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## **Tracing the evolutionary routes of plant-microbiota interactions**

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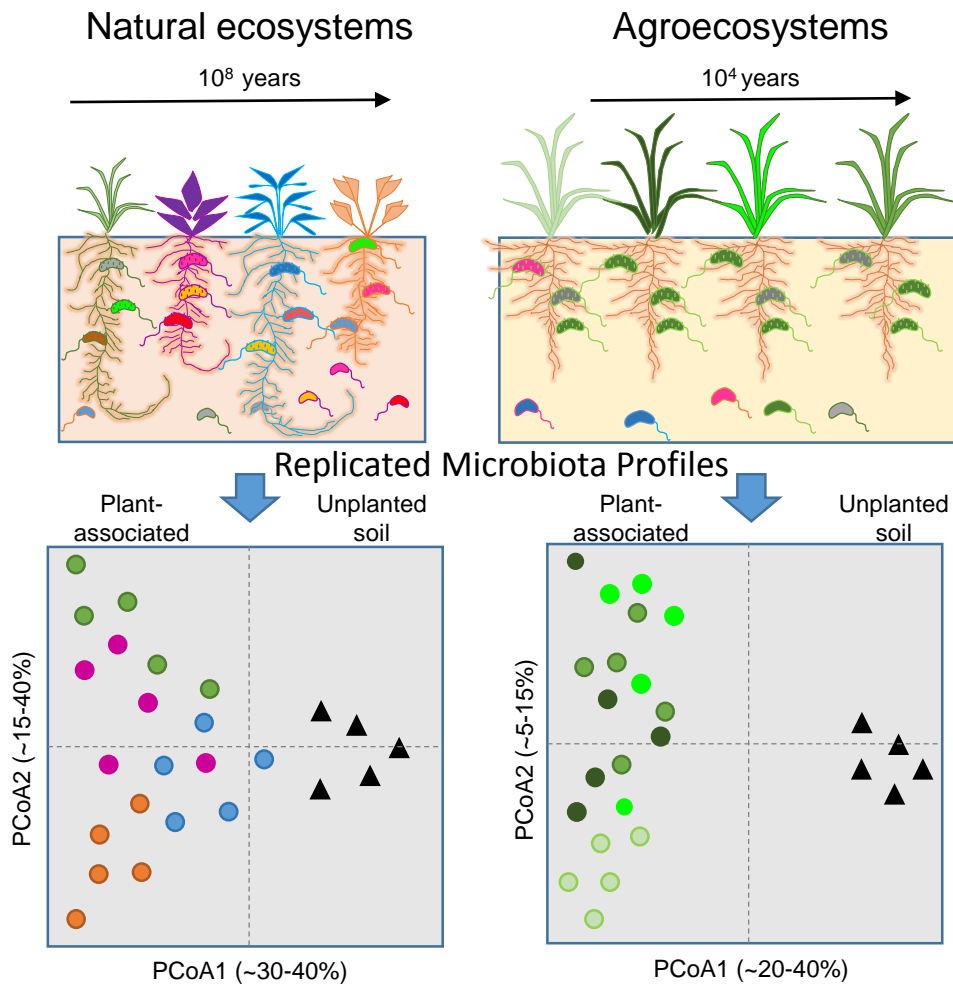
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# 1 Tracing the evolutionary routes of plant-microbiota interactions

2

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4

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8

## 9 Highlights

- 10
- 11 • Soil characteristics and stress events are main drivers for plant-microbiota  
12 interactions in natural ecosystems;
  - 13 • Host phylogeny fine-tunes the composition of the microbiota inhabiting wild  
14 plants;
  - 15
  - 16 • In agricultural ecosystems, selection for crop yield and external inputs have  
17 likely reduced the genetic repertoire of the domesticated microbiota;
  - 18
  - 19 • Large scale comparative microbial genomics is needed to dissect the full  
20 genetic potential of the crop microbiota;
  - 21
  - 22 • A research framework encompassing molecular microbiology and crop  
23 genomics will be key to identify plant genes shaping the microbiota.
  - 24

