

Building the crops of tomorrow: advantages of symbiont-based approaches to improving abiotic stress tolerance

Authors: Devin Coleman-Derr¹ and Susannah Tringe^{1*}

1 Department of Energy Joint Genome Institute // LBNL - Walnut Creek, CA

** To whom correspondence may be addressed. Susannah G. Tringe, Joint Genome Institute, 2800 Mitchell Drive, Walnut Creek, CA, 94598, USA. sgtringe@lbl.gov*

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Building the crops of tomorrow: advantages of symbiont-based approaches to improving abiotic stress tolerance

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4 Devin Coleman-Derr¹, Susannah G. Tringe^{*1}

5 ¹ Joint Genome Institute, Walnut Creek, CA, USA

*** Correspondence:** Susannah G. Tringe, Joint Genome Institute, 2800 Mitchell Drive, Walnut Creek, CA, 94598, USA. sgtringe@lbl.gov

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12 Abstract

14 The exponential growth in world population is feeding a steadily increasing global need for arable
15 farmland, a resource that is already in high demand. This trend has led to increased farming on
16 subprime arid and semi-arid lands, where limited availability of water and a host of environmental
17 stresses often severely reduce crop productivity. The conventional approach to mitigating the abiotic
18 stresses associated with arid climes is to breed for stress-tolerant cultivars, a time and labor intensive
19 venture that often neglects the complex ecological context of the soil environment in which the crop
20 is grown. In recent years, studies have attempted to identify microbial symbionts capable of
21 conferring the same stress-tolerance to their plant hosts, and new developments in genomic
22 technologies have greatly facilitated such research. Here, we highlight many of the advantages of
23 these symbiont-based approaches and argue in favor of the broader recognition of crop species as
24 ecological niches for a diverse community of microorganisms that function in concert with their plant
25 hosts and each other to thrive under fluctuating environmental conditions.

27 Introduction

29 Climate change and an increasing world population are predicted to drastically increase the global
30 need for arable farmland, a resource that is already in high demand (Barrow et al., 2008). With the
31 world population expected to reach 9 billion by 2050, it is estimated that the global food supply will
32 need to increase by 70% to meet rapidly rising demand (Editorial, 2010). Changes in the global
33 climate may well compound this challenge, as predicted increases in drought and temperature-related
34 stresses are expected to reduce crop productivity (Grover et al., 2010; Ciais et al., 2005; Larson,
35 2013).

This large expansion in agricultural output will require both improvements in crop yield as well as the cultivation of additional farmland. One direct effect of this trend will be the steadily increasing prevalence of farming on marginal, arid and semi-arid lands, especially in the developing world (Köberl et al., 2011; Lantican et al., 2003). Even without considering the effects of climate change, semi-arid and arid lands often present a host of abiotic challenges to plant growth, including extreme temperatures, excess radiation, and poor nutrient and water availability (Yang et al., 2009).

43

44 The historical approach to mitigate the negative effects of abiotic stresses on crop yield has been the
45 creation of stress-tolerant cultivars (Barrow et al., 2008; Eisenstein, 2013). Conventional breeding
46 techniques have enabled the development of crop varietals with increased yields and greater tolerance
47 to a variety of abiotic stresses (Atkinson and Urwin, 2012), but are both time and labor intensive;
48 genetic engineering of crops with improved stress tolerance is faster, but comes with its own set of
49 drawbacks. Furthermore, both methods often neglect the complex ecological context of the soil
50 environment in which the crop is grown (Morrissey et al., 2004).

51 In recent years, plant-associated microbial communities have received considerable attention for their
52 ability to confer many of the same benefits to crop productivity and stress resistance as have been
53 achieved through plant breeding programs (Barrow et al., 2008; Tank and Saraf, 2010; Marulanda et
54 al., 2009; Marasco et al., 2012; Mayak et al., 2004). It is now well recognized that all plants, and
55 nearly all tissues within the plant, are inhabited by a variety of microorganisms (Berg et al., 2013;
56 Partida-Martínez and Heil, 2011), many of which offer benefits to the host, improving nutrient
57 uptake, preventing pathogen attack, and increasing plant growth under adverse environmental
58 conditions (Yang et al., 2009; Turner et al., 2013). In return these microorganisms receive shelter
59 from the surrounding environment and access to a carbon-rich food supply. The most well-studied of
60 these symbionts include the mycorrhizal fungi, which enhance nutrients uptake (Bonfante and Anca,
61 2009) and root-nodulating bacteria, which fix nitrogen from the surrounding soil (Lugtenberg and
62 Kamilova, 2009), but many other novel plant growth promoting microorganisms (PGPM) continue to
63 be identified each year. These organisms confer stress resistance via diverse mechanisms recently
64 reviewed elsewhere (Yang et al., 2009; Zelicourt et al., 2013; Lugtenberg and Kamilova, 2009;
65 Nadeem et al., 2014; Grover et al., 2010). Importantly, efforts are being made to harness these
66 naturally-occurring, soil-derived beneficial microbes for large-scale improvement of crop
67 performance in agriculture (Nadeem et al., 2014).

