

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE VIÇOSA**

**LILLIAN MATIAS DE OLIVEIRA**

**ETHYLENE AND NICKEL IN THE RESISTANCE OF MAIZE AGAINST THE  
INFECTION BY *Exserohilum turcicum***

**VIÇOSA - MINAS GERAIS  
2020**

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Thesis presented to the Universidade Federal de Viçosa, as part of the requirements of the Plant Physiology Graduate Program, to obtain the title of Doctor Scientiae.

Advisor: Fabrício Ávila Rodrigues  
Co-advisor: Patrícia Ricardino da Silveira

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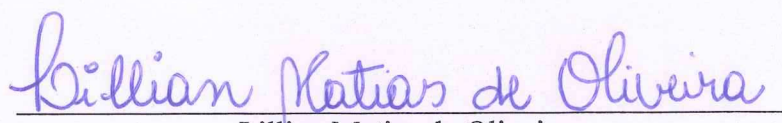
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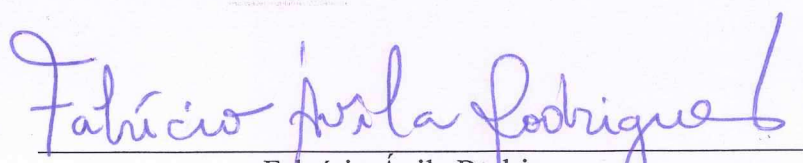
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Assent:

  
Lillian Matias de Oliveira  
Author

  
Fabrício Ávila Rodrigues  
Advisor

Ask the Lord to bless your plans,  
and you will be successful in  
carrying them out.

Proverbs 16:3

I dedicate to my parents, José  
Maria Oliveira and Luiza Oliveira,  
and my brothers, Thais Oliveira,  
and Willian Oliveira, for the love  
and unconditional support in all  
stages of this achievement.

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## **BIOGRAPHY**

LILLIAN MATIAS DE OLIVEIRA, daughter of José Maria Araújo de Oliveira and Luiza Matias de Oliveira, was born on September 25, 1989, in Capitão Poço, Pará, Brazil. In 2014, she graduated in Agronomy at Universidade Federal Rural da Amazônia (UFRA), Capitão Poço-PA. In February 2016, she obtained the Master Scientiae in Agronomy at Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM), Santa Maria-RS, Brazil. In August 2016, she started the doctoral degree in the Plant Physiology Program at Universidade Federal de Viçosa (UFV) under the guidance of Professor Fabrício Ávila Rodrigues defending her thesis on November 27, 2020.

## ABSTRACT

OLIVEIRA, Lillian Matias de, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, November, 2020. **Ethylene and nickel in the resistance of maize against the infection by *Exserohilum turcicum***. Advisor: Fabrício Ávila Rodrigues. Co-advisor: Patrícia Ricardino da Silveira.

Diseases cause a negative impact on maize yield worldwide, and the northern leaf blight (NLB), caused by the hemibiotrophic fungus *Exserohilum turcicum*, is one of the most important. Considering the harmful effects of *E. turcicum* infection in the leaves of maize plants, the objectives of this study were to investigate the alterations in the photosynthesis (parameters related to leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll a fluorescence), the foliar concentration of micronutrients, and reactive oxygen species (ROS), production of ethylene, activities of both defense and antioxidant enzymes, and the expression of the genes related to the production of hormones. The first study investigated the role of ethylene (ET) in increasing the resistance of maize plants against NLB at physiological, biochemical, and molecular levels. Maize plants were sprayed with ET, aminooxyacetic acid (AOA) (an ET inhibitor), and water (control). The ET application increased its concentration in the leaf tissues and contributed to the expansion of NLB lesions. Also, high NLB severity resulted in lower values for net carbon assimilation rate, stomatal conductance, transpiration rate, and maximum quantum yield of photosystem II ( $F_v/F_m$ ) at advanced stages of fungal infection. Lower concentration of pigments and higher concentrations of malonaldehyde (MDA) and hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) were noticed for ET-sprayed plants infected by *E. turcicum*. Great NLB development in the leaves of ET-sprayed plants can probably be attributed to the lower activities of antioxidative (ascorbate peroxidase, glutathione reductase, and superoxide dismutase) and defense (chitinase,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase, lipoxygenase, and phenylalanine ammonia-lyase) enzymes. The second study was carried out to investigate the effect of foliar nickel (Ni) spray on the potentiation of maize resistance against *E. turcicum* infection by examining alterations at biochemical and physiological levels. In the *in vitro* assay, Ni efficiently inhibited the mycelial growth of *E. turcicum*. For Ni-sprayed and inoculated plants, there were higher foliar concentrations of manganese and Ni. These plants exhibited significant decreases of 33 and 24%, respectively, for NLB severity at 12 and 16 days after inoculation. There were lower MDA and  $H_2O_2$  concentrations in the leaves of +Ni inoculated plants. The decrease in NLB severity for Ni-sprayed plants was related to its direct effect against *E. turcicum* infection or through the potentiation of host defense responses such

as high lipoxygenase and polyphenoloxidase activities as well as great production of phenolics and lignin.

Keywords: Antioxidative metabolism. Host defense responses. Northern leaf blight. Plant nutrition. Plant hormone. Photosynthesis.

## RESUMO

OLIVEIRA, Lillian Matias de, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, novembro de 2020. **Etileno e níquel na resistência do milho à infecção por *Exserohilum turcicum***. Orientador: Fabrício Ávila Rodrigues. Coorientadora: Patrícia Ricardino da Silveira.

Doenças causam impacto negativo na produção de milho em todo o mundo, sendo a queima foliar, causada pelo fungo hemibiotrófico *Exserohilum turcicum*, uma das mais importantes. Considerando os efeitos deletérios da infecção por *E. turcicum* nas folhas de plantas de milho, os objetivos deste estudo foram investigar as alterações na fotossíntese (parâmetros relacionados às trocas gasosas e fluorescência da clorofila a), concentrações foliares de micronutrientes, espécies reativas de oxigênio (EROS), produção de etileno, atividades de enzimas de defesa e antioxidantes e a expressão de genes relacionados à produção de hormônios. O primeiro estudo investigou o papel do etileno (ET) no aumento da resistência das plantas de milho contra a queima foliar em níveis fisiológicos, bioquímicos e moleculares. Plantas de milho foram pulverizadas com ET, ácido aminooxiacético (AOA) (um inibidor de ET) e água (controle). A aplicação do ET aumentou sua concentração nos tecidos foliares e contribuiu para a expansão das lesões da queima foliar. Além disso, a severidade da queima foliar alta resultou em valores mais baixos para a taxa líquida de assimilação de carbono, condutância estomática, taxa de transpiração e rendimento quântico máximo do fotossistema II ( $F_v/F_m$ ) em estágios avançados da infecção fúngica. Menor concentração de pigmentos e maiores concentrações de malonaldeído (MDA) e peróxido de hidrogênio ( $H_2O_2$ ) foram observadas para plantas pulverizadas com ET infectadas por *E. turcicum*. Grande desenvolvimento da queima foliar nas folhas de plantas pulverizadas com ET pode provavelmente ser atribuído às atividades mais baixas de enzimas antioxidantes (ascorbato peroxidase, glutatona redutase e superóxido dismutase) e de defesa (quitinase,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase, lipoxigenase e fenilalanina amônia-lyase). O segundo estudo foi realizado para investigar o efeito da pulverização foliar de níquel (Ni) na potenciação da resistência do milho à infecção por *E. turcicum*, examinando alterações em níveis bioquímicos e fisiológicos. No ensaio in vitro, o Ni inibiu de forma eficiente o crescimento micelial de *E. turcicum*. Para as plantas pulverizadas com Ni e inoculadas, houve maiores concentrações foliares de manganês e Ni. Essas plantas exibiram reduções significativas de 33 e 24%, respectivamente, para a severidade da queima foliar aos 12 e 16 dias após a inoculação. Houve menores concentrações de MDA e  $H_2O_2$  nas folhas das plantas inoculadas com +Ni. A diminuição da severidade da queima foliar

para plantas pulverizadas com Ni foi relacionada ao seu efeito direto contra a infecção por *E. turcicum* ou através da potencialização de respostas de defesa do hospedeiro, como alta atividade da lipoxigenase e polifenoloxidase, bem como grande produção de fenólicos e lignina.

Palavras-chave: Fotossíntese. Hormônio vegetal. Metabolismo antioxidativo. Nutrição de plantas. Queima foliar. Respostas de defesa do hospedeiro.

## SUMMARY

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## **Chapter I**

# **Involvement of Ethylene in the Infection Process of *Exserohilum turcicum* in Maize Leaves**

**Abstract**

Even though ethylene (ET) plays diverse roles in plant growth and development, its involvement in the maize-*Exserohilum turcicum* interaction remains undetermined. Therefore, parameters related to leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll a fluorescence, concentrations of photosynthetic pigments as well as the activities of defense and antioxidant enzymes in maize plants sprayed with ET, aminooxyacetic acid (AOA) (an ET inhibitor), and water (control) and challenged or not with *E. turcicum* were investigated. The ET was produced in the infected leaves of plants from the control, AOA treatment, or sprayed with ET. However, the northern leaf blight (NLB) symptoms were more developed on the leaves of plants sprayed with ET. The harmful effect of *E. turcicum* was confirmed by decreases in the values of net carbon assimilation rate, stomatal conductance, transpiration rate, and maximal photosystem II quantum yield ( $F_v/F_m$ ) at advanced stages of fungal infection. Furthermore, the concentrations of malondialdehyde and hydrogen peroxide were higher at the advanced fungal infection stage, especially for ET-sprayed plants due to great disease severity. The activities of defense enzymes increased in response to fungal infection regardless of the treatments. Taken together, it can be concluded that the exogenous supply of ET to the leaves of maize plants played a negative role in the infection process of *E. turcicum* besides modulating fungal-induced reactive oxygen species formation. The ET biosynthesis in the infected leaves was closely associated with NLB development. The increase in NLB symptoms can probably be attributed to the lower activities of defense (chitinase,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase, lipoxygenase, and phenylalanine ammonia-lyase) and antioxidative (ascorbate peroxidase, glutathione reductase, and superoxide dismutase) enzymes.

**Keywords:** *Zea mays*. Antioxidant metabolism. Chlorophyll a fluorescence. Host defense responses. Photosynthesis. Plant hormone.

## Resumo

Embora o etileno (ET) desempenhe papéis diversos no crescimento e desenvolvimento das plantas, seu envolvimento na interação milho-*Exserohilum turcicum* permanece indeterminado. Portanto, parâmetros relacionados às trocas gasosas e fluorescência da clorofila a, concentrações de pigmentos fotossintéticos, bem como as atividades de enzimas de defesa e antioxidantes em plantas de milho pulverizadas com ET, ácido aminooxiacético (AOA) (um inibidor de ET) e água (controle) e inoculadas ou não com *E. turcicum* foram investigados. O ET foi produzido nas folhas infectadas de plantas do tratamento controle, AOA ou pulverizado com ET. No entanto, os sintomas da queima foliar foram mais desenvolvidos nas folhas das plantas pulverizadas com ET. O efeito prejudicial de *E. turcicum* foi confirmado por diminuições nos valores da taxa líquida de assimilação de carbono, condutância estomática, taxa de transpiração e rendimento quântico máximo do fotossistema II ( $F_v/F_m$ ) em estágios avançados de infecção fúngica. Além disso, as concentrações de malonaldeído e peróxido de hidrogênio foram maiores no estágio de infecção fúngica avançada, especialmente para plantas pulverizadas com ET devido à grande severidade da doença. As atividades das enzimas de defesa aumentaram em resposta à infecção fúngica, independentemente dos tratamentos. Em conjunto, pode-se concluir que o fornecimento exógeno de ET às folhas de plantas de milho teve um papel negativo no processo de infecção de *E. turcicum*, além de modular a formação de espécies reativas de oxigênio induzidas por fungos. A biossíntese de ET nas folhas infectadas foi intimamente associada ao desenvolvimento da queima foliar. O aumento nos sintomas da queima foliar pode provavelmente ser atribuído às atividades mais baixas das enzimas de defesa (quitinase,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase, lipoxigenase e fenilalanina amônia-liase) e antioxidantes (ascorbato peroxidase, glutatona redutase e superóxido dismutase).

Palavras-chave: *Zea mays*. Fotossíntese. Fluorescência da clorofila a. Hormônio vegetal. Metabolismo antioxidativo. Respostas de defesa da planta.

## Introduction

Northern leaf blight (NLB), caused by the fungus *Exserohilum turcicum* (Pass.) Leonard and Suggs (anamorph) (*Setosphaeria turcica* (Luttrell) Leonard and Suggs (teleomorph)) (Leonard and Suggs 1974; Luttrell and Bacon 1977; Sivanesan 1984), is one of the major diseases contributing to decreasing maize yield in all growing regions worldwide (Zhang et al. 2020). In the tropical regions, high humidity, overhead sprinkler irrigation, and cloudy weather periods favor NLB epidemics (Hennessy et al. 1990; Hooda et al. 2017). The major symptoms of NLB are elliptical lesions with necrotic centers and chlorotic halos on leaves, especially on the older ones (Munkvold and White 2016; Silveira et al. 2019). These chlorotic and necrotic areas reduce the leaf area photosynthetically active that will impact yield (Berger et al. 2007; Sibiya et al. 2013; Hurni et al. 2015).

In general, plants infected by pathogens of different lifestyles such as *Ustilago maydis* and *Stenocarpella macrospora* on maize (Horst et al. 2008; Bermúdez-Cardona et al. 2015b), *Monographella albescens* on rice (Tatagiba et al. 2015), and *Phakopsora pachyrhizi* on soybean (Rios et al. 2018) experience drastic reductions in the values of initial fluorescence, maximal fluorescence, maximal photosystem II quantum efficiency, effective photosystem II quantum yield, quantum yield of regulated energy dissipation, but a sharp increase in the values of quantum yield of non-regulated energy dissipation. Lower values for the parameters related to leaf gas exchange (e.g., net carbon assimilation rate, stomatal conductance to water vapor, and transpiration rate) have been reported for the maize-*S. macrospora* (Bermúdez-Cardona et al. 2015b), soybean-*P. pachyrhizi* (Rios et al. 2018), and rice-*M. albescens* (Tatagiba et al. 2015) interactions.

Fungal pathogens can manipulate the hormonal pathways of their hosts to ensure successful infections (Rodríguez-Moreno et al. 2018). Hormones such as abscisic acid, auxin, brassinosteroids, cytokinins, ethylene (ET), gibberellins, jasmonic acid, and salicylic acid play

important roles in many physiological processes during plant development (Shigenaga and Argueso 2016; Berens et al. 2017). The ET, in particular, is of detrimental importance for plant growth and development and better performance when exposed to abiotic and biotic stresses (Hao et al. 2017). However, the involvement of ET in the resistance of plants against diseases still controversial. In some cases, ET seems to increase the basal level of resistance of some crops against the infection by pathogens (Helliwell et al. 2013). On the other hand, pathogens such as *Botrytis cinerea* and *Alternaria alternata* infecting tomatoes and grapes, respectively, can produce ET to favor diseases symptoms' development (Cristescu et al. 2002; Zhu et al. 2017). The ET was important to increase rice and tomatoes susceptibilities to brown spot and Fusarium wilt, respectively (Van Bockhaven et al. 2015; Di et al. 2017).

The ET was linked with rice plants' resistance, which became susceptible to blast after being sprayed with an ET inhibitor (Yang et al. 2017). The ET was also positively involved with the resistance of rice to blast and sheath blight (Helliwell et al. 2013). Mutants of *Arabidopsis* plants deficient in ET biosynthesis were more susceptible to infection by *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. tomato (Guan et al. 2015). The ET-sprayed wheat plants showed less number of blast lesions in the leaves and lower disease severity due to an increase in the activities of chitinase,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase, peroxidase, and polyphenoloxidase (Rios et al. 2014). The response to ET is dependent on the host-pathogen interaction. An interesting case occurs for *Bipolaris oryzae* in rice, where the number of brown spot lesions increased due to a stimulation of the ET signaling pathway (De Vleeschauwer et al. 2010) while infection of *Arabidopsis* plants by *B. oryzae* was suppressed (Völz et al. 2020).

The ET concentration increased in maize seeds infected with *Aspergillus flavus*, stimulating its growth and conidia production (Wang et al. 2017). In addition, maize seedlings exhibiting lower expression of the *ZmEIN2* gene or exposed to 1-methylcyclopropene (1-MCP) became resistant to infection by *Fusarium graminearum* (Zhou et al. 2018). The infection by

*F. graminearum* induced both ET biosynthetic and responsive genes in maize seedlings' roots (Ye et al. 2013). Several ET-responsive transcription factors were highly expressed in maize plants of cultivars susceptible to *Cercospora zeina* (Meyer et al. 2017). Shi et al. (2018) reported that at the beginning of *S. turcica* infection process in the leaves of maize plants, a total of 61 over 5903 differentially expressed genes were involved with the hormonal metabolism and about almost 7% with the ET biosynthesis.

Considering the controversial involvement of ET in the host-pathogen interactions, this study aimed to investigate the possible role of this hormone in increasing maize resistance against infection by *E. turcicum* by manipulating its accumulation through an exogenous application.

## **Material and Methods**

### **Plant growth**

Seeds of the maize cultivar P-1630 Hx (susceptible to *E. turcicum*) (Silveira et al. 2019) were sown in plastic pots containing 2 kg of a substrate (1:1:1 mixture of pine bark, peat, and expanded vermiculite) amended with 1.63 g of calcium phosphate monobasic. Plants were kept in a greenhouse (temperature of  $25 \pm 3^\circ\text{C}$  (day) and  $21 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  (night) and relative humidity of  $75 \pm 5\%$ ). Plants in each pot were fertilized, weekly, with 50 mL of a nutrient solution composed, in mg/L, of 192 KCl, 104.52 K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 150.37 MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 61 CH<sub>4</sub>N<sub>2</sub>O, 100 NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>, 0.27 (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>MO<sub>7</sub>O<sub>24</sub>, 1.61 H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub>, 6.67 ZnSO<sub>4</sub>, 1.74 CuSO<sub>4</sub>, 4.10 MnCl<sub>2</sub>, 4.08 FeSO<sub>4</sub>, and 5.58 ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA).

### **Inoculum production, plant inoculation, and treatments**

Plants were inoculated with the monosporic UFV-DFP Et22 isolate of *E. turcicum*. The fungus was grown in Petri dishes containing lactose casein hydrolysate (LCH) medium (Malca and

Ullstrup 1962) kept in an incubator (25°C and photoperiod of 16 hours light and 8 hours dark) for ten days. Plants were inoculated with a conidial suspension ( $1 \times 10^4$  conidia/ml) of *E. turcicum* at 20 days after emergence (plants with five fully expanded leaves) using a VL Airbrush atomizer (Paasche Airbrush Co., Chicago, IL). Gelatin (0.5% w/v) was added to the conidial suspension to aid conidia adhesion to the leaves. At eight days after inoculation, leaf fragments containing necrotic lesions were collected, disinfected in solutions of 70% (v/v) aqueous alcohol and 2% sodium hypochlorite (v/v), and transferred to Petri dishes (three-leaf fragments per dish) containing LCH medium. Petri dishes were transferred to an incubator (25°C and photoperiod of 16 hours of light and 8 hours of dark) for ten days. After this period, a total of 1 ml of sterile distilled water was added to each Petri dish, and fungal mycelia were carefully disrupted using a camel hair brush within a laminar flow chamber to induce fungal sporulation. After this procedure, Petri dishes were transferred to an incubator (25°C and photoperiod of 12 h with blacklight lamps emitting light near-ultraviolet (320-400 nm) and 12 h dark) for five days. Plants with five fully expanded leaves were inoculated with a conidial suspension of *E. turcicum* as described above and kept in a growth chamber (temperature of  $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and relative humidity of  $90 \pm 5\%$ ) under dark for the first 12 h to allow conidia germination and fungal penetration. After that, plants were transferred to a greenhouse ( $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ , the relative humidity of  $75 \pm 5\%$ , and natural photon flux density) for the experiments' duration. Plants were sprayed with ET (Ethrel<sup>®</sup>, 100  $\mu\text{M}$ ; Sigma-Aldrich, São Paulo, Brazil) and with aminooxyacetic acid (AOA, 50  $\mu\text{M}$ ; Sigma-Aldrich, São Paulo, Brazil) at 24 and 48 h, respectively, before being inoculated with *E. turcicum* by using a VL Airbrush atomizer. Plants sprayed with water served as the control treatment.

### **Assessment of NLB severity**

The NLB severity was evaluated on the fifth fully expanded leaf, from basis to top, of each plant per replication of each treatment at 4, 8, 12, and 16 days after inoculation (dai). The leaves were scanned at 600 dpi resolution, and the images were processed using the QUANT software (Vale et al. 2003) to obtain the severity values. The area under the disease progress curve (AUDPC) was calculated using the trapezoidal integration of NLB progress curves over time, according to Shaner and Finney (1977).

### **Determination of ET concentration**

The ET was measured on the fourth fully expanded leaf, from basis to top, of each plant per replication of each treatment at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai. The leaves were weighed to obtain their fresh weight and placed in Erlenmeyer flasks hermetically sealed. After an incubation of 12 h, an air sample of 1 mL was taken from the flask headspace and injected into a gas chromatograph (Hewlett-Packard 5890, series II) following the procedures described by Silva et al. (2014).

### **Determination of leaf gas exchange parameters**

A portable open-system infrared gas analyzer (LI-6400XT, LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA) was used to obtain the values of net carbon assimilation rate ( $A$ ), stomatal conductance to water vapor ( $g_s$ ), internal  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration ( $C_i$ ), and transpiration rate ( $E$ ) on the fifth fully expanded leaf, from basis to top, of each plant per replication of each treatment at 4, 12, and 16 dai. Evaluations were performed from 10:00 to 12:00 a.m. under artificial and saturating photon irradiance ( $1200 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration of  $\pm 400$  ppm.

