

Mutation in sorghum LOW GERMINATION STIMULANT 1 alters strigolactones and causes Striga resistance

Daniel Gobena^a, Mahdere Shimels^b, Patrick J. Rich^a, Carolien Ruyter-Spira^b, Harro Bouwmeester^b, Satish Kanuganti^a, Tesfaye Mengiste^c, and Gebisa Ejeta^{a,1}

^aDepartment of Agronomy, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907; ^bLaboratory of Plant Physiology, Wageningen University, 6708 PB Wageningen, The Netherlands; and ^cDepartment of Botany and Plant Pathology, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907

Edited by Ronald L. Phillips, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN, and approved March 16, 2017 (received for review November 17, 2016)

Striga is a major biotic constraint to sorghum production in semiarid tropical Africa and Asia. Genetic resistance to this parasitic weed is the most economically feasible control measure. Mutant alleles at the LGS1 (LOW GERMINATION STIMULANT 1) locus drastically reduce Striga germination stimulant activity. We provide evidence that the responsible gene at LGS1 codes for an enzyme annotated as a sulfotransferase and show that functional loss of this gene results in a change of the dominant strigolactone (SL) in root exudates from 5-deoxystrigol, a highly active Striga germination stimulant, to orobanchol, an SL with opposite stereochemistry. Orobanchol, although not previously reported in sorghum, functions in the multiple SL roles required for normal growth and environmental responsiveness but does not stimulate germination of Striga. This work describes the identification of a gene regulating Striga resistance and the underlying protective chemistry resulting from mutation.

Striga | strigolactone | gene | sorghum | stereochemistry

nfestation by the parasitic weed *Striga (Striga asiatica* and *Striga hermonthica*) is a serious constraint to the production of sorghum (Sorghum bicolor), a staple cereal crop grown widely across sub-Saharan Africa and the Indian subcontinent. Global estimates of Striga's human toll are lacking. An earlier report by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations focused on West Africa estimated that the livelihoods of 300 million people were negatively affected by the pest (1). Conservative extrapolation from a recent report on losses to Striga in rice (2) puts the economic impact on cereal production in sub-Saharan Africa at \$1.2 billion annually with losses increasing by \$177 million per year. Most of these losses are borne by subsistence farmers (3). Genetic resistance to this pest through low Striga germination stimulant activity provides control and permits economic production of this crop (4). Because it is an obligate root parasite, Striga seed will not germinate unless it receives a chemical cue from a potential host plant (5). Among chemicals identified in sorghum root exudates with Striga germination stimulant activity, the most potent are the strigolactones (SLs), a class of related compounds used by most terrestrial plants as hormones to regulate shoot (6) and root (7) branching. Their presence in root exudates is critical to symbiotic colonization by arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi (8). Associations with AM fungi greatly improve the performance of sorghum under nutrient and water deficits (9). Striga seems to have taken advantage of this signaling to detect its proximity to sorghum roots, germinating at the proper time and place to increase its chances of completing its life cycle on this preferred host. Sorghum produces several SLs and exudes them from its roots, particularly under conditions of limited phosphate and nitrogen, probably in attempt to promote mycorrhizal association (10). Among the SLs reported to be present in sorghum root exudates are sorgolactone, strigol, 5-deoxystrigol, and sorgomol (10-13) (Fig. 1). These compounds differ from each other by various substitutions on the A and B rings but share a common stereochemistry with respect to the β-orientation of their C rings (14). *Striga* is quite sensitive to these SLs, able to germinate at concentrations as low as 10^{-11} M (15), depending on the particular SL (16).

To facilitate the identification and characterization of resistance to Striga, our laboratory developed bioassays that allow observations of the parasitic association at its earliest stages, normally hidden below ground. Among these is the agar gel assay wherein the Striga germination stimulant activity of sorghum accessions can be quantified based on the distance between the sorghum root and germinating Striga seed in agar (17). This useful assay has resulted in the development and release of several *Striga*-resistant sorghum varieties with low germination stimulant activity (18). Although not all sorghum lines showing field resistance to Striga had low Striga germination stimulant activity, all low-stimulant sorghums that were field-tested showed Striga resistance (18). Low Striga germination stimulant activity has been an important resistance trait in sorghum improvement but less so in other crop hosts of Striga such as maize, millet, and rice (4). Genetic studies have shown that inheritance of low Striga germination stimulant activity in sorghum is through a mutant allele (lgs) expressed in homozygous recessive individuals (19). The Striga-resistant sorghum variety SRN39 carrying this mutation was mated with a Chinese landrace Shanqui Red, with high germination stimulant activity, to generate a genetic mapping population of 600 recombinant inbred lines (RILs). In a previous genotypic and phenotypic evaluation of 328 RILs by the agar gel assay we created a genetic map with 428 markers, placing the LGS1 (LOW GERMINATION STIMULANT 1) locus in a region near the tip of chromosome 5 with fine mapping that delimited it to a 30-gene region (20).

