***Trichoderma asperelloides* enhances local (LAR) and systemic**

acquired resistance (SAR) response under low nitrate nutrition in

Arabidopsis

Aakanksha Wany, Pradeep K. Pathak, Kapuganti Jagadis Gupta *

National Institute of Plant Genome Research, Aruna Asaf Ali Marg, 110067, New

Delhi, India

Correspondence

*Kapuganti Jagadis Gupta

Phone: +91-11-26735111

Email: jgk@nipgr.ac.in

Total word count:

Introduction

Results

Discussion

Material and Methods

Acknowledgements- 130

Number of Figures: 14 (All figures in color)

Supporting Information: 4 Figures and 1 Table

Summary

29 • Nitrogen (N) is essential for growth, development and defense but, how low N effects defense and the role of *Trichoderma* in enhancing defense under low nitrate is not known

32 • Low nitrate fed Arabidopsis plants displayed reduced growth and compromised LAR & SAR response when infected with avirulent and virulent *Pseudomonas syringae* DC3000. These responses were enhanced in the presence of *Trichoderma*. The mechanism of increased LAR and SAR mediated by *Trichoderma* involve increased N uptake and enhanced protein levels via modulation of nitrate transporter genes. *nrt2.1* mutant is compromised in LAR and SAR response suggesting a link between enhanced N transport and defense.

40 • Enhanced N uptake was mediated by *Trichoderma* elicited nitric oxide (NO). Low NO producing mutants *nia1,2*, *nsHb*[+] were unable to induce nitrate transporters and compromised defense in presence of *Trichoderma* under low N suggesting a signaling role of *Trichoderma* elicited NO. *Trichoderma* also induced SA and defense gene expression under low N. SA deficient *NahG* and *npr1* mutants were compromised in LAR and SAR response in the presence of *Trichoderma*.

47 • The mechanism of enhanced plant defense under low N mediated by *Trichoderma* involve NO, ROS, SA production and induction of NRT and SAR marker genes.

Key words: Nitric oxide, nitrate transporters, *Pseudomonas syringae,* SAR, *Trichoderma*

Introduction

Nitrogen (N) is essential for growth and development of plants. It is a crucial component in the chlorophyll, nucleic acids and amino acids. N plays an important role in operation of primary and secondary metabolism and also involved in protection of plants against biotic and abiotic stresses (O'Brien *et al.* 2016; Mur *et al.* 2017). N deficiency occurs in soil due to slow mineralization, lack of sufficient organic matter, leaching due to heavy rainfalls and increased activities of denitrifying bacteria. Low N can retard the growth of plants and cause severe physiological and morphological defects (Walker *et al.* 2001; Landrein *et al.* 2018). To cope with this, plants have evolved N uptake systems to support their survival under N deficiency (Li *et al.* 2017). These uptake systems are based on their affinity with nitrates (NO_3^-) mediated by the family of low and high affinity nitrate transporter proteins (LATs & HATs; Tsay *et al.* 2007).

N plays a very significant role in plant defense (Gupta *et al.* 2013; Mur *et al.* 2017). Hence, operation of efficient N transport system can help plants to defend against pathogens. These defense responses involve activation of innate immune response comprising of PTI (PAMP Triggered Immunity) and ETI (Effector-Triggered Immunity) (Alves *et al.* 2014; Jones and Dangl 2006) and requires N. The defense mechanism for invading pathogen importantly includes rapid programmed cell death known as the hypersensitive response (HR), which develops during incompatible plant-pathogen (*R-avr*) interactions (Delledonne *et al.* 1998). An early characteristic of HR is the rapid generation of superoxide (O_2^-), nitric oxide (NO) and accumulation of H_2O_2 (Lamb and Dixon, 1997). Moreover, SA produced during HR, plays an important role in plant defense (Mur *et al.* 2000, 2008; Gupta *et al.* 2013). The host mobilizes salicylic acid (SA) for the plant defense (Oliva and Quibod 2017, Mur *et al.* 2017) and this pathway itself requires N for synthesis of various intermediates leading to SA production. Thus, N not only improves the nutritional status of the plant, but, also its concentration plays a role in defense. Moreover, the form of N nutrition can greatly influence the HR-mediated resistance in plants (Gupta *et al.* 2013).

Nitrate (NO_3^-) nutrition greatly influences HR via the production of NO which is a regulatory signal in plant defense (Delledonne *et al.* 1998). NO production depends on NO_3^-. Therefore, N deficiency can also lead to reduced levels of NO. SA is known

to be induced by NO, hence, low N leads to low NO and reduced SA levels. Since

NO production also requires NO_3^-, it may also play a role in systemic acquired

resistance (SAR) which results in broad-spectrum disease resistance against

secondary infections after primary infection (Cameron *et al.* 1994, 1999). SAR

develops either as a consequence of HR where NO has its proven role (Delledonne

et al. 1998), or in the course of a compatible interaction resulting in disease

development (Gupta *et al.* 2014). SAR is dependent on SA or its derivatives (Park *et*

al. 2007, Metraux *et al.* 1990) and PR gene expression (Ryals *et al.* 1996).

Previously, it was shown that NO plays a role in nitrate uptake/assimilation during

stress by modulating nitrate transporters (Frungillo *et al.* 2013). Thus, N plays

multifaceted roles in plant defense.

Therefore, any mechanism that can increase N uptake may assist in plant

defense under low NO_3^-. Many plant symbiotic microbes such as mycorrhiza,

Trichoderma, PGPR are known to increase nutrient uptake. However, the operation

of plant defense under low N and the effect of these microbes in increasing plant

defense under N deficiency is not known.

Several species of *Trichoderma* play an important role in plant growth

promotion and resistance against various biotic and abiotic stresses. They confer

resistance to plants via various mechanisms such as mycoparasitism, activation of

basal and induced systemic resistance response (ISR). Previously, it was

demonstrated that roots colonized by *Trichoderma* species can activate defense

responses very rapidly and intensively via priming in *Arabidopsis* (Brotman *et al.*

2012). This occurs via modulation of transcription factors and key metabolites of

plant defense (Shoresh *et al.* 2010). Upon pathogen attack, *Trichoderma* treated

plants show accumulated transcript levels of *PAL* (Yedidia *et al.* 2003) and increased

levels of defense-related plant enzymes (Shoresh *et al.* 2005).

If *Trichoderma* enhances N uptake, it can have positive effect on plant

defense via LAR and SAR responses altogether. So far is it not known whether

Trichoderma can increase plant defense under low N. Therefore, in the present

study, we have assessed, the systemic defense response of low N fed *Arabidopsis*

thaliana plants to the phytopathogen; *Pseudomonas syringae* p.v. tomato DC3000

induced by the beneficial fungus *Trichoderma asperelloides* (*T203*) under low and

optimum nitrate concentrations. Here, we describe that *T203* enhances SAR

response in Arabidopsis grown under low N via modulating nitrate transporters and

this mechanism involves both NO and SA.

Results

Optimal and low nitrate effects LAR and SAR differently

Nitrogen plays an important role in plant defense, hence, we first tested the

effect of low nitrate on LAR and SAR response. For this purpose, WT plants were

grown under optimum (3 mM) and low (0.1 mM) NO_3^- conditions and infected with *P.*

syringae DC3000 (*avrRpm1*) and observed local HR. As shown in Fig.**1a** (lower

panel) within 24 hpi, the 3 mM NO_3^--fed plants showed HR (lesion formation) at the

inoculation sites and it was enhanced till 48 hpi (Fig.**1a**) whereas 0.1 mM NO_3^- plants

showed chlorotic lesions at the site of inoculation at 24 hpi and these spots were

enhanced in 48 hpi. Electrolyte leakage (EL) (Fig.**1b**) was more rapid in 3 mM *Pst*

infiltrated plants than 0.1 mM plants which is in accordance with HR response. A

significant increase in CFU count was observed in 0.1 mM grown plants at 48 hpi in

comparison to bacterial numbers in 3 mM grown plants (Fig. **1c**). We further found

that, the *PR1* (a marker for HR) transcript levels have increased in 3 mM *Pst* treated

plants (up to 25 fold till 48hpi), but in 0.1 mM WT plants, this gene was not at all

induced at 48 hpi (Fig.**1d**). Taken together these results suggest that low NO_3^- grown

plants are compromised with HR linked LAR response.

After observing LAR, we studied SAR (Fig. **S1b**; Cameron *et al.* 1994 and

1999). Three days post-secondary challenge with virulent *Pst* DC3000, EL, CFU and

PR1 gene expression were assessed. 0.1 mM *Pst*-challenged plants show more

prominent necrotic and dark yellow lesions spread to both sides of the leaf (Fig. **2a**)

confirming susceptible symptoms (yellow specks) whereas 3 mM grown plants

showed reduced yellowing and necrotic symptoms. This clearly suggests that, 3 mM

NO_3^- plants defended better during secondary challenge than 0.1 mM NO_3^- plants

suggesting that optimal N is required for SAR development.

Trypan blue images of inoculated and uninoculated leaves are shown in Fig.