### **Determination of chlorophyll (Chl) a fluorescence**

The images and fluorescence parameters of Chl a were obtained at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai using an IMAGING-PAM fluorometer (Maxi version) and the Imaging Win software (Heinz Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany). The images were obtained with a resolution of  $640 \times 480$  pixels in the fifth fully expanded leaf, from basis to top, of each replication per treatment. The Chl a fluorescence emission transients were captured by a CCD (charge-coupled device) camera with a resolution of  $640 \times 480$  pixels in a visible sample area of  $24 \times 32$  mm on each leaf. The leaves were then exposed to a weak and modulated measuring beam ( $0.5 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $100 \mu\text{s}$ ,  $1 \text{ Hz}$ ) to determine the initial fluorescence ( $F_0$ ) when all the PSII reaction centers were open. Next, a saturating white light pulse of  $2.400 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  ( $10 \text{ Hz}$ ) was applied for  $0.8 \text{ s}$  to ensure maximum fluorescence emission ( $F_m$ ) when all the PSII reaction centers are expected to be closed. The leaves were initially adapted to darkness for  $30 \text{ min}$ , after which they were carefully and individually fixed in support at a distance of  $18.5 \text{ cm}$  from the CCD camera. From these initial measurements, the maximum PSII photochemical efficiency of the dark-adapted leaves was estimated through the variable-to-maximum Chl fluorescence ratio as follows:  $F_v/F_m = [(F_m - F_0)/F_m]$ . Following the calculations proposed by Kramer et al. (2004), the energy absorbed by the PSII for the following two yield components for dissipative processes was determined: the yield of photochemistry [ $Y_{II} = F'_m - F/F'_m$ ], the yield for dissipation by downregulation [ $Y(\text{NPQ}) = (F_s/F'_m) - (F_s/F_m)$ ], and the yield for other non-photochemical (non-regulated) losses [ $Y(\text{NO}) = F_s/F_m$ ]. These parameters were calculated using the Imaging Win software (Kramer et al. 2004).

### **Determination of the concentration of photosynthetic pigments**

Five leaf discs (8 mm in diameter) obtained from the fifth fully expanded leaf, from basis to top, of each plant per replication, were placed in glass vials with 5 ml of dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO). The absorbances of the extracts were read at 480, 649, and 665 nm using DMSO as a blank after 24 h at 25°C (Wellburn 1994, Santos et al. 2008).

### **Biochemical assays**

The fourth and fifth fully expanded leaves, from basis to top, of each plant per replication of each treatment were collected at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai. Leaves were kept in liquid nitrogen during sampling and stored at -80°C thereafter.

### **Determination of superoxide anion radical ( $O_2^-$ ) concentration**

A total of 0.2 g of leaf tissue was ground into a fine powder with liquid nitrogen using a vibration ball mill and homogenized in 2 ml of a solution containing 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) and 1 mM sodium diethyldithiocarbamate (SDD). The homogenate was centrifuged at 22,000 g for 20 min at 4°C. After centrifugation, an aliquot of the supernatant was placed to react with a solution containing 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2), 1 mM SDD, and 0.25 mM nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT). The  $O_2^-$  concentration was determined by subtracting the absorbance of the final product from the initial absorbance at 540 nm (Chaitanya and Naithani 1994).

### **Determination of hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) concentration**

A total of 0.1 g of leaf tissue was ground into a fine powder with liquid nitrogen using a vibration ball mill and homogenized in 2 ml of 0.1% (w/v) of trichloroacetic acid (TCA). The homogenate was centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min at 4°C, and an aliquot of the supernatant

reacted with a mixture containing 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) and potassium iodide solution and incubated for 5 min. Absorbance was determined at 390 nm. The H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration was determined based on a standard curve made with known concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Sergiev et al. 1997).

#### **Determination of malondialdehyde (MDA) concentration**

A total of 0.1 g of leaf tissue was ground into a fine powder with liquid nitrogen using a vibration ball mill and homogenized and homogenized in 2 ml of a solution of TCA 0.1% (w/v). The homogenate was centrifuged at 12.000 g for 15 min at 4°C. An aliquot of the supernatant was mixed with 0.75 ml of 0.5% thiobarbituric acid (TBA) solution (w/v) (prepared in 20% (w/v) TCA) and incubated in a water bath at 95°C for 60 min. Thereafter, the reaction was quenched in an ice bath following centrifugation at 10.000 g for 10 min. The specific absorbance of the supernatant was determined at 532 nm. Non-specific absorbance was measured at 600 nm and subtracted from the value of the specific absorbance. The extinction coefficient of 155 mM<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> was used to calculate the MDA concentration (Hodges et al. 1999).

#### **Determination of total soluble phenolics (TSP) and lignin-thioglycolic acid (LTGA) derivatives concentrations**

A total of 0.1 g of leaf tissue was ground into a fine powder with liquid nitrogen using a vibration ball mill and homogenized in 1.5 ml of 80% (v/v) methanol solution. The crude extract was shaken at 300 rpm at 25°C for 12 h, and the mixture was centrifuged at 13.000 g for 30 min. The TSP concentration was determined in the methanolic extract, and the pellet was kept at 20°C to determine the LTGA derivatives concentration, according to Fortunato et al. (2015).

### **Determination of antioxidant enzymes activities**

A total of 0.2 g of leaf tissue was macerated in a vibration ball mill with liquid nitrogen to obtain a fine powder, which was homogenized in 2 ml of potassium phosphate buffer 100 mM (pH 6.8) containing 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 mM phenylmethyl-sulphonyl fluoride (PMSF), and 0.5% (w/v) polyvinylpolypyrrolidone (PVPP). The homogenate was centrifuged at 13.000 g for 15 min at 4°C, and the supernatant was divided into aliquots which were used as extracts for the determinations of superoxide dismutase (SOD, EC 1.15.1.1), catalase (CAT, EC 1.11.1.6), glutathione reductase (GR, EC 1.8.1.7), and ascorbate peroxidase (APX, EC 1.11.1.11) activities as previously described (Bermúdez-Cardona et al. 2015a, Tatagiba et al. 2015, Rios et al. 2017). Proteins concentration was measured using the Bradford assay with bovine serum albumin as a standard (Bradford 1976).

### **Determination of defense enzymes activities**

A total of 0.2 g of leaf tissue was macerated in a vibration ball mill with liquid nitrogen to obtain a fine powder to determine the activities of chitinase (CHI) (EC 3.2.1.14),  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase (GLU) (EC 3.2.1.39), peroxidase (POX) (EC 1.11.1.7), polyphenoloxidase (PPO), lipoxygenase (LOX) (EC 1.13.11.12), and phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL) (EC 4.3.1.5). The fine powder was homogenized in 2 ml of a solution containing 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 6.8), 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF, and 0.5% (w/v) PVPP. The homogenate was centrifuged at 12.000 g for 15 min at 4 °C, and the supernatant was used to determine CHI, GLU, PAL, PPO, and LOX activities as previously described (Polanco et al. 2012; Fortunato et al. 2015; Fagundes-Nacarath et al. 2018). Proteins concentration was measured as described above.

## **Experimental design and statistical analysis**

A 3 × 2 factorial experiment, consisting of plants sprayed with water (control), AOA, and ET, (referred to as treatments (T) thereafter) and plant inoculation (PI) (non-inoculated and inoculated plants), was arranged in a completely randomized design with eight replications. Each replication corresponded to a plastic pot containing two plants. The experiment was repeated once. All parameters and variables evaluated were subjected to analysis of variance, and means were compared by Tukey's test ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). Data were analyzed using the Minitab software (version 18; Minitab Corporation).

## **Results**

### **Analysis of variance**

The factors foliar treatments (T) and plant inoculation (PI), as well as the T × PI interaction, were significant for most of the variables and parameters evaluated. The T × PI interaction was significant for the concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, MDA, and LTGA derivatives, for the activities of CAT, GR, APX, CHI, POX, LOX, and PAL (Table 1).

### **Disease severity**

The NLB severity progressed much faster on the leaves of ET-sprayed plants from 8 to 16 dai in comparison to plants sprayed with either water or AOA (Fig. 1A). The AUDPC was significantly lower by 27 and 31%, respectively, for plants from the control and AOA treatments in comparison to ET-sprayed plants (Fig. 1B).

### **ET production**

The ET was not detected on the leaves of non-inoculated plants from the control and AOA treatments in comparison to the ET treatment, regardless of the evaluation time. By contrast, ET was produced by the leaves of ET-sprayed plants from 4 to 16 dai (Fig. 2A). Increases in ET production were 38-112% for inoculated ET-sprayed plants compared to the control and AOA treatments from 8 to 16 dai. The ET production significantly increased during the infection process of *E. turcicum* regardless of the treatments. For inoculated ET-sprayed plants, ET production increased by 37, 124, and 335%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai in comparison to non-inoculated ET-sprayed plants (Fig. 2B).

### **Leaf gas exchange parameters**

For non-inoculated plants, there was no significant effect of the control, AOA, and ET treatments for  $A$ ,  $g_s$ ,  $C_i$ , and  $E$  regardless of the evaluation time (Fig. 3A, C, E, and G). For inoculated plants, there was no significant effect of the control, AOA, and ET treatments for  $g_s$ ,  $C_i$ , and  $E$  regardless of the evaluation time and for  $A$  only at 12 dai (Fig. 3B, D, F, and H). For inoculated ET-sprayed plants,  $A$  significantly decreased by 31 and 27% in comparison to plants from the control and AOA treatments, respectively, at 12 dai (Fig. 3B). The deleterious effect of *E. turcicum* on leaf gas exchange was confirmed by significant decreases in  $A$  (12-15% for control and ET treatments at 4 dai as well as 36-70%, 46-71%, and 58-65%, respectively, for control, AOA, and ET treatments from 12 to 16 dai),  $g_s$  (39-52%, 50-61%, and 39-62% for control, AOA, and ET treatments, respectively, from 12 to 16 dai) and  $E$  (29% for ET treatment at 12 dai as well as 38, 36, and 53% for control, AOA, and ET treatments, respectively, at 16 dai) in comparison to non-inoculated plants (Fig. 3A-H).  $C_i$  significantly increased by 92, 52, and 84% for control, AOA, and ET treatments, respectively, at 16 dai in comparison to non-inoculated plants (Fig. 3E and F).

### **Chl a fluorescence parameters**

There was no significant effect of the control, AOA, and ET treatments for  $F_v/F_m$ , Y(II), Y(NPQ), and Y(NO) regardless of plant inoculation during the time-course evaluated (Fig. 4A-H). For non-inoculated plants, the values for  $F_v/F_m$  (15-28, 14-24, and 14-21% for control, AOA, and ET treatments, respectively, from 12 to 16 dai), Y(II) (62, 31, and 39% for control, AOA, and ET treatments, respectively, at 16 dai), and Y(NO) (19-8, 9-21, and 17-9% for control, AOA, and ET treatments, respectively, from 12 to 16 dai) were significantly higher in comparison to inoculated ones (Fig. 4A-D and G-H). For inoculated plants, the values for Y(NPQ) (83-38, 66-70, and 76-82% for control, AOA, and ET treatments, respectively, from 12 to 16 dai) were significantly higher in comparison to the non-inoculated ones (Fig. 4E and F). The images of Chl a fluorescence parameters did not show any change among treatments for the non-inoculated plants. On the other hand, inoculated plants showed alterations in Chl a fluorescence, with progressive loss of photosynthetic capacity from 12 dai as indicated by the dark areas in the images (Fig. 5).

### **Photosynthetic pigments**

There was a change in the concentrations of carotenoids and Chl a+b for plants sprayed with water, AOA, and ET regardless of plant inoculation. There were significant decreases in the concentrations of carotenoids (28-42%, 28-32%, and 29-35%, respectively, for control, AOA, and ET treatments) and Chl a+b (29-38%, 29-38%, and 30-43%, respectively, for control, AOA, and ET treatments) for inoculated in comparison to non-inoculated plants from 8 to 16 dai (Fig. 6A-D).

### **Concentrations of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, MDA, TSP, and LTGA derivatives**

For non-inoculated plants, there was no significant effect of the control, AOA, and ET treatments for the concentrations of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, MDA, TSP, and LTGA derivatives regardless of the sampling time (Fig. 7A, C, E, G, and I). For inoculated plants, there was no significant effect of the control, AOA, and ET treatments for O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and TSP concentrations regardless of the evaluation time (Fig. 7A-B and G-H). There was no significant effect of the control, AOA, and ET treatments for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and MDA concentrations at 4 and 8 dai and LTGA derivatives concentration at 4 dai (Fig. 7C-D, E-F, and I-J). The inoculated ET-sprayed plants displayed significant increases in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (20 and 38% at 12 and 16 dai, respectively), MDA concentration (60 and 32% at 12 and 16 dai, respectively), and significant decreases in LTGA derivatives concentration (23 and 13% at 8 and 16 dai, respectively) in comparison to the control treatment (Fig. 7D, F and J). The LTGA derivatives concentration was significantly lower by 23, 16, and 17%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai for ET-sprayed plants in comparison to AOA-sprayed ones. There were significant increases for O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, MDA, and TSP concentrations (34-52%, 52-55%, and 37-39%; 112-113%, 80-89%, and 158-178%; 125-250%, 53-291%, and 176-391%; and 57-126%, 25-169%, and 27-117%, respectively) for inoculated plants sprayed with water, AOA, and ET in comparison to their non-inoculated counterparts during the time-course evaluated (Fig. 7A-J).

### **Activities of antioxidant enzymes**

For non-inoculated plants, SOD, CAT, GR, and APX activities were not significantly different among treatments regardless of the evaluation time (Fig. 8A, C, E, and G). For inoculated plants, there was no significant effect of the control, AOA, and ET treatments for the activities of SOD (8 and 16 dai), CAT (from 4 to 12 dai), GR (8 and 16 dai), and APX (4 dai) (Fig. 8B, D, F, and H). For inoculated AOA-sprayed plants, CAT and GR activities significantly

increased by 35 and 68% at 16 dai and by 51 and 59% at 4 dai in comparison, respectively, to the control and ET treatments. The inoculated ET-sprayed plants showed significant decreases in SOD (22 and 16% at 4 and 12 dai, respectively), GR (20% at 12 dai), and APX activities (33, 29, and 32% at 8, 12, and 16 dai, respectively) in comparison to the control treatment. The inoculated ET-sprayed plants showed significant decreases in SOD (17% at 12 dai), GR (37 and 36% at 4 and 12 dai, respectively), and APX activities (40, 35, and 41% at 8, 12, and 16 dai, respectively) in comparison to AOA-sprayed plants. There were significant increases for SOD, CAT, GR, and APX activities (31-54%, 33-64%, and 31-39%; 18-24%, 24-65%, and 8-26%; 253-413%, 67-440%, and 57-430%; and 40-193%, 60-169%, and 43-90%, respectively) for inoculated plants sprayed with water, AOA, and ET in comparison to their non-inoculated counterparts during the time-course evaluated (Fig. 8A-H).

### **Activities of defense enzymes**

For non-inoculated plants, there was no significant effect of the control, AOA, and ET treatments for CHI, GLU, POX, PPO, LOX, and PAL activities regardless of the sampling time (Fig. 9A, C, E, G, I, and K). There was no significant effect of the control, AOA, and ET treatments for CHI (4 dai), GLU (16 dai), POX (4, 8, and 16 dai), PPO (12 and 16 dai), and LOX (4 dai). The CHI activity significantly decreased by 63 and 61% at 8 dai for AOA and ET treatments, respectively, in comparison to the control treatment. For the ET-sprayed plants, CHI activity was significantly lower by 54 and 62% at 12 dai and by 17 and 21% at 16 dai in comparison, respectively, to the control and AOA treatments (Fig. 9B). The GLU activity significantly increased by 340 and 247% at 4 dai for the control and AOA and treatments, respectively, in comparison to the ET treatment. For the AOA-sprayed plants, GLU activity was significantly lower by 21 and 72%, respectively, at 4 and 8 dai in comparison to the control treatment. The GLU activity significantly increased by 128 and 305% at 12 dai for AOA and

ET treatments, respectively, in comparison to the control treatment. For the ET-sprayed plants, GLU activity significantly increased by 78% at 12 dai in comparison to the AOA treatment (Fig. 9D). The POX activity significantly decreased by 29% at 12 dai for ET-sprayed plants in comparison to AOA-sprayed plants (Fig. 9F). The PPO activity significantly increased by 22% at 4 dai for ET-sprayed plants in comparison to AOA-sprayed plants. For AOA-sprayed plants, PPO activity significantly increased by 29 and 21% at 8 dai in comparison, respectively, to control and ET treatments (Fig. 9H). The LOX activity was significantly higher by 35, 26, and 41% at 8, 12, and 16 dai, respectively, for the AOA treatment in comparison to the control treatment. The LOX activity significantly decreased by 23, 35, and 48% at 8, 12, and 16 dai, respectively, for ET-sprayed plants in comparison to AOA-sprayed ones. The LOX activity was significantly lower by 18% at 12 dai for ET-sprayed plants in comparison to plants from the control treatment (Fig. 9J). The PAL activity significantly decreased by 48% at 4 dai for ET-sprayed plants in comparison to AOA-sprayed plants. At 8 dai, there were significant decreases of 33 and 38% on PAL activity for AOA and ET-sprayed plants, respectively, in comparison to plants from the control treatment. The PAL activity significantly decreased by 52 and 23% at 12 and 16 dai, respectively, for ET-sprayed plants in comparison to the control treatment. For ET-sprayed plants, PAL activity was significantly lower by 64 and 20% at 12 and 16 dai, respectively, in comparison to AOA-sprayed plants (Fig. 9L). There were significant increases for CHI, GLU, POX, PPO, LOX, and PAL activities (113-804%, 902-1352%, and 240-680%; 410-1099%, 486-2456%, and 194-3998%; 219-528%, 202-713%, and 239-471%; 78-118%, 72-167%, and 83-129%; 47%, 32-71%, and 13; and 43-160%, 103-159% and 130%, respectively) for inoculated plants sprayed with water, AOA, and ET in comparison to their non-inoculated counterparts during the time-course evaluated (Fig. 9A-L).

## Discussion

The involvement of ET acting as either a positive or a negative mediator of host defense responses shows a great variation among the different host-pathogen interactions (Helliwell et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2017; Abdelsamad et al. 2019). The present study results bring new insights into the involvement of this hormone in maize plants' leaves in response to infection by *E. turcicum*. Our results showed that NLB symptoms were more expressive in the leaves of ET-sprayed plants.

The seq-RNA analysis for the maize-*S. turcica* interaction revealed that genes involved in the ET, JA, and SA biosynthesis pathways were differentially expressed in the first hours after fungal inoculation, and four ET-related pathway genes (6.56%) were identified (Shi et al. 2018). In the present study, ET was produced in maize leaves infected by *E. turcicum*. By contrast, in the leaves of non-inoculated plants, this hormone was not detected but was noticed only upon ET spray. Interestingly, the accumulation of ET was a general response of the leaves of maize plants against *E. turcicum* infection regardless of its application. For the rice-*P. oryzae*, ET was rapidly produced after fungal inoculation and dramatically increased as the lesions expanded (Helliwell et al. 2016). Other studies also confirmed the negative role played by ET on *Arabidopsis*-*P. syringae* and -*Fusarium oxysporum* (Chen et al. 2009a; Pantelides et al. 2013) and rice-*B. oryzae* (De Vleeschauwer et al. 2010) interactions. However, exogenous ET application increased the resistance of barrel clover plants against infection by *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Gaige et al. 2010) and soybean plants infected by *Phytophthora sojae* and *Fusarium virguliforme* (Sugano et al. 2013; Abdelsamad et al. 2019). Tomato mutant plants impaired in ET perception exhibited lower diseases symptoms in consequence of infections by *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *vesicatoria*, *P. syringae* pv. *tomato*, and *F. oxysporum* f. sp. *lycopersici* compared to the wild-type plants (Lund et al. 1998). The ET application to rice plants increased their susceptibility to brown spot (De Vleeschauwer et al. 2010). Wang et al.

(2017) showed that ET was involved in maize plants' susceptibility to infection by *A. flavus*. Interestingly, the same authors observed that both colonization of maize kernels by *A. flavus* and conidia production exposed to an ET biosynthesis inhibitor were reduced.

Photosynthesis is the main physiological process affected in plants infected by pathogens of different lifestyles and has been investigated for the maize-*S. macrospora* and -*E. turcicum* (Bermúdez-Cardona et al. 2015; Silveira et al. 2019) and soybean-*Corynespora cassiicola*, -*Colletotrichum truncatum*, -*Cercospora sojina*, and -*P. pachyrhizi* (Dias et al. 2018; Fortunato et al. 2018; Nascimento et al. 2018; Rios et al. 2018) interactions. In the present study, the photosynthesis in maize leaves was impaired upon *E. turcicum* infection, as noticed by the lower  $A$ ,  $g_s$ , and  $E$  values linked to high  $C_i$  values. The decrease in  $A$  in infected leaves was associated with reduced  $CO_2$  influx due to stomatal closure and limitations for its fixation at the biochemical level. Lower  $E$  values were linked to a reduction in  $g_s$  in the leaves of soybean plants infected by *P. pachyrhizi* and, therefore, associated with stomatal closure (Rios et al. 2018).

Despite the increase in NLB symptoms on ET or AOA-sprayed plants, photosynthesis was not impaired as noticed by no quantitative changes in the values of Chl *a* fluorescence parameters. Differences were only noticed for non-inoculated plants and those inoculated with *E. turcicum*. There were no changes in the  $F_v/F_m$ ,  $Y(NPQ)$ , and  $Y(NO)$  values as well as on the concentrations of total chlorophylls and carotenoids during the biotrophic phase of *E. turcicum*, indicating, therefore, its incapacity to perturb the photosynthetic apparatus in maize leaves. Leaf tissues necrosis is only noticeable during the necrotrophic phase of *E. turcicum* (Kotze et al. 2019). However, as the lesions of NLB were noticed in the leaves, decreases in  $F_v/F_m$  (values lower than 0.8) occurred, indicating that the photosynthetic apparatus was damaged. Lower  $Y(NPQ)$  and  $Y(NO)$  values occurred at advanced stages of *E. turcicum* infection. Baghbani et al. (2019) demonstrated the PSII was damaged, and the photosynthetic process was

compromised as the infection process of *F. verticillioides* took place on maize plants (Baghbani et al. 2019).

