

# **Biocontrol mechanism of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal fungi against plant-parasitic nematodes : a review**

## **Abstract:**

Plant-parasitic nematodes (PPN) are the major global menace to food production. Management methods based on synthetic chemicals is objectionable due to environmental and health risks. Therefore, use of biocontrol agents such as Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) is environmentally friendly options for management of plant-parasitic nematodes (PPN). Competition for nutrients and space, changing rhizosphere interactions, or increasing plant tolerance is the mode of action of Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) against plant-parasitic nematodes (PPNs). Better knowledge of the mode of action of Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) will help to increase the efficacy of these biocontrol agents. This review presents a general idea of different mechanisms of Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF)-mediated biocontrol, and their possible use in reducing plant-parasitic nematodes (PPN) population.

**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 obligate parasites that can nourish from all plant parts, especially on roots. Though 4100 species of plant-parasitic nematodes has been described throughout the world, only a few genera is considered as major plant-pathogens, against many economically important crops” [1]. Worldwide plant-parasitic nematodes cause yield loss of 12.3% with USD\$80 billion loss per annum. Due to change in climate and cropping systems, it is predictable to rise in yield loss [1]. Market quality or visual imperfections also related with infection process which leads to additional losses. Plant-parasitic nematodes having different feeding pattern like ectoparasite, endoparasite, or semiendoparasite. During penetration inside the root by PPN they cause damage directly and the disease can be aggravated by other pathogens. Because of non-specific disease symptoms caused in the plant, and microscopic size, growers are often unaware of their presence and thereby nematode damage is likely to be ignored [2]. However, the damages caused by PPN have been managed by reducing their population below threshold level by using synthetic chemicals, both fumigant and non-fumigant nematicides. There are many disadvantages of usage of nematicides. Synthetic nematicides cause deterioration to the environment and human and domestic animal health

besides high cost . Because of these, many nematicides are increasingly restricted. Therefore, other alternative methods to combat PPN are necessary. Microbial antagonists as biological control agents are one of the possible alternatives to chemical nematicides. Biocontrol agents depend on various environmental conditions for their efficacy. Therefore, special consideration should be given to its relationship to plant and environment. One of the projected ecofriendly options to manage PPNs is the use of biological control organisms, such as Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF). These fungi have a symbiotic relationship with the host plant that can protect their host plant against biotic stress such as plant-parasitic nematodes (PPNs) [3]. "AMF not only affects physio-biochemical pathways in the host plant but also reduced the penetration or invasion and colonization or reproduction of PPNs" [3].

## **2. Mycorrhizal Fungi**

"Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) are having symbiotic relation with the host plant and are beneficial for the growth of host plants. AMF are found to be colonized in more than 80% of all land plant species" [4]. These fungi are found in soil and act as bio-stimulators and bio-protectors [5,6]. Moreover, AMF can increase the levels of N, P and Zn in the crop and thus act as natural biofertilizers [7]. They nourish from the products of photosynthetic plants as well as lipids to grow and colonized [8]. The common type of mycorrhizal association taking place in crops is the arbuscular type [9]. AMF species are members of the phylum: Mucoromycota and subphylum: Glomeromycotina [10]. Subphylum Glomeromycotina has 25 taxa and many orders, viz., Glomerales, Archaeosporales, Paraglomerales, and Diversisporales. It has been observed that application of combination of different families are more efficient bioinoculant than mono-inoculant [6].

## **3. Interaction between Plant-parasitic Nematodes and AMF**

Both the plant-parasitic nematodes (PPNs) and AMF require same resource from host plant roots. Interactive effects have been observed in those host plants [6,11]. "The interactions between endoparasitic nematodes and AMF was observed to be stronger, i.e. more mutual effects of endoparasitic nematodes on AMF, than those between ectoparasites and AMF. AMF infected plants were damaged more by ectoparasites than by endoparasitic nematodes" [11]. Migratory endoparasitic nematodes number was greater on AMF infected plants. Interactions appear to be very specific [11]. "Among the sedentary endoparasites, based on closeness in root tissues, numbers of *Meloidogyne* sp. were reduced more by mycorrhizal infection than were those of

*Heterodera* sp. The AMF- nematode interactions are complex and depend on many factors, viz., soil environment, AMF species, host plants, and nematode species. Thereby the interaction is supposed to increase the resistance of plants to nematode infection”[12].