25

26

27 **Abstract**

28 The microbiota thriving at the root-soil interface plays a critical role in supporting plant  
29 growth, development and health. The interactions between plant and soil microbes  
30 can be traced back to the initial plant's colonisation of dry lands. Understanding the  
31 evolutionary drivers of these interactions will be key to re-wire them for the benefit of  
32 mankind. Here we critically assess recent insights into the evolutionary history of  
33 plant-microbiota interactions in natural and agricultural ecosystems. We identify  
34 distinctive features, as well as commonalities, of these two distinct scenarios and  
35 areas requiring further research efforts. Finally, we propose strategies that combining  
36 advances in molecular microbiology and crop genomics will be key towards a  
37 predictable manipulation of plant-microbiota interactions for sustainable crop  
38 production.

39

40 **Keywords: rhizosphere, microbiota, co-evolution, plant phylogeny, crop**  
41 **domestication, sustainable agriculture**

42

## 43 Introduction

44 The capacity of establishing interactions with soil microbes was one of the key factors  
45 underpinning plant's transition from water to land: fossil evidence indicates that plants  
46 engaged in symbiotic associations with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi as early as 400  
47 million years ago [1]. The adaptive value of this capacity has been retained throughout  
48 plant's evolutionary history: similar to their animal counterparts, land plants are  
49 effectively holobionts hosting a wide variety of microorganisms in the vicinity of and  
50 within plant organs, collectively referred to as the plant microbiota [2]. In particular,  
51 microbes thriving at the root-soil interface appear critical for enhancing mineral  
52 mobilisation from soil for plant uptake and pathogen protection [3-5]. These plant-  
53 microbial assemblages are not randomly assorted: their taxonomical and functional  
54 composition determines mutualistic, commensal, and parasitic interactions within the  
55 plant-defined microbial habitats [6]. Likewise, the plant genome emerged as  
56 determinant for, at least a part, of the plant microbiota [7]. Consequently,  
57 understanding the evolutionary trajectories of plant-microbiota interactions and our  
58 ability to capitalise on them for plant's adaptation to future climatic scenarios will be  
59 critical for sustainable agriculture [8].

60 In this manuscript, we will evaluate recent studies focusing on the evolutionary  
61 relationships between plants and their associated microbiotas. We will compare 'long-  
62 term' relationships, ~~occurred~~ which have occurred at an evolutionary scale of millions  
63 of years, with 'short-term' relationships, ~~i.e., i.e., those that have arisen since the~~  
64 ~~inception of the one arose at inception of~~ agriculture and marked by crop  
65 domestication and plant breeding. In addition, we will discuss evidence of microbial  
66 evolution within the plant microbiota. An exhaustive appraisal of the current literature  
67 is beyond the scope of this manuscript: we will therefore focus on the bacterial

68 communities thriving at the root soil interface. Finally, we will illustrate how this  
69 knowledge can be mined to efficiently integrate plant-microbiota interactions in crop  
70 ~~development~~ breeding programmes.

71

72 **'Long-term' evolutionary relationships between plants and their**  
73 **microbiotas**

74 Owing to its global distribution and wide range of adaptation, the model plant  
75 *Arabidopsis thaliana* represents an ideal system to study how host-microbiota  
76 interactions impacted on plant's adaptation to the environment [9]. A study comparing  
77 the root-inhabiting communities of *A. thaliana* and three related *Brassicaceae* species  
78 indicated that 17% of the variation in community composition could be attributed to the  
79 host species, with the microbiota inhabiting the roots of *A. thaliana* and *Cardamine*  
80 *hirsuta*, a species which diverged from the former ~35 million years ago, being the  
81 more distinct. Yet, these differences could be attributed to the enrichment of a limited  
82 number of abundant bacterial members of the orders Actinomycetales,  
83 Burkholderiales, and Flavobacteriales, and these enrichments are relatively  
84 conserved between host plants and more dependent on the soil type [10]. These  
85 results indicated that the nature of the soil, which is one of the main sources of  
86 inoculum for plant microbiota, can impose a larger selective pressure on plant-  
87 associated communities than host phylogeny.