Significance

The parasitic weed *Striga* is the greatest biological constraint to production of many crops in Africa and parts of Asia. Genetic control is the most feasible means of crop protection from this pest. We report on identification of a gene regulating *Striga* resistance in sorghum and the associated change in strigolactone chemistry. Knowing this gene and its various natural alleles, sorghum breeders can design markers within it to facilitate its transfer into improved varieties providing farmers effective control of *Striga* in infested fields. The gene could also be used to potentially improve *Striga* resistance through genome editing in crops such as maize that evolved away from *Striga*, and hence have a paucity of *Striga* resistance genes.

Author contributions: C.R.-S., H.B., T.M., and G.E. designed research; D.G., M.S., P.J.R., and S.K. performed research; D.G., M.S., P.J.R., and S.K. analyzed data; and D.G., M.S., P.J.R., C.R.-S., H.B., S.K., T.M., and G.E. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

Freely available online through the PNAS open access option.

Data deposition: Sequence reads from the *LGS1* region of Shanqui Red, SRN39, 555, IS7777, and Tetron have been deposited with the National Center for Biotechnology Information Short Read Archive (accession no. SRP098704).

 ^{1}To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: gejeta@purdue.edu.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10. 1073/pnas.1618965114/-/DCSupplemental.

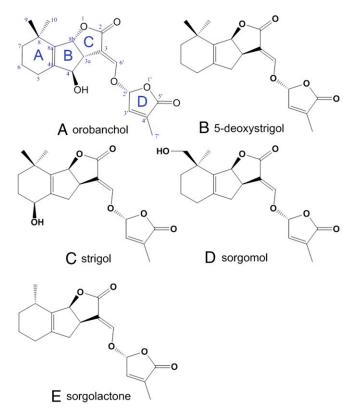


Fig. 1. Chemical structures of SLs found in sorghum root exudates. Orobanchol (A) has not been previously reported in sorghum. Note the enantiomeric orientation of its C-ring (α-orientation) with respect to the other SLs (β-orientation), 5-deoxystrigol (B), strigol (C), sorgomol (D), and sorgolactone (E), previously reported in sorghum root exudates.

Much has been learned over the past decade about biosynthesis of SLs, particularly since their roles as growth regulators were discovered. The SLs are derived from β-carotene through a series of isomerization, cleavage, oxidation, and cyclization steps to form the four distinctive rings of the SLs (21, 22). Four enzymes have been identified to be involved in these steps: DWARF27 (D27), a carotenoid isomerase that converts all-trans-β-carotene to 9-cis-β-carotene that can be cleaved by CAROTENOID CLEAVAGE DIOXYGENASE 7 (CCD7) to form 9-cis-β-apo-10'-carotenal, which is converted by CAROTENOID CLEAVAGE DIOXYGENASE 8 (CCD8) to carlactone, which contains the A- and D-rings and is, in rice, subsequently oxidized by an ortholog of the Arabidopsis MORE AXILLARY BRANCHES 1 (MAX1), to the first canonical rice SL, 4-deoxyorobanchol (ent-2'-epi-5-deoxystrigol) (22). Mutant alleles at these loci were identified by plant growth phenotypes that affected shoot branching in model species. Less is known about the later steps of SL biosynthesis, particularly how the additions and/or modifications to functional groups on the member rings occurs. It has been assumed that 5-deoxystrigol is the proto-SL for the strigol-type SLs, having a β-oriented C-ring, and 4-deoxyorobanchol for the orobanchol-type SLs, with the C-ring in α -orientation (22, 23). Both groups have the D-ring in Rconfiguration around the chiral center at C-2' (21). A major SL in rice root exudates is orobanchol (Fig. 1A), and all other SLs present in this species share the same stereochemistry with respect to the spatial orientation of the C-ring (14, 24). Other plants, including tobacco (Nicotiana tabaccum), exude both types of SLs (14). For sorghum and many other plant species from which SLs have been described, the stereochemistries of their SLs have not always been determined. However, all SLs reported in the root exudates of sorghum (12), including 5-deoxystrigol, strigol, sorgomol, and sorgolactone, are of the strigol type (Fig. 1).

Because mutation at LGS1 causes a change in Striga germination stimulant activity, but without obvious changes to sorghum shoot architecture, we made quantitative and qualitative comparisons of SLs in the root exudates of mutant and WT lines.

Striga Germination Stimulation and SLs. Diverse lines were classified for Striga resistance, based on the germination distance of Striga embedded in agar from the sorghum root as having high maximum germination distance (MGD >10 mm; Shangui Red, Fig. 24) or low (MGD <10 mm; SRN39, 555, IS7777, SC103, and Tetron) Striga germination stimulant activity with four Striga sources (Table 1). Low-stimulant genotype SRN39 (Fig. 2B), when crossed with high-germination stimulant lines, always result in F₁ hybrids with high Striga germination stimulant activity, affirming the recessive nature of the lgs1 mutation. Complementation tests between SRN39 and all of the low germination stimulant lines in this study indicate that they all carry mutations at a common locus because no complementation occurs in their hybrids, that is, all such hybrid plants produce low *Striga* germination stimulant responses (Table 1). The difference in resistance between low- and high-stimulant varieties is also apparent when lines are cultivated under Striga infestation. SRN39 and its derivatives determined in the agar assay to have low Striga germination stimulant activity also support fewer parasites in field plots (Fig. 2C).

