

Review Article

Biocontrol mechanism of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal fungi against plant-parasitic nematodes :A review

Abstract:

Plant-parasitic nematodes (PPN) are the major global threat to food production. Control strategies based on synthetic nematicides is undesirable due to environmental and health risks. Therefore, use of biocontrol agents such as Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) is environmentally friendly options for management of PPN. The antagonistic action of AMF against PPNs may be achieved by competition for nutrients and space, by increasing plant tolerance or by changing rhizosphere interactions by altering root exudations. An increased insight into their modes of action will therefore help to increase the efficacy of these biocontrol agents. This review presents an overview of different mechanisms of AMF-mediated biocontrol, and their potential involvement in reducing PPN infections.

Key words: Biocontrol, Plant-parasitic nematodes (PPN), Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF), Mode of action, Root rhizosphere interactions.

1. Introduction

Plant-parasitic nematodes (PPNs) or phyto-nematodes are usually small soil-borne pathogens that can feed on all plant parts, although most species feed on roots. Over 4100 species of plant-parasitic nematodes were described to date, among which, a restricted group of genera is considered as major plant-pathogens, whereas others are specific to a more limited range of crops, both causing a high impact to economically important crops. Damage caused by plant nematodes has been estimated as a projected yield loss of 12.3% in excess of USD\$80 billion per annum worldwide and are expected to rise in the near future as a result of climate change and cropping systems (Nicol et al., 2011). PPN consist of a wide range of species with different life styles that can cause major damage in many important crops worldwide. Additional losses could be related to food quality and visual imperfections associated with infection symptoms

The direct damage caused by PPN can be aggravated by secondary infections of the wounded plant tissues by other pathogens. The full extent of worldwide nematode damage is likely to be underestimated, since growers are often unaware of their presence because the symptoms caused in the plant are often non-specific, making difficult to attribute crop losses to nematode damage (Siddique and Grundler, 2018). However, the damages caused by PPN have been managed by chemical practices. This causes deterioration to the environment and public health in the long run, in addition to the high economic cost of nematicides. Therefore, it was necessary to search for alternative methods to combat PPN by looking at the interaction of PPN with the biological content of the soil. Microbial antagonists as biological control agents of nematodes are one of the potential alternatives to chemical nematicides; however, they are dependable under various environmental conditions. Therefore, attention should be paid to its relationship to plant in an unconventional form, to find or create an antagonistic relationship between PPN and some soil microorganisms to induce plants against nematodes. One of the proposed environmentally friendly options to manage PPN is the use of biological control organisms, such as arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF). AMF are obligate root symbionts that can protect their host plant against biotic stress factors such as plant-parasitic nematode (PPN) infection. Application of AMF fungi not only modulates physio-biochemical pathways but also reduced the infestation, colonization, and invasion of plant-parasitic nematodes (Da Silva-Campos, 2024).

2. Mycorrhizal Fungi

Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi are obligate root symbionts, estimated to colonize more than 80% of all land plant species and they are beneficial for the growth of host plants (Ferlian et al., 2018). AMF, which are found naturally in soil and behave as bio-stimulators and bio-protectors, may be extremely advantageous to sustainable agriculture by preserving plant productivity and alleviating soil-borne plant pathogens while causing no harm to the environment (da Silva Campos, 2020). AMF have been promoted as a natural tool to maintain and promote sustainable agriculture due to their role as natural biofertilizers; increasing the levels of nitrogen (N), P and Zn in the crop (Berruti et al., 2016). They also play a role as bio-protectants against fungal, bacterial, and nematode pathogens (Yang et al., 2014). To complete their life cycle, they consume lipids (Gianinazzi et al. 2010) and products from photosynthetic plants. Though there are different kinds of mycorrhiza, the most common mycorrhizal association occurring in crops important in agriculture is the arbuscular type (van der Heijden et al., 2015). According to

Spatafora et al. (2016), most AMF species are members of the Mucoromycota phylum's Glomeromycotina sub-phylum. This subphylum has 25 taxa and many orders, including the Glomerales, Archaeosporales, Paraglomerales, and Diversisporales. Native mycorrhizal fungi strains are used as biofertilizers and bioprotective agents to increase plant's yield and protect the plant from the pathogens, as an ecofriendly agent; however, the inoculation of plants with many mycorrhizal species belonging to different families were found to be more efficient than mono-inoculation.

3. Interaction between Plant-parasitic Nematodes and AMF

Plant parasitic nematodes and AMF share plant roots as resource for food and space. The coexistence of AMF and nematodes in the phytobiome has prompted a number of investigations into their interactive effects on plants (Yang et al., 2014 Zhang et al., 2020). Based on proximity in tissue, the interactions between endoparasites and AMF would be stronger, i.e. more reciprocal effects of endoparasitic nematodes on AMF, than those between ectoparasites and AMF. However, relative to AMF-free plants, AMF infected plants were damaged more by ectoparasites than by endoparasites. Of the sedentary endoparasites, numbers of root-knot nematodes were reduced more by mycorrhizal infection than were those of cyst nematodes. Migratory endoparasitic nematode number was greater on AMF infected plants. Interactions appear to be very specific. The outcomes of AMF nematode interactions are determined by many factors during the interactions between organisms and their physical, physiological and temporal environments. The interactions between mycorrhizal fungi and nematodes are complicated and depend on the soil conditions, fungal species, host plants, and nematodes. Mycorrhizal-nematode interaction is prospected to increase the resistance of plants to nematode infection (Ferreira et al., 2018).

4. Biocontrol mechanism of AMF

Various mechanisms have been proposed to play a role in the biocontrol effect of AMF against PPN. The different mechanisms cannot be considered as completely independent from each other and biocontrol probably results from a combination of different mechanisms (Cameron et al., 2013). AM fungi are model organisms, besides potential role in nutrient cycling; they modulate biochemical pathways directly or indirectly which lead to better plant growth under biotic and abiotic stress conditions. The relative importance of a specific mechanism can vary depending on the specific AMF-pathogen-plant interaction. Several mechanisms can be involved in the AMF-

mediated biocontrol; direct effects of AMF on the pathogen, involving competition for space or nutrients, or indirect, plant-mediated, effects. The latter can further be divided into the effects of AMF on plant tolerance, plant defense induction and altered plant exudation leading to altered rhizosphere interactions.

