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1 **Using plant growth-promoting microorganisms (PGPMs) to improve plant development**
2 **under *in vitro* culture conditions**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Plant *in vitro* culture techniques are highly useful to obtain significant amounts of true-to-type and
12 disease-free plant materials. One of these techniques is clonal micropropagation which consists on the
13 establishment of shoot tip cultures, shoot multiplication, *in vitro* rooting and acclimatization to *ex vitro*
14 conditions. However, in some cases, the existence of recalcitrant genotypes, with a compromised
15 multiplication and rooting ability, or the difficulties to overcome the overgrowth of endophytic
16 contaminations might seriously limit its efficiency. In this sense, the establishment of beneficial interactions
17 between plants and plant growth-promoting microorganisms (PGPMs) under *in vitro* culture conditions
18 might represent a valuable approach to efficiently solve those restrictions. During the last years, significant
19 evidence reporting the use of beneficial microorganisms to improve the yield of *in vitro* multiplication or
20 rooting as well as their acclimatization to greenhouse or soil conditions have been provided. Most of these
21 positive effects are strongly linked to the ability of these microorganisms to provide *in vitro* plants with
22 nutrients such as nitrogen or phosphorous, to produce plant growth regulators, to control the growth of
23 pathogens or to mitigate stress conditions. The culture of *A. thaliana* under aseptic conditions has provided
24 high-quality knowledge on the root development signalling pathways, involving hormones, triggered in the
25 presence of PGPMs. Overall, the present article offers a brief overview of the use of microorganisms to
26 improve *in vitro* plant performance during the *in vitro* micropropagation stages, as well as the main
27 mechanisms of plant growth promotion associated to these microorganisms.

28 **Main conclusion:** The use of beneficial microorganisms improves the performance of *in vitro* cultured
29 plants through the improvement of plant nutrition, the biological control of microbial pathogens or the
30 production of phytohormones that promote plant growth and development.

31 **Keywords:** Acclimatization; Biological control; *In vitro* plant-growth promotion; Micropropagation; Plant
32 Growth-Promoting Microorganisms; Phytohormones.

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38 Due to their sessile condition, plants in their natural environment have to cope with the highly
39 fluctuating environmental conditions, including the changes in the nature of soil microorganisms. In this
40 context, plants established close relations with soil-borne microorganisms that can be classified as
41 beneficial or pathogenic (Whipps 2001). In beneficial interactions, none of the two interacting organisms
42 are damaged, whereas pathogenic relationships negatively affect plant physiology, threatening plant growth
43 and health (Schirawski and Perlin 2018). Concerning the beneficial interactions between plants and
44 microbes, most of them take place in a narrow region of the soil called rhizosphere, highly influenced by
45 the root system. It is known that this zone is much richer in microorganisms than the surrounding soil
46 regions as plant roots secrete metabolites that can serve as nutrients to microorganisms (Lugtenberg and
47 Kamilova 2009; Chauhan et al. 2015; Vishwakarma et al. 2020). It is estimated that approximately 10^6 - 10^9
48 bacteria, and 10^5 - 10^6 fungi per gram of soil compete for the carbon metabolites derived from the roots in
49 the rhizosphere (Chuberre et al. 2018). These interactions where the microorganisms are directly
50 interrelating with the roots or even habit attached to them are called rhizospheric interactions (Vessey
51 2003). On the other hand, it is known that other microbes are able to colonise plant tissues and live within
52 the host plants establishing endophytic relationships (Guerrero-Molina et al. 2012; Kusari et al. 2012).
53 Both, rhizospheric and endophytic interactions provide benefits for plants improving the nutrient
54 availability, triggering plant defences or suppressing of the growth of pathogenic microorganisms (Calvo
55 et al. 2014; Vishwakarma et al. 2020; Morales-Cedeño et al. 2021). These beneficial microorganisms are
56 usually known as Plant Growth-Promoting Microorganisms (PGPMs). In this group, Plant Growth-
57 Promoting Rhizobacteria (PGPR) and Plant Growth-Promoting Fungi (PGPF) are generally considered
58 (Lugtenberg and Kamilova 2009; Jahagirdar et al. 2019). Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi (AMF) are also
59 included in this classification due to their important role in alleviation of biotic and abiotic stresses (Evelin
60 et al. 2009; Ważny et al. 2018). Since the beginning of the 21st century, to satisfy the World food demand
61 associated to population growth (FAOSTAT, 2018) the use of chemical fertilizers has been increased as a
62 key to improve crop production. This fact has raised a growing concern about the potential impact of the
63 abuse of these compounds with agricultural purposes on human health. Linked to this challenge, a potential
64 solution to help to mitigate the harmful consequences derived from fertilizers might rely on the use of
65 PGPMs as they can act as biofertilizers (Lugtenberg and Kamilova 2009), biological control agents

66 (Morales-Cedeño et al. 2021), natural phytoestrogens (Calvo et al. 2014), or abiotic stress alleviation
67 agents (Alberton et al. 2020).

68 On the other hand, the growth of plants under *in vitro* culture conditions, represents a very useful
69 technique to produce clones of plants or new genetic variation in a more controlled manner (Hussain et al.
70 2012). The theoretical basis of *in vitro* tissue culture lie on the concept of the totipotency of plant cells
71 whereby a single cell is able to express the whole genome by cell division, differentiating into a whole plant
72 (Thorpe 2007). This ability of plant cells has allowed the development of new methodologies that have
73 made of *in vitro* tissue culture a tool not only merely applied for research purposes, but also as a technique
74 exploited in plant production industry and breeding programs (Thorpe 2007; Akin-Idowu et al. 2009).
75 Nowadays, it is an indispensable approach in agriculture for the production of homogenous disease-free
76 plant material (Hu et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2018), the establishment of new stable genotypes derived from
77 somaclonal variation (Wang & Wang, 2012), the regeneration of plants using *in vitro* embryo cultures (Devi
78 et al. 2017), or the generation of doubled haploid lines as source of completely homozygous parental lines,
79 indispensable for the hybrid seed production industry (Germanà 2010). In plant *in vitro* micropropagation,
80 the first step implies the selection of the plant part, named as explant, from a mother plant cultured *ex vitro*
81 (Hussain et al. 2012). The correct succession of the following steps (establishment of shoot tip cultures,
82 multiplication, *in vitro* rooting and acclimatization) results in an efficient plant production (Hussain et al.
83 2012). Nevertheless, this technique when applied to some plant species and genotypes has some limitations
84 that compromise the efficiency in each micropropagation stage. For instance, multiplication and *in vitro*
85 rooting are both limited in recalcitrant and hard-to-root genotypes (Marks and Simpson 2000; Quambusch
86 et al. 2014). In the acclimatization to soil conditions phase, the high losses of plant material are associated
87 with the inability of plants to cope with environmental factors or the presence of soil pathogens (Hazarika
88 2006; Chandra et al. 2010; Rajamanickam et al. 2018). Over the last years, the number of studies involving
89 the use of beneficial microorganisms to promote plant growth and development have considerably
90 increased. However, most of those studies have been conducted using plants cultured in pots (Ważny et al.
91 2018; Jain et al. 2020) or soil (Schmidt et al. 2018; Siebers et al. 2018) experiments, and not as much
92 attention has been paid to the use of microorganisms in plant *in vitro* tissue cultures. For that reason, herein,
93 some aspects concerning the use of PGPMs to improve the efficiencies in the different micropropagation
94 phases have been gathered, as well as the most described mechanisms used by these beneficial
95 microorganisms to promote *in vitro* plant growth.

