

Streptomyces cocklensis DSM 42063 and Actinacidiphila bryophytorum DSM 42138 colonize Arabidopsis thaliana and modulate its proteome

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Florence Arsène-Ploetze, Magali Rompais, Abd El Malek Alioua, Valerie Cognat, Mathieu Erhardt, et al.. Streptomyces cocklensis DSM 42063 and Actinacidiphila bryophytorum DSM 42138 colonize Arabidopsis thaliana and modulate its proteome. PhytoFrontiers, 2023, 10.1094/PHYTOFR-12-22-0149-R . hal-04195921

HAL Id: hal-04195921 https://hal.science/hal-04195921

Submitted on 4 Sep 2023

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5	Florence Arsène-Ploetze ^{a*} , Magali Rompais ^b , Abdelmalek Alioua ^a , Valérie Cognat ^a ,
6	Mathieu Erhardt ^a , Stefanie Graindorge ^a , Sandrine Koechler ^a , Jérôme Mutterer ^a ,
7	Christine Carapito ^b and Hubert Schaller ^a
8	
9	^a Institut de biologie moléculaire des plantes, CNRS, Université de Strasbourg, Strasbourg,
10	France
11	^b Laboratoire de Spectrométrie de Masse BioOrganique (LSMBO), Université de Strasbourg,
12	CNRS, IPHC UMR 7178, Infrastructure Nationale de Protéomique ProFI - FR2048 (CNRS-
13	CEA), Strasbourg, France
14	
15	* Correspondence and reprints:
16	Florence Arsène-Ploetze
17	E-mail: florence.ploetze@ibmp-cnrs.unistra.fr
18	E-mail of the authors: <u>rompais@unistra.fr</u> , <u>malek.alioua@ibmp-cnrs.unistra.fr</u> ,
19	valerie.cognat@ibmp-cnrs.unistra.fr, mathieu.erhardt@ibmp-cnrs.unistra.fr,
20	stefanie.graindorge@ibmp-cnrs.unistra.fr, sandrine.koechler@ibmp-cnrs.unistra.fr,
21	jerome.mutterer@ibmp-cnrs.unistra.fr, ccarapito@unistra.fr, hubert.schaller@ibmp-
22	<u>cnrs.unistra.fr</u>

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23 Abstract

Streptomycetaceae are found ubiquitously within plant microbiota. Several species belonging 24 to this family are Plant-Growth Promoting (PGP) bacteria, or may inhibit phytopathogens. Such 25 26 bacteria exert therefore crucial functions in host development and resistance to stresses. Recent studies have shown that plants select beneficial bacteria into their microbiota. However, the 27 28 selection process and the molecular mechanisms by which selected bacteria modulate the physiology of their host are not yet fully understood. Previous work revealed that the metabolic 29 status of Arabidopsis thaliana was crucial for the selection of Streptomycetaceae into the 30 31 microbiota, in particular bacteria phylogenetically related to Streptomyces cocklensis or 32 Actinacidiphila bryophytorum (previously named Streptomyces bryophytorum). Here, the 33 Arabidopsis-Streptomycetaceae interaction was further depicted by inoculating axenic A. 34 thaliana with S. cocklensis DSM 42063 or A. bryophytorum DSM 42138. We showed that these two bacteria colonize A. thaliana ecotype Columbia-0 plants, but the colonization efficiency is 35 reduced in a *chs5* mutant of the same ecotype, bearing altered in isoprenoid, phenylpropanoid 36 37 and lipid profiles. We observed that A. bryophytorum inhibits growth of the chs5 mutant but not of the wild type, suggesting that the Arabidopsis-Actinacidiphila interaction depends on the 38 metabolic status of the host. Using a mass spectrometry-based proteomic approach, we showed 39 40 that S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum modulate the A. thaliana proteome, in particular, components involved in photosynthesis or phytohormone homeostasis. This study unveils 41 specific aspects of the Arabidopsis-Streptomycetaceae interaction and highlights its complexity 42 and diversity. 43