88 Consistently, a study conducted using a natural soil chronosequence revealed that  
89 edaphic factors are a primary determinant for the bacterial microbiota of 31 host plant  
90 species, including lycophytes, ferns, gymnosperms, and angiosperms [11]. Yet,  
91 multivariate statistical analysis conducted on the abundances of the plant-associated  
92 bacteria revealed a significant signature of host phylogeny in the microbiota, with a  
93 bias for members of the genera *Bradyrhizobium*, *Burkholderia*, *Rhizobium* and major  
94 uncharacterized lineages such as WPS-2, Ellin329, and FW68. Owing to the fact that  
95 lycophytes diverged from vascular plants ~400 million years ago, these data provide an

96 evidence that the assembly of a diverse microbiota is an ancient evolutionary trait in  
97 plants [11].

98 The signature of host phylogeny on the composition of the bacterial microbiota may  
99 vary depending on the microhabitat investigated. For instance, a 'common garden  
100 experiment' conducted using 30 angiosperms spanning 140 million years of evolution  
101 revealed 40% of microbial variation in the endosphere, i.e., the communities thriving  
102 within the root corpus, as opposed to only 17% of microbial variation in the rhizosphere  
103 i.e., the thin layer of soil surrounding plant roots, explained by host species [12].  
104 Consistently, host phylogenetic relatedness correlated with microbial diversity in the  
105 endosphere but not in the rhizosphere. Interestingly, the application of a drought stress  
106 in the tested plants resulted in a three-fold enrichment of members of the family  
107 *Streptomycetaceae* in the endosphere of stressed-plants regardless of their  
108 phylogeny. Of note, this selective enrichment was not triggered in either the cognate  
109 rhizosphere samples or in inert wooden samples used as ~~an~~ a control [12].

110 Strikingly similar results were obtained by a comparative analysis of the microbiota  
111 associated with 18 species of the *Poaceae* family, which showed that host genetic  
112 diversity (determined using the sequences of three chloroplast genes) significantly  
113 correlate with bacterial diversity in the endosphere but not always with the one  
114 retrieved from the rhizosphere compartment [13]. Furthermore, once this panel of  
115 plants was exposed to drought stress a 3.1-fold increase in the endosphere  
116 populations of Actinobacteria, as compared with 2.3- and 1.5-fold increase in  
117 rhizospheres and soils, respectively, was recorded [13].

118 Taken together, these results indicate that the phylogenetic signatures of the bacterial  
119 ~~phylogenetic signature on the bacterial~~ microbiota are compartment dependent (i.e.,



120 the different magnitude in either the rhizosphere or endosphere) and suggest that  
121 these can be swiftly modulated by abiotic factors towards a stress-adapted microbiota  
122 (e.g., the selective enrichment of Actinobacteria under drought conditions).

123 Whether the host phylogenetic selection on the microbiota thriving at the root-soil  
124 interface represents an environmental adaptation or, rather, an evolutionary footprint  
125 remains to be elucidated.

126

127 **‘Short-term’ evolutionary relationships: the domestication of the**  
128 **plant microbiota.**

129 A key feature of cultivated plants is represented by the processes of domestication  
130 and breeding, an on-going ~~an~~-anthropic selection which interjected the evolutionary  
131 history of crops [14] . The net result of these processes is an erosion of the genetic  
132 diversity of plants whose growth and development in the field is often promoted with  
133 external inputs such as fertilisers and other agrochemicals [15]. Of note, these external  
134 inputs may interfere with the establishment of plant-microbe symbiotic assemblages  
135 [16] [17].

136 How did these modifications impact ~~on~~ the recruitment and maintenance of the  
137 microbiota thriving at the root-soil interface, considering that modern cultivated  
138 varieties and wild ancestors diverged ~10,000 years ago and crops have  
139 predominantly been selected for yield traits?