97 The *in vitro* application of microorganisms that have the ability to form beneficial relationships
98 with plants can serve to protect *in vitro* cultures while promoting their growth and development. Inoculation
99 of *in vitro* cultures with beneficial microorganisms (including PGPR and AMF), has become the focus of
100 some reviews (Orlikowska et al. 2017b; Soumare et al. 2021) and book chapters (Cassells 2011; Modi and
101 Kumar 2021). It has been demonstrated that bacteria introduced to *in vitro* tissue cultures not only increase
102 the yield of plants produced, but also are a valuable tool in research for plant breeding (Orlikowska et al.,
103 2017b). A clear example of the latter approach is the genetic transformation by the bacterium
104 *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. This soil-borne bacterium has been used as a universal vector for the
105 introduction of foreign genetic information, thus obtaining transformed plants (Jaiwal et al. 2001; Ceasar
106 and Ignacimuthu 2011). This procedure has led to the development of many *in vitro* transformation
107 protocols of different plant crops including canola (Cardoza and Stewart 2003), finger millet (Ceasar and
108 Ignacimuthu 2011), cowpea (Chaudhury et al. 2007), barley (Trifonova et al. 2001) or apricot (Petri et al.
109 2008). On the other hand, Digat et al. (1987) reported one of the first studies concerning the use of
110 microorganisms to improve the effectiveness of *in vitro* micropropagation. In this study, *Pseudomonas*
111 *fluorescens* and *Pseudomonas putida* in artificial substrates attached to *in vitro* plant roots improved plant
112 acclimatization. Since then, significant advances have been made in the development of *in vitro* tissue
113 culture techniques which have considerably increased the knowledge about effects of microorganisms in *in*
114 *vitro* tissue cultures. In this review, the effect of different PGPMs in each *in vitro* stage, as well as in the *ex*
115 *vitro* acclimatization phase are listed in Table 1 and Table 2.

116 Use of PGPMs in *in vitro* multiplication, seed germination and plantlet regeneration

117 At the multiplication stage, the number of new shoots is exponentially increased by axillary
118 branching, carrying out successive subcultures of the propagules in culture media supplemented with plant
119 growth regulators such as cytokinins (CKs) (Saini and Jaiwal 2002; Hussain et al. 2012). Out of the different
120 CKs, 6-benzyladenine (BA), thidiazuron (TDZ), kinetin, adenine or zeatin are the most commonly used,
121 providing successful results in terms of multiplication in most plant species, including pistachio (Tilkat et
122 al. 2009), *Clitoria ternatea* (Singh and Tiwari 2010), *Capsicum annuum* (Peddaboina et al. 2006) or *Cassia*
123 *angustifolia* (Siddique and Anis 2007). At this step, many authors have reported the use of beneficial
124 microorganisms as an effective tool to improve its effectiveness. Normally, these microorganisms are

125 obtained from contaminated cultures, serving as source of microbe inoculants for other *in vitro* plant
126 species. Zawadzka et al. (2014) isolated three bacterial species (*Paenibacillus glucanolyticus*,
127 *Curtobacterium pusillum* and *Methylobacterium extorquens*) from *Hosta* Tratt. 'Paradigm' or *Rubus idaeus*
128 *in vitro* tissues. The three isolates were subsequently proved for their ability to improve the *in vitro*
129 performance of micropropagated shoots of these two cultures as well as *Rosa* L. 'White Gem' and *Gerbera*
130 *jamesonii*. From those experiments, the authors concluded that the inoculation with *C. pusillum* increased
131 the number of axillary shoots in all four genotypes, being the effect on this parameter dependent on the
132 genotype in the case of the other two bacterial strains *M. extorquens* and *P. glucanolyticus*. In other cases,
133 beneficial microorganisms favouring *in vitro* multiplication are natural colonisers of plants. It has been
134 reported that the presence of endophytic microbial strains colonising the explants promoted a successful *in*
135 *vitro* propagation in different *Prunus avium* genotypes (Quambusch et al. 2014). Apart from *in vitro*
136 multiplication, seed germination and plant regeneration have been benefited by using microorganisms. For
137 instance, the incubation of *Allium sativum* cv *Gigante roxo* meristems with *Enterobacter cloacae* and
138 *Burkholderia cepacia* improved the growth and development of the obtained plants in comparison to those
139 plants which were not inoculated (Costa Júnior et al. 2020). Moreover, Regalado et al. (2018) demonstrated
140 that *Bromus auleticus* seeds infected with the endophyte *Epichloë* spp. improved the *in vitro* seed
141 germination from a 57.6% to a 82%, as well as improving callus induction and plantlet regeneration.