Keyword: *Streptomycetaceae*, plant metabolites, microbiota, interactions, proteome modulation

46 1. INTRODUCTION

47 Plants host a vast array of microorganisms that collectively form a microbiota. The microbiota 48 and the host plant are considered as an ecological unit called holobiont, in which 49 microorganisms interact with their host and between them in a regulated functional network (Hassani et al. 2018; Uroz et al. 2019). The microbiota fulfills functions that are important for 50 51 the health and development of the host and the homeostasis of the holobiont. A well-described beneficial effect of certain microorganisms interacting with plants is the so-called Plant-Growth 52 53 Promoting (PGP) effect (Gaiero et al. 2013; Vacheron et al. 2013; Backer et al. 2018; Berg et 54 al. 2020). The mode of action of PGP Microorganisms (PGPM) is a hot research topic partly because implementing PGPM in agriculture may help reduce the use of agrochemicals. PGPM 55 56 exert their effects through direct and indirect mechanisms. Directly, free-living or symbiotic 57 nitrogen-fixing bacteria, phosphorus-solubilizing microorganisms, hydrogen cyanide (HCN)-, 58 organic acids-, and siderophore-producing bacteria increase the availability of nutrients for the plant. Indirectly, PGPM act on plant growth by producing metabolites or chemical signals that 59 60 modulate the host hormone balance, inhibit pathogen attacks, or promote tolerance to abiotic stresses (e.g., drought, heat, or salinity). In particular, PGP bacteria (PGPB) contribute to 61 62 phytohormone homeostasis with the synthesis of auxin (indol acetic acid, (IAA)) and the degradation of the ethylene precursor 1-AminoCyclopropane-1-Carboxylate (ACC) by the 63 64 enzyme ACC-deaminase, this to reduce the production of the stress hormone ethylene in the host (Afzal et al. 2019). Other metabolites or signals such as polyamines, volatile organic 65 compounds (VOCs) or Acyl-Homoserine Lactones (AHL) are produced by PGPB to improve 66 67 stress tolerance and stimulate growth of the host. In addition, these compounds limit the proliferation of pathogens and therefore produce a beneficial effect on plant fitness (Hassani et 68 al. 2018). More generally, the beneficial effect of microbiota on plant resistance to biotic or 69 70 abiotic stresses originates first from its ability to produce HCN, VOC, AHL, antibiotics, or cell-

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wall degrading enzymes, secondly the negative interaction of its members with pathogens by
competing for nutrient or by regulating the bacterial quorum sensing-mediated responses, and
finally from its ability to modulate phytohormone signaling pathways and trigger the induced
systemic response (ISR) or the systemic acquired resistance (SAR) (Vlot et al. 2021).

Beneficial microorganisms interacting with host plants may be specific to one or a few 75 76 plant genera, species or genotypes, while others may be ubiquitously present as members of the 77 core microbiota (Schlaeppi et al. 2014; Bai et al. 2015). Actinobacteria are found ubiquitously in plant microbiota. Among this phylum, Streptomycetaceae is the most abundant taxon 78 (Lundberg et al. 2012; Bulgarelli et al. 2013; Schlaeppi et al. 2014; Bai et al. 2015). 79 80 Streptomycetaceae form an important group of filamentous soil bacteria split in several genera as shown by recent phylogenomic analysis (Labeda et al. 2017; Madhaiyan et al. 2022). These 81 82 bacteria produce mycelium allowing for their efficient colonization of the root surface or 83 internal tissues as endophytes. Streptomycetaceae PGPs synthetize plant growth regulators and VOCs. They produce also compounds exhibiting antifungal or antibacterial activities, and 84 85 excrete enzymes degrading polymers such as cellulose and hemicellulose, xylan, or chitin (Świecimska et al. 2022). Plant-Streptomycetaceae interactions have recently attracted 86 significant research efforts to elucidate the yet unknown molecular mechanisms. 87

