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▶ To cite this version:

Christophe Maurel, Philippe Nacry. Root architecture and hydraulics converge for acclimation to changing water availability. Nature Plants, 2020, 6, pp.744-749. 10.1038/s41477-020-0684-5. hal-02885904

HAL Id: hal-02885904 https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-02885904

Submitted on 16 Dec 2020

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1 Root architecture and hydraulics converge for acclimation to changing water

2 availability

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12 Abstract. Because of intense transpiration and growth, the needs of plants for water can be 13 immense. Yet, water in the soil is most often heterogeneous if not scarce due to more and more 14 frequent and intense drought episodes. The converse context, flooding, is often associated with 15 marked oxygen deficiency and can also challenge the plant water status. Under our feet roots 16 achieve an incredible challenge to meet the water demand of the plant's aerial parts under such 17 dramatically different environmental conditions. For this, they continuously explore the soil, building 18 a highly complex, branched architecture. On shorter time scales, roots keep adjusting their water 19 transport capacity (their so-called hydraulics), locally or globally. While the mechanisms that directly 20 underlie root growth and development and tissue hydraulics are being uncovered, the signalling 21 mechanisms that govern their local and systemic adjustments as a function of water availability 22 remain largely unknown. A comprehensive understanding of root architecture and hydraulics as a 23 whole (in other terms, root hydraulic architecture) is needed to apprehend the strategies used by 24 plants to optimize water uptake and possibly improve crops for this crucial trait.

25 Word count: 3871

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27 Introduction

Water is certainly the most limiting environmental factor for agricultural production, whether in arid or temperate areas. Climate change exacerbates this threat by inducing increasingly frequent and intense drought episodes. While droughts can dramatically alter plant productivity and survival, water excess is not a lesser evil ¹. With notable exceptions such as rice and Rumex, complete

submergence of the plant results in a full growth arrest ¹ and under waterlogging conditions several 32 33 plant species exhibit a paradoxical wilting phenotype due to transpiration while root water uptake 34 capacity has been reduced ². Thus, both water deficit and excess negatively impact agriculture and 35 result in significant economical loses. For instance, a global analysis including drylands and non-36 drylands worldwide showed that crops as important as wheat and maize show a yield reduction by 21% and 39%, respectively, at approximately 40% water reduction 3 . According to recent estimates, 37 Europe loses up to 5 billion euros of agricultural harvests every year, due to river overflows. These 38 39 losses may double by 2080 due to climate change ⁴. Thus, understanding the overall modes of 40 response of plant to water availability is of upmost agronomic importance¹.

41 Several directions are currently followed, regarding water use. Foremost is irrigation, which 42 has traditionally been used to counteract insufficient precipitation, although it is associated with 43 significant economic and environmental costs. Soil drainage is also central to combat the detrimental effects of waterlogging ⁵. Although novel water management and predictive practices ⁵⁻⁷ have been 44 explored to increase the efficiency of water usage ⁸, developing drought- or flood-tolerant crop 45 cultivars promises to be another main path to progress ^{1,8,9}. In particular, drought-tolerant crops are 46 47 plants that are adapted to water-challenged climates that, most importantly, maintain a stable yield 48 despite annual variations in precipitation. To reach this goal, breeders have focused on exploiting 49 plant phenology as a means to protect the reproductive stage (the most drought-sensitive 50 developmental stage in some crops). Breeding work has also been aimed at transpiration or leaf 51 growth in order to prevent water loss, thereby achieving significant genetic progress in plant resistance to drought ¹⁰. In contrast, most breeders have avoided the selection of root traits, 52 53 although they fulfil key functions for the plant such as soil water uptake, which is absolutely essential 54 during droughts and is challenged under waterlogging conditions. One reason is that roots vary with 55 soil type and rainfall and require considerable investment for functional assays or growth monitoring 56 in the field. Efforts to phenotype root systems in real soils, using X-ray computed tomography or 57 shovelomics, or in adapted devices such as rhizotrons or transparent soils have led to significant technical progresses on how to capture the complexity and dynamics of root architecture and 58 anatomy (see ¹¹ for a recent review). Yet, the functionality of root systems cannot be fully addressed 59 60 using these phenotyping devices. In the present Perspective, we point to recent fundamental 61 advances in root biology that open exciting avenues in several directions related to water uptake and 62 ultimately crop improvement.