142 Effects of PGPMs in *in vitro* rooting

143 The formation and development of adventitious roots is undoubtedly, one of the most challenging
144 steps of *in vitro* micropropagation, especially in woody plant species and recalcitrant genotypes, and it is
145 crucial to ensure plant survival to the acclimatization phase (Quambusch et al. 2016; Wiszniewska et al.
146 2016; Arab et al. 2018). For that reason, it constitutes the process on which many researchers have focused
147 most of their efforts. For an efficient rooting protocol, two processes clearly differentiated should be
148 considered: root induction and root elongation. For root induction, the most widely extended procedure is
149 the supplementation of the Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium (Murashige and Skoog 1962) with auxins,
150 being indole 3-butyric acid (IBA), indole 3-acetic acid (IAA) and α -naphthaleneacetic acid (NAA) the most
151 commonly used (Patel et al. 2014; Shekhawat et al. 2015; Revathi et al. 2018). Also, the culture of explants
152 in a half-strength MS medium ($\frac{1}{2}$ MS) represents a useful strategy to induce *in vitro* rooting (Amiri and
153 Elahinia 2011). It has been well documented that the low status of some nutrients, such as phosphate (Pi),
154 triggers adaptative responses to facilitate the acquisition of this nutrient from the culture medium (Forde

155 2002; Misson et al. 2005). In the last years, the pursuit of new alternatives to the use of synthetic growth
156 regulators are urgently needed in the light of the restrictions imposed by the European Commission
157 concerning the use of chemicals, including auxins, in plant production (Pacholczak et al. 2012; Elmongy et
158 al. 2018). The use of natural rooting stimulators instead exogenous auxins may suppose a significant
159 breakthrough in today's society, leading to agricultural policies with a limited impact in public health as
160 well as the environment (Calvo et al. 2014; Alberton et al. 2020). In this regard, the use of microorganisms
161 with plant growth-promoting ability may represent an interesting approach due to their potential ability in
162 producing hormones (Calvo et al. 2014). For instance, in *Arabidopsis thaliana* seedlings, studies have
163 demonstrated that IAA-producing bacteria are able to induce root plasticity stimulating lateral root
164 development (Contesto et al. 2010; Iqbal and Hasnain 2013; Zamioudis et al. 2013). In other studies using
165 *in vitro* fruit tree plants inoculated with *P. oryzihabitans*, it has been suggested that changes in the content
166 of auxins in the culture medium might be related with a higher number of roots (Cantabella et al. 2022). As
167 a result, root morphological changes induced by the PGPMs-produced IAA lead to an enhancement of
168 nutrient uptake from the soil or root exudation (Spaepen and Vanderleyden 2011; Masciarelli et al. 2013).
169 Different mechanisms by which PGPMs produce auxins have been proposed. Some bacteria including
170 *Azotobacter paspali* promote plant growth by direct production of IAA (Lugtenberg and Kamilova 2009),
171 but, in other microbes, this auxin production is strictly dependent on the tryptophan present in root exudates
172 (Lugtenberg and Kamilova 2009; Spaepen and Vanderleyden 2011).

173 On the other hand, several studies have demonstrated that other plant hormones including CKs or
174 GAs are also produced by PGPMs; however, the lack of studies concerning the role of these hormones
175 using *in vitro* tools make difficult to obtain an overall idea about the role of these hormones in *in vitro*
176 plant-microbe interactions. CKs include a huge group of plant hormones with the ability to promote plant
177 cell division and leaf expansion (Calvo et al. 2014). The ability of PGPMs to produce CKs to promote plant
178 growth was confirmed by García de Salamone et al. (2001). Together with auxins, these hormones regulate
179 root development promoting lateral root initiation (Aloni et al. 2006). Arkhipova et al., (2005) concluded
180 that inoculation of lettuce plants with the CKs-producing *B. subtilis* induced a 30% increase of root weight
181 related to those non-inoculated. In addition, GAs are hormones mainly involved in the extension of stem
182 tissue (Vessey 2003), and huge information about the production of these plant growth regulators by
183 PGPMs is available in scientific literature (Hamayun et al., 2009, 2010; Khan et al., 2009). Khan et al.
184 (2014) reported that the inoculation of two GAs-deficient rice mutants with two fungal strains increased

185 shoot length regarding non-inoculated plants. At this point, the large number of studies available in the
186 scientific literature provide sufficient evidence to support the use of PGPMs to improve the efficiency of *in*
187 *vitro* induction and development of adventitious roots. The use of microorganisms in *in vitro* culture to
188 promote rooting has resulted in encouraging results in many plant species such as one belonging to
189 *Helleborus* genus (Orlikowska et al., 2017a), *Photinia* x *fraseri* Dress (Larraburu et al. 2007) or *P. avium*
190 (Quambusch et al. 2016). The latter studies combined the supplementation of the culture medium with
191 hormones and the inoculation with microorganisms. Following a similar approach, Cantabella et al. (2021)
192 demonstrated the effect of three rhizosphere microorganisms to improve the *in vitro* rooting of *Prunus* and
193 *Pyrus* rootstocks. In agriculture, the importance of rootstocks relies on their ability to confer tolerance to
194 edaphic conditions; however, the ability to induce rooting of some rootstocks is limited, seriously affecting
195 plant survival during acclimatization (Webster 1995). These rootstocks are known as hard-to-root (Marks
196 and Simpson 2000). In those cases, new strategies are required to achieve a considerable amount of these
197 rootstocks for the selection processes associated to breeding programs. In this sense, Cantabella et al. (2021)
198 demonstrated that the root induction of the hard-to-root genotype *Pyrus* spp. Py12 with two fungi
199 *Cladosporium ramotenellum* PGP02 and *Phoma* spp. PGP03, as well as 10 µM of IBA, favoured an
200 increase of the *in vitro* rooting percentage from a 56.25 to a 100%. The use of PGPMs for *in vitro* rooting
201 may also minimise the costs of the propagation process, supplying nutrients to plants and allowing to
202 remove compounds from the culture medium. In banana (*Musa* spp.) cultures, the application of a
203 combination of bacterial strains during micropropagation allowed the omission of minerals and salts from
204 the growing media (Kavino and Manoranjitham 2018). In this study, a higher number of roots per shoot
205 was observed. Using a hormone-free medium, potato microplants cultured in combination with a strain of
206 *Ochrobactrum cytisi* displayed a higher number of roots than non-inoculated plantlets (Burygin et al. 2019).
207 In addition, Luziatelli et al. (2020) further explored this issue proving that the auxins produced by *Pantoea*
208 *agglomerans* were able to induce an earlier *in vitro* rooting response in *Pyrus communis* L. cv Dar Gazi
209 microcuttings than those growing on the medium with synthetic auxins.