140 Studies conducted with domesticated food crops indicated that the positioning on the  
141 breeding history i.e., wild accessions, ancestral or different modern varieties,  
142 significantly impacts s the composition of the microbiota in barley [18] bean [19], maize  
143 [20] and rice [21], albeit with a proportion of variance explained ranging from ~5% to  
144 ~13%. Congruently, a meta-analysis conducted with sequencing information from a  
145 broader range of crop species suggested a ‘dichotomy’ in the taxonomic affiliation of  
146 the microbiota with the enrichment of members of Actinobacteria and Proteobacteria  
147 in modern varieties “opposed” to the enrichment of members of Bacteroidetes in the  
148 more ancestral types [22].

149 Interestingly, these recruitment patterns display a stress-inducible component:  
150 drought stress promoted the enrichment of Actinobacteria in the ~~root~~ rhizosphere and

151 root communities of *Oryza sativa* and *Oryza glaberrima*, two domesticated rice  
152 species, in three distinct soil types [23].

153 Furthermore, field trials conducted with several inbred maize lines identified a subset  
154 of 'heritable bacteria', i.e., bacteria whose abundance was significantly associated  
155 to the plant genotypes, in ~~the of~~ the rhizosphere microbiota, although soil and seasonal  
156 variation significantly impacted on these plant-bacterial assemblages [20] [24].

157 Despite this host-genotype specificity, and unlike what observed for wild species, no  
158 obvious relationships between host phylogeny and microbial diversity have yet been  
159 reported within the same lineage of a given crop. Examples from maize using either a  
160 high resolution single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) information [20] or  
161 microsatellite sequences [25] failed to identify a significant correlation between plant  
162 genetic relatedness and bacterial diversity in the rhizosphere.

163 A possible explanation for these observations is that the microbial community  
164 assembly in domesticated plants is governed, at least in part, by a few major alleles,  
165 rather than by many alleles of small effect located throughout the genome [20].  
166 Consistently, mono-mendelian mutations in a specific root trait, root hairs, perturbed  
167 ~18% of the rhizosphere communities in barley [26]. Similarly, the rice gene NRT1.1B,  
168 encoding a nitrate transporter and sensor whose sequence differs in the *indica* and  
169 *japonica* type, shapes both the taxonomic and functional composition of the rice  
170 microbiota. Of note, this effect displays a bias for microbial genes implicated in the  
171 nitrogen biogeochemical cycle [27].

172 Taken together, ~~these results~~ the results discussed in these sections point to a  
173 scenario where domesticated plants have not lost the capacity to shape the soil biota  
174 *per se*. Rather, these relationships seems to follow the same pattern observed for

175 natural ecosystems, whereby the soil type and the occurrence of stress events are  
176 capable of shifting the composition of plant-associated communities. Yet, using the  
177 variance explained by the host genotype in amplicon sequencing surveys as a  
178 readout, domesticated plants appear to exert a relatively limited selection on their  
179 microbiota ~~(compared to wild counterparts. Of note, this selection) and this~~ could be  
180 traced to a few major genes in the plant genome.

181 ~~A prediction of~~ From these observations we predict that the genetic diversity of the  
182 crop microbiota is likely reduced compared to the one of the microbial communities  
183 associated to wild plants. Coupled with the application of anthropic inputs to crop, this  
184 undermines the resilience and sustainability of agroecosystems to multiple stressors,  
185 including climate change. ~~that the genetic diversity of the domesticated microbiota~~  
186 ~~likely mirrors the reduced, compared to wild plants, genetic diversity of their host. In~~  
187 ~~this scenario, the resilience of the agroecosystems to stress events is intrinsically~~  
188 ~~linked to external inputs.~~ We therefore propose ~~predict~~ that an increased genetic  
189 diversity of the crop-associated microbiota will contribute to conjugate sustainable  
190 yield with a ~~a~~-reduced ~~pressure~~ footprint of agriculture on the environment (Figure 1).

