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Nodule performance within a changing environmental context

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2
3 Global climate models predict that future environmental conditions will see alterations
4 in temperature, water availability and [CO₂]. Climate Change will reinforce the need to
5 develop highly productive crops. For this purpose it is essential to identify target traits
6 conditioning plant performance in changing environments. N₂ fixing plants represent
7 the second major crop of agricultural importance worldwide. The current review
8 provides a compilation of results from existing literature on the effects of several abiotic
9 stress conditions on nodule performance and N₂ fixation. The environmental factors
10 analysed include water stress, salinity, temperature, and elevated [CO₂]. Despite the
11 large number of studies analysing [CO₂] effects in plants, frequently they have been
12 conducted under optimal growth conditions that are difficult to find in natural
13 conditions where different stresses often occur simultaneously. This is why we have
14 also included a section describing the current state of knowledge of interacting
15 environmental conditions in nodule functioning. Regardless of the environmental factor
16 considered, it is evident that some general patterns of nodule response are observed.
17 Nodule carbohydrate and N compound availability, together with the presence of
18 oxygen reactive species (ROS) have proven to be the key factors modulating N₂ fixation
19 at the physiological/biochemical levels. However, with the exception of water
20 availability and [CO₂], it should also be considered that nodule performance has not
21 been characterised in detail under other limiting growth conditions. This highlights the
22 necessity to conduct further studies considering these factors. Finally, we also observe
23 that a better understanding of these metabolic effects of changing environment in nodule
24 functioning would require an integrated and synergistic investigation based on widely
25 used and novel protocols such as transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics and stable
26 isotopes.

1 **Key words:** C/N metabolism, climate change, nodule, N₂ fixation, omic methodologies
2 **Abbreviations:** AAT, aspartate aminotransferase; Asn, asparagine; BNF, biological N₂
3 fixation, CA, carbonic anhydrase; DM, dry mass; DR, dehydroascorbate reductase;
4 GOGAT, glutamine oxoglutarate amid otransferase; Gln, glutamine; Glu, glutamate;
5 GOT, glutamate oxaloacetate transaminase; GS, glutamine synthetase; ICDH, isocitrate
6 dehydrogenase; IPCC, Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change; LCGI, Legume
7 Crops Genome Initiative; MDH, malate dehydrogenase; N_{ase}, nitrogenase; NifH,
8 nitrogenase reductase; OAA, oxaloacetate; PBM, peribacteroidal membrane; PEP,
9 phosphoenolpyruvate; PEPc, phosphoenol pyruvate carboxylase; ROS, reactive oxygen
10 species; SNA, specific nodule activity; SOD, superoxide dismutase; SS, sucrose
11 synthase; TCA, tricarboxilic acids; TSP, total soluble proteins; TSS, total soluble
12 sugars.
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14

1 **Introduction**

2 According to the predictions of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC,
3 2007), most climate scenarios are expected to be affected by climate change. It is
4 predicted that by the end of this century, atmospheric CO₂ levels will increase from the
5 present 400 to 700 μmol mol⁻¹. The increase in the concentration of this greenhouse gas
6 will cause ambient temperatures to rise by 1.8 - 4.0 °C. Rising temperature will increase
7 evapotranspiration rates and exacerbate low water availability and salinity problems
8 commonly observed in environments such as the Mediterranean, where current annual
9 potential evapotranspiration is often nearly twice the amount of rainfall (Sabaté et al.,
10 2002). This is a matter of major concern, because water deficit, together with soil N
11 content and salinity, is the most important environmental factor limiting plant growth
12 and production in the Mediterranean climate (Chaves et al., 2002; Annicchiarico et al.,
13 2011). Most studies analyzing the Climate Change effect on plant growth have
14 considered CO₂ concentration, temperature, water availability and salinity separately.
15 This is especially relevant because, in natural conditions, plants are frequently exposed
16 to interacting environmental stressful growth conditions. If the goal of studies analyzing
17 plant growth under changing growth conditions is to understand how will they perform
18 in near future, it is important to reproduce, as accurately as possible, such growth
19 conditions. Otherwise, extrapolations derived from growth conditions that will not be
20 real in the near future for agricultural systems will not be trustworthily. In order to
21 better understand how plant growth will be affected, it will be essential to strictly
22 scrutinise environmental particularities that preclude or permit them. Unfortunately,
23 most of the literature is based on studies characterizing single stress factors. This is a
24 matter of great concern, because it is well known that the effect of combined stresses on
25 plant growth causes alterations that cannot be predicted if they are analysed alone

1 (Valladares and Pearcy, 1997). For example, Chaves and Pereira (2004) observed that
2 although photochemical processes are very resistant to low water availability, a down
3 regulation of the photosynthetic apparatus occurs when plants are exposed
4 simultaneously to drought and elevated temperature conditions.

5

6 During the 1960s and 1970s, enhancement of crop productivity was enabled by
7 improvements in N fertilisation. In the last 40 years, the amount of synthetic nitrogen
8 (N) applied to crops has risen dramatically from 12 to 104 Tg/year (Mulvaney et al.,
9 2009), resulting in significant increases in yield but with considerable impacts on the
10 environment throughout the world. The impacts of N in the environment are becoming
11 increasingly apparent due to excessive fertilising regimes. To alleviate these problems,
12 European policies have set, for instance, acceptable pollution limits from farming
13 (Shortle and Abler, 2001). Among such policies it is recommended that grain crops be
14 rotated with legumes. Legumes represent the second major crop of agricultural
15 importance worldwide and cover about 14% of total land under cultivation (FAOSTAT
16 2010). These plants represent an important source of protein and calories for humans
17 and animals (Rogers et al., 2009). In addition, and compared with other crops, legumes
18 represent a particular plant group thanks to their capacity of to fertilise soils through the
19 fixation of atmospheric N₂ (Hirsh, 2004). The symbiotic relationship between
20 *Rhizobiaceae* family bacteria and legumes provides access to atmospheric N₂.
21 Biological N₂ fixation (BNF) provides to the legumes and the surrounding plants an
22 additional N source that is of great value in impoverished soils. As observed by Peoples
23 et al., 1995, this symbiotic relationship is the main source of N₂ fixation in terrestrial
24 ecosystems (provides 50% of BNF) and reduces the need to fertilise soils with chemical
25 compounds, which leads to additional economic and environmental benefits.

1
2 The symbiotic relationship between the plant and bacteria takes place in the root
3 nodules. Within the nodule, the bacteria are isolated from the host cell by the
4 peribacteroidal membrane (PBM) that regulates the exchange between both symbionts
5 (Day et al., 2001). The regulation of nitrogenase activity and consequently plant N
6 availability is conditioned by C supply to the bacteroids (Galvez et al., 2005; Larrainzar
7 et al., 2009). Therefore, there is a tight dependency on C and N metabolism between
8 bacteroids and the plant. The host provides photoassimilates, which supply the energy
9 and C skeletons required by the bacteroid to fix N_2 by nitrogenase (N_{ase}). Sucrose is
10 partitioned to the nodules through the phloem where it is cleaved by sucrose synthase,
11 enters glycolysis and is transformed into dicarboxylic acids, mainly in the form of
12 malate and succinate (Lodwig and Poole, 2003). Within the bacteroid malate is oxidised
13 by the TCA cycle to provide reductant to both the N_{ase} complex and the respiratory
14 chain that fuels N_{ase} with the ATP necessary for N_2 fixation (Kouchi and Yoneyama,
15 1986; Streeter, 1987). The bacteroid returns ammonium (NH_4^+) to the host that is
16 assimilated in the form of glutamine (Gln), and this is further metabolised into other N
17 transport forms, depending on the legume species, such as asparagine (Asn) or to purine
18 derivatives known as ureides that are partitioned to the rest of the plant through the
19 xylem according to their requirements (Udvardi and Day, 1997; Larrainzar et al., 2009;
20 Molero et al., 2011). It has also been suggested that some amino acids are supplied by
21 the plant to the bacteroid in order to produce Ala or Asp from the transamination of
22 oxaloacetate or pyruvate (Lodwig et al., 2003; Prell and Poole, 2006). According to
23 Lodwig et al. (2003), the plant provides glutamate (Glu) to the bacteroid where it is
24 used as a transamination donor to produce amino acids. Provision of amino acids would
25 regulate nodule NH_4^+ content, shutting it down when amino acid levels are too high.

1
2 A large number of the studies analysing nodule performance have been conducted
3 specifically in nodules, without giving much consideration to the rest of the plant. This
4 is a matter of great concern, because as mentioned above it has long been known that N₂
5 fixation relies on the interchange of plant-bacteroid resources (Hardy and Havelka,
6 1976; Sprent et al., 1988). Labelling experiments have shown that photosynthates are
7 rapidly (within 1 h) transferred to the nodules (Voisin et al., 2003abc). This inter-organ
8 coupling implies that factors altering leaf performance will affect nodule functioning
9 and vice versa (Aranjuelo et al., 2007; 2011; Rubio et al., 2002). These findings
10 highlight the great importance of considering plant-bacteria interactions as a whole.

11
12 Another point that should be considered is that a large number of studies analysing
13 nodule performance have been conducted under optimal growth conditions. However,
14 as mentioned before, legumes are frequently exposed to varying temperature, relative
15 humidity, soil water, and nutrient availability conditions that limit plant and nodule
16 functioning (Aranjuelo et al., 2007; 2008; Sanz-Sáez et al., 2010). Indeed, the majority
17 of the literature that describes nodule functioning under stressful growth conditions has
18 focused on drought effects, whereas other environmental variables such as temperature,
19 salinity, and CO₂ have received less attention. However, because the objective of such
20 studies is to further understand the key factors conditioning nodule performance in
21 natural conditions, it is important to simulate growth conditions as realistically as
22 possible. This is why it is important to extend the research of this organ across a wider
23 spectrum of growth conditions. Furthermore, in addition to the separate analyses of
24 stressful growth conditions, it is important to analyse the interaction between different
25 stresses all together. As described in previous studies (Aranjuelo et al. 2007; 2008;

1 2009; Sanz-Sáez et al., 2010), the effect of combined stresses on plant growth causes
2 alterations that cannot be predicted if they are analysed alone, such as those resulting
3 from synergistic and antagonistic phenomena.