63 Elucidating root hydraulic architecture

Roots fulfil their anchoring and foraging functions through continuous growth and branching,thereby producing a highly complex and specialized network, the so called root system architecture

66 (RSA) (Fig. 1a). Experimentally, RSA can be defined by length (depth) of the main root(s), the density 67 and elongation of lower order roots, their gravitropic setpoint angle, and the possible presence of 68 crown roots or adventitious roots. A large body of research has addressed the elementary 69 mechanisms that determine each of these individual traits and emphasized the role of hormones, including auxin, abscisic acid (ABA), cytokinins and ethylene ¹²⁻¹⁴. Other studies have addressed the 70 71 adaptive significance of varying RSA. In a search for root ideotypes that could provide cereal crops with an adaptive advantage under drought, deep rooting has been proposed as a key trait, as it 72 permits access to unexploited water resources when the soil surface desiccates ¹⁵. Yet, this ideotype 73 may not be optimal for quick recovery after drought in seasonal precipitation regimes ¹⁶, or for 74 acquisition of nutrients such as phosphate ¹⁷. One initial approach to investigate the role of roots 75 76 during drought consisted of searching for correspondences between Quantitative Trait Loci (QTLs) for specific root morphological traits and whole-plant performance under water deficit ^{18,19}. In 77 78 grasses, for instance, suppression of crown roots was found to promote drought tolerance ^{20,21}. In 79 addition, plant geneticists have recently succeeded in cloning such critical genes as rice DRO1, which 80 determines root growth angle and thereby enhances rice performance under drought by favoring deep rooting ²². A natural variation approach, but in Arabidopsis, led to identification of 81 EXOCYST70A3, an exocyst factor which also interferes with root growth orientation and root system 82 83 depth by acting on expression of auxin efflux carriers in the root tip ¹⁶. Although the two studies 84 point to the central role of auxin in regulating RSA, they identify opposite and species-specific strategies for soil exploration under water deficit. More generally, much of the physiological and 85 86 genetic components that shape the adaptive value of RSA under natural conditions are as yet 87 unknown. To address these, elaborate time-lapse 3D imaging and mathematical modelling 88 approaches are under development to capture the great complexity of RSA, and its intra- and interspecific variations ²³⁻²⁵. 89

90 Water uptake is not simply a matter of root growth. It is also critically determined by the 91 intrinsic water transport capacity of the roots, *i.e.* their hydraulics (Fig. 1b). Water is first transported 92 radially from the soil to the stele, through concentric layers of root cells, loaded into xylem vessels, 93 and then transported axially up to the shoots. Our biophysical and physiological understanding of 94 these processes has made significant progress in the last two decades ^{26,27}. Molecular physiological 95 studies have shown that water channel proteins named aquaporins facilitate water diffusion across cell membranes and therefore contribute to cell-to-cell transport ^{26,28}. Yet, many other components 96 97 of root hydraulics are to be discovered. For instance, the crucial role of lignified and suberized barriers differentiated in the walls of exo- and endodermal cells has long remained elusive but can 98 now be explored using genetic materials recently arising from sharp molecular dissection of these 99 barriers²⁹. Such studies have revealed however the intricate regulatory pathways connecting the cell 100

wall (apoplastic) and cell-to-cell (aquaporin-dependent) water transport paths ³⁰. While root growth 101 102 or leaf water relation traits have been the subject of extensive direct genetic analyses, it is only 103 recently that these approaches have been extended to root hydraulics. For instance, QTL analysis of a 104 biparental recombinant population of Arabidopsis led to the molecular cloning of Hydraulic Conductivity of Root 1 (HCR1) ³¹. HCR1 encodes a raf-like MAP3K protein kinase which 105 106 characterization has revealed unexpected hydraulic regulation under the combined effects of 107 potassium and oxygen (O_2) availabilities (see below) (Fig. 2a,b). With respect to the strategy used for 108 HCR1 mapping and cloning, Genome Wide Association Studies (GWAS) have recently provided a 109 more direct approach for isolating genes controlling root hydraulic conductivity ³². These studies 110 uncovered XYLEM NAC DOMAIN 1 (XND1), a transcription factor that acts as a negative regulator of 111 xylem differentiation and as a consequence of root hydraulics, thereby providing novel insights into 112 the long-lasting debate on the possibly limiting role of xylem vessels in axial water transport (Fig. 1b). 113 In relation with its effects on root water transport, XND1 negatively acts on drought stress tolerance 114 ³² (Fig. 2c). Overall, natural variation at *HCR1* and *XND1* points to the critical role of root hydraulics in plant adaptation to water excess or deficit in natural habitats. More broadly, these studies indicate 115 116 how root hydraulics contributes to integrative response of plants to combined abiotic and biotic 117 stresses (Fig. 2). Future development of such genetic approaches in crops will be crucial for dissecting 118 and possibly improving root hydraulic performance under agricultural conditions.