## 191 **The evolution of the microbes within microbiota the plant**

### 192 microbiota

193 It is worth considering an intrinsic limitation of the presented studies, which  
194 predominantly relied on amplicon sequencing surveys. The building blocks of these  
195 studies are represented by the so-called Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) [28] or  
196 Amplicon Sequencing Variants (ASVs) [29] of the 16S rRNA gene. These may fail to  
197 recapitulate the full extent of genetic diversity encoded by the plant microbiota.

198 This has been elegantly demonstrated by a recent study which compared the  
199 genomes of 1,524 *Pseudomonas* strains associated to a single bacterial OTU  
200 retrieved from *Arabidopsis thaliana* leaves across seasons and multiple natural host  
201 populations. Strikingly, this study revealed that within the same OTU, co-existed  
202 *Pseudomonas* strains that diverged ~300,000 years ago [30]. A distinctive feature of  
203 these strains is that, despite being potential pathogenic on their natural host, these  
204 were assembled into genetically diverse populations as opposed to what is often  
205 observed in agricultural settings, where pathogens give rise to genetically identical  
206 microbial lineages [31]. These observations support the notion that the 'wild  
207 microbiota' may be genetically less homogenous than the domesticated microbiota  
208 regardless of the apparent lack of qualitative differences in amplicon sequencing  
209 surveys.

210 Similarly, a comparative genomics study of 944 novel genomes of bacterial  
211 representative of the Rhizobiales, a core lineage of the plant microbiota [7] and  
212 isolated from multiple legume and non-legume host plants, revealed that commensal  
213 lifestyle exhibited by these strains predated the acquisition of genes required for  
214 nodulation [32]. Thus, being part of a plant-associated microbiota can act as a  
215 catalyser-catalyst for microbial diversification.

216 These examples clearly indicate the power of comparative microbial genomics to  
217 dissect the full extent of the genetic potential of the microbiota. Therefore, further  
218 studies on the plant microbiota will benefit from a) the development of indexed  
219 microbial collection of given hosts, similar to the ones available for model plants [33],  
220 the integration of this resource with b) amplicon sequencing survey and whole genome  
221 comparison [34] and c) attempts at genome reconstruction from metagenomics  
222 datasets [35].



## 224 **Re-wiring the evolutionary trajectories of plant-microbiota** 225 **interactions for sustainable agriculture**

226 The knowledge extracted from the different evolutionary trajectories (i.e., long versus  
227 short term) and the reconstruction of the relatedness between host phylogeny and  
228 microbial diversity can assist the breeding for the plant microbiota, resulting in future  
229 crops better equipped for climate-smart [scenariosagriculture](#) [36]. For instance, this  
230 can be achieved by crosses between wild relatives and modern varieties among  
231 interfertile species which can serve in genetic mapping analyses to discover gene/loci  
232 putatively shaping the microbiota. Examples of these approaches are mainly available  
233 for the phyllosphere of Arabidopsis [37] and maize [38]. It would be interesting  
234 exploring these approaches also for microbial communities thriving at the root-soil  
235 interface (Figure 2a). Owing to the impact of the soil type on the microbiota, the  
236 discovery of these genes/loci can be expedited by the availability of genome-  
237 annotated, geographically referenced genotypes of wild and domesticated plants  
238 which is now available for crop species with complex genomes such as barley [39]\_or  
239 wheat\_[40] [44].

240 In parallel, a ‘candidate gene approach’ can be deployed for genes putatively  
241 implicated in microbiota recruitment. This has recently been demonstrated for the  
242 model plant *A. thaliana* where a series of root metabolites, thalianyn, thalianin and  
243 arabidin, derived from the triterpene biosynthetic pathway, were implicated in  
244 microbiota recruitment using both mutant plants and by direct application of triterpene-  
245 derived metabolites [41].