4
5 In summary, the main goal of this article is to review the current state of knowledge of
6 nodule performance under stressful growth conditions (analysed separately and its
7 interaction) as a base for understanding plant responses in a changing environmental
8 context and to highlight needs of further research strategies. We will also emphasise the
9 need to consider the other organs of the plant (rather than the nodule) and the
10 interactions among them. We will also highlight the application of new methodologies
11 that can further increase our knowledge of processes regulating nodule functioning and
12 the symbiotic exchange with the plant. This information might be applied to further
13 understand plant-nodule communication and regulation, which will guide future plant
14 breeding programmes aiming to develop legume varieties better adapted to the different
15 Climate Change Scenarios.

16 17 **2. Processes conditioning N₂ fixation in legumes**

18 N₂ fixation in legumes is strongly related to the physiological state of the host plant.
19 The diversity of results described in the literature (Aranjuelo et al., 2007; 2008; Gálvez
20 et al., 2001; 2005a; Purcell et al., 2004; Schulze et al., 2004; Serraj et al., 2003bc)
21 highlights the complexity of nodule performance under varying environmental
22 conditions. The main processes limiting nodule functioning are: (i) carbohydrate
23 availability, (ii) accumulation of nitrogenous compounds, (iii) O₂ permeability, and (iv)
24 accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS).

25

1 *2.1. Carbohydrate availability.* As mentioned above, regulation of BNF is related to C
2 supply by the host, mostly in the form of malate, for bacteroid respiration. Since
3 nodules are a strong sink, they require a large amount of carbon: it has been estimated
4 that during the day up to 45% of photoassimilates may be exported towards the nodules
5 (Gordon et al., 1987). The C supply might be reduced due to a decline in photosynthesis
6 at the leaf level that is observed under soil moisture deficiency, high temperature, and
7 salt stress. On the other hand, C supply could be increased under elevated CO₂
8 concentrations (see below). Previous studies (Arrese-Igor et al., 1999; Gálvez et al.,
9 2005; Gordon et al. 1999) describe that under stressful growth conditions where
10 photosynthetic activity is inhibited there is a decrease in carbohydrate supply to the
11 bacteroids with a consequent diminishment in N_{ase} activity. This is due to the
12 downregulation of one of the enzymes responsible for the cleavage of sucrose in
13 nodules: sucrose synthase (SuSy) (Arrese-Igor et al., 1999). Conversely, when
14 photosynthetic rates increase, there is an increase in N₂ fixation due to the larger amount
15 of photosynthetically derived organic carbon supplied to nodules (Arrese-Igor et al.,
16 1999; Aranjuelo et al., 2008; Rogers et al., 2009).

17

18 *2.2. Accumulation of nitrogenous compounds.* The decrease in nitrogenase activity has
19 been associated with the accumulation of nitrogenous compounds (Hartwig et al., 1994;
20 Serraj et al., 1999). The accumulation of these compounds can originate from decreases
21 in carbohydrate fluxes to the nodules or the impairment of xylem transport and the
22 consequent decreases in the transport of nitrogenous compounds to the plant (Serraj et
23 al., 1999; Aranjuelo et al. 2008). The accumulation of these compounds induces a
24 negative feedback mechanism with a consequent inhibition of N_{ase} activity (Serraj et al.,
25 1998; 2001; King and Purcell, 2005; Hartwig et al., 1994). Also, the accumulation of N

1 compounds could originate from the reduced aboveground N demand and could cause
2 the accumulation of N₂ fixation products in the nodules with a consequent inhibition of
3 N_{ase} activity (Aranjuelo et al., 2011; King and Purcell, 2005; Larrainzar et al., 2007;
4 Schulze 2004a; Serraj 2003b; Serraj and Sinclair 1996). Results from experiments
5 manipulating N sink-strength demonstrate a clear effect on N_{ase} activity (Schulze 2004
6 and references therein).

7

8 *2.3. O₂ permeability.* Although O₂ is required in respiration processes by the nodule, O₂
9 regulation is critical for BNF since most N_{ase} are sensitive to its presence (Becana et al.
10 2010). Nodule permeability to O₂ via the regulation of the O₂ diffusion barrier has been
11 suggested as a key factor conditioning N_{ase} performance (Hunt and Layzell, 1993).
12 Previous studies (Serraj and Sinclair, 1996; Purcell and Sinclair, 1994) showed that
13 water stress causes a diminishment in the permeability to O₂ diffusion, which leads to a
14 reduction in nodule respiration and therefore a lower production of energy via ATP
15 synthase. The reduction in O₂ availability to the bacteroid may also be associated with a
16 decrease in the concentration of leghemoglobin, which could be degraded by reactive
17 oxygen species (ROS) (Marino et al., 2007).

18

19 *2.4. Oxidative stress.* Another mechanism responsible for nitrogen fixation inhibition is
20 oxidative stress (Gogorcena et al., 1995; Porcel et al., 2003; Naya et al. 2007). Some
21 environmental conditions, such as drought or salinity, are responsible for nodule
22 senescence and also cause an O₂ content imbalance, which is necessary to ensure a
23 successful nodule performance (Zahran 1999). According to Witty et al. (1986), the
24 decrease in O₂ permeability led to an O₂ restriction to the bacteroid. The imbalance in
25 O₂ control is associated with the formation of ROS, which could produce cellular

1 damage (Naya et al., 2007). ROS production and removal is a complex process that
2 requires a tight biochemical control involving enzymatic and non-enzymatic
3 detoxification mechanisms that have been developed by plants (Marino et al. 2006;
4 Aranjuelo et al., 2013a). As recently reported, drought increases the expression of genes
5 involved in the detoxification of O₂ radicals such as cytosolic CuZn-superoxide
6 dismutase (SOD), and glutathione reductase, etc. However, other studies report a
7 decrease in antioxidant activity under drought conditions (Gogorcena et al., 1995;
8 Porcel et al., 2003). However, in a large number of these studies the response of nodule
9 antioxidants have not been analysed at the molecular level and in most of the studies
10 N_{ase} activity was not monitored, making it difficult to establish a relationship between
11 the decrease in antioxidant protection and the loss of nodule function.

12
13 Although all these factors have been described as essential in nodule performance,
14 drought is the only stressful environmental factor where they have been extensively
15 studied.

16

17 **3. Water availability**

18 Soil moisture deficiency has a pronounced effect on N₂ fixation because nodule
19 initiation, growth, and activity are all more sensitive to water stress than general root
20 and shoot metabolism. The particular way in which water stress is developed might be
21 of special importance not only for understanding the response to drought, but also in
22 evaluating the plant's capacity to acclimation (Kaiser, 1987). As highlighted in a recent
23 study conducted with *Lotus japonicus* exposed to different water stress conditions
24 Sanchez et al. (2012), the metabolic response of these plants was tightly linked to the
25 stress-dose. The differences in the severity level of the applied drought and the species
26 analysed could partially explain the different results described in the literature (Ramos

1 et al., 1999; Hungria and Vargas 2000; Gálvez et al., 2005; Naya et al., 2007; Sanchez
2 et al., 2012).

3

4 *3.1 Mild water stress*

5 Studies conducted with *Glycine max* (Durand et al., 1987), *Phaseolus vulgaris* (Ramos
6 et al., 1999), *Medicago truncatula* (Larrainzar et al., 2009), *Medicago sativa* (Naya et
7 al., 2007a) and *Pisum sativum* (Gálvez et al., 2005a), where the plants were exposed to
8 withholding water stress, showed that nodule functioning varied as drought intensity
9 increased. In most cases, after 3 days of withholding water, N_{ase} activity started to
10 decrease (when compared with the control plants) and this decrease became more
11 marked as the days went by. As it is shown in Fig. 1, where we have summarized the
12 main findings provided by the literature on nodule and plant performance under water
13 stress conditions, at the leaf level, water stress causes photosynthetic inhibition caused
14 by the stomatal closure (reflected by the depleted g_s) and the impairment of Rubisco
15 Aranjuelo et al. (2011). The decrease in SS activity results in an accumulation of
16 sucrose and a reduced concentration of organic acids, mainly in the form of malate,
17 which causes a shortage of substrates for bacteroid respiration (González et al., 2001;
18 Gálvez et al., 2005). As a consequence, a transient accumulation of oxygen in the
19 infected region would take place, leading to an increase in the resistance of the oxygen
20 diffusion barrier in order to avoid nitrogenase damage (see above). Both the depletion of
21 respiratory substrates and the consequent closure of the oxygen diffusion barrier would
22 cause the observed decline in BNF. However in *Medicago* species, observations from
23 other studies (Ramos et al., 1999; Larrainzar et al., 2009; Naya et al. 2007) suggest that
24 organic acids, together with soluble sugar content, increased in early droughted nodules.
25 Under early drought conditions there is an increase in N compounds that could have

1 induced N feedback inhibition that affected N_{ase} activity negatively (Ladrera et al.,
2 2007; Larrainzar et al., 2009). As it is shown in Fig. 1, the lower leaf N demand has
3 been described to cause the nodule amino acid accumulation nodules. Also, the decrease
4 in N_{ase} could be caused by the decline in nodule proteins such as N_{ase} Fe protein (NifH),
5 oxidoreductase (FixC) and transmembrane proteins (LpdA) (Larrainzar et al., 2009).
6 Results obtained by (Naya et al., 2007) showed that oxidative stress was also involved
7 in the diminished BNF. The upregulation during drought of a number of genes involved
8 in antioxidant protection, together with the accumulation of peroxidised lipids and
9 oxidatively modified proteins in droughted nodules, has revealed that such nodules are
10 exposed to oxidative stress.