4.1. Protective effects of AMF

AMF can alleviate plant stress caused by abiotic as well as biotic factors, including PPN (Singh et al., 2011). *In vitro*, green house as well as field experiments indicated protective effects against PPN by AMF in plants such as banana, coffee and tomato (Koffi et al., 2013). These protective effects ranged from a reduction in infection and reproduction to an enhanced tolerance. Typically found in the rhizosphere, phytopathogenic nematodes including RKN colonize the roots of their host plants and have opposing effects on the health of those plants (Zhou et al., 2020). However, few reports indicated that AMF inoculation reduces the infestation of plant roots by phytopathogenic nematodes (Elsen et al., 2008). Growing plants with AMF inoculation in the nursery can increase their growth and safeguard them from infection caused by soil-borne phytopathogens including phytopathogenic nematodes (Elsen et al., 2008). Published meta-analyses describe the generally suppressive effect that AMF have on nematodes (Veresoglou and Rillig, 2012). These analyses included nematodes belonging to different genera and they grouped plant parasitic nematodes into their feeding modes (sedentary or migratory). AMF reduced the numbers of the sedentary endoparasitic nematodes (*Meloidogyne*, *Heterodera*, and *Globodera* spp.) and the ectoparasitic nematodes (*Tylenchorhynchus* spp.). However, some analyses showed an increase in migratory endo-parasitic nematode numbers on inoculation with AMF (Hol and Cook, 2005). Grouping the nematodes into their broad feeding modes has the effect of obscuring the data on interactions of AMF with *Pratylenchus* spp. and those with other migratory endo-parasites including *Radopholus* spp. and *Hirschmanniella* spp. Usually, AMF exhibit an antagonistic effect on plant-parasitic nematodes, and several studies have shown a significant reduction in nematodes when healthy mycorrhizal diversity present in the rhizosphere (Gough et al., 2020; Poveda et al., 2020). In recent years, many investigations have been reported where AMF showed protective effects against plant parasitic nematodes (PPN) in various crop plants (Alban et al., 2013). The feeding cells induced within the vascular cylinder by root-knot and cyst nematodes may breach the endodermis, spreading into the cortex where they may be direct competition for space with AMF. The feeding cells of *Heterodera avenae* are

confined to cells within the endodermis and thus may not be affected by direct competition with AMF. The sedentary endoparasitism make them more sensitive to changes in plant physiology by AMF than are the migratory endoparasites. VAF do not colonize regions infected by endoparasitic nematodes, and nematodes rarely infect regions colonized by VA fungi. AMF can change root morphology with consequences for penetration and movement of migratory nematodes. They move within the cortex, benefit from AMF so may be feeding on cells suitable for AMF colonisation. *Ditylenchus dipsaci* numbers first increased and then decreased on mycorrhizal *Phaseolus vulgaris* compared to non-mycorrhizal controls; similarly *Aphelenchoides ritzemabosi* populations decreased on mycorrhizal compared to non mycorrhizal tobacco (Sikora and Dehne, 1979). Enhancing host resistance and/or tolerance by AMF could be a promising alternative. AMF may enhance host tolerance and increase resistance by slowing down nematode development. The net effects vary with the environment, plant genotype, nematode species and fungal isolate. Mode of parasitism of nematode affects the nature and outcome of interactions with AMF. Ectoparasitic nematodes are unaffected by direct competition with AMF and are more likely to be affected indirectly by AMF-induced changes in plant physiology (increased free amino acids in leaves, especially arginine, higher chitinase activity in roots, an increase in soluble sugars and phenols in roots. Strictly direct mechanisms of mycorrhizal fungi against nematodes are not yet described as they normally act through the plant host, either providing the plant with higher nutrient and water uptake, altering root morphology by increasing root growth and branching, or making the plants more competitive for nutrients and space with other plants, or altered rhizosphere interactions (Wani et al., 2017). Recent studies have confirmed these mechanisms, for example, mycorrhizas (*Rhizophagus intraradices* and *Funneliformis mosseae*) reduce tomato root penetration by false root-knot nematode *Nacobbus aberrans* (Marro et al., 2018), in the same way as the application of *Glomus intraradices*, *G. mosseae*, and *G. etunicatum* against *M. javanica* in peach trees (Calvet et al., 2001). In contrast, the increment in root colonization by mycorrhizae (*Rhizophagus clarus*, *Claroideoglomus etunicatum*, *Gigaspora rosea*, *G. margarita*, *Scutellosporacalospora*, and *S. heterogama*) caused an increase in the population of nematodes *Pratylenchus brachyurus* in maize crop (Brito et al., 2018) which is opposite to the effect in cotton (Ferreira et al., 2018). All these mechanisms and their effectiveness on the populations

and the capacity of infection of the phytoparasitic nematodes will depend closely on the local environmental conditions.

4.2. Higher Nutrient Uptake

Application of AMF to agricultural soils might help to enhance uptake of soil nutrients in crops in a more sustainable manner, thereby reducing reliance on chemical fertilisers. In exchange for photosynthetic carbon from their host, they boost plant growth and development by enhancing nutrient uptake (Bender et al., 2015) and also help plants to cope with various stresses imposed by abiotic and biotic elements, including parasitic nematodes on plants (Schouteden et al., 2015). Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi are known to be able to increase the uptake of water and mineral nutrients for their host plant, such as phosphate and nitrogen (Baum et al., 2015) but probably also micro-elements such as zinc (Smith and Smith, 2011). Higher uptake of phosphate has been proposed as a mechanism for the AMF-mediated biocontrol (Bodker et al., 1998). Fritzel et al. (2006) showed that tomato plants colonized by *Rhizophagus irregularis* showed significantly less symptoms caused by *A. solani* than non-mycorrhizal plants, while no increase in phosphate uptake was observed. Plants with a better nutrient status are able to tolerate higher PPN population densities in their roots, as observed in cotton fields infested with the sedentary semi-endoparasitic nematode *Rotylenchulus reniformis* (Pettigrew et al., 2005). Regression analysis of nematode population densities against the mineral content in rice also revealed a positive correlation between migratory ectoparasitic *Helicotylenchus* spp. and Mg, however, a negative correlation was observed between the migratory endoparasitic nematode *Pratylenchus zeae* and Zn or Fe, and between *M. incognita* and Mg and Ca. These observations indicate that the nutrient status of the host plant can affect PPN population densities in both a positive and negative way.

4.3. Altered Root Morphology

Mycorrhizal plants often show increased root growth and branching, enhanced AMF colonization increased lateral root formation (secondary and tertiary rooting) and modulates the root morphology of rice which is beneficial for plant growth and development (Gutjahr and Paszkowski, 2013). The root morphology responses resulting from AMF colonization seem to depend on plant characteristics, with taproots for example

appearing to profit more from AMF than fibrous roots in terms of gained biomass and nutrient acquisition (Yan et al., 2014). Positive effects could result from an increase in root vigor, due to a higher nutrient uptake capacity. It might even counterbalance the suppressed root growth caused by PPN. For example, decreased root branching caused by the migratory endoparasitic nematodes *Radopholus similis* and *P. coffeae* in banana was counterbalanced by the increased branching due to colonization by the AMF *Funneliformis mosseae* (Elsen et al., 2003).

