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# Calcium/calmodulin-mediated microbial symbiotic interactions in plants

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Cytoplasmic calcium ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) transients and nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations act as hubs during root nodulation and arbuscular mycorrhizal symbioses. Plants perceive bacterial Nod factors or fungal signals to induce the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillation in the nucleus of root hair cells, and subsequently activate calmodulin (CaM) and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /CaM-dependent protein kinase (CCaMK).  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and CaM-bound CCaMK phosphorylate transcription factors then initiate down-stream signaling events. In addition, distinct  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signatures are activated at different symbiotic stages: microbial colonization and infection; nodule formation; and mycorrhizal development.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  acts as a key signal that regulates a complex interplay of downstream responses in many biological processes. This short review focuses on advances in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling-regulated symbiotic events. It is meant to be an introduction to readers in and outside the field of bacterial and fungal symbioses. We summarize the molecular mechanisms underlying  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /CaM-mediated signaling in fine-tuning both local and systemic symbiotic events.

## KEYWORDS

$\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling, local and systematic signaling, mycorrhizal development, plant-beneficial microbe interaction, rhizobial nodulation

## Introduction

Sessile plants have evolved complex signaling networks to cope with various environmental changes (Laplaze et al., 2015; Tian et al., 2020). Calcium ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ) signals play a central role in the networks that regulate various physiological responses of all eukaryotes, including plants (Berridge et al., 2003; Yuan et al., 2018a; Yuan et al., 2018b; Luan and Wang, 2021).  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling is also crucial in plant-pathogen interactions.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influxes are induced when plants perceive pathogen-/microbe-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs/MAMPs) through cell surface pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) to trigger basal defense responses. For example, the plant plasma membrane receptor

flagellin-sensitive 2 (FLS2) recognizes the conserved bacterial PAMP, flg22, to induce transient  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influxes (Aslam et al., 2008; Ma et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2020). A stronger and prolonged  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signature occurs when the bacterial pathogen *Pst* DC3000 carrying the effector *AvrRpt2* is recognized in resistant plants, as compared to *Pst* DC3000 without this avirulent factor (Yuan et al., 2021). In another example of calcium's role in plant resistance, the resistance protein ZAR1 forms a protein complex that triggers sustained calcium ion influx into the cell that subsequently leads to cell death and immune responses (Bi et al., 2021). The pathogen triggered  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling is perceived and relayed by various  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  receptors, such as CaMs/calmodulin-like proteins (CMLs), calcineurin B-like protein (CBL)-CBL-interacting protein kinases (CIPK) and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -calcium-dependent protein kinases (CDPKs or CPKs) (Tian et al., 2020; Köster et al., 2022; Yuan and Poovaiah, 2022). Interestingly,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  also plays a critical role in the symbiotic relationship between plants and beneficial microbes. The role of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  has been well described in legumes forming a symbiotic relationship with rhizobia bacteria and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi.

In the *Medicago*-rhizobial symbiotic relationship, the symbiosis signaling pathway is initiated when the plant receptor complex LysM receptor kinase 3 (LYK3)-Nod factor perception (NFP) recognizes lipo-chitooligosaccharide signals (i.e., Nod factors) from rhizobial bacteria (Haney et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2011). The Does not Make Infections 2 (DMI2)/nodulation receptor-like kinase (NORK), also known as Symbiosis receptor kinase (SYMRK) in *L. japonicus*, interacts with the LYK3-NFP receptor complex; the DMI2-LYK3-NFP protein complex regulates rhizobial infection and nodule development (Ané et al., 2004; Lefebvre et al., 2010). DMI2 interacts with 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl CoA reductase 1 (MtHMGR1), which is a key enzyme in the biosynthesis of many isoprenoid compounds, including cytokinin and mevalonate. Mevalonate is a secondary messenger, and the activation of the mevalonate pathway is important for the activation of the common symbiotic pathway (Kevei et al., 2007; Oldroyd, 2013; Venkateshwaran et al., 2015). The recognition of Nod factors (NFs) by the plant cells activates  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels, such as the cyclic nucleotide gated channel 15 (CNGC15a, b, c) and DMI1 [which was initially reported as a potassium channel (Ané et al., 2004; Peiter et al., 2007)]. Nod factor recognition also activates the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  pump, a membrane  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -ATPase 8 (MCA8). As a result, sharp oscillations of cytoplasmic and perinuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  occurs, a phenomenon called  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spiking (Ehrhardt et al., 1996; Wang et al., 2022). Following Nod factor induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influxes, some  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  binding proteins, such as CCaMK, decode the symbiotic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signal into down-stream phosphorylation events (Gleason et al., 2006). The  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and CaM-binding CCaMK phosphorylates transcription factors and induces symbiotic-related gene expression to initiate nodulation.