210 Effects of PGPMs in *ex vitro* acclimatization

211 The adaptation to *ex vitro* conditions also constitutes a determinant step for plant survival, being
212 responsible of important losses of plant material (Chandra et al. 2010). The transference of plants from *in*
213 *vitro* to greenhouse or field conditions, also known as acclimatization or hardening represents the beginning
214 of the autotrophic life of plants (Dobránszki and Teixeira da Silva 2010). *In vitro* plantlets must challenge

215 the stressful conditions of the environment after their transference to a new substrate (Hussain et al. 2012).
216 It is well-known that abiotic factors including the humidity, temperature and light, as well as biotic factors
217 including the presence of soil pathogens could negatively affect the success of the acclimatization process
218 (Chandra et al. 2010; Maleki Asayesh et al. 2017; Rajamanickam et al. 2018). To avoid the harmful effects
219 of environmental conditions, and thus ensure a normal plant growth and development, hardening must be
220 carried out in a gradual manner (Hussain et al. 2012). In this case, the 'biohardening' by the inoculation
221 with microorganisms might enhance the adaption of plants to greenhouse or soil conditions due to changes
222 in morphological attributes (Chandra et al. 2010). In this regard, beneficial microorganisms may improve
223 *ex vitro* acclimatization as a consequence of the effects induced during *in vitro* conditions. For instance,
224 Cantabella et al. (2020) demonstrated that the inoculation of nectarine embryos with *Pseudomonas*
225 *oryzihabitans* PGP01 promoted root development of the subsequent *in vitro* seedlings, leading to a greater
226 survival and growth after 4 weeks in acclimatization in greenhouse tunnels build to gradually lower the air
227 humidity. In other cases, explants inoculation with beneficial microorganisms is not always possible at the
228 micropropagation process, and their application at the acclimatization stage should be considered to ensure
229 the adaptation of *in vitro* plantlets to environmental conditions (Orlikowska et al., 2017b). Biohardening of
230 plants with beneficial microorganisms triggers mechanisms of systemic resistance to help plants to cope
231 with stressful conditions (Harish et al. 2008; Rajamanickam et al. 2018). In this sense, the ability of bacteria
232 belonging to the genus *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas* to promote *ex vitro* hardening has been studied to a
233 greater extent. For instance, the inoculation of micropropagated banana (*Musa* spp.) plantlets under field
234 conditions with *Bacillus* spp. has led to a greater plant growth and resistance to pathogens (Jaizme-Vega et
235 al. 2004; Suada et al. 2015; Rajamanickam et al. 2018). In the same sense, the presence of *Bacillus* as well
236 as *Pseudomonas* spp. in tea micropropagated plants had a positive impact on their *ex vitro* hardening
237 (Pandey et al., 2000; Thomas et al., 2010). In addition, the effects of these bacteria in acclimatization have
238 been also reported in plant species as the case of the medicinal plant *Picrorhiza kurrooa*. In this plant
239 species, Trivedi & Pandey (2007) concluded that bacterial isolates from *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas*
240 improved plant growth and survival by the control of pathogenic fungi growth. Although little mentioned,
241 it is also noteworthy to remark the role of AMF on the favourable adaptation of *in vitro* plantlets to soil
242 conditions (Vestberg et al. 2002). For instance, the symbiotic relationship between *in vitro* plants and some
243 AMF in the early acclimatization stages improves acclimatization rates, observing an increase in plant

244 height, leaf area, and biochemical attributes such as the content of colchicine in the medicinal plant species
245 *Gloriosa superba* (Yadav et al. 2013).

246 ***In vitro* mechanisms of action of PGPMs**

247 The great versatility of *in vitro* tissue culture also makes this technique appropriate to be used as
248 a model for the study of the different pathways underlying PGPMs enhancement of plant growth and
249 development. Based on the large number of research addressing the mechanisms of *in vitro* plant growth-
250 promotion, the main functions of PGPMs can be grouped in (1) biofertilizer activity, (2) biological control
251 activity and (3) phytostimulating and abiotic stress mitigating activity (Fig. 3).

252 ***In vitro* biofertilization by PGPMs**

253 The plant growth promotion by supplying plants with nutrients is a very common mechanism
254 observed in leguminous plants such as soybean, pea or peanut in response to the interaction with bacteria
255 belonging to *Rhizobium* or *Bradyrhizobium* genus (Lugtenberg and Kamilova 2009). Nevertheless, this
256 ability has been also attributed to other bacterial genera (Scherling et al. 2009). It has been reported that
257 sugar cane *in vitro* plantlets inoculated with one strain of *Enterobacter* spp. improved their growth and this
258 was related to the ability of this bacterial strain to fix nitrogen (Sajjad Mirza et al. 2001). In a subsequent
259 work, Oliveira et al. (2002) isolated five endophytic bacterial species that contributed to nitrogen fixation
260 in sugar cane micropropagated plantlets. In *Oryza sativa* L., the bacterial strain *Azospirillum amazonense*
261 promoted plant growth by fixing nitrogen instead of using hormonal mechanisms (Rodrigues et al. 2008).
262 Moreover, many authors have reviewed that AMF also play a role in plant nutrition (Vestberg and Cassells
263 2009; Vejan et al. 2016). It is documented that these microorganisms may also improve plant growth by
264 solubilisation of other important nutrients such as phosphate (Fig. 3), facilitating its uptake by plant roots
265 and promoting plant growth (Della Monica et al. 2015). Likewise, this phosphate-solubilising activity has
266 also been reported for other non-mycorrhizal fungi such as *Penicillium radicum* (Whitelaw et al. 1999), or
267 some bacterial species including *Pseudomonas rhizosphaerae* (Peix et al. 2003).

268 ***In vitro* biological control activity by PGPMs**

269 PGPMs can also favour plant growth due to their potential role as biocontrol agents (BCAs) (Fig.
270 3). It is well established that PGPMs, mainly belonging to *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas*, are able to compete
271 with other pathogenic microorganisms, suppressing their growth (Morales-Cedeño et al. 2021). This role of

272 PGPMs has been widely studied in the pathosystem composed by *in vitro* plants of banana and *Fusarium*
273 *oxysporum*. Ayyadurai et al. (2006) concluded that the encapsulation of banana shoots with the strain FP10
274 of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* increased plant growth while reducing the vascular discoloration caused by
275 the fungus *Fusarium oxysporum*. In a more recent study, Kavino & Manoranjitham (2018) reported that the
276 bacterization of micropropagated banana shoots with strains from *Pseudomonas* and *Bacillus* genus resulted
277 in a 78% disease reduction of the *Fusarium* wilt. In other *in vitro* plant-pathogen systems, some strains of
278 *P. fluorescens* considerably reduced the *Verticillium dahliae* wilt incidence in *in vitro* rooted olive plantlets
279 (Mercado-Blanco et al. 2004). Different mechanisms of biological control have been proposed, most of
280 them related with the production of antimicrobial molecules, the induction of defence-related genes or the
281 stimulation of plant innate defences in the response called induced systemic resistance (ISR) (Morales-
282 Cedeño et al. 2021). This response involves the activation of defence enzymes that confers plants resistance
283 to pathogen attacks (Rajamanickam et al. 2018).