11

12 3.2 Severe water stress

13 Data obtained from *M. truncatula* and *M. sativa* (Larrainzar et al., 2009; Aranjuelo et
14 al., 2011; Naya et al., 2007) indicated that under severe water stress C availability was
15 not involved in the regulation of BNF in these plants under drought conditions. These
16 studies revealed that even though drought inhibited photosynthetic activity at the leaf
17 level, there was not any C shortage (in the form of soluble sugar and organic acid
18 compounds) in their nodules (Fig. 1). Furthermore, these studies suggested that,
19 similarly to what is described in leaves, there is an increase in nodule soluble sugars
20 (sucrose, raffinose), sugar alcohols (galactinol, myo-inositol, pinitol) and organic acids
21 (fumaric acid, malate) with osmoregulatory activity. The accumulation of organic
22 solutes could constitute an adaptive response to water stress, given that this mechanism
23 is involved in the restoration of turgor, the reduction of oxidative damage induced by
24 free radicals, and also the stabilisation of membrane structure and enzymes (Chen and
25 Murata, 2002). The accumulation of specific organic solutes (osmotic) is a characteristic

1 response of plants subjected to prolonged severe water stress. In this sense, plants have
2 been shown to redirect a significant amount of carbohydrates to stabilise nodule and leaf
3 water status (Patonnier et al., 1999; Chia et al., 2000; Streeter 2003; Valliyodan and
4 Nguyen 2006; Sweetlove et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011; Sanchez et al. 2012). The
5 study carried out in *Medicago sativa* (Naya et al., 2007; Aranjuelo et al., 2013a)
6 indicated that nodules subjected to soil moisture deficiency had an accumulation of
7 soluble sugars and organic acids, proteins that are part of the TCA cycle were involved
8 in the lower respiration rates of the nodules. It is likely that such accumulation is
9 derived from the mobilisation of starch derived carbohydrates in nodules, namely
10 sucrose. Such results suggest that under severe drought conditions the TCA cycle did
11 not operate to its optimal aerobic capacity due to the lower nodule permeability to O₂
12 (Lodwig and Poole, 2003). However, the absence of significant changes in
13 photosynthetic efficiency and the respiratory cost of N₂ fixation reveal that droughted
14 plants adjusted to such lower inputs to sustain nodule catabolism according to the lower
15 plant N demand (Aranjuelo et al., 2013a).

16

17 As it has been described above, the relevancy of oxidative stress in nodule functioning
18 is a matter of major concern. As reported by Naya et al. (2007), drought induces
19 increased expression of genes involved in the detoxification of O₂ radicals. Under
20 severe drought conditions, diminished respiratory rates, high cytosolic concentration of
21 leghemoglobin, the abundance of catalytic Fe and the presence of redox proteins (with
22 the ability to transfer electrons to O₂) would justify the importance of regulating ROS
23 content (Becana et al., 2010). However, other studies (Gogorcena et al., 1995; Porcel et
24 al., 2003) show that severe water stress induces a decrease in antioxidant activity. In
25 addition to the enzymatic mechanisms, the metabolomic characterisation conducted in

1 droughted nodules also showed that the content of compounds with ROS scavenging
2 capacity like ascorbic acid and proline also increased under severe drought conditions
3 (Becana et al., 2010; Van Den Ende and Valluru, 2009). It should be noted that before
4 oxidative damage can be caused by ROS, these molecules already play a crucial role in
5 oxidative signalling during drought stress, at both the transcriptional and post-
6 translational levels (Marino et al., 2006).

7

8 In a recent study conducted in *Medicago sativa* (Aranjuelo et al., 2011), it was observed
9 that deleterious drought effects on leaf N status (mainly regarding Rubisco) could have
10 negatively affected nodule functioning. This study showed that together with a decrease
11 in Rubisco content, in droughted leaves there was also a down-regulation of proteins
12 involved in Rubisco assembly (putative Rubisco binding-protein). The depletion at the
13 leaf level of Rubisco and amino acid content (with the exception of proline) suggests
14 that under these unfavourable conditions there was a mobilisation of N from the main
15 leaf N reservoir (i.e. Rubisco) toward below ground organs such as the primary root and
16 nodules. The fact that the enzymes, proteasome b1 subunit (proteolytic activity) and
17 glutamine synthetase (involved in the GS-GOGAT cycle where assimilated NH_3 is
18 converted to glutamic acid, Glu, and glutamine, Gln), were up-regulated under drought
19 conditions suggests that there was reallocation of N derived from Rubisco to other
20 organs (Gordon et al., 1999; Aranjuelo et al., 2011). Such data suggest that the reduced
21 aboveground N demand caused amino acid build up in the nodules. Several compounds
22 such as glutamine, asparagine, aspartate and ureides have been suggested to be involved
23 in a N feedback mechanism (Serraj et al., 2001; King and Purcell 2005; Larrainzar et
24 al., 2009; Sulieman and Schulze, 2010). Ureide accumulation is part of a general
25 response to stress, in particular because ureides play a key role in cell protection under

1 oxidative stress conditions (Brychkova et al., 2008), such as the nodule senescence
2 induced by drought (Puppo et al., 2005; Yamaguchi et al., 2010). The accumulation of
3 amino acids has also been associated with stabilisation of protein structure (Schobert
4 and Tschesche, 1978) and osmoregulation (Irigoyen et al., 1992; Larrainzar et al., 2009;
5 Joshi et al., 2010). Together with amino acid osmoregulants, the increases in sugars,
6 sugar alcohols and organic acids with osmoregulant activity have been described as
7 linked with the stabilisation of nodule and leaf water status (Patonnier et al., 1999; Chia
8 et al., 2000; Streeter 2003; Valliyodan and Nguyen, 2006).

9

10 *3.3 Sustained low water availability*

11 Although withholding water is the most common method for short-term experiments,
12 sustained or cyclic water stress is also essential to simulate more realistic responses to
13 drought (Pennypacker et al., 1990). In this sense, studies were low water availability
14 plants were watered with lower water content since the beginning of the experiment
15 should also be considered. Previous studies conducted by our group (Aranjuelo et al.
16 2007; 2009) where exclusively N₂ fixing alfalfa plants were grown under full *versus*
17 low (\approx at 50 % of field capacity) water levels showed that although low irrigation
18 strongly decreased total dry matter, these plants adapted their growth rate to the
19 available water content without suffering any water stress, as revealed by their relative
20 water content (Aranjuelo et al., 2007; 2009). Interestingly, although no significant
21 differences were observed in leaf gas exchange determinations, the leaf N, total soluble
22 proteins (TSP) and Rubisco contents were negatively affected by low water availability.
23 The obtained results highlighted the fact that the lower N shoot demand negatively
24 affected nodule TSP content and the activity of enzymes involved in N₂ assimilation,
25 such as malate dehydrogenase (MDH) and aspartate aminotransferase (AAT). The

1 lower MDH suggests that malate availability could have been depleted in those nodules,
2 with the consequent effect in respiration. The lower investment of photoassimilates in
3 nodule DM production of droughted plants also contributed to the lower N₂ fixation at
4 the plant level.

5
6 In summary, current knowledge of droughted nodule performance reveals that even
7 under moderate water stress conditions, carbohydrate shortage has a key role in depleted
8 N₂ fixation, under severe water stress conditions, oxidative stress and N compound
9 accumulation in nodules are likely to be the main factors explaining the poor nodule
10 performance (Fig. 1). Furthermore, in moderate and severe stress conditions, but mainly
11 under the latter, the plants accumulate specific compounds involved in osmoregulatory
12 and antioxidant processes. Although little information is available, under sustained
13 limited water availability conditions the available data suggest that lower shoot N
14 demand is also involved in the reduced nodule performance. Several reports have
15 suggested that N-fixing plants of *M. sativa* (Antolín et al., 1992), *P. vulgaris* (Lodeiro et
16 al., 2000), *P. sativum* (Frechilla et al., 2000), and soybean (Kirova et al., 2008) can be
17 more tolerant to drought than nitrate-reducing plants, but despite the obvious agronomic
18 interest of this observation, the physiological reasons underlying such a response remain
19 largely unknown.

20

21 **4. Salinity**

22 Salt stress has been included among the major stressful environments conditioning the
23 performance of legumes in arid and semi-arid regions mainly due to the effect of salt on
24 nodule functioning (Yamaguchi and Blumwald, 2005). This is a matter of major

1 concern since almost 40% of world's land surface might be subjected to potential
2 salinity problems (Zahran, 1999).