## $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -mediated local symbiotic signaling

### $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ mediates signal exchange between host and microbe

The first step in root symbiosis is the molecular signal exchange between roots and nitrogen-fixing rhizobia or mycorrhizae. Legume-derived flavonoids induce the biosynthesis of Nod factors in rhizobia, and some symbiosis-related flavonoids are accumulated at the colonization site. This suggests that Nod factors promote flavonoid biosynthesis in a positive feedback loop (Liu and Murray, 2016; Panche et al., 2016; Sharma et al., 2020). These root-excreted flavonoids serve as chemo-attractants to facilitate the movement of rhizobia (e.g., *Sinorhizobium meliloti*) to root hairs (Hassan and Mathesius, 2012). Interestingly, some specific host flavonoids, such as luteolin and naringenin, were shown to induce  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients in rhizobia, which subsequently activates bacterial Nod-related genes (i.e., *nodA*, *nodB*, and *nodC*) in *Rhizobium leguminosarum* cv. *viciae* (Moscatiello et al., 2010; Cui et al., 2019). These findings suggest  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling in bacterial symbionts plays a role during plant symbiotic microbe interaction. When studying arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF)-peanut symbiosis, it was noted that exogenous  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  application improved the colonization of peanut roots by AMF and induced the expression of plant genes, including those genes regulating flavonoid biosynthesis (Cui et al., 2019). The results from these studies suggest  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling is important during the initial interactions between plants and symbionts.

### Plants perceive microbes *via* symbiotic microbe-induced cytoplasmic and nuclear $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ transients

Nod factor-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spikes in root hairs is essential for plant root-nodule symbiosis. Earlier studies have revealed that *S. fredii*-derived NGR234 Nod factor was able to induce  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration increases within root hairs of nodulating legumes, such as *Chamaecrista fasciculata*, *Acacia retinoides*, *Cytisus proliferus*, *Lupinus pilosus*, and *Medicago truncatula* (Granqvist et al., 2015). However, Nod factor failed to trigger  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations in the non-nodulating legume *Cercis siliquastrum* (Granqvist et al., 2015). This observation suggests that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients are common events in rhizobia-compatible plants. To further investigate  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients in non-leguminous plants, Granqvist et al. (2015) observed that non-leguminous plants (e.g., *Parasponia andersonii*) could form a symbiotic relationship with rhizobia and exhibit  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spiking in response to NGR234 Nod factors. However, *Trema tomentosa*, a non-nodulating plant related to *Parasponia*, did not exhibit Nod

factor-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations (Granqvist et al., 2015). These results suggest that Nod-factor-triggered  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations are a common feature in response to symbiotic bacteria in nodulating species.

Nitrogen fixation in endosymbiotic plant-bacterial associations is limited to the Fabid clade (e.g., squash, bean/pea and rose families). The most well-studied bacterial associations are between legumes and *Rhizobium*. The association between a nitrogen-fixing filamentous bacteria (*Frankia*) and a diverse range of trees and woody shrubs is less well characterized. However, a recent study found that a novel symbiotic factor from *Frankia* Cc13 strain was resistant to chitinase treatment and had relatively low molecular weight (i.e., in the range 0.5–5 kDa) (Chabaud et al., 2016). The novel symbiotic factor could trigger  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spikes in root hairs and induce *nodule inception* (*CgNIN*) gene expression in the actinorhizal plant *Casuarina glauca*. This finding suggests that certain symbiotic responses, such as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spiking, are conserved across plants that can form symbiotic associations in the Fabid clade (Chabaud et al., 2016).

## $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ channels and $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ pumps involved in beneficial microbes triggered $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ influxes

Since nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations are required for rhizobial and mycorrhizal symbioses, studies to better understand  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations have mainly focused on ion channels and a pump located at the nuclear envelope (NE). The  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels include CNGCs among which CNGC15s is crucial for the observed  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spiking triggered by rhizobia colonization in *Medicago*. The CNGCs are regulated by calmodulin (CaM) via its interaction with the CNGC isoleucine glutamine (IQ) motif. A recent study found that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -bound CaM2 regulates  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spiking by associating with the CNGC15s (e.g., CNGC15a, CNGC15b, and CNGC15c), which results in closed  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels. The closing of the channel prevents it from releasing  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  into the nucleoplasm, while a calcium pump (MCA8) drives calcium back to the nuclear envelope lumen; the opening and closing of the channels shape the nucleoplasmic calcium concentration (Cerro et al., 2022). A mutated CaM2, called CaM2<sup>R91A</sup>, displayed increased binding affinity to CNGC15s. When CaM2<sup>R91A</sup> was expressed in *Medicago truncatula*, the plants exhibited an increased  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillation frequency during early stage of colonization in both AM and rhizobia. Moreover, plants expressing CaM2<sup>R91A</sup> showed enhanced Nod-factor-mediated induction of nodulation-related genes, such as *NIN* and *NF YAI*. Although the CaM2<sup>R91A</sup> expressing plants were able to maintain enhanced bacterial symbiosis at later timepoints (14 and 28 dpi), they could not sustain AM intraradical hyphae and arbuscule formation in the roots (Cerro et al., 2022). Thus, the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -bound form of CaM2 plays an important role in modulating CNGC15

activity and the subsequent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations, but the downstream  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -mediated signaling networks differ between AM and root nodule symbiosis (Figure 1).