246 This initial gene discovery phase can be complemented by integration of the  
247 gene/gene variants of interest into the genome of modern crop varieties. Novel gene

248 editing tools such as CRISPR-Cas9 can produce targeted insertions, deletions, amino  
249 acid exchanges or regulate gene expression [42] (Figure 2b). As proof of concept,  
250 gene editing enabled a *de novo* domestication of a wild tomato by ~~introgressing the~~  
251 introgression of up to six loci involved in tomato domestication from an elite tomato  
252 variety, while maintaining most of the wild ancestor traits [43]. The development of  
253 these novel plant genotypes can now be accelerated by 'speed breeding' which  
254 consists of creating optimal abiotic conditions under a controlled environment for a  
255 determinate crop to minimize its life cycle, reducing the time between generations [44]  
256 [45](Figure 2).

257 With the availability of indexed crop-specific microbial collections, synthetic  
258 communities of a limited number of strains (SynComs) can be developed. SynComs  
259 can be used to mimic an entire microbiota and validate the impact of given host genes  
260 on the plant phenotype. This approach was pioneered in the model plant *A. thaliana*  
261 for the identification of host genetic traits shaping the phyllosphere microbiota [46], to  
262 study the impact of the host immune system [47] and phosphorus nutrition [48] on the  
263 root-inhabiting communities. Interestingly, SynComs have been applied also to crop  
264 plants such as maize and rice to identify key metabolic properties of their microbiotas,  
265 [27,49]. In this scenario, the application of SynComs with specific attributes can be  
266 used, for instance, to increase the access to ~~the limited~~ soil nutrients and/or to  
267 modulate the host immune responses against pathogens [5, 47-49]. Groups of  
268 bacteria isolated from plants containing the genes/loci responsible for the microbial  
269 phenotype can readily be grown in a gnotobiotic system to confirm that the plant  
270 genetics together with selected microbes can induce the phenotype of interest prior  
271 further validation under soil conditions (Figure 2c).



## 272 **Conclusions**

273 The recent history of crop domestication and breeding has diverted crop plants from  
274 the evolutionary trajectories of their wild counterparts by selecting genes mainly  
275 associated with productivity under high-input conditions. This approach neglected the  
276 contribution of the microbiota to plant growth, development and health. Thus,  
277 domestication and breeding have likely eroded the genetic diversity of the crop-  
278 associated microbial communities although the full impact of these processes on the  
279 crop microbiota remains to be fully elucidated. We argue that current crop selection  
280 based on artificial inputs is unsustainable on the long term. It is therefore necessary  
281 to dissect the breeding history of crops and their environment to accurately determine  
282 microbial-associated traits available in the wild and cultivated germplasm and the plant  
283 genes shaping these traits [50]. A novel research framework embracing state-of-the  
284 art approaches in molecular microbiology and crop genomics can expedite the  
285 achievements of these tasks.

## 286 **Figure legends**

287 **Figure 1: The eEvolutionary trajectory of plant-microbiota interactions from**  
288 **natural ecosystems to future agricultural scenarios**

289 The transition from natural ecosystems to agroecosystem has been marked by plant  
290 domestication and the breeding for crop yield, with no recognition of plant-microbiota  
291 interactions and their impact on host and microbial genetic diversity. An increased  
292 understanding of these interactions will contribute to develop novel crops whose yield  
293 will be less dependent on external inputs. Boxes depict the key features of each  
294 scenario with focus on the contribution to ecosystem's resilience of plant-microbiota  
295 interactions.

296 **Figure 2. A common research framework for dissecting and capitalising on**  
297 **plant-microbiota interactions.**

298 (a). Crops wild relatives are a main source of genetic variability translated in traits that  
299 can be introgressed into elite varieties. Crosses between elite crops and wild relatives  
300 can be used to discover new microbial plant traits in genetic mapping experiments.  
301 The speed breeding technique can accelerate the achievement of this task.

302 (b). Gene editing techniques can be used to manipulate plant genes shaping the  
303 microbiota previously identified by mapping experiments and/or by candidate gene  
304 approach. The speed breeding technique can accelerate the achievement of this task.