As the NLB symptoms developed, the concentration of photosynthetic pigments decreased due to the appearance of necrotic lesions surrounded by intense chlorosis that irreversibly impacted the photosynthetic tissue and reduced the amount of green tissue for light capture for the photosynthetic processes. According to Fortunato et al. (2018), the coalescence of target spot lesions in soybean leaves and a progressive yellowing of the leaf tissues due to the action of non-host selective toxins released by *C. cassiicola* were associated with the lower concentration of Chl a+b and, to a lesser extent, to the Chl a+b/carotenoids ratio. Cuq et al. (1993) reported that *E. turcicum* produces the lipophilic toxin monocerin that causes brown necrotic lesions in maize leaves. Considering that the aggressiveness of *E. turcicum* is directly proportional to the release of hydrolytic enzymes and non-host selective toxins, it is plausible to hypothesize that reduction in the concentration of photosynthetic pigments was linked to lipid peroxidation in the plasmatic membrane. The MDA concentration, a biochemical indicator of lipid peroxidation, was high at advanced stages of *E. turcicum* infection, especially in ET-sprayed plants, which exhibited the greatest disease symptoms.

The oxidative burst as a response of the plant against pathogen infection gives rise to a localized accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) that can indicate defense response. The production and release of ROS (e.g., hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ), singlet oxygen ( $^1O_2$ ), superoxide anion ( $O_2^-$ ), and hydroxyl radical (OH)) in the cells may damage them or serve as signaling molecules (Camejo et al. 2016). In the present study, the highest accumulation of  $O_2^-$  occurred from 12 to 16 dai and was accompanied by the appearance of lesions and their expansion even though there was no difference among the control, AOA, and ET treatments. The highest accumulation of  $H_2O_2$  also occurred at 12 and 16 dai and was more expressive for ET-sprayed plants. The  $H_2O_2$  interplays with the diverse phytohormones to regulate the

developmental processes of plants and their stress response. Cui et al. (2019) observed that H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production stimulated the ET biosynthesis. Moreover, Wi et al. (2012) reported that ET and ROS levels correlated with the infection process of *Phytophthora parasitica* in tobacco plants. Therefore, ET production reflected pathogen penetration into the plant tissues, and later ET and ROS production were of detrimental importance for disease development (Wi et al. 2012).

Plants have developed an efficient antioxidant system to lower the damage caused by the ROS to the cells, which involves the enzymes SOD (catalyzes the removal of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> by dismutating it into O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), CAT (responsible for catalyzing the dismutation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> into H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub>), and APX (reduces the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>O) (Das and Roychoudhury 2014). The POX, CAT, and SOD genes are involved in the antioxidative system and are expressed in the first hours (12 and 60 hai) in maize leaves in response to *S. turcica* infection (Shi et al. 2018). In the present study, inoculated plants displayed a significant increase in the activities of CAT, GR, and APX from 4 to 16 dai. Moreover, ET-sprayed plants showed lower activities of SOD (4 and 12 dai), GR (12 dai), and APX (4, 12, and 16 dai), indicating that ET was able to manipulate the antioxidant system of maize plants in favor of *E. turcicum* infection.

The interaction between host and pathogen is complex and involves the pathogen's strategies to efficiently infect its host, responding through the activation of defense responses (Carere et al. 2016). In the present study, the concentration of phenolics was high for inoculated plants regardless if they were sprayed with water, ET, or AOA. The CHI is an important lytic enzyme that degrades chitin in the fungal cell wall (Malik 2019). The GLU can act directly against fungal pathogens by degrading  $\beta$ -1,3/1,6-glucans in their cell wall rendering the fungal cell lysis (Zhang et al. 2019). In addition to these enzymes, others are important for plant defense, such as POX, LOX, and PAL (Debona et al. 2018; Fagundes-Nacarath et al. 2018; Silva et al. 2019). In the present study, CHI, GLU, POX, PPO, LOX, and PAL activities

increased for inoculated plants and reduced NLB symptoms. The GLU activity increased in maize leaves infected by *E. turcicum* (Jondle et al. 1989). Maize plants infected by *U. maydis* displayed induction of genes of the shikimate pathway beside a 20-fold increase in PAL activity and an accumulation of phenolics (Doehlemann et al. 2008). In the present study, CHI, GLU, LOX, and PAL activities were lower for ET-sprayed plants. Reductions in lignin concentration may be associated with lower PAL activity and may lower the resistance of maize plants against *E. turcicum* infection. The PAL comprises the first enzyme involved in the phenylpropanoid pathway, which is involved in the synthesis of phenolics, lignin, and salicylic acid (Yadav et al. 2020). A recent study with *Arabidopsis*-*P. syringae* interaction indicated that ET likely exerted effective repression on the SA pathway by repressing multiple genes involved in the biosynthesis, transport, and signaling of this hormone, making the plants more susceptible to bacterial infection (Li et al. 2020).

Based on the experiments carried out by Tanaka et al. (2014), it was demonstrated that modifying lignin composition in maize plants increased the chance of them to become susceptible to *U. maydis* infection because of the reduced strength of cell walls that will increase the access of fungal hyphae to nutrients. According to Chen et al. (2009b), mutant plants of *Arabidopsis* with reduced ET signaling or perception were more resistant against *F. graminearum* infection than wild-type plants while mutant plants with enhanced ET production were susceptible.

In summary, we have shown that an exogenous ET supply to the leaves of maize plants played a negative role in the infection process of *E. turcicum* besides modulating fungal-induced ROS formation. The ET biosynthesis was noticed in the leaves infected by *E. turcicum* and was closely associated with NLB development. The increase in NLB symptoms can probably be attributed to the lower activities of enzymes related to the antioxidative (SOD, GR, and APX) and defense (CHI, GLU, LOX, and PAL) metabolisms.

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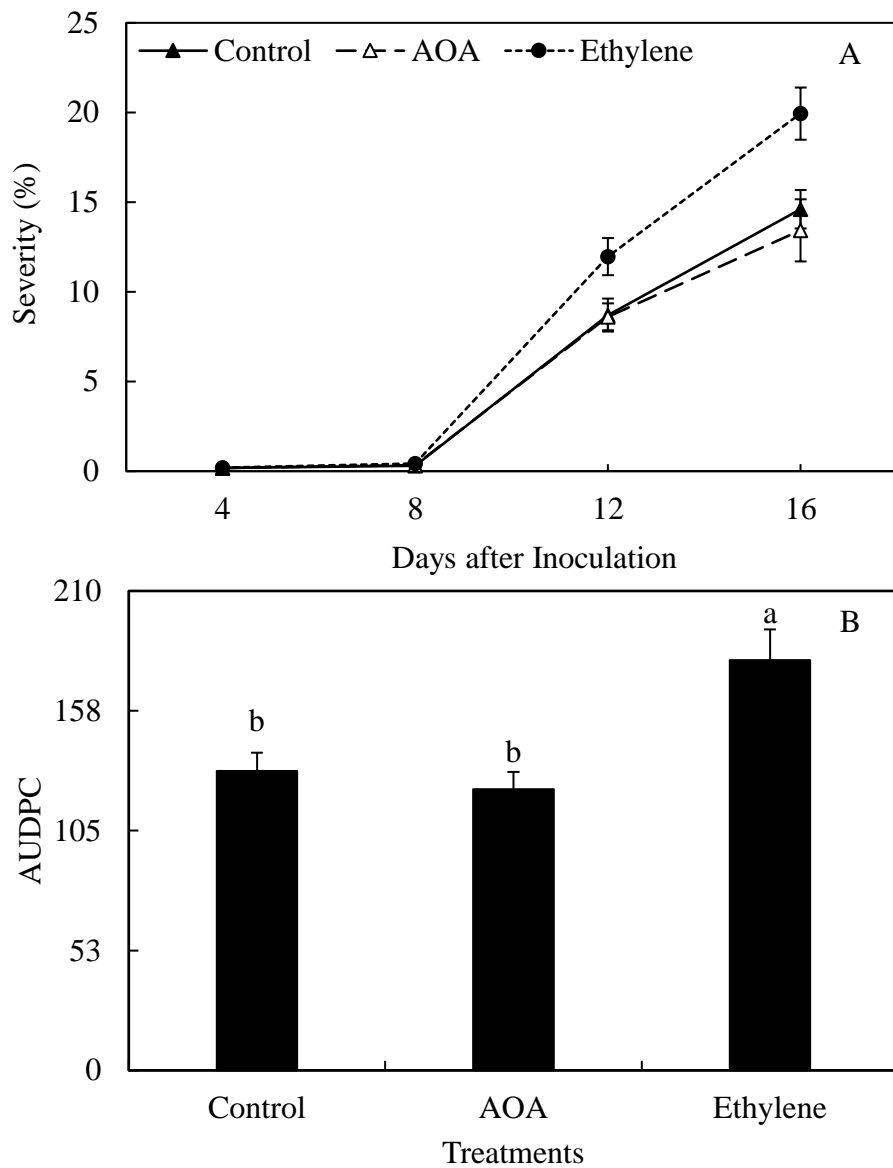
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## Table and Figures

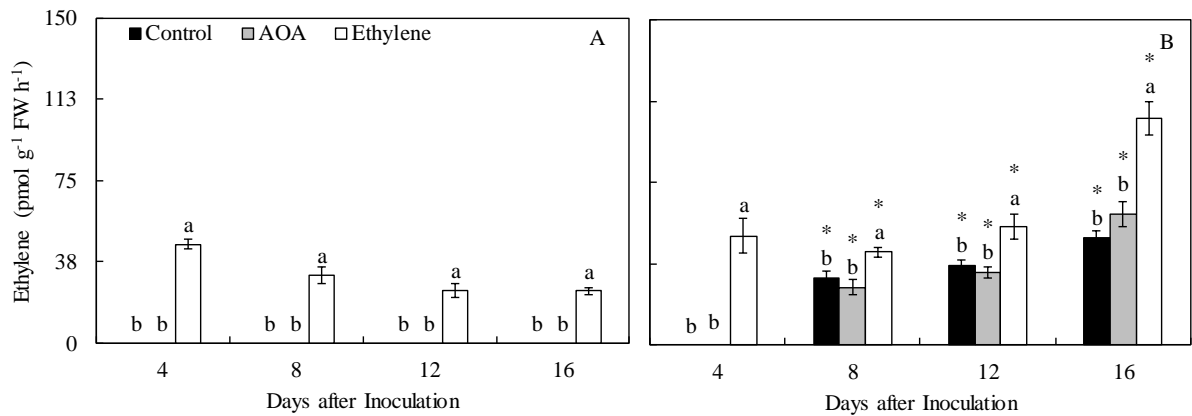
**Table 1.** Analysis of variance for the effects of foliar treatments (T), plant inoculation (PI), and the T × PI interaction for severity, area under disease progress curve (AUDPC), ethylene production, leaf gas exchange parameters (net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate (A), stomatal conductance to water vapor (g<sub>s</sub>), internal CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (C<sub>i</sub>), and transpiration rate (E)), chlorophyll (Chl) a fluorescence parameters (maximal photosystem II quantum efficiency (F<sub>v</sub>/F<sub>m</sub>), effective PSII quantum yield (Y(II)), quantum yield of regulated energy dissipation (Y(NPQ)), and quantum yield of non-regulated energy dissipation (Y(NO))), concentrations of carotenoids (CAR), Chl a+b, superoxide anion radical (O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>), hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), malondialdehyde (MDA), total soluble phenolics (TSP), and lignin-thioglycolic acid (LTGA) derivatives, antioxidant enzymes activities (superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), glutathione reductase (GR), and ascorbate peroxidase (APX)), defence-related enzymes (chitinase (CHI), β-1,3-glucanase (GLU), peroxidase (POX), polyphenoloxidase (PPO), lipoxygenase (LOX), and phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL)).

Variables/Parameters	T	PI	T × PI
Severity	< 0.001	-	-
AUDPC	0.001	-	-
Ethylene production	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.777
A	0.431	< 0.001	0.305
g <sub>s</sub>	0.08	< 0.001	0.294
C <sub>i</sub>	0.361	< 0.001	0.563
E	0.993	< 0.001	0.520
F <sub>v</sub> /F <sub>m</sub>	0.455	< 0.001	0.744
Y(II)	0.477	0.002	0.601
Y(NPQ)	0.937	< 0.001	0.668
Y(NO)	0.581	< 0.001	0.555
CAR	0.024	< 0.001	0.658
Chl a+b	0.063	< 0.001	0.314
O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0.382	< 0.001	0.491
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	0.003	< 0.001	< 0.001
MDA	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
TSP	0.019	< 0.001	0.052
LTGA derivatives	< 0.001	0.003	0.010
SOD	0.087	< 0.001	0.181
CAT	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.011
GR	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.003
APX	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
CHI	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
GLU	0.659	< 0.001	0.725
POX	0.055	< 0.001	0.017
PPO	0.076	< 0.001	0.725
LOX	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
PAL	0.026	< 0.001	< 0.001

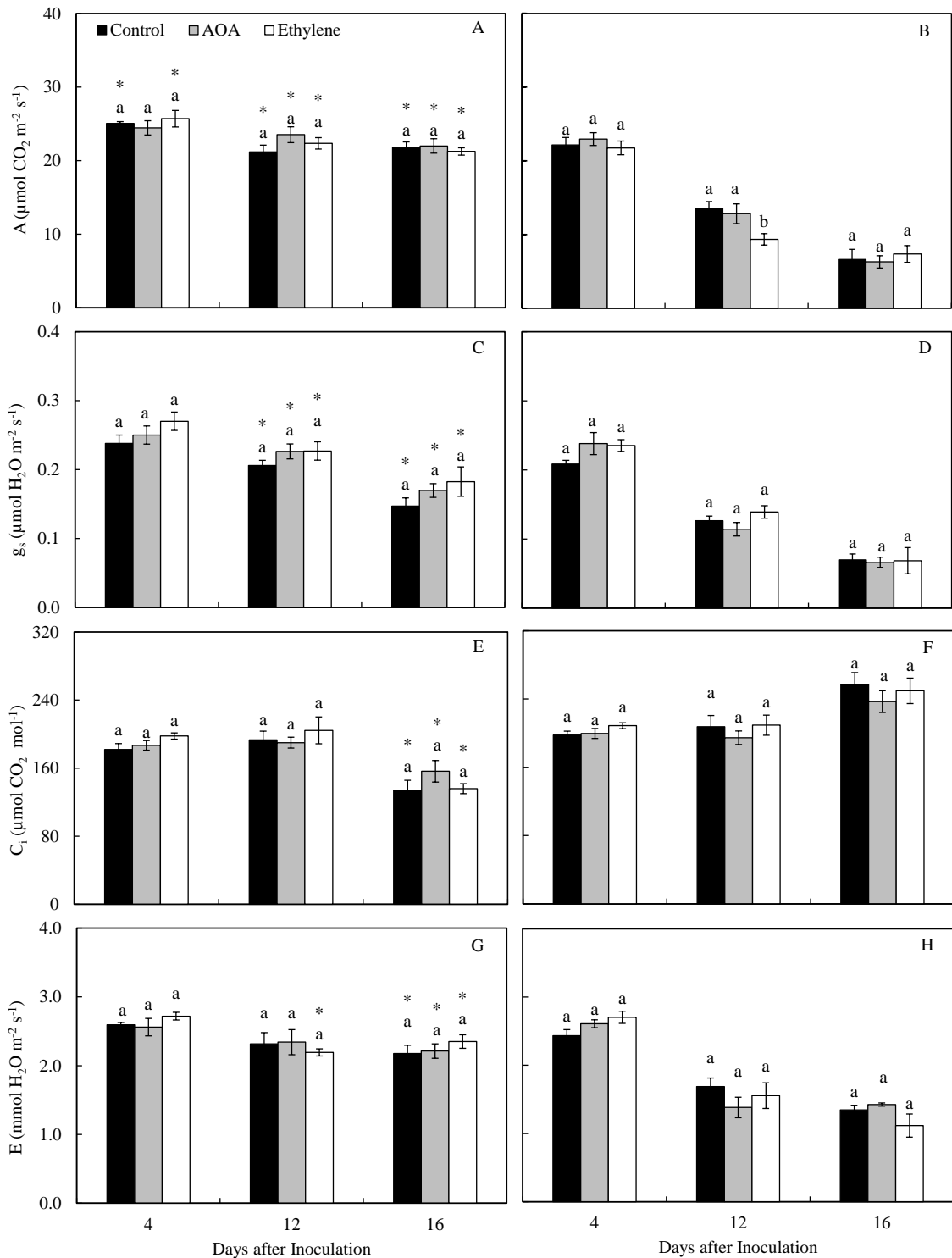
- = not determined.



**Figure 1.** Severity of northern leaf blight (A) and area under disease progress curve (AUDPC) (B) for maize plants sprayed with distilled water (control), aminooxyacetic acid (AOA), and ethylene. For AUDPC, treatments means followed by different letters are significantly different ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .

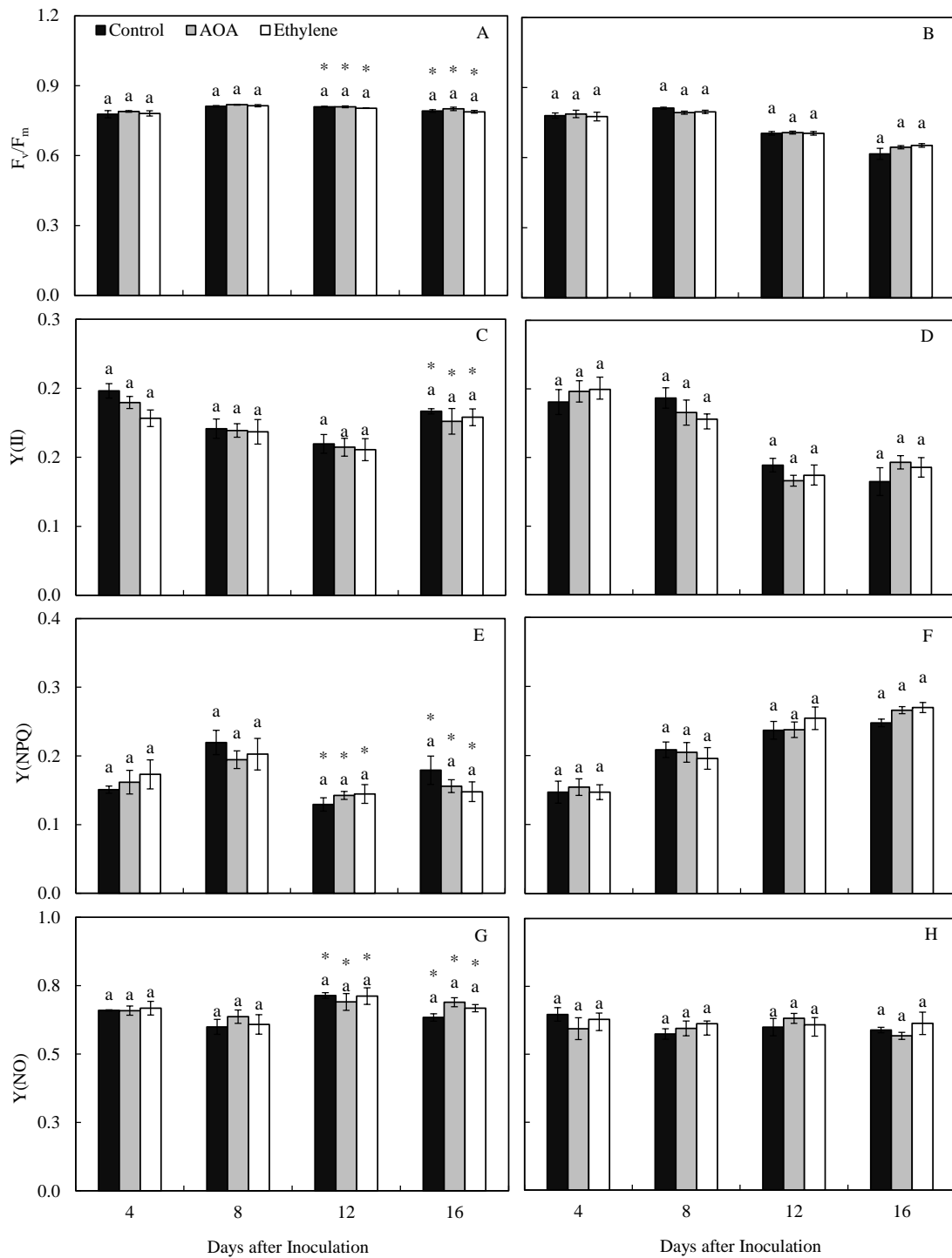


**Figure 2.** Ethylene production for maize plants non-inoculated (A) and inoculated with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B) sprayed with distilled water (control), aminooxyacetic acid (AOA), and ethylene. For each evaluation time, treatments means followed by different letters and non-inoculated and inoculated plants, for each treatment, followed by an asterisk (\*) are significantly different ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test. Bars represent the standard error of the means. FW = fresh weight. n = 4.