The nuclear pore complex (NPC) in *Lotus japonicus* is essential for Nod factor-induced nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations (Kanamori et al., 2006). Nod factor triggered a weaker nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillation in mutant *nup133* as compared to the wild-type control, and the *nup133* mutants showed no mycorrhizal colonization and reduced nodulation by *Rhizobium* bacteria at permissive temperatures (Kanamori et al., 2006). In *L. japonicus*, the nucleoporin gene *NUP85* was also required for Nod-factor-induced nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillation as well as bacterial nodulation and mycorrhizal colonization (Saito et al., 2007). The nuclear pore complex may mediate Nod factor-induced nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations indirectly by modulating the transport of symbiosis-related mRNAs [such as Nod receptors and symbiosis-related  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels (CASTOR, POLLUX/DMI1, CNGC15) or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  pumps (MCA8)] from nucleus to ribosome for polypeptides or protein biosynthesis. Another possibility is that the NPCs regulate the localization of CASTOR, POLLUX/DMI1, CNGC15 to the nuclear membranes, although the biological mechanism involved deserves further study.

In addition to nuclear-localized  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels and components of the nuclear pore complex (NUP85, NUP133), other cation channels are also required for nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations. *Medicago truncatula* *DMI1* and its two homologs CASTOR and POLLUX in *L. japonicus* were once thought to be potassium ( $\text{K}^+$ ) channels (Peiter et al., 2007; Charpentier et al., 2016) but more recent evidence shows that they were  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels (Kim et al., 2019).  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  binding to the CASTOR gating ring was required for root nodule symbiosis, and legumes carrying mutated CASTOR at either of two  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  binding sites (D442A or E493Q) failed to form rhizobia-induced nodulation. This finding links defects in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  binding to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel regulation, which ultimately affects the legume-microbe symbiosis (Kim et al., 2019). However, this study was carried out in mammalian cells (HEK293), and to further characterize the function of *DMI1* and clarify if it is a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  or  $\text{K}^+$  channel, future research should be performed in plant cells. Furthermore, Nod factor induced the association between C-terminal of *DMI1* and N-terminal of CNGC15s. In addition, *DMI1* associated with CNGC15s (CNGC15a, CNGC15b, CNGC15c) to form a complex protein in nuclear membranes which was required for the activation of nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spiking (Charpentier et al., 2016). The latest study further confirmed that the two cation channels, *DMI1* and CNGC15, form a channel complex to regulate nuclear symbiotic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations and nodule development (Liu et al., 2022). Genetic testing showed that gain-of-function mutations in *MtDMI1*, *DMI1* (S760N), displayed spontaneous nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spikes and constitutive activation of nodulation (Liu et al., 2022). The S760N mutation *DMI1* caused nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations in a CNGC15 dependent manner and spontaneous nodulation (Liu et al., 2022). These