4.4. Direct competition for nutrients and space

Competition for nutrients or for space and infection sites do occur between microorganisms with the same physiological requirements in an ecological niche, especially where resources such as carbon might be limited. The carbon transfer from the host plant to the AMF is estimated to range from 4 to 20% of the total assimilated carbon (Hammer et al., 2011). As there is a difference in carbon sink strength between different AMF species, different AMF species mediate different levels of biocontrol. For example, the AMF *R. irregularis* could not exert a stronger biocontrol effect on *R. similis* and *P. coffeae* in banana nor on *M. incognita* in tomato despite its higher carbon sink strength compared to *F. mosseae* (Schouteden et al., 2015). Competition for space could also be involved in AMF-PPN interactions since they both reside in roots and higher AMF colonization degree of the root leads to a higher level of AMF-mediated biocontrol (Jung et al., 2012). Negative effects due to space constriction can be exerted on PPN as mycorrhizal arbuscules exclusively form in the cortex, where also migratory endoparasitic nematodes feed. Space competition between AMF and sedentary endoparasitic nematodes could be brought into play in case the feeding cells extend into the cortex. Cyst nematode feeding cells, the so-called syncytia, are confined within the endodermis and should therefore be less affected by AMF. Dos Anjos et al. (2010) concluded that when the symbiosis was well established prior to *M. incognita* inoculation, *M. incognita* reproduction was reduced, whereas co-inoculation had no effect. Alban et al. (2013) found that pre-inoculation of *M. exigua* led to a significant increase in the subsequent colonization of AMF compared to uninoculated mycorrhizal plants. Holand Cook (2005) observed that AMF colonization was reduced by ectoparasitic,

migratory endoparasitic and sedentary endoparasitic nematodes. In greenhouse experiments, *R. similis* and *P. coffeae* in banana affected the frequency of *F. mosseae* colonization, but not the intensity (Elsen et al., 2003). Contrastingly, root colonization by *R. irregularis* in *in vitro* banana plantlets was not affected either by *R. similis* (Koffi et al., 2013) or by *P. coffeae* in transformed carrot roots (Elsen et al., 2003). Dos Anjos et al. (2010) showed that *M. incognita* could negatively affect the sporulation of the AMF *Scutellospora heterogama* in sweet passion fruit, while del Mar Alguacil et al. (2011) also reported that the highest AMF diversity was found in uninfected roots compared to *M. incognita* infected roots and galls, and that the composition of the AMF community was different between infected and uninfected roots. Their results indicate that AMF colonization might also be suppressed by PPN, depending on the AMF species as some AMF species were not affected by the PPN.

4.5. Effects through induced systemic resistance

Several authors reported that mycorrhizal fungi could activate plant mediated resistance mechanisms to nematode invasion. Phenylpropanoid pathway is the first line of plant defense imparting host resistance by reprogramming the downstream signaling involving activation and accumulation of antioxidant enzymes (PAL, TAL, Pox, APx, etc.) and various defense-related biomolecules such as phytoalexins, callose, pectin, lignin derivatives and other metabolites toxic to the pathogens (Weng et al., 2022).

Jasmonate biosynthesis and accumulation of jasmonic acids (JA) significantly affect the phenolics content in many crops. The continuous recognition of the AMF within the colonized cells causes the activation of a JA-mediated SAR through the plant termed as mycorrhizal induced resistance (MIR) (Pozo and Azcón-Aguilar, 2007). The plant recognizes MAMPs (microbe-associated molecular patterns) type molecular patterns which triggers a generalist defensive response of the MAMP-triggered immunity type. Subsequently, the recognition of effectors released by the fungus in response to plant defenses activates a more specific defensive response (Nishad et al., 2020). In maize, the expression or presence of the 9-LOX gene (*ZmLox3*) proved to be essential for resistance against *M. incognita* (Gao et al., 2008). The JA-dependent pathway is able to mediate resistance to PPN (Fan et al., 2015). However, the MIR defense response against PPN is probably not solely linked to the JA-dependent pathway. Several plant genes were upregulated when AMF and nematode were both present in the root, indicating a

priming of these defense genes. The primed activation of several other plant defense-related genes was recently also reported in *R. irregularis* colonized grapevine after infection by the ectoparasitic *X. index* (Hao et al., 2012) and banana against *R. similis* and *P. coffeae*. (Elsen et al., 2008). The products of these genes include chitinase 1b. Li et al. (2006) reported the primed transcriptional activation of a class III chitinase gene in *Glomus versiforme* colonized grapevine roots upon infection by *M. incognita*. Constitutive expression of this gene in transgenic tobacco plants enhanced the resistance against the RKN, but did not affect the AMF. This strongly suggests that the class III chitinase gene is involved in a protective mechanism against the PPN. Though this mostly affected the viability of the eggs and also reduced the amount of egg-masses and thus productivity of the females (Chan et al., 2015). APR10 protein purified from *Crotalaria pallida* shows nematostatic and nematocidal effects against *M. incognita*, targeting a digestive proteinase of the nematode (Andrade et al., 2010). The shikimate pathway has been implicated in AMF-mediated biocontrol in different plant species against many nematodes (Vos et al., 2013). Genes of 5-enolpyruvyl shikimate-3-phosphate synthase (ESPS) and a heat shock protein 70-interacting protein (HIP) were also primed (Hao et al., 2012). They are related to the regulation of the auxin balance which is of importance for nematode feeding site formation and possibly location (Gheysen and Mitchum, 2011). Moreover, the shikimate pathway produces precursors for various aromatic secondary metabolites which are produced through the phenylpropanoid pathway among which flavonol synthase against *M. incognita*, *R. similis*, and *P. penetrans* has been reported to be primed (Vos et al., 2013). Mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase (MAPK) signaling pathways play a crucial role in plant defense, hypersensitive response (HR) reaction, immune responses, and oxidative burst to pathogen attack. HR reaction and programmed cell death by modulating the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) at the infection site and thereby restricting the penetration, invasion and further colonization of RKN (Kyndt et al., 2012). Hao et al. (2012) showed that glutathione S-transferase which is probably involved in the detoxification of reactive oxygen species (ROS) that can be imposed by the stress of the cell's hypertrophy and necrosis following root-knot nematode infection in mycorrhizal tomato roots infection. (Vos et al., 2013). Similarly, Beneventi et al. (2013) suggested an important role for ROS generation in the resistance of soybean to *M. javanica* as they found through pyrosequencing an over-representation of genes containing various oxidase and