SL profiles of root exudates from lgs1 variants consistently display reduced 5-deoxystrigol and enhanced orobanchol levels relative to WT LGS1 root exudates (Fig. 3). Comparison of retention times and mass transitions of dominant SLs in sorghum root exudates with standards of known stereochemistry confirmed the

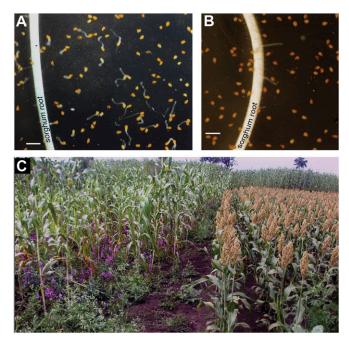


Fig. 2. Striga resistance phenotypes of LGS1 variants. Sorghum seedlings with high Striga germination stimulant activity (A) will germinate conditioned S. asiatica seeds cocultured in agar, a centimeter or more from its root as the germination stimulant, 5-deoxystrigol, diffuses through the medium. Low-stimulant sorghum that exudes orobanchol instead of 5-deoxystrigol will not cause S. asiatica seeds to germinate in the agar gel assay, even very near its roots (B). (Scale bars, 1 mm.) The photograph (C) shows an LGS1 WT high-stimulant sorghum (left) growing next to a line (right) carrying the Igs1-1 allele in a field infested with S. hermonthica (purple flowers) in Ethiopia.

Table 1. Measures of the *Striga* germination stimulant activity of sorghum lines and hybrids used for genetic mapping of *LGS1*

| Sorghum line or hybrid | <i>S. asiatica</i> (Derashe, Ethiopia) | S. asiatica (North Carolina) | <i>S. hermonthica</i> (Samanko, Mali) | S. hermonthica (Sinnar, Sudan) |
|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Shanqui Red | 15.5 ± 5.0 | 19.8 ± 3.0 | 19.6 ± 5.2 | 21.2 ± 3.6 |
| SRN39 | 0 ± 0 | 1.9 ± 1.8 | 0.1 ± 0.2 | 0.1 ± 0.2 |
| 555 | 0 ± 0 | 0.5 ± 0.5 | 1.3 ± 2.2 | 0 ± 0 |
| IS7777 | 0 ± 0 | 0 ± 0 | 3.8 ± 1.7 | 2.1 ± 2.1 |
| Tetron | 1.2 ± 2.7 | 4.3 ± 1.5 | 1.4 ± 1.9 | 2.5 ± 3.9 |
| SC103 | | | | 3.4 ± 2.7 |
| (SRN39 × Shanqui Red)F ₁ | | | | 10.9 ± 2.3 |
| $(SRN39 \times 555)F_1$ | | | | 0.2 ± 0.3 |
| $(SRN39 \times IS7777)F_1$ | | | | 6.6 ± 2.8 |
| $(SRN39 \times Tetron)F_1$ | | | | 7.1 ± 2.6 |
| (SRN39 × SC103)F ₁ | | | | 3.1 ± 2.5 |

MGD (millimeters) as measured in the agar gel assay (discussed in the text); MGD >10 mm indicates high *Striga* germination stimulant activity; MGD <10 mm indicates low *Striga* germination stimulant activity. Values are means of measures from three plates \pm one SD.

β-orientation of the C-ring in 5-deoxystrigol of lines carrying LGSI and α-orientation in orobanchol of those with lgsI (Fig. 4). RILs with low germination stimulant activity have inherited the low 5-deoxystrigol/high orobanchol profile, whereas those with high germination stimulant activity always contain a threshold level of 5-deoxystrigol and do not accumulate orobanchol, confirming the identity of the gene and the link to this profile (Table S1).

Because SLs serve other functions contributing to crop productivity (6–9), selecting for mutations that knock out SL production may have undesirable outcomes such as excessive shoot branching or impairment of mycorrhization. Sorghum lines examined in this study carrying lgs1 alleles all had similar SL exudation rates, typically around 2,000 pmol per plant over the 48-h collection period. Although the stereochemistry of the major SL in these exudates profoundly affected Striga germination stimulant activity, other SL functions seem to be unchanged by the mutation. Adult SRN39 plants on average have the same number of basal tillers (one) as Shanqui Red at 0.5-m spacing in a field row. The two lines also do not greatly differ in the degree to which their roots are colonized by three AM fungal species, Rhizophagus intraradices, Rhizophagus clarus, and Rhizophagus custos, alone or in combination (Fig. S1). Mutation at LGS1 results in both quantitative and qualitative changes in SL content of root exudates, effectively lowering Striga germination stimulant activity without negative productivity side effects.

