roots of crucifers such as *A. thaliana* or
314 *B. napus* had already been related to its ability to tolerate the presence of GSLs in the roots,
315 thanks to a KELCH-type protein (Poveda et al., 2019b), without deepen the importance of
316 the profile GSLs or *Trichoderma* species used. In our study, we have verified how IGSLs
317 are mainly involved in controlling root colonization by *Trichoderma* in *A. thaliana* roots,
318 since in mutants unable to accumulate them, such as *cyp* and *QKO*, the fungal presence in
319 the roots increases significantly, while in hyperaccumulator mutant (*atr1D*) this is greatly
320 reduced. While the absence of changes in the levels of root colonization in AGSLs-absent
321 mutant (*myb*) suggests that the amount of these does not modify the colonizer-root capacity
322 of *Trichoderma*. These data agree with other studies in which the role of IGSLs as a root-
323 antifungal was highlighted, for example, against the hemibiotrophic *Colletotrichum*
324 *gloeosporioides* (Hiruma et al., 2013) or the necrotrophic *Plectosphaerella cucumerina*
325 (Frerigmann et al., 2016), and against oomycetes as *Phytophthora brassicae* (Schlaeppli et
326 al., 2010). It has even been verified in the *cyp* mutant that the absence of IGSLs causes
327 beneficial fungi, promoters of plant growth in *A. thaliana* such as *Colletotrichum tofieldiae*
328 and *Serendipita indica*, to behave as pathogens as there are no plant defenses that limit the
329 colonization of plant tissues (Hiruma et al., 2018). On the contrary, the ability of IGSLs to
330 promote fungal growth has also been reported in the ectomycorrhizal fungi *Paxillus*
331 *involutus* and *Pisolithus tinctorius* (Zeng et al., 2003). Furthermore, it has been verified
332 how the absence of IGSLs in roots of *A. thaliana* does not modify its defensive capacity
333 against *Fusarium oxysporum* (Kidd et al., 2011).

334 The first effect that we could verify as a consequence of the increased root colonization by
335 *T. harzianum* in *A. thaliana* was a significant increase in the formation of siliques,

336 therefore, in its productivity, something that did not happen with *T. parareesei*. Exactly
337 these same results were obtained in rapeseed plants, where it was found that *T. parareesei*
338 increases the weight of seeds produced by each plant, to a lesser extent than *T. harzianum* is
339 capable of (Poveda, 2020a). Under abiotic stress conditions such as salinity and drought,
340 we have been able to verify how the mutants incapable of producing IGSLs (*cyp* and *QKO*)
341 presented a lower tolerance to salinity stress, the hyperaccumulative mutant (*atr1D*) being
342 the most tolerant, while the most tolerant to drought situation were the mutants unable to
343 accumulate AGSLc (*myb*). These results agree with those obtained in *Brassica rapa*, where
344 it has been possible to verify how there is a direct relationship between the content of
345 IGSLs and tolerance to salt stress (Steinbrenner et al., 2012) and the content of AGSLs and
346 tolerance to drought (Zhang et al., 2008). Furthermore, after applying *Trichoderma*, we
347 were able to verify that the mutants with the lowest content of IGSLs and, as we had seen,
348 greater capacity to be colonized by the fungus, presented a greater tolerance to both abiotic
349 stresses. Similarly, an increase in the salt-tolerance was observed with the inoculation of
350 tomatoes with *T. harzianum* (Mastouri et al., 2010) and *T. parareesei* (Rubio et al., 2014),
351 and in drought-tolerance with the inoculation of tomato with *T. harzianum* (Mona et al.,
352 2017). Contrary to what happened in a situation without abiotic stress, we observed how *T.*
353 *parareesei* improved tolerance to both stresses in a significantly better way than *T.*
354 *harzianum* did. As it could be observed in rapeseed plants, this is due to the presence in *T.*
355 *parareesei* of a chorismate mutase that improves its root colonization capacity under
356 salinity and drought stresses, and increases the expression of genes related to the hormonal
357 pathways of abscisic acid (ABA) under drought stress, and ethylene (ET) under salt stress
358 (Poveda, 2020a).

359 At the root level, we have been able to verify how SA is the main defensive hormonal route
360 involved in the control of colonization by *Trichoderma*, as determined by Alonso-Ramírez
361 et al. (2014), reporting how, in the absence of SA, *Trichoderma* colonizes the roots of *A.*
362 *thaliana* in a massive and uncontrolled way up to the vascular bundles, behaving as a
363 systemic pathogen. In this sense, we quantified a higher response mediated by SA in those
364 plants where colonization by *Trichoderma* was greater, in the same way as Poveda et al.
365 (2019a) determined how the increase in root colonization by *Trichoderma* is linked to an
366 increase in the response by SA to control it.