68 In this article, we will highlight some of the advantages associated with symbiont-based approaches
69 to increasing crop resistance to abiotic stress, with a focus on engineering increased tolerance to
70 drought, which is the most critical and prevalent factor for crop production in many parts of the
71 world (Grayson, 2013; Castiglioni et al., 2008). We present suggestions for future directions of
72 abiotic stress tolerance improvement in crop plants, including the use of cutting edge genomic
73 technologies for the identification and selection of candidate symbionts and the functional modules
74 they employ for enhancing host growth, as well as an assessment of current agronomic practices in
75 the light of modern understanding of microbial community influence over plant phenotype. We
76 conclude with an argument in favor of increased collaboration between conventional breeding
77 programs and microbial-based research for crop improvement and, more generally, for a broader
78 conceptual understanding of crop productivity as a complex product of plant genetics and microbial
79 community function.

80 **81 Limitations associated with direct engineering of increased stress tolerance into crop plants**

82 The success of plant biotechnology programs has helped the world's food supply keep pace with the
83 increasing rate of population growth (Morrissey et al., 2004). Novel crop varietals, with superior
84 yields as well as increased tolerance to biotic and abiotic stresses, have been continuously produced
85 for decades through conventional plant breeding programs, and more recently through genetic
86 engineering (Atkinson and Urwin, 2012). Despite the undeniable success of these past efforts and
87 their continued applicability to drought-tolerance in crop species, each of these methods has its
88 drawbacks, which should be fully considered. Plant breeding is highly time consuming, as well as
89 labor and cost intensive (Ashraf, 2010; Eisenstein, 2013). Additionally, in the quest for the

92 improvement of a particular trait, such as drought tolerance, certain (often unknown) desirable traits
93 can be unintentionally lost from the host's gene pool during conventional breeding (Philippot et al.,
94 2013). Perhaps the largest drawback, however, is that plant breeding only confers benefit to a single
95 host species, and this benefit is often not easily transferable to other crop systems, as the genetic
96 components responsible for the improvements frequently remain unidentified.

97 To avoid the time and labor costs associated with conventional breeding, some researchers have
98 turned to generation of transgenic lines for producing varietals with improved plant growth
99 regulators, antioxidants, organic osmolytes or other factors capable of increasing drought tolerance
100 (Eisenstein, 2013). Unfortunately, the vast majority of these are developed and tested in the
101 greenhouse, rather than in the field and claims made regarding their performance are often inflated
102 compared to actual results in agricultural settings, due to the large array of abiotic and biotic factors
103 left out of the initial experiments (Ashraf, 2010). Additionally, these transgenic crops often must pass
104 rigorous food and environmental safety regulations and trials before becoming marketable, which
105 adds additional time to the product development process (Eisenstein, 2013). Furthermore, release of a
106 transgenic product into the marketplace does not guarantee its success, as public response to use of
107 genetically-modified crops varies considerably from country to country (Fedoroff et al., 2010).

108 Both the conventional breeding and genetic engineering based approaches may rely too heavily on
109 the assumption that plants function as autonomous organisms regulated solely by their genetic code
110 and cellular physiology (Barrow et al., 2008), although plant-microbe interactions can heavily
111 influence crop response to environmental conditions. Many field trials of new stress-tolerant
112 cultivars simply have not addressed microbial influence on improved performance (Budak et al.,
113 2013; Cooper et al., 2014; Swamy and Kumar, 2013). Greenhouse trials are often conducted with
114 standard sterilized potting soils and sterilized soil amendments (Witt et al., 2012; Porch, 2006;
115 Waterer et al., 2010) in an attempt to create a microbe-free growth environment, an artificial context
116 rarely if ever found in nature (Friesen et al., 2011; Partida-Martínez and Heil, 2011). By doing so,
117 they not only neglect one of the top determinants of phenotypic output, they may also miss vertically
118 transmitted symbionts present within the plant seed (Barrow et al., 2008), which could lead to
119 overestimations of the effect of host genotype on plant phenotype.