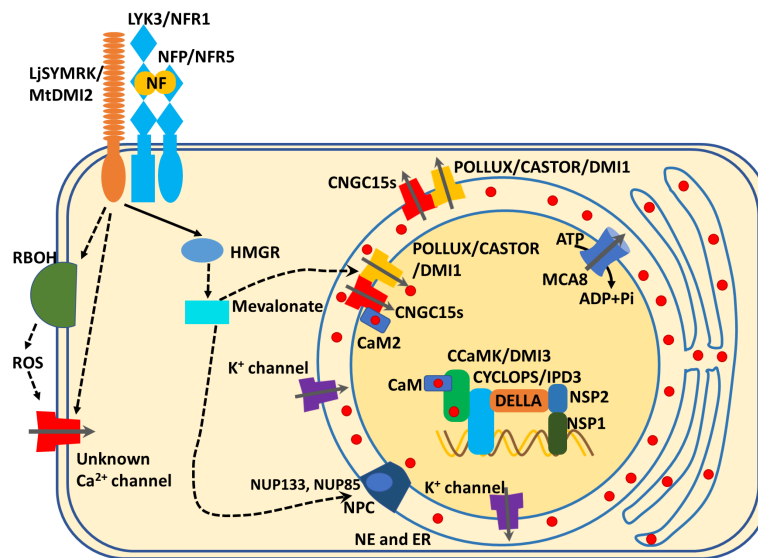


FIGURE 1

Ca<sup>2+</sup> signals mediate local symbiotic signaling pathways in the root. Plants recognize the Nod factor *via* Nod factor perception (NFP)/Nod Factor Receptor 5 (NFR5) and LysM receptor kinase 3 (LYK3)/NFR1 subsequently activate the leucine-rich repeat receptor-like kinases which include the symbiotic receptor kinase *LjSYMRK* in *Lotus* and *MtDMI2* in *Medicago truncatula*. The activated *LjSYMRK/MtDMI2* may directly open unknown cytoplasmic membrane-localized Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels or indirectly regulate Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels through ROS signaling pathway, to induce cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> influxes. Meanwhile, *LjSYMRK/MtDMI2* interacts with 3-Hydroxy-3-Methylglutaryl Coenzyme A Reductase (HMGR) to initiate the biosynthesis of mevalonate. The mevalonate accumulation activates *LjPOLLUX* and *LjCASTOR/MtDMI1*. *MtDMI1/LjPOLLUX* and *LjCASTOR* interact with the nuclear envelope (NE)-localized channels, CNGC15s (CNGC15a, b or c), to regulate Nod factor-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx into the nucleus from the NE or endoplasmic reticulum. Ca<sup>2+</sup>-bound *MtCaM2* interacts with CNGC15s, causing its closure and thus acting as a negative feedback loop for ion channels. Meanwhile, the nuclear localized Ca<sup>2+</sup> pump, *MtMCA8*, uses ATP to transport the Ca<sup>2+</sup> ions from the nucleus back to NE or ER to maintain the Ca<sup>2+</sup> oscillation. In addition, a potential component of the nuclear pore complex (NPC), nucleoporins, such as *NUP133* and *UNP85*, are essential for the Nod-factor-induced nuclear Ca<sup>2+</sup> oscillation. The symbiotic Ca<sup>2+</sup> signal is decoded by CaM to activate down-stream phosphorylation events, through the Ca<sup>2+</sup>- and CaM-dependent protein kinase, *LjCcCaMK* or *MtDMI3*. The activated *LjCcCaMK* or *MtDMI3* phosphorylates *LjCYCLOPS* or *MtIPD3*, which is a transcription factor. The phosphorylated *LjCYCLOPS* or *MtIPD3* associates with *DELLA*, *NSP2* and *NSP1* to form a complex, which binds to the promoter of symbiosis-associated genes to induce their expression, which ultimately leads to nodulation.

studies extend our understanding of activating cation channels complex to form nuclear Ca<sup>2+</sup> oscillations during plant symbiotic microbe interaction.

Ca<sup>2+</sup> pumps regulate Ca<sup>2+</sup> changes in the nuclear region, like nuclear localized Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels, during plant and symbiotic microbe interactions. Other than depending on the ion concentration or electrochemical gradient like Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels, Ca<sup>2+</sup> pumps consumed ATP to facilitate Ca<sup>2+</sup> movement against it (Demidchik et al., 2018). A Ca<sup>2+</sup> pump, *MtMCA8*, was involved in the formation of symbiosis-induced nuclear Ca<sup>2+</sup> oscillation, and *MCA8*-silenced plants displayed decreased mycorrhizal colonization (Capoen et al., 2011). Unlike *DMI1* being mainly distributed in the inner layer of nuclear membrane, *MCA8* was equally localized at both inner and outer layers of the nuclear membrane and at the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). A hypothesis proposes that the inner-layer-localized *MCA8* mediates the recapture of nuclear Ca<sup>2+</sup> spikes, while the outer-layer- and the ER-localized *MCA8* may reload the Ca<sup>2+</sup> store at the ER or nuclear envelope from the cytoplasm (Capoen et al., 2011; Tian et al., 2020).

A key component of calcium regulation during plant symbiosis is the small guanosine triphosphatase (GTPase). The GTPase, belongs to the Rho/Rop family, directly regulates reactive oxygen species (ROS) production through activating the respiratory burst oxidase homolog B (RBOHB) (Wang et al., 2020). The ROS activates Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels and triggers Ca<sup>2+</sup> influxes, which subsequently activates plant immune responses (Wang et al., 2020), which suggests the GTPases play a role in plant defense (Rivero et al., 2019). Interestingly, the small GTPases [Rho-like GTPases (*MtROPs*)] and heterotrimeric G-proteins including G $\alpha$ , G $\beta$ , and G $\gamma$  subunits are also involved in root nodule symbiosis (Ke et al., 2012; Pandey, 2019; Bovin et al., 2021): the expressions of *MtROP3*, *MtROP5* and *MtROP6* were induced in rhizobia-infected roots (Liu et al., 2010); and genetic tests indicated that the G $\alpha$  repressed nodule development, while the G $\beta$ , G $\gamma$  and RGS promoted nodule development (Choudhury and Pandey, 2013). Further study revealed that ROP6 interacted with NFR5, but not with NFR1, to positively regulate infection thread development and nodulation formation in soybean (Ke et al., 2012). Another study revealed that ROP9 interacted with

RACK1 and regulated root nodule development (Gao et al., 2021). Active NFR1 phosphorylated the regulator of G-protein signaling (RGS) proteins, which deactivated  $G\alpha$ , a negative regulator of root nodulation (Choudhury and Pandey, 2015). More studies are needed to reveal how small GTPases, together with Nod factor receptor complex, regulate symbiotic cytoplasmic and/or nuclear  $Ca^{2+}$  spiking.