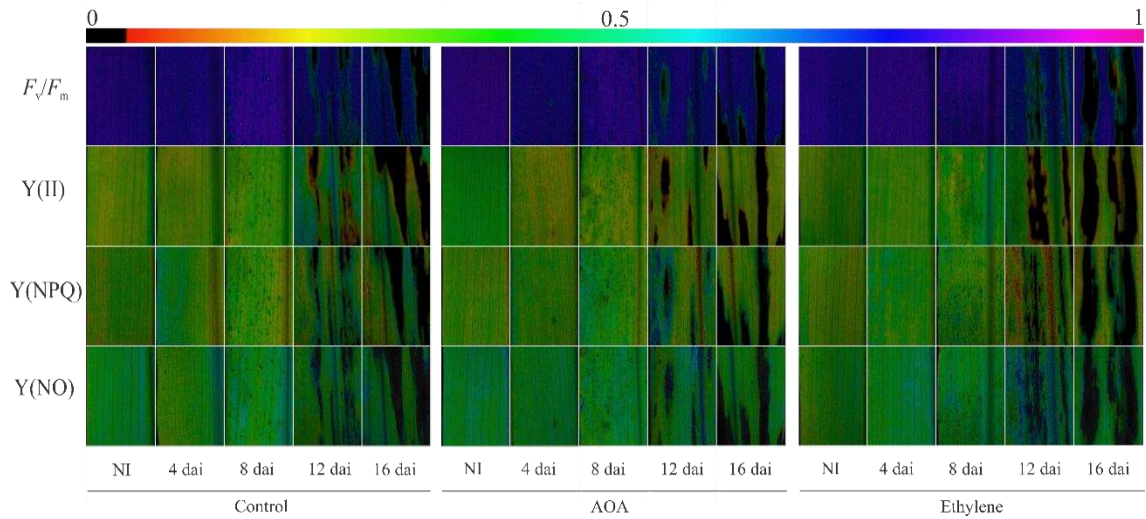
**Figure 3.** Leaf gas exchange parameters: net carbon assimilation rate (A) (A and B), stomatal conductance to water vapor ( $g_s$ ) (C and D), internal  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration ( $C_i$ ) (E and F), and transpiration rate (E) (G and H) determined in the fifth leaf of maize plants sprayed with distilled water (control), aminooxyacetic acid (AOA), and ethylene and non-inoculated (A, C,

E, and G) or inoculated with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B, D, F, and H). For each evaluation time, treatments means followed by different letters and non-inoculated and inoculated plants, for each treatment, followed by an asterisk (\*) are significantly different ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .

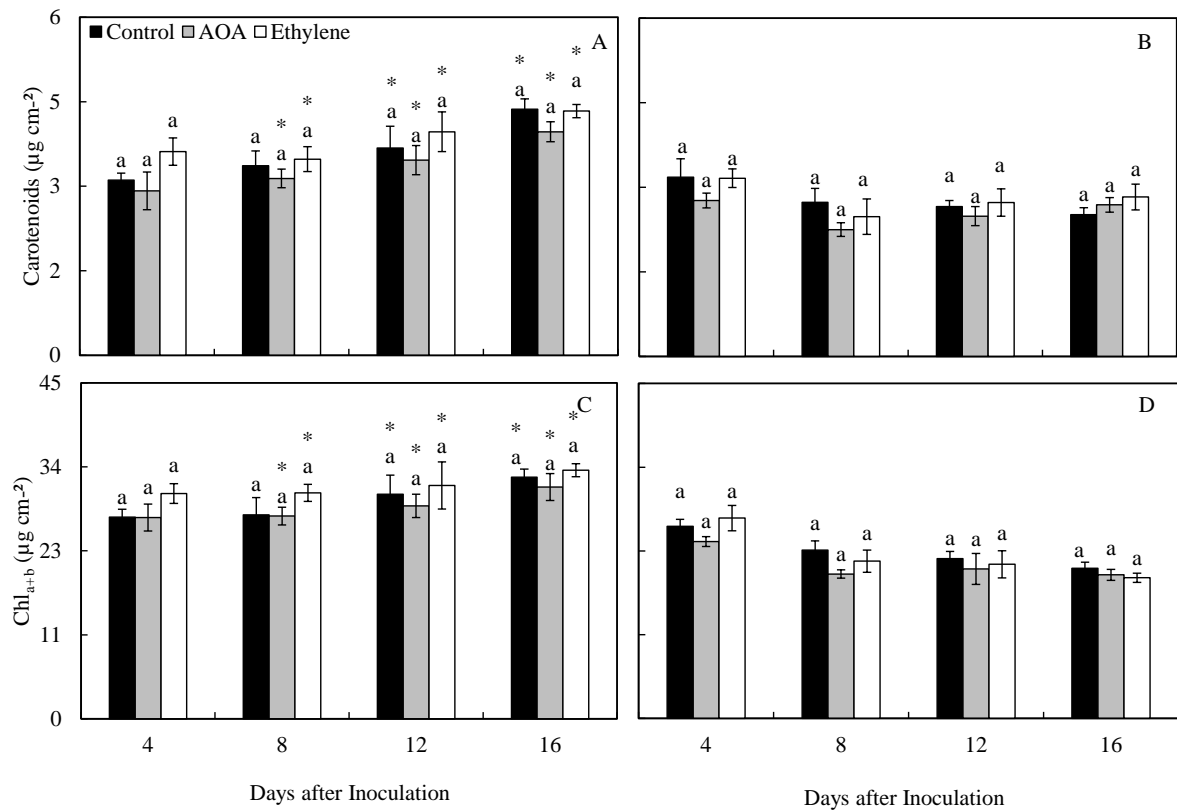


**Figure 4.** Chlorophyll a parameters: variable-to-maximum chlorophyll a fluorescence ratio ( $F_v/F_m$ ) (A and B), effective PSII quantum yield ( $Y(II)$ ) (C and D), quantum yield of regulated energy dissipation ( $Y(NPQ)$ ) (E and F), and quantum yield of non-regulated energy dissipation ( $Y(NO)$ ) (G and H) determined in the fifth leaf of maize plants sprayed with distilled water

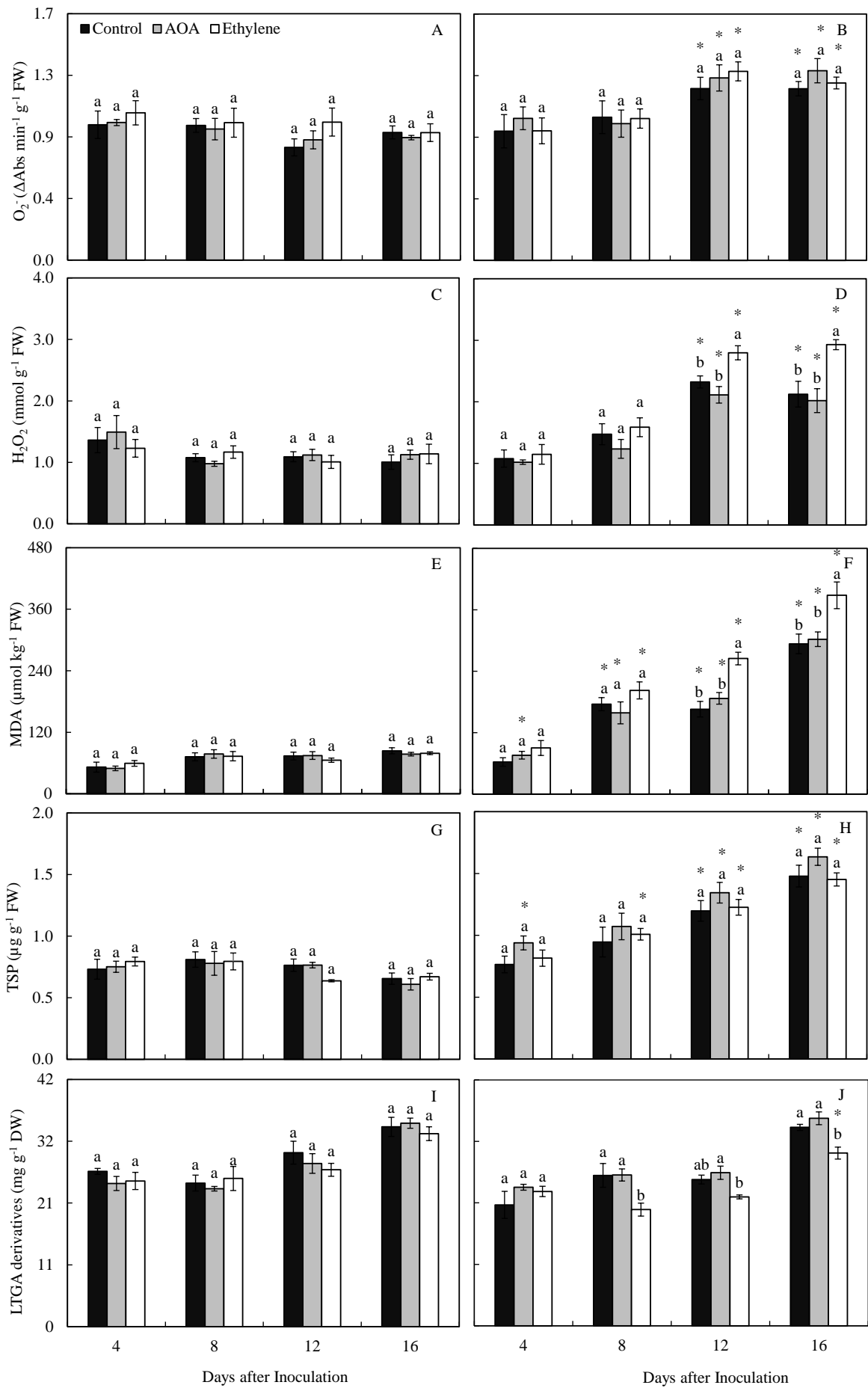
(control), aminooxyacetic acid (AOA), and ethylene and non-inoculated (A, C, E, and G) or inoculated with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B, D, F, and H). For each evaluation time, treatments means followed by different letters and non-inoculated and inoculated plants, for each treatment, followed by an asterisk (\*) are significantly different ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .



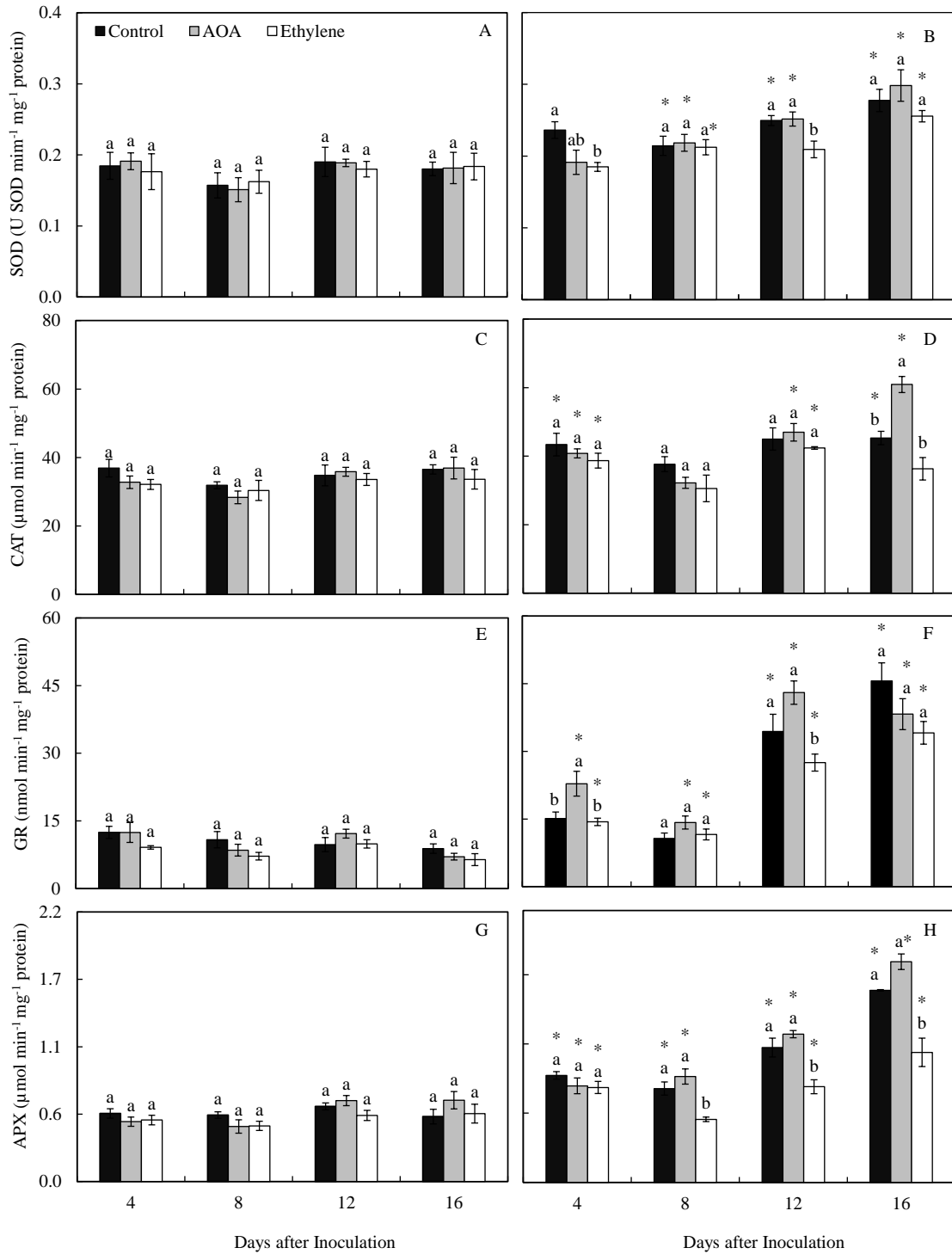
**Figure 5.** Images of chlorophyll a fluorescence parameters: maximum PSII quantum efficiency ( $F_v/F_m$ ), photochemical yield ( $Y(II)$ ), yield for dissipation by down-regulation ( $Y(NPQ)$ ), and yield for non-regulated dissipation ( $Y(NO)$ ) determined in the fifth leaf of maize plants sprayed with distilled water (control), aminooxyacetic acid (AOA), and ethylene and inoculated with *Exserohilum turcicum*. Non-inoculated (NI) plants were considered as the control treatment.



**Figure 6.** Concentrations of carotenoids (A and B) and total chlorophyll (Chl a+b) (C and D) determined in the fifth leaf of maize plants sprayed with water (control), aminooxyacetic acid (AOA), and ethylene and non-inoculated (A and C) or inoculated with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B and D). For each evaluation time, treatments means followed by different letters and non-inoculated and inoculated plants, for each treatment, followed by an asterisk (\*) are significantly different ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test. Bars represent the standard error of the means. FW = fresh weight.  $n = 4$ .



**Figure 7.** Concentrations of superoxide anion radical ( $O_2^-$ ) (A and B), hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) (C and D), malondialdehyde (MDA) (E and F), total soluble phenolics (TSP) (G and H), and lignin-thioglycolic acid (LTGA) derivatives (I and J) determined in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with distilled water (control), aminooxyacetic acid (AOA), and ethylene and non-inoculated (A, C, E, and G) or inoculated with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B, D, F, and H). For each evaluation time, treatments means followed by different letters and non-inoculated and inoculated plants, for each treatment, followed by an asterisk (\*) are significantly different ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test. Bars represent the standard error of the means. FW = fresh weight. DW=dry weight. n = 4.



**Figure 8.** Activities of superoxide dismutase (SOD) (A and B), catalase (CAT) (C and D), glutathione reductase (GR) (E and F), and ascorbate peroxidase (APX) (G and H) determined in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with distilled water (control), aminooxyacetic acid (AOA), and ethylene and non-inoculated (A, C, E, and G) or inoculated with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B,

D, F, and H). For each evaluation time, treatments means followed by different letters and non-inoculated and inoculated plants, for each treatment, followed by an asterisk (\*) are significantly different ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .



**Figure 9.** Activities of chitinase (CHI) (A and B),  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase (GLU) (C and D), peroxidase (POX) (E and F), polyphenoloxidase (PPO) (G and H), lipoxygenase (LOX) (I and J), and phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL) (K and L) determined in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with distilled water (control), aminooxyacetic acid (AOA), and ethylene and non-inoculated (A, C, E, G, I, and K) or inoculated (B, D, F, H, J, and L) with *Exserohilum turcicum*. For each evaluation time, treatments means followed by different letters and non-inoculated and inoculated plants, for each treatment, followed by an asterisk (\*) are significantly different ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .

## **Chapter II**

### **Physiological and Biochemical Aspects of Maize Resistance to Northern Leaf Blight**

#### **Potentiated by Nickel**

**Abstract**

The northern leaf blight (NLB), caused by *Exserohilum turcicum*, is one of the most devastating diseases in maize production worldwide. The nickel (Ni) supply to maize plants may be an interesting strategy for NLB management. This study investigated the effect of foliar Ni spray on the potentiation of maize resistance against *E. turcicum* infection by examining alterations in the photosynthesis (leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll a fluorescence parameters), foliar concentrations of micronutrients, production of ethylene and reactive oxygen species (ROS) as well as activities of both defense and antioxidant enzymes. Ni inhibited the mycelial growth of *E. turcicum*. High foliar concentrations of manganese and Ni were noticed for inoculated and +Ni plants, which exhibited decreases of 33 and 24%, respectively, for NLB severity at 12 and 16 days after inoculation. Photosynthesis was impaired as the NLB lesions expanded in the leaves of inoculated -Ni plants mainly due to biochemical limitations and destruction of pigments. Lower malondialdehyde and hydrogen peroxide concentrations were noticed for the leaves of inoculated +Ni plants. The activities of antioxidant enzymes were not affected by Ni, except for an increase in glutathione reductase activity for non-inoculated +Ni plants. The decrease in NLB severity gained by Ni supply was related to a direct effect of this micronutrient against *E. turcicum* infection associated with the potentiation of host defense responses mainly through great lipoxygenase and polyphenoloxidase activities as well as more production of phenolics and lignin.

Keywords: *Exserohilum turcicum*. *Zea mays*. Host defense enzymes. Leaf gas exchange. Mineral nutrition. Photosynthesis. Plant nutrition.

## Resumo

A queima foliar, causada por *Exserohilum turcicum*, é uma das doenças mais devastadoras na produção de milho em todo o mundo. O fornecimento de níquel (Ni) para plantas de milho pode ser uma estratégia interessante para o manejo da queima foliar. Este estudo investigou o efeito da pulverização foliar de Ni na potenciação da resistência do milho contra a infecção por *E. turcicum*, examinando alterações na fotossíntese (trocas gasosas e parâmetros de fluorescência da clorofila a), concentrações foliares de micronutrientes, produção de etileno e espécies reativas de oxigênio (EROS), bem como atividades de enzimas de defesa e antioxidantes. O Ni inibiu o crescimento micelial de *E. turcicum*. Altas concentrações foliares de manganês e Ni foram observadas nas plantas inoculadas e +Ni, que exibiram reduções de 33 e 24%, respectivamente, para a severidade da queima foliar aos 12 e 16 dias após a inoculação. A fotossíntese foi prejudicada à medida que as lesões da queima foliar se expandiram nas folhas das plantas -Ni inoculadas, principalmente, devido a limitações bioquímicas e destruição de pigmentos. Baixas concentrações de malonaldeído e peróxido de hidrogênio foram observadas nas folhas das plantas inoculadas +Ni. As atividades das enzimas antioxidantes não foram afetadas pelo Ni, exceto por um aumento na atividade da glutatona redutase para plantas não inoculadas +Ni. A diminuição da severidade da queima foliar obtida pelo suprimento de Ni foi relacionada a um efeito direto deste micronutriente contra a infecção por *E. turcicum* associada à potencialização das respostas de defesa do hospedeiro principalmente através de grandes atividades da lipoxigenase e polifenoloxidase, bem como maior produção de fenólicos e lignina.

Palavras-chave: *Exserohilum turcicum*. *Zea mays*. Enzimas de defesa da planta. Fotossíntese. Nutrição de plantas. Trocas gasosas.

## Introduction

Many diseases greatly impact maize production worldwide, and northern leaf blight (NLB), caused by the fungus *Exserohilum turcicum* (Passerini) Leonard and Suggs (syn. *Setosphaeria turcica* [Luttrell] Leonard and Suggs) (Leonard and Suggs 1974; Luttrell and Bacon 1977; Sivanesan 1984) stands out as one of the most important. The NLB is more devastating in maize growing regions with high humidity levels and moderate temperatures resulting in yield losses greater than 50% (Hennessy et al. 1990; Hooda et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2020). Long elliptical, greyish-green, or tan lesions are noticed mainly in the older leaves of maize plants, and as they expand, the photosynthesis becomes seriously compromised (Kotze et al. 2019; Silveira et al. 2019). Also, monocerine, a non-host selective toxin released by *E. turcicum* at the infection sites, maximizes leaf tissues necrosis (Cuq et al. 1993).

The infection process of *E. turcicum* on maize leaves results in lower values of net assimilation rate, stomatal conductance to water vapor, transpiration rate, internal CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, maximum quantum yield of photosystem (PS) II, and effective quantum yield of PS II (Pant et al. 2001; Silveira et al. 2019). Silveira et al. (2019) reported that on maize leaves infected by *E. turcicum*, the quantum yield of regulated energy dissipation increased, the concentrations of hydrogen peroxide, malondialdehyde, and electrolyte leakage were higher, and the antioxidative system (great activities of ascorbate peroxidase, catalase, glutathione peroxidase, glutathione-S-transferase, glutathione reductase, peroxidase, and superoxide dismutase) was more robust. The  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase activity also increased on maize leaves with NLB symptoms (Jondle et al. 1989).

Cultural practices such as crop rotation, use of resistant hybrids, and foliar spray of fungicides have been used by the growers to reduce the impact of NLB on yield (Nelson et al. 2018). Thus, more sustainable methods for NLB control need to be investigated to be integrated with the cultural strategies available, aiming to reduce the production costs. Mineral nutrition

stands out as an effective strategy to increase commercial crops' resistance against their most important diseases (Datnoff et al. 2007). Included in the list of essential nutrients to plants, nickel (Ni), applied to both soil and foliarly, increases plant growth, decreases urea concentration on plant tissues, and maximizes urease activity (Brown et al. 1987; Broadley et al. 2012). The importance of Ni to improve maize growth has been highlighted (Sabir et al. 2011). The involvement of Ni for optimum functioning of some enzymes (e.g., acetyl-CoA decarbonylase synthase, aci-reductone dioxygenase, carbon monoxide dehydrogenase, hydrogenase, methyl-coenzyme M reductase, Ni-dependent glyoxalase, NiFe-hydrogenase, methyleneurease, superoxide dismutase, and urease) explain its role in improving plant growth and development (Broadley et al. 2012).