120 **Advantages of symbiont-based approaches to improving stress tolerance**

121 Compared with methods for directly engineering stress tolerance into the host described above,
122 symbiont-based approaches to improving stress tolerance offer some clear advantages. First,
123 microbial symbionts are frequently capable of conferring stress tolerance to a wide variety of diverse
124 plant hosts, and many PGPM can confer benefits to both monocots and dicot crop species (Zhang et
125 al., 2008; Redman et al., 2002; Timmusk and Wagner, 1999). The bacterium *Achromobacter*
126 *piechaudii*, isolated from dry riverbeds of southern Israel, was capable of increasing salt and drought
127 resistance in both pepper and tomato (Mayak et al., 2004). Using olive trees, tomato, grapevine and
128 pepper plants, Marasco et al. have demonstrated that microbes isolated from the roots of one host
129 species cultivated under desert farming conditions are capable of improving the growth of a different
130 host species when grown under a water-stress regime (Marasco et al., 2013). The ability to transfer
131 stress-resistance solutions from one crop species to another through a microbial inoculum has the
132 potential to save years of plant breeding effort.

133 Secondly, PGPM frequently confer more than one type of abiotic and/or biotic stress
134 tolerance (Mayak et al., 2004; Rodriguez et al., 2008), and crops grown on arid and semi-arid lands
135 typically suffer from multiple stress factors. It has been shown that *Arabidopsis* plants in symbiosis

136 with *Paenibacillus polymyxa* have increased drought tolerance as well as improved resistance to
137 pathogen attack (Timmusk and Wagner, 1999). Waller et al. demonstrated that barley plants
138 inoculated with the fungus *Piriformospora indica* have both increased resistance to *Fusarium* and
139 *Blumeria* infections and increased salt tolerance (Waller et al., 2005). These examples of microbes
140 conferring multiple benefits are likely due to the fact that many symbionts exert their influence over
141 the plant host through manipulating plant hormone pathways (Friesen et al., 2011; Glick et al., 2007)
142 and that considerable cross-talk exists between plant stress response pathways (Atkinson and Urwin,
143 2012).

144 Thirdly, plant-associated microbial species represent a vast reservoir of genetic information
145 that has coevolved with their hosts under natural environmental conditions. These microbes can add
146 genetic flexibility to the adaptation of comparatively sessile and longer-lived plants (Barrow et al.,
147 2008). The concept of ‘habitat-specific symbioses’, put forth by Rodriguez et al., is one of the most
148 intriguing discoveries pertaining to microbial contributions to stress tolerance made in recent years
149 (Rodriguez et al., 2008). Their research found that salt, drought, and disease resistance were each
150 individually conferred by specific fungal symbionts that had been harvested from coastal, arid, and
151 agricultural environments, respectively. Furthermore, they found that these beneficial effects could
152 be conferred on different plant host species, including both monocots and dicots. These insights
153 suggest that the foundation for the growth-promoting effects of microbial symbionts is based on the
154 co-evolution of the association between plant and microbe under adverse environmental conditions
155 (Rodriguez et al., 2008). For the purposes of developing novel biotechnological agents for use in
156 agriculture, this study supports the idea that the optimal place to look for PGPM that confer
157 resistance to a specific environmental stress is in soils where that stress is a regular phenomenon.

158 **Future directions of abiotic stress tolerance improvement in crop plants**

159 Microbial species with plant-growth promoting capabilities are both numerous and easier to
160 characterize now than ever before. A considerable fraction of endophytes isolated from crops appear
161 to have measurable effects on host fitness (Friesen et al., 2011). Two recent studies found that more
162 than 25% of bacteria isolated from cultivated crops had plant growth promoting activities (Hassan et
163 al., 2010; Marasco et al., 2012). While the identification of microbial endophytes has been
164 challenging in the past due to the frequent lack of plant-host symptoms, localized colonization,
165 intimate integration with plant cellular structures, and lack of cultivability, recent advances in
166 genomic technologies have helped make this process faster and cheaper (Berg et al., 2013). A recent
167 technique for selective depletion of chloroplast and mitochondrial-derived 16S amplicons allows for
168 vastly increased resolution of bacterial endophyte populations derived from within plant tissues
169 (Lundberg et al., 2013). While in the past whole-genome sequencing of candidate symbionts was
170 only possible for cultivable species, it is now possible to obtain draft genomes of microbial
171 endophytes in a high-throughput fashion using single-cell sorting coupled with next-generation
172 sequencing technologies (Woyke et al., 2006). Understanding the genomic content of these PGPMs
173 will enable us to better understand the mechanisms behind the conferred stress-tolerances, as well as
174 cultivate them for experimental investigation (Pope et al., 2011).