#### **4. Biocontrol mechanism of AMF**

Various mechanisms have been projected to play a role in the biocontrol efficacy of AMF against PPN. Competition for space or nutrients arises between AMF and PPNs as they require same resource. Another mechanism is through plant-mediated effects which is an indirect effect. Indirect effect of AMF on plant is through the plant tolerance or plant defense induction and also through altered plant exudation results in altered rhizosphere interactions. Cameron et al.[13] stated that biocontrol of PPNs results from a combination of these different mechanisms. However, the comparative importance of a specific mechanism can vary depending on the AMF-nematode-plant interaction.

##### **4.1. Protective effects of AMF**

Both abiotic as well as biotic stress (PPNs) can be alleviated by AMF. *In vitro*, green house and field experiments showed protecting effects against PPNs by AMF in banana, coffee and tomato [14]. Most of the phytopathogenic nematodes penetrate and damage the roots of their host plants [15]. However, the overall effects vary with the nematode species and their mode of parasitism, surrounding environment, plant genotype. Some reports showed that AMF inoculation reduces the reproduction and infestation of phytopathogenic nematodes in plant roots [16,17]. AMF inoculation in the nursery plant can enhance tolerance to phytopathogenic nematodes and increase their growth [16]. Veresoglou and Rillig [18] described through meta-analyses, the suppressive effect of AMF on nematodes belonging to different genera of plant parasitic nematodes according to their feeding habit (sedentary or migratory). Usually, AMF have shown a significant reduction in nematode population when healthy mycorrhizal diversity (different genera or species) present in the rhizosphere [19,20]. The sedentary endoparasitism makes them more susceptible to changes in plant composition by AMF than are the migratory endoparasites. AMF reduced the numbers of the sedentary endoparasitic nematodes (*Meloidogyne*, *Heterodera*, and *Globodera*) and these nematodes rarely infect regions colonized by VA fungi. Similarly, Ectoparasitic nematodes are more likely to be affected indirectly by AMF-induced changes in plant functioning (increased free amino acids in leaves, especially arginine, higher chitinase activity in roots, an increase in soluble sugars and phenols in roots) and thus reduced the

numbers, e.g. *Tylenchorhynchus* spp. [19]. Hol and Cook [21] observed an increase in migratory endoparasitic nematode (*Pratylenchus* spp., *Radopholus* spp., *Hirschmanniella* spp.) numbers on inoculation with AMF. Due to penetration and movement of migratory nematodes, AMF can change root morphology of host plant and helps in fungal colonization. Mycorrhizal *Phaseolus vulgaris* showed an initial increase followed by decrease in *Ditylenchus dipsaci* population than on non-mycorrhizal controls; similarly on tobacco, *Aphelenchoides ritzemabosi* populations decreased on mycorrhizal compared to non mycorrhizal plants [22]. Some studies have shown that *Rhizophagus intraradices* and *Funneliformis mosseae* reduce tomato root penetration by false root-knot nematode *Nacobbus aberrans* [23]. Similarly, *Glomus intraradices*, *G. mosseae*, and *G. etunicatum* reduce *M. javanica* infection in peach trees [24]. Depending on the host genotypes, both positive and negative results have been observed, for example, the addition in root colonization by *Rhizophagus clarus*, *Claroideoglomus etunicatum*, *Gigaspora rosea*, *G. margarita*, *Scutellospora calospora*, and *S. heterogama* caused an increase in the population of *Pratylenchus brachyurus* in maize [25] but reduces population in cotton [12].

#### 4.2. Higher Nutrient Uptake of host plant

“AMF normally act on the host plant, helps in uptake of plant nutrient and water. AMF also can change root morphology by increasing root growth and branching, or can change the rhizosphere interactions” [26]. “By receiving resources such as photosynthetic carbon from their host, they improve plant growth and development and help plants to cope with various abiotic and biotic stresses” [27, 28]. “AMF are known to be able to increase the uptake of water and mineral nutrients such as phosphate, zinc and nitrogen for their host plant” [29, 30]. Bodker et al., [31] proposed that “AMF-mediated biocontrol mechanism is due to the higher uptake of phosphate”. Pettigrew et al., [32] stated that “cotton fields with a better nutrient status are able to tolerate higher population densities of sedentary semi-endoparasite, *Rotylenchulus reniformis*. AMF-mediated nutrient status of the host plant can increase or decrease the PPN population densities”. “A positive correlation was observed between migratory ectoparasite (*Helicotylenchus* spp.) population densities and mineral content (Mg) in rice. A negative correlation was observed between the migratory endoparasite (*Pratylenchus zeae*) and Zn or Fe, and between *M. incognita* and Mg and Ca” [31].