## Plants transduce and decode $Ca^{2+}$ signals through CCaMK during symbiosis

In 1995, the Poovaiah laboratory cloned and characterized a novel protein kinase from lily, which turned out to be regulated by both  $Ca^{2+}$  and CaM. Hence, it was named  $Ca^{2+}$ /CaM-dependent protein kinase (CCaMK; Patil et al., 1995). Unlike all the other  $Ca^{2+}$ /CaM-dependent protein kinases (CaMKs) which were discovered in animal cells, the CCaMK reported from plants contained a C-terminal visinin-like domain, including three EF-hand motifs, which functioned as a  $Ca^{2+}$ -sensitive molecular switch (Sathyanarayanan et al., 2001). The CCaMK involved in symbiosis is encoded by *DMI3* in *Medicago truncatula* and *LjCCaMK* in *L. japonicus* (Patil et al., 1995). CCaMK is essential for root nodule formation and mycorrhizal associations. CCaMK has a serine/threonine kinase domain at the N-terminal and two  $Ca^{2+}$ -mediated regulatory domains at the C-terminal. The two C-terminal domains include a visinin-like domain with three EF-hand motifs (i.e., identified as three  $Ca^{2+}$ -binding domains) and one CaM-binding domain with autoinhibitory function (Sathyanarayanan et al., 2001; Yuan et al., 2017). Plants carrying the mutated CCaMK lacking the autoinhibitory domain exhibited spontaneous nodulation even without rhizobia infection (Gleason et al., 2006). This data indicates that the legume CCaMK is a master controller of nodulation and its autoinhibitory domain is important in regulating its activity. Further studies have shown that when basal levels of  $Ca^{2+}$  bind to CCaMK, the protein is kept in an inactive state. However, at elevated  $Ca^{2+}$  concentrations (e.g.,  $Ca^{2+}$  spiking),  $Ca^{2+}$ /CaM also binds to CCaMK, and the protein becomes activated (Miller et al., 2013). Thus, CCaMK is kept in an inactive state when there are no symbiotic microbes present. However, once symbiosis signals are perceived,  $Ca^{2+}$  spiking is induced, and the inactive CCaMK state is overridden by higher levels of  $Ca^{2+}$  and CaM binding (Miller et al., 2013).

Further studies in the Poovaiah laboratory and others revealed that a mutated CCaMK negatively affects root nodule symbiosis in *Medicago truncatula* (Sinharoy et al., 2009; Jauregui et al., 2017). Site-directed mutations in the CaM-binding domain of CCaMK altered its binding capacity to CaM, providing an effective approach to study how CaM regulates CCaMK during rhizobial symbiosis in *Medicago truncatula*. Mutating the tryptophan at position 342 to phenylalanine (W342F) increased the CaM-binding capability of the mutant,

which underwent autophosphorylation and catalyzed substrate phosphorylation in the absence of  $Ca^{2+}$  and CaM. When the mutant W342F was expressed in *ccamk-1* roots, the transgenic roots exhibited an altered nodulation phenotype. These results suggest that altering the CaM-binding domain of CCaMK could generate a constitutively activated kinase with a negative role in the physiological function of the CCaMK [(Jauregui et al., 2017) (Figure 2)].

The CCaMK phosphorylated symbiosis-related substrate has been identified, CYCLOPS in *Lotus* and interacting protein of DMI3 (IPD3) in *Medicago truncatula* (Lévy et al., 2004; Messinese et al., 2007; Yano et al., 2008). As with auto-active CCaMK, auto-active CYCLOPS causes spontaneous nodulation in the absence of rhizobia (Gleason et al., 2006; Hayashi et al., 2010; Miller et al., 2013; Singh et al., 2014). CCaMK phosphorylates CYCLOPS/IPD3 to form a complex that binds to promoter elements and induces the expression of symbiosis-involved genes (Yano et al., 2008; Singh et al., 2014). For example, in *Lotus*, CYCLOPS works with CCaMK and a DELLA transcription factor to regulate the expression of *reduced (or required) arbuscular mycorrhiza1 (RAM1)* (Gobbato et al., 2012; Pimprikar et al., 2016). RAM1 is a GRAS transcription factor which, when expressed, initiates the colonization of plant roots by arbuscular mycorrhiza (Gobbato et al., 2012). During Nod-factor signaling, CCaMK/IPD3 forms large complexes with two GRAS proteins, nodulation signaling pathway1 (NSP1) and NSP2, in addition to DELLA proteins. The DELLA proteins work as scaffolding to link the CCaMK-IPD3 complex with the NSP1-NSP2 complex, resulting in a complicated unit that regulates symbiotic signaling (Fonouni-Farde et al., 2016; Jin et al., 2016). This unit also activates the expression of two downstream transcription factors, *NIN* and *ERN1* (ERF, *required for nodulation 1*) (Marsh et al., 2007). Furthermore, ERN1 and/or ERN2 regulate the expression of *rhizobium-directed polar growth (RPG)*, *cystathionine  $\beta$ -synthase like 1 (CBS1)*, *nodule pectate lyase (NPL)*, and *nuclear factor YA 1 (NF-YA1)*, while *NIN* regulates the expression of *early nodulin 11 (ENOD11)* and *ENOD12* (Fonouni-Farde et al., 2016).