284 In this regard, it is also noteworthy to mention that the use of PGPMs to control or even suppress
285 the growth of endophytic contaminations in *in vitro* cultures can be also considered a less studied way of
286 biological control. Since many years, it is widely assumed that explants micropropagated *in vitro* develop
287 in a culture medium under aseptic conditions, and the presence of most microorganisms was attributed to
288 contaminations due to an inappropriate explant manipulation. Nonetheless, the advances made through the
289 last years in this regard have led to abandon this assumption as it has been proved that in spite of the surface
290 sterilization treatment, *in vitro* cultures are not free of microorganisms (Orlikowska et al., 2017b). The
291 internal part of explants, shoots or plantlets are colonized by an important quantity of microbes, commonly
292 known as endophytes. In *in vitro* cultures, the presence of this type of contaminations could be detected at
293 the multiplication stage as they often are released to the culture medium or even grow at the basis of the
294 explants. Petrini (1991) and Wilson (1995) described endophytes as microorganisms with the ability of
295 living within plants throughout the whole, or only a part of their life cycle without triggering disease
296 symptoms. Following this definition, it seems logic to believe that these contaminations would not interfere
297 on the *in vitro* explant performance. Nevertheless, the reality is that some of these contaminations may
298 affect *in vitro* cultures development. Whether this alteration resulted in a positive or negative effect remains
299 being a subject of controversy. Several studies have reported the negative impact of endophytic
300 contaminations on *in vitro* cultures during the last years (Dunaeva & Osledkin, 2015; Lotfi et al., 2020;
301 Thomas, 2004, 2011). In addition, some endophytic contaminants lead to the loss of valuable research

302 material since they can overrun the plant cultures (Cassells, 2012). In those cases, endophytes elimination
303 represents the highest priority to preserve plant material. In this sense, different strategies including the
304 addition of antibiotics or other chemical compounds to the culture medium cover the greatest proportion of
305 studies reported (Khan et al., 2018; Lotfi et al., 2020; Shehata et al., 2010). Nevertheless, the introduction
306 of beneficial microorganisms into *in vitro* culture with the aim to remove the presence of endophytic
307 contaminations has not been much considered. In experiments using the temporary immersion system
308 GreenTray® bioreactor (Dolcet-Sanjuan and Mendoza, 2018 and 2020) the ability of *P. oryzihabitans*
309 PGP01 and *C. ramotenellum* PGP02 to control the growth of endophytic contaminations in *Prunus*
310 Rootpac® 20 shoots IBA-root induced was analysed (Cantabella et al. 2022). In the latter study, *P.*
311 *oryzihabitans* PGP01 was not able to control endophytes population in RP-20 explants at the pH commonly
312 used for *in vitro* culture. In contrast, in the presence of *C. ramotenellum* PGP02 at the same pH, it was
313 observed that endophytes were not detected after 5 days of co-culture. The results suggested a possible role
314 of the culture medium pH in the reduction of these contaminations. A decrease in the culture medium pH
315 to 3 inhibited endophytes growth, controlling these contaminants populations, without reducing RP-20
316 multiplication and growth (Cantabella et al. 2021b).

317 *In vitro* phytostimulation and abiotic stress alleviation by PGPMs

318 It is quite interesting to remark the role of some of these beneficial microorganisms as natural
319 phytostimulators, modifying the hormonal balance on *in vitro* cultured plants. In this sense, microbial
320 inoculants are able to alter plant growth and development by the production of plant growth regulators such
321 as auxins, gibberellins (GAs) or CKs (Vessey 2003; Drogue et al. 2012). The role of IAA in plant-microbe
322 interactions has been studied in a greater extent than the other plant growth regulators (Vessey 2003; Calvo
323 et al. 2014). In *in vitro* study of plant-microbe interactions, the ability of several bacterial species to produce
324 auxins has been described (Dias et al. 2009; Burygin et al. 2019; Arkhipova et al. 2020). This hormone is
325 involved in many plant functions such as apical dominance or differentiation of vascular tissue; however,
326 in plant-microbe interactions, special attention has been paid in its implication in root development events,
327 and more specifically in modifications in root morphology (Vessey 2003; Calvo et al. 2014).

328 Related to the above, it is well documented that these beneficial microorganisms have shown to
329 be especially effective in the mitigation of the negative effects caused by abiotic stresses such as drought
330 or salt stress (Saravanakumar and Samiyappan 2007; Arkhipova et al. 2020). Under these conditions,

331 PGPMs that contain the 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate (ACC) deaminase can considerably reduce
332 the high ethylene (ET) levels present by metabolising its precursor ACC, transforming it into ammonia,
333 among others, facilitating the survival of plants (Belimov et al. 2015; Orozco-Mosqueda et al. 2020).
334 Evidence has also been provided that PGPMs which possess ACC activity are able to make *in vitro* plants
335 more tolerant to the presence of high concentrations of heavy metals (Ali et al. 2021).

336 **Using the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* in germ-free conditions for the study of** 337 **plant-PGPMs interactions**