Plants regulate the composition of their microbiota by mechanisms controlling recruitment 88 and management of beneficial microorganisms (Jones et al. 2019; Vannier et al. 2019). One of 89 this mechanisms is the plant innate immune system which affects host colonization by 90 microorganisms (Hacquard et al. 2017; Vlot et al. 2021). Another well-described mechanism 91 92 for the selection of microorganisms by a host plant is the production of primary and secondary (also called specialized) metabolites in root exudates. These metabolites that attract beneficial 93 94 microorganisms and stimulate their growth, may also act as defense compounds against pathogens, or act as specific signaling molecules to favor the colonization of host organs by 95

96 specific beneficial microorganisms. Recently, the so-called "cry-for-help" mechanism has been
97 proposed, according to which beneficial bacteria are specifically recruited when plants are faced
98 with pathogen attacks or abiotic stresses (Rizaludin et al. 2021).

99 In a previous work, we reported the effect of an impaired isoprenoid metabolism on Arabidopsis thaliana-bacteria interactions and microbiota selection (Graindorge et al. 2022). 100 The microbiota of the wild-type genotype was compared with that of a mutant called *chs5* 101 102 (chilling sensitive 5) that had a D627N missense mutation in the enzyme 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-103 5 phosphate synthase DXS1/CLA1/CHS5 (Schneider et al. 1995; Araki et al. 2000; Wright et al. 2014). This is a limiting enzyme in the plastidial isoprenoid biosynthesis pathway (Rohmer 104 105 1999; Rodríguez-Concepción and Boronat 2015). This chs5 mutant displays moderate phenotypic alterations at 22°C and a chlorotic phenotype when temperature is shifted to 15°C 106 107 (Araki et al. 2000). In addition, untargeted metabolomic analyses revealed changes in the lipid 108 and phenylpropanoid (flavonoids, cinnamates, coumarins) profiles in addition to deficiencies 109 in carotenoids and chlorophylls (Schneider et al. 1995; Araki et al. 2000; Wright et al. 2014; 110 Graindorge et al. 2022). Interestingly, the colonization of several Streptomycetaceae affiliated 111 to Actinacidiphila bryophytorum (previously named Streptomyces bryophytorum) and Streptomyces cocklensis was reduced in the chs5 mutant regardless of growth conditions and 112 113 plant developmental stages. Consequently, this study (Graindorge et al. 2022) suggested that the metabolic status of A. thaliana was crucial for the specific recruitment of Streptomycetaceae 114 115 into the microbiota.

The aim of the work presented here is to study the *Arabidopsis thaliana-Streptomycetaceae* interaction *in vivo* using *A. bryophytorum* DSM 42138 and *S. cocklensis* DSM42063, which are strains previously isolated from moss and soil, respectively (Kim et al. 2012; Li et al. 2016). To search for genes involved in plant-bacteria interaction, the genomes of both bacteria were sequenced and compared. To study the effect of these two bacteria on

- 121 their host, we compared the proteome of inoculated and non-inoculated wild type or the *chs5*
- 122 plants. These data combined with growth phenotypes of inoculated seedlings and microscopic
- 123 observations of the bacteria *in planta* provide evidence that these bacteria specifically modulate
- 124 the physiology of the *A. thaliana chs5* mutant.

125 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

126 2.1. Arabidopsis thaliana axenic plant growth and inoculation with Streptomycetaceae 127 spp.

128 S. cocklensis DSM 42063 and A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 were cultivated at 28°C on 129 a solid optimized medium for *Streptomyces* species to obtain colonies of the appropriate size 130 (>2mm) ("*Streptomyces* medium", cat. 85883, Sigma-Aldrich, Saint-Louis, Missouri, USA; the 131 composition is not given by the manufacturer). Colonies scraped with a sterile scraper were 132 resuspended in 3 ml of 10 mM MgCl₂. The suspension was centrifuged at 2500 g for 10 min 133 (repeated twice). For seed inoculation, the bacterial suspension in 10 mM MgCl₂ was adjusted 134 to $1x10^6$ to $5x10^6$ cells/ml.