#### 4.3. Altered Root Morphology of host plant

AMF helps in better root growth and branching, often show increased root biomass production. Gutjahr and Paszkowski [33] observed that better AMF colonization increased secondary and tertiary root formation and improve the root morphology of rice. However, it has been observed that tap roots seems to profit more from AMF colonization than fibrous roots in terms of gained biomass and nutrient gaining [6]. Inhibition of root growth caused by PPNs can be corrected by an increase in root vigor, by higher nutrient uptake capacity. Elsen et al. [16] observed that “decreased root branching due to *Radopholus similis* and *P. coffeae* in banana was improved by the increased branching of the AMF, *Funneliformis mosseae*” .

#### **4.4. Competition for nutrients and space in host root**

“PPNs compete for nutrients or for space in infection sites with AMF. In the ecological position both the organisms have the same food requirements especially carbon. Four to 20% carbon from of the total assimilated carbon transfer from the host plant to the AMF” [34]. “Due to the difference in carbon sink strength in different AMF species mediate different levels of biocontrol. For example, the AMF, *R. irregularis* could not show bioefficacy against *R. similis* and *P. coffeae* in banana nor on *M. incognita* in tomato regardless of its higher carbon sink strength compared to *F. mosseae*” [28]. “In AMF-PPN interactions, both of them compete for space also as they reside in the same roots” [35]. “In general, mycorrhizal arbuscules entirely form in the root cortex, migratory endoparasitic nematodes also found on the root cortex, forming a negative effects. However, competition for space between AMF and sedentary endoparasitic nematodes can be observed in case the feeding cells extend into the cortex. The feeding cells form within the vascular cylinder due to root-knot nematode and cyst nematodes feeding may break the endodermis and spread into the cortex and competition for space occurs. The feeding cells of *Heterodera avenae* are restricted to cells within the endodermis and thus may not be affected by direct competition with AMF” [35]. Dos Anjos et al. [36] showed bioefficacy of well established AMF symbiosis on *M. incognita* invasion as well as reproduction whereas co-inoculation of both organism had no effect. Alban et al. [17] found that pre-inoculation of *M. exigua* led to a significant increase in the subsequent colonization of AMF compared to un-inoculated mycorrhizal plants. Holand Cook [21] 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 occurrence of *F. mosseae* colonization, but not the intensity [16]. However in another experiment, it was observed that root colonization by

*R. irregularis* in *in vitro* banana plantlets was not affected either by *R. similis* [14] or by *P. coffeae* in transformed carrot roots [16]. Dos Anjos et al. [36] observed that *M. incognita* could negatively affect the sporulation of the AMF, *Scutellospora heterogama* in sweet passion fruit. The composition of the AMF community was different between infected and uninfected roots. del Mar Alguacil et al. [37] reported that the highest AMF diversity was found in uninfected roots compared to *M. incognita* infected roots. Their results indicate that AMF colonization might also be suppressed by PPNs. However, AMF colonization depends on the AMF species as some AMF species were not affected by the PPNs.

#### 4.5. Effects through induced systemic resistance in host plants

“AMF can activate plant mediated resistance mechanisms to nematode infection. PPN invasion or further development to adulthood is impaired in such a resistant host plant. Phenylpropanoid pathway is the important host resistant mechanism involved in AMF colonized plant. Resistant mechanism involved in activation 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” [38]. “The jasmonic acids (JA) dependent pathway affects the phenolic content in many crops and is able to mediate resistance to PPN” [39]. “AMF colonized cells causes the activation of a JA-mediated resistance termed as mycorrhizal induced resistance (MIR)” [40]. “The plant recognizes MAMPs (microbe-associated molecular patterns) which triggers a defensive response. Later on, the recognition of effectors released by the fungus in response to plant defenses activates a more specific defensive response” [41]. “In maize, the presence of the 9-LOX gene (*ZmLox3*) proved to be necessary for resistance against *M. incognita*” [42]. “Several other plant genes were upregulated when AMF and nematode were both present in the root, indicating a priming of these defense genes. Such type of genes were reported in *R. irregularis* colonized grapevine after infection by the ectoparasite, *X. index* [43] and banana against *R. similis* and *P. coffeae*” [16]. The products of these genes include chitinase 1b which involved in a protective mechanism against the PPN. Li et al. [44] reported a class III chitinase gene in *Glomus versiforme* colonized grapevine roots after infection by *M. incognita*. Further expression of this gene in transgenic tobacco plants enhanced the resistance against the root-knot nematode, but did not affect the AMF. This gene affected the viability of the eggs and also reduced the amount of egg-masses and thus productivity of the females [45]. APR10 protein is isolated from