peroxidase domains upregulated in the incompatible interaction. Similar results were reported on the MAPK-mediated defense-priming in soybean in response to *Heterodera glycines* infection (McNeece et al., 2019) and in rice against *M. graminicola* (Zhou et al., 2020). Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) may induce host tolerance against potato cyst nematode (PCN). Greater PCN densities reduce the increased tolerance that AMF may confer on their hosts. This may be due to reduced mycorrhizal colonisation of hosts under higher PCN infection and potentially a threshold at which the presence of PCN severely impacts fungal growth (Bell et al., 2022). Similar results were observed in banana using AMF *Glomus intra radices* against the migratory nematodes *Radopholus similis* and *Pratylenchus coffeae* (Elsen et al., 2008); reduction of *P. penetrans* infestation in apple seedlings by AMF (Ceustermans et al., 2018), and of *Meloidogyne arenaria* in red ginger by *Gigaspora albida*, *Claroideoglomus tunicatum*, and *Acaulosporal longula* (Da Silva-Campos et al., 2017), or the control of the migratory endoparasitic nematode *Scutellonema bradys* in yam by *F. mosseae* and *Glomus dussii* (Tchabiet al., 2016). The combined application of *F. mosseae*, *R. fasciculatus*, and *R. intraradices* was found to enhance the accumulation and activities of biomolecules and enzymes related to defense priming as well as antioxidation in the susceptible and resistant inbred lines of rice pre-challenged with *M. graminicola* (Malviya et al., 2023). Similarly, colonization of pines (*Pinus thunbergii*) promoted a lasting SAR against the pine wilt nematode *Bursaphelenchus xylophilus*, which is transmitted by beetles of the genus *Monochamus* and feeds by colonizing the vascular bundles (Nakashima et al., 2016). Interestingly, those fungi do not only act systemically controlling nematodes-infection but enhance plant defenses against pathogens transmitted by the nematodes.

4.6. Altered rhizosphere interactions

Plant roots typically have a close association with mutualistic rhizosphere microorganisms. Together, they exude a wide range of both primary metabolites and secondary metabolites. Such metabolites can modify the surface properties of nematodes and affect microbial attachment to nematode surfaces. An altered root exudation results in modifications in rhizosphere interactions (Kuila and Ghosh, 2022). Root exudates, viz., sugars and organic acids, amino acids, phenolic compounds, flavonoids, strigo-lactone varies in quantity and quality in mycorrhizal and non-mycorrhizal plants and even the plant or AMF species involved (Lioussanne et al., 2008). Differential root exudation is an important parameter used by the host

plant for auto regulation of the symbiosis (Schaarschmidt et al., 2013). The AMF symbiosis leads to an altered root exudation composition and level which can in turn impact the PPN in the rhizosphere in terms of hatching, motility, chemotaxis, and host location (Jones et al., 2004). Tomato roots with *F. mosseae* reduced the penetration and infection rates of *M. incognita* and *Pratylenchus penetrans* through altered root exudation; also a temporal paralysis of these second-stage infective juveniles (J2) in the presence of mycorrhizal tomato root exudates was observed in *in vitro* assays (Vos et al., 2012). Mycorrhizal root exudates reduced host location and penetration by *R. similis* compared to non-mycorrhizal control banana plants (Vos et al., 2012). The plant hormone, strigolactones, after being exuded from the root, activate hyphal branching and enhanced growth and energy metabolism of symbiotic AMF, and once the symbiosis is established, its production by the plant roots decreases (Wu et al., (2022)). However, the strigolactones do not contribute to cyst nematode (*Heterodera schachtii*) hatching; instead they do play a role in host attraction and subsequent invasion. In rice, signaling mediated by strigolactones suppresses jasmonate accumulation and promotes RKN infection. Wu et al., (2022) stated that strigolactones play a positive role in nematode defense in tomato. Moreover, altered root exudation can also cause a change in microbial diversity in the rhizosphere, and therefore affect plant-pathogen interactions (Lioussanne, 2010). Some reports show an increase in facultative anaerobic bacteria, fluorescent pseudomonads, *Streptomyces* species and chitinase-producing actinomycetes, and fungi (*Trichoderma* spp) after AMF colonization (Philippot et al., 2013).

5. Conclusion and future perspectives

Application of mycorrhizal amendments in the field is an attractive proposition for crop protection strategies as a valuable alternative to heavy reliance on pesticides that are increasingly restricted for environmental reasons. The integration of empirical data knowledge in the field after the treatment with a particular strain or formulation of AMF, together with detailed analysis of the plant responses at the molecular level in a particular crop could help to a deep understanding of those complex interactions. Though AMF are not yet widely used in conventional agriculture, recent data help to develop a better insight into the modes of action, which will eventually lead toward future field applications of AMF against PPN. Rather than introducing AMF species that are foreign to the area, it may be beneficial to utilise native species

in agricultural systems as they have evolved *in situ*, acclimating and adapting to the specific environment and are therefore likely to have a higher chance of success and persistence .

References

1. Alamri, S.; Nafady, N.A.; El-Sagheer, A.M.; El-Aal, M.A.; Mostafa, Y.S.; Hashem, M.; Hassan, E.A. Current Utility of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi and Hydroxyapatite Nanoparticles in Suppression of Tomato Root-Knot Nematode. *Agronomy* 2022, 12, 671. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy12030671>.
2. Alban, R., Guerrero, R., and Toro, M. (2013). Interactions between a root knot nematode (*Meloidogyne exigua*) and arbuscular mycorrhizae in coffee plant development (*Coffea arabica*). *Am. J. Plant Sci.* 4, 19–23. doi: 10.4236/ajps.2013.47A2003.
3. Alvarado-Herrejón, M., Larsen, J., Gavito, M. E., Jaramillo-López, P. F., Vestberg, M., Martínez-Trujillo, M., et al. 2019. Relation between arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi, root-lesion nematodes and soil characteristics in maize agroecosystems. *Appl. Soil Ecol.* 135, 1–8. doi: 10.1016/j.apsoil.2018.10.019.
4. Andrade, L.B.D.S., Oliveira, A.S., Ribeiro, J.K.C., Kiyota, S., Vasconcelos, I.M., DeOliveira, J.T.A., et al. (2010). Effects of an ovel pathogenesis-related class 10 (PR-10) protein from *Crotalaria pallida* roots with papain inhibitory activity against root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita*. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 58, 4145–4152. doi:10.1021/jf9044556 .
5. Bago, B.; Pfeffer, P.; Shachar-Hill, Y. 2000. Carbon transport and metabolism in arbuscular mycorrhiza. *Plant Physiol.* 124, 949–957.
6. Baum, C., El-Tohamy, W., and Gruda, N. (2015). Increasing the productivity and product quality of vegetable crops using arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi: a review. *Sci. Hortic. (Amsterdam)*. 187, 131–141. doi: 10.1016/j.scienta. 2015.03.002 .
7. Bell CA., Magkourilou E., Barker H., Barker A., Peter E. Urwin PE., Field KJ. 2022. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal-induced tolerance is determined by fungal identity and pathogen density. *Plants People Planet.* 5:241–253. DOI: 10.1002/ppp3.10338.
8. Bender, S. F., Conen, F., and van der Heijden, M. G. A. (2015). Mycorrhizal effect on nutrient cycling, nutrient leaching and N₂O production in experimental grassland. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 80, 283–292. doi: 10.1016/j.soilbio.2014.10.016.