367 After foliar infection with the necrotrophic pathogen *B. cinerea*, we verified the importance
368 of IGSLs in the defense of *A. thaliana* against the fungus, since the mutants unable to
369 synthesize them (*cyp* and *QKO*) were the most affected, while the mutant that overdrive
370 (*atr1D*) was the strongest. In this sense, it has been verified how *A. thaliana* susceptibility
371 to *B. cinerea* is increased by reducing the biosynthesis of IGSLs (Cargnel et al., 2014), and
372 how the overexpression of the glucosinolate biosynthesis gene *BnUGT74B1* in *Brassica*
373 *napus* enhanced resistance to *S. sclerotiorum* and *Botrytis cinerea*, thanks to an increase on
374 IGSLs (Zhang et al., 2015).

375 After the application of *Trichoderma* we have been able to verify how the harmful effect of
376 the pathogen decreases in all mutants, there being a direct relationship between root
377 colonization by *Trichoderma* and the reduction of the disease. This result would be due to a
378 systemic increase in the expression of JA-related genes as root colonization increases, as
379 other authors had related the plant defensive capacity against *B. cinerea* mediated by JA in
380 *A. thaliana* (Yang et al., 2007; Méndez-Bravo et al., 2011). Furthermore, we observe how
381 *T. harzianum* is more effective than *T. parareesei* in activating systemic resistance against
382 *B. cinerea* in *A. thaliana*. This activation of systemic resistance against *B. cinerea* had
383 previously been verified in *A. thaliana* with *T. harzianum* (De Meyer et al., 1998) and in
384 tomato with *T. parareesei* (Pérez et al., 2015), making in this study the first comparison of
385 activation of systemic resistance between both species of *Trichoderma* on the same plant.

386 In summary, we have been able to determine how IGSLs are indirectly involved in
387 reducing the ability of *Trichoderma* to colonize the roots of cruciferous plants such as *A.*
388 *thaliana*, due to the formation of hydrolysis products with broad-spectrum antifungal
389 activity. In this sense, we have been able to relate the levels of root colonization with the
390 ability of *Trichoderma* to promote plant productivity, tolerance to abiotic stresses and
391 resistance to biotic stresses trough JA pathway. Furthermore, determining how *T.*
392 *parareesei* works better than *T. harzianum* in increasing plant tolerance, but it does worse
393 in the rest of the studied capacities.

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581 **Tab. 1.** Oligonucleotides used in this work.

Code	Sequence (5'-3')	Use
Act-T-F	ATGGTATGGGTCAGAAGGA	Endogenous <i>Trichoderma</i> gene
Act-T-R	ATGTCAACACGAGCAATGG	
Act-At-F	CTCCCGCTATGTATGTCGCC	Endogenous <i>Arabidopsis</i> gene
Act-At-R	TTGGCACAGTGTGAGACACAC	
ICS1-At-F	GATCTAGCTAACGAGAACGG	Synthesis gene of SA in <i>Arabidopsis</i>
ICS1-At-R	CATTAAACTCAACCTGAGGGAC	
PR-1-At-F	GGCTAACTACAACACTACGCTG	Response gene to SA in <i>Arabidopsis</i>
PR-1-At-R	GGCTTCTCGTTCACATAATTC	
LOX1-At-F	GTAAGCTCTGATGTTACTGATTC	Synthesis gene of JA in <i>Arabidopsis</i>
LOX1-At-R	CTGCGGTTAACGACGTGATTG	
VSP2-At-F	GTTAGGGACCGGAGCATCAA	Response gene to JA in <i>Arabidopsis</i>
VSP2-At-R	TCAATCCCGAGCTCTATGATGTT	

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584 **Fig. 1.** *A. thaliana* productivity. The number of siliques per plant collected from the
585 different *A. thaliana* lines (Col-0, *cyp*, *myb*, *QKO* and *atr1D*) and the different *Trichoderma*
586 inoculations: *T. harzianum* (+Th) and *T. parareesei* (+Tp), without stress (A), under salt
587 stress (NaCl 200mM) (B) and under drought stress (C).