3
4 In general, rhizobia are more salt tolerant than their respective plant host, with some
5 bacterial strains being able to grow in media with 300-700 mM NaCl (Mpeperekki et al.,
6 1997; Zahran, 1999). However, the salinity response of legumes varies greatly and
7 depends on soil properties, the developmental growth stage and legume species
8 (Cordovilla et al., 1994; 1995abc). The process of nodule formation is particularly
9 sensitive to salt stress because under such conditions root hair curling is inhibited and
10 bacterial colonisation and infection highly reduced (Zahran and Sprent, 1986). High
11 salinity has been described to affect plant growth and symbiotic relationships in
12 legumes (Tejera et al., 2004; López et al., 2008; 2009; 2010). According to these
13 studies, shoot development is more sensitive than the roots. In a recent study conducted
14 by Ben Salah et al. (2009) where two *Medicago ciliaris* lines (with different tolerance to
15 salinity) were exposed to salt stress, it was shown that although plant growth was
16 inhibited by 21% in the tolerant line and 73% in the sensitive line, N₂ fixation was
17 depressed in these lines by 60% and 86% respectively. Although salinity has been
18 described to deleterious for plant growth, as it is remarked by the question mark of Fig.
19 2, to our knowledge, leaf and root performance has been scarcely studied. Similar to
20 previous observations for droughted nodules, nodule functioning under salinity has been
21 shown to be conditioned by carbohydrate flux and oxidative stress (Serraj 2002; Tejera
22 et al., 2004; López and Lluch 2008; López et al., 2008; Ben Salah et al., 2009; 2010). In
23 salt sensitive plants (*Medicago ciliaris*), it was shown that soluble sugar content
24 (including sucrose) decreased in nodules (Ben Salah et al., 2009). Sucrose synthase and
25 alkaline/neutral invertase determinations indicated that the lower sucrose content of

1 these plants was caused by decreased enzyme performance. Furthermore, as it is shown
2 in Fig. 2, the lower malate availability (main form of C supply to the bacteroid)
3 suggested that C supply was involved in salinity-derived deleterious effects on N₂
4 fixation. Such a decline could lead to a shortage of substrates for bacteroidal respiration
5 and consequently to reduced N_{ase} activity. The reduction in N₂-fixing activity by salt
6 stress is usually attributed to a reduction in respiration of the nodules (Walsh, 1995).
7 However, other studies have also revealed that inhibited N₂ fixation is not always
8 related to a lower C availability. Ben Salah et al. (2010) observed that in salt tolerant
9 plants salinity increased the availability of the soluble sugar content in their nodules.
10 Furthermore, opposite to the observations in the salt sensitive line, (Ben Salah et al.,
11 2010) showed that malate content also increased in the tolerant *Medicago ciliaris*. These
12 authors remarked that the better performance of salinity tolerant plants was related to
13 their ability to conserve photosynthetic activity and to maintain higher sucrolytic
14 activity. According to this study, the activity of enzymes involved in sucrose breakdown
15 increased in the tolerant line with a consequent increase in nodule sucrose content,
16 which is opposite to what was observed in the salinity sensitive *Medicago ciliaris* lines.
17 Although the increase in TSS has been frequently related to osmoregulatory processes
18 (Chen and Murata 2002; Zhu 2002) however according to López et al. (2008) the
19 accumulation of osmoregulants is a consequence of damage produced by salt, rather
20 than a protection strategy.

21

22 In addition to the salt effect in nodule functioning, ion accumulation (mainly Na⁺ and
23 Cl⁻) also induces cytotoxicity. Unless ions are stored in vacuoles, they have been
24 described to induce damage of cellular components, disturbance of enzymatic activities
25 and overproduction of ROS (Munss and Tester, 2008). Oxidative stress has also been

1 implicated in reduced performance of nodules grown in elevated salinity conditions
2 (Tejera et al., 2004; Borucki and Sujkowska, 2008; Garg and Manchanda, 2008; Ben
3 Salah et al. 2010) although to a much lesser extent than observed in droughted nodules.
4 As it is shown in Fig. 2, the reduction in N₂-fixing activity by salt stress is also
5 attributed to a reduction in cytosolic protein production by nodules, specifically
6 leghemoglobin, (Delgado et al., 1994) or a degradation of leghemoglobin (López et al.,
7 2008; Ben Salah et al. 2010). Such degradation could be explained by the up-regulation
8 of proteases (with affinity for leghemoglobin) in the infected cells that would then
9 produce catalytic Fe to react with H₂O₂ to produce ROS. It has been reported that there
10 are significant differences in the antioxidant enzymes that protect nodular tissue in
11 nodules exposed to salinity (Puppo and Halliwell, 1988; Tejera et al., 2004; Ben Salah
12 et al., 2010). These studies have revealed that the down-regulation of the activity of
13 enzymes such as superoxide dismutase (SOD), dehydroascorbate reductase (DR) and
14 peroxidase could have negatively affected the integrity of the peribacteroidal membrane
15 and consequently leghemoglobin content.

16

17 Although there are some discrepancies, the consensus in the literature is that
18 carbohydrate availability and oxidative stress are the target points that modulate nodule
19 functioning under salinity stress conditions (Fig. 2). Similar to droughted nodules, the
20 reported studies also indicate an increase in osmoregulatory compounds.

21

22 **5. High temperature**

23 Despite its relevance, studies examining the effects of temperature on plant nodule
24 performance are scarce and mainly focused on aboveground organ performance, giving
25 little attention to nodule functioning (Zahran et al., 1999; Djedid et al., 2011).

1 Compared with Figs. 1 (drought), 2 (salinity) and 4 (CO₂), absence of detailed
2 knowledge on nodule and root functioning under changing temperature conditions are
3 reflected in Fig. 3. As it is shown in Fig. 3, our current knowledge on this topic shows
4 that at the leaf, level, high temperature has been described to affect negatively
5 photosynthetic performance. Stomatal closure and inhibited Rubisco activity would
6 explain the depleted photosynthetic activity. At the belowground level, the optimum
7 temperature range for root-nodule symbiosis for temperate legumes is between 15 and
8 25 °C, while for tropical legumes upper limits range between 27 and 40 °C (Hungria and
9 Franco, 1993a; Aranjuelo et al., 2007). Temperature might affect N₂ fixation directly or
10 indirectly. Direct inhibition by temperature is a consequence of decreased nodule
11 development, functionality and accelerated nodule senescence (Piha and Munns, 1987;
12 Zhang et al., 1997; Aranjuelo et al., 2007). Indirect inhibition is related to temperature
13 effects on root hair formation depression, reduction of nodulation sites and modified
14 adherence of bacteria to root hairs (Frings, 1976; Hungria and Vargas, 2000).

15

16 The root infection process has been described as the component most affected by high
17 temperature, with sensitivity located at the nodulation sites (Hungria and Franco, 1993a;
18 Hungria and Vargas, 2000). As observed by previous studies (Pankhurst and Gibson
19 1973), elevated temperature has been described to inhibit the number of sites for
20 nodulation, adherence of bacteria to root hairs, root-air penetration and infection-thread
21 formation. The acceleration of nodule senescence has been implicated under elevated
22 temperatures (Hungria and Franco, 1993). In a previous study conducted by (Aranjuelo
23 et al., 2007) with exclusively N₂ fixing alfalfa plants exposed to elevated temperature
24 conditions, it was shown that elevated temperature affected plant N content negatively.
25 The absence of significant differences in nodule dry mass revealed that such a decrease

1 in N content was explained by the lower specific nodule activity (SNA) of the plants.
2 Furthermore, the analyses of nodule plant and bacteroid fractions highlighted that the
3 bacteroid fraction was more sensitive to temperature increase than the plant fraction
4 (Aranjuelo et al., 2007). Although the lower photosynthetic rates of treatments exposed
5 to elevated temperature decreased the leaf soluble sugar content, at the nodule level no
6 significant differences were observed in this parameter (Fig. 3). The fact that in elevated
7 temperature nodules MDH activity decreased to 50 % at the bacteroid level suggests
8 that less malate entered mitochondria with a consequent effect on the tricarboxylic acid
9 cycle and energy obtention for bacteroid consumption. When analysing this enzyme it
10 must also be considered that the MDH also forms a complex with the AAT enzyme
11 whose activity also increases in elevated temperature plants. In contrast to these
12 findings, Hungria et al. (1989) observed that elevated temperature negatively affected
13 enzymes involved in amino acid biosynthesis such as glutamine synthetase and
14 glutamate synthetase and lowered synthesis of ureides.

15

16 Nevertheless, the limited studies available do show that poor nodule functioning in
17 temperature stressed plants is not due to carbohydrate limitation (Fig. 3). Testing the
18 potential limitations of nodule respiration and oxidative stress therefore require further
19 investigation.

20

21 **6. Elevated CO₂**

22 Several authors (Serraj et al., 1998; Luscher et al., 2000; Rogers et al., 2006) have
23 postulated that legumes, because they are capable of fixing atmospheric N₂, will have an
24 advantage in plant growth over non- N₂-fixing plants. It has been noted that N₂- species
25 show a larger stimulation of growth and photosynthetic rates in response to elevated

1 CO₂ than non-fixing species (Ainsworth and Rogers, 2007; Aranjuelo et al., 2013b). As
2 it is represented in Fig. 4, the greater photosynthetic rate in legumes grown under high
3 CO₂ conditions (Bertrand et al., 2007) would imply that there is a larger supply of
4 organic C to nodules (Arrese-Igor et al., 1999; Cabrerizo et al., 2001). However, the
5 initial stimulation in photosynthetic rates frequently disappears in a process described as
6 “photosynthetic down-regulation” (Long et al., 2004; Ainsworth and Long, 2005;
7 Aranjuelo et al., 2005; Erice et al., 2007). Imbalance between the photoassimilate
8 source and the demand by the plant induces inhibition of the expression of genes that
9 encode for different proteins belonging to the photosynthetic apparatus such as Rubisco,
10 as well as a reduction in photosynthetic capacity (Long et al., 2004; Ainsworth and
11 Long, 2005). Studies conducted in *Medicago sativa* exposed to elevated CO₂ have
12 revealed that there is a specific decrease in Rubisco content (Aranjuelo et al., 2008;
13 2009).