Some crops supplied with Ni are less prone to be affected by some foliar diseases due to a direct effect of Ni against the pathogens or due to the antifungal property of ureases at the infection sites (Becker-Ritt et al. 2007; Wiebke-Strohm et al. 2012; Wood et al. 2012; Carlini and Ligabue-Braun 2016). The Ni has been reported to reduce the severities of diseases in the following host-pathogen interactions: milkwort jewel flower-Erysiphe polygoni, -Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris and -Alternaria brassicicola (Boyd et al. 1994), pecan-Fusicladium effusum (Wood et al. 2004, 2012), soybean-Microsphaera diffusa (Barcelos et al. 2018), cucumber-cucumber mosaic virus (Derbalah and Elsharkawy 2019), and soybean-Phakopsora pachyrhizi (Einhardt et al. 2020a,b). According to Barcelos et al. (2018), high activities of enzymes of the antioxidative system (e.g., catalase, peroxidase, and superoxide dismutase) were associated with a reduction in powdery mildew severity on the leaves of soybean plants supplied with Ni due to damage to conidia and fungal mycelia on the leaf surface. Soybean plants supplied with Ni showed less Asian soybean rust severity, and consequently, the concentrations of malondialdehyde, anion superoxide, and hydrogen peroxide were lower while  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase activity was high (Einhardt et al. 2020a,b). Moreover, the URE gene expression and

the defense-related genes *PAL1.1*, *PAL2.1*, *CHI1B1*, and *PR-1A* were up-regulated in the leaves of Ni-treated plants infected by *P. pachyrhizi* (Einhardt et al. 2020a,b). Moreover, the values of the parameters related to leaf gas exchange (net carbon assimilation, stomatal conductance to water vapor, and transpiration rate) and chlorophyll a fluorescence (maximum photochemical efficiency of photosystem II (PSII), effective yield of PSII, and electron transport rate) were higher, and the yield for other non-regulated losses and internal CO<sub>2</sub> concentration values were lower for soybean plants sprayed with Ni and infected by *P. pachyrhizi* (Einhardt et al. 2020b).

Ethylene negatively affects plants' resistance to pathogens due to its interaction with other plant hormones (Chen et al. 2009; De Vleeschauwer et al. 2010; Pantelides et al. 2013). It is plausible that a reduction in the levels of ethylene in plant tissues may be linked to the beneficial effect gained by Ni supply. The Ni had the potential to inhibit ethylene biosynthesis (Pennazio and Roggero 1992) and increase the post-harvest longevity of fruits and flowers (Smith and Woodburn 1983; Zheng et al. 2006; Kazemi et al. 2012).

Taking into consideration the role played by Ni on host defense responses against the infection by pathogens, the present study aimed to investigate its effect in the potentiation of maize resistance against infection by *E. turcicum* at both biochemical and physiological levels considering the scarcity of studies in the literature regarding this subject.

## **Material and Methods**

### **Plant growth**

Seeds of the maize cultivar P-1630 Hx (susceptible to *E. turcicum*) (Silveira et al. 2019) were sown in plastic pots containing 2 kg of a substrate (1:1:1 mixture of pine bark, peat, and expanded vermiculite) amended with 1.63 g of calcium phosphate monobasic. Plants were kept in a greenhouse (temperature of  $25 \pm 3^{\circ}\text{C}$  (day) and  $21 \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  (night) and relative humidity of  $75 \pm 5\%$ ). Plants in each pot were fertilized, weekly, with 50 mL of a nutrient solution

composed, in mg/L, of 192 KCl, 104.52 K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 150.37 MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 61 CH<sub>4</sub>N<sub>2</sub>O, 100 NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>, 0.27 (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>MO<sub>7</sub>O<sub>24</sub>, 1.61 H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub>, 6.67 ZnSO<sub>4</sub>, 1.74 CuSO<sub>4</sub>, 4.10 MnCl<sub>2</sub>, 4.08 FeSO<sub>4</sub>, and 5.58 ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA).

### **Inoculum production, plant inoculation, and treatments**

Plants were inoculated with the monosporic UFV-DFP Et22 isolate of *E. turcicum*. The fungus was grown in Petri dishes containing lactose casein hydrolysate (LCH) medium (Malca and Ullstrup 1962) kept in an incubator (25°C and photoperiod of 16 hours light and 8 hours dark) for ten days. Plants were inoculated with a conidial suspension ( $1 \times 10^4$  conidia/ml) of *E. turcicum* at 20 days after emergence (plants with five fully expanded leaves) using a VL Airbrush atomizer (Paasche Airbrush Co., Chicago, IL). Gelatin (0.5% w/v) was added to the conidial suspension to aid conidia adhesion to the leaves. At eight days after inoculation, leaf fragments containing necrotic lesions were collected, disinfected in solutions of 70% (v/v) aqueous alcohol and 2% sodium hypochlorite (v/v), and transferred to Petri dishes (three-leaf fragments per dish) containing LCH medium. Petri dishes were transferred to an incubator (25°C and photoperiod of 16 hours of light and 8 hours of dark) for ten days. After this period, a total of 1 ml of sterile distilled water was added to each Petri dish, and fungal mycelia were carefully disrupted using a camel hair brush within a laminar flow chamber to induce fungal sporulation. After this procedure, Petri dishes were transferred to an incubator (25°C and photoperiod of 12 h with blacklight lamps emitting light near-ultraviolet (320-400 nm) and 12 h dark) for five days.

Plants with five fully expanded leaves were inoculated with a conidial suspension of *E. turcicum* as described above and kept in a growth chamber (temperature of  $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and relative humidity of  $90 \pm 5\%$ ) under dark for the first 12 h to allow conidia germination and fungal penetration. Thereafter, plants were transferred to a greenhouse ( $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ , the relative humidity

of  $75 \pm 5\%$ , and natural photon flux density) for the experiments' duration. Plants were sprayed with a solution (7.5 mL per plant) of  $0.41 \text{ g NiSO}_4 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O L}^{-1}$  ( $50 \text{ g Ni ha}^{-1}$ ) and 0.01% (v/v) Tween-20 at 72 h before inoculation with *E. turcicum* by using a VL Airbrush atomizer (Paasche Airbrush Co., Chicago, IL). Plants sprayed with water served as the control treatment.

### **Determination of Ni concentration in the substrate and foliar concentration of nutrients**

Samples of the substrate used to grow the maize plants were collected before sowing, and Ni concentration was determined by flame atomic absorption spectrophotometry following the method 7000B (US EPA 2007). This Ni concentration in the substrate was  $41.51 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ . For determination of foliar nutrients concentration, leaves from plants used to evaluate NLB severity (16 dai) and also from non-inoculated plants were collected, washed in deionized water, and dried in a drying oven with forced ventilation. The leaf tissue was digested with a nitric-perchloric acid solution (Sarruge and Haag 1974). Foliar concentrations of copper (Cu), iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), nickel (Ni), and zinc (Zn) were determined by optical emission spectrometry with inductively coupled plasma (ICP-OES) (DV8300, PerkinElmer).

### **In vitro assays**

The sensitivity of *E. turcicum* to Ni was evaluated in vitro using the concentrations of 0, 0.125, 0.25, 0.375, 0.5, and  $1 \text{ g Ni L}^{-1}$ . The nickel sulfate ( $\text{NiSO}_4 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O L}^{-1}$ ) was the Ni source. Melted lactose casein hydrolysate (MLCH) medium was amended with each Ni rate and then poured into Petri plates (20 mL per plate). Then, one plug of MLCH medium (10 mm in diameter) containing fungal mycelia obtained from the edge of a ten-day-old colony of *E. turcicum* was placed in the center of each Petri dish. The dishes were kept in a growth chamber ( $25^\circ\text{C}$  and photoperiod of 16 hours of light and 8 hours of dark). The fungal colony in each Petri dish was measured to obtain its diameter in two orthogonal directions at 10 days using a digital caliper.

The surface area of the plug was subtracted from the total surface area measured on each Petri dish. The percent of mycelial growth inhibition was calculated as follows:  $100 - [(mycelia \text{ surface area of each replication per treatment from the Ni rates} / mycelia \text{ surface area of the medium non-amended with Ni}) \times 100]$  (Weems and Bradley 2017). A linear interpolation method was used to calculate the effective concentration (EC) to reduce fungal mycelia growth by 50% (EC<sub>50</sub>) (Weems and Bradley 2017).

### **Assessment of NLB severity**

The NLB severity was evaluated on the fifth fully expanded leaf, from basis to top, of each plant per replication of each treatment at 4, 8, 12, and 16 days after inoculation (dai). The leaves were scanned at 600 dpi resolution, and the images were processed using the QUANT software (Vale et al. 2003) to obtain the severity values. The area under the disease progress curve (AUDPC) was calculated using the trapezoidal integration of NLB progress curves over time, according to Shaner and Finney (1977).

### **Determination of ethylene (ET) concentration**

The ET was measured on the fourth fully expanded leaf, from basis to top, of each plant per replication of each treatment at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai. The leaves were weighed to obtain their fresh weight and placed in Erlenmeyer flasks hermetically sealed. After an incubation of 12 h, an air sample of 1 mL was taken from the flask headspace and injected into a gas chromatograph (Hewlett-Packard 5890, series II) following the procedures described by Silva et al. (2014).

### **Determination of the leaf gas exchange parameters**

A portable open-system infrared gas analyzer (LI-6400XT, LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA) was used to obtain the values of net carbon assimilation rate (A), stomatal conductance to water

vapor ( $g_s$ ), internal CO<sub>2</sub> concentration ( $C_i$ ), and transpiration rate ( $E$ ) on the fifth fully expanded leaf, from basis to top, of each plant per replication of each treatment at 4, 12, and 16 dai. Evaluations were performed from 10:00 to 12:00 a.m. under artificial and saturating photon irradiance ( $1200 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of  $\pm 400$  ppm.

### **Imaging of the Chlorophyll (Chl) a fluorescence**

The images and fluorescence parameters of Chl a were obtained at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai using an IMAGING-PAM fluorometer (Maxi version) and the Imaging Win software (Heinz Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany). The images were obtained with a resolution of  $640 \times 480$  pixels in the fifth fully expanded leaf, from basis to top, of each replication per treatment. The Chl a fluorescence emission transients were captured by a CCD (charge-coupled device) camera with a resolution of  $640 \times 480$  pixels in a visible sample area of  $24 \times 32$  mm on each leaf. The leaves were then exposed to a weak and modulated measuring beam ( $0.5 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $100 \mu\text{s}$ ,  $1 \text{ Hz}$ ) to determine the initial fluorescence ( $F_0$ ) when all the PSII reaction centers were open. Next, a saturating white light pulse of  $2.400 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  ( $10 \text{ Hz}$ ) was applied for  $0.8 \text{ s}$  to ensure maximum fluorescence emission ( $F_m$ ) when all the PSII reaction centers are expected to be closed. The leaves were initially adapted to darkness for  $30 \text{ min}$ , after which they were carefully and individually fixed in support at a distance of  $18.5 \text{ cm}$  from the CCD camera. From these initial measurements, the maximum PSII photochemical efficiency of the dark-adapted leaves was estimated through the variable-to-maximum Chl fluorescence ratio as follows:  $F_v/F_m = [(F_m - F_0)/F_m]$ . Following the calculations proposed by Kramer et al. (2004), the energy absorbed by the PSII for the following two yield components for dissipative processes was determined: the yield of photochemistry [ $Y_{II} = F'_m - F/F'_m$ ], the yield for dissipation by downregulation [ $Y(\text{NPQ}) = (F_s/F'_m) - (F_s/F_m)$ ], and the yield for other non-photochemical (non-

regulated) losses [ $Y(NO) = F_s/F_m$ ]. These parameters were calculated using the Imaging Win software (Kramer et al. 2004).

### **Determination of the concentration of photosynthetic pigments**

Five leaf discs (8 mm in diameter) obtained from the fifth fully expanded leaf, from basis to top, of each plant per replication, were placed in glass vials with 5 ml of dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), and the absorbances of the extracts were read at 480, 649, and 665 nm using DMSO as a blank after 24 h at 25°C (Wellburn 1994, Santos et al. 2008).

### **Biochemical assays**

The fourth and fifth fully expanded leaves, from basis to top, of each plant per replication of each treatment were collected at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai. Leaves were kept in liquid nitrogen during sampling and stored at -80°C thereafter.

### **Determination of superoxide anion radical ( $O_2^-$ ) concentration**

A total of 0.2 g of leaf tissue was ground into a fine powder with liquid nitrogen using a vibration ball mill and homogenized in 2 ml of a solution containing 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) and 1 mM sodium diethyldithiocarbamate (SDD). The homogenate was centrifuged at 22,000 g for 20 min at 4°C. After centrifugation, an aliquot of the supernatant was placed to react with a solution containing 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2), 1 mM SDD, and 0.25 mM nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT). The  $O_2^-$  concentration was determined by subtracting the absorbance of the final product from the initial absorbance at 540 nm (Chaitanya and Naithani 1994).

**Determination of hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) concentration**

A total of 0.1 g of leaf tissue was ground into a fine powder with liquid nitrogen using a vibration ball mill and homogenized in 2 ml of 0.1% (w/v) of trichloroacetic acid (TCA). The homogenate was centrifuged at 12.000 g for 15 min at 4°C, and an aliquot of the supernatant reacted with a mixture containing 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) and potassium iodide solution and incubated for 5 min. Absorbance was determined at 390 nm. The H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration was determined based on a standard curve made with known concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Sergiev et al. 1997).

**Determination of malondialdehyde (MDA) concentration**

A total of 0.1 g of leaf tissue was ground into a fine powder with liquid nitrogen using a vibration ball mill and homogenized and homogenized in 2 ml of a solution of TCA 0.1% (w/v). The homogenate was centrifuged at 12.000 g for 15 min at 4°C. An aliquot of the supernatant was mixed with 0.75 ml of 0.5% thiobarbituric acid (TBA) solution (w/v) (prepared in 20% (w/v) TCA) and incubated in a water bath at 95°C for 60 min. Thereafter, the reaction was quenched in an ice bath following centrifugation at 10.000 g for 10 min. The specific absorbance of the supernatant was determined at 532 nm. Non-specific absorbance was measured at 600 nm and subtracted from the value of the specific absorbance. The extinction coefficient of 155 mM<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> was used to calculate the MDA concentration (Hodges et al. 1999).

**Determination of total soluble phenolics (TSP) and lignin-thioglycolic acid (LTGA) derivatives concentrations**

A total of 0.1 g of leaf tissue was ground into a fine powder with liquid nitrogen using a vibration ball mill and homogenized in 1.5 ml of 80% (v/v) methanol solution. The crude extract

was shaken at 300 rpm at 25°C for 12 h, and the mixture was centrifuged at 13.000 g for 30 min. The TSP concentration was determined in the methanolic extract, and the pellet was kept at 20°C to determine the LTGA derivatives concentration, according to Fortunato et al. (2015).

### **Determination of antioxidant enzymes activities**

A total of 0.2 g of leaf tissue was macerated in a vibration ball mill with liquid nitrogen to obtain a fine powder, which was homogenized in 2 ml of potassium phosphate buffer 100 mM (pH 6.8) containing 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 mM phenylmethyl-sulphonyl fluoride (PMSF), and 0.5% (w/v) polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVPP). The homogenate was centrifuged at 13.000 g for 15 min at 4°C, and the supernatant was divided into aliquots which were used as extracts for the determinations of superoxide dismutase (SOD, EC 1.15.1.1), catalase (CAT, EC 1.11.1.6), glutathione reductase (GR, EC 1.8.1.7), and ascorbate peroxidase (APX, EC 1.11.1.11) activities as previously described (Bermúdez-Cardona et al. 2015a, Tatagiba et al. 2015, Rios et al. 2017). Proteins concentration was measured using the Bradford assay with bovine serum albumin as a standard (Bradford 1976).

### **Determination of defense enzymes activities**

A total of 0.2 g of leaf tissue was macerated in a vibration ball mill with liquid nitrogen to obtain a fine powder to determine the activities of chitinase (CHI) (EC 3.2.1.14),  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase (GLU) (EC 3.2.1.39), peroxidase (POX) (EC 1.11.1.7), polyphenoloxidase (PPO), lipoxygenase (LOX) (EC 1.13.11.12), and phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL) (EC 4.3.1.5). The fine powder was homogenized in 2 ml of a solution containing 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 6.8), 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF, and 0.5% (w/v) PVPP. The homogenate was centrifuged at 12.000 g for 15 min at 4 °C, and the supernatant was used to determine CHI, GLU, PAL, PPO, and LOX activities as previously described (Polanco et al. 2012; Fortunato

et al. 2015; Fagundes-Nacarath et al. 2018). Proteins concentration was measured as described above.

### **Experimental design and statistical analysis**

A  $2 \times 2$  factorial experiment, consisting of plants non-supplied or supplied with Ni (referred to as treatments (T) thereafter) and plant inoculation (PI) (non-inoculated and inoculated plants), was arranged in a completely randomized design with eight replications. Each replication corresponded to a plastic pot containing two plants. The experiment was repeated once. All parameters and variables evaluated were subjected to analysis of variance, and treatments means were compared by F test ( $P \leq 0.05$ ). Data were analyzed using the Minitab software (version 18; Minitab Corporation).

## **Results**

### **Analysis of variance**

The factors foliar treatments (T) and plant inoculation (PI), as well as the  $T \times PI$  interaction, were significant for most of the variables and parameters evaluated. The  $T \times PI$  interaction was significant for Mn, Ni, and  $H_2O_2$  concentrations as well as for SOD and GR activities (Table 1).

### **In vitro assay**

Fungal mycelial growth was affected from the dose of  $0.125 \text{ g Ni L}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1). Fungal mycelial growth was significantly inhibited by 19, 36, 53, 63, and 90% for the Ni concentrations of 0.125, 0.25, 0.375, 0.5, and  $1 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , respectively (Fig. 2A). The  $EC_{50}$  value was of  $0.45 \text{ g Ni L}^{-1}$  (Fig. 2B).

### **Foliar nutrients concentrations**

The foliar spray of Ni to non-inoculated plants significantly increased the foliar Mn and Ni concentrations (Fig. 3A). The foliar Mn and Ni concentrations were of 16 and 533% higher, respectively, for +Ni plants compared to -Ni plants (Fig. 3A). For inoculated plants, foliar Ni concentration was 375% higher for +Ni plants compared to -Ni plants (Fig. 3B). There were significant increases for foliar concentrations of Cu (24%), Fe (23%), Mn (18%), and Zn (31%) for non-inoculated -Ni plants in comparison to their inoculated counterparts (Fig. 3A and B). For non-inoculated +Ni plants in comparison to their inoculated counterparts, there were significant increases only for foliar concentrations of Mn (41%) and Ni (81%) (Fig. 3A and B).

### **Disease severity**

On the leaves of -Ni plants, the NLB progressed much faster in comparison to the leave of +Ni plants (Fig. 4A). The NLB severity for +Ni plants was significantly reduced by 33 and 24% at 12 and 16 dai, respectively, in comparison to -Ni plants (Fig. 4A). The AUDPC for +Ni plants was significantly reduced by 27% in comparison to -Ni plants (Fig. 4B).

### **ET production**

In the leaves of non-inoculated plants, ET was not detected regardless of Ni treatments, while its production occurred from 8 dai in the leaves of inoculated plants (Fig. 5A and B). The ET production was significantly reduced by 47% for +Ni plants in comparison to -Ni plants at 16 dai (Fig. 5B). The ET production was significantly higher for inoculated plants in comparison to non-inoculated plants regardless of Ni treatments from 8 to 16 dai (Fig. 5A and B).

### **Leaf gas exchange parameters**

For non-inoculated plants, there was no significant difference for  $A$ ,  $g_s$ ,  $C_i$ , and  $E$  regardless of Ni treatments and evaluation time (Fig. 6A, C, E, and G), except for  $C_i$  at 16 dai in which +Ni plants showed a reduction of 11% in comparison to -Ni plants (Fig. 6E). For inoculated plants, there was no significant difference between -Ni and +Ni plants for none of the leaf gas exchange parameters evaluated (Fig. 6B, D, F, and H), except for  $E$  at 12 dai in which there was a significant decrease of 23% for +Ni plants in comparison to -Ni plants (Fig. 6H). As the NLB developed during the evaluation time, the values of  $A$ ,  $g_s$ , and  $E$  decreased. The  $A$  values were significantly lower by 22 and 21% at 4 dai, by 18 and 11% at 8 dai, by 14 and 24% at 12 dai, and by 58 and 44% at 16 dai, respectively, for -Ni and +Ni inoculated plants in comparison to their non-inoculated counterparts (Fig. 6A and B). For inoculated -Ni plants, there were significant decreases for  $g_s$  of 16% at 8 dai, of 43% at 12 dai, and of 56% at 16 dai in comparison to their non-inoculated counterparts (Fig. 6C and D). For inoculated +Ni plants, there were significant decreases for  $g_s$  of 42% at 12 dai, and of 56% at 16 dai in comparison to their non-inoculated counterparts (Fig. 6C and D). The  $C_i$  significantly increased by 18 and 26% at 8 dai, by 47 and 47% at 12 dai, and by 21 and 22% at 16 dai, respectively, for -Ni and +Ni inoculated plants in comparison to their non-inoculated counterparts (Fig. 6E and F). For inoculated -Ni plants,  $E$  values were significantly lower by 3% at 8 dai and by 55 at 16 dai in comparison to their non-inoculated counterparts (Fig. 6G and H). However, for inoculated +Ni plants,  $E$  values were significantly lower by 33 and 50%, respectively, at 12 and 16 dai in comparison to their non-inoculated counterparts (Fig. 6G and H).

### **Chl a fluorescence parameters**

Based on the images of Chl a fluorescence parameters  $Y(II)$ ,  $Y(NPQ)$ ,  $Y(NO)$ , and  $F_v/F_m$  from the leaves of non-inoculated plants, there was no visible difference among the treatments (Fig.