*Crotalaria pallida* shows nematostatic and nematocidal effects mostly targeting a digestive proteinase of the nematode, *M. incognita* [46]. The shikimate pathway has been concerned in AMF-mediated resistance in different plant species against many nematodes [47]. Genes of 5-enolpyruvyl shikimate-3-phosphate synthase (ESPS) and a heat shock protein 70-interacting protein (HIP) were also found [43]. "They are helpful in regulation of the auxin synthesis which is of importance for nematode feeding site formation and their location [48]. The shikimate pathway produces precursors for various aromatic secondary metabolites, e.g., flavonol synthase against *M. incognita*, *R. similis*, and *P. penetrans*" [47]. Mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase (MAPK) signaling pathways play a vital role in hypersensitive response (HR), immune responses, and oxidative burst to pathogen attack by restricting the penetration, invasion and reproduction of root-knot nematode [49]. Hao et al. [43] showed that glutathione S-transferase which is 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. Similarly, Beneventi et al. [50] suggested an important role for ROS generation in the resistance of soybean to *M. javanica* as they found 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 [51] and in rice against *M. graminicola* [15]. AMF may induce host tolerance against potato cyst nematode (PCN). However, host tolerance depends of PCN density [52]. Similar results were observed using AMF against the migratory nematodes *R. similis* and *P. coffeae* in banana [16]; *P. penetrans* in apple seedlings [53] and *M. arenaria* in red ginger by *Gigaspora albida*, *Claroideoglomus etunicatum*, and *Acaulospora longula* [54] or migratory endoparasite, *Scutellonema bradys* in yam by *F. mosseae* and *Glomus dussii* [55]. 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 mechanism as well as antioxidation in the susceptible and resistant inbred lines of rice infected by *M. graminicola* [56]. Similarly, colonization of pines (*Pinus thunbergii*) promoted a lasting resistance against the pine wilt nematode *Bursaphelenchus xylophilus*, which is transmitted by *Monochamus* and feeds by colonizing the vascular bundles [57]. 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**

Naturally plant roots have a close relationship with rhizosphere microorganisms. Plant root exude a wide range of both primary metabolites and secondary metabolites, viz., sugars and organic acids, amino acids, phenolic compounds, flavonoids, or strigolactone. These metabolites varies in quantity and quality [58]. Auto regulation of the symbiosis of AMF depends on kinds of root exudate [59]. An altered root exudation results in modifications in rhizosphere interactions [60]. These exudates can affect microbial attachment to nematode surfaces. Root exudate, their composition and level due to AMF-PPN interaction effect hatching, motility, and host location of nematodes [61]. Tomato roots colonized by *F. mosseae* makes temporal paralysis of the second-stage infective juveniles (J2) and reduced the penetration and infection rates of *M. incognita* and *P. penetrans* [62]. Similarly, mycorrhizal root exudates impaired host location and penetration by *R. similis* compared to non-mycorrhizal banana root [63]. After being exuded from the root, the plant hormone, strigolactones, activate hyphal branching and enhanced growth and energy metabolism of AMF. However, the strigolactones play a role in host attraction and subsequent invasion of *H. schachtii*. In rice also, signaling mediated by strigolactones suppresses jasmonate accumulation and promotes root-knot nematode infection [64]. Wu et al., [64] observed that strigolactones help in nematode defense in tomato. Moreover, root exudates can also cause a change in microbial diversity like facultative anaerobic bacteria, *Pseudomonas fluorescens*, *Streptomyces* species and chitinase-producing actinomycetes, and fungi (*Trichoderma* spp.) in the rhizosphere and therefore affect plant-pathogen interactions [29;65].

#### **5. Conclusion and future perspectives**

AMF 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. Application of AMF may be enormously advantageous to sustainable agriculture by preserving plant productivity and alleviating soil-borne plant pathogens especially plant-parasitic nematodes. Mycorrhizal amendments in the field are an ecofriendly plan and act as a valuable alternative to nematicides. The integration of experimental data knowledge in the field in a particular crop after the treatment with a particular strain or formulation of AMF, together

with detailed analysis of the plant responses could help to a profound understanding of those complex interactions. It is beneficial to utilize native species rather than introducing exotic strains to the area. Isolation and identification of new strains, their mode of action will help will eventually lead toward future field applications of AMF against PPN.