Another reported interactor of CCaMK is the Calf intestinal phosphatase 73 (*CIP73*) (Kang et al., 2011). CIP73 belongs to a large ubiquitin super family, and it contains a Scythe N ubiquitin-like domain. A report showed that CIP73 interacted with CCaMK in a  $Ca^{2+}$ -independent manner (Kang et al., 2011). However, CIP73 is phosphorylated by CCaMK in a  $Ca^{2+}$ /CaM-dependent manner (Kang et al., 2011). The *cip73* silencing mutants displayed significantly reduced nodulation as compared to the wild-type control, indicating that it has a role in nodule formation (Kang et al., 2011). Notably, due to CIP73 having a scythe-N ubiquitin-like domain, it may be interesting to study whether the 26S proteasome mediates rhizobial/AM fungal infections. Known components of the  $Ca^{2+}$ -mediated local symbiotic pathway in roots is described in Figures 1 and 2.

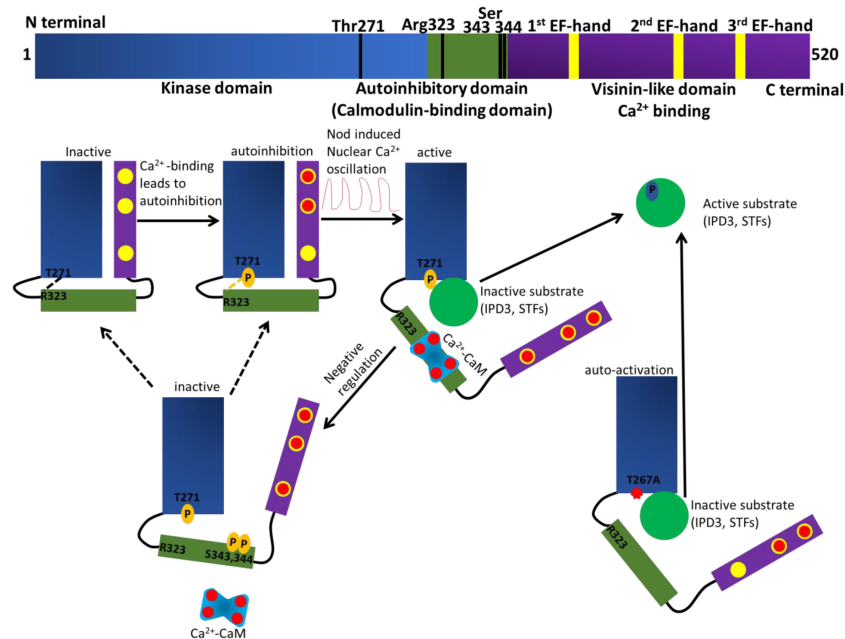


FIGURE 2

Schematic presentation displaying the domain structure of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /CaM-dependent protein kinases (CCaMK). The kinase domain (KD) is colored in blue, the autoinhibitory domain (AID) and calmodulin (CaM)-binding domain (CaMBD) are colored in green, the visinin-like domain (VID) is colored in purple and the EF-hand motifs in VID are in yellow. When symbiotic microbes are absent, the auto-inhibitory domain interacts with the kinase domain through a hydrogen bond between amino acid Thr-271 in KD and Arg-323 in AID. The interaction keeps the CCaMK inactive. The basal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentrations in root cell may bind to one or two EF-hands in the visinin-like domain, but not to all three EF-hand motifs. When symbiotic bacteria are present, the Nod factors induce nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations. Hence,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is loaded onto the EF-hand motifs in VID and to CaM. Subsequently, the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -loaded CaM will interact with the CCaMK AID.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and CaM trigger conformational changes in the tertiary structure of CCaMK resulting in the AID being detached from the KD and removing the auto-inhibition caused by the Thr-271 phosphorylation. Thus, the CCaMK is completely activated. When the amino acid Ser-343 and/or Ser-344 in the AID are phosphorylated, the interaction between CCaMK and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -bound CaM is blocked and the CCaMK becomes inactive. The gain-of-function T271A mutant displays a spontaneous nodulation phenotype; a possible explanation is the hydrogen bond between amino acid Thr-271 in KD and Arg-323 in AID is compromised.

## Phytohormone-mediates symbiosis through regulating the stability of the CCaMK-DELLA-CYCLOPS complex

To activate nodulation or arbuscule formation, the CaM-CCaMK-DELLA-CYCLOPS protein complex binds to the promoter of symbiosis-related genes (Pimprakar et al., 2016). The DELLAs are a key scaffold protein for symbiosis, but they are also critical transcription factors that regulate phytohormone signaling. Therefore, DELLAs may be the link between hormone signals and symbiosis (Liu et al., 2018). Studies about phytohormones involved in symbiosis focus on gibberellic acid (GA), auxin, cytokinin, and abscisic acid (ABA).

NFs-triggered the activation of nodulation requires an optimal level of GAs and exogenous high concentration ( $>0.01 \mu\text{M}$ ) GA treatments inhibit AM and rhizobial symbioses (Ferguson et al., 2005; Ferguson et al., 2011). One hypothesis is that GA negatively regulates plant symbiosis through the disruption of the CCaMK-DELLA-CYCLOPS complex. This disruption occurs when GA-receptor *GID1* (GA INSENSITIVE DWARF1) perceives GA, and

then interacts with DELLA proteins (Nemoto et al., 2017). The GA-*GID1*-DELLA complex recruits a specific F-box protein that interacts with the SCF E3 ligase complex, resulting in the 26S proteasome-mediated ubiquitination and degradation of DELLA proteins. Recruiting E3 ligases to DELLAs (i.e., part of the CaM-CCaMK-DELLA-CYCLOPS complex) may lead to the degradation of the entire complex (Wang and Deng, 2011; Kudla et al., 2018).