2b. It was observed that, after 3 days post challenge, the cell death observed in *Pst*

infiltrated tissues of 0.1 mM NO_3^- plants is profoundly less in comparison to 3 mM

NO_3^- plants till 24 hpc. At 48 hpc, there was increased cell death in both 0.1 and 3

mM inoculated leaves but cell death phenotype is different. Interestingly, the uninoculated leaves of 0.1 and 3 mM WT plants, showed small and uniform spread of macrobursts throughout the leaf blades spread unanimously over the leaf, in all the time points, in exception that, 3 mM leaves displayed slightly larger macrobursts (Fig. **2b**). This suggests that during SAR establishment, the mobile signal perceived by the uninoculated leaves results in the occurrence of low frequency microscopic HRs (Cameron *et al.* 1999; Alvarez *et al.* 1998).

Then, we assessed EL (Fig. **2c**), we found leakage was significantly higher in 3 mM plants than 0.1 mM plants in both the cases (1° and 2°). But, much higher EL was observed during 2° challenge (Fig. **2c**-right panel). Mock inoculated plants showed moderate EL in both 0.1 mM and 3 mM plants (Fig. **S2a**). Higher bacterial growth was observed in 0.1 mM *Pst* treated plants as expected till 72 hpc, while there was a significant reduction in the bacterial numbers in 3 mM *Pst* inoculated plants (Fig. **2d**).

Low LAR under low nitrogen is reversed by *Trichoderma*

Next, we investigated whether *Trichoderma asperelloides* plays a role in improving LAR and SAR response under low NO_3^- availability. Interestingly, we found that under 0.1 mM NO_3^-, *Trichoderma* treated plants displayed healthy phenotype than untreated plants (absence of *Trichoderma*) (Fig. **S1a**), this enhanced growth was linked to increased leaf number, fresh weight and total chlorophyll content (Fig. **S2 b,c,d**). During LAR, *Trichoderma* grown 0.1 mM NO_3^- plants did not show any severe disease symptoms, rather they mimicked the HR phenotype of 3 mM plants and showed resistance (Fig. **3a**). This suggests that *Trichoderma* provides resistance under low N stress (Compare Fig. **3a** with Fig. **1a**). EL was significantly higher in both 3 mM and 0.1 mM *Trichoderma* treated plants (Fig. **3b**) in comparison to untreated plants (Compare Fig. **3b** with Fig. **1b**). As shown in Fig. **3c** there was a significant reduction in the bacterial count in 0.1 mM *Pst* plants at 24 hpi, suggesting that *Trichoderma* enhances LAR response under low N. The higher accumulation of *PR1* transcripts in both 0.1 mM (~9 folds at 48 hpi) and 3 mM (~28 folds at 48 hpi) in *Trichoderma* grown *Pst* treated plants (Compare Fig. **3d** with Fig. **1d**) again providing evidence that *Trichoderma* can enhance LAR under low N.

***Trichoderma* can induce SAR under low N**

During SAR assay secondary challenge there was complete reduction in yellowing in *T203* grown 0.1 mM plants in comparison to untreated plants (Compare Fig. **4a** with Fig. **2a**). In response to *T203*, 0.1 mM NO_3^- plants showed more Trypan blue spots during secondary challenge. Upon infection, cell death spots were more widely spread in these leaves (Compare Fig. **4b** with Fig. **2b**). EL was significantly higher (~4 fold) in both 0.1 and 3 mM *T203* treated plants during 2° challenge, in comparison to 1° inoculation at 24 and 48 hpc (Fig. **4c**). This suggests that *T203* treatment primes the defense responses in the uninoculated leaves immediately at 0 hpi and after 2° challenge. Bacterial count was in accordance with EL that, the *Pst* population decreased significantly in *T203* treated low N-fed plants, suggesting that *T203* imparts enhanced resistance to the NO_3^- stressed plants (compare Fig. **4d** with Fig **2d**).

Trichoderma activates nitrate transporters, facilitates N uptake and promotes SAR in low N-fed plants

Increased LAR and SAR response under low NO_3^- in the presence of *Trichoderma* is probably due to increased nutrient uptake facilitated by *Trichoderma* as these responses are absent in *Trichoderma* untreated plants. Increased nitrate transport is probably the reason for resistance hence, we checked the expression of both LATs (*CLC-A*, *NPF1.2*) and HATs (*NRT2.1*, *NRT2.2* and *NRT2.4*).

CLCa (the chloride channel family) is a tonoplast located antiporter channel system which drives nitrate accumulation in the vacuoles (Krapp *et al.* 2014). It was observed that, under low NO_3^-, C*LCa* is less inducible in *Pst* treated plants whereas it was significantly upregulated in *T203* grown 0.1 mM *Pst* treated plants. The uninoculated leaves of 0.1 mM *T203* grown WT plants showed slight induction of *CLCa* in comparision to non-*T203* grown plants (Compare Fig. **5a**,**b**). We further checked the expression of *NPF1.2;* which belongs to NRT1 (peptide transporter) family of nitrate transporters (Fig. **5c**) and is involved in the transfer of xylem-borne nitrate to the phloem in the petiole (Krapp *et al.* 2014). It was found that, in *Pst* treated 3 mM WT plants, *NPF1.2* levels were highly induced till 48 hpc, in comparison to 0.1 mM *Pst* inoculated leaves (Fig. **5c**). This might be the reason behind resistance of 3 mM plants and susceptibility of 0.1 mM plants after pathogen challenge. But, upon *T203* pre-treatment, *NPF1.2* transcript levels in *Pst*-inoculated 0.1 mM plants (Fig. **5d**), showed significant induction in comparison to same

treatment without *T203* (Compare Fig. **5c** & **5d**). This suggests that, *T203* may cause
the regulation of *NPF1.2*.

NRT2 transporters (*NRT2.1*, *NRT2.2* and *NRT2.4*) are HATS and gets
activated at low N concentrations (<1 mM). Previously, it was shown that *NRT2.1* is
active only under N starving conditions (Dechorgnat *et al.* 2012). Under low NO_3^-
conditions, *NRT2.1* was significantly induced in all treatments in *T203* grown *Pst*
treated plants in comparison to untreated plants where there was already an
induction of this gene at early time points (Fig. **6a,b**). The SAR establishment stage
represented by uninoculated leaves showed dynamic and hiked up-regulation of
NRT2.1 transcripts (Fig. **6b**). This revealed that, *T203* colonization benefits the plant
by facilitating the N supply even in low NO_3^- conditions thereby showing improved
plant defense mediating SAR. A similar expression pattern was observed in *NRT2.2*
expression levels 0.1 mM in uninoculated and inoculated plants (Fig. **6b**) and the
expression was further accelerated several folds in the presence of *Trichoderma*
(Fig. **6d**). This again revealed that faster N uptake by *T203* treated low NO_3^- plants
can help to defend better. Consequently, we checked *NRT2.4* expression levels in
both set of treatments. This gene showed early induction in 0.1 mM *Pst* treated in
inoculated and uninoculated plants (Fig. **6e**) and the expression pattern was similar
in response to *T203* treatment at early stages but a slight induction can be seen
even at later time points (Fig. **6f)**.

Taken together, these results suggests that *Trichoderma* induces HATs to
facilitate N uptake under low NO_3^- conditions. To confirm the role of HATs in
increasing plant defense via N uptake, we checked the *PR1* expression in WT and
nrt2.1 mutants. The expression of *PR1* gene in *Trichoderma* inoculated plants
increased 12-13 folds in 24 h but in the case of *nrt2.1* mutant (Fig. **6g**), it was not at
all induced suggesting that *NRT2.1* plays an important role in increasing plant
defense under low N mediated by *Trichoderma*. Then, we further found that in *nrt2.1*
mutant, the expression of *NRT2.2* gene also suppressed in both control and
Trichoderma treatment (Fig. **6h**) suggesting that *NRT2.1* is mainly responsible for
increasing N uptake under low NO_3^- facilitated by *Trichoderma*. Then, we checked
the protein levels in WT and *nrt2.1* mutant in the presence or absence of
Trichoderma under low NO_3^-. In response to *Trichoderma*, protein levels have
increased in WT, whereas in *nrt2.1* mutant protein levels were less than WT but upon

T203 treatment only slight increase was observed (Fig. **6i**). These result suggests that *T203* application can increase nitrate transport thus responsible for increased protein levels.

Trichoderma elicits NO production during early stages of inoculation which is required for induction of HATs and _PR_ gene expression

Previously, it was shown that *Trichoderma* elicits NO at early stages (Gupta *et al.* 2014). This NO could have a role in induction of nitrate transporter genes. Hence, we checked NO production in WT, *nia1,2* mutants and WT seedlings grown on NO scavenger cPTIO inoculated with *Trichoderma*. Control roots in 0.1 and 3 mM NO_3^- produced reduced levels of NO. Within 2 min of *T203* application, WT plants showed much increased levels of NO in both 0.1 and 3 mM nitrate (Fig. **7**) but the increase was slightly higher in 0.1 mM than 3 mM. But, in 10 minutes and 24 h of *T203* incubation, the WT plants showed extremely low fluorescence (Fig. **7**). This suggests *T203* greatly induces NO in low NO_3^- grown plants within short time. Thus, *Trichoderma* induced NO probably plays a role in priming and induction of HATs. Assessment of NO in *nia1,2* mutant revealed that NR is responsible for NO production. cPTIO grown plants showed reduced levels of NO.