14

15 The reduction in photosynthetic rates has been described as being conditioned by a
16 plant’s ability to develop new sinks (e.g. new vegetative or reproductive structures,
17 enhanced respiratory rates) or to expand the storage capacity or growth rate of existing
18 sinks (Aranjuelo et al., 2008). Taproots represent another potential C sink in legumes
19 such as alfalfa (Erice et al., 2007). This specific storage organ contains the most
20 important C and N (in perennial legumes) pools in the form of non-structural
21 carbohydrates, soluble proteins and amino acids (Volencic et al., 1996; Avice et al.,
22 2003; Meuriot et al., 2004b; Pembleton et al., 2010). Among the soluble proteins,
23 vegetative storage proteins (VSP) represent up to 40% of the total soluble proteins
24 (Avice et al., 1996b). A previous study analysing root performance under elevated CO₂
25 conditions in exclusively N₂ fixing alfalfa plants (Erice et al., 2007) highlighted a

1 specific increase in the VSP content. However, since this study did not characterise
2 nodule and leaf function in those plants, the implications of VSP content in relation to
3 nodule performance are unknown.

4
5 As mentioned above, photoassimilate partitioning toward nodules is a key point
6 conditioning nodule functioning (Voisin et al., 2003ab). Since legumes form a
7 symbiotic association with N₂-fixing bacteria, have an extra sink for any additional C
8 that can be exchanged with the bacterial symbiont to enhance N₂ fixation (Udvardi and
9 Day, 1997; Bertrand et al., 2007; Aranjuelo et al., 2013b). Studies conducted in
10 exclusively N₂ fixing alfalfa (Aranjuelo et al., 2008; Sanz-Sáez et al. 2010) and pea
11 plants (Cabrerizo et al., 2001) exposed to elevated CO₂ confirmed that nodule C sink
12 strength (reflected as a larger dry mass and carbohydrate content) increased. However,
13 such increases did not contribute to overcoming leaf carbohydrate build-up, with a
14 consequent reducing effect on the photosynthetic capacity of these plants (Cabrerizo et
15 al., 2001; Aranjuelo et al., 2008; Sanz-Sáez et al., 2010; Gillespie et al. 2012).

16
17 Concerning nodule functioning under elevated CO₂ conditions, a previous study
18 conducted in *Pisum sativum* showed that although more N₂ was fixed at the plant level,
19 the specific N₂ fixation of the nodules was not improved (Cabrerizo et al., 2001).
20 Furthermore, as it is shown in Fig. 4, the larger photosynthetic rates of plants exposed to
21 1000 μmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ were translated into larger nodule carbohydrate levels. Such an
22 increase was explained by the elevated activity of enzymes involved in C metabolism
23 like sucrose synthase, UDPG pyrophosphorylase and PEPc. However, this study also
24 showed that specific N₂ fixation, together with the activity of enzymes involved in N
25 metabolism such as glutamate synthase and aspartate aminotransferase, was not affected

1 by elevated CO₂ exposure. On the other hand, a study conducted in *Medicago sativa*
2 exposed to 700 μmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ revealed that although plant level N₂ fixation increased
3 under elevated CO₂, the larger photoassimilate availability did not contribute to
4 increases in specific nodule N₂ fixation (Aranjuelo et al., 2008). Moreover,
5 carbohydrate availability decreased in nodules of plants exposed to elevated CO₂.
6 According to the same study, the fact that MDH, ATT, PEPc and isocitrate
7 dehydrogenase (ICDH) activities decreased suggests that the deteriorated respiratory
8 mechanism also was involved in the decline in nodule performance. Furthermore, as
9 observed by other studies (Schulze et al., 1998; Nomura et al., 2006; Fischinger and
10 Schulze, 2010), the lower activity of these enzymes might be linked to the decrease in
11 dicarboxylic acids with key C-skeleton functions, which includes the malate required
12 for N assimilation (see Fig. 4). These studies suggested that organic acid limitations
13 were mainly attributed to compounds involved in N assimilation. This disparity in the
14 results reflected in the up/down-regulation of the same compounds of Fig. 4, could be
15 explained by the fact that legume responsiveness to the predicted CO₂ enhancement has
16 been described as dependent on environmental conditions, plant species and bacteria
17 strain (water availability, temperature, etc.) (Serraj et al., 1998; West et al., 2005;
18 Aranjuelo et al., 2008; 2009; Fischinger et al., 2010; Bertrand et al. 2011). The lower
19 shoot demand of plants exposed to elevated [CO₂] could be also involved in reduced
20 nodule functioning. According to Serraj et al. (1999), exposure of *Glycine max* to
21 elevated CO₂ that when the shoot N demand decreases, the concentration of N-
22 transporting solutes declines with a consequent accumulation of products associated
23 with the N₂ fixation in the nodules that negatively affected N_{ase} activity (Fig. 4).
24 Although in *Pisum sativum* exposed to elevated CO₂ a decrease in protein and free
25 amino acid content was also observed at the leaf level, which was opposite the

1 observations of (Serraj et al. 1999), no significant differences were observed in amino
2 acid content in nodules (Cabrerizo et al., 2001).
3
4 In addition to the photoassimilates partitioned from aboveground organs towards
5 nodules, recent studies (Fischinger and Schulze, 2010; Fischinger et al., 2010) suggest a
6 role of direct nodule CO₂ fixation in nodule and plant functioning under elevated CO₂.
7 As it is shown in Fig. 4, legume nodules fix substantial amounts of CO₂ largely through
8 the combined activity of carbonic anhydrase (CA) and PEPc, resulting in carboxylation
9 of phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) (Fischinger et al. 2010). In order to analyse the role of
10 nodule CO₂ fixation, these authors grew plants in a hydroponic system where the CO₂
11 concentration could be differentiated between above and below ground organs. After 3
12 weeks of exposure to high CO₂ conditions the authors observed that N₂ fixation
13 increased in the plants. Furthermore, the nodule and xylem amino acid content was also
14 observed to increase under these conditions. The increase was attributed to bigger
15 nodules and more efficient N₂ fixation. The enhancement of N₂ fixation was translated
16 into a larger biomass production in plants exposed to elevated CO₂. Interestingly, the
17 same authors also highlighted that the additional C skeletons provided by PEP
18 (Fischinger and Schulze 2010) improved the N assimilation and transport to shoots. As
19 shown in Fig. 4, according to the model proposed by (Fischinger and Schulze, 2010),
20 instead of entering the TCA cycle, PEP is carboxylated and transformed into
21 oxaloacetate (OAA), which is required for aspartate and asparagine synthesis. The
22 stimulation of such a pathway under elevated CO₂ conditions would imply a more
23 efficient use of C, N and energy.
24

1 Finally, we would also like to observe that in spite of previous characterisation of
2 oxidative status at the leaf level (Erice et al. 2007; Aranjuelo et al., 2008; Gillespie et al.
3 2012), to our knowledge no oxidative stress characterisation has been conducted in
4 nodules of legumes exposed to elevated CO₂ conditions. As also observed at the leaf
5 level, we should not ignore that antioxidant status was improved in the nodules of the
6 plants in these studies. Such findings highlight the importance of improving our
7 knowledge on this topic.

8

9 Despite some discrepancies, in general terms the literature indicates that larger leaf and
10 or plant level photosynthetic rates do not always reflect a larger nodule photoassimilate
11 availability. Bibliography highlights the relevance of [CO₂] to the organic acid content
12 and respiration of nodules. Aboveground protein depletion suggests that the
13 accumulation of N compounds could have also affected nodule functioning.

14

15 **7. Nodule performance under interacting abiotic conditions**

16 Most experiments analysing nodule functioning under changing environmental
17 conditions have been conducted in optimal growth conditions. However, analyses of the
18 CO₂ effect and its interaction with other environmental conditions are of great relevance
19 because the responsiveness of plants to enhanced CO₂ has been shown to differ with
20 temperature, and soil nutrient availability, etc. (Aranjuelo et al., 2006; Erice et al.,
21 2006). Moreover, in the field different stresses often occur simultaneously, such as high
22 temperatures and drought periods, especially in semi-arid or drought-stricken areas.
23 Investigations performed on field crops as well as on model plants subjected to
24 combined heat and drought stress have shown that the combination of these two stresses
25 has a stronger detrimental effect on plant growth and productivity compared to each

1 single stress (Valladares and Pearcy, 1997; Aranjuelo et al., 2006; Erice et al., 2006;
2 Annicchiarico et al., 2011). Since the main goal of those studies is to further understand
3 plant performance under predicted climate scenarios, it is important to conduct studies
4 as realistically as possible. This is why studies where plants are subjected to interacting
5 growth conditions are of great relevance.

6

7 *7.1 Elevated temperature and water availability*

8 A previous study conducted by Aranjuelo et al. (2007) analysed, the effect of elevated
9 temperature (25 versus 28.5 °C) and sustained low water availability (watered at 50 %
10 of control plants) in nodule performance. At the leaf level, the temperature increase
11 inhibited photosynthetic performance as a result of the lower Rubisco activity.
12 However, water availability had no effect on these parameters. TSS were also lower in
13 the leaves. At the nodule level, the plant fraction (compared to bacteroid fraction) was
14 more sensitive to temperature and water availability interactions. More specifically, our
15 data showed that although MDH and ATT activities increased in elevated temperature
16 under optimal water availability conditions, under low water availability a temperature
17 increase negatively affected PEPC and ATT activities. The absence of differences in
18 PEPC and ATT -specific activities showed that lower enzyme activities associated with
19 elevated temperature and drought were a consequence of depleted protein content.
20 These limitations might explain the inhibitory effect of elevated temperature on nitrogen
21 fixation. The absence of a temperature effect on TSS in nodule tissue in this experiment
22 suggests that decreased N content was not caused by a reduction in carbohydrate
23 supply.