7). The leaves of inoculated plants showed alterations in the Chl a fluorescence parameters with progressive loss of their photosynthetic capacity as indicated by the dark areas in the images (Fig. 7). The  $Y(II)$ ,  $Y(NPQ)$ ,  $Y(NO)$ , and  $F_v/F_m$  were not affected by Ni treatments regardless of plant inoculation during the time-course evaluated (Fig. 8A-H), except for  $Y(NO)$  at 12 dai in which there was a significant decrease of 12% for +Ni plants in comparison to -Ni plants (Fig. 8F). For inoculated -Ni plants, the values were significantly lower for  $Y(II)$  by 5, 15, and 33% and for  $F_v/F_m$  by 3, 11, and 11% at 8, 12, and 16 dai, respectively, in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 8A-B and G-H). For inoculated +Ni plants, the values for  $Y(II)$  (18, and 30% at 12, and 16 dai) and  $F_v/F_m$  (2, 12, and 10% at 8, 12, and 16 dai) were significantly lower in comparison to non-inoculated ones (Fig. 8A-B and G-H). On the other hand, for inoculated +Ni plants, there was a significant increase for  $Y(NPQ)$  by 22% at 12 dai in comparison to non-inoculated ones (Fig. 8C and D). For  $Y(NO)$  of inoculated -Ni plants, there were significant increases of 16 and 27% at 8 and 16 dai in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 8E). The inoculated +Ni plants showed a significant increase of 18% for  $Y(NO)$  only at 16 dai compared to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 8F).

### **Photosynthetic pigments**

The concentrations of Chl a, Chl b, and Chl a+b followed the same trend among the treatments. In comparison to inoculated plants, the concentrations of Chl a (49-71% and 39-54%, respectively, for -Ni and +Ni plants), Chl b (61-77% and 66-63%, respectively, for -Ni and +Ni plants), and Chl a+b (53-72% and 45-55%, respectively, for -Ni and +Ni plants) significantly decreased in comparison to their non-inoculated counterparts at 12 and 16 dai (Fig. 9A-D and G-H). For non-inoculated -Ni plants, the concentration of carotenoids significantly increased by 16, 21, and 48%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai compared to inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 9E and F). For non-inoculated +Ni plants, the concentration of carotenoids significantly

increased by 13, 16, and 28%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai compared to inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 9E and F). For inoculated plants, the concentrations of Chl a, Chl b, and Chl a+b were influenced by the Ni treatments (Fig. 9B, D, F, and H). There were significant increases for the concentrations of Chl a (9, 15, and 63% at 4, 12, and 16 dai, respectively), Chl b (53% at 16 dai), and Chl a+b (14, 15, and 61% at 4, 12, and 16 dai, respectively) for +Ni plants in comparison to -Ni plants (Fig. 9B, D, and H).

### **Concentrations of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, MDA, TSP, and LTGA derivatives**

For non-inoculated plants, there was no significant difference for the O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, MDA, and LTGA concentrations between -Ni and +Ni treatments regardless of the evaluation time (Fig. 10A, C, E, and I), except for TSP at 8 dai in which +Ni plants showed an increase of 39% in comparison to -Ni plants (Fig. 10G). The deleterious effect of *E. turcicum* infection was confirmed by significant increases in the concentrations of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and MDA (Fig. 10B, D, and F). For inoculated +Ni plants, there were significant increases in the concentrations of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (12% at 8dai), TSP (36% at 8 dai), and LTGA derivatives (23% at 8 dai) and significant decreases in the concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (36 and 11% at 8 and 16 dai, respectively), MDA (30 and 18% at 8 and 16 dai, respectively), and TSP (13% at 12 dai) in comparison to inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 8D, F, and J). The concentration of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> significantly increased by 48, 52, and 39%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai for inoculated -Ni plants in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 10A and B). For inoculated +Ni plants, the concentration of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> significantly increased by 46, 52, and 35%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai in comparison to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 10A and B). The H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration significantly increased by 71, 172, 86, and 209%, respectively, at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai for inoculated -Ni plants in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 10C and D). For inoculated +Ni plants, the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration significantly increased by 56, 74, 54, and 142%, respectively, 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai in comparison

to inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 10C and D). For MDA concentration, there were significant increases for inoculated -Ni plants at 8 (34%), 12 (69%), and 16 dai (97%) in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 10E and F). The MDA concentration significantly increased by 65 and 48%, respectively, at 12 and 16 dai for inoculated +Ni plants in comparison to inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 10E and F). The TSP concentration significantly increased by 87, 108, 154%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai for inoculated -Ni plants compared to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 10G and H). For inoculated +Ni plants, the TSP concentration significantly increased by 83, 98, and 124%, respectively, at 8, 12, 16 dai when compared to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 10G and H). The LTGA derivatives concentration significantly increased by 44 and 46%, respectively, at 12 and 16 dai for inoculated -Ni plants in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 10I and J). Significant increases of 51, 47, and 70%, respectively, at 8, 12, 16 dai for the LTGA derivatives concentration occurred for inoculated +Ni plants in comparison to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 10I and J).

### **Activities of antioxidant enzymes**

Activities of SOD, CAT, GR, and APX for non-inoculated plants were not influenced by Ni treatments regardless of the sampling time, except for GR. At 8 and 16 dai for non-inoculated -Ni plants, GR activity significantly increased by 60 and 70% in comparison to inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 11E). The activities of antioxidant enzymes significantly increased in response to *E. turcicum* infection regardless of Ni treatments and evaluation time (Fig. 11B, D, F, and H). Inoculated +Ni plants displayed significant decreases for GR activity by 37 and 40% at 4 and 12 dai, respectively, in comparison to inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 11F). For SOD activity, there were significant increases for inoculated -Ni plants at 4 (28%), 8 (28%), 12 (50%), and 16 dai (40%) when compared to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 11A and B). For inoculated +Ni plants, the SOD activity significantly increased by 19 and 29%, respectively, at 12 and 16 dai

in comparison to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 11A and B). The CAT activity significantly increased by 48, 21, 60, and 35%, respectively, at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai for inoculated -Ni plants in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 11C and D). For inoculated +Ni plants, CAT activity significantly increased by 21, 47, 82, and 67%, respectively, at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai in comparison to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 11C and D). The GR activity was significantly higher by 111, 355, 556, 428%, respectively, at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai for inoculated -Ni plants in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 11E and F). For inoculated +Ni plants, GR activity significantly increased by 46, 138, 216, and 215%, respectively, at 4, 8, 12, and 16 in comparison to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 11E and F). The APX activity significantly increased by 55, 83, and 68%, respectively, at 4, 12, and 16 dai for inoculated -Ni plants compared to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 11G and H). For inoculated +Ni plants, APX activity significantly increased by 53, 103, and 63%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai in comparison to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 11G and H).

### **Activities of defense enzymes**

There was a significant difference between -Ni and +Ni treatments only for POX, PPO, LOX, and PAL activities (Fig. 12E, H, I, J, and L). For non-inoculated +Ni plants, the activities of POX (58% at 8 dai) (Fig. 12E) and LOX (49, 47, and 29%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai) (Fig. 12I) significantly increased in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants. The PPO (27% at 8 dai) (Fig. 12H) and LOX (86, 35, and 48%, respectively, at 4, 8, and 16 dai) (Fig. 12J) activities significantly increased; however, the PAL activity significantly decreased by 23% at 4 dai (Fig. 12L) for inoculated +Ni plants when compared to inoculated -Ni plants. For inoculated -Ni plants, CHI activity was significantly higher by 42, 141, and 148%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 12A and B). For inoculated +Ni plants, CHI activity significantly increased by 33, 32, 69, and 117%, respectively, at 4, 8,

12, and 16 dai in comparison to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 12A and B). There GLU (224, 750, 1033, and 1135%), POX (73, 541, 1210, and 1216%), PPO (35, 46, 125, and 145%), and PAL (132, 119, 244, and 722%) activities significantly increased at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai for inoculated -Ni plants in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 12C-H, and K-L). For inoculated +Ni plants, GLU (225, 549, 744, and 1134%), POX (130, 313, 855, and 1039%), PPO (74, 50, 128, and 149%), and PAL (139, 82, 283, and 788%) activities significantly increased at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai in comparison to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 12C-H and K-L). For inoculated -Ni plants, LOX activity significantly increased by 34, 151, and 134%, respectively, at 8, 12, and 16 dai in comparison to non-inoculated -Ni plants (Fig. 12I and J). The LOX activity significantly increased by 43, 21, 83, and 168%, respectively, at 4, 8, 12, and 16 dai for inoculated +Ni plants compared to non-inoculated +Ni plants (Fig. 12I and J).

## Discussion

Most of the studies related to Ni have been conducted by growing the plants in either soil or nutritive solution containing this micronutrient and in the context of problems related to its toxicity (Hussain et al. 2013; Shahbaz et al. 2018; Freitas et al. 2019; Amjad et al. 2020; Tipu et al. 2020). Interestingly, the foliar application of Ni provides an interesting alternative for the control of many foliar fungal diseases in commercial crops (Wood et al. 2012; Barcelos et al. 2018; Einhardt et al. 2020a,b), and the present study sheds light on the physiological and biochemical aspects of Ni in increasing the resistance of maize plants against NLB.

The mycelia of *E. turcicum* was inhibited in the in vitro assay by the same Ni concentration used to spray the maize plants. Sharma et al. (2017) reported a decrease in mycelial growth of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*, *Dematophora necatrix*, and *Fusarium oxysporum* with the use of Ni nanoparticles. Wiebke-Strohm et al. (2012) suggested that urease, a Ni-dependent metalloenzyme, may indirectly or directly inhibit fungal growth by interfering

with the osmotic balance of mycelia. At the scanning electron microscopy level, it was noticed that mycelia of *Penicillium herguei* treated with urease obtained from jack bean and soybean seeds caused hyphae plasmolysis and injuries in their cell wall (Becker-Ritt et al. 2007). Moreover, urease from soybean seeds suppressed mycelial growth and/or inhibited conidia germination of *Curvularia lunata*, *Fusarium solani*, *P. herguei*, and three species of *Trichoderma* (Becker-Ritt et al. 2007). According to Barcelos et al. (2018), urease is regulated by Ni and plays a detrimental role in soybean resistance against powdery mildew by stimulating the antioxidative metabolism of the plants.

The nutritional status of plants affects the infection processes of many of their pathogens (Walters and Bingham 2007). In the plant's tissues, a synergistic relationship of Ni with Cu, Fe, Mn, and Zn occurs (Mizuno et al. 2005). In the present study, the Ni spray resulted in an increase in the foliar concentrations of Mn and Ni for non-inoculated plants and only Ni concentration for inoculated plants. The foliar supply of Ni to pecan trees and barley plants increased the foliar Mn concentration (Ojeda-Barrios et al. 2016; Kumar et al. 2018). High Ni concentration in the leaf tissues of pecan trees and soybean plants was associated with high urease activity (Ojeda-Barrios et al. 2016; Reis et al. 2017). In pecan trees, for instance, urease activity was closely linked to foliar Ni concentration and became a good physiological indicator of the trees' nutritional state (Ojeda-Barrios et al. 2016).

In the present study, NLB symptoms were dramatically reduced in maize plants sprayed with Ni. For the milkwort jewel flower-*E. polygona*, -*X. campestris* pv. *campestris* and -*A. brassicicola*, pecan-*F. effusum*, cucumber-cucumber mosaic virus, and soybean-*M. diffusa* and -*P. pachyrhizi* (Boyd et al. 1994; Wood et al. 2004, 2012; Barcelos et al. 2018; Derbalah and Elsharkawy 2019; Einhardt et al. 2020a,b) interactions, the severities of the diseases caused by these pathogens were reduced due to foliar Ni supply. Based on the study carried out by Wiebke-Strohm et al. (2012), the non-expression of the GmEu4 gene coding for a ubiquitous

urease increased the susceptibility of soybean plants against the infection by *P. hergueli*, *Phomopsis* sp., *P. pachyrhizi*, and *Rhizoctonia solani*.

During the infection process of *E. turcicum* in maize leaves, genes related to ET biosynthesis were expressed (Shi et al. 2018). The negative effect of ET in the resistance of plants against pathogens can be suppressed by Ni due to the inhibition of the enzymatic conversion of 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC) to ET in the tissues of many plant species (Yang and Hoffman 1984; Pennazio and Roggero 1992; Pantelides et al. 2013). Take this into consideration, the increase of NLB severity for maize plants non-sprayed with Ni can be linked to a great ET production in the leaf tissues.

As the necrotic lesions of NLB expand in maize plants' leaves, there is a decrease in the concentration of photosynthetic pigments and alterations in the values of the leaf gas exchange and Chl a fluorescence parameters (Cuq et al. 1993; Silveira et al. 2019). The values of  $A$ ,  $g_s$ ,  $E$ , and  $C_i$  measured in the leaves of maize plants infected by *E. turcicum* were lower, starting at 8 dai. The  $A$  values, for instance, were lower during the all-time course evaluated, but notably at advanced stages of *E. turcicum* infection. For some host-pathogen interactions such as rice-*Monographella albescens* and -*Pyricularia oryzae* as well as maize-*Stenocarpella macrospora* and -*E. turcicum*, fungi infection negatively impacted the values of  $A$ ,  $g_s$ ,  $E$ , and  $C_i$  (Bermúdez-Cardona et al. 2015b; Silveira et al. 2019; Pereira et al. 2020; Dias et al. 2020). In the infected maize leaves, regardless of Ni spray, lower  $A$  values were linked to higher and lower  $C_i$  and  $g_s$  values, respectively, which negatively impacted  $CO_2$  fixation due to stomata closure. In rice leaves with leaf scald lesions, lower  $A$  values were associated with roughly proportional decreases in  $CO_2$  diffusion (lower  $g_s$  and  $g_m$ ), impaired photochemistry (lower ETR and  $J_{max}$ ), and carboxylation efficiency (lower  $V_{cmax}$ ) (Pereira et al. 2020).

Identifying the photosynthetic limitations imposed on plants is of pivotal importance to better understand their physiology's functionality in response to infection by pathogens.

Accordingly, Chl a fluorescence imaging is a powerful tool to mine the performance of photosynthesis at a cellular, leaf, and whole-plant scale to identify the possible changes at the asymptotic phase of specific stress imposed on the plants (Pérez-Bueno et al. 2019). The  $F_v/F_m$  parameter, representing the maximum quantum yield of PSII photochemistry, has been used as a physiological indicator of plant stress (Sharma et al. 2015). Silveira et al. (2019) reported decreases in the  $F_v/F_m$  values in maize leaves infected by *E. turcicum*, starting at 8 dai. Consistent with these authors' findings, in the present study, the  $F_v/F_m$  and  $Y(II)$  values decreased while the values of  $Y(NO)$  increased in the infected leaves of maize plants no sprayed with Ni. By contrast, for Ni-sprayed plants, lower and higher  $Y(II)$  and  $Y(NO)$  values, respectively, were noticed at the advanced stage of *E. turcicum* infection. The decrease in  $F_v/F_m$  and PSII efficiency demonstrated that the infection by *E. turcicum* disturbed the photoactivation of PSII that is a clear sign of photoinhibition. According to Yang et al. (2018), under severe stress, tobacco plants infected by *Alternaria alternata* were affected in the distribution pathway of PSII excitation energy, and the light was dissipated through non-photochemical processes. Chlorophylls are involved in light absorption during photosynthesis (Qiu et al. 2019). The concentration of photosynthetic pigments decreased in the maize leaves infected by *E. turcicum* and corroborate with the reports for some pathogens infecting maize such as *S. macrospora* (Bermúdez-Cardona et al. 2015b), *Ustilago maydis* (Kretschmer et al. 2017), *E. turcicum* (Silveira et al. 2019), and maize dwarf mosaic virus (Ludmerszki et al. 2015).

As the *E. turcicum* changes from its biotrophic to a necrotrophic lifestyle with an abundant release of non-host selective toxins and hydrolytic enzymes, there is a rise in the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as  $H_2O_2$  and  $O_2^-$  (Kotze et al. 2019; Cuq et al. 1993; Human et al. 2020). High  $H_2O_2$  and  $O_2^-$  concentrations resulted in serious perturbations in the cellular networks in the infected maize leaves of plants no sprayed with Ni. By contrast, lower NBL severity in the leaves of Ni-sprayed plants contributed to lower

concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and MDA. As the levels of free radicals and ROS increase in the leaf tissues of plants, direct damage to lipids, destabilization of cell wall membrane integrity, and functionality and ion balance in the cytoplasm are noticed (de Dios Alché 2019). An increase in MDA concentration and loss of cell membrane integrity has been reported in the maize-*E. turcicum* (Silveira et al. 2019) and -*Fusarium verticillioides* (Cacique et al. 2020), wheat-*P. oryzae* (Aucique-Pérez et al. 2020), and soybean-*P. pachyrhizi* (Einhardt et al. 2020a,b) interactions. Soybean plants sprayed with Ni showed lower concentrations of MDA, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> in response to infection by *P. pachyrhizi* (Einhardt et al. 2020b).

In the present study, high concentrations of TSP and LTGA derivatives in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with Ni contributed to reducing the NLB symptoms. The lignification of plant tissues helps to limit the colonization by pathogens and the diffusion of their non-host selective toxins and hydrolytic enzymes into plant cells, as well as the use of host' water and nutrients for their nutrition (Pérez et al. 2020; Yadav et al. 2020) besides the fact that fungal mycelia can be impaired when absorbing lignin polymers that interact with chitin, cellulose, and hydroxyproline (Pérez et al. 2020). According to Einhardt et al. (2020a), a high concentration of LTGA derivatives in the leaves of soybean supplied with Ni was of great importance to reduce Asian soybean rust severity.

A rise in the ROS concentration during the infection process of *E. turcicum* in the maize leaves was maintained and linked to a more robust antioxidative system. The non-enzymatic (e.g., low molecular mass antioxidants such as ascorbic acid (AsA), flavonoids, and glutathione) and enzymatic (e.g., CAT, APX, and SOD) antioxidant systems mounted by plants work synergistically to scavenge the ROS (Huang et al. 2019). In the present study, GR activity was high for non-inoculated +Ni plants, but the contrary was noticed for inoculated +Ni plants. A balance in the biosynthesis, transport, and degradation of glutathione to alleviate the oxidative stress facing by plants is of great importance since GSH, a key molecule in the cellular

defense against oxidative damage caused by ROS is continuously oxidized to GSSG (oxidized glutathione) and then regenerated by GR (Fabiano et al. 2015). It is known that Ni may activate an isoform of glyoxalase I that is involved in the degradation of methylglyoxal (MG) produced by stressed plants, and the GSH is consumed and regenerated in the process of detoxification of MG (Kaur et al. 2013; Mustafiz et al. 2014; Turra et al. 2015). High APX, CAT, GR, and SOD activities in the leaves of maize plants infected by *E. turcicum* corroborate with the findings of Silveira et al. (2019) and Shi et al. (2018) for the same host-pathogen interaction investigated in the present study.

Plants are prone to defend themselves from the infection of pathogens by activating several biochemical mechanisms of defense (Jain and Khurana 2018). In the present study, upon *E. turcicum* infection, the activities of several related-defense enzymes such as CHI, GLU, LOX, PAL, POX, and PPO increased in the leaves of maize plants. For infected maize plants sprayed with Ni, high PPO and LOX activities contributed to reducing NLB symptoms. On the other hand, for non-inoculated plants sprayed with Ni, POX activity was high. Einhardt et al. (2020a) reported high POX activity for non-inoculated soybean plants sprayed with Ni. The increased activities of POX and PPO maximize intense oxidation of polyphenols in the infected leaf tissues and produce a biochemical barrier to delay pathogen colonization besides raising the production of some metabolites such as phenols, phytoalexins, and lignin (Patel et al. 2020). Various signaling molecules in plants, such as the oxylipins, are synthesized by LOX, particularly the C6-volatile compounds and jasmonates (Viswanath et al. 2020). The LOX gene was expressed in the leaves of maize plants infected by *Cochliobolus carbonum* (Park et al. 2010). According to Maschietto et al. (2015), maize resistance against the infection by *F. verticillioides* is dependent on an earlier activation of LOX genes and those involved in jasmonic acid biosynthesis. Some studies highlighted the importance of LOX expression and LOX activity for the resistance of maize against the infection by *F. verticillioides* (Maschietto et al.

2015), *Peronosclerospora sorghi*, *Phaeosphaeria maydis*, and *Sclerophthora macrospora* (Kim et al. 2020), rice by *Bipolaris oryzae* (Debona et al. 2018), finger millet by *Magnaporthe grisea* (Patil et al. 2020), and wheat by *Fusarium poae* (Tan et al. 2020).

In conclusion, based on the present study results, the foliar application of Ni played a positive role in the resistance of maize plants against the infection by *E. turcicum*. As the NBL lesions expanded, the concentration of ROS raised and impaired photosynthesis mainly through biochemical limitations and destruction of pigments. In the leaves of Ni-sprayed plants, the infection by *E. turcicum* was affected by either a direct effect of this micronutrient against the fungus or indirectly through the potentiation of host defense responses such as higher LOX and PPO activities as well as great production of TSP and lignin.