338 As plants and PGPMs living in their natural environment mainly interact in the rhizosphere, the
339 studies on the impact of these microorganisms in roots are gaining considerable importance in research.
340 Following this reasoning, the use of the model plant *A. thaliana* may be presented as a facilitating tool to
341 increase the knowledge in the field of PGPMs because of the simplicity of its root system as well as the
342 broad range of molecular tools developed for this plant species (Shekhar et al. 2019; Sánchez-Serrano and
343 Salinas 2021). As in most plant species, the first structure that appears after germination of *A. thaliana* is
344 the radicle, from which primary root starts to develop. This root system is commonly named as allorhizic
345 (Shekhar et al. 2019). On the contrary, in homorhizic systems, post-embryonic secondary roots that develop
346 adventitious roots, dominate root system architecture after germination (Shekhar et al. 2019). Thus,
347 growing *A. thaliana* plants under aseptic conditions using MS medium in plates might be helpful to follow
348 the evolution of the root architecture system in the presence of PGPM. In the Table 3, the effects of some
349 PGPMs in *A. thaliana* plants cultured in sterile conditions, as well as the associated mechanism of action
350 are summarized. It is pertinent to remark that this section of the review does not deal with the effects of
351 PGPMs on the technique of *in vitro* micropropagation. Instead, significant studies providing evidences
352 about the mechanisms of action of these beneficial microorganisms using *A. thaliana* cultured in aseptic
353 conditions have been compiled. Using this system, Zamioudis et al. (2013) demonstrated that different
354 strains of *Pseudomonas* spp. were able to promote plant growth as well as root plasticity. These authors
355 stated that one of the bacterial strains belonging to the species *P. fluorescens* inhibited primary root
356 development but stimulated lateral roots and hair root formation. Similar results were obtained by Trinh et
357 al. (2018) using the strain IHB 13561 of *Pseudomonas nitroreducens*. Contradictorily, Iqbal & Hasnain
358 (2013) studied the effect of one strain of *Aeromonas punctata* and they concluded that this bacterium
359 increases primary root length as well as lateral root density.

360 In addition, using this methodology, valuable information regarding the mechanisms underlying
361 the root modifications induced by PGPMs has been obtained. For instance, using *A. thaliana* seedlings in a
362 germ-free environment, the role of *P. nitroreducens* in plant nutrition has been demonstrated by an
363 enhancement of nitrate uptake (Trinh et al. 2018). In other cases, the studies involving *A. thaliana* mutants
364 have suggested the involvement of some molecules or signalling processes in the plant growth-promotion
365 observed in response to PGPMs. These results place plant hormones such auxins, ethylene (ET) and
366 jasmonic acid at the centre of the root development pathways. In a study performed by Contesto et al.
367 (2010), the response of two mutants, deficient in IAA transport and signalling, to one strain of
368 *Phyllobacterium brassicacearum* revealed that these two pathways are required for the response to this
369 bacterium. Similar conclusions can be extracted from a very comprehensive study conducted by Zamioudis
370 et al. (2013) in which it was demonstrated that some bacteria belonging to *Pseudomonas* spp. are able to
371 trigger root morphology changes in *Arabidopsis* roots mediated by signalling pathways controlled by
372 auxins, ET and JA. Recently, using auxins signalling deficient mutants, Ortiz-Castro et al., (2020) shed
373 more light to the PGPMs-induced root morphological changes demonstrating that *P. fluorescens* and *P.*
374 *putida* are able to promote *Arabidopsis* root development by the release of bioactive cyclodipeptides with
375 auxin-like activity. However, other authors such as López-Bucio et al. (2007) reported that three auxins
376 (*aux1-7*, *eir1* and *axr4*) and two ET (*etr1* and *ein2*) mutants showed normal growth and development in
377 response to the inoculation with *Bacillus megaterium*, suggesting that this bacterium could use both, auxin
378 and ethylene-independent systems to enhance plant growth. In addition, other investigations have used *A.*
379 *thaliana* mutants' seedlings in sterile conditions to study the cross-talk between hormones and antioxidant
380 metabolism in the presence of PGPMs. In the absence of microorganisms, it has been revealed the
381 importance of the redox control mediated by glutathione in the hormonal-mediated control of lateral root
382 development (Passaia et al. 2014). Likewise, a link between the reduced glutathione (GSH) homeostasis
383 and strigolactones (SLs) has been established in the regulation of *A. thaliana* root development (Marquez-
384 Garcia et al. 2014). These hormones are closely interacting with auxins creating a loop in which one
385 hormone regulates the levels of the other (Hayward et al. 2009). Developing deeper, SLs are able to control
386 the lateral root development modulating the auxin flux throughout the plant (Koltai 2011; Ruyter-Spira et
387 al. 2011). Altogether, those interactions lead to a complex network mainly based on a close interaction
388 among auxins, SLs and GSH. This cross-talk between plant hormones and redox processes was also

389 suggested in the presence of *P. oryzihabitans* PGP01 by Cantabella et al. (unpublished data) using SLs
390 (*max2-3*, *max3-9* and *max4-1*) and GSH (*cad2-1*, *pad2-1* and *rax1-1*) defective mutants.

391 On the other hand, *A. thaliana* seedlings cultured in germ-free MS medium have also served as a
392 model for the study of tolerance to abiotic stresses in the presence of microorganisms. In this regard, Chu
393 et al. (2019) reported that *P. putida* was able to favour Arabidopsis plant survival under salt stress
394 conditions. In this study, the authors demonstrated a higher germination rate (30.7%) of *A. thaliana* seeds
395 inoculated with *P. putida* PS01 in MS medium with 150 mM of NaCl compared to those non-inoculated
396 seeds (9.5% of germination rate). In the same study, it was also observed that *A. thaliana* seedlings
397 inoculated with this bacterium were able to withstand saline concentrations of up to 225 mM NaCl. This
398 greater tolerance to salt stress was correlated with a higher expression of defence genes involved in the
399 jasmonate biosynthesis (Chu et al. 2019). Other studies have also revealed that the inoculation of *A. thaliana*
400 *in vitro* seedlings with *A. brasilense* strain Sp 245 retarded the water loss rate in 50 days-old-seedlings,
401 mitigating the possible harmful effects caused by drought stress (Cohen et al. 2015). This assumption was
402 reinforced by the increase in ABA contents observed in the presence of this bacterium.

403 **Conclusions**

404 In the light of all the aforementioned, many evidences have been provided in favour of the
405 introduction of PGPMs in aseptic *in vitro* tissue cultures to improve the performance of *in vitro* cultured
406 plants. Specially, the use of numerous microorganisms including fungi and bacteria with a plant growth-
407 promoting activity have represented an outstanding breakthrough in the field of *in vitro* micropropagation,
408 showing a significant impact on the multiplication and *in vitro* rooting, as well as the adaption of *in vitro*
409 plantlets to the harmful conditions of greenhouse or field (acclimatization). Altogether, this strategy may
410 lead to more competent plant production protocols that are used for commercial purposes. In addition, the
411 *in vitro* tissue culture techniques have been presented as useful procedures to unravel the different
412 mechanisms used by these beneficial microorganisms to promote plant development. In this regard, it has
413 been widely documented that PGPMs in *in vitro* cultures are able to promote plant growth by acting as
414 biofertilizers, biological control agents or natural producers of phytohormones that enhance plant
415 development and help to mitigate the negative effects of abiotic stresses. Although not strictly *in vitro*
416 micropropagation, it seems pertinent to remark that these strategies of plant growth-promotion have been
417 corroborated in the model plant *A. thaliana* cultured in aseptic conditions. Taken together, the presented

418 review provides a comprehensive overview about the information available in the field of *in vitro* plant-
419 microbe interactions with the aim to solve the main issues presented in *in vitro* micropropagation. Solving
420 these limitations throughout the use of PGPMs will contribute to a more efficient, as well as more
421 sustainable plant production.