A search for polymorphisms in PCR products between the parents of the RILs contrasting for *Striga* germination stimulant activity, Shanqui Red and SRN39, allowed genotyping with eight new markers (Table S2) to refine the position of *LGS1* on the sorghum genetic map. Polymorphisms resulting in PCR product size differences were scored by gel electrophoresis. Most (95%) polymorphic markers in the region cosegregated with the respective trait (RILs with Shanqui Red alleles had high *Striga* germination stimulant activity, whereas those with SRN39 alleles had low germination stimulant activity). The informative recombinants allowed us to rule out several gene candidates.

For a cluster of candidate genes from position 69,977,147–70,011,172 on the sorghum chromosome 5 physical map (Phytozome, Sorghum bicolor v3.1, DOE-JGI), a PCR product could not be obtained from SRN39, so the five genes predicted in this region (*Sobic.005G213500* to *Sobic.005G213832*) could not be scored, except as a presence/absence polymorphism. Whole-genome sequencing of the parents revealed that this five-gene region is deleted in SRN39 (Fig. 5 and Table S3). The allele carried by SRN39 is given the designation *lgs1-1*. We also sequenced whole genomes of several unrelated low *Striga* germination stimulant lines

in our collection. Examining genomic sequence of this region from these natural variants determined to be allelic to SRN39, we found that the allele in 555, *lgs1-2* also has a large deletion here, but slightly shifted away from the chromosome tip, spanning the position 69,958,403–69,986,951, and therefore missing three predicted genes, *Sobic.005G213400*, *Sobic.005G213500*, and *Sobic.005G213600*. Its deletion overlapped with that of SRN39 for two genes, *Sobic.005G213500* (*Sb05g026540*), coding for an uncharacterized protein with a functional domain similar to an iron/ascorbate oxidoreductase, and *Sobic.005G213600* (*Sb05g026550*), whose uncharacterized product is predicted to have a sulfotransferase domain. A third allele, *lgs1-3*, with overlapping deletion occurs in IS7777, at Chr05:69,981,523..70,011,172, resulting in a loss of four genes, *Sobic.005G213600*, *Sobic.005G213700*, *Sobic.005G213766*, and *Sobic.005G213832*. The common deleted gene for all these alleles

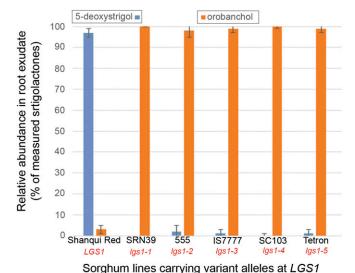


Fig. 3. Chemical phenotypes of *LGS1* variants. SL profiles of root exudates from sorghum Shanqui Red (*LGS1*) with high *Striga* germination stimulant activity, and of five low-stimulant lines with mutant alleles at SRN39 (*Igs1-1*), 555 (*Igs1-2*), IS7777 (*Igs1-3*), SC103 (*Igs1-4*), and Tetron (*Igs1-5*) are shown. Specific SL quantifications are expressed in relative abundance (percent of total measured SLs) in each exudate. Although the absolute amount of the most abundant SL varies from run to run, typical values for 5-deoxystrigol in Shanqui Red or orobanchol in SRN39 are around 2,000 pmol per plant per 48 h. Values are averages of four measures from independent runs \pm one SD.

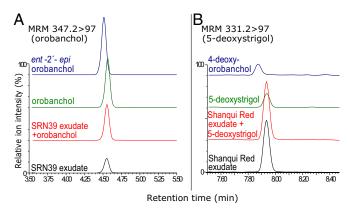


Fig. 4. UPLC-MS-MS determination of identity of major SLs in SRN39 (low Striga germination stimulant activity) and Shangui Red (high Striga germination stimulant activity). Channels in the chromatograms monitor the mass transitions associated with loss of the D-ring (m/z 97) as SLs come off the UPLC column. The major SL in SRN39 root exudate (A) coelutes with authentic orobanchol, not its enantiomer, ent-2'-epi-orobanchol. The more typical sorghum SL with a β-orientation, 5-deoxystrigol, is the major one in Shangui Red root exudate (B). This authentic standard is resolved from the α -oriented enantiomer, 4-deoxyorobanchol.

is Sobic.005G213600, which codes for the sulfotransferase. Sulfotransferases catalyze the transfer of a sulfate group from the universal donor 3'-phosphoadenosine 5'-phosphosulfate (PAPS) to a hydroxyl or amide group of its substrate (25). Several PCR primer pairs designed based on the reference genome sequence to amplify portions of Sobic.005G213600 were used to test a diverse collection of sorghum lines with high and low Striga germination stimulant activity. An amplicon was always present for the target locus among accessions with high Striga germination stimulant activity but missing in accessions with low Striga germination stimulant activity determined to be allelic to SRN39.