9. Beneventi, M. A., da Silva, O. B., de Sá, M. E. L., Firmino, A. A. P., de Amorim, R. M. S., Albuquerque, E. V. S., et al. (2013). Transcription profile of soybean – root – knot nematode interaction reveals a key role of phytohormone in the resistance reaction. *BMC Genomics* 14:322. doi:10.1186/1471-2164-14-322 .
10. Bodker, L., Kjoller, R., and Rosendahl, S. (1998). Effect of phosphate and the arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus *Glomus intraradices* on disease severity of root rot of peas (*Pisum sativum*) caused by *Aphanomyces euteiches*. *Mycorrhiza* 8, 169–174.
11. Brito, O. D. C., Hernandez, I., Ferreira, J. C. A., Cardoso, M. R., Alberton, O., and Dias-Arieira, C. R. 2018. Association between arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and *Pratylenchus brachyurus* in maize crop. *Chil. J. Agric. Res.* 78, 521–527. doi: 10.4067/S0718-58392018000400521.
12. Calvet, C., Pinochet, J., Camprubí, A., and Fernández, C. (1995). Increased tolerance to the root-lesion nematode *Pratylenchus vulnus* in mycorrhizal micropropagated BA-29 quince rootstock. *Mycorrhiza* 5, 253–258. doi: 10.1007/BF00204958.
13. Calvet, C., Pinochet, J., Hernández-Dorrego, A., Estaún, V., and Camprubí, A. (2001). Field microplot performance of the peach-almond hybrid GF-677 after inoculation with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in a replant soil infested with root-knot nematodes. *Mycorrhiza* 10, 295–300. doi: 10.1007/PL00009998.
14. Cameron, D., Neal, A., van Wees, S., and Ton, J. (2013). Mycorrhiza-induced resistance : more than the sum of its parts? *Trends Plant Sci.* 18, 539–545. doi: 10.1016/j.tplants.2013.06.004 .
15. Camprubi, A., Pinochet, J., Calvet, C., and Estaun, V. (1993). Effects of the rootlesion nematode *Pratylenchus vulnus* and the vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus *Glomus mosseae* on the growth of three plum rootstocks. *Plant Soil* 153, 223–229. doi: 10.1007/BF00012995.
16. Ceustermans, A., van Hemelrijck, W., Van Campenhout, J., and Bylemans, D. 2018. Effect of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on *Pratylenchus penetrans* infestation in apple seedlings under greenhouse conditions. *Pathogens* 7:76. doi: 10.3390/pathogens7040076.
17. Chan, Y. L., Cai, D., Taylor, P. W. J., Chan, M. T., and Yeh, K. W. (2010). Adverse effect of the chitinolytic enzyme PjCHI-1 in transgenic tomato on egg mass production and embryonic

- development of *Meloidogyne incognita*. Plant Physiol. 59, 922–930. doi:10.1111/j.1365-3059.2010.02314.x.
18. Chu, H., Wang, C., Li, Z., Wang, H., Xiao, Y., Chen, J., et al. 2019. The darkseptate endophytes and ectomycorrhizal fungi effect on *Pinus tabulaeformis* Carr. seedling growth and their potential effects to pine wilt disease resistance. Forests 10:140. doi: 10.3390/f10020140.
 19. da Silva Campos, M. A. (2020). Bioprotection by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in plants infected with *Meloidogyne nematodes*: a sustainable alternative. Crop Prot. 135:105203. doi: 10.1016/j.cropro.2020.105203.
 20. Da Silva-Campos, M. A., 2024. Applications of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in controlling Root-knot nematodes. In: Ahammed GJ., Hajiboland R (Eds.). arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and higher plants. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-99-8220-2_10.
 21. Da Silva-Campos, M. A., Da Silva, F. S. B., Yano-Melo, A. M., De Melo, N. F., and Maia, L. C. 2017. Application of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi during the acclimatization of *Alpinia purpurata* to induce tolerance to *Meloidogyne arenaria*. Plant Pathol. J. 33, 329–336. doi: 10.5423/PPJ.OA.04.2016.0094.
 22. de La Peña, E., Echeverría, S. R., van der Putten, W. H., Freitas, H., and Moens, M. 2006. Mechanism of control of root-feeding nematodes by mycorrhizal fungi in the dune grass *Ammophila arenaria*. N. Phytol. 169, 829–840. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-8137.2005.01602.x.
 23. Deliopoulos, T., Devine, K. J., Haydock, P. P. J., & Jones, P. W. 2007. Studies on the effect of mycorrhization of potato roots on the hatching activity of potato root leachate towards the potato cyst nematodes, *Globodera pallida* and *G. rostochiensis*. Nematology, 9, 719–729.
 24. Deliopoulos, T., Minnis, S., Jones, P., & Haydock, P. 2010. Enhancement of the efficacy of a carbamate nematicide against the potato cyst nematode, *Globodera pallida*, through mycorrhization in commercial potato fields. Journal of Nematology, 42, 22–32.
 25. del Mar Alguacil, M., Torrecillas, E., Lozano, Z., and Roldán, A. (2011). Evidence of differences between the communities of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi colonizing galls and roots of *Prunus persica* infected by the root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 77, 8656–8661. doi: 10.1128/AEM.05577-11.