422 **Conflict of interest**

423 No conflict of interests has been declared by authors.

424 **Acknowledgements**

425 Authors would like to express their gratitude to the CERCA Programme/IRTA and the AGRIMAX
426 Project (BBI-IA-DEMO-720719) for supporting this work. We also thank the government of Catalonia and
427 the European Social Fund (ESF) “ESF invest in your future” for the PhD grant 2018FI_B00641 (Cantabella,
428 D.).

429 **Contributions**

430 D.C. contributed to the elaboration of the draft of the manuscript, and N.T and R. D. S. contribute
431 to the editing of the draft manuscript to obtain the final version. All authors have read the article and agree
432 to its publication.

433 **Data availability statement**

434 Data sharing not applicable to this article as no datasets were generated or analysed in this review
435 article.

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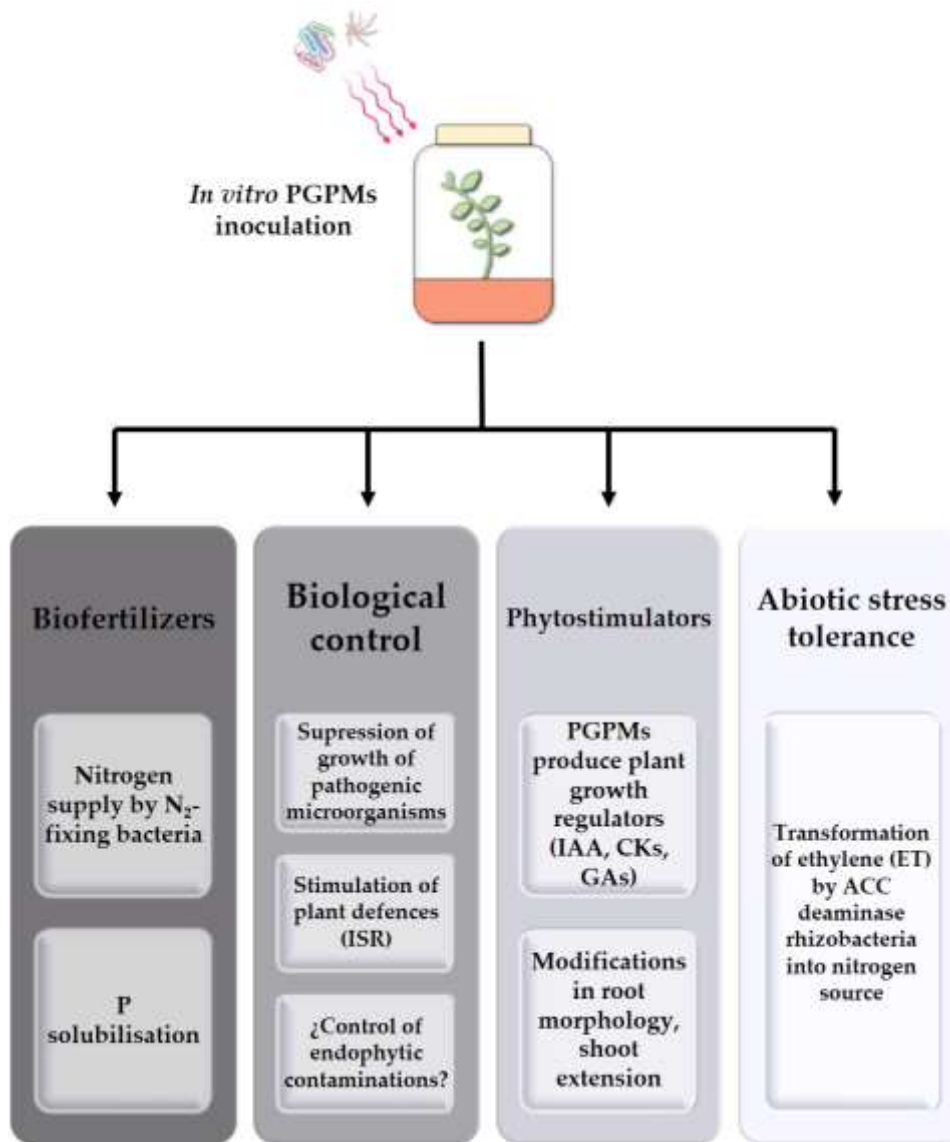
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816 **Figure 1.** Described mechanisms of *in vitro* plant growth promotion induced by PGPMs.

817

818 **Table 1.** Overview of different microorganisms improving the efficiency of *in vitro* micropropagation steps and its specific impact.