Then, we further checked the importance of *Trichoderma* elicited early stages of NO in the induction of HATs, total protein levels and expression of *PR1* gene in low NO producing non-symbiotic hemoglobin over-expressing line (*nsHb+*), *nia1,2* and *nrt2.1* mutants. Expression of *NRT2.1* and *2.2* levels have increased in WT in response to *Trichoderma*, whereas in Hb+, *nia1,2* and *nrt2.1* mutants these two HATs were not induced (Fig. **8a,b**) suggesting that *Trichoderma* elicited NO is responsible for induction of HATs. Further, reduced protein levels were observed in *nia1,2* and Hb+ plants suggesting that induction of nitrate transporters mediated by *Trichoderma* elicited NO plays a role in increased N uptake under low NO_3^- (Fig. **8c**). Further, we found that *nia1,2* and Hb+ were unable to induce *PR1* expression under these conditions (Fig. **8d**). Taken together, these results suggests that *Trichoderma* elicited NO plays a role in overall increase in defense response under low NO_3^-.

Further, we investigated the role of NO in LAR and SAR development in the presence of *Trichoderma* using NO mutants. Under low NO_3^-, WT plants performed better LAR response than Hb+ and *nia1,2* mutant. Reduced bacterial growth and increased *PR1* gene expression was observed in WT than Hb+ and *nia1,2* mutant

(Fig. **9a,b,c**). Similarly, SAR response was also compromised in than Hb+ and *nia1,2*

like LAR, a similar reduced bacterial number and increased *PR1* gene expression

was observed in WT in comparison to Hb$^+$ and *nia1,2* mutant (Fig. **9d,e,f**).

ROS is a component of *Trichoderma* induced increased resistance via SAR

Both NO and ROS are involved in plant resistance response hence, we

investigated the role of ROS. The distal un-inoculated leaves of 0.1 mM NO$_3^-$ WT+T

plants showed increased H$_2$O$_2$ production in comparison to 0.1 mM un-inoculated

plants (Fig. **10a**). Also, the level of H$_2$O$_2$ was intense and distributed in 3 mM un-

inoculated leaves of WT+T plants in comparison to untreated plants (Fig. **10a**). This

is probably due to suppression of catalase activity by SA. This suggests that *T203*

inoculation can enhance H$_2$O$_2$ levels in *Pst* uninoculated leaves during SAR,

whereas, both the 3 mM *Pst* inoculated leaves from WT and WT+*T203* plants

showed higher H$_2$O$_2$ production (Fig. **10a**). This clearly suggests that *T203* plays a

role in inducing H$_2$O$_2$ in low NO$_3^-$ fed WT plants during SAR.

O$_2^{\cdot-}$ is a key player in cell death (Fig. **10b**). It was observed that, there was

increased O$_2^{\cdot-}$ in inoculated leaves of both 0.1 and 3 mM fed WT and *T203* treated

WT plants, but increase was much higher in *T203* treated WT plants than

Trichoderma untreated plants. This suggests that there was a rapid oxidative burst

(HR) which offers resistance to the plants in response to *T203* treatment. Taken

together, the coordinated interplay of H$_2$O$_2$, O$_2^{\cdot-}$ and NO leads to the HR associated

cell death that generously improvises the LAR and SAR responses in low N-stress

plants.

***Trichoderma* induces defense genes during SAR in low N-fed plants**

Next, we checked the expression profiles of defense related genes (*PAL1,*

PR1, PR2 and *PR5*) during SAR. In both 3 mM and 0.1 mM *Pst* inoculated WT

plants, *PAL1* transcripts were highly induced in all time points, but, the uninoculated

leaves showed *PAL1* induction only till 6 hpc, but drastically declined at later time

points (Fig. **11a-I**). *Trichoderma* grown WT plants under 3 mM and 0.1 mM, showed

even more enhanced levels of *PAL1* transcripts (Fig. **11a-II**) in inoculated as well as

uninoculated leaves till 48 hpc. Similar trend was observed in *PR1* (Fig. **11b**), *PR2*

(Fig. **11c**) and *PR5* (Fig. **11d**) expression profiles, which got elevated after

Trichoderma application. Out of all the four defense genes examined, *PR1* gene (SA
marker) displayed the extremely higher expression levels in *Trichoderma* grown
plants suggesting that *T203* might induce SA levels to a greater extent during SAR.

Trichoderma enhances expression of SAR mediated regulatory genes

Further, we checked whether *Trichoderma* can induce SAR response via
induction of regulatory genes such as *DIR1, NPR1, SARD1 and TGA3*. The lipid
transfer protein, DEFECTIVE IN INDUCED RESISTANCE1 (*DIR1*) is a key mobile
component of SAR response (Maldonaldo *et al.* 2002) involved in long-distance
translocation from local to distant leaves (Carella *et al.* 2015, Champigny *et al.*
2013). It was found that, *DIR1* induction took place only in the initial time points in
both 0.1 and 3 mM inoculated and uninoculated WT plants (Fig. **12a-I**). But, in *T203*
grown plants, a slight increased *DIR1* expression was observed in all time points
(Fig. **12a-II**). Upon perception of SAR mobile signals, Non-Expresser of
Pathogenesis-Related Genes1 (*NPR1*) activates defense in challenged plants (Cao
et al. 1997). We found a similar trend in the *NPR1* expression profile like *DIR1* in WT
plants (Fig. **12b-I**). Moreover, upon the *Trichoderma* treatment, the levels of *NPR1*
gradually increased in both 0.1 and 3 mM inoculated and uninoculated challenged
leaves (Fig. **12b-II**).

Next, we checked the expression of SAR DEFICIENT 1 (*SARD1*) a pathogen-
induced transcription factor (Zhang *et al.* 2010) and a key regulator for Isochorismate
Synthase 1 (*ICS1*) and SA synthesis (Wang *et al.* 2011). A remarkably stronger
induction of *SARD1* expression levels in *T203* treated 0.1 mM uninoculated leaves at
6 hpc (~82 fold) revealed that *Trichoderma* is a potential inducer of SA biosynthesis
(Fig. **12c-II)**. Another important regulatory gene, *TGA3*, is an *NPR1*-interacting
protein (NIPs) and is a critical component in the SA signaling mechanism. This gene
was induced in all treatments in response to *T203* (Fig. **12d**) suggesting that
Trichoderma might act as unequivocal channel in SA signaling pathways.

nrt2.1 and npr1 mutants are compromised in LAR and SAR

Further, we checked LAR in *nrt2.1* and *npr1* in response to virulent
*Pst*DC3000. The 0.1 mM N-fed *nrt2.1* and *npr1* mutants developed more severe
symptoms than 0.1 mM WT plants (Fig. **13a**- 0.1 mM panel). Whereas the 3 mM

NO$_3^-$-fed WT plants showed less disease symptoms as compared to 0.1 mM NO$_3^-$

plants (Compare Fig. **1a** and Fig. **13a**- 3 mM panel). A continuous increase in CFU

count was observed in 0.1 mM grown WT, *nrt2.1* and *npr1* at 24 and 48 hpi in

comparison to bacterial numbers in 3 mM NO$_3^-$ grown plants (Fig.**13b**). This

suggests that optimum N concentration plays an important role in resistance

response towards virulent *Pst* DC3000.

Similarly, we studied the SAR response in the WT, *nrt2.1* and *npr1* plants. 0.1

mM *Pst*-challenged WT plants show more prominent necrotic and discolored lesions

spread to half of the leaf (Fig. **2a**) confirming susceptible symptoms (yellow specks).

On the other hand, the mutant's *nrt2.1* and *npr1* showed even more severe disease

symptoms (extensive chlorosis and necrosis) (Fig. **13c**) under low NO$_3^-$ conditions.

Results suggests that, 3 mM NO$_3^-$ plants defended better during secondary

challenge than 0.1 mM NO$_3^-$ plants. Bacterial populations were also increased in

nrt2.1 and *npr1* mutants (Fig. **13d**) suggesting that *NRT2.1* and *NPR1* plays an

important role in increasing defense mediated by *Trichoderma*.

366 Salicylic acid pathway is a part of enhanced plant resistance mediated by
367 *Trichoderma* under low N

Examination of SA levels revealed that *Trichoderma* presence accelerated

total SA levels in 0.1 mM uninoculated distal leaves, in comparison to 3 mM

uninoculated leaves. There was no significant increase in SA levels observed in

inoculated leaves of 0.1 mM *Trichoderma* grown plants, while in 3 mM *Trichoderma*

grown plants, a significant increase in SA levels were observed (Fig. **14a**). We

sought to further confirm role of SA in *Trichoderma* increased SAR, hence *nahG*

plants were challenged in the presence or absence of *Trichoderma*. An intense

chlorotic lesion was evident in both 0.1 and 3 mM grown *nahG* plants in response to

challenge inoculation while *Trichoderma* grown *nahG* plants when challenged they

defended much better evidenced by decreased chlorotic lesions and reduced

bacterial numbers (Fig. **14b,c**). Surprisingly, *Trichoderma* grown *nahG* plants

showed slightly enhanced *PR1* transcript levels (Fig. **14d**).