305 (c) Synthetic communities (SynComs) can be inoculated in plants generated by plant  
306 breeding or gene- edited plants to gauge the impact of host genes on microbial  
307 recruitment and host performance prior field trials validation.

308 **Conflict of interest**

309 The authors declare no conflict of interest

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314

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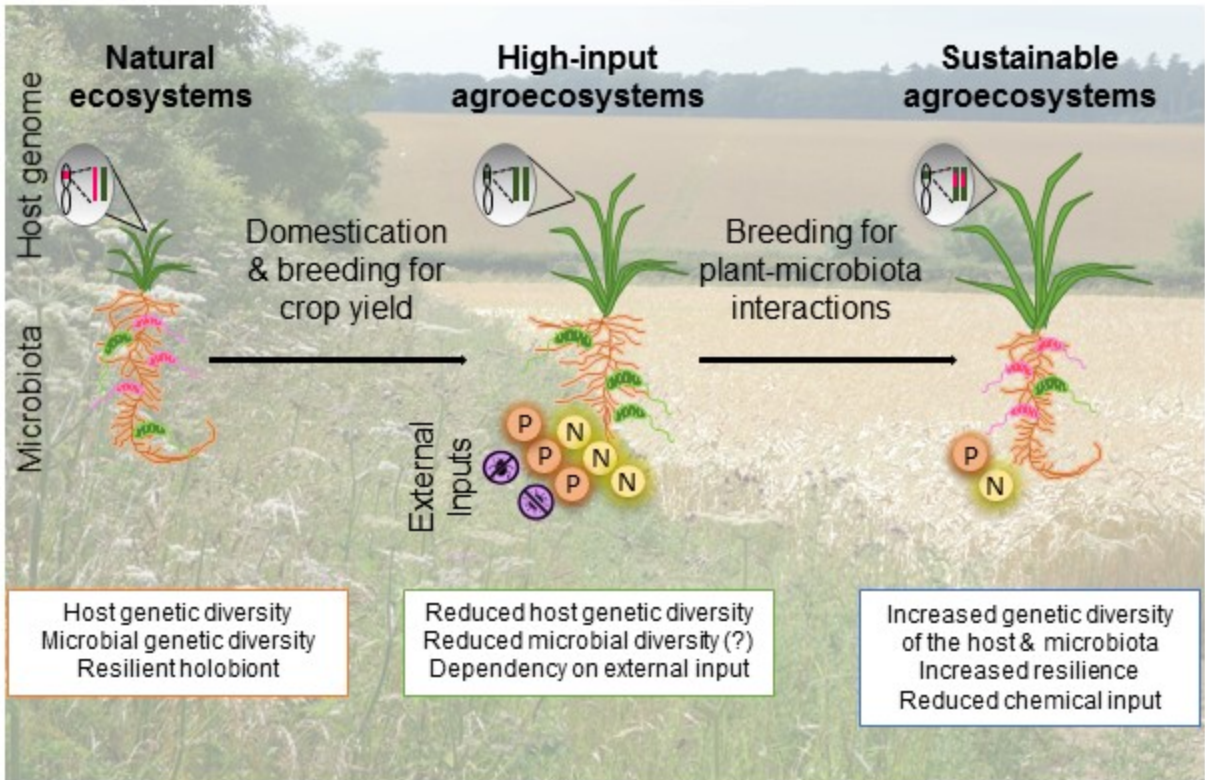
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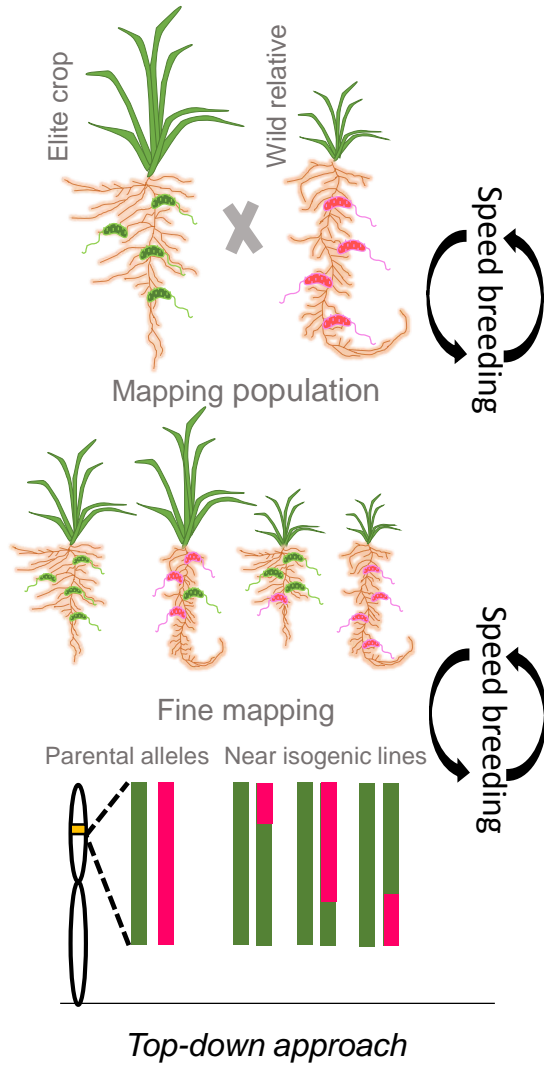