24

25 *7.2 Elevated CO₂ and temperature effect*

1 In a previous study conducted by (Aranjuelo et al., 2008), exclusively N₂ fixing alfalfa
2 plants were exposed to elevated CO₂ (≈ 400 versus ≈ 700 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) and temperature
3 (≈ 19 versus ≈ 24 °C). This study showed that elevated CO₂ only increased plant
4 biomass in elevated temperature conditions as a consequence of their larger
5 photosynthetic rates. The study showed that although plants fixed more N₂ at the plant
6 level, the nodule N₂ fixation efficiency decreased, especially in elevated temperature
7 treatments. The lower efficiency in elevated CO₂ and temperature conditions was
8 explained by the depletion of nodule TSP content. Although the temperature increase
9 affected Rubisco content positively, the data suggested that such an increase did not
10 overcome the elevated CO₂-associated depletion in Rubisco content. Consequently, it is
11 very likely that regardless of ambient temperature, the lower shoot N demand was also
12 involved in the reduced nodule functioning. On the other hand, diminishment of nodule
13 starch content under elevated CO₂ conditions suggests that C skeleton availability could
14 be also linked to the lower N₂ fixing efficiency. Interestingly, this study indicated that
15 the larger amount of photoassimilates was invested in the production of more nodule
16 biomass and not in carbohydrate partitioning towards nodule metabolism.

17

18 *7.3 Elevated CO₂ and water availability*

19 The interaction of both factors in N₂ fixation has been considered in previous studies
20 (Cabrerizo et al. 2001; Serraj 2003a; Aranjuelo et al. 2008, Rogers et al. 2009). Serraj
21 (2003a) observed in *Glycine max* exposed to elevated CO₂, that although no significant
22 differences were detected in dry matter (DM) under fully watered conditions, droughted
23 plants exposed to 700 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ CO₂ produced more biomass than the corresponding
24 ambient CO₂ treatments. Furthermore, N₂ fixation proved to be more drought tolerant
25 than CO₂ fixation; it was only when the applied drought was severe that N₂ fixation

1 decreased. The fact that even under ambient CO₂ conditions the soluble sugar content
2 increased in drought conditions negated carbohydrate limitation as the main factor
3 conditioning N₂ fixation. Drought associated decreases in N₂ fixation have been linked
4 to increases in ureides, amides and other amino acids (Serraj et al., 2001; Serraj, 2003a;
5 Rogers et al., 2009). Decreased ureide levels detected in *Glycine max* nodules exposed
6 to elevated CO₂ and drought conditions by (Serraj, 2003a) showed that the maintenance
7 of shoot N demand contributed towards overcoming N feed-back inhibition of N_{ase}. The
8 higher carbohydrate levels detected in plants in this study suggests that more C was
9 available for synthesis or transport of N compounds such as ureides, and amino acids
10 etc. Although (Serraj, 2003a) did not provide any water status data, the lower stomatal
11 opening of plants exposed to elevated CO₂ should also be taken into account because it
12 suggests that in many experiments elevated CO₂ increased the time to reach a particular
13 water stress (De Luis et al., 1999; Rogers et al., 2009). Therefore, when analysing the
14 factors explaining the CO₂ x H₂O interaction and nodule functioning, such points should
15 be considered. A previous study conducted by (Aranjuelo et al., 2009) where
16 exclusively N₂ fixing *Medicago sativa* plants were grown under elevated CO₂ and
17 sustained low water availability (watered at 50 % of pot capacity), it was evident that
18 the CO₂ associated increase in DM was only observed in fully watered plants.
19 Interestingly, the data also suggested that the reduction in shoot N demand (reflected by
20 the TSP and especially Rubisco depletion) affected nodule activity negatively (MDH
21 and GOT) particularly in water-limited conditions. The higher content of TSS,
22 especially under optimal water availability conditions, means that the concept of C
23 limitations on nodules can be discarded.

24

25 **8. New methodologies for a greater understanding of nodules performance**

1 Knowledge of the molecular and physiological basis of plant-microbe interactions and
2 their responses to abiotic stress is of vital importance because it should lead to better
3 and more efficient nitrogen-fixing cultivars. In recent years the use of novel
4 methodologies (such as molecular genetics, metabolic analysis and isotope tracing) have
5 enabled significant progress in understanding the C and N exchange between plants and
6 nodules (Larrainzar et al., 2007; Marino et al., 2007; Aranjuelo et al. 2013a). However,
7 as mentioned above, much remains to be learned about the biochemical and
8 physiological basis of the functioning of nodules and their interaction with plants.
9 Therefore, experiments combining different methodologies of studying plants and
10 microbes in an integrated way are preferred so that a broader view can be seen. Among
11 other methodologies, recent advances in nodule proteomics, metabolomics and
12 fluxomics have provided novel information concerning nodule functioning within a
13 Climate Change context.

14

15 *8.1 Transcriptomics*

16 Molecular bases involved in adaptations to different abiotic constraints can be explored
17 using genomic tools (such as transcriptomics) in order to have a genome-wide scale of
18 stress responses (Gruber et al., 2009; Sanchez et al., 2010; Kang et al., 2011; Zahaf et
19 al. 2012).

20 Recently, transcriptome analysis of legumes have identify different genes that respond
21 to drought (Buitinik et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2008; Foito et al., 2009; Kang et al., 2011),
22 salt stress (Zahaf et al., 2012; Postnikova et al., 2013), high temperatures (Soares-
23 Cavalcanti et al., 2012) and elevated CO₂ (Ainsworth et al., 2006). In general, hundreds
24 or thousands of gene expression appear to be altered under changing environmental
25 conditions. Several groups of stress-regulated genes have been found to be altered under

1 droughted. As an example genes involved in ABA biosynthesis and osmotic adjustment,
2 antioxidants, genes encoding vegetative storage proteins and raffinose biosynthesis
3 (Foito et al., 2009; Kang et al., 2011). The importance of the expression of genes related
4 with root growth under salt conditions has also been remarked as an important adaptive
5 factor (Zahaf et al., 2012). In general, complementary transcriptomics and proteomics or
6 metabolomics studies tend to be more integrative to understand global responses to
7 different stresses.

8 In this sense, the current Gene Expression Atlas project (MtGEA) dealing with the
9 characterization of gene expression profiles for the majority of *M. truncatula* genes
10 covering different organs (such as roots, nodules, stems, petioles, leaves, flowers, etc.)
11 will be characterized when subjected to various kinds of abiotic and biotic stresses.
12 Once the annotation of the *M. truncatula* genome will be complete (Boscari et al.,
13 2013), this could represent an useful resource for legume functional genomics, which
14 will aid gene function determination, biological discovery, and molecular breeding
15 efforts. (Benedito et al., 2008; He et al., 2009).

16 8.2 Proteomics

17 Proteome is a reference to the total set of proteins encoded by the genome of an
18 organism; “proteomics” can be understood as the global study of the proteins
19 comprising the proteome, including the changes in structure and abundance in response
20 to developmental and environmental conditions. Currently, most of the studies
21 analysing nodule protein performance in N₂ fixing plants have been focused on specific
22 proteins such as N_{ase}, PEPC, ATT, MDH, ICDH, GS and GOGAT. However, recent
23 proteomic characterisations conducted in *Medicago truncatula* (Larrainzar et al., 2007;
24 2009) and *Medicago sativa* (Aranjuelo et al., 2013a) exposed to drought conditions
25 reveal that in addition to those proteins, the nodule protein profile was much more

1 affected. In case of *Medicago truncatula* a decline in the levels of bacteroid proteins
2 involved in BNF and C metabolism was observed, along with an up-regulation in
3 protein biosynthesis, probably as an adaptation to the water deficit imposed. In contrast,
4 the variations in enzymes related to N assimilation were found to not correlate with the
5 reduction in BNF, suggesting that these enzymes do not have a role in the regulation of
6 N₂ fixation. In the case of *Medicago sativa*, the proteomic approach revealed the
7 stimulation of the anaplerotic pathway, which could have contributed towards
8 sustaining the provision of C skeletons for amino acid synthesis (e.g. glutamate and
9 proline). These studies highlight the fact that the direct evaluation of protein expression
10 through proteomic analyses and the application of integrated system approaches are
11 highly advantageous for the identification of key proteins involved in plant
12 responsiveness to varying environmental conditions. However, despite their relevance,
13 proteomic characterisations conducted in N₂ fixing nodules are still scarce.

14

15 8.3 Metabolomics

16 The metabolism of plants is highly flexible and can be conditioned by different factors
17 (genetic, environmental, spatial, etc.) that will determine the identity and abundance of
18 different metabolites (Fiehn et al., 2008). Under drought conditions, many metabolites,
19 such as hexoses, are believed simply to accumulate (Muller et al. 2011, and references
20 therein). Further, minor sugars (e.g. trehalose and mannitol), amino acids (e.g. proline),
21 and organic acids (e.g. malate, fumarate, and isocitrate) also appear to accumulate under
22 water restriction. Although recent publications include a more detailed metabolomic
23 characterisation (Larrainzar et al., 2009; Aranjuelo et al., 2011; Kang et al, 2011),
24 metabolite patterns and their coordinated changes between plant compartments are
25 unclear. The influence of drought on nodule metabolic pathways and associated changes

1 in metabolite exchange between nodules and other plant organs (which may also cause
2 some metabolic pools to vary) are still uncertain. Although, metabolomics is expected
3 to provide new insights into plant's performance, metabolic profiling gives a snapshot
4 of one plant/organ/tissue state at a given moment.