### **Disclaimer (artificial intelligence)**

Author hereby declare that NO generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc) and text-to-image generators have been used during writing or editing of this manuscript.

### **Competing interests**

Author has declared that no competing interests exist.

### **References**

1. Nicol JM, Turner SJ, Coyne DL, den Nijs L, Hockland S, Tahna Maafi Z. Current nematode threats to world agriculture. In: Genomics and Molecular Genetics of Plant-Nematode Interactions, J. Jones, G. Gheysen, and C. Fenoll (Eds.). Heidelberg: Springer, 2011; 347–367. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-0434-3
2. Siddique S, Grundler FMW. Parasitic nematodes manipulate plant development to establish feeding sites. *Curr Opin Microbiol.* 2018; 46:102-108. doi:10.1016/j.mib.2018.09.004
3. Da Silva-Campos MA. Applications of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in controlling Root-knot nematodes. In: Ahammed GJ., Hajiboland R (Eds.). *arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and higher plants.* Springer, Singapore. 2024; [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-99-8220-2\\_10](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-99-8220-2_10).
4. Smith SE, Smith FA. Roles of arbuscular mycorrhizas in plant nutrition and growth: new paradigms from cellular to ecosystem scales. *Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.* 2011; 62, 227–250. doi:10.1146/annurev-arplant-042110-103846
5. Da Silva Campos MA. Bioprotection by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in plants infected with *Meloidogyne nematodes*: a sustainable alternative. *Crop Prot.* 2020; 135:105203. doi:10.1016/j.cropro.2020.105203.
6. Yang G, Liu N, Lu W, Wang S, Kan H, Zhang Y. et al. The interaction between arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and soil phosphorus availability influences plant community

- productivity and ecosystem stability. *J. Ecol.*2014; 102: 1072-1082. doi: 10.1890/09-0209.1
- 7.Frew A, Powell JR, Glauser G, Bennett AE, Johnson SN. Mycorrhizal fungi enhance nutrient uptake but disarm defences in plantroots, promoting plant-parasitic nematode populations. *Soil Biol. Biochem.*2018; 126:123-132. doi: 10.1016/j.soilbio.2018.08.019.
  - 8.Gianinazzi S, Gollotte A, Binet MN, van Tuinen D, Redecker D, Wipf D. Agroecology: The key role of arbuscular mycorrhizas in ecosystem services. *Mycorrhiza.*2010; 20: 519-530.
  - 9.Van der Heijden MG, Martin FM, Selosse MA, Sanders IR. Mycorrhizal ecology and evolution: the past, the present, and the future. *New Phytol.*2015; 205: 1406-1423. doi: 10.1111/nph.13288
  - 10.Spatafora JW, Chang Y, Benny G, Lazarus K, Smith ME, Berbee ML, et al. A phylum-level phylogenetic classification of zygomycete fungi based on genome-scale data. *Mycologia.*2016; 108(5):1028-1046. doi:10.3852/16-042.
  - 11.Zhang Y, Li S, Li H, Wang R, Zhang K, Xu J. Fungi-Nematode interactions: Diversity, Ecology, and Biocontrol Prospects in Agriculture. *J. Fungi* 2020; 6: 206; doi:10.3390/jof6040206.
  - 12.Ferreira BS, Santana MV, Macedo RS, Silva JO, Carneiro MA, Rocha MR. Co-occurrence patterns between plant-parasitic nematodes and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi are driven by environmental factors. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.*2018; 265: 54-61. doi:10.1016 /j.agee. 2018. 05.020.
  - 13.Cameron D, Neal A, vanWees S, Ton J. Mycorrhiza-induced resistance : more than the sum of its parts? *Trends Plant Sci.*2013; 18:539-545. doi: 10.1016/ j.tplants. 2013.06.004 .
  - 14.Koffi MC, Vos C, Draye X, Declerck S. Effects of *Rhizophagus irregularis* MUCL 41833 on the reproduction of *Radopholus similis* in banana plantlets grown under *in vitro* culture conditions. *Mycorrhiza.*2013; 23:279–288. doi: 10.1007/s00572-012-0467-6.
  - 15.Zhou Y, Zhao D, Shuang L, Xiao D, Xuan Y, Duan Y. et al. Transcriptome analysis of rice roots in response to root-knot nematode infection. *Int.J.Mol. Sci.*2020 21: 848. doi: 10.3390/ijms21030848
  - 16.Elsen A, Gervacio D, Swennen R, de Waele D. AMF-induced biocontrol against plant parasitic nematodes in *Musa* sp.: a systemic effect. *Mycorrhiza.*2008; 18: 251-256. doi: 10.1007/s00572-008-0173-6.