Auxin has a positive role in nodulation (Suzaki et al., 2013; Breakspear et al., 2014; Bensmihen, 2015), and nodule numbers are regulated by shoot-to-root auxin transport (van Noorden et al., 2006). Auxin also seems to be positively involved in AM symbiosis (Hanlon and Coenen, 2011; Etemadi et al., 2014). However, a separate study revealed that indole-3-acetic acid (IAA), a class of auxin, promoted GA1 accumulation in pea (O'Neill and Ross, 2002); further studies are needed to extend our knowledge about GA and auxin crosstalk during plant symbiotic microbe interaction.

The role of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in controlling cell division and growth is well recognized (Perris et al., 1968). It is becoming clear that there is also a linkage between cytokinin signaling and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$

signaling. Cytokinin is an important hormone involved in symbiotic interactions between *Rhizobium* bacteria and leguminous plants. This interaction leads to the induction of the nitrogen-fixing nodule. It was proposed that cytokinin was the key differentiation signal for nodule organogenesis (Frugier et al., 2008). It was also proposed that cytokinin is involved in the regulation of *NIN* (Nodule Inception) expression to initiate nodule organogenesis and other transcriptional regulators through mechanisms operating both locally and systemically (Yano et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2019). Further study revealed that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling involve cytokinin mediated nodule formation through regulating cytokinin biosynthesis (Reid et al., 2016; Reid et al., 2017). Nod factor induced cytokinin biosynthesis genes expression, including *isopentenyl transferase 2* (*LjIPT2*) and *lonely guy 4* (*LjLog4*), and CCaMK is required for this induction (Reid et al., 2017), although the underlying mechanism is still unclear.

ABA application can inhibit root nodulation, suggesting that ABA is a negative regulator of rhizobial symbiosis (Suzuki et al., 2004; Ding et al., 2008). Interestingly, arbuscule formation was compromised in an ABA biosynthesis-defective tomato mutant *sitiens* (Herrera-Medina et al., 2007) and further work in *Medicago truncatula* supported the idea that some components of ABA signaling were needed for AM symbiosis (Charpentier et al., 2014). Another study revealed that ABA contributed to root symbiosis in a dose-dependent manner: high concentrations of ABA repressed AM colonization, while low ABA (i.e., less than 200  $\mu\text{M}$ ) promoted AM development (Liu et al., 2018). ABA works in complex signaling pathways with other hormones, including GA. In fact, the interconnection between ABA and GA is illustrated by ABA negatively regulating GA biosynthesis-related gene expression and positively regulating GA catabolism (Nag et al., 2005; Martín-Rodríguez et al., 2016). Another study revealed that exogenous ABA application enhanced the stability of DELLA protein, even in the presence of GA (Achard et al., 2006). ABA maintains the stability and integrity of DELLAs and low doses of ABA may contribute to its positive impact on AM symbiosis (Bedini et al., 2018). High levels of ABA impair  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillations, which negatively affects symbiosis (Charpentier et al., 2014). Further studies could address whether SA and JA are also involved in root symbiosis through stabilizing the DELLA protein, although the underlying molecular mechanism remains unclear (Liu et al., 2018).

CCaMK also has a positive role in ABA-mediated responses (Ni et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2021). Work in rice showed that the type C protein phosphate (PP2C), also known as PP45, negatively affected CCaMK activity by dephosphorylating T263. However, ABA induced  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  accumulation suppressed the transcriptional expression of PP45 (Ni et al., 2019). Although this work was performed in rice, which does not form symbiotic relationships with rhizobia, it would be interesting to hypothesize that ABA is involved in the mediation of root

symbiosis through CCaMK. Further studies are needed to better understand the interaction between CCaMK and ABA and their role in symbiosis.

## Systemic symbiotic signaling

A number of studies have revealed that plants tightly regulate nodule development through a systemic signaling pathway (root-derived peptides and shoot-derived microRNA), also known as autoregulation of nodulation (AON) (Kassaw et al., 2015). During early rhizobial infection events, the small peptides, CLAVATA (CLV)/Embryo-surrounding region (CLE), accumulate in roots and are transported to the shoots through the xylem (Yamaguchi et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2022). The rhizobial-induced CLE (RIC) is recognized by a receptor complex in leaves, and this recognition initiates the biosynthesis of cytokinins and the shoot-derived microRNA, miR2111 (Kassaw et al., 2015; Gautrat et al., 2020; Okuma and Kawaguchi, 2021). The shoot-derived regulators are transported to the root through the phloem to repress or fine-tune nodule formation (Wang et al., 2022), although the role of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling in these systemic regulators is not understood.