135 Seeds of A. thaliana ecotype Colombia-0 (Col-0) and the chs5 mutant of the same genetic background were surface sterilized in 70% ethanol for 2 min, then washed in sterile 136 milliQ H₂0 for 1 min. The supernatant was removed, and the seeds were treated for 5 min with 137 138 a commercial sodium hypochlorite solution (4%) supplemented with 0.1% Tween 20 (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint-Louis, Missouri, USA). Seeds were washed 8 times with sterile milliQ H₂O then 139 air-dried. Dried seeds were placed individually with a sterile toothpick on the surface of solid 140 141 sterile MS medium plates (MS, 4.3 g/L Murashige & Skoog Medium M0221 (Duchefa 142 Biochemie, Haarlem, The Netherlands), 10 g/L sucrose (Euromedex, Strasbourg, France), 100 mg/L myo-inositol (Duchefa Biochemie, Haarlem, The Netherlands), 1 mg/L thiamine HCl 143 (Duchefa Biochemie, Haarlem, The Netherlands), 0.5 mg/L pyridoxine HCl (Duchefa 144 145 Biochemie, Haarlem, The Netherlands), 0.5 mg/L nicotinic acid (Duchefa Biochemie, Haarlem, 146 The Netherlands), 7 g/L agar (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint-Louis, Missouri, USA), pH 5.8). Plates 147 with seeds were kept for 2 days at 4°C in the dark before inoculation with S. cocklensis DSM 42063 or A. bryophytorum DSM 42138. For inoculation, each seed was covered with 5 to 7 µl 148

 $(5x10^3 \text{ to } 25x10^3 \text{ cells})$ of bacterial suspension or sterile 10 mM MgCl₂ as negative control. 149 Plates were then incubated in a Sanyo MLR-351 incubator (Etten-Leur, The Netherlands) under 150 16-hour light (160 µmol photon.s⁻¹.m⁻²) at 18°C and 8-hour light (100 µmol photon.s⁻¹.m⁻²) at 151 16°C regime. Seedlings of equivalent size (2 to 4 leaves) were transferred onto fresh MS plates 152 153 after 14 days of culture. Seedlings were photographed and their phenotype was scored 24 or 31 days after inoculation using Image J (segmentation based on the "Excessive Green" method 154 155 described previously (Woebbecke, D. M. et al. 1995)), to calculate the total leaf area and to 156 measure the intensity of the green color of leaves.

157 **2.2.** Extraction and quantification of chlorophylls and carotenoids.

158 Seedlings (3 replicates of 15 seedlings each) were weighed and crushed in liquid nitrogen (with mortar and pestle). Extracts were prepared by incubating seedling materials at -159 160 20°C for 24 hours in 80% acetone (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint-Louis, Missouri, USA) in water (v/v) as previously described (Graindorge et al. 2022). Supernatants (200 µL) were transferred to 96 161 well microplates (PS, U-bottom, MICROLON®, Greiner Bio-one, Frickenhausen, Germany). 162 163 Optical density was measured for each well (in triplicate) at 470 nm, 646 nm and 663 nm on 164 FLUOstar Omega spectrometer (BMG Labtech®, Ortenberg, Germany). The concentration of chlorophylls (C_a , C_b) and carotenoids ($C_{(x+c)}$) in samples was calculated with established 165 166 formulas (Lichtenthaler and Buschmann 2001).

167
$$c_a (\mu g.ml^{-1}) = 12.25 A_{663} - 2.79 A_{646}$$

168
$$c_b (\mu g.ml^{-1}) = 21.50 A_{646} - 5.10 A_{663}$$

169
$$c_{(x+c)} (\mu g.ml^{-1}) = (1000 A_{470} - 1.82 c_a - 85.02 c_b)/198$$

170 c_a : concentration of chlorophyll a; c_b : concentration of chlorophyll b; $c_{(x+c)}$: concentration of 171 xanthophylls and carotenes. The concentrations of chlorophylls and carotenoids were expressed 172 in μ g.mg⁻¹ dry weight of plant samples.