17. Alban R, Guerrero R, Toro M. Interactions between a root knot nematode (*Meloidogyne exigua*) and arbuscular mycorrhizae in coffee plant development (*Coffea arabica*). Am. J. Plant Sci. 2013; 4: 19–23. doi: 10.4236/ajps.2013.47A2003.
18. Veresoglou SD, Rillig MC. Suppression of fungal and nematode plant pathogens through arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. Biol. Lett. 2012; 8: 214–217. doi: 10.1098/rsbl.2011.0874.
19. Gough EC, Owen KJ, Zwart RS, Thompson JP. A Systematic Review of the Effects of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi on Root-Lesion Nematodes, *Pratylenchus* spp. Front. Plant Sci. 2020; 11, 923. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2020.00923.
20. Poveda J, Abril-Urías P, Escobar C. Biological Control of Plant-Parasitic Nematodes by Filamentous Fungi Inducers of Resistance: Trichoderma, Mycorrhizal and Endophytic Fungi. Frontiers in Microbiology. 2020; 11. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2020.00992.
21. Hol WHG, Cook R. An overview of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi–nematode interactions. Basic Appl. Ecol. 2005; 6: 489–503. doi: 10.1016/j.baae.2005.04.001.
22. Sikora RA, Dehne HW. 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 71<sup>st</sup> Annual meeting of the American Phytopathological Society, 5–11 August 1979, Washington DC USA. 1979; Abs.No.234.
23. Marro N, Caccia M, Doucet ME, Cabello M, Becerra A, Lax P. Mycorrhizas reduce tomato root penetration by false root-knot nematode *Nacobbus aberrans*. Appl. Soil Ecol. 2018; 124: 262–265. doi: 10.1016/j.apsoil.2017.11.011.
24. Calvet C, Pinochet J, Hernández-Dorrego A, Estaún V, Camprubí A. 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. 2001; 10: 295–300. doi: 10.1007/PL00009998.
25. Brito ODC, Hernandez I, Ferreira JCA, Cardoso MR, Alberton O, Dias-Arieira CR. Association between arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and *Pratylenchus brachyurus* in maize crop. Chil. J. Agric. Res. 2018; 78: 521–527. doi: 10.4067/S0718-58392018000400521.
26. Wani KA, Manzoor J, Shuab R, Lone R. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi as biocontrol agents for parasitic nematodes in plants. In: Mycorrhiza-Nutrient Uptake, Biocontrol, Ecorestoration,

- A. Varma, R. Prasad, and N.Tuteja(Eds). Cham: Springer.2017; 195–210. doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-68867-1\_10.
- 27.Bender SF, Conen F,van der Heijden MGA. Mycorrhizal effectson nutrient cycling, nutrient leaching and N<sub>2</sub>O production in experimental grassland. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 2015;80: 283–292. doi: 10.1016/j.soilbio.2014.10.016.
- 28.Schouteden N, De Waele D, Panis B,Vos CM. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi for the biocontrol of plant-parasitic nematodes: a review of the mechanisms involved. *Front. Microbiol.* 2015; 6:1280. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2015.01280.
- 29.Philippot L, Raaijmakers JM, Lemanceau P,vanderPutten WH. Going back to the roots : the microbial ecology of the rhizosphere. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.*2013; 11: 789-99. doi:10.1038/nrmicro3109
- 30.Baum C, El-Tohamy W, Gruda N.Increasing the productivity and product quality of vegetable crops using arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi: a review. *Sci. Hortic.* 2015; 187: 131-141. doi: 10.1016 /j.scienta. 2015.03.002 .
- 31.Bodker L, Kjoller R,Rosendahl S. Effect of phosphate and the arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus *Glomus intraradices* on disease verity of root rot of peas (*Pisum sativum*) caused by *Aphanomyces euteiches*. *Mycorrhiza.*1998; 8:169-174.
- 32.Pettigrew WT, Meredith WR, Young LD. Potassium fertilization effects on cotton lint yield, yield components, and reniform nematode populations. *Agron.J.*2005; 97: 1245-1251.doi:10.2134/agronj2004.0321
- 33.Gutjahr C, Paszkowski U. Multiple control levels of root system remodeling in arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis. *Front.Plant Sci.*2013; 4:204. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2013.00204
- 34.Hammer EC, Pallon J, Wallander H,Olsson PA. Tit for tat? A mycorrhizal fungus accumulates phosphorus under low plant carbon availability. *FEMS Microbiol. Ecol.*2011; 76: 236-244. doi:10.1111/j.1574- 6941.2011.01043.x
- 35.Jung SC, Martinez-Medina A, Lopez-Raez JA,Pozo MJ. Mycorrhiza-induced resistance and priming of plant defenses. *J. Chem. Ecol.*2012; 38: 651-664. doi:10.1007/s10886-012-0134-6
- 36.DosAnjos ÉCT, Cavalcante UMT, Gonçalves DMC, Pedrosa EMR, dos Santos VF, Maia LC. Interactions between an arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus (*Scutellospora heterogama*) and the root-knot nematode (*Meloidogyne incognita*) on sweet passionfruit (*Passiflora alata*).