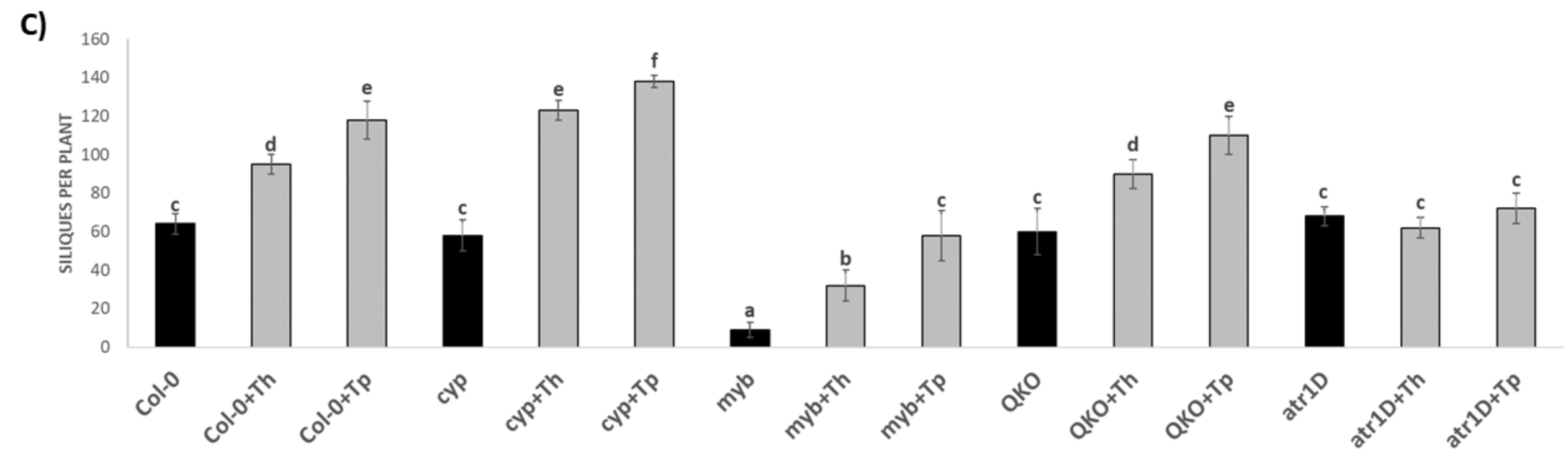
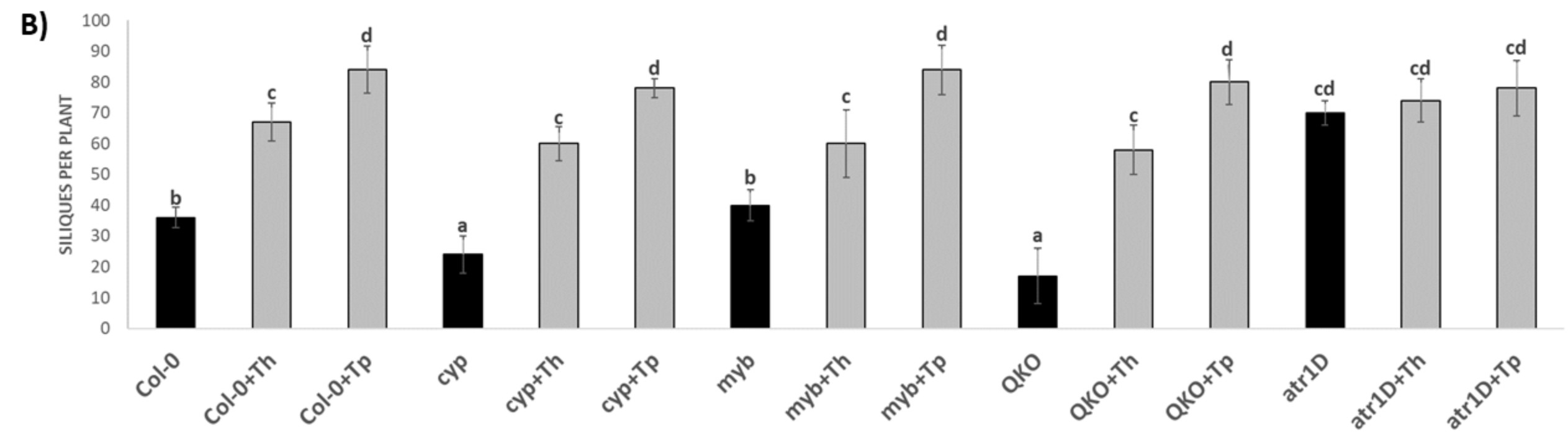
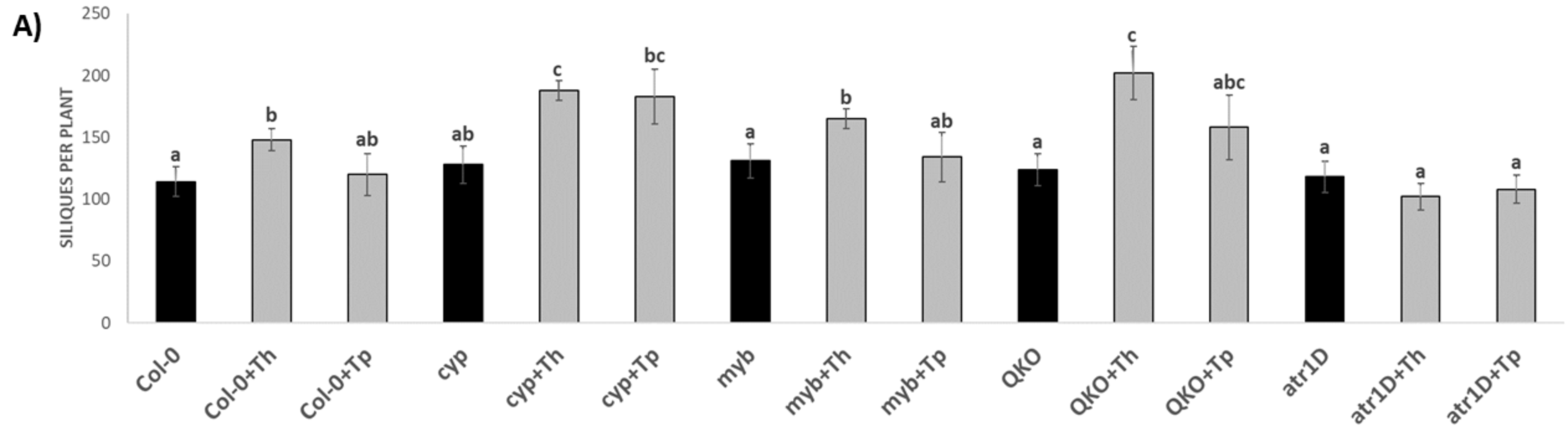
588 **Fig.2.** Measurements of *Arabidopsis*-root colonization by *T. harzianum* (+Th) (A) and *T.*
589 *parareesei* (+Tp) (B). To quantify *Arabidopsis*-root colonization, the DNA of the fungus
590 was quantified by qPCR from radicular samples using the *Actin* genes from both the plants