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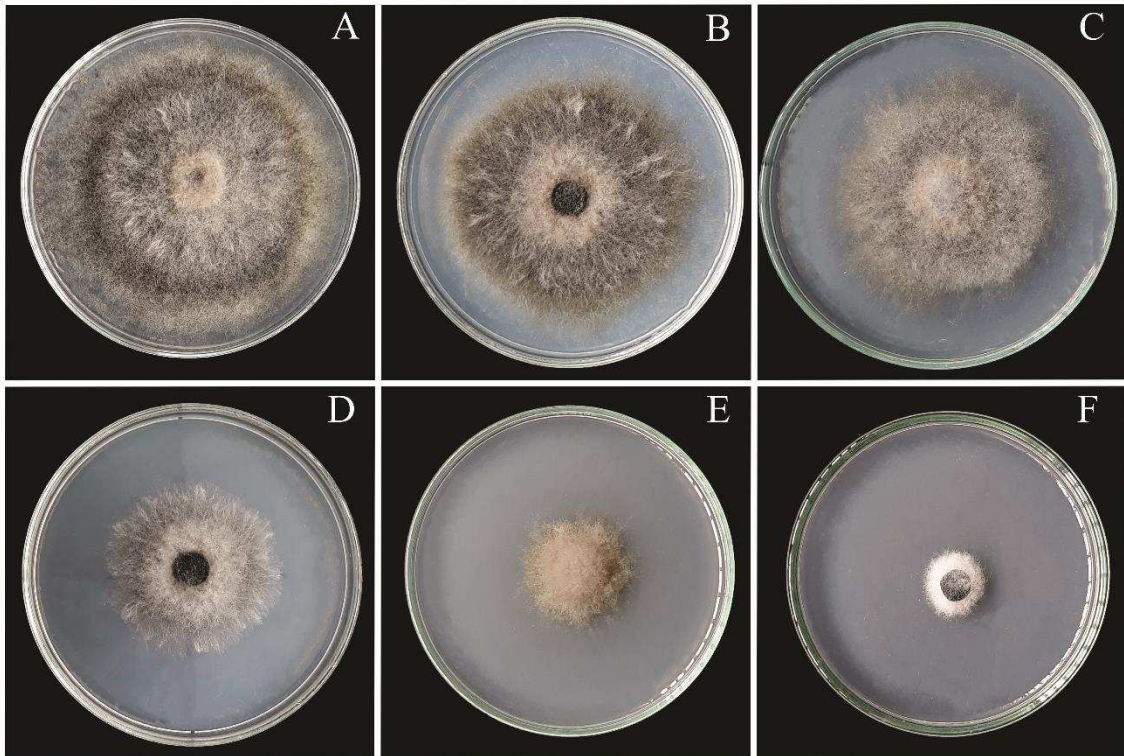
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## Table and Figures

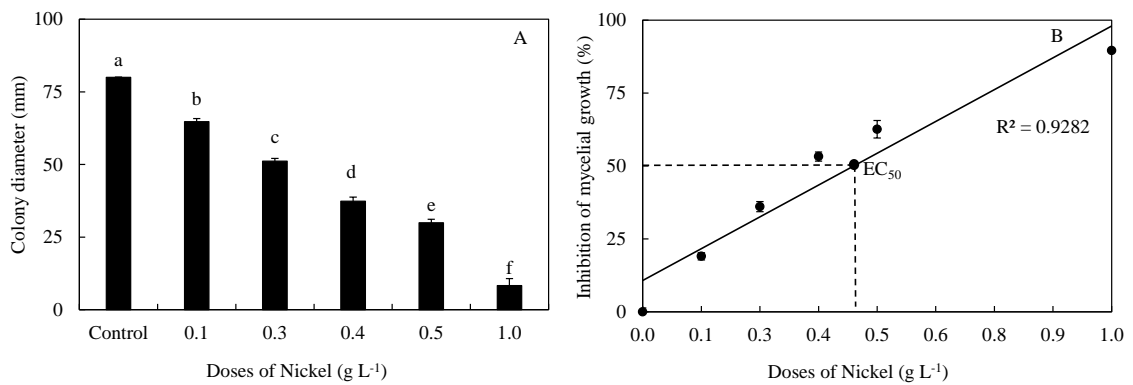
**Table 1.** Analysis of variance for the effects of foliar treatments (T), plant inoculation (PI), and the T × PI interaction for foliar concentrations of copper (Cu), iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), nickel (Ni), and zinc (Zn), severity, area under disease progress curve (AUDPC), ethylene production, leaf gas exchange parameters (net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate (A), stomatal conductance to water vapor (g<sub>s</sub>), internal CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (C<sub>i</sub>), and transpiration rate (E)), chlorophyll (Chl) a fluorescence parameters (effective PSII quantum yield (Y(II)), quantum yield of regulated energy dissipation (Y(NPQ)), quantum yield of non-regulated energy dissipation (Y(NO)), and maximal photosystem II quantum efficiency (F<sub>v</sub>/F<sub>m</sub>)), concentrations of chlorophyll (Chl) a, Chl b, carotenoids (CAR), Chl a+b, superoxide anion radical (O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>), hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), malondialdehyde (MDA), total soluble phenolics (TSP), and lignin-thioglycolic acid (LTGA) derivatives as well as for the activities of antioxidant (superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), glutathione reductase (GR), and ascorbate peroxidase (APX)) and defence-related (chitinase (CHI), β-1,3-glucanase (GLU), peroxidase (POX), polyphenoloxidase (PPO), lipoxygenase (LOX), and phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL)) enzymes.

Variables/Parameters	T	PI	T × PI
Cu	0.466	0.118	0.255
Fe	0.877	0.005	0.158
Mn	0.096	< 0.001	0.035
Ni	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.001
Zn	0.310	0.001	0.050
Severity	0.518	-	-
AUDPC	0.002	-	-
Ethylene production	0.297	< 0.001	0.297
A	0.381	< 0.001	0.562
g <sub>s</sub>	0.424	< 0.001	0.667
C <sub>i</sub>	0.086	< 0.001	0.635
E	0.211	< 0.001	0.678
Y(II)	0.205	< 0.001	0.618
Y(NPQ)	0.520	0.653	0.206
Y(NO)	0.049	< 0.001	0.262
F <sub>v</sub> /F <sub>m</sub>	0.890	< 0.001	0.736
Chl a	0.333	< 0.001	0.469
Chl b	0.424	< 0.001	0.872
CAR	0.515	< 0.001	0.357
Chl a+b	0.253	< 0.001	0.486
O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0.081	< 0.001	0.945
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	0.036	< 0.001	0.021
MDA	0.082	< 0.001	0.167
TSP	0.609	< 0.001	0.970
LTGA derivatives	0.726	< 0.001	0.128
SOD	0.566	< 0.001	0.012
CAT	0.398	< 0.001	0.286
GR	0.238	< 0.001	0.023
APX	0.630	< 0.001	0.850
CHI	0.325	< 0.001	0.306
GLU	0.345	< 0.001	0.344
POX	0.862	< 0.001	0.731
PPO	0.364	< 0.001	0.547
LOX	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.167
PAL	0.898	< 0.001	0.979

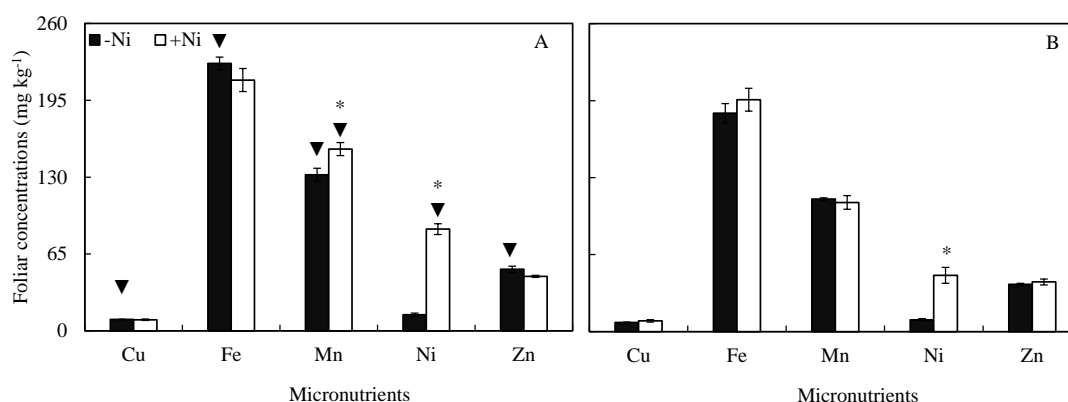
- = not determined.



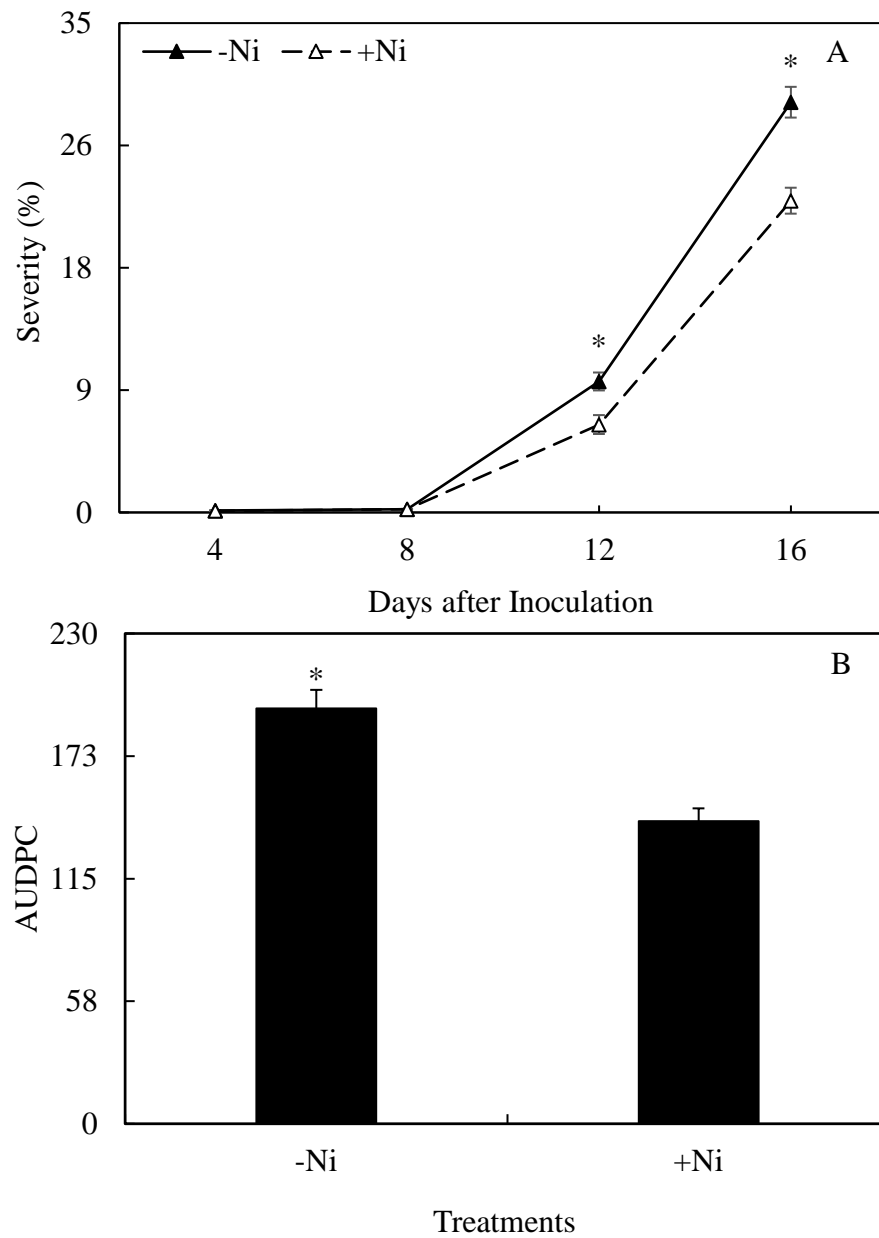
**Figure 1.** Mycelial growth of *Exserohilum turcicum* in Petri dishes containing lactose casein hydrolysate medium amended with 0 (A), 0.13 (B), 0.25 (C), 0.38 (D), 0.50 (E), and 1 (F) g of nickel L<sup>-1</sup>.



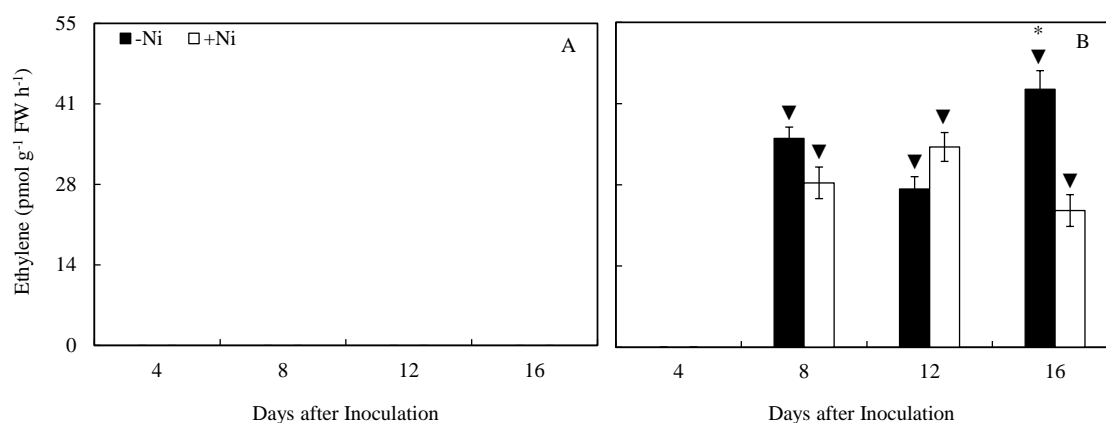
**Figure 2.** In vitro effect of different nickel (Ni) concentrations on colony diameter (A) of *Exserohilum turcicum* and effective concentration (EC<sub>50</sub>) of Ni that inhibited 50% of the mycelial growth of *E. turcicum* (B). For colony diameter, treatments mean followed by different letters are significantly different ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) according to Tukey's test. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 8$ .



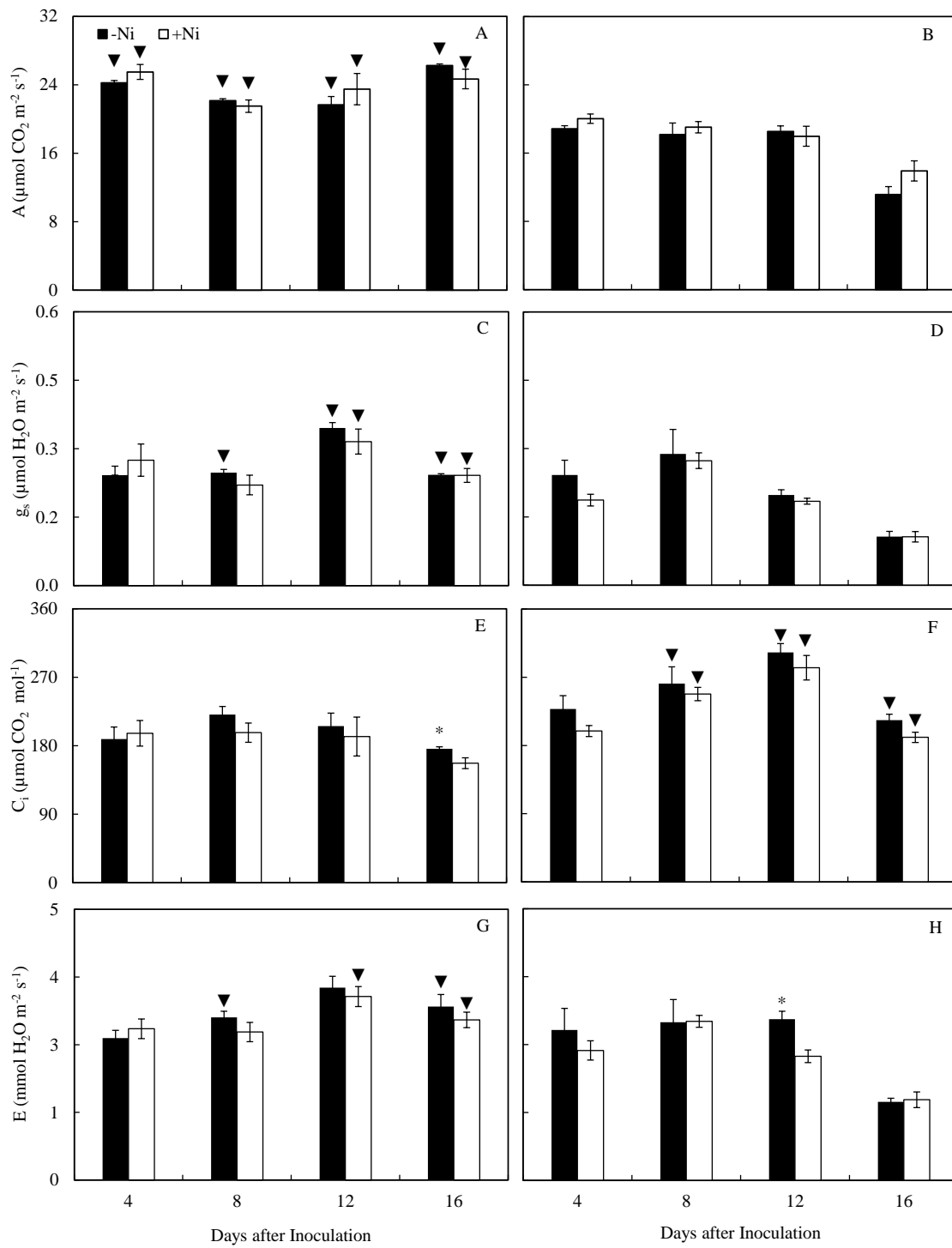
**Figure 3.** Foliar concentrations of copper (Cu), iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), nickel (Ni), and zinc (Zn) for maize plants sprayed with water (-Ni) or nickel (+Ni) and non-inoculated (NI) (A) or inoculated (I) with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B). Means followed by an asterisk or by an inverted triangle are significantly different by the F test at 5% of probability. The asterisk compares -Ni and +Ni treatments, and the inverted triangle compares NI and I treatments. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .



**Figure 4.** Severity of northern leaf blight (A) and area under disease progress curve (AUDPC) (B) for maize plants sprayed with water (-Ni) or nickel (+Ni). Means for -Ni and +Ni treatments in graphics A (at each evaluation time) and B followed by an asterisk are significantly different by F test at 5% of probability. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .

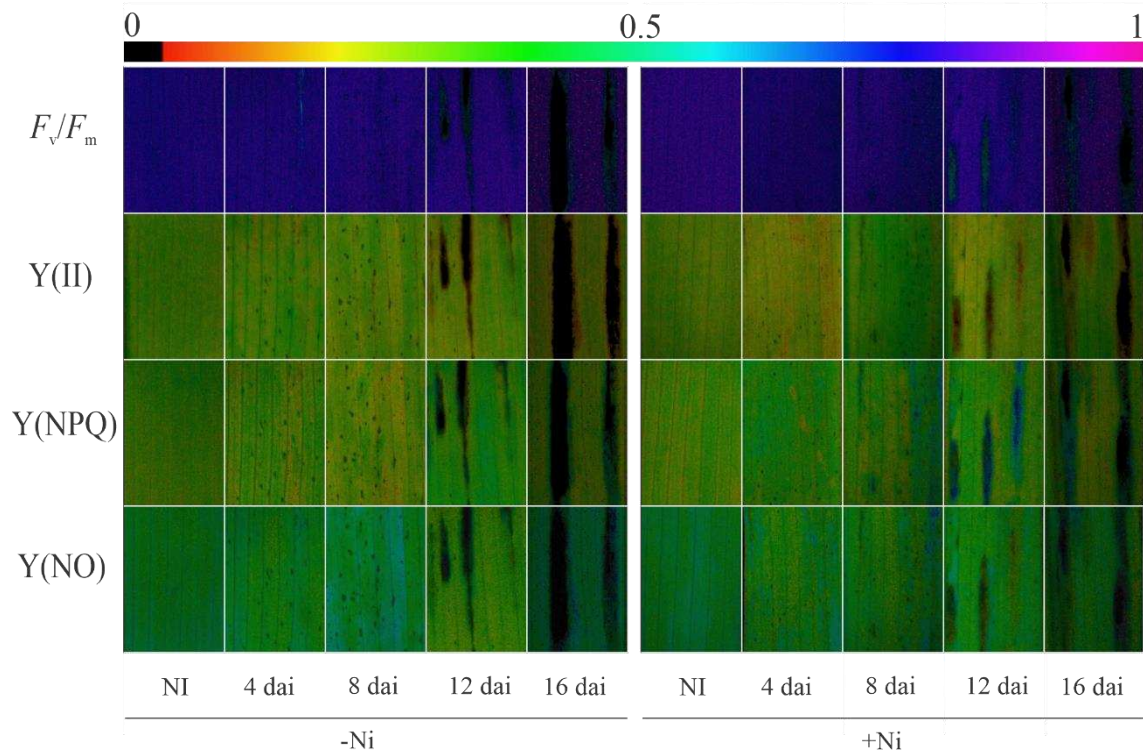


**Figure 5.** Production of ethylene by maize plants non-inoculated (A) (NI) and inoculated (I) with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B) that were sprayed with water (-Ni) or nickel (+Ni). For each evaluation time, means followed by an asterisk or by an inverted triangle are significantly different by the F test at 5% of probability. The asterisk compares -Ni and +Ni treatments, and the inverted triangle compares NI and I treatments. Bars represent the standard error of the means. FW = fresh weight. n = 4.