175 As more and more genomes from plant-growth promoting microorganisms become available, our
176 ability to identify the shared genetic components or metabolites that are responsible for conferring
177 specific abiotic stress advantages increases. Through a transcriptomic analysis of the symbiosis
178 between oilseed rape and *Stenotrophomonas rhizophila*, a recent study identified spermidine as a
179 novel PGPM regulator of plant abiotic stress (Alavi et al., 2013). Identification of the genetic
180 components within PGPMs that are responsible for alleviating abiotic stress may in some cases yield
181 potential targets for transgenic modification of the host organism (Nadeem et al., 2014). Recently,

182 bacterial cold-shock proteins transformed into various plant species led to increased tolerance to a
183 variety of abiotic stresses, including cold, heat and drought (Castiglioni et al., 2008).

184 Investigation of the mechanisms by which plant-growth promoting microorganisms confer
185 stress-tolerance to their plant hosts is another avenue for identifying targets for direct transgenic
186 manipulation of stress response in crops. Recent technological advances in cell-type specific
187 transcriptomics (Taylor-Teeple et al., 2011), combined with an experimental system designed to
188 examine host transcription during symbiosis with PGPM, could allow for a precise dissection of the
189 genetic signaling mechanisms responsible for increased stress tolerance. An improved understanding
190 of these host mechanisms could provide potential candidate loci for transgenic or plant-breeding
191 strategies aimed at plant-host improvement (Grover et al., 2010). For example, salt tolerance induced
192 by *Bacillus subtilis* was shown to be the result of tissue specific modulation of the expression of the
193 *Arabidopsis* Na⁺/K⁺ transporter, *HKT1* (Zhang et al., 2008). Similarly, drought resistance in
194 *Arabidopsis* as a result of inoculation with *Paenibacillus polymyxa* was related to strong upregulation
195 of the host gene *ERD15* (Timmusk and Wagner, 1999).

196 Finally, there is a need for rethinking modern agronomic practices in light of our current
197 understanding of the importance of host-associated microbial communities for plant productivity and
198 health. Current large-scale agricultural systems rely heavily on monoculture cropping systems, in
199 many cases without between-season crop rotation, which has been shown to lead to the build up of
200 specialized plant pathogens, increased disease incidence, and decreased yield (Berendsen et al., 2012;
201 Gentry et al., 2013). Research is being conducted to determine if the use of specific cover crops can
202 be used to promote and maintain a beneficial microbiome between growing seasons for important
203 crop species (East, 2013). Current methods of tilling may also negatively impact the plant microbial
204 community; alternatives, including ‘conservation-’ or ‘zero-tillage’, may have the potential to
205 promote a healthy belowground microbiome by reducing moisture loss and maintaining naturally
206 occurring strata within the soil, which helps support microbial biodiversity (East, 2013).

207 Conclusion

208

209 As with the plant-breeding and transgenic approaches to engineering stress-resistance in tomorrow’s
210 crops, there are of course challenges associated with symbiont based strategies that will need to be
211 overcome. One potential challenge will be detangling synergistic and antagonistic effects of different
212 microorganisms within the plant microbiome (Trabelsi and Mhamdi, 2013). Research has
213 demonstrated synergistic effects of multiple PGPM (Figueiredo et al., 2008), and another study has
214 identified a virus present within a plant growth promoting fungus as the causative agent of heat
215 resistance conferred to a tropical grass (Márquez et al., 2007). A second challenge stems from the
216 fact that while many PGPM have been shown to confer their benefits across multiple host species, it
217 is clear that this is not always the case. In some studies, the host species (and even host cultivar) has
218 been shown to play a significant role in driving microbial community composition and activity
219 (Philippot et al., 2013; Ofek et al., 2013), selecting for and against particular microbial partners.
220 Additionally, interactions between the PGPM and the members of the existing microbial community
221 could alter or negate the potential beneficial effects of the microbe (Schippers et al., 1987). Due to
222 the complexity of interactions among the microbes, host, and environment, there is the potential that
223 a PGPM that confers benefit in one context may have a null, or even negative, effect in a different
224 context; therefore, considerable work will need to be done to determine the range of applicability for
225 each PGPM as a beneficial agricultural agent. A third challenge, which is equally important for both
226 symbiont and host-based methods of improving stress tolerance, will be unraveling the complex
227 relationships between the various biotic and abiotic stress responses. Research programs aimed at