380 Discussion

Nitrogen availability and supply can severely impact growth and development

of plants (Walker *et al.* 2001; Landrein *et al.* 2018). N deficiency can cause chlorosis,

which can impact photosynthesis and overall energy demand for growth and

defense. Since N is also important for synthesis of various secondary metabolites,

severe depletion of N can impact defense related pathways. Hence, plants may not

be able to activate defense pathways for tolerance or resistance (Snoeijers *et al.*

2000). Plant take up N in the form of NH_4^+ or NO_3^- or combination of both. Different N

forms differentially effect various free radicals such as NO and ROS (Wany *et al.*

2018; Gupta *et al.* 2013). Ammonium uptake and assimilation is less costly to the

plants in comparison to NO_3^- but excess of NH_4^+ can cause toxic effects to the plants

(Boudsocq *et al.* 2012; Liu *et al.* 2017), hence, many plants use NO_3^- as the

preferable N source. Moreover, NO_3^- can help in better charge balance (Boudsocq *et*

al. 2012). Nitrate nutrition can also enhance plant defence via increased generation

of NO, polyamines and SA (Gupta *et al.* 2013; Fagard *et al.* 2014). Hence, we

preferred to check the plant defense response under NO_3^- nutrition rather than under

NH_4^+.

Plants which are grown under 0.1 mM NO_3^- showed reduced growth (Fig. **S1**)

and morphological parameters (Fig. **S2**), suggesting that supplied 0.1 mM NO_3^- is not

sufficient for the plants for growth and under these conditions plants become more

susceptible. In our experiments, 0.1 mM NO_3^- grown plants were compromised in

both LAR and SAR (Fig. **1,2**) response, suggesting that N is required for better

defense. Plants grown on low N produced less SA (Fig. **14a**), further supporting that

N is needed for SA biosynthesis. Since plants need N for growth and disease

resistance, increasing N use efficiency can help them to defend better. Some group

of *Trichoderma* help in nutrient absorption leading to increased growth and

enhanced plant defense (Brotman *et al.* 2010). Previously, it was shown that the

supplementation of *Trichoderma asperelloides* enhances plant growth (Brotman et

al. 2012), and protects against abiotic and biotic stressors, moreover, it induces

systemic resistance responses (Contreras-Cornejo *et al.* 2016; Brotman *et al.* 2012).

Trichoderma induced increased growth attributed to auxin and ethylene (Garnica-

Vergara *et al.* 2016) and induction of genes involved in carbon and N metabolism

(Domínguez *et al.* 2016). However, there are hardly any reports on investigating the

mechanism of improved plant growth and defense under N starvation mediated by

Trichoderma. In this study, we unraveled the mechanism of *Trichoderma* induced

plant growth and defense under low N. Hence, in this current work, we studied the

impact of *Trichoderma* on enhancing N uptake and support in LAR & SAR response

under low NO_3^- stress.

The low NO_3^- fed plants which were grown in the presence of *Trichoderma*,

showed increased growth (Fig. **S2**) suggesting that *Trichoderma* can enhance

growth under low NO_3^- (Fig. **S1a**). We found that this enhanced growth is partly due

to increase N uptake which was evidenced by increased expression of *NRT2.1,*

NRT2.2, NRT 2.4 HATs (Fig. **6a,b,c,d,e,f**) and increased protein levels (Fig. **6i**).

Since low NO_3^- fed plants becomes susceptible (Snoeijers *et al.* 2000), it is logical to

assume that *Trichoderma* can increase N uptake and enhance resistance. Hence, in

further experiments, we focused on LAR and SAR response under low and optimum

NO_3^- in the presence or absence of *Trichoderma*. During local *Pst* infection, the

plants display LAR response, and the systemic/distant uninoculated leaves induces

SAR response. Both are important for plants to defend against pathogens.

During SAR, after primary inoculation, within 4–6 hours, in the inoculated site,

where, localized cell death (HR) occurs, plant displays hyponastic response. 3 mM

N-fed WT plants showed clear hyponasty after primary inoculation, whereas 0.1 mM

did not display such response (Fig. **S1c).** In 3 mM WT plants, the defense response

after secondary challenge was more rapid, robust and even long-lasting till 5 days

post challenge (data not shown) whereas, 0.1 mM WT plants showed disease

symptoms suggesting that NO_3^- concentration plays a role in LAR and SAR

development (Fig. **2a**; Fig. **S1b**).

In our experiments, roots were treated with *Trichoderma* hence, we examined

high and low affinity transporters to see whether *Trichoderma* modulates these

transporters to enhance N uptake under low nitrate. *NRT2.1* is the main HAT,

localized at the plasma membrane. Previously, it was shown that these transporters

becomes active during N starvation and is severely inhibited when reduced nitrate

sources such as glutamine or ammonium are provided (Dechorgnat *et al.* 2012).

Similarly, *NRT2* also induced under low N (Dechorgnat *et al.* (2012). In response to

Trichoderma treatment, a rapid re-programmed *NRT2.1, NRT2.2* transcripts in both

0.1 and 3 mM was observed during *Pst* inoculation. This feature is very important

since plants are NO_3^- starved. *NRT2.1* involvement was further evidenced by the fact
that *nrt2.1* mutant produced less protein under low N and *Trichoderma* was unable to
increase protein content in this mutant (Fig. **6f**). This mutant become very much
susceptible to LAR and SAR (Fig. **13**).

We further unraveled the mechanism behind increased expression of LATs
and HATs mediated by *Trichoderma*. One of the features of *Trichoderma* is the
induction of short-term NO and ROS. These molecules play important role in
induction of plant defense responses (Gupta *et al.* 2014). We suspected the role of
NO in activating genes of these transporters. *Trichoderma* induced expression of
NRTs are most likely mediated by short term increase in NO upon *Trichoderma*
inoculation. The NR dependent NO elicited by *Trichoderma* probably responsible for
the increased expression of HATs as our experiments revealed that in *nia1,2* and
Hb^+, despite of growing in the presence of *Trichoderma* were unable to induce HATs
they showed decline in protein levels (Fig. **8c**). *Trichoderma* triggers SA dependent
SAR pathway (Pieterse *et al.* 2014). *Trichoderma* spp. induced ROS is involved in
plant's resistance response against many biotic stressors (Asmawati *et al.* 2017). It
also plays an important role in hypersensitive cell death together with NO (Durner
and Klessig 1999, Dorey *et al.* 1999). Among ROS, H_2O_2 is the most stable form of
ROIs that play an important role as signal transducer in the plant cell death process
(Pieterse *et al.* 2014), and acts as key modulators of NO in triggering cell death. As
shown in Fig. **10a**, it is observed that, *T203* treated low N fed plants displayed
increased H_2O_2 levels, thus, enabling the SAR initiation and the establishment stage.
Superoxides (O_2^-) are mainly produced via mitochondrial electron transport and
NADPH oxidase chain during stress. Pathogens usually employ this mitochondrial
disturbance as a strategy to suppress host immunity and thus, increased ROS may
contribute some resistance to plants against pathogens (Torres *et al.* 2002, 2005).
Earlier, it was shown that the extracellular elicitors isolated from *Trichoderma viridae*
also induces the O_2^- levels (Calderon *et al.* 1994). Here, we also found that *T203*
grown, 0.1 mM NO_3^-, *Pst* inoculated plants show higher O_2^- levels than untreated
ones (Fig. **10b**), suggesting that *Trichoderma* can enhance O_2^- production during
infection which can aid in defense.

Consequently, the expression of defense marker genes such as *PR1*, *PR2*,
PR5 and *PAL1* (Fig. **11**) were also highly induced in the presence of *Trichoderma* in

low N-fed plants suggesting that *Trichoderma* mediated ROS, NO along with
increased N probably responsible for higher induction of these genes. Martinez-
Medina *et al.* (2013), reported several *Trichoderma* strains are known to induce
systemic responses by acting as a "short circuit" in plant defense signaling. *PAL1* is
an important marker gene in SA mediated defense (Kim and Hwang 2014) and
accumulates in cells undergoing HR (Dorey *et al.* 1997) and to be essential for local
and systemic resistance (Delaney *et al.* 1994). *PAL1* levels were increased by
Trichoderma is very intriguing. SAR response is associated with a specific set of
SAR genes encoding pathogenesis related (PR) proteins (Pieterse *et al.* 1996). *PR*
gene activates and accumulates during SAR (Fig. **11b,c,d**) which correlated with
findings of Brotman *et al.* (2012) and Pieterse *et al.* (1996).

In our study, SAR regulatory genes *DIR1*, *NPR1* and *TGA3* are induced in the
presence of *Trichoderma* under low N stress. The *npr1* mutant compromised in LAR
and SAR in the presence of *Trichoderma* suggesting the role of this gene in
enhancing defense. In *nahG* mutant, defense responses are slightly enhanced in the
presence of *Trichoderma* despite of reduced SA levels, suggesting that apart from
SA other factors such as increased NO, ROS probably responsible for defense in
this mutant. Overall, this study proved that optimum N is required for LAR and SAR.
Trichoderma can enhance N uptake via modulating N transporters via eliciting short
term NO under low nitrate nutrition. The enhanced N uptake plays a role in
enhancing SA levels and defense gene expression in local and distal levels to
increase overall plant defense. These defense responses are not activated in *npr1,*
nahG, nrt2.1, Hb[+] and *nia1,2* mutant providing strong evidence that *Trichoderma*
mediated enhanced resistance under low nitrate involves synergistic roles of NO,
ROS and SA.