Brazilian Arch. Biol. Technol. 2010; 53: 801–809. doi:10.1590/S1516-89132010000400008 .

37. DelMarAlguacil M, Torrecillas E, Lozano Z, Roldán A. 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. 2011; 77: 8656–8661. doi: 10.1128/AEM.05577-11.
38. Weng W, Yan J, Zhou M, Yao X, Gao A, Ma C. et al. Roles of Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi as a biocontrol agent in the control of Plant diseases. Microorganisms. 2022; 10(7):1266. doi:10.3390/microorganisms10071266.
39. Fan JW, Hu CL, Zhang LN, Li ZL, Zhao FK, Wang SH. Jasmonic acid mediates tomato's response to root knot nematodes. J. Plant Growth Regul. 2015; 34: 196-205. doi:10.1007/s00344-014-9457-6.
40. Pozo MJ, Azcon-Aguilar C. Unraveling mycorrhiza-induced resistance. Curr. Opin. Plant Biol. 2007; 10: 393-398.
41. Nishad R, Ahmed T, Rahman VJ, Kareem A. Modulation of plant defense system in response to microbial interactions. Front. Microbiol. 2020; 11, doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.01298.
42. Gao X, Starr J, Göbel C, Engelberth J, Feussner I, Tumlinson J. et al. Maize 9-lipoxygenase ZmLOX3 controls development, root-specific expression of defense genes, and resistance to root-knot nematodes. Mol. Plant. Microbe. Interact. 2008; 21: 98-109. doi:10.1094/MPMI-21-1-0098
43. Hao Z, Fayolle L, VanTuinen D, Chatagnier O, Li X, Gianinazzi S. et al. Local and systemic mycorrhiza-induced protection against the ectoparasitic nematode *Xiphinema index* involves priming of defence gene responses in grapevine. J. Exp. Bot. 2012; 63: 3657-3672. doi:10.1093/jxb/ers046
44. Li HY, Yang GD, Shu HR, Yang YT, Ye BX, Nishida I. et al. 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 chitin. Plant Cell Physiol. 2006; 47: 154-163. doi:10.1093/pcp/pci231
45. Chan YL, Cai D, Taylor PWJ, Chan MT, Yeh KW. Adverse effect of the chitinolytic enzyme PjCHI- 1 in transgenic tomato on egg mass production and embryonic development of

- Meloidogyne incognita*. Plant Physiol.2010; 59: 922-930.doi:10.1111/j.1365-3059.2010.02314.x.
- 46.Andrade LBDS, Oliveira AS, Ribeiro JKC, Kiyota S, Vasconcelos IM, DeOliveira JTA.et al. Effects of an ovel pathogenesis-related class 10 (PR-10) protein from *Crotalaria pallida* roots with papa ininhibitory activity against root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita*. J. Agric. Food Chem.2010; 58: 4145-4152.doi:10.1021/jf9044556 .
- 47.Vos C, Schouteden N., vanTuinen D, Chatagnier O, Elsen A, DeWaele D et al. Mycorrhiza-induced resistance against the root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita* involves priming of defense gene responses in tomato. Soil Biol.Biochem.2013; 60: 45-54.doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2013.01.013
- 48.Gheysen G, Mitchum MG. How nematodes manipulate plant development pathways for infection. Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.2011; 14: 415-421.doi: 10.1016/j.pbi.2011.03.012
- 49.Kyndt T, Nahar K, Haegeman A, De Vleeschauwer D, Höfte M,Gheysen G. Comparing systemic defence-related gene expression changes uponmigratory and sedentary nematode attack in rice. Plant Biol.2012; 14: 73-82. doi: 10.1111/j.1438-8677.2011.00524.x
- 50.Beneventi MA, daSilva OB, deSá MEL, Firmino AAP, deAmorim RMS, Albuquerque EVS. et al. Transcription profile of soybean root - knot nematode interaction reveals a key role of phytohormone sinthe resistance reaction. BMC Genomics. 2013;14:322. doi:10.1186/1471-2164-14-322 .
- 51.McNeece BT, Sharma K, Lawrence GW, Lawrence KS,Klink VP. The mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK) gene family functions as acohort during the *Glycine max* defense response to *Heterodera glycines*. Plant Physiol. Biochem.2019; 137: 25-41. doi: 10.1016/j.plaphy.2019.01.018
- 52.Bell CA, Magkourilou E, Barker H, Barker A, Peter E, Urwin PE. et al. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal-induced tolerance is determined by fungal identity and pathogen density. Plants People Planet. 2022; 5:241-253. DOI: 10.1002/ppp3.10338.
- 53.Ceustermans A, van Hemelrijck W, Van Campenhout J,Bylemans D.Effect of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on *Pratylenchuspenetrans* infestation in apple seedlings under greenhouse conditions. Pathogens.2018; 7:76. doi: 10.3390/ pathogens7040076.