26. DosAnjos,É.C.T., Cavalcante,U.M.T., Gonçalves,D.M.C., Pedrosa,E.M.R., dos Santos,V.F., and Maia,L.C.(2010). Interactions between an arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus (*Scutellosporaheterogama*) and the root-knot nematode (*Meloidogyne incognita*) on sweet passionfruit (*Passiflora alata*). Brazilian Arch. Biol.Technol. 53, 801–809.doi:10.1590/S1516-89132010000400008 .
27. Elsen, A., Baimey, H., Swennen, R., and de Waele, D. 2003b. Relative mycorrhizal dependency and mycorrhiza-nematode interaction in banana cultivars (*Musa* spp.) differing in nematode susceptibility. Plant Soil 256,303–313. doi: 10.1023/A:1026150917522.
28. Elsen, A., Gervacio, D., Swennen, R., and de Waele, D. 2008. AMF-induced biocontrol against plant parasitic nematodes in *Musa* sp.: a systemic effect. Mycorrhiza 18, 251–256. doi: 10.1007/s00572-008-0173-6.
29. Fan,J.W., Hu,C.L., Zhang,L.N., Li,Z.L., Zhao,F.K., and Wang,S.H.(2015). Jasmonic acid mediates tomato’s response to root knot nematodes. J.Plant Growth Regul. 34, 196–205.doi:10.1007/s00344-014-9457-6.
30. Ferreira, B. S., Santana, M. V., Macedo, R. S., Silva, J. O., Carneiro, M. A.,and Rocha, M. R. 2018. Co-occurrence patterns between plant-parasitic nematodes and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi are driven by environmental factors. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 265, 54–61. doi:10.1016 /j.agee. 2018. 05.020.
31. Forge, T.,Muehlchen, A.,Hackenberg, C., Nielsen, G., and Vrain, T. 2001. Effects of preplant inoculation of apple (*Malus domestica* Borkh.) with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on population growth of the root-lesion nematode, *Pratylenchus penetrans*. Plant Soil 236, 185–196. doi: 10.1023/A:1012743028974.
32. Forghani, F.; Hajihassani, A. Recent advances in the development of environmentally benign treatments tocontrol root-knot nematodes. Front. Plant Sci. **2020**, 11, 1125.
33. Frew, A., Powell, J. R., Glauser, G., Bennett, A. E., and Johnson, S. N. 2018.Mycorrhizal fungi enhance nutrient uptake but disarm defences in plantroots, promoting plant-parasitic nematode populations. Soil Biol. Biochem. 126,123–132. doi: 10.1016/j.soilbio.2018.08.019.

34. Fritz, M., Jakobsen, I., Lyngkjær, M.F., Thordal-Christensen, H., and Pons-Kühnemann, J. (2006). Arbuscular mycorrhiza reduces susceptibility of tomato to *Alternaria solani*. *Mycorrhiza* 16, 413–9. doi:10.1007/s00572-006-0051-z
35. Gao, X., Starr, J., Göbel, C., Engelberth, J., Feussner, I., Tumlinson, J., et al. (2008). Maize 9-lipoxygenase ZmLOX3 controls development, root-specific expression of defense genes, and resistance to root-knot nematodes. *Mol. Plant. Microbe. Interact.* 21, 98–109. doi:10.1094/MPMI-21-1-0098
36. Gheysen, G., and Mitchum, M.G. (2011). How nematodes manipulate plant development pathways for infection. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 14, 415–21. doi: 10.1016/j.pbi.2011.03.012
37. Gianinazzi, S.; Gollotte, A.; Binet, M.-N.; van Tuinen, D.; Redecker, D.; Wipf, D. 2010. Agroecology: The key role of arbuscular mycorrhizas in ecosystem services. *Mycorrhiza*, 20, 519–530.
38. Gough EC, Owen KJ, Zwart RS and Thompson JP 2020. A Systematic Review of the Effects of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi on Root-Lesion Nematodes, *Pratylenchus* spp. *Front. Plant Sci.* 11:923. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2020.00923.
39. Guillemin, J.-P., Gianinazzi, S., Gianinazzi-Pearson, V., and Marchal, J. 1994. Control by arbuscular endomycorrhizae of *Pratylenchus brachyurus* in pine apple microplants. *Agric. Food Sci.* 3, 253–262. doi: 10.23986/afsci.72703.
40. Gutjahr, C., and Paszkowski, U. (2013). Multiple control levels of root system remodeling in arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis. *Front. Plant Sci.* 4:204. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2013.00204
41. Hammer, E.C., Pallon, J., Wallander, H., and Olsson, P.A. (2011). Tit for tat? A mycorrhizal fungus accumulates phosphorus under low plant carbon availability. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.* 76, 236–244. doi:10.1111/j.1574-6941.2011.01043.x
42. Hao, Z., van Tuinen, D., Fayolle, L., Chatagnier, O., Li, X., Chen, B., et al. 2018. Arbuscular mycorrhiza affects grapevine fanleaf virus transmission by the nematode vector *Xiphinema index*. *App. Soil Ecol.* 129, 107–111. doi: 10.1016/j.apsoil.2018.05.007.
43. Hao, Z., Fayolle, L., Van Tuinen, D., Chatagnier, O., Li, X., Gianinazzi, S., et al. (2012). Local and systemic mycorrhiza-induced protection against the ectoparasitic nematode

Xiphinema index involves priming of defence gene responses in grapevine. J.Exp.Bot. 63, 3657–3672.doi:10.1093/jxb/ers046