Microorganism	<i>In vitro</i> process	Plant species	Effect	Reference
<i>Paenibacillus glucanolyticus</i>	Multiplication	<i>Chrysanthemum x grandiflorum</i> ‘Ludo’	Increase of the number and length of axillary shoots	Zawadzka et al. (2014)
<i>Curtobacterium pusillum</i>	Multiplication	<i>Chrysanthemum x grandiflorum</i> ‘Ludo’; <i>Gerbera jamesonii</i> ‘Kormoran’; <i>Hosta</i> ‘Paradigm’; <i>Rose</i> ‘White Gem’	Stimulation of axillary shoot formation	Zawadzka et al. (2014)
<i>Methylobacterium extorquens</i>	Multiplication	<i>Gerbera jamesonii</i> ‘Kormoran’ <i>Hosta</i> ‘Paradigm’	Increase of the number and length of shoots	Zawadzka et al. (2014)
<i>Epichloë</i> spp.	<i>In vitro</i> seed germination <i>In vitro</i> plantlet regeneration	<i>Bromus auleticus</i>	Increase of <i>in vitro</i> germination percentage Higher percentage of callus induction and plant regeneration	Regalado et al. (2018)
<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i> M19B <i>Burkholderia cepacia</i> CCMA0056	<i>In vitro</i> meristems culture	<i>Allium sativum</i> cv. “Gigante Roxo”	Greater fresh mass and height of the seedlings obtained from inoculated meristems	Costa Júnior et al. (2020)
<i>Microbacterium testaceum</i> <i>Rhodopseudomonas</i> spp.	<i>In vitro</i> rooting	<i>Prunus avium</i> ‘Achilleus’ <i>P. avium</i> ‘Fama’	Increase of the rooting percentage and number of roots per shoot	Quambusch et al. (2014) Quambusch et al. (2016)
<i>Burkholderia phytofirmans</i> PsJN	<i>In vitro</i> rooting	<i>Helleborus</i>	Increase of the <i>in vitro</i> rooting percentage and number of roots per shoot	Orlikowska et al. (2017)
<i>Cladosporium ramotenellum</i> PGP02 <i>Phoma</i> spp. PGP03	<i>In vitro</i> rooting	<i>Pyrus</i> spp. selection rootstocks Py12	Increase of the rooting percentage from 56.25 to 100% in combination with 10 µM of IBA	Cantabella et al. (2021)
<i>Azospirillum brasilense</i> strains Cd and Sp	<i>In vitro</i> rooting	<i>Photinia x fraseri</i> ‘Dress’	Higher root fresh and dry weights and higher root surface area	Larraburu et al. (2007)
<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> Pf1 <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> strains 10 and 56	<i>In vitro</i> rooting	Banana (<i>Musa</i> cv. Red Banana)	Increase in the number of roots, root length and root FW and DW	Kavino & Manoranjitham (2018)

<i>Ochrobactrum cytisi</i> IPA7.2	<i>In vitro</i> rooting	Potato (<i>Solanum tuberosum</i> L.)	Increase of the number of roots in the absence of auxins	Burygin et al. (2019)
<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i>	<i>In vitro</i> rooting	<i>Pyrus communis</i> L. cv Dar Gazi microcuttings	Higher <i>in vitro</i> rooting percentage, number of roots, root length and <i>ex vitro</i> survival alone and in combination with IBA	Luziatelli et al. (2020)

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821 **Table 2.** Effect of different PGPMs on the acclimatization of *in vitro* culture derived plants to greenhouse or field conditions.

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	Microorganism	Plant species	Effect	Reference
823	<i>Pseudomonas oryzihabitans</i> PGP01	Nectarine (<i>Prunus persica</i> L. cv. Nectarine) <i>in vitro</i> rescued embryos	Higher survival rate and growth after 4 weeks in acclimatization conditions	Cantabella et al. (2020)
824	<i>P. fluorescens</i> Pf1 and CHA0	Banana plantlets in secondary hardening stage	Reduction of Banana bunchy top disease by an induction of systemic resistance	Harish et al. (2008)
825	<i>Pseudomonas</i> spp. EPB22 <i>Bacillus</i> spp. EPB5)			
826	<i>B. subtilis</i> strains PP and CL3	Banana plantlets (<i>Musa</i> spp. cv Grand Naine) in primary and secondary hardening stages	Increase of plant height, number of leaves and leaf area Induction of defence enzymes such as peroxidase, polyphenol oxydase, phenylalanine ammonia lyase and pathogenesis-related proteins	Rajamanickam et al. (2018)
827				
828	<i>B. subtilis</i>	Tissue-cultured tea plants	Higher survival rate in greenhouse conditions	Pandey et al. (2000)
829	<i>Bacillus</i> spp.			
830	<i>Pseudomonas corrugata</i> 1 <i>Pseudomonas corrugata</i> 2			
831	<i>Trichoderma harzianum</i>	Hardening tea (<i>Canellia sinensis</i>) plantlets	Higher shoot length, number of leaves, number of roots, plant FW, and survival rate in the presence of microorganisms alone or in combination	Thomas et al. (2010)
832	<i>Azospirillum brasilense</i> <i>P. fluorescens</i>			
833	<i>Rhizophagus intraradices</i>			
834	<i>Funneliformis mossae</i> <i>F. geosporum</i>	Wheat (<i>Triticum aestivum</i>)	Alleviation of drought stress	Mathur et al. (2018)
835	<i>Acaulospora laevis</i>	<i>Gloriosa superba</i> L.	Increase of plant height, leaf number and tuber length	Yadav et al. (2013)

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840 **Table 3.** Effects of PGPMs on *A. thaliana* plants in germ-free experiments and associated plant growth-promotion mechanisms.

Microorganism	Effect on <i>A. thaliana</i> plants	Proposed mechanism of action	Reference
<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	Inhibition of primary root growth Stimulation of lateral roots and hairy root formation	Changes in root plasticity induced by ethylene, jasmonic acid and auxins IAA signalling induced by cyclodipeptides	Zamioudis et al. (2013); Ortiz-Castro et al. (2020)
<i>Aeromonas punctata</i> PNS-1	Increase in primary root length and lateral root density	Auxins and ACC deaminase production	Iqbal & Hasnain (2013)
<i>Pseudomonas nitroreducens</i>	Inhibition of primary root growth Increase in the number of lateral roots	Increase in nitrate uptake by a higher expression of the nitrate transport gene <i>NRT2.1</i>	Trinh et al. (2018)
<i>Phyllobacterium brassicacearum</i> STM196	Lateral root growth promotion	IAA transport and signalling	Contesto et al., (2010)
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	Inhibition of primary root growth Stimulation of lateral roots and hairy root formation	IAA signalling induced by cyclodipeptides	Ortiz-Castro et al. (2020)
<i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	Inhibition of primary root growth Increase in lateral root number, growth and root hair length	Root architecture alterations by auxins and ethylene-independent signals	López-Bucio et al. (2007)
<i>Pseudomonas oryzae</i> PGP01	Inhibition of primary root length Promotion of lateral root development (increase in number of lateral roots and lateral root density)	Cross-talk among auxins, strigolactones and glutathione	Cantabella et al., unpublished data
<i>P. putida</i> PS01	Greater seeds germination rate under 150 mM NaCl Higher seedling survival rate under salt up to 225 mM NaCl	Alleviation of salt stress by up-regulation of defence genes	Chu et al. (2019)
<i>A. brasilensis</i> Sp25	Higher main root length Higher content of ABA in rosettes	Mitigation of drought stress by a reduced water loss and increased ABA contents	Cohen et al. (2015)