Material and Methods

Plant material and growth conditions

Seeds of *Arabidopsis thaliana* ecotype Columbia 0 (*Col0*; WT) was sown in
plastic pots (10 cm diameter) containing soilrite: agropeat (1:1) mix (mix contains
zero N) and stratified at 4°C in dark for 48 h. Then, the pots were kept in growth
room under short day conditions (8h-light, 16h-dark), 22/18°C (day/night)
temperatures, relative humidity of 60% and 180-200 $\mu E\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$ light intensity.
Initially, plants were bottom irrigated for a week, once with half strength Hoagland

solution and once with water. Then, 0.1 and 3 mM NO_3^- concentrations were given
to the growing plants weekly. The NO_3^- nutrient solution in Hoagland's media
contained either 0.1 mM or 3 mM KNO_3, according to modified Hoagland's nutrient
solution (Hoagland and Arnon, 1950). 30-35 day old plants with fully developed
rosette were used for the experiments. The seeds of *nrt2.1* (SALK_035429C) and
nia1,2 (N6936) were procured from ABRC.

Trichoderma supplementation

T. asperelloides (*T203* strain) was grown on potato dextrose agar (PDA;
Himedia) plates for 15 days under low light conditions until sporulation. Conidia were
harvested by gently scraping the petridish and poured with 10 ml of sterile water.
The spores were evaluated up to $1\square10^9$ spores/ml. It was thoroughly mixed into the
soilrite mix and distributed into the individual plastic pots.

Bacterial strain and growth conditions

Pseudomonas syringae pv. tomato DC3000 (*Pst*DC3000; *avrRpm1,* avirulent)
were grown in King's B (KB) medium containing 50 µg ml^{-1} rifampicin. Primary and
secondary culture was prepared. The avirulent bacterial density was adjusted to
2×10^7 CFU ml^{-1} for primary inoculations and virulent *P. syringae* was used at 2×10^6
CFU ml^{-1} for challenge inoculations.

Bacterial infiltration in leaves

Mock infiltration (control) was performed with 10 mM $MgCl_2$. *Pst* inoculations
were made by syringe infiltration on the abaxial side of the leaves manually. There
were total four groups of plants; Group 1: 0.1 mM + $MgCl_2$ plants, Group 2: 3 mM +
$MgCl_2$ plants, Group 3: 0.1 mM + *Pst* plants and Group 4: 3 mM + *Pst* plants. Each
group consisted of 20-25 plants. SAR experiment initiated with primary inoculation
(a*vrRpm1 Pst* DC3000) on one leaf per plant, and the secondary challenge
inoculation with (virulent *P. syringae*) on 4 other (distant) leaves per plant, leaving 5-
6 healthy un-inoculated leaves per plant (Cameron *et al*. 1999) after 2 days of
primary inoculation. The Inoculated (I) and un-inoculated (U) leaves from each
treatment were harvested (Fig. **S1**) for RNA extraction and other experiments post
challenge inoculation. Leaves were analyzed for 0, 6, 24 and 48 hours post
inoculation (hpi) or challenge (hpc) and the symptoms was determined periodically.

Electrolyte leakage

Leaf discs (5 mm diameter) were taken and electrolyte leakage was monitored as described in (Gupta *et al.* 2013).

In planta bacterial number quantification assay

Bacterial number in leaves from *Pst* treated plants during LAR and SAR was assessed was calculated as per Gupta *et al.* (2016).

Expression profiling by qRT-PCR

The inoculated and uninoculated leaves were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis and qPCR was performed according to Wany *et al.* (2017; 2018). The synthesized cDNAs were used as templates in qRT-PCRs using primers given in Table S1. Fold change in the target genes was normalized to *Arabidopsis* reference genes; ubiquitin, *18sRNA* (GQ380689) and *YSL8* gene (X69885.1). Fold expression relative to control treatment was determined by ΔΔCT values. Three biological experiments (with three independent replicates for each experiment) were performed for each treatment. The comparisons of the gene expression between the different treatments to control was performed by student's t-test. Differences between the treatments with $p<0.05$, $p<0.01$ and $p<0.001$ were considered significant.

Ex- vivo NO estimation

For this experiment, NO was measured from the following five different combinations in roots; 1. WT; 2. WT + *T203* (*Trichoderma*); 3. *nia1,2* double mutants +*T203*; 4. WT + cPTIO (carboxy-PTIO potassium salt); 5. WT + cPTIO + *T203*. WT and *nia1,2* plants were grown for one week in plates containing 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- concentrations. The spore suspension of *Trichoderma* was poured over these 7d old plants and incubated for 2 minutes, 10 minutes and 24 hours. Then, the roots were incubated in 10 μM DAF-FM DA (4-amino-5-methylamino- 2′,7′-difluorofluorescein diacetate) in 100 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.2) placed in a 1.5 ml tube, incubated for 15 minutes in dark and photographed using fluorescence microscope (Nikon*80i*, Japan) at 495 nm excitation and 515 nm emission wavelength.

Determination of ROS levels

582   Production of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) in inoculated and un-inoculated leaves was detected by Diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride (DAB) staining as per Daudi *et al.* (2012) with slight modifications. The superoxide levels were measured by *in vivo* staining with Nitroblue tetrazolium chloride (NBT, SA, USA) (Jambunathan 2010).

Histochemical detection of HR

589   Hypersensitive cell death in inoculated leaves was visualized by trypan blue staining method according to Fernández-Bautista *et al.* (2002).

SA levels

593   The SA levels were measured by HPLC according to the protocol described in Singh *et al.* (2013).

Acknowledgements

597   We thank Dr. Yariv Brotman for providing the *T203* strain. Seeds of *nahG* and *npr1* mutants were provided by Prof. Ashis Nandi, JNU. Seeds of *nsHb*[+] was provided by Dr. Kim Hebelstrup. This research was funded by SERB, DST (NPDF to AW), UGC (SRF to PKP) and SERB-ECR and DBT-IYBA award to KJG. CIF of NIPGR is greatly acknowledged.

Author contribution

KJG supervised, designed the project and wrote the manuscript. AW designed, performed experiments and analysed whole data. PKP performed SA estimation.

References

Alvarez ME, Pennell RI, Meijer PJ, Ishikawa A, Dixon RA, Lamb C. 1998. Reactive oxygen intermediates mediate a systemic signal network in the establishment of plant immunity. *Cell* 92: 773-784.

Alves M, Dadalto S, Gonçalves A, de Souza G, Barros V, Fietto L. 2014.
Transcription factor functional protein-protein interactions in plant defense
responses. *Proteomes* 2: 85-106.

Asmawati L, Widiastuti A, Sumardiyono C. 2017. Induction of Reactive Oxygen
Species by *Trichoderma* spp. Against Downy Mildew in Maize. In *Proceedings of the*
1st International Conference on Tropical Agriculture. Springer, Cham :139-146.

Boudsocq S, Niboyet A, Lata JC, Raynaud X, Loeuille N, Mathieu J, Blouin M,
Abbadie L, Barot S. 2012. Plant preference for ammonium versus nitrate: a
neglected determinant of ecosystem functioning? *The American Naturalist* 180: 60-
69.

Brotman Y, Lisec J, Méret M, Chet I, Willmitzer L, Viterbo A. 2012. Transcript and
metabolite analysis of the *Trichoderma*-induced systemic resistance response to
Pseudomonas syringae in Arabidopsis thaliana. *Microbiology* 158: 139-146.

Brotman Y, Gupta KJ, Vetribo A. (2010) *Trichoderma:* Quick Guide. *Current*
Biology 20: 390-391.

Calderon AA, Zapata JM, Barcelo AR. 1994. Peroxidase-mediated formation of
resveratrol oxidation products during the hypersensitive-like reaction of grapevine
cells to an elicitor from *Trichoderma* viride. *Physiological and Molecular Plant*
Pathology 44: 289-299.

Cameron RK, Dixon RA, Lamb CJ. 1994. Biologically induced systemic acquired
resistance in Arabidopsis thaliana. *The Plant Journal* 5: 715-725.

Cameron RK, Paiva NL, Lamb CJ, Dixon RA. 1999. Accumulation of salicylic acid
and *PR-1* gene transcripts in relation to the systemic acquired resistance (SAR)
response induced by *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. tomato in
Arabidopsis. *Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology* 55: 121-130.

Cao H, Glazebrook J, Clarke JD, Volko S, Dong X. 1997. The Arabidopsis NPR1
gene that controls systemic acquired resistance encodes a novel protein containing
ankyrin repeats. *Cell* 88: 57-63.

Carella P, Isaacs M, Cameron RK. 2015. Plasmodesmata-located protein overexpression negatively impacts the manifestation of systemic acquired resistance and the long-distance movement of Defective in Induced Resistance1 in A rabidopsis. *Plant Biology* 17: 395-401.

Champigny MJ, Isaacs M, Carella P, Faubert J, Fobert PR, Cameron RK. 2013. Long distance movement of *DIR1* and investigation of the role of DIR1-like during systemic acquired resistance in Arabidopsis. *Frontiers in Plant Science* 4: 230.

Contreras-Cornejo HA, Macías-Rodríguez L, del-Val E, Larsen J. 2016. Ecological functions of *Trichoderma* spp. and their secondary metabolites in the rhizosphere: interactions with plants. *FEMS microbiology ecology* 92: fiw036.

Daudi A, O'Brien JA. 2012. Detection of hydrogen peroxide by DAB staining in Arabidopsis leaves. *Bio-Protocol* 2: 1-4.

Dechorgnat J, Patrit O, Krapp A, Fagard M, Daniel-Vedele F. 2012. Characterization of the Nrt2. 6 gene in *Arabidopsis thaliana*: a link with plant response to biotic and abiotic stress. *PloS one* 7: e42491.