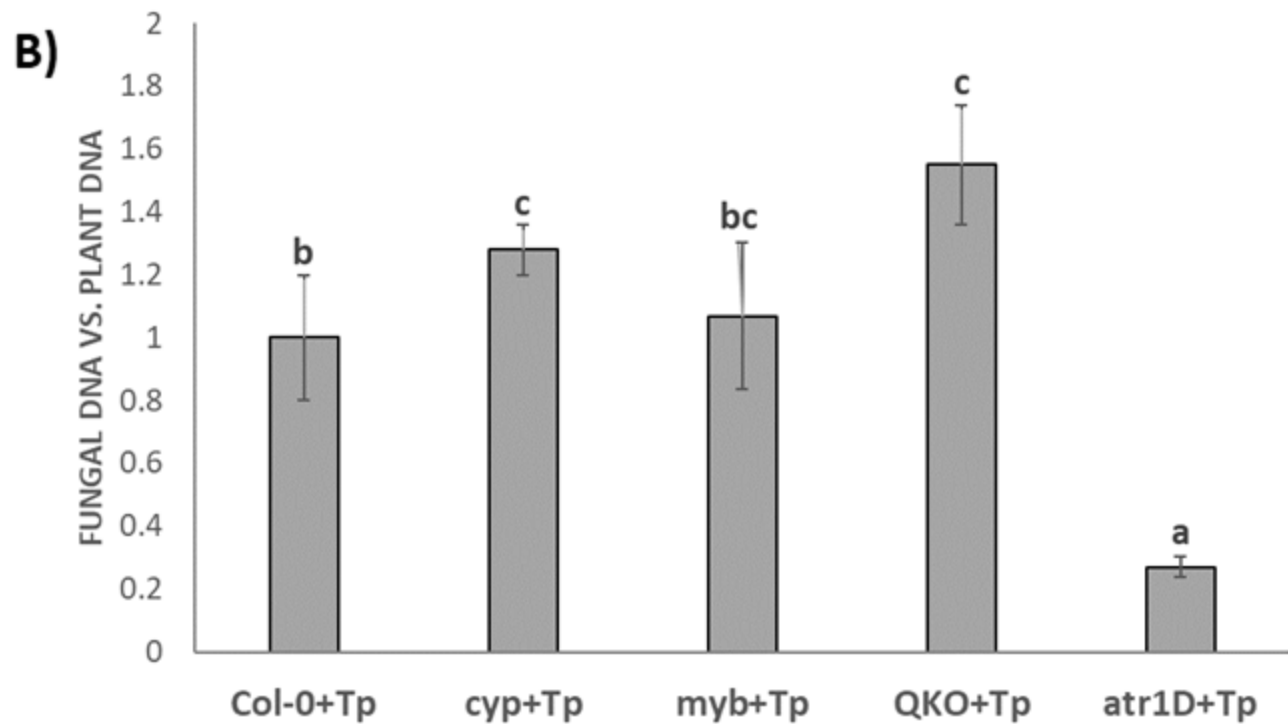
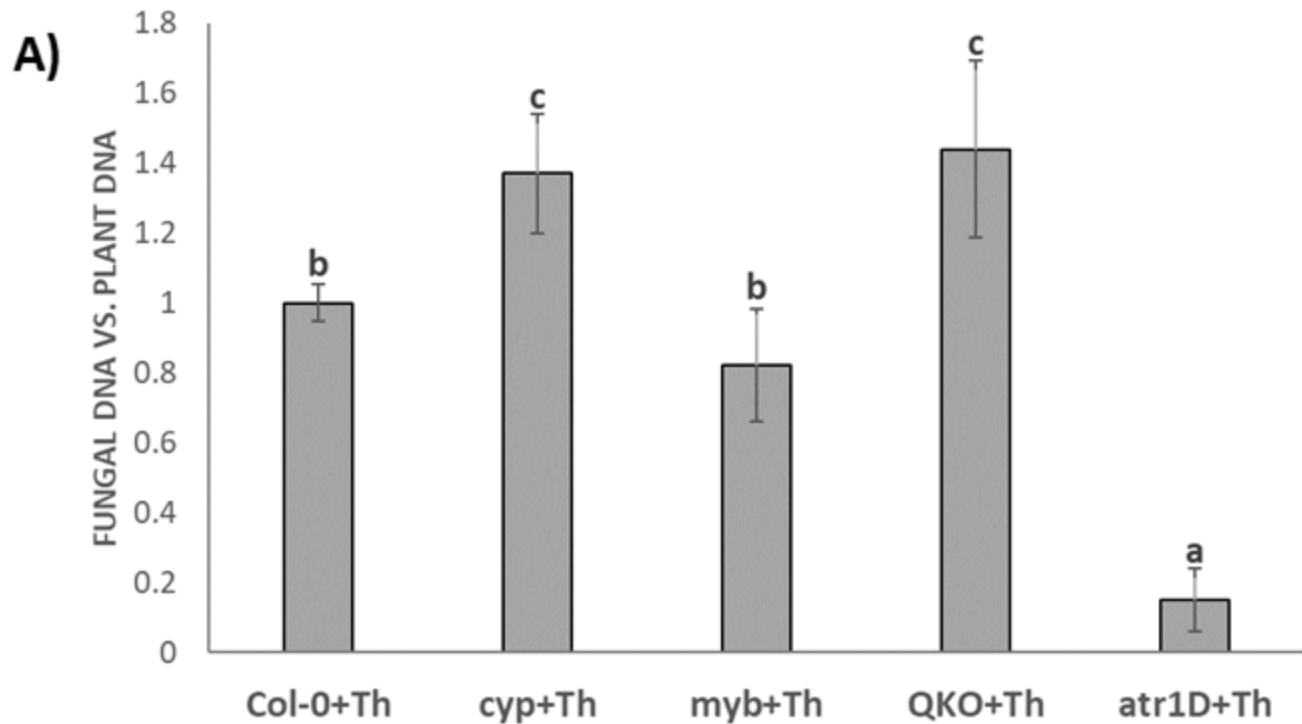
591 and the fungus. Fungal DNA/plant DNA ratio was normalized to 1 in the case of Col-0 and
592 was calculated based on this data for the rest of the lines.