119 Full comprehension of the ability of roots to capture soil water requires consideration of the 120 root architecture and hydraulics as a whole. Mathematical modelling approaches have therefore 121 attempted to integrate root local water transport properties within the RSA, thereby representing the so-called root hydraulic architecture ³³⁻³⁵. Several recent works have aimed at a better match 122 between root anatomy and architecture and water transport properties ³⁶⁻³⁸. Nevertheless, there is 123 still too little experimental data to support or challenge these models ^{27,38-40}. Consequently, although 124 125 this is a crucial integrative trait for plant performance, root hydraulic architecture has largely been 126 neglected by plant breeding efforts. In addition to RSA phenotyping, crude evaluation of root water uptake capacity in breeding materials, by direct measurements in pot or hydroponically grown plants 127 ⁴¹, or indirectly through transpiration in grafted species ⁴², would certainly help estimate the 128 129 potentialities of these materials. Another key issue is the interconnection between hydraulics and 130 growth. While it is well supported in shoots, it is just emerging in roots. For instance, auxin-131 controlled aquaporins allow directing water flows in lateral primordia thereby reducing the 132 mechanical resistance of overlaying cells and favoring the emergence of the newly formed lateral roots⁴³. This study establishes a unique physiological link between root hydraulics and branching. 133

134 Root plasticity under varying water availability

135 Root growth and hydraulics are both highly plastic, and are continuously adjusted in response to a 136 large variety of soil signals with potentially antagonistic or synergistic effects. For instance, water and 137 phosphorus deprivation can induce the formation of deep or shallow roots, respectively, while they both down-regulate aquaporins (root hydraulic conductivity) ^{25,26}. In addition, water and mineral 138 139 resources are far from uniform and can dramatically vary between soil patches or strata. A key 140 enigma in root research is therefore to resolve how plant roots, which lack a centralized information 141 processing system, can integrate signals from a heterogeneous environment to design the optimal 142 short- and long-term strategies for soil resource acquisition.

143 There is no need to say that, due to their great agronomical importance, these questions have 144 been raising a strong interest. A large body of literature shows that water availability exerts multiple 145 short- or long-term effects on root growth and hydraulics, with a sharp dose-dependency. For 146 instance, moderate water deprivation enhances primary root growth and lateral root formation, whereas a strong water deficit exerts opposite inhibitory effects ^{12,44,45}. In addition, sensitivity of 147 these responses can vary between the primary root and lateral roots of different orders, or between 148 segments of a same axial root ⁴⁶. Root hydraulics is also dynamically regulated by water deficit, with 149 species- or cultivar-specific profiles and, in most cases, an early inhibition of aquaporin function ^{47,48}. 150 151 In maize, root aquaporins can also integrate diurnal changes in shoot water demand (transpiration), 152 through a circadian regulation mechanism that shows a higher response amplitude under soil water deficit ⁴⁹. On a longer term, drought acts on root hydraulics by enhancing suberization of the 153 154 endodermis, or interfering with xylem differentiation (Fig. 1a). For instance, water deficit triggers in 155 the Arabidopsis root a non-cell-autonomous pathway involving endodermal ABA signaling. The 156 hormone enhances the accumulation of microRNA165, which migrates into the stele to act on transcription factors determining xylem identity ⁵⁰. 157