An exception to this association was observed in the allelic low-germination stimulant lines, SC103 and Tetron, in which at least some amplicons were obtained from PCR primers targeting this gene. Examining the genomic sequence from Sobic.005G213600 from these two accessions revealed deletions within the predicted coding region that cause frameshift mutations (Fig. 5, Table S3, and Fig. S2). The more obvious mutation is in SC103, which contains an allele, Igs1-4, having a 421-bp deletion in the second exon. This deletion not only results in a 137-aa residue loss in the predicted protein but also introduces a stop codon 46 residues downstream such that the resulting gene product, if it were translated, would be a protein 244 residues shorter than the WT protein. Tetron contains an allele, lgs1-5, with a 10-bp deletion 18 bp upstream of the deleted area of SC103 in the second exon, causing a frameshift that would introduce a stop codon after 39 aberrant residues beyond the deletion. A translated product of this mutant allele would therefore be missing 259 residues relative to the WT gene product (Fig. S2). Both of these mutations occur within the annotated sulfotransferase domain of the gene (residues 138-439). The one in Tetron destroys the 5' PAPS binding motif (PKSGTTW, Fig. S2) highly conserved in all sulfotransferases (26). The conserved PAPS binding residues near the end of the protein (FRKGKVGDWKNYMTPDM) would be missing in both mutant peptides (Fig. S2). Therefore, all described lgs1 alleles would lack a functional sulfotransferase product from Sobic.005G213600.

Expression of Sobic.005G213600. Publicly available expression profiles of Sobic.005G231600 based on ESTs from the sorghum reference, BTx623, from the Morokoshi Sorghum Transcriptome Database (sorghum.riken.jp/morokoshi/Data/Sobic.005G213600) and in the expression track of Phytozome Sorghum bicolor v3.1 (DOE-JGI) indicate that this gene is preferentially expressed in roots and under nitrogen deficiency, two qualities one would expect for genes involved in SL biosynthesis. We monitored the expression of this gene in Shanqui Red by qRT-PCR and confirmed that expression was significantly greater in roots versus shoots (Fig. 6). When seedlings of Shanqui Red were grown in sand for 1 month irrigated with tap water and compared with seedlings irrigated with nutrient solution (12:2:31) in a potting mix (peat and perlite), expression of this gene was approximately fivefold higher under the nutrient-leached conditions. LGS1 expression was significantly reduced in Tetron relative to Shanqui Red in sand (Fig. 6). The qRT-PCR primers targeting the transcript were nested in the 3'-UTR (Table S2). As expected for a completely deleted gene, no expression of this target was observed in SRN39 in either medium. The severe deletion in SC103 also knocked out expression of this gene.

Motifs identified in silico using the PLACE database search tool (27) of the presumed promoter region of Sobic.005G213600 (Fig. S3) show some cis-acting regulatory elements (CAREs) that match other genes involved in SL biosynthesis, including root-specificity, drought, phytohormone, and nutrient deficiency responsive elements, including a phosphate deficiency response, P1BS. Most CAREs listed in Fig. S3 fall within a few hundred base pairs of the transcription start site, in the presumed core promoter.

Discussion

Mutation at LGS1 does not eliminate SL biosynthesis, but rather changes the type of SLs present in the root exudates. In a comparison of all possible stereoisomers of the SLs previously reported in sorghum root exudates, strigol, sorgolactone, sorgomol, and 5-deoxystrigol, it was shown that S. hermonthica germination was much higher when exposed to these SLs in their natural (β-oriented C-ring) form than when treated with their α -oriented enantiomers (16). Furthermore, Yoneyama et al. (28) predicted that SLs containing a hydroxyl group directly on the A- (e.g., strigol) or B-ring (e.g., orobanchol) would be prone to ring-destroying nucleophilic attack and therefore be less persistent in the soil. Together, these results explain why orobanchol-exuding sorghums, like the lgs1 mutants, would show low Striga germination stimulant activity in our laboratory agar assays, as well as when planted in farm fields infested with Striga.

We have presented compelling genetic evidence in the form of multiple mutant alleles at this locus that LGS1 is Sobic.005G213600, an uncharacterized gene with a sulfotransferase domain. Unfortunately, the substrates of sulfotransferases other than a few in Arabidopsis are largely unknown and cannot be accurately predicted by in silico modeling based on animal enzyme structures (25). Plant sulfotransferases resemble their better-studied counterparts in animals by the conserved motifs involved in binding PAPS, the universal donor of the sulfate group in the reactions that they catalyze (26). They sulfate a variety of substrates and are generally divided into two main classes: membrane-associated and cytosolic sulfotransferases. Only three of the former have been described in plants (Arabidopsis), all sulfating tyrosine residues in relatively small secreted peptides with growth-regulating activities, one that in turn stabilizes transcription factors (29). The larger class of cytosolic plant sulfotransferases sulfate low-molecular-weight substrates including flavonoids, coumarins and phytohormones such as brassinosteroids, salicylic acid, and jasmonates (25).