Delaney TP, Uknes S, Vernooij B, Friedrich L, Weymann K, Negrotto D, Gaffney T, Gut-Rella M, Kessmann H, Ward E, Ryals J. 1994. A central role of salicylic acid in plant disease resistance. *Science* 266: 1247-1250.

Delledonne M, Xia Y, Dixon R A, Lamb C. 1998. Nitric oxide functions as a signal in plant disease resistance. *Nature* 394: 585.

Domínguez S, Rubio MB, Cardoza RE, Gutiérrez S, Nicolás C, Bettiol W, Hermosa R, Monte E. 2016. Nitrogen metabolism and growth enhancement in tomato plants challenged with *Trichoderma* harzianum expressing the *Aspergillus nidulans* acetamidase *amdS* gene. *Frontiers in Microbiology* 7: 1182.

Dorey S, Baillieul F, Pierrel MA, Saindrenan P, Fritig B, Kauffmann S. 1997. Spatial and temporal induction of cell death, defense genes, and accumulation of salicylic acid in tobacco leaves reacting hypersensitively to a fungal glycoprotein elicitor. *Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions* 10: 646–655.

Dorey S, Kopp M, Geoffroy P, Fritig B, Kauffmann S. 1999. Hydrogen peroxide from
the oxidative burst is neither necessary nor sufficient for hypersensitive cell death
induction, phenylalanine ammonia lyase stimulation, salicylic acid accumulation, or
scopoletin consumption in cultured tobacco cells treated with elicitin. *Plant*
Physiology 121: 163-172.

Durner J, Klessig DF. 1999. Nitric oxide as a signal in plants. *Current Opinion in*
Plant Biology 2: 369-374.

Fagard M, Launay A, Clément G, Courtial J, Dellagi A, Farjad M, Krapp A, Soulié
MC, Masclaux-Daubresse C. 2014. Nitrogen metabolism meets
phytopathology. **Journal of Experimental Botany** 65: 5643-5656.

Fernández-Bautista N, Domínguez-Núñez JA, Moreno MC, Berrocal-Lobo M.
2002. Plant tissue trypan blue staining during phytopathogen infection. *Bio-*
Protocol 6: e2078.

Frungillo L, de Oliveira JFP, Saviani EE, Oliveira HC, Martínez MC, Salgado I. 2013.
Modulation of mitochondrial activity by *S-nitrosoglutathione reductase* in *Arabidopsis*
thaliana transgenic cell lines. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta - Bioenergetics 1827:
239-247.

Garnica-Vergara A, Barrera-Ortiz S, Muñoz-Parra E, Raya-González J,
Méndez-Bravo A, Macías-Rodríguez L, Ruiz-Herrera LF, López-Bucio J. 2016. The
volatile 6-pentyl-2H-pyran-2-one from *Trichoderma atroviride* regulates Arabidopsis
thaliana root morphogenesis via auxin signaling and ETHYLENE INSENSITIVE 2
functioning. *New Phytologist* 209: 1496-1512.

Gupta A, Dixit SK, Senthil-Kumar M. 2016. Drought stress predominantly endures
Arabidopsis thaliana to *Pseudomonas syringae* infection. *Frontiers in Plant*
Science 7: 808.

Gupta KJ, Mur LA, Brotman Y. 2014. *Trichoderma asperelloides* suppresses nitric
oxide generation elicited by *Fusarium oxysporum* in Arabidopsis roots. *Molecular*
Plant-Microbe Interactions 27: 307-314.

Gupta KJ, Brotman Y, Segu S, Zeier T, Zeier J, Persijn ST, Cristescu SM, Harren
FJM, Bauwe H, Fernie AR. 2013. The form of nitrogen nutrition affects resistance

against *Pseudomonas syringae pv. phaseolicola* in tobacco. *Journal of Experimental*
Botany 64: 553-568.

Hoagland DR, Arnon DI 1950. The water culture method for growing plant without
soil. California Agricultural Experiment Station. *University of California Berkley Press*,
CA. 347: 32.

Jambunathan N. 2010. Determination and detection of reactive oxygen species
(ROS), lipid peroxidation, and electrolyte leakage in plants. *Methods in Molecular*
Biology 639: 292–298.

Jones JD, Dangl JL. 2006. The plant immune system. *Nature* 444: 323.

Kim DS, Hwang BK. 2014. An important role of the pepper phenylalanine ammonia-
lyase gene (PAL1) in salicylic acid-dependent signalling of the defence response to
microbial pathogens. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 65: 2295-2306.

Krapp A, David LC, Chardin C, Girin T, Marmagne A, Leprince AS, Chaillou S,
Ferrario-Méry S, Meyer C, Daniel-Vedele F. 2014. Nitrate transport and signalling in
Arabidopsis. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 65: 789-798.

Lamb C, Dixon RA. 1997. The oxidative burst in plant disease resistance. *Annual*
Review of Plant Biology 48: 251-275.

Landrein B, Formosa-Jordan P, Malivert A, Schuster C, Melnyk CW, Yang W,
Turnbull C, Meyerowitz EM, Locke JC, Jönsson H. 2018. Nitrate modulates stem cell
dynamics in Arabidopsis shoot meristems through cytokinins. *Proceedings of the*
National Academy of Sciences 115: 1382-1387.

Li H, Hu B, Chu C. 2017. Nitrogen use efficiency in crops: lessons from Arabidopsis
and rice. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 68: 2477-2488.

Liu Y, von Wirén N. 2017. Ammonium as a signal for physiological and
morphological responses in plants. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 68: 2581-2592.

Maldonado AM, Doerner P, Dixon RA, Lamb CJ, Cameron RK. 2002. A putative lipid
transfer protein involved in systemic resistance signalling in Arabidopsis. *Nature* 419:
399.

Martínez-Medina A, Fernández I, Sánchez-Guzmán MJ, Jung SC, Pascual JA, Pozo
MJ. 2013. Deciphering the hormonal signalling network behind the systemic
resistance induced by *Trichoderma* harzianum in tomato. *Frontiers in Plant*
Science 4: 206.

Métraux JP, Signer H, Ryals J, Ward E, Wyss-Benz M, Gaudin J, Raschdorf K,
Schmid E, Blum W, Inverardi B. 1990. Increase in salicylic acid at the onset of
systemic acquired resistance in cucumber. *Science* 250: 1004-1006.

Mur LA, Brown IR, Darby RM, Bestwick CS, Bi YM, Mansfield JW, Draper J. 2000. A
loss of resistance to avirulent bacterial pathogens in tobacco is associated with the
attenuation of a salicylic acid‐potentiated oxidative burst. *The Plant Journal* 23: 609-
621.

Mur LA, Kenton P, Lloyd AJ, Ougham H, Prats E. 2008. The hypersensitive
response; the centenary is upon us but how much do we know?. *Journal of*
Experimental Botany 59: 501-520.

Mur LA, Simpson C, Kumari A, Gupta AK, Gupta KJ. 2017. Moving nitrogen to the
centre of plant defence against pathogens. *Annals of botany* 119: 703-709.

O'Brien JA, Vega A, Bouguyon E, Krouk G, Gojon A, Coruzzi G, Gutiérrez RA. 2016.
Nitrate transport, sensing, and responses in plants. *Molecular Plant* 9: 837-856.

Oliva R, Quibod IL. 2017. Immunity and starvation: new opportunities to elevate
disease resistance in crops. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology* 38: 84-91.

Park SW, Kaimoyo E, Kumar D, Mosher S, Klessig DF. 2007. Methyl salicylate is a
critical mobile signal for plant systemic acquired resistance. *Science* 318: 113-116.

Pieterse CM, Van Wees SC, Hoffland E, Van Pelt JA, Van Loon LC. 1996. Systemic
resistance in Arabidopsis induced by biocontrol bacteria is independent of salicylic
acid accumulation and pathogenesis-related gene expression. *The Plant Cell* 8:
1225-1237.

Pieterse CM, Zamioudis C, Berendsen RL, Weller DM, Van Wees SC, Bakker PA.
2014. Induced systemic resistance by beneficial microbes. *Annual Review of*
Phytopathology 52: 347-375

Ryals JA, Neuenschwander UH, Willits MG, Molina A, Steiner HY, Hunt MD. 1996.
Systemic acquired resistance. *The Plant Cell* 8: 1809.

Shoresh M, Harman GE, Mastouri F. 2010. Induced systemic resistance and plant
responses to fungal biocontrol agents. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* 48: 21-43.

Shoresh M, Yedidia I, Chet I. 2005. Involvement of jasmonic acid/ethylene signaling
pathway in the systemic resistance induced in cucumber by *Trichoderma asperellum*
T203. Phytopathology 95: 76-84.

Singh V, Roy S, Giri MK, Chaturvedi R, Chowdhury Z, Shah J, Nandi AK. 2013.
Arabidopsis thaliana FLOWERING LOCUS D is required for systemic acquired
resistance. *Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions* 26: 1079-1088.

Snoeijers SS, Pérez-García A, Joosten MH, De Wit PJ. 2000. The effect of nitrogen
on disease development and gene expression in bacterial and fungal plant
pathogens. *European Journal of Plant Pathology* 106: 493-506.

Torres MA, Dangl JL, Jones JD. 2002. Arabidopsis gp91phox homologues AtrbohD
and AtrbohF are required for accumulation of reactive oxygen intermediates in the
plant defense response. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the*
United States of America 99: 517–522.