54. Da Silva-Campos MA, Da Silva FSB, Yano-Melo AM, De Melo NF, Maia LC. Application of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi during the acclimatization of *Alpinia purpurata* to induce tolerance to *Meloidogyne arenaria*. *Plant Pathol. J.* 2017; 33:329-336. doi: 10.5423/PPJ.OA.04.2016.0094.
55. Tchabi A, Hountondji CC, Ogunsola B, Lawouin L, Coyne DL, Wiemken A. et al. Effect of two species of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi inoculation on development of micro-propagated yam plantlets and suppression of *Scutellonema bradys* (Tylenchidae). *J. Entomol. Nematol.* 2016;8:1-10. doi: 10.5897/JEN2015.0149.
56. Malviya D, Singh P, Singh UB, Paul S, Kumar Bisen P, Rai JP. et al. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi-mediated activation of plant defense responses in direct seeded rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) against root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne graminicola*. *Front. Microbiol.* 2023; 14:1104490. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2023.1104490.
57. Nakashima H, Eguchi N, Uesugi T, Yamashita N, Matsuda Y. Effect of ectomycorrhizal composition on survival and growth of *Pinus thunbergii* seedlings varying in resistance to the pine wilt nematode. *Trees* 2016; 30:475-481. doi: 10.1007/s00468-015-1217-0.
58. Lioussanne L. Review. The role of the arbuscular mycorrhiza - associated rhizobacteria in the biocontrol of soilborne phytopathogens. *Spanish J. Agric. Res.* 2010; 8: 3-5. doi: 10.5424/sjar/201008S1-5301.
59. Schaarschmidt S, Gresshoff PM, Hause B. Analyzing the soybean transcriptome during auto regulation of mycorrhization identifies the transcription factors GmNF-YA1a/b as positive regulators of arbuscular mycorrhization. *Genome Biol.* 2013; 14: R62. doi: 10.1186/gb-2013-14-6-r62
60. Kuila D, Ghosh S. Aspects, problems and utilization of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal (AM) application as bio-fertilizer in sustainable agriculture. *Curr. Res. Microbial Sci.* 2022; 3:100107. doi: 10.1016/j.crmicr.2022.100107.
61. Jones DL, Hodge A, Kuzyakov Y. Plant and mycorrhizal regulation of rhizodeposition. *New Phytol.* 2004; 163: 459-480. doi: 10.1111/j.1469- 8137.2004.01130.x
62. Vos C, Claerhout S, Mkandawire R, Panis B, De Waele D, Elsen A. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi reduce root-knot nematode penetration through altered root exudation of their host. *Plant Soil.* 2012; 354: 335-345. doi: 10.1007/s11104-011-1070-x.

63. Pinochet J, Calvet C, Camprubí A, Fernández C. Interactions between migratory endoparasitic nematodes and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in perennial crops: a review. *Plant Soil* 1996; 185: 183–190. doi: 10.1007/BF02257523.
64. Wu F, Gao Y, Yang W, Sui N, Zhu J. Biological functions of Strigolactones and their crosstalk with other phytohormones. *Front. Plant Sci.* 2022; 13, doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2022.821563
65. Lioussanne L, Jolicoeur M, St-Arnaud M. 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.* 2008; 40: 2217–2224. doi: 10.1016/j.soilbio.2008.04.013