5

6 *8.4 Stable isotopes*

7 Different technologies have been used to monitor metabolic fluxes (Suthers et al., 2007;
8 Sekiyama and Kikichi, 2007) and the use of labelling strategies combined with stable
9 isotope analysis seems to be a good tool to enhance our understanding of metabolic
10 dynamics. The stable isotopic composition of carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) has proved to be a very
11 useful tool that provides relevant information on the exchange of C/N between the
12 different organs of legumes (Avice et al., 1996a; Voisin et al., 2003b; Meuriot et al.,
13 2004a; Aranjuelo et al., 2008; Fischinger and Schulze, 2010), cereals (Schnyder 1992;
14 Gebbing et al., 1998; Aranjuelo et al., 2011). Plants grown in environments with
15 modified isotopic composition incorporate the tracer in C/N-containing compounds of
16 the plant (Avice et al., 1996; Molero et al., 2011) providing essential information about
17 the C and N sinks to which the recently fixed C/N is delivered. Isotopes enable two
18 powerful approaches: (1) dynamic analysis of time-course data for the distribution of an
19 isotopic label, and (2) steady-state analysis of metabolic labelling patterns under
20 conditions of isotopic steady state. Pulse labelling of the organ or the cell with a tracer,
21 such as ^{15}N and ^{13}C , enables analysis of the further partitioning of the label into
22 different compounds of different plant organs (Aranjuelo et al. 2009b; 2011; 2013a).
23 During recent years, new protocols have been developed to analyse the isotopic
24 composition of specific compounds such as proteins, amino acids and sugars (especially
25 glucose, fructose and sucrose) (Voisin et al., 2003; Molero et al., 2011). The

1 development of those protocols has provided key information concerning the C and N
2 exchange between leaves and nodules. A recent study (Molero et al., 2011) conducted in
3 exclusively N₂ fixing alfalfa plants labelled with ¹²C and ¹⁵N₂ revealed that the isotopic
4 enrichment of ¹⁵N₂ in amino acids was greater for leaves than for nodules, suggesting
5 that part of the fixed N₂ was recruited to protein synthesis in the nodule or was in the
6 form of NH₃ (Molero et al., 2011). Furthermore, this study also allowed the
7 identification of the distribution of C and N among amino acids, and between the plant
8 and the symbiont, in different amino acid metabolic pathways. Furthermore, for the first
9 time, ¹²C and ¹⁵N₂ labelling revealed that GABA and glycine were major C-transporting
10 amino acids from the leaves to the nodules.

11

12 **9. Future and perspectives**

13 Biological nitrogen fixation (BNF) constitutes one of the potential N-source solutions
14 for farmers using little or no fertiliser, and it plays a key role in sustainable legume
15 production. In order to have a real impact on farmers' fields, it is important to fully
16 understand the mechanisms by which legumes resist or tolerate drought, high
17 temperature, salinity etc. The fact that as it is summarized in this manuscript,
18 carbohydrate availability and oxidative stress are common processes conditioning
19 nodule performance under drought and salinity conditions, highlights the relevancy of
20 those factors in the correct nodule functioning. Similarly, shoot N demand has also been
21 identified as a target point limiting nodules performance in plants exposed to drought
22 and elevated [CO₂]. Although the current knowledge identifies carbohydrate
23 availability, oxidative stress and shoot N demand like key processes conditioning
24 nodule performance, absence of complete characterization in wide spectra of
25 environmental conditions reveals the need to increase our knowledge in this topic. A

1 better knowledge on those processes could be of great importance for future breeding
2 programmes.

3

4 The advances in our understanding of abiotic resistance together with the application of
5 genomics - i.e. molecular markers developed during genomics projects (i.e. Legume
6 Crops Genome Initiative (LCGI), Gepts et al., 2005) - will assist breeders in developing
7 new, resistant cultivars. Breeding programs that aim to release commercially successful
8 varieties typically grow different genotypes in a target set of environments in order to
9 undertake phenotypic selection for forage yield, better performance under favorable or
10 unfavorable conditions. The combination between current phenotypic selection and the
11 recent incorporation of molecular marker assisted breeding could accelerate alfalfa
12 improvement (Li and Brummer, 2012). Therefore it is important to consider the genetic
13 variability in plant and bacteria resistance/tolerance to abiotic stresses individually and
14 the genetic variability in the interaction between the plant and the bacteria. Recently,
15 techniques have been developed to utilize marker assisted selection in alfalfa breeding
16 programs (Mengoni et al., 2000; Flajoulot et al., 2005). As it has been shown in this
17 review, For this propose, the understanding of molecular mechanisms involved in the
18 response of plants to the combination of two of the most deleterious stresses could lead
19 to the development of new strategies and tools for enhancing stress tolerance via genetic
20 manipulation, as already demonstrated by the improved plant stress tolerance achieved
21 by ectopic expression or over-expression of several stress induced genes. There is the
22 need to further analyse plant stress responses at the molecular level due to the
23 complexity of events associated with the sensing of stress and the activation of specific
24 pathways. This complexity is even greater when a combination of different stresses such
25 as water x N availability x temperature x CO₂ are simultaneously applied. The

1 application of “omic” methodologies (in combination with the more classical agronomic
2 and physiological studies) might contribute to the elucidation of mechanisms
3 responsible for plant responsiveness to changing climate. The combination of
4 physiology, metabolomics, proteomics and gene expression analyses will provide us
5 key information concerning the plant mechanisms that condition the best or worst
6 performance under a wide range of Climate Change conditions.

7

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14

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Model representing the most visible changes in carbon and nitrogen primary metabolism of leaves, roots, and nodules of exclusively N₂ fixing plants exposed to drought. This figure is a tentative summary representing the main findings described in the literature. Thick and broken arrows represent (respectively) increased and decreased pathways. Arrows up (↑) and down (↓) represent compounds whose content is up or down regulated. Aa, amino acids; A_n, net photosynthesis; Asn, asparagine; C_i, intercellular CO₂ concentration; ETC, electron transport chain; g_s, stomatal conductance; Lb, leghemoglobin; N_{ase}, nitrogenase; Pro, proline; PSI, photosystem I; PSII, photosystem II; ROS, reactive oxygen species; Suc, sucrose; SuSy, sucrose synthase; TCA, tricarboxylic acid pathway; VSP, vegetative storage protein.

Figure 2. Model representing the most visible changes in carbon and nitrogen primary metabolism of leaves, roots, and nodules of exclusively N₂ fixing plants exposed to salinity. This figure is a tentative summary representing the main findings described by the bibliography. Broken arrows represent decreased pathways. Arrows up (↑) and down (↓) represent compounds whose content is up or down regulated. Question marks (?) refer to parameters whose performance is scarcely known. Asn, asparagine; ETC, electron transport channel; Lb, leghemoglobin; N_{ase}, nitrogenase; ROS, reactive oxygen species; Suc, sucrose; SuSy, sucrose synthase; TCA, tricarboxylic acid pathway.

Figure 3. Model representing the most visible changes in carbon and nitrogen primary metabolism of leaves, roots, and nodules of exclusively N₂ fixing plants exposed to elevate temperature. This figure is a tentative summary representing the main findings described by the bibliography. Broken arrows represent decreased pathways. Arrows up (↑) and down (↓) represent compounds whose content is up or down regulated. Question marks (?) refer to parameters whose performance is scarcely known. A_n, net photosynthesis; Asn, asparagine; ATT; aspartate aminotransferase; C_i, intercellular CO₂ concentration; ETC, electron transport channel; g_s, stomatal conductance; Lb, leghemoglobin; MDH, malate dehydrogenase; N_{ase}, nitrogenase; RWC, relative water content; Suc, sucrose; TCA, tricarboxylic acid pathway; TSP, total soluble proteins.

Figure 4. Model representing the most visible changes in carbon and nitrogen primary metabolism of leaves, roots, and nodules of exclusively N₂ fixing plants exposed to elevated CO₂. This figure is a tentative summary representing the main findings

described by the bibliography. Thick arrows represent enhanced pathways. Arrows up (↑) and down (↓) represent compounds whose content is up or down regulated. Question marks (?) refer to parameters whose performance is scarcely known. Aa, amino acid; A_n, net photosynthesis; Asn, asparagine; Asp, aspartate; C_i, intercellular CO₂ concentration; ETC, electron transport channel; g_s, stomatal conductance; Lb, leghemoglobine; N_{ase}, nitrogenase; OAA, oxalacetate; PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate; PSI, photosystem I; PSII, photosystem II; ROS, reactive oxygen species; Suc, sucrose; SuSy, sucrose synthase; TCA, tricarboxylic acid pathway; TSS, total soluble sugars; VAZ, violoxhantine, enteraxantine and zeaxanine cycle; VSP, vegetative storage protein.

Figure 1.