44. Hart, M. M., and Reader, R. J. 2002. Taxonomic basis for variation in the colonization strategy of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. N. Phytol. 153, 335–344.doi: 10.1046/j.0028-646X.2001.00312.x.
45. Hol, W. H. G., and Cook, R. 2005. An overview of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi–nematode interactions. Basic Appl. Ecol. 6, 489–503.doi: 10.1016/j.baae.2005.04.001.
46. Hua, J.; Jiang, Q.; Bai, J.; Ding, F.; Lin, X.; Yin, Y.2014. Interactions between arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and fungivorous nematodes on the growth and arsenic uptake of tobacco in arsenic-contaminated soils. Appl. Soil Ecol., 84, 176–184.
47. Ingham R.E.1988. Interactions between nematodes and vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizae. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment. 24(1-3):169-182.
48. Jaizme-Vega, M., and Pinochet, J. 1997. Growth response of banana to three mycorrhizal fungi in *Pratylenchus goodeyi* infested soil. Nematropica 27, 69–76.doi: 10.1023/A:1004236310644.
49. Jones, D.L., Hodge, A., and Kuzyakov, Y. (2004). Plant and mycorrhizal regulation of rhizodeposition. New Phytol. 163, 459–480. doi:10.1111/j.1469-8137.2004.01130.x
50. Jung, S.C., Martinez-Medina, A., Lopez-Raez, J.A., and Pozo, M.J. (2012). Mycorrhiza-induced resistance and priming of plant defenses. J. Chem. Ecol. 38, 651–664. doi:10.1007/s10886-012-0134-6
51. Koffi, M. C., Vos, C., Draye, X., and Declerck, S. (2013). Effects of *Rhizophagus irregularis* MUCL 41833 on the reproduction of *Radopholus similis* in banana plantlets grown under *in vitro* culture conditions. Mycorrhiza 23, 279–288. doi: 10.1007/s00572-012-0467-6.
52. Kuila, D., and Ghosh, S. (2022). Aspects, problems and utilization of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal (AM) application as bio-fertilizer in sustainable agriculture. Curr. Res. Microbial Sci. 3:100107. doi: 10.1016/j.crmicr.2022.100107.
53. Kyndt, T., Nahar, K., Haegeman, A., De Vleeschauwer, D., Höfte, M., and Gheysen, G. (2012b). Comparing systemic defence-related gene expression changes upon migratory and sedentary nematode attack in rice. Plant Biol. 14, 73–82. doi: 10.1111/j.1438-8677.2011.00524.x

54. Li, H. Y., Yang, G. D., Shu, H. R., Yang, Y. T., Ye, B. X., Nishida, I., et al. (2006). Colonization by the arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus *Glomus versiforme* induces a defense response against the root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita* in the grapevine (*Vitis amurensis* Rupr.), which include transcriptional activation of the class III chitinase. *Plant Cell Physiol.* 47, 154–163. doi:10.1093/pcp/pci231
55. Lioussanne, L. (2010). Review. The role of the arbuscular mycorrhiza - associated rhizobacteria in the biocontrol of soilborne phytopathogens. *Spanish J. Agric. Res.* 8, 3–5. doi:10.5424/sjar/201008S1-5301.
56. Lioussanne, L., Jolicœur, M., and St-Arnaud, M. (2008). Mycorrhizal colonization with *Glomus intraradices* and development stage of transformed tomato roots significantly modify the chemotactic response of zoospores of the pathogen *Phytophthora nicotianae*. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 40, 2217–2224. doi: 10.1016/j.soilbio.2008.04.013
57. Malviya D, Singh P, Singh UB, Paul S, Kumar Bisen P, Rai JP, Verma RL, Fiyaz RA, Kumar A, Kumari P, Dei S, Ahmed MR, Bagyaraj DJ and Singh HV. 2023. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi-mediated activation of plant defense responses in direct seeded rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) against root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne graminicola*. *Front. Microbiol.* 14:1104490. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2023.1104490.
58. Marro, N., Caccia, M., Doucet, M. E., Cabello, M., Becerra, A., and Lax, P. 2018. Mycorrhizas reduce tomato root penetration by false root-knot nematode *Nacobbus aberrans*. *Appl. Soil Ecol.* 124, 262–265. doi: 10.1016/j.apsoil.2017.11.011.
59. McNeece, B. T., Sharma, K., Lawrence, G. W., Lawrence, K. S., and Klink, V. P. (2019). The mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK) gene family functions as a cohort during the *Glycine max* defense response to *Heterodera glycines*. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* 137, 25–41. doi: 10.1016/j.plaphy.2019.01.018
60. Morton, J. B., and Benny, G. L. 1990. Revised classification of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (Zygomycetes): a new order Glomales, two new suborders, Glomineae and Gigasporineae and two new families, Acaulosporaceae and Gigasporaceae, with an emendation to Glomaceae. *Mycotaxon* 37, 471–491.
61. Nakashima, H., Eguchi, N., Uesugi, T., Yamashita, N., and Matsuda, Y. 2016. Effect of ectomycorrhizal composition on survival and growth of *Pinus thunbergii* seedlings

varying in resistance to the pine wilt nematode. *Trees* 30,475–481. doi: 10.1007/s00468-015-1217-0.

62. Nicol, J.M., Turner, S.J., Coyne, D.L., den Nijs, L., Hockland, S., and Tahna Maafi, Z. (2011). Current nematode threats to world agriculture, in *Genomics and Molecular Genetics of Plant-Nematode Interactions*, eds. J. Jones, G. Gheysen, and C. Fenoll (Heidelberg: Springer), 347–367. doi: 10.1007/978-94-007-0434-3
63. Nishad R., Ahmed T., Rahman VJ., Kareem A. 2020. Modulation of plant defense system in response to microbial interactions. *Front. Microbiol.* 11, doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.01298.
64. Pettigrew, W.T., Meredith, W.R., and Young, L.D. (2005). Potassium fertilization effects on cotton lint yield, yield components, and reniform nematode populations. *Agron. J.* 97, 1245–1251. doi: 10.2134/agronj2004.0321
65. Philippot, L., Raaijmakers, J.M., Lemanceau, P., and vander Putten, W.H. (2013). Going back to the roots : the microbial ecology of the rhizosphere. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* 11, 789–99. doi: 10.1038/nrmicro3109
66. Pinochet, J., Calvet, C., Camprubi, A., and Fernandez, C. 1995. Growth and nutritional response of Nemared peach rootstock infected with *Pratylenchus vulnus* and the mycorrhizal fungus *Glomus mosseae*. *Fundam. Appl. Nematol.* 18, 205–210.
67. Pinochet, J., Calvet, C., Camprubi, A., and Fernández, C. 1995. Interaction between the root-lesion nematode *Pratylenchus vulnus* and the mycorrhizal association of *Glomus intraradices* and Santa Lucia 64 cherry rootstock. *Plant Soil* 170, 323–329. doi: 10.1007/BF00010485.
68. Pinochet, J., Calvet, C., Camprubí, A., and Fernández, C. 1996. Interactions between migratory endoparasitic nematodes and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in perennial crops: a review. *Plant Soil* 185, 183–190. doi: 10.1007/BF02257523.
69. Poveda J, Abril-Urias P and Escobar C. 2020. Biological Control of Plant-Parasitic Nematodes by Filamentous Fungi Inducers of Resistance: Trichoderma, Mycorrhizal and Endophytic Fungi. *Frontiers in Microbiology.* 11. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2020.00992.
70. Pozo, M. J., and Azcon-Aguilar, C. (2007). Unraveling mycorrhiza-induced resistance. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 10, 393–398.