Recent studies indicate that photosynthesis and light signals participate in symbiotic nitrogen fixation in soybean through  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling. Root nodules formed when plants were grown under normal light conditions. However, when light was absent, nodule formation was disrupted. Moreover, root nodules were only formed when leaves were illuminated; only illuminating the roots failed to promote the formation of infection threads by rhizobia (Wang et al., 2021). Blue light was sufficient for nodule formation, and a known blue light receptor *GmGRY1* was required for light-induced nodulation. Light signals facilitated the movement and transportation of two proteins, *soybean TGACG-motif binding factor 3/4* (*GmSTF3/4*) and *flowering locus T* (*GmFTs*), from shoots to roots. Once these proteins are in roots, the transported *GmSTF3* is phosphorylated and becomes a substrate for the active CCaMK. The phosphorylated *GmSTF3* interacts with *GmFT2* to form a complex. This complex targets the promoter regions of *GmNF-YA1* and *GmNF-YB1* and induce their expression, ultimately resulting in nodule formation. Thus, these findings using soybeans suggest that plants could interpret light signals in leaves and then signal roots that photosynthesis-derived carbohydrates are available to support symbiosis and enhance nitrogen fixation in roots (Figure 3). It is worthwhile to test whether  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling mediates the activation and formation of mobile signals and to determine the long-distance signal transport.

## Summary and outlook

We are starting to learn the complexity of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling during plant-microbe symbiotic interactions. Previous studies have mainly focused on the individual, local signaling

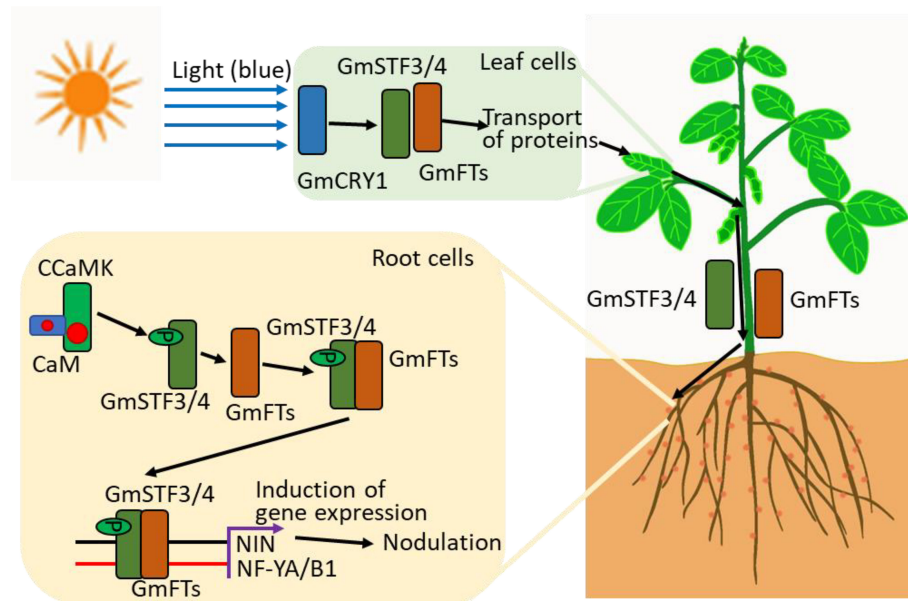


FIGURE 3

Systemic symbiotic signaling pathways in plants. Leaves perceive the blue light signal through the blue light receptor, *GmCRY*, which subsequently facilitates the long-distance transport of two symbiosis-associated transcription factors, *GmSTF3/4* and *GmFT*, from shoots to roots. CCaMK, a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and CaM-binding protein phosphorylates *GmSTF3*, which then facilitates the interaction between *GmSTF3* and *GmFT* to form a complex. This complex binds to the promoter region of symbiosis-related genes, such as *NIN*, *NF-YA1* or *NF-YB1*, to trigger nodule formation in leguminous plant roots.

components. A recent study Wang, et al. (2021) uncovered that not only the local signaling, but also the systemic signal integration coordinately regulates symbiotic responses. Further studies suggest the specific spatial and temporal  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling response is tightly regulated and sophisticated; it is likely that multiple symbiotic signaling pathways are involved in fine-tuning a precise symbiosis response in plants (Kudla et al., 2018).

Although exciting advances in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -mediated symbiotic signaling pathways are rapidly expanding our knowledge about how plants mediate symbiotic interactions, some questions remain to be answered. One question is whether Nod factor or symbiotic microbes induce the cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients (although nuclear  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  oscillation has been well documented) and which  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  component(s),  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  pumps that are localized in the cytoplasmic membrane is/are involved in this biological process. Another question is whether CCaMK is involved in the transport of ammonia from roots to shoots. More questions remain as to whether other novel  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling proteins [e.g., CaM-like proteins (CML) or calcineurin B-like proteins (CBLs)-CBL-interacting protein kinases (CIPKs)] participate in symbiotic regulation. The answers to the above questions should provide new insights into nodulation and arbuscular mycorrhizal colonization. This knowledge would empower us to develop strategies to improve and manipulate plant-microbe symbioses and, thus, increase crop yield and agricultural productivity.

## Author contributions

PY, FL, CG and BP were involved in writing this review. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

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## Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.



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