Torres MA, Jones JD, Dangl JL. 2005. Pathogen-induced, NADPH oxidase derived
reactive oxygen intermediates suppress spread of cell death in *Arabidopsis thaliana*.
Nature Genetics 37: 1130–1134.

Tsay YF, Chiu CC, Tsai CB, Ho CH, Hsu PK. 2007. Nitrate transporters and peptide
transporters. *FEBS letters* 581: 2290-2300.

Walker RL, Burns IG, Moorby J. 2001. Responses of plant growth rate to nitrogen
supply: a comparison of relative addition and N interruption treatments. *Journal of*
Experimental Botany 52: 309-317.

Wang L, Tsuda K, Truman W, Sato M, Nguyen LV, Katagiri F, Glazebrook J. 2011.
CBP60g and SARD1 play partially redundant critical roles in salicylic acid
signaling. *The Plant Journal* 67: 1029-1041.

Wany A, Gupta AK, Kumari, Mishra S, Singh N, Pandey S, Vanvari R, Igamberdiev AU, Fernie AR, Gupta KJ. 2019. Nitrate nutrition influences multiple factors in order to increase energy efficiency under hypoxia in Arabidopsis. *Annals of Botany*. 123: 691–705.

Wany A, Kumari A, Gupta KJ. 2017. Nitric oxide is essential for the development of aerenchyma in wheat roots under hypoxic stress. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 40: 3002-3017.

Yedidia I, Shoresh M, Kerem Z, Benhamou N, Kapulnik Y, Chet I. 2003. Concomitant induction of systemic resistance to Pseudomonas syringae pv. lachrymans in cucumber by *Trichoderma* asperellum (T203) and accumulation of phytoalexins. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 69: 7343-7353.

Zhang Y, Xu S, Ding P, Wang D, Cheng YT, He J, Gao M, Xu F, Li Y, Zhu Z, Li X. 2010. Control of salicylic acid synthesis and systemic acquired resistance by two members of a plant-specific family of transcription factors. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* USA 107: 18220-18225 .

Figures

Fig 1

Fig. 1: **LAR response elicited by *Pst*DC3000/*avrRpm1* is compromised in low nitrate grown WT plants**

(a) *Pst*DC3000-*avrRpm1* mediated HR observed in 3mM and 0.1 mM NO_3^- grown WT plants at different time points. **(b)** Electrolyte leakage from leaf areas of 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- plants infiltrated with *Pst* and 10 mM $MgCl_2$. Data are mean values ± SE. A significant difference between all treatments is analyzed by t-test at $p < 0.001$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**) and $p < 0.05$ (*) with 3 mM $MgCl_2$ as control. **(c)** Bacterial number in log CFU in *Pst* infiltrated leaves of 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- plants immediately after infiltration (0 hpi). Data are mean values ± SE. A significant difference between all treatments is analyzed by t-test at $p < 0.001$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**) and $p < 0.05$ (*) with 3 mM NO_3^- as control. **(d)** Relative *PR1* transcript levels from 0.1 and 3 mM *Pst* treated leaves at different time points. Data are mean values ± SE. Asterisks indicate statistical significance between 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- plants is analyzed by t-test at $p < 0.001$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**). All the results obtained are representative of three independent experiments.

858   **Fig. 2**

859   **(a)**

Fig. 2: **Low nitrate grown WT plants show susceptible systemic responses during SAR**

(a) Lesion development post secondary challenge in inoculated and uninoculated leaves of 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- plants. A characteristic lesion pattern in inoculated leaves of both 0.1 and 3 mM NO_3^- plants is noted **(b)** Histochemical staining for the detection of HR- mediated cell death post secondary challenge in inoculated and uninoculated leaves of 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- plants. Scale bar-1 mm **(c)** Electrolyte leakage observed post primary (first panel) inoculation and secondary challenge (second panel) in inoculated and uninoculated leaves of 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- plants. A significant difference between all treatments is analyzed by t-test at $p < 0.05$ (*) with 3 mM WT $MgCl_2$ as control **(d)** Bacterial number in log CFU observed post secondary challenge in inoculated leaves of 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- plants. A significant difference between all treatments is analyzed by t-test at $p < 0.001$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**) and $p < 0.05$ (*).

Fig. 3

Fig. 3: *Trichoderma* **supplementation enhances LAR response in low nitrate grown WT plants**

(a) *Pst*DC3000-*avrRpm1* induced HR in 0.1 and 3 mM WT plants at different time points after *Trichoderma* (*T203*) supplementation. The images are representative of three independent experiments. First panel shows the mock infiltrated leaves i.e. control leaves treated with 10 mM $MgCl_2$ and second panel shows *Pst* infiltrate leaves of 0.1 and 3 mM NO_3^- concentrations **(b)** Electrolyte leakage from 0.1 mM and 3 mM WT + *T203* treated plants infiltrated with *Pst* and 10 mM $MgCl_2$. Data are mean values ± SE. A significant difference between all treatments is analyzed by t-test at $p<0.001$ (***) and $p<0.01$ (**) with 3 mM WT-$MgCl_2$ as control **(c)** Bacterial number in terms of log CFU in *Pst* infiltrated leaves of *T203* treated 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- WT plants. Data are mean values ± SE. A significant difference between all treatments is analyzed by t-test at $p<0.001$ (***), $p<0.01$ (**) and $p<0.05$ (*) **(d)** Relative *PR1* transcript levels from 0.1 and 3 mM *Pst* treated leaves of *T203* treated WT plants at different time points (hpi). Data are mean values ± SE. Asterisks indicate statistical significance between 0.1 mM and 3 mM plants is analyzed by t-test $p<0.001$ (***) and $p<0.01$ (**), by taking 3 mM plants as control.

Fig.4

Fig. 4: *Trichoderma* **enhances SAR response in low nitrate plants**

(a) HR development post secondary challenge in inoculated and uninoculated leaves of 0.1 mM and 3 mM *T203* treated WT plants. **(b)** Histochemical staining for the detection of HR-mediated cell death post secondary challenge in inoculated and uninoculated leaves of 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- , *T203* treated WT plants. Scale bar-1 mm **(c)** Electrolyte leakage observed post primary (first panel) inoculation and secondary challenge (second panel) in inoculated and uninoculated leaves of 0.1 mM and 3 mM *T203* treated WT plants. A significant difference between all treatments is analyzed by t-test at $p < 0.001$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**) and $p < 0.05$ (*) with 3 mM WT $MgCl_2$ as control **(d)** Bacterial number in log CFU observed post secondary challenge in inoculated leaves of 0.1 mM and 3 mM, *T203* treated WT plants. A significant difference between 0.1 and 3 mM NO_3^- is analyzed by t-test at $p < 0.001$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**) and $p < 0.05$ (*).

1023 **Fig. 5**

1024

1039

Fig. 5: **Expression profile of low affinity nitrate transporter genes (LATs) during**
SAR

Relative expression of *CLCa* gene in **(a)** WT **(b)** WT+*T203* and *NPF1.2* gene in **(c)**
WT **(d)** WT+*T203* grown under 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- concentration post
secondary challenge in both inoculated and un-inoculated leaves. For all the target
genes, fold expression values are means (n=3) ± SE. A significant difference
between all treatments is analyzed by t-test at p<0.001 (***), p<0.01 (**) and p<0.05
(*) with 3 mM un-inoculated leaves as control in each gene.

Fig 6

Fig. 6: Expression profile of high affinity nitrate transporter genes (HATs) during SAR and response of genotypes (WT and *nrt2.1*) on priming effect of 24 h *Trichoderma* pre-treatment w.r.t *PR1* and *NRT2.2* expression on low nitrate fed WT plants

Relative expression of *NRT2.1* in **(a)** WT (I panel) and **(b)** WT+*T203* (II panel), *NRT2.2* in **(c)** WT (I panel) and **(d)** WT+*T203* (II panel) and *NRT2.4* in **(e)** WT (I panel) and **(f)** WT+*T203* (II panel) grown under 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- concentration post secondary challenge in both inoculated and un-inoculated leaves. For all the target genes, fold expression values are means (n=3) ± SE. A significant difference between all treatments is analyzed by t-test at $p<0.001$ (***), $p<0.01$ (**) and $p<0.05$ (*) with 3 mM un-inoculated leaves as control in each gene **(g)** Relative *PR1* expression in roots of WT and *nrt2.1* plants grown under 0.1 mM NO_3^- concentration (with and without *T203* treatment; 24 h). A significant difference between with and without *T203* treatment is analyzed by t-test at $p<0.01$ (**) and $p<0.05$ (*) **(h)** Relative *NRT2.2* expression in roots of WT and *nrt2.1* plants grown under 0.1 mM NO_3^- concentration (with and without *T203* treatment; 24 h) **(i)** Protein levels in WT and *nrt2.1* plants grown under 0.1 mM NO_3^- concentration in the presence or absence of *T203*. A significant difference between with and without *T203* treatment is analyzed by t-test at $p<0.01$ (**) and $p<0.05$ (*).

1077   **Fig. 7**

1078

1088   **Fig. 7: Visualization of nitric oxide by diaminofluorescein (DAF) fluorescence**

1089   Nitric oxide estimation by diaminofluorescein (DAF-FM) fluorescence under 0.1 and

1090   3 mM NO_3^- concentrations in I. WT, II. *nia1,2* and III. cPTIO (100 µM) grown WT

1091   plants during different periods of *Trichoderma* inoculation. The experiment was

1092   performed three times independently with similar results.