The lgs1 mutants preferentially make orobanchol, with an α -oriented C-ring over the common WT SL for sorghum, 5-deoxystrigol, lacking the hydroxyl group at position 4 and having a β-oriented C-ring. The biosynthesis of SLs from carotenoids through carlactone continues to be elucidated in model plants such as rice and likely involves hydroxylation of C-18 and carboxylation at C-19 (22, 23, 30). The orientation of the C-ring with respect to the B-ring must be determined when these rings form during the cyclization that follows oxidation by the sorghum MAX1 ortholog(s). We therefore assume that the sulfotransferase is involved in stereo-control of ring

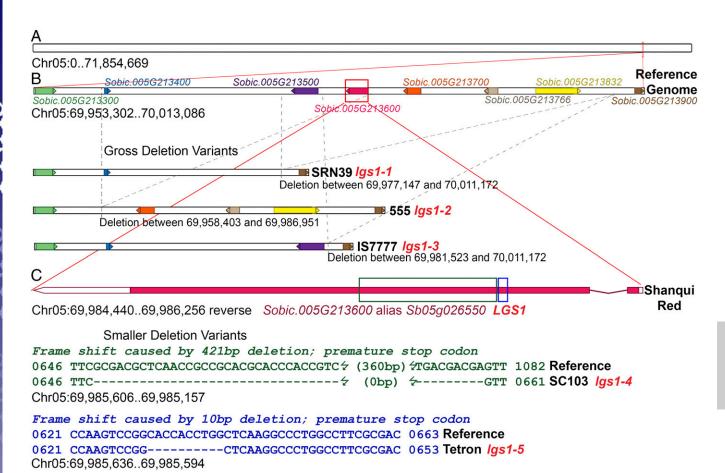


Fig. 5. Schematic representation of the *LGS1* locus and its identity based on mutant analysis. (*A*) Genetic mapping (20) indicated that *LGS1* was near the tip of sorghum chromosome 5. (*B*) Fine mapping based on sequence polymorphisms indicated that the low *Striga* germination stimulant activity was always associated with a deleted region representing a five-gene loss in the low-stimulant parent of the mapping population, SRN39 (carrying allele *lgs1-1*). Comparing this region to other lines with low *Striga* germination stimulant activity determined to be allelic to SRN39, two other gross deletion variants were discovered with overlapping deletions, 555 (carrying allele *lgs1-2*) and IS7777 (carrying allele *lgs1-3*). The common deletion in these three is *Sobic.005G213600*. Further evidence comes from smaller deletion variants of this gene (C) in SC103 (*lgs1-4*), missing 421 bp in the second exon, and a 10-bp deletion near there in Tetron (*lgs1-5*), both predicted to cause frameshifts and severely truncated peptides without sulfotransferase function.

closure, perhaps by posttranslationally modifying proteins at the site where this occurs in such a way that it favors closure to β -orientation. Alternatively, the sulfotransferase may regulate, through sulfated phytohormone intermediates, which MAX1 ortholog or other enzymes metabolize carlactone, influencing the degree to which carlactone is oxidized and the catalytic environment in which its oxidized intermediate cyclizes to an SL. As some

sulfotransferases do to other phytohormones, LGS1 might even sulfate the SL itself. The hydroxyl of orobanchol, perhaps formed at low levels in sorghum by an alternative pathway, could be sulfated and drive the production of 5-deoxystrigol, whereas accumulation of its unsulfated form, as occurs in *lgs1* mutants, suppresses it. The mutant alleles described at *LGS1* will be useful for further biochemical studies on how stereochemistry of SLs is

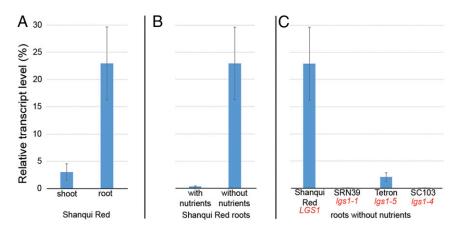


Fig. 6. Expression of sorghum LGS1. Expression of this gene is at least fivefold higher in roots than in shoots of Shanqui Red, carrying the WT allele LGS1 (A). RNA was extracted from 4-wk-old seedlings grown in sand without supplemental nutrients. Expression of this gene in roots under these conditions was greatly reduced compared with seedlings of the same age grown in potting mix and irrigated with nutrient solution (B). Little or no expression was observed in seedling roots grown in nutrient-leached sand of mutants missing all or part of this gene (C). Transcript levels were monitored by qRT-PCR comparing to actin (see Materials and Methods for details). Values are averaged from three technical and three biological replicates \pm one SD.

determined or favored and help to establish precursor and product relationships among the various types of SLs in sorghum and other plant species.