158 Recently, there have been attempts to understand how these responses integrate with each 159 other to determine whole root functionality. Analysis of both root architecture and hydraulics under 160 exogenous-ABA treatments and in ABA-biosynthesis and signalling mutants has revealed striking parallels indicating that ABA, that accumulates under water deficit, acts as an integrator of root 161 responses to the associated stress ⁴⁶. Yet, the picture is definitely more complex as ABA acts within a 162 163 hormonal interaction network involving auxin, ethylene and cytokinins ^{51,52}. Future studies will also 164 have to address the issue of local heterogeneity in water availability, which, besides overall water 165 deficit, can occur in the absence of any water stress for the plant. Indeed, local variations can orient root growth (hydrotropism)⁵³ or lateral root formation (hydropatterning)^{54,55}(Fig. 1a). Orman-Lipeza 166 et al. ⁵⁶ recently described a related response, called xerobranching, which reflects the repression of 167 168 lateral root formation when a root grows through a large air-filled soil macropore, thereby feeling a 169 transient water deficit. In all cases, root tip growth and root branching are positioned towards regions of higher water availability (Fig. 1a). While much mechanistic details are being uncovered from laboratory experiments ⁴⁵, it will be fascinating to understand how these tropic responses mutually interact and operate during growth of roots in real, drying soils and how they allow optimizing soil foraging and water uptake.

174 Water excess reduces root hydraulic conductivity in most plant species, with early effects 175 being mediated through proton-dependent gating of aquaporins due to metabolically-induced cell acidosis ^{2,57}. On a longer term, water excess exerts profound effects on root anatomy and ultimately 176 177 RSA. In some wetland species, hypoxia promotes suberin and lignin deposition in the outer layers of 178 the roots (rhizodermis) to create a barrier for lateral diffusion of O_2 from the root to the water logged soil ⁵⁸. More generally, and to facilitate root aeration, roots differentiate internal air spaces 179 180 called aerenchyma, which can be either constitutive in species such as rice or inducible by hypoxia. 181 While the role of ethylene and ROS in aerenchyma induction under hypoxic stress is now well assessed, a central role of auxin in constitutive aerenchyma formation was recently uncovered ⁵⁹. 182 183 Interestingly, the auxin pathway involved shares commonalities with the AUX/IAA- and ARF-184 dependent pathway responsible for lateral root formation. Yet, the two responses are somewhat 185 distinct since auxin operates in two adjacent cell territories, e.g. cortex and pericycle. Concerning 186 root growth, hypoxia can induce root slanting, to possibly escape from deeper layers in water logged 187 soils ⁶⁰, due in part to a recently uncovered cytokinin-dependent mechanism that delays the gravitropic response of lateral roots ⁶¹. More severe O₂ deprivation can result in tip growth arrest if 188 not death, and inhibition of lateral root formation ^{1,58}. To possibly alleviate defects of the primary 189 190 root system, flooding also promotes the formation of adventitious roots at the shoot basis of flood-191 tolerant species, a process that is primarily induced by tissue accumulation of ethylene¹. While effects of energy depletion on transport activities in hypoxic roots have been largely identified ⁶², the 192 193 significance with respect to water uptake of hypoxia-induced root developmental reprogramming is 194 as yet unclear. Thus, the notion of root hydraulic architecture in flooded plants will require as much 195 attention as in droughted plants.

196 Sensing water availability

197 The molecular and cellular mechanisms underlying the early perception of water availability by roots 198 and downstream signalling processes have become a crucial area in plant research. Interestingly, 199 candidate genes involved in sensing water deficit are now emerging ^{63,64} and associated signalling 200 events involving ROS and calcium are being elucidated ^{65,66}. These studies, which deal with local 201 effects of water deficit, typically relate to root responses to pronounced drought. Yet, the capacity of 202 roots to acclimate to heterogeneous water resources or changing water demands of shoots, indicate that roots must continuously emit or sense systemic signals transferred within the root system or between roots and shoots ^{67,68}. A dehydration-induced peptide that relays root ABA signalling towards shoots was recently uncovered ⁶⁹ but other physical (*e.g.* hydraulic) or chemical (*e.g.* hormones, ions, ROS) signals are surely serving in root responses to heterogeneous or varying water availabilities.