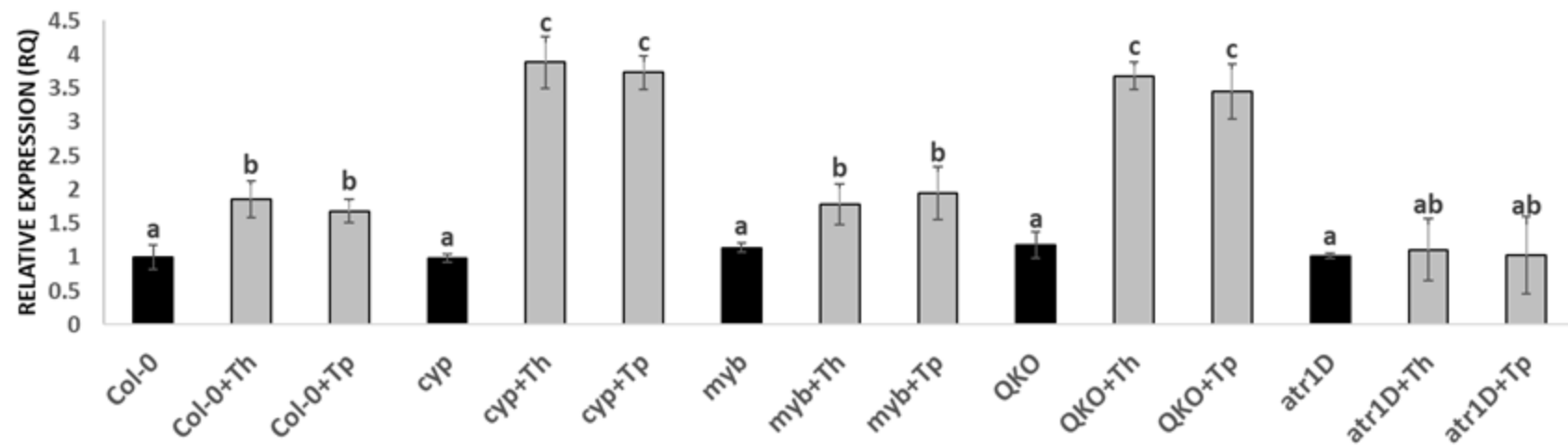
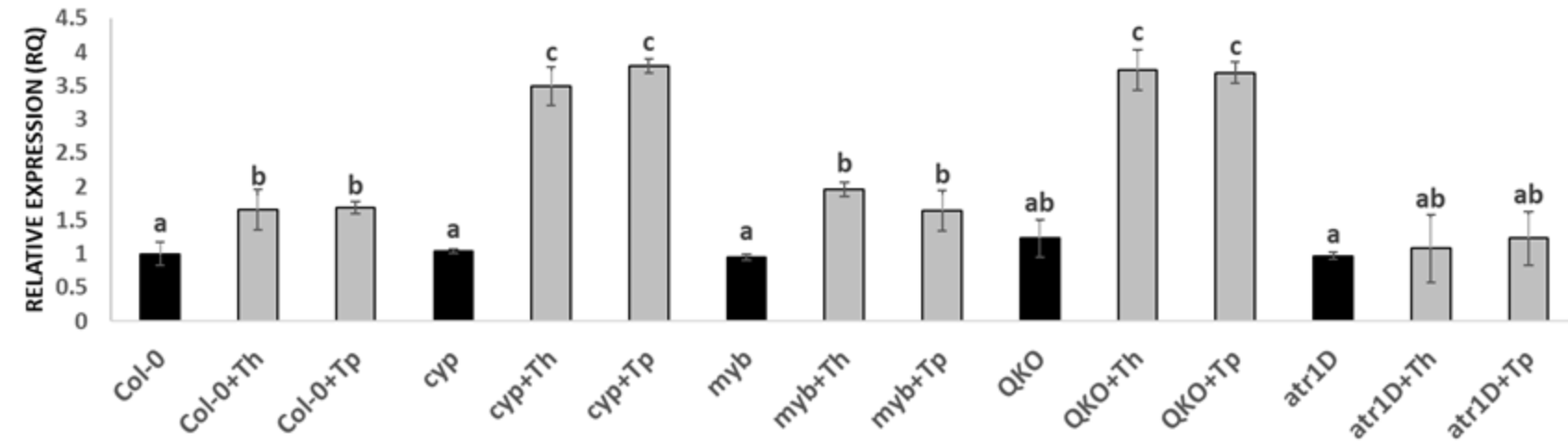
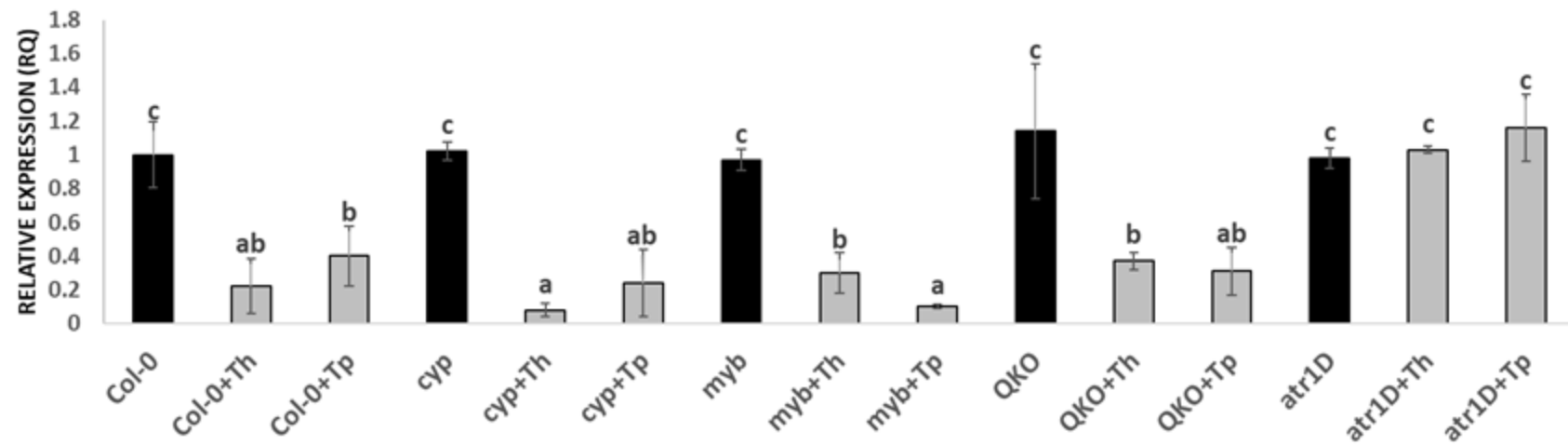
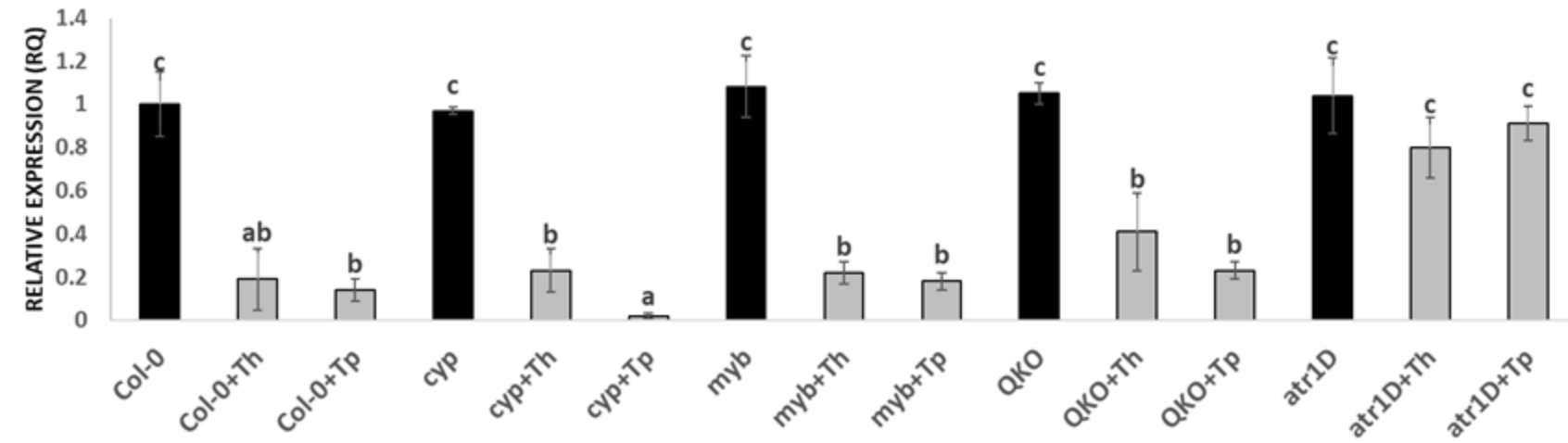
593 **Fig. 3.** Quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) analysis of
594 the expression of some defense genes in the roots of *A. thaliana* lines (Col-0, *cyp*, *myb*,
595 *QKO* and *atr1D*) colonized by *T. harzianum* (+Th) and *T. parareesei* (+Tp). Genes of the
596 isochorismate synthase 1 (*ICSI*), pathogenesis-related protein 1 (*PR-1*), lipoxygenase 1
597 (*LOX1*), and vegetative storage protein (*VSP2*). Values correspond to relative
598 measurements against Col-0 ($2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t} = 1$).