1093

1094

1095

1096

1097

1098

1099

1100

Fig. 8

Fig. 8: Response of the genotypes during early stages of *Trichoderma* inoculation on *NRT2.1, 2.2* expression, protein levels and *PR1* expression

(a) Relative *NRT2.1* expression in roots of WT, Hb+, *nia1,2* and *nrt2.1* plants grown under 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- concentrations, with and without *T203* treatment, given for 5 minutes and 24 h to the plants. A significant difference between with and without *T203* treatment is analyzed by t-test at p<0.01 (**) and p<0.05 (*) **(b)** Relative *NRT2.2* expression in roots of WT, Hb[+], *nia1,2* and *nrt2.1* plants grown under 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- concentrations, with and without *T203* treatment, given for 5 minutes and 24 h to the plants. A significant difference between with and without *T203* treatment is analyzed by t-test at p<0.01 (**) and p<0.05 (*) **(c)** Protein levels measured in WT, Hb[+] and *nia1,2* seedlings grown under 0.1 mM NO_3^- for 15 days in vertical plates using Bradford's assay. *T203* treatment was given for 24 h to the plants. A significant difference between with and without *T203* treatment is analyzed by t-test at p<0.01 (**) and p<0.05 (*) **(d)** *PR1* gene expression in WT, Hb+, *nia1,2* and *nrt2.1* under 0.1 mM NO_3^- plants, with and without *Trichoderma*

1128 treatment given for 5 minutes and 24 h to the plants. A significant difference between

1129 with and without *T203* treatment is analyzed by t-test at p<0.01 (**) and p<0.05 (*).

Fig. 9

Fig. 9: Response of WT and NO mutants (Hb$^+$ and *nia1,2*) grown under 0.1 mM

NO$_3^-$ during LAR and SAR

In LAR response **(a)** HR phenotype in inoculated leaves of WT, Hb$^+$ and *nia1,2*

plants grown under 0.1 mM NO$_3^-$ concentration at 0 and 24 hpi **(b)** *In planta* bacterial

growth (log CFU) at 6, 24 and 48 hpi, asterisks indicate a significant difference

(p<0.01; Student's t-test) taking WT as control **(c)** Relative *PR1* expression in

infiltrated leaves during localized infiltration. Values are means (n=3) ± SE. Asterisks

indicate a significant difference (p < 0.01; student's t-test) taking 0 hpi as control.

In SAR response **(d)** HR phenotype in inoculated and uninoculated leaves of WT,

Hb$^+$ and *nia1,2* plants grown under 0.1 mM NO$_3^-$ concentration post secondary

challenge **(e)** Bacterial population represented by log CFU at 6, 24 and 48 hpc,

asterisks indicate a significant difference (p < 0.01; Student's t-test) taking 3 mM WT

as control **(f)** Relative *PR1* gene expression in infiltrated leaves post secondary

challenge. Values are means (n=3) ± SE. Asterisks indicate a significant difference (p < 0.01; Student's t-test) taking 0 hpc as control.

Fig. 10

(a)

(b)

Fig. 10: Detection of ROS by measuring H_2O_2 and $O_2^{\cdot-}$ in 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO_3^- WT and *Trichoderma* grown WT plants during SAR response

(a) Quantification of DAB staining used to measure H_2O_2 levels in the inoculated leaves and uninoculated leaves after 3 days of challenge inoculation at 0, 6, 24 and 48 hpc is shown as intensity per stained area from ten leaves per treatment measured using ImageJ in arbitrary units with the mean values ± SE.

(b) Quantification of NBT staining used to measure $O_2^{\cdot-}$ levels in the inoculated leaves and uninoculated leaves post challenge inoculation at 0, 6, 24 and 48 hpc shown as intensity per stained area from ten leaves per treatment measured using ImageJ in arbitrary units with the mean values ± SE.

Fig. 11: **Expression profiles of defense related genes during SAR**

Relative expression of defense related genes in WT (I panel) and WT+*T203* (II
panel) grown under low (0.1 mM) and optimum (3 mM) NO_3^- concentration post
secondary challenge of *Pst*DC3000 in both inoculated and uninoculated leaves **(a)**
Relative expression of *PAL1* **(b)** Relative expression of *PR1* **(c)** Relative expression
of *PR2* **(d)** Relative expression of *PR5*. For all the target genes, fold expression
values are means (n=3) ± SE. A significant difference between all treatments is
analyzed by t-test at $p < 0.001$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**) and $p < 0.05$ (*) with 3 mM
uninoculated leaves as control in each gene.

1235

1236

1237

1238

1239

1240

1241

1242

1243

1244

1245

1246

1247

1248

1249

1250

1251

1252

1253

1254

1255

1256

1257

1258

Fig. 12

Fig. 12: **Expression profiles of regulatory SAR genes**

Relative expression of SAR regulatory gene in WT (I panel) and WT+*T203* (II panel)

grown under low (0.1 mM) and optimum (3 mM) NO_3^- concentration post secondary

challenge of *Pst*DC3000 in both inoculated and uninoculated leaves **(a)** Relative

expression of *DIR1* **(b)** Relative expression of *NPR1* **(c)** Relative expression of

SARD1 **(d)** Relative expression of *TGA3*. For all the target genes, fold expression

values are means (n=3) ± SE. A significant difference between all treatments is

analyzed by t-test at p<0.001 (***), p<0.01 (**) and p<0.05 (*) with 3mM

uninoculated leaves as control in each gene.

Fig. 13

Fig. 13: **LAR and SAR response in *nrt2.1* and *npr1* mutants to virulent *Pst***

DC3000

(a) LAR disease symptoms to virulent *Pst* DC3000 in *nrt2.1* and *npr1* mutant in 0.1

and 3 mM nitrate **(b)** Bacterial growth in WT, *nrt2.1* and *npr1* mutant **(c)** Phenotype

during SAR response in *nrt2.1* and *npr1* mutant in 0.1 and 3 mM nitrate **(d)** Bacterial

growth in WT, *nrt2.1* and *npr1* mutant during SAR response. A significant difference

between 0.1 and 3 mM nitrate is analyzed by t-test at $p < 0.01$ (**) and $p < 0.05$ (*).

Fig. 14

Fig. 14: **SA Accumulation during SAR, and response of *nahg* mutant in the presence and absence of *Trichoderma* during SAR**

(a) Total SA levels (µg g^{-1} fresh weight) were determined post challenge inoculation (24 hpc) in inoculated and uninoculated leaves of 0.1 mM and 3 mM NO$_3^-$ fed WT plants, with and without *Trichoderma*. Asterisks indicate mean values that are significantly different according to (p<0.01; Student's t-test) with 3 mM uninoculated leaves as control **(b)** HR phenotype in inoculated and un-inoculated distal leaves of *nahg* mutants grown under 0.1 and 3 mM NO$_3^-$ concentration post secondary challenge at 6, 24 and 48 hpc **(c)** Bacterial number represented by log CFU at 6, 24 and 48 hpc from the inoculated leaves post secondary challenge **(d)** *PR1* gene expression in inoculated and uninoculated leaves of *nahg* mutants grown under 0.1 and 3 mM NO$_3^-$ with and without *Trichoderma* treatment post secondary challenge. Values are means (n=3) ± SE. A significant difference between with and without *T203* treatment is analyzed by t-test at p<0.01 (**) and p<0.05 (*).

Fig. 15

Fig. 15: A model depicting mechanism of *Trichoderma* induced systemic response (T-ISR) under low nitrate conditions during pathogen infection in Arabidopsis.

(a) After root colonization, *Trichoderma* secretes growth promoting elicitors (blue dots), and induces priming response (T-IPR) by eliciting short term nitric oxide (NO; green dots) which facilitate faster nitrate uptake by activating HATs (*NRT2.1, 2.2* and *2.4*) in the roots. The HATs in turn activates the vacuolar LATs (*CLCa and NPF1.2*) in the mesophyll cells allows source to sink re-mobilization of available nitrate from roots to other aerial parts. During primary inoculation (local pathogen attack; *avrRpm1*), NO and ROS signals both are produced during hypersensitive response (HR), along with salicylic acid (SA), but their basal levels are greatly enhanced due to *Trichoderma* treatment. Moreover, the *Trichoderma* induced short-term NO produced during priming and HR, plays a role in faster nitrate uptake by the HATs in low N stress plants. *Trichoderma* induced SA (produced during local infection) gets rapidly translocated to the other uninfected distal parts of the plant and pre-programs the stressed plant for subsequent pathogen attack.

(b) *Trichoderma* activates PR proteins and cause SA accumulation in locally infected leaves during T-ISR. These signals are transported to the other part of the plant by activating a set of regulatory genes (*DIR1, NPR1, SARD1, TGA3*) involved in SAR response. The SA signal transduction mediated by *DIR1 NPR1* and *TGA3* was evidenced by their induced expression in systemic leaves in the presence of *Trichoderma*. Moreover, induced *SARD1* expression activates the SA biosynthetic genes (*ICS1*) in the systemic leaves. All these genes are involved in translocating these signals from locally infected leaf to the uninfected parts of the plant. Consequently, *Trichoderma* helps in the accumulation of PR proteins and SA in the uninfected leaves, thus allowing the low nitrate stress plants to show enhanced resistance.