Robbins and Dinneny ⁷⁰ have recently explored the initial steps of hydropatterning and used a 208 209 thoughtful modelling approach to show that perception of water availability is necessarily linked to 210 growth. In brief, they showed that growth allows to locally sustain a water potential gradient across 211 the root radial plane whereas such gradient rapidly dissipates in a non-growing zone. These findings 212 echo an independent experimental work showing that signal perception triggering the hydrotropic 213 response of Arabidopsis roots occurs in the elongating cortex ⁷¹. Thus, the general principles 214 governing root responses to water availability are emerging and we now know where to look for 215 'water sensing' and early signalling mechanisms! A first significant step was recently taken by Orosa-Puente et al.⁷². These authors showed how the hydropatterning response relies on a chain of 216 negative regulations which locally repress lateral root formation. In brief, local water deficit acts on 217 218 SUMO protease function to enhance sumoylation of auxin response factor ARF7, which in turn 219 accumulates and represses the downstream expression of root-inducing transcription factor LBD16. 220 It is still disputed whether xerobranching is an extreme case of hydropatterning or would involve a fully distinct mechanism ^{45,56}. The authors showed that xerobranching can be mimicked by a transient 221 222 ABA accumulation and response due to local water deficit, which would somewhat antagonize 223 constitutive auxin-dependent root branching. However, this model awaits validation using ABA signaling mutants ⁴⁵. Nevertheless, this hormonal regulation is different from previously described 224 225 root responses to long-term exposure to ABA or water deficit. In all cases, a deep interconnection 226 between ABA and auxin is emerging ⁴⁵.

227 The perception of water excess relies on a completely different mechanism involving a class 228 (class VII) of transcription factors which are homologous to Ethylene Responsive Factors (ERF) and 229 are specifically oxidized and degraded by the O_2 and nitric oxide (NO) sensing branch of the PROTEOLYSIS 6 (PRT6) N-degron pathway^{1,73}. Under flooding (O₂ deprivation) conditions, these so-230 231 called ERF-VII factors are stabilized to trigger a core anaerobic transcriptional response. Recent work 232 indicate that this core mechanism is itself regulated by multiple hormonal and environmental cues. 233 For instance, ethylene, which accumulates in the early phases of submergence and pre-acclimates 234 plant to hypoxia stress, was shown to stabilize ERF-VII factors by increasing the expression of PHYTOGLOBIN1, which in turn scavenges NO ⁷⁴. The HCR1 protein kinase was also shown to stabilize 235 one such factor (RAP2.12), specifically in the presence of K^{+} , thereby potentiating this response, and 236 promoting by as yet unknown mechanisms the inhibition of root hydraulic conductivity ³¹. What 237

238 might be the significance of this joint response pathway to O_2 and K⁺ availability? Whereas O_2 239 deprivation directly reports on the intensity of flooding stress, K^{*} availability could reflect the growth capacity of the plant depending on soil washing 5 . As a major intracellular cation, K ${}^+$ indeed 240 241 contributes to turgor maintenance and thereby growth. In this context, HCR1 activation in the 242 presence of K⁺ would promote the plant's metabolic acclimation to flooding stress, thereby providing 243 an enhanced growth capacity during the recovery phase (Fig. 2b). Depending on its intensity, flooding 244 can result in soil water logging or full plant submergence that impact with different extent the water 245 status and growth of plants¹. It was proposed that natural alleles of *HCR1* with distinct functionalities 246 may have distinct adaptive values in these different scenarios.

247 ERF-VII transcription factors also play a role in the growth responses of Arabidopsis roots to 248 hypoxia by repressing the slanting response of the primary root to hypoxia ⁶⁰ and promoting elongation of adventitious roots ⁷⁵. We also note that the capacity of plant roots to sense and 249 250 accclimate to O_2 availability goes beyond their responses to flooding stress. Hypoxic niches that 251 naturally occur under aerobic conditions were recently shown to play significant roles in root 252 development. Starting from the observation that hypoxic-responsive genes are induced during the late phases of lateral root formation, Shukla et al. ⁷⁶ showed how ERF-VII transcription factors bind to 253 254 auxin-responsive transcriptional complexes to repress the expression of master regulators of lateral 255 root formation, thereby contributing to the termination of this process.