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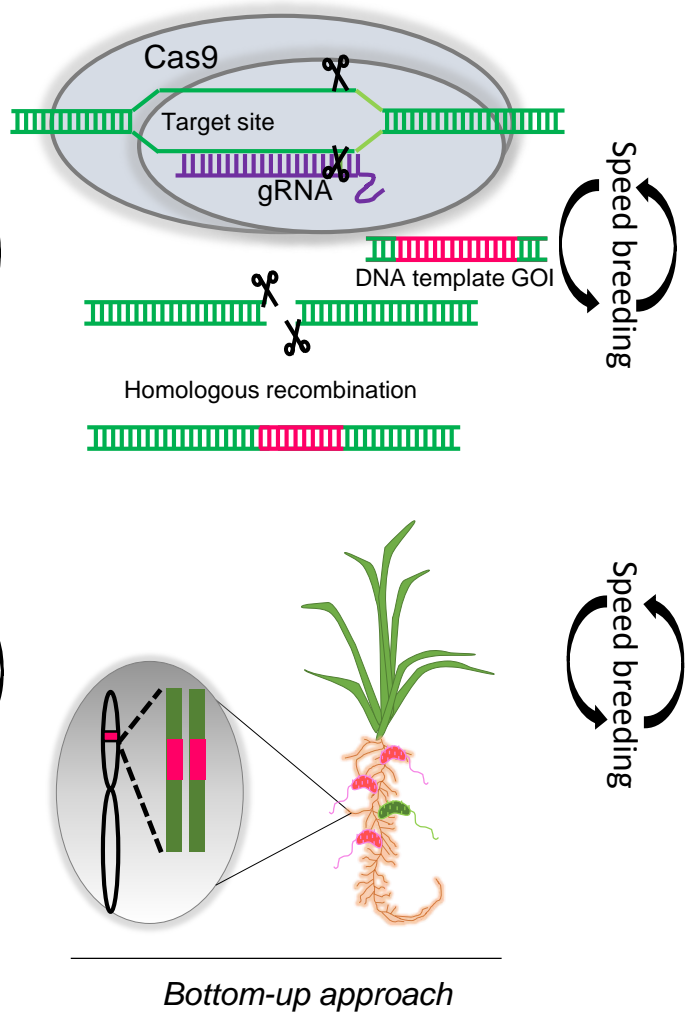
516



## (a) Plant breeding



## (b) Gene editing



## (c) Microbial functional validation