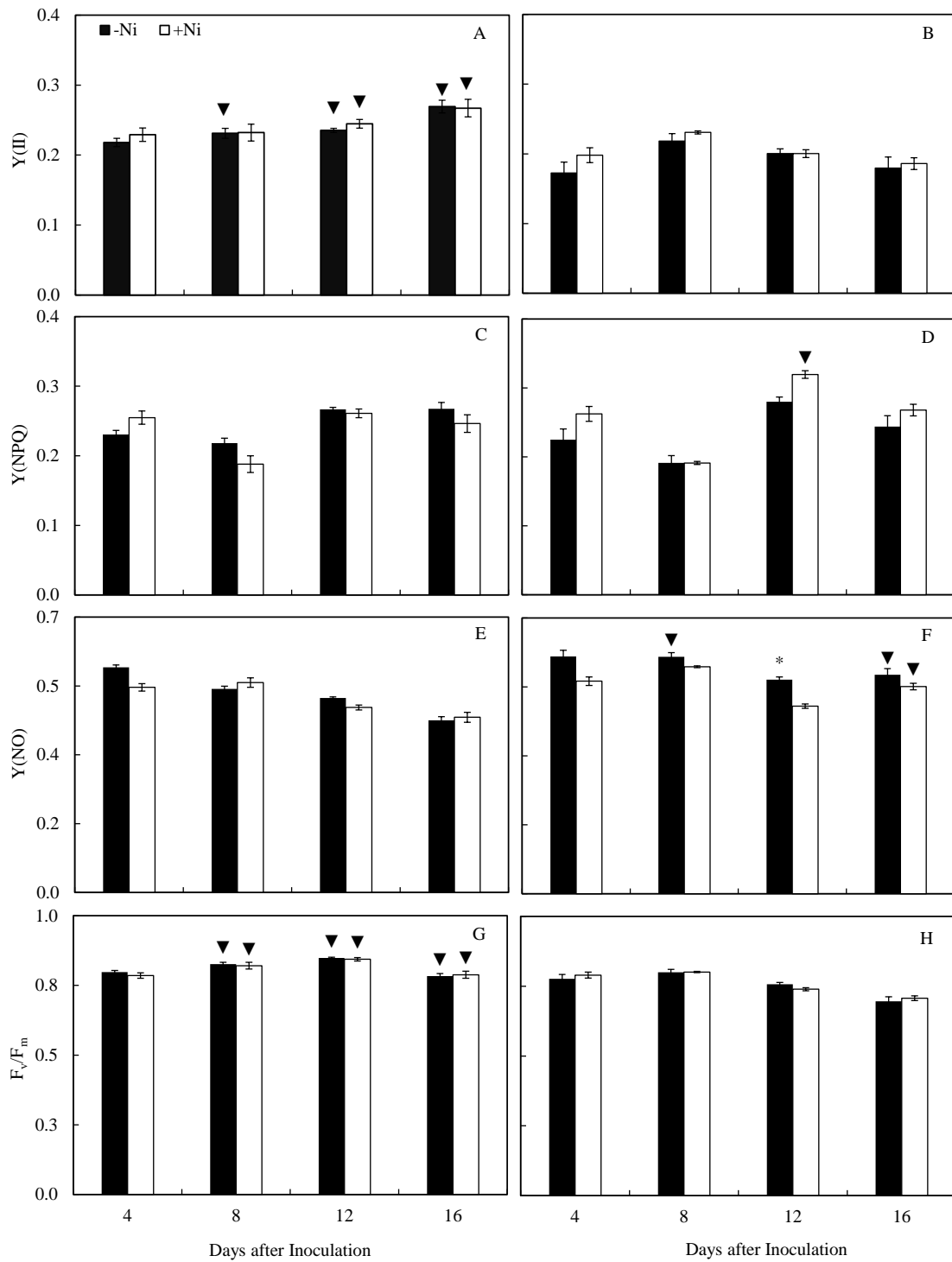


**Figure 6.** Leaf gas exchange parameters: net carbon assimilation rate (A) (A and B), stomatal conductance to water vapor ( $g_s$ ) (C and D), internal  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration ( $C_i$ ) (E and F), and transpiration rate (E) (G and H) determined in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with water (-Ni) or nickel (+Ni) and non-inoculated (NI) (A, C, E, and G) or inoculated (I) with *Exserohilum*

turcicum (B, D, F, and H). For each evaluation time, means followed by an asterisk or by an inverted triangle are significantly different by the F test at 5% of probability. The asterisk compares -Ni and +Ni treatments, and the inverted triangle compares NI and I treatments. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .

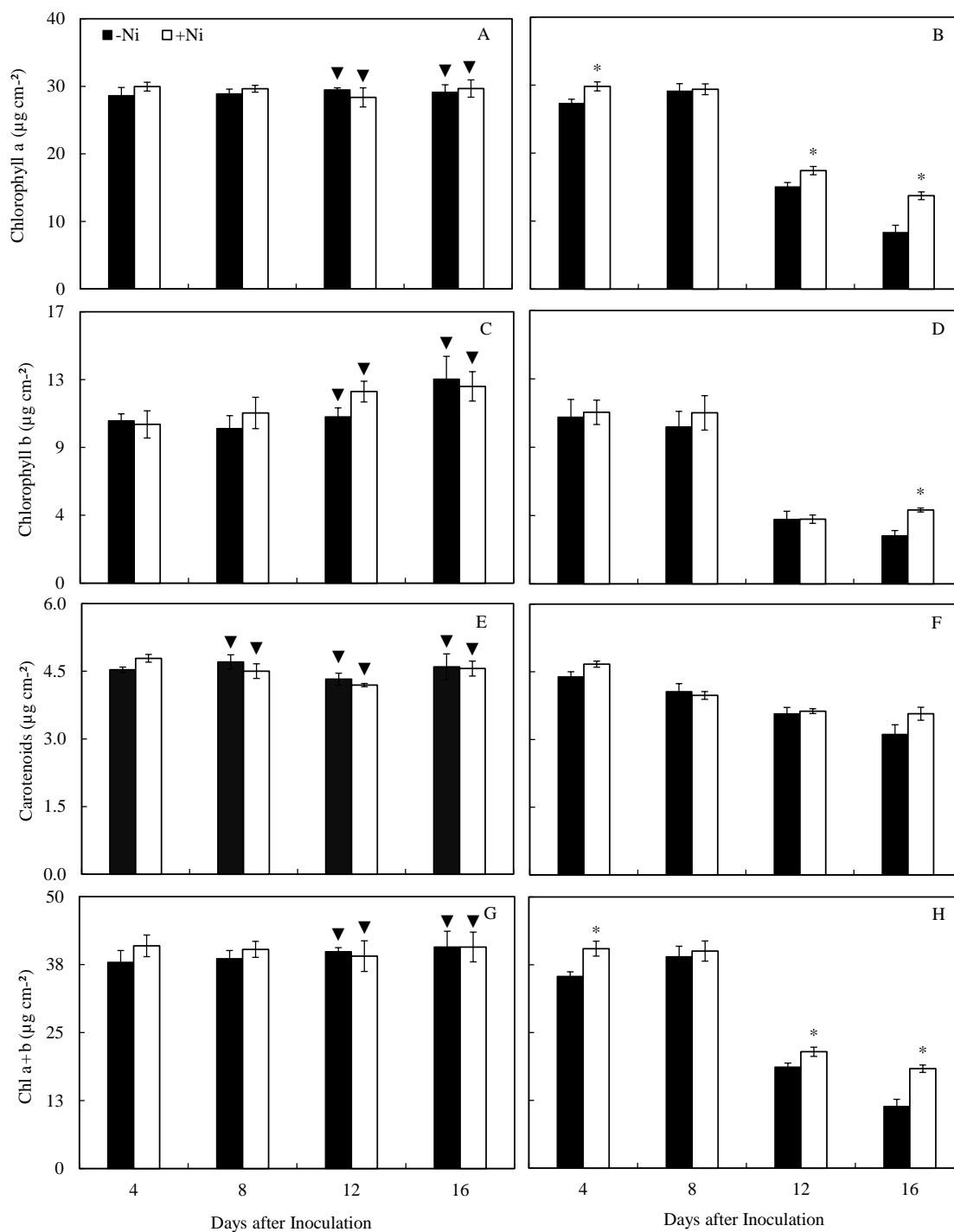


**Figure 7.** Images of chlorophyll a fluorescence parameters: maximum PSII quantum efficiency ( $F_v/F_m$ ), photochemical yield (Y(II)), yield for dissipation by down-regulation (Y(NPQ)), and yield for non-regulated dissipation (Y(NO)) determined in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with water (-Ni) or nickel (+Ni) and non-inoculated (NI) or from 4 to 16 days after inoculation (dai) with *Exserohilum turcicum*.



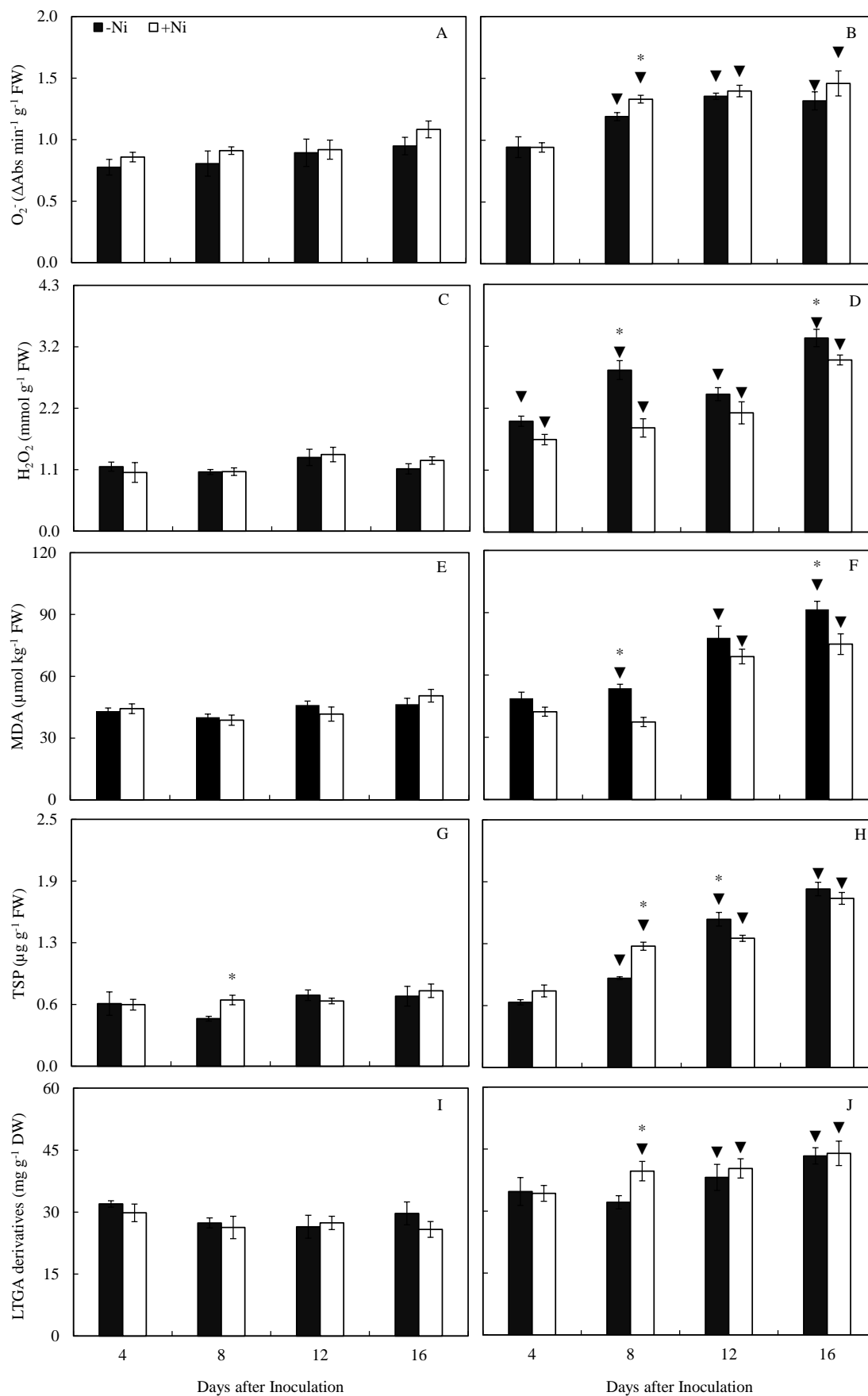
**Figure 8.** Chlorophyll a parameters: effective PSII quantum yield (Y(II)) (A and B), quantum yield of regulated energy dissipation (Y(NPQ)) (C and D), quantum yield of non-regulated energy dissipation (Y(NO)) (E and F), and variable-to-maximum chlorophyll a fluorescence ratio ( $F_v/F_m$ ) (G and H) determined in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with water (-Ni) or

nickel (+Ni) and non-inoculated (NI) (A, C, E, and G) or inoculated (I) with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B, D, F, and H). For each evaluation time, means followed by an asterisk or by an inverted triangle are significantly different by the F test at 5% of probability. The asterisk compares -Ni and +Ni treatments, and the inverted triangle compares NI and I treatments. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .

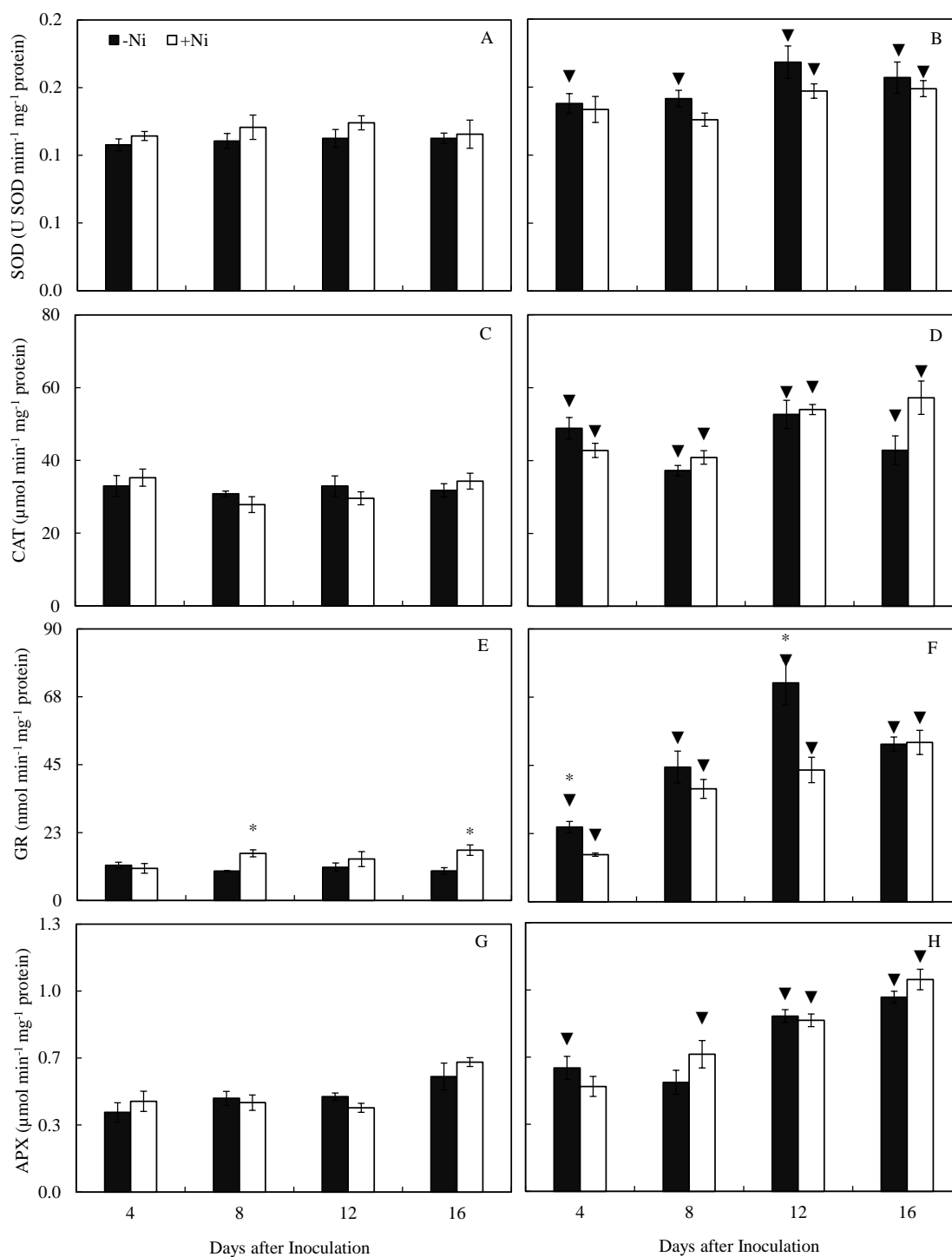


**Figure 9.** Concentrations of chlorophyll (Chl) a (A and B), Chl b (C and D), carotenoids (E and F), and total Chl (Chl a + b) (c) determined in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with water (-Ni) or nickel (+Ni) and non-inoculated (NI) (A, C, E, and G) or inoculated (I) with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B, D, F, and H). For each evaluation time, means followed by an asterisk or by an inverted triangle are significantly different by the F test at 5% of probability. The asterisk

compares -Ni and +Ni treatments, and the inverted triangle compares NI and I treatments. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .

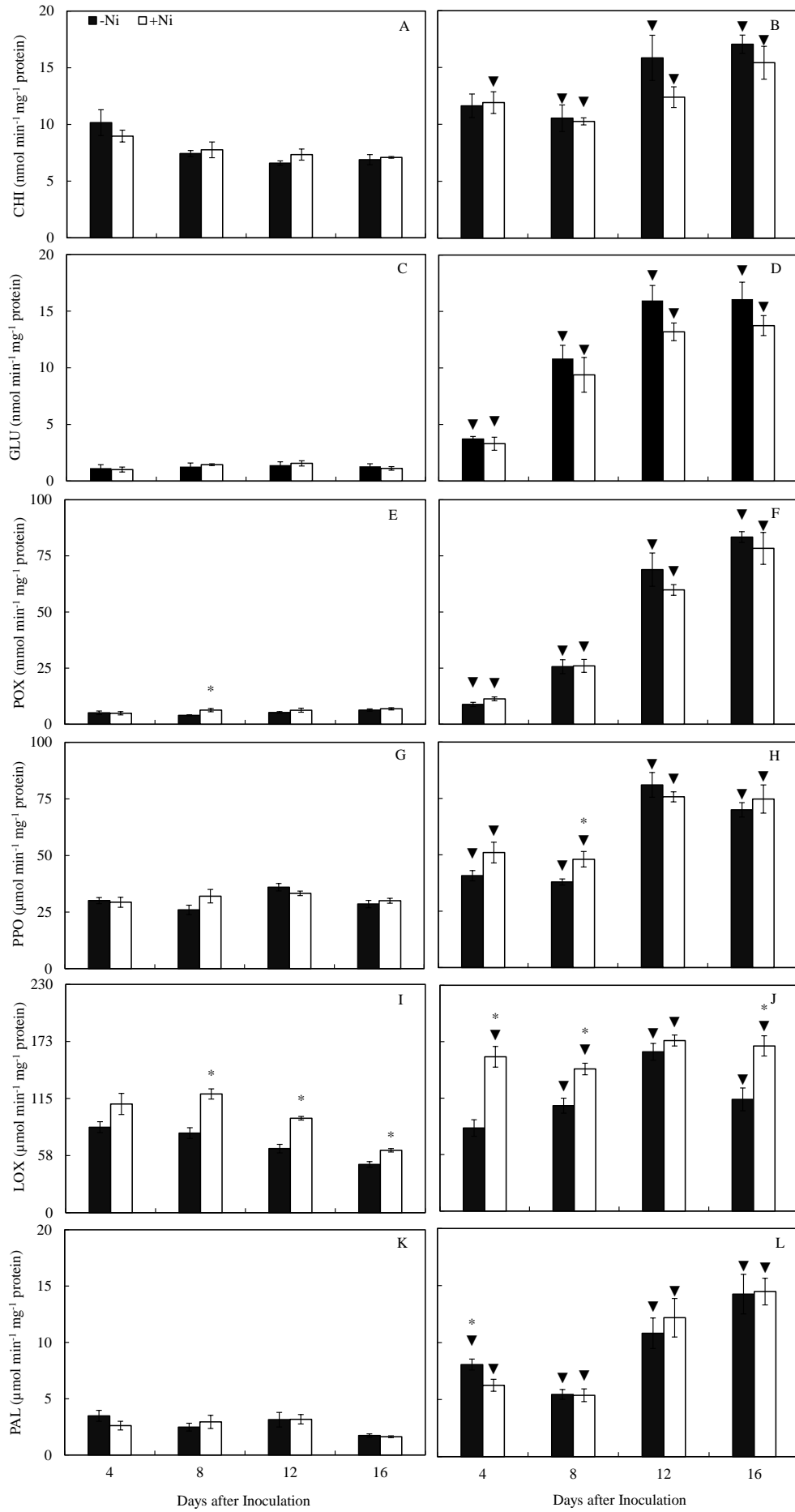


**Figure 10.** Concentrations of superoxide anion radical ( $O_2^-$ ) (A and B), hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) (C and D), malondialdehyde (MDA) (E and F), total soluble phenolics (TSP) (G and H), and lignin-thioglycolic acid (LTGA) derivatives (I and J) determined in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with water (-Ni) or nickel (+Ni) and non-inoculated (NI) (A, C, E, G, and I) or inoculated (I) with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B, D, F, H, and J). For each evaluation time, means followed by an asterisk or by an inverted triangle are significantly different by the F test at 5% of probability. The asterisk compares -Ni and +Ni treatments, and the inverted triangle compares NI and I treatments. Bars represent the standard error of the means. FW and DW = fresh and dry weights, respectively. n = 4.



**Figure 11.** Activities of superoxide dismutase (SOD) (A and B), catalase (CAT) (C and D), glutathione reductase (GR) (E and F), and ascorbate peroxidase (APX) (G and H), determined in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with water (-Ni) or nickel (+Ni) and non-inoculated (NI) (A, C, E, and G) or inoculated (I) with *Exserohilum turcicum* (B, D, F, and H). For each

evaluation time, means followed by an asterisk or by an inverted triangle are significantly different by the F test at 5% of probability. The asterisk compares -Ni and +Ni treatments, and the inverted triangle compares NI and I treatments. Bars represent the standard error of the means.  $n = 4$ .



**Figure 12.** Activities of chitinase (CHI) (A and B),  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase (GLU) (C and D), peroxidase (POX) (E and F), polyphenoloxidase (PPO) (G and H), lipoxygenase (LOX) (I and J), and phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL) (K and L) determined in the leaves of maize plants sprayed with water (-Ni) or nickel (+Ni) and non-inoculated (NI) (A, C, E, G, I, and K) or inoculated (I) (B, D, F, H, J, and L) with *Exserohilum turcicum*. For each evaluation time, means followed by an asterisk or by an inverted triangle are significantly different by the F test at 5% of probability. The asterisk compares -Ni and +Ni treatments, and the inverted triangle compares NI and I treatments. Bars represent the standard error of the means. n = 4.