256 Conclusions

257 Roots can be seen as a biological network integrating three main functions: growth, water transport, 258 and water perception and signalling. The first two functions yield the root hydraulic architecture, an 259 underexplored yet key trait. One main question is to understand how this architecture evolves in 260 time and space by integrating local and systemic signals reporting on the availability of water. The 261 present review indicates that the modes and mechanisms of response of roots to water deficit or 262 excess are fundamentally distinct. While ABA emerges as a coordinator of root hydraulic architecture 263 under drought ⁴⁶, we miss corresponding information on integrative hydraulic responses of roots to 264 flooding stress. Also, a large focus has been made on aquaporin regulation under drought, whereas 265 the significance of suberization and xylem differentiation with respect to root hydraulics remains 266 disputed. More generally, future research will have to uncover the main principles and variety of 267 strategies used by plant roots to optimize soil water uptake and maintain the plant water status 268 under varying water availabilities. In these respects, mathematical modeling will be crucial to 269 integrate functional and architectural components of whole root systems. In particular, a specific 270 challenge will be to determine and possibly design root genotypes which are the best adapted to 271 specific drought or flooding scenarios or culture practices such as deficit irrigation or partial root

zone drying. More generally, a better integration of root functions and their relations to soil in cropmodels would certainly aid crop improvement.

274 Recent progress in plant molecular genetics now makes it possible to directly address these issues in the most relevant crops. Besides genome editing using CRISPR-Cas9 which now offers a 275 powerful approach to knock down genes of interest ⁷⁷, GWAS provide a potentially direct and rapid 276 277 approach to the identification of genes controlling a trait of interest. For instance, this approach has 278 been successfully used to isolate genes contributing to drought tolerance in crop plants with complex genomes such as maize ^{78,79} and it can now be used to target specific root traits. Cereals which 279 280 display an elaborate embryonic and postembryonic root developmental program also hold promises 281 for exciting discoveries in root functionalization.

283 Figure legends

Fig. 1| The water uptake capacity of a root system is determined by both its architecture and hydraulics.

a) The root system architecture is determined in part by soil water availability which can be highly
heterogeneous depending on soil layers. As shown in the inset, these local heterogeneities can
orientate root tip growth (hydrotropism) and lateral root formation (hydropatterning).
b) Water
uptake can be decomposed in radial water transport from the soil to the root stele and axial
transport along the xylem vessels. Aquaporins, which contribute to transcellular water flows during
radial transport, determine to a large extent the root hydraulic conductivity. Suberized and lignified
endodermis or exodermis (not shown) can also impact radial transport.

293

Fig. 2| Quantitative genetics allowed the identification of novel genes involved in the regulation of root hydraulics under composite stress conditions.

296 **a**) Optimal growth and transpiration of a plant in a fully aerated (O_2) , irrigated (H_2O) and fertilized 297 (K^{*}) soil. The load of soil pathogenic bacteria (bacteria) is maintained at a minimum. The water 298 uptake capacity of the root system is accounted for by its hydraulic conductivity (L_{p_i}) . **b**) Flooding 299 results in oxygen deficiency (hypoxia) of the root system. In the presence of nutriments (K^{+}), 300 induction of the Hydraulic Conductivity of Root 1 (HCR1) pathway enhances the core anaerobic 301 transcriptional response (anaerobic metabolism) and inhibits water uptake (Lp_r) . These responses 302 promote plant acclimation to submergence and a better growth during the recovery phase. c) The 303 Xylem NAC Domain 1 (XND1) transcription factor negatively regulates xylem differentiation and as a 304 consequence Lpr. Pathogenic bacteria can penetrate the root and move axially through its 305 vasculature. They also enhance the expression of XND1. Reduced xylem differentiation is detrimental 306 under water deficit (brown) and results in plant wilting. Yet, it restricts the proliferation of vascular 307 pathogens and therefore diminishes the susceptibility of the plant to bacterial wilt. Thus, XND1 308 determines a trade-off between responses to abiotic and biotic stresses.

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493 Acknowledgements

- 494 This work was supported in part by the Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR-11-BSV6-018) and
- the European Research Council (ERC-2017-ADG- 788553).

496 Contributions

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- 500 Competing interests
- 501 The authors declare no competing interests