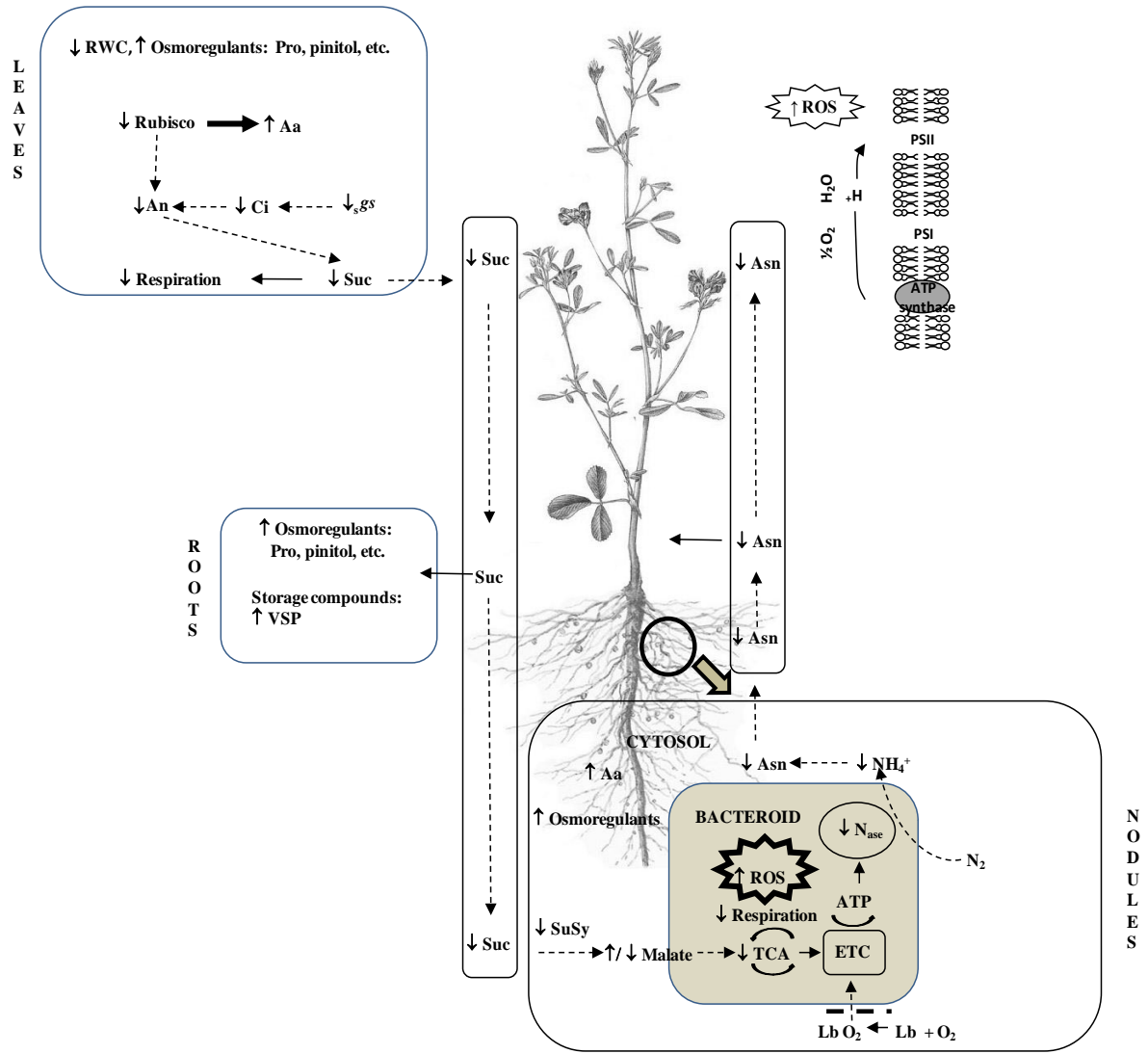


Figure 2.

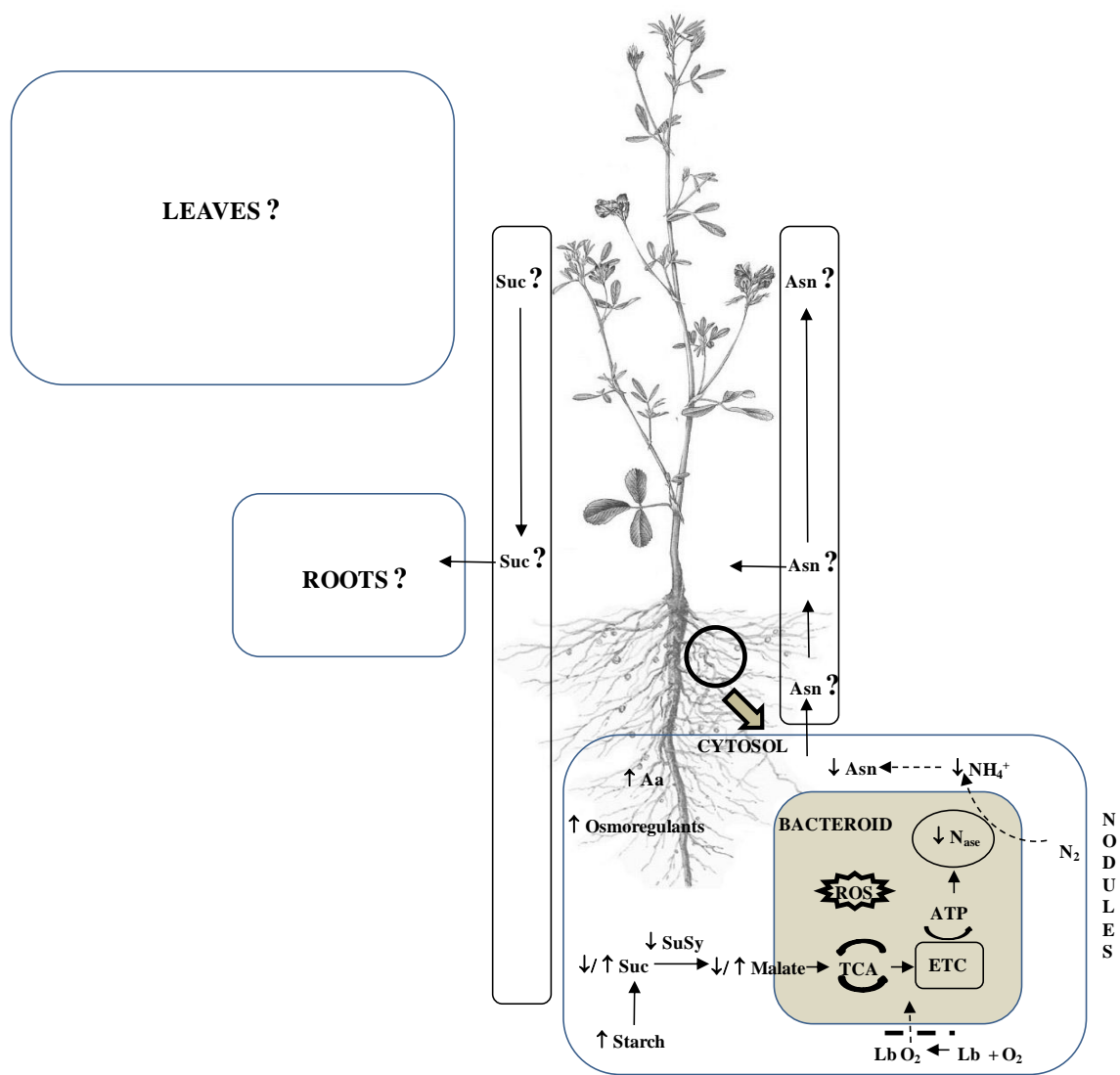


Figure 3.

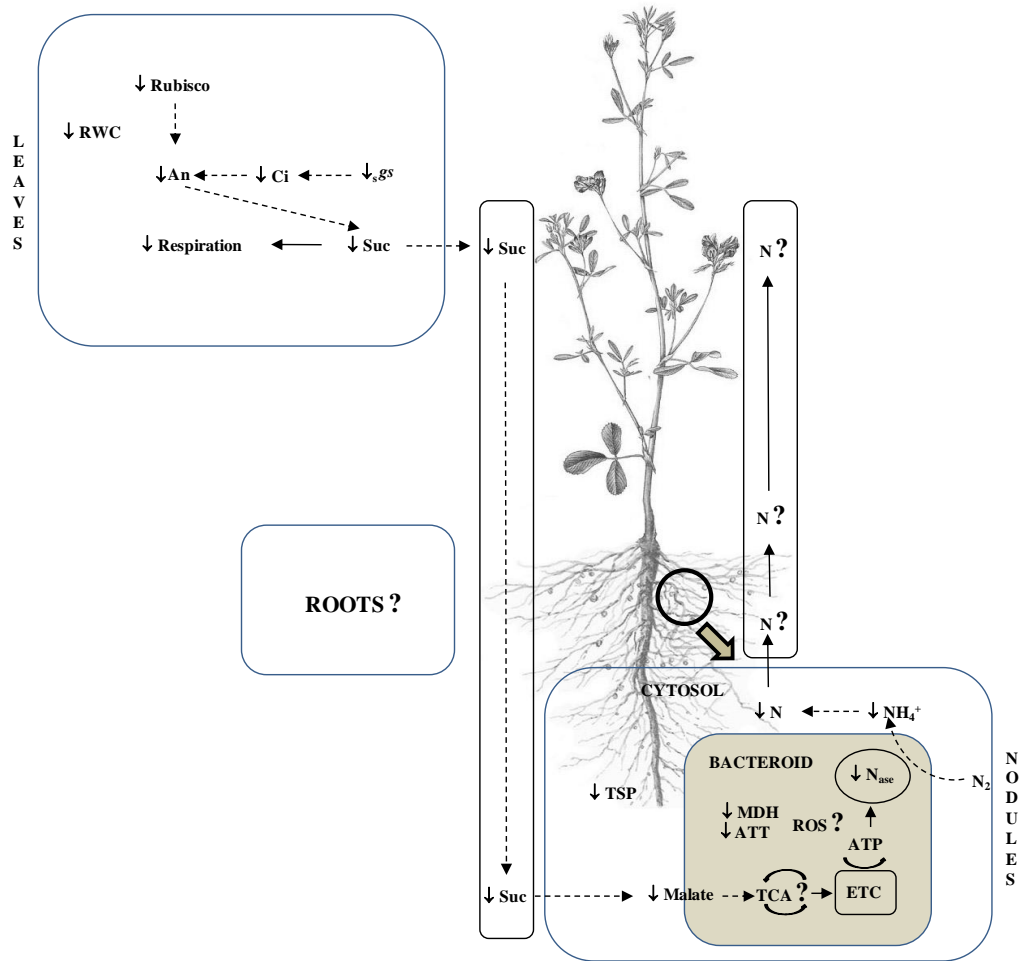


Figure 4.