71. Schaarschmidt, S., Gresshoff, P. M., and Hause, B. (2013). Analyzing the soybean transcriptome during auto regulation of mycorrhization identifies the transcription factors GmNF-YA1a/b as positive regulators of arbuscular mycorrhization. *Genome Biol.* 14, R62. doi:10.1186/gb-2013-14-6-r62
72. Schouteden, N., De Waele, D., Panis, B., and Vos, C. M. (2015). Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi for the biocontrol of plant-parasitic nematodes: a review of the mechanisms involved. *Front. Microbiol.* 6:1280. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2015.01280.
73. Siddique S. and Grundler, F. M. W. (2018). Parasitic nematodes manipulate plant development to establish feeding sites. *Current opinion in Microbiology.* 46:102-108. doi:10.1016/j.mib.2018.09.004
74. Sikora R. A. and Dehne, H. W. (1979). Changes in plant susceptibility to *Ditylenchus dipsaci* and *Aphelenchoides ritzemabosi* induced by the endotrophic mycorrhizal fungus *Glomus mosse*. In: International Congress (IX) of Plant Protection. And the 71st Annual meeting of the American Phytopathological Society, 5-11 August 1979, Washington DC USA. Abs. No. 234.
75. Singh, L. P., Gill, S. S., and Tuteja, N. (2011). Unraveling the role of fungal symbionts in plant abiotic stress tolerance. *Plant Signal. Behav.* 6, 175–191. doi: 10.4161/psb.6.2.14146
76. Smith, S. E., and Smith, F. A. (2011). Roles of arbuscular mycorrhizas in plant nutrition and growth: new paradigms from cellular to ecosystem scales. *Ann. Rev. Plant Biol.* 62, 227–250. doi: 10.1146/annurev-arplant-042110-103846
77. Smith, S.; Read, D. *Mycorrhizal Symbiosis*, 3rd ed.; Academic Press: New York, NY, USA, 2008.
78. Spatafora J. W., Chang Y., Benny G., Lazarus K., Smith M. E., Berbee M. L., et al. (2016). A phylum-level phylogenetic classification of zygomycete fungi based on genome-scale data. *Mycologia.* 108(5):1028-1046. doi:10.3852/16-042.
79. Talavera, M., Itou, K., and Mizukubo, T. (2001). Reduction of nematode damage by root colonization with arbuscular mycorrhiza (*Glomus* spp.) in tomato-*Meloidogyne incognita* (Tylenchida: Meloidogynidae) and carrot-*Pratylenchus penetrans* (Tylenchida: Pratylenchidae) pathosystems. *Appl. Entomol. Zool.* 36, 387–392. doi: 10.1303/aez.2001.387.

80. Tchabi, A., Hountondji, C. C., Ogunsola, B., Lawouin, L., Coyne, D. L., Wiemken, A., et al. (2016). Effect of two species of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi inoculation on development of micro-propagated yam plantlets and suppression of *Scutellonemabradys* (Tylenchidae). *J. Entomol. Nematol.* 8,1–10. doi: 10.5897/JEN2015.0149.
81. Topalovic, O.; Heuer, H. 2019. Plant-nematode interactions assisted by microbes in the rhizosphere. *Curr. Issues Mol. Biol.*, 30, 75–88.
82. Vaast, P., Caswell-Chen, E. P., and Zasoski, R. J. 1997. Influences of a rootlesion nematode, *Pratylenchus coffeae*, and two arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi, *Acaulosporamellea* and *Glomus clarumoni* coffee (*Coffea arabica* L.). *Biol. Fertil. Soils* 26, 130–135. doi: 10.1007/s003740050355.
83. van der Heijden, M. G., Martin, F. M., Selosse, M. A., and Sanders, I. R. (2015). Mycorrhizal ecology and evolution: the past, the present, and the future. *New Phytol.* 205, 1406–1423. doi: 10.1111/nph.13288
84. Veresoglou, S. D., and Rillig, M. C. (2012). Suppression of fungal and nematode plant pathogens through arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. *Biol. Lett.* 8, 214–217. doi: 10.1098/rsbl.2011.0874.
85. Vos, C., Claerhout, S., Mkandawire, R., Panis, B., De Waele, D., and Elsen, A. (2012a). Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi reduce root-knot nematode penetration through altered root exudation of their host. *Plant Soil* 354, 335–345. doi: 10.1007/s11104-011-1070-x.
86. Vos, C.; Tesfahun, A.; Panis, B.; De Waele, D.; Elsen, A. 2012. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi induce systemic resistance in tomato against the sedentary nematode *Meloidogyne incognita* and the migratory nematode *Pratylenchus penetrans*. *Appl. Soil Ecol.*, 61: 1-6. doi: 10.1016/j.apsoil.2012.04.007.
87. Vos, C., Schouteden, N., van Tuinen, D., Chatagnier, O., Elsen, A., De Waele, D., et al. (2013). Mycorrhiza-induced resistance against the root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita* involves priming of defense gene responses in tomato. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 60, 45–54. doi: 10.1016/j.soilbio.2013.01.013
88. Wani, K. A., Manzoor, J., Shuab, R., and Lone, R. (2017). “Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi as biocontrol agents for parasitic nematodes in plants,” in *Mycorrhiza-Nutrient Uptake, Biocontrol, Ecorestoration*, eds A. Varma, R. Prasad, and N. Tuteja (Cham: Springer), 195–210. doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-68867-1_10.

89. Weng W., Yan J., Zhou M., Yao X., Gao A., Ma C. et al., (2022). Roles of Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi as a biocontrol agent in the control of Plant diseases. *Microorganisms*. 10(7):1266. doi:10.3390/microorganisms10071266.
90. Wu F., Gao Y., Yang W., Sui N., Zhu J. 2022. Biological functions of Strigolactones and their crosstalk with other phytohormones. *Front. Plant Sci.* 13, doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2022.821563
91. Yang, G., Liu, N., Lu, W., Wang, S., Kan, H., Zhang, Y., et al. (2014). The interaction between arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and soil phosphorus availability influences plant community productivity and ecosystem stability. *J. Ecol.* 102, 1072–1082. doi: 10.1890/09-0209.1
92. Zhang Y, Li S, Li H, Wang R, Zhang K, and Xu J. 2020. Fungi–Nematode Interactions: Diversity, Ecology, and Biocontrol Prospects in Agriculture. *J. Fungi* 2020, 6, 206; doi:10.3390/jof6040206.
93. Zhou, Y., Zhao, D., Shuang, L., Xiao, D., Xuan, Y., Duan, Y., et al. (2020). Transcriptome analysis of rice roots in response to root-knot nematode infection. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 21, 848. doi: 10.3390/ijms21030848