Striga resistance based on low germination stimulant activity has been long known and successfully exploited in sorghum (17, 18) and improved varieties carrying this trait continue to show resistance to Striga populations from both East and West Africa (31). Its simple inheritance (19), particularly with molecular markers within the LGS1 locus, make it relatively simple to introgress into existing cultivars. Mutation at LGS1 does not knock out SLs in root exudates; it just changes the relative abundance of certain types, such that the other essential functions of SLs (ability for mycorrhizal colonization, favorable tillering, and root responsiveness to nutritional deficiencies) remain intact. Protection against Striga seems to be based on lack of responsiveness to orobanchol of those strains of the weed that parasitize sorghum and the loss of the known chemical cue 5-deoxystrigol. It should be noted, however, that rice, also parasitized by *Striga*, exudes orobanchol-type SLs from its roots (24). The nature of the protection offered by mutation at LGS1 might be extended to other cereal hosts of Striga for which resistance breeding lags behind, such as maize, which exudes a variety of noncanonical SLs (32), among which several of the strigol type have been reported (33).

Materials and Methods

Informative recombinants from the RIL population used to fine-map the LGS1 locus (20) were further genotyped and their SLs phenotyped by ultraperformance liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (UPLC-MS-MS)

- 1. Mboob SS (1989) A regional program for Striga control in West and Central Africa. Striga - Improved Management in Africa, eds Robson TO, Broad HR (Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome), pp 190–194.
- 2. Rodenburg J, Demont M, Zwart SJ, Bastiaans L (2016) Parasitic weed incidence and related economic losses in rice in Africa. Agric Ecosyst Environ 235:306-317.
- Ejeta G (2007) The Striga scourge in Africa: A growing pandemic. Integrating New Technologies for Striga Control: Towards Ending the Witch-Hunt, eds Ejeta G, Gressel J (World Scientific, Singapore), pp 3-16.
- 4. Pérez-Vich B, Velasco L, Rich PJ, Ejeta G (2013) Marker-assisted and physiology-based breeding for resistance to root parasitic Orobanchaceae. Parasitic Orobanchaceae, eds Joel DM, Gressel J, Musselman LJ (Springer, Berlin), pp 369-391.
- 5. Rich PJ, Ejeta G (2007) Biology of host-parasite interactions in Striga species. Integrating New Technologies for Striga Control: Towards Ending the Witch-Hunt, eds Ejeta G, Gressel J (World Scientific, Singapore), pp 19-32.
- 6. Gomez-Roldan V, et al. (2008) Strigolactone inhibition of shoot branching. Nature 455.189-194
- 7. Rasmussen A, et al. (2012) Strigolactones suppress adventitious rooting in Arabidopsis and pea. Plant Physiol 158:1976-1987.
- Akiyama K, Matsuzaki K, Hayashi H (2005) Plant sesquiterpenes induce hyphal branching in arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. Nature 435:824–827
- Sun X-G, Tang M (2013) Effect of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi inoculation on root traits and root volatile organic compound emissions of Sorghum bicolor. S Afr J Bot 88:373-379.
- Jamil M, Van Mourik TA, Charnikhova T, Bouwmeester HJ (2013) Effect of diammonium phosphate application on strigolactone production and Striga hermonthica infection in three sorghum cultivars. Weed Res 53:121-130.
- 11. Siame BA, Weerasuriya Y, Wood K, Ejeta G, Butler LG (1993) Isolation of strigol, a germination stimulant for Striga asiatica, from host plants. J Agric Food Chem 41:1486–1491.
- 12. Awad AA, et al. (2006) Characterization of strigolactones, germination stimulants for the root parasitic plants Striga and Orobanche, produced by maize, millet and sorghum. Plant Growth Regul 48:221-227.
- 13. Motonami N, et al. (2013) The bioconversion of 5-deoxystrigol to sorgomol by the sorghum, Sorghum bicolor (L.) Moench. Phytochemistry 93:41–48.
- 14. Xie X, et al. (2013) Confirming stereochemical structures of strigolactones produced by rice and tobacco. Mol Plant 6:153-163.
- Cook CE, Whichard LP, Turner B, Wall ME, Egley GH (1966) Germination of witchweed (Striga lutea Lour.): Isolation and properties of a potent stimulant. Science 154:
- 16. Nomura S, Nakashima H, Mizutani M, Takikawa H, Sugimoto Y (2013) Structural requirements of strigolactones for germination induction and inhibition of Striga gesnerioides seeds. Plant Cell Rep 32:829-838.
- 17. Hess DE, Ejeta G, Butler LG (1992) Selecting sorghum genotypes expressing a quantitative biosynthetic trait that confers resistance to Striga. Phytochemistry 31:493-497.
- Ejeta G (2007) Striga resistance in sorghum: exploitation of the intricate host-parasite biology. Crop Sci 47:S216–S227.
- 19. Vogler RK, Ejeta G, Butler LG (1996) Inheritance of low production of Striga germination stimulant in sorghum. Crop Sci 36:1185-1191.