228 developing tolerance to a particular stress do not necessarily test susceptibility to other stresses; due
229 to the intrinsically related nature of the pathways governing stress response, later field trials have in
230 some instances revealed increased susceptibility to other stresses (Atkinson and Urwin, 2012).
231 Lastly, methods of microbial delivery within field settings and stable integration of PGPMs into the
232 agricultural soil ecosystem will need improvement. While many applications of PGPMs to crops in
233 field settings have demonstrated significant improvements to stress tolerance (Rolli et al., 2014;
234 Mengual et al., 2014; Celebi et al., 2010), others have shown inconsistent or even negative effects
235 (Nadeem et al., 2014). One promising method of stabilizing beneficial effects of PGPM in the field
236 involves the inoculation of a microbial consortium of PGPM, as opposed to a single PGPM species.
237 Combining PGPM known to grow and perform well together will likely increase the resilience of the
238 inoculum and its beneficial effects, and additionally allow for tailoring the community to respond to
239 specific combinations of abiotic and biotic stresses (Trabelsi and Mhamdi, 2013).

240 Agriculture currently accounts for 70% of human fresh water use, and in many parts of the
241 world this rate of water consumption exceeds local regeneration rates, leading to unsustainable
242 reliance on underground aquifers that are rapidly depleting (Castiglioni et al., 2008; Jiao, 2010).
243 Given this, it is not surprising that drought and other water-related stresses are considered by many to
244 be the most significant threats to global agricultural security in the near future. Encouragingly, in the
245 research conducted by Rodriguez et al., the ‘habitat-specific symbionts’ selected from a coastal site,
246 a geothermal site, and an agricultural site shared one trait: the ability to confer drought resistance.
247 Rodriguez et al. hypothesize that the ability of fungal endophytes to confer drought tolerance may be
248 a common evolutionary relic from when plants left the ocean, as fungal symbiosis is thought to be in
249 part responsible for the movement of plants to land (Rodriguez et al., 2008). If this turns out to be the
250 case, proponents of symbiont-based approaches to increasing stress resistance in crop plants may do
251 well to focus their efforts on drought and other water-related stresses.

252 In the future, there is a need for more collaboration between the host-focused and symbiont-
253 focused approaches to mitigating abiotic stress in crop plants. Medical science has in recent years
254 undergone a profound restructuring of its understanding of the microbiome housed within the body
255 and its impact on human health (East, 2013). There is a clear parallel here for plant science, with
256 implications that have the potential to change the face of agriculture and help us to meet the
257 challenges confronting humanity in light of our expanding population and changing planet. The
258 fundamental change required is a broader recognition that plants do not exist as autonomous
259 organisms governed entirely by their genetic blueprints, but rather serve as ecological niches for
260 diverse communities of easily overlooked microbes, which work in concert with the plant to survive
261 in a wide range of stressful environmental conditions.

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¹ Provide the doi when available, and ALL complete author names.

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428 **3. Figure legends**

429 **Figure 1. Advantages of symbiont-based approaches to improving stress tolerance in crops.**

430 Plant-growth promoting microbes are capable of conferring benefits to multiple species of plant
431 hosts, and of offering improved tolerance to multiple stresses simultaneously. Inoculations with
432 combinations of PGPM can be tailored to specific environmental conditions. Dissection of plant-
433 microbe interactions during symbiosis has the potential to reveal both the microbial and host genetic
434 components responsible for improved stress tolerance; these may serve as targets for plant-
435 breeding/genetic-engineering based approaches to improving stress tolerance in the host.

Figure 1. Advantages of Symbiont-Based approaches to improving stress tolerance in crops. Plant-growth promoting microbes are capable of conferring benefits to multiple species of plant hosts, and of offering improved tolerance to multiple stresses simultaneously. Inoculations with combinations of PGPM can be tailored to specific environmental conditions. Dissection of plant-microbe interactions during symbiosis has the potential to reveal both the microbial and host genetic components responsible for improved stress tolerance; these may serve as targets for plant-breeding/genetic-engineering based approaches to improving stress tolerance in crops.