173 **2.3.** Microbiota profiling

Seedlings (3 replicates of 15 seedlings each per condition) inoculated with 174 175 Streptomycetaceae spp. or mock inoculated (24-days post inoculation) were gently removed 176 from the agar plate and crushed in liquid nitrogen (with mortar and pestle) and stored at -80°C 177 for further DNA extraction. DNA was extracted from 40 mg of frozen material using the 178 PowerPlant DNA Isolation kit (MO BIO Laboratories, Inc., Carlsbad, CA, USA). The DNA 179 concentration and quality were estimated by measuring the OD at 260 nm and 280 nm using a NanoDropTM 2000 spectrophotometer, (ThermoFischer Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The 180 16S rRNA-encoding gene was PCR-amplified from 12.5 ng template DNA as described 181 182 previously (Graindorge et al. 2022), using a mix of primers targeting the V5-V6 region (Table S1). Libraries were constructed according to the 16S Metagenomic Sequencing Library 183 184 Preparation protocol (Illumina Part # 15044223 Rev. B. https://support.illumina.com/documents/documentation/chemistry_documentation/16s/16s-185 186 metagenomic-library-prep-guide-15044223-b.pdf) except some modifications as described 187 previously (Graindorge et al. 2022). After sequencing, bioinformatic processing was performed using the FROGS 3.1 pipeline (Escudié et al. 2018). Briefly, it started with pre-processing of 188 the sequencing read data with "VSEARCH" (to delete PCR duplicates, too long or too short 189 190 reads). Then, quality sequences were clustered to operational taxonomic units (OTUs, >97% 191 sequence similarity) with "Swarm". Chimeric OTU sequences were removed using 192 "VSEARCH". Filtering was performed to keep OTUs present in at least 3 samples with a 193 minimal coverage of 5 sequences and suppress contaminants (phiX). Quantification were 194 performed with the Phyloseq package version 1.30.0 (sourced from Migale Bioinformatics 195 Facility, Jouy-en-Josas, France) (McMurdie and Holmes 2013).

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2.4. Genome sequencing and mining

197 A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 and S. cocklensis DSM 42063 genomic DNAs were prepared using the Wizard genomic kit (Promega, Madison, Wisconsin, USA). Genomic DNA 198 199 sequencing was performed de novo on an Illumina instrument (Illumina®, San Diego, 200 California, USA), as follows. Libraries were prepared from 100 ng genomic DNA with the 201 Nextera Flex kit (Illumina®, San Diego, California, USA). Libraries quality was assessed on an Agilent Bioanalyzer (Agilent®, Agilent Technologie, Santa Clara, California, USA) using a 202 High Sensitivity DNA chip. These libraries were then loaded on a MiSeq sequencing flowcell 203 and sequenced in 2x150 paired ends mode, using a MiSeq V2 reagent kit. The 2.4x10⁶ trimmed 204 205 reads produced an 87.5x and 102.3x coverage for DSM 42138 and DSM 42063, respectively. 206 The quality of the data was checked with FastQC version 0.11.8 (Andrews 2010). The PCR duplicates were removed with fastuniq version 1.1 (Xu et al. 2012). This step excluded the 207 208 paired reads that were identical to keep only one. The low quality and adapters sequences were 209 trimgalore 0.5.0 trimmed with version 210 (https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim galore/, based on cutadapt version 1.18, (Martin 2011)). The SPAdes software was used for short read assembly (v3.13.3) 211 212 (Bankevich et al. 2012; Gurevich et al. 2013), with k-mers of 21, 33, 55, 77 and 99. Probable 213 contaminant scaffolds were identified (and excluded) by comparing the obtained scaffolds (>500 nt) against the Microbial Genome Database (MBGB) [http://mbgd.genome.ad.jp/], 214 which contains 6318 genomes (2547 species, 1019 genera) including 5861 Bacteria, 254 215 216 Archaea and 203 Eukaryota (Last update 2018/09/20) using the megablast tool of the blast+ 217 suite, version 2.9.0+.