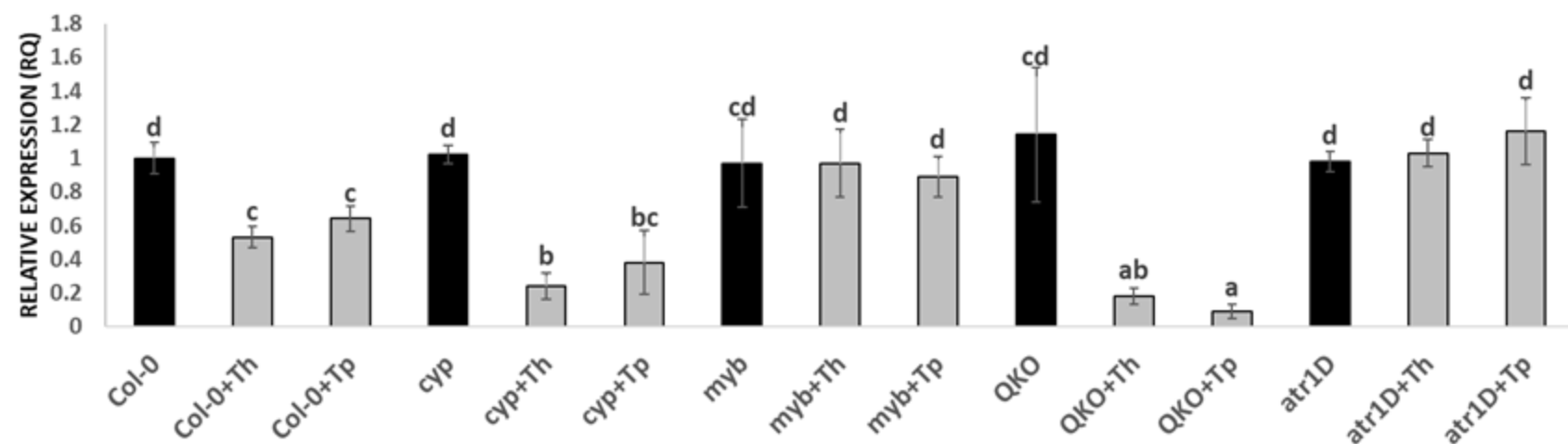
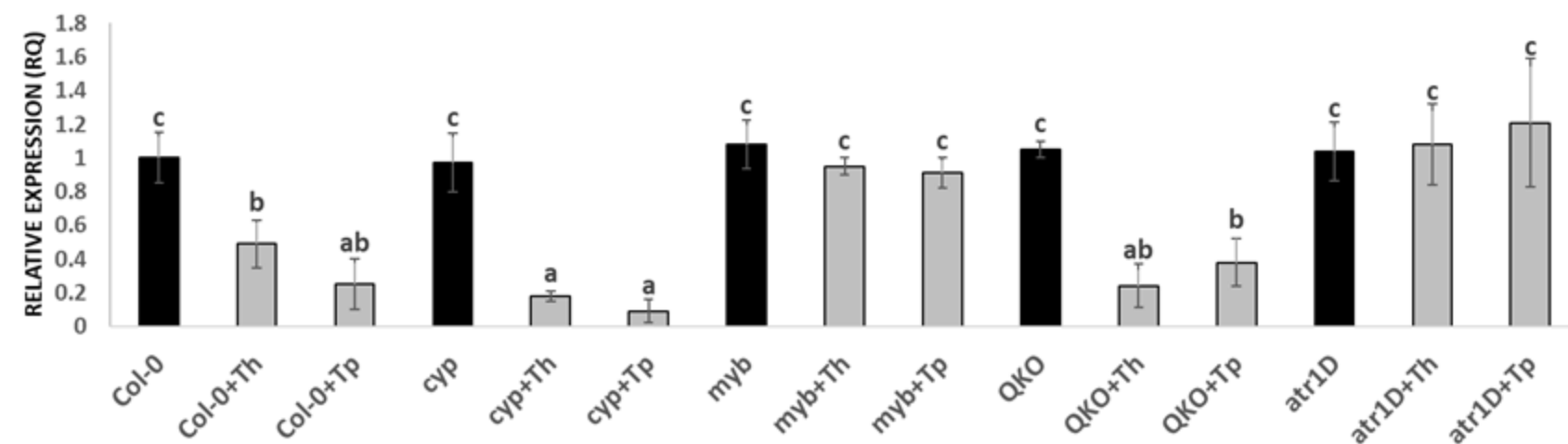
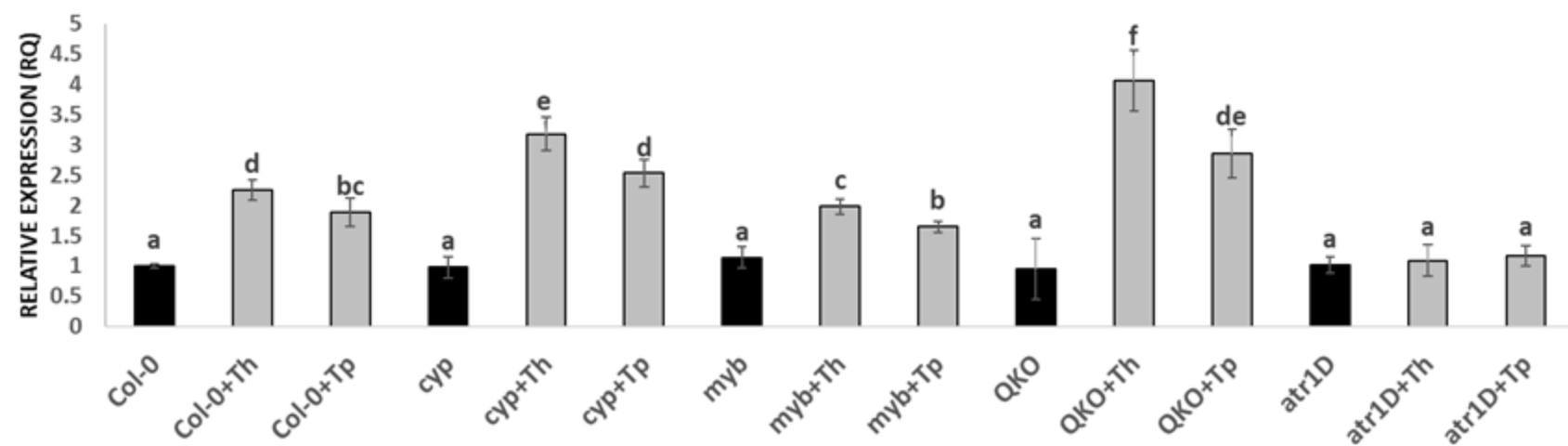
599 **Fig. 4.** Quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) analysis of
600 the expression of some defense genes in the leaves of *A. thaliana* lines (Col-0, *cyp*, *myb*,
601 *QKO* and *atr1D*) root-colonized by *T. harzianum* (+Th) and *T. parareesei* (+Tp). Genes of
602 the isochorismate synthase 1 (*ICSI*), pathogenesis-related protein 1 (*PR-1*), lipoxygenase 1
603 (*LOX1*), and vegetative storage protein (*VSP2*). Values correspond to relative
604 measurements against Col-0 ($2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t} = 1$).

605 **Fig. 5.** *A. thaliana* leaf lesions caused by *B. cinerea*. *In planta* assay performed on *A.*
606 *thaliana* lines (Col-0, *cyp*, *myb*, *QKO* and *atr1D*) which roots are colonized by *T.*
607 *harzianum* (+Th) and *T. parareesei* (+Tp), at 120 h after pathogen inoculation (A). The
608 quantification of the fungal lesions (B) is represented by columns that show the percentages
609 of the diameter (mm) lesion groups. Different letters represent significant differences at $P \leq$
610 0.05 using the non-parametric Friedman's test.





ICS1**PR-1****LOX1****VSP2**

ICS1**PR-1****LOX1****VSP2**