with comparison with standards as previously described (32). In addition to these, four low-stimulant lines (555, IS7777, SC103, and Tetron) with reported Striga field resistance and their hybrids with SRN39 were used to establish allelic relationships of Igs1 mutants and verify the identity of LGS1 from among the gene candidates. The genotyping ultimately required Illumina sequencing of Shangui Red, SRN39, 555, IS7777, and Tetron to an average depth of 10-27×. The raw reads from whole genome sequence for SC103 were downloaded from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) short read archive (SRA). Sequence reads from the LGS1 region of Shanqui Red, SRN39, 555, IS7777, and Tetron have been deposited with NCBI-SRA under study accession no. SRP098704. Striga germination stimulant activity of the sorghum lines and hybrids were determined by the agar gel assay (17) using four sources of S. asiatica and S. hermonthica. Shoot branching of field-grown plants and mycorrhization of controlledenvironment potted seedlings of Shanqui Red and SRN39 inoculated with three AM fungal species were compared for effects of variation at LGS1 on these phenotypes. Expression of LGS1 was monitored in seedlings of Shanqui Red, SRN39, Tetron, and SC103 grown for 4 wk in either sand without nutrients or potting mix to which nutrients were provided in the irrigation water. RNA was extracted separately from roots and shoots. Quantitative PCR was done with three technical and biological replicates comparing LGS1 with actin transcripts to determine their relative levels. Full details of all protocols used in this study are provided in SI Materials and Methods.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank K. Yoneyama (Weed Science Center, Utsunomiya University, Utsunomiya, Japan) and T. Asami (Department of Applied Biological Chemistry, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan) for supplying SL standards. This work was supported by Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation Grant OPP1006216 and Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research Vici Grant 865.06.002 and Equipment Grant 834.08.001 (to H.B.).

- 20. Satish K, Gutema Z, Grenier C, Rich PJ, Ejeta G (2012) Molecular tagging and validation of microsatellite markers linked to the low germination stimulant gene (Igs) for Striga resistance in sorghum [Sorghum bicolor (L.) Moench]. Theor Appl Genet 124:989-1003
- 21. Alder A, et al. (2012) The path from $\beta\text{-carotene}$ to carlactone, a strigolactone-like plant hormone. Science 335:1348-1351.
- 22. Zhang Y, et al. (2014) Rice cytochrome P450 MAX1 homologs catalyze distinct steps in strigolactone biosynthesis. Nat Chem Biol 10:1028-1033.
- 23. Al-Babili S, Bouwmeester HJ (2015) Strigolactones, a novel carotenoid-derived plant hormone. Annu Rev Plant Biol 66:161-186.
- 24. Cardoso C, et al. (2014) Natural variation of rice strigolactone biosynthesis is associated with the deletion of two MAX1 orthologs. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 111: 2379-2384.
- 25. Hirschmann F. Krause F. Papenbrock J (2014) The multi-protein family of sulfotransferases in plants: Composition, occurrence, substrate specificity, and functions. Front Plant Sci 5:556
- 26. Klein M, Papenbrock J (2004) The multi-protein family of Arabidopsis sulphotransferases and their relatives in other plant species. J Exp Bot 55:1809–1820.
- 27. Higo K, Ugawa Y, Iwamoto M, Korenaga T (1999) Plant cis-acting regulatory DNA elements (PLACE) database: 1999. Nucleic Acids Res 27:297-300.
- Yoneyama K, Awad AA, Xie X, Yoneyama K, Takeuchi Y (2010) Strigolactones as germination stimulants for root parasitic plants. Plant Cell Physiol 51:1095-1103.
- 29. Matsubayashi Y (2011) Post-translational modifications in secreted peptide hormones in plants. Plant Cell Physiol 52:5-13.
- 30. Abe S, et al. (2014) Carlactone is converted to carlactonoic acid by MAX1 in Arabidopsis and its methyl ester can directly interact with AtD14 in vitro. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 111:18084-18089
- 31. Bozkurt ML, Muth P, Parzies HK, Haussmann BIG (2015) Genetic diversity of East and West African Striga hermonthica populations and virulence effects on a contrasting set of sorghum cultivars. Weed Res 55:71-81.
- 32. Jamil M. Kanampiu FK, Karava H. Charnikhova T. Bouwmeester HJ (2012) Striga hermonthica parasitism in maize in response to N and P fertilisers. Field Crops Res 134:
- 33. Yoneyama K, et al. (2015) Difference in Striga-susceptibility is reflected in strigolactone secretion profile, but not in compatibility and host preference in arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis in two maize cultivars. New Phytol 206:983-989.
- 34. Kohlen W, et al. (2011) Strigolactones are transported through the xylem and play a key role in shoot architectural response to phosphate deficiency in nonarbuscular mycorrhizal host Arabidopsis. Plant Physiol 155:974-987.
- 35. Brundrett M, Bougher N, Dell B, Grove T, Malajczuk N (1996) Working with mycorrhizas in forestry and agriculture (Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research, Bruce, Australia).
- 36. McGonigle TP, Miller MH, Evans DG, Fairchild GL, Swan JA (1990) A new method which gives an objective measure of colonization of roots by vesicular-arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. New Phytol 115:495-501.
- 37. Stewart GR (1972) The regulation of nitrate reductase level in Lemna minor L. J Exp Bot 23:171-183.