A second sequencing was performed in the case of *A. bryophytorum* using the MinION
technology (Oxford Nanopore, Oxford, UK) to obtain a better assembly quality. Libraries were

220 prepared with 4 µg of gDNA using the Nanopore SQKLSK109 Ligation Sequencing kit and 221 multiplexing with Nanopore EXP-NBD104 Native Barcoding Expansion kit (Oxford Nanopore, Oxford, UK). Sequencing was performed with this DNA library (21.88 fmol) on a 222 223 Minion device with a R9.4.1 flowcell, for 48 hours as run time and realtime Guppy fast basecalling. The different fastq produced by the MinKNOW software (Oxford Nanopore, 224 Oxford, UK) were fused with the Illumina reads to obtain one fasta file. A hybrid assembly by 225 226 combining short and long reads was performed. The data were processed with the following 227 steps to perform an assembly with high quality reads: i) PCR duplicates for Illumina paired reads were removed; ii) remaining adapters from both sequencing were trimmed; iii) low 228 229 quality reads were trimmed (Q < 30 for Illumina - Q < 10 for Nanopore); iv) only paired end reads with length >100 nt for Illumina or reads with length >1000 nt for Nanopore were 230 231 considered. For Nanopore reads, the quality of the data was checked with NanoPlot version 232 0.32.1 (https://pypi.org/project/NanoPlot/). First, the adapters were trimmed with Porechop version 0.2.4 (https://github.com/rrwick/Porechop), then a read selection was performed with 233 FiltLong version 0.2.0 (https://github.com/rrwick/Filtlong, length >1 000 nt / best quality to 234 235 have a coverage of 100X); v) contamination and taxonomic affiliation were checked by 236 screening the library files) standard Kraken (fastq against database (https://ccb.jhu.edu/software/kraken/) containing RefSeq genomes (archaea, bacteria, virus, 237 238 human, last use 14/09/2020, https://benlangmead.github.io/aws-indexes/k2, using the default NCBI 239 parameters), and UniVec (the vector sequence databank, https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/vecscreen/univec/) (Langmead and Salzberg 2012). The 240 completeness was evaluated using CheckM (Parks et al. 2015). The classification of the genome 241 242 was performed with Kraken2 version 2.0.9beta (Wood et al. 2019). Two programs were used for de novo hybrid assembly: Unicycler (v0.4.8) (https://github.com/rrwick/Unicycler) (Wick 243 et al. 2017) and SPAdes (v3.15.2) (Bankevich et al. 2012). Different k-mer sizes to assemble 244

genomes with SPAdes (k-mers of 21, 33, 55, 77 and 99) were chosen. Unicycler is an assembly 245 246 pipeline for bacterial genomes, based on SPAdes. Both tools compile best contigs and scaffolds 247 for all the k-mers. The genomes analyzed for this study were integrated into the MicroScope 248 platform (https://mage.genoscope.cns.fr/microscope/home/index.php) and analyzed with the tools available on this platform (Vallenet et al. 2006, 2009, 2013, 2017). The genomic similarity 249 was estimated with 187 Streptomycetaceae genomes available on the MaGe plateform 250 251 (https://mage.genoscope.cns.fr/microscope/ accessed on 20/08/2021), using Mash and 252 correlated to the Average Nucleotide Index (ANI) (Konstantinidis and Tiedje 2005; Ondov et al. 2016). Genes previously described by several authors (Levy et al. 2017; Afzal et al. 2019; 253 254 Pinski et al. 2019) as genes allowing bacteria to associate with plants were searched in the genome of S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum using the "search by keywords" option of the 255 256 MaGe platform. We compared the metabolic capacities of these bacteria using the "Metabolic 257 Profiles" tool of the MaGe platform (Vallenet et al. 2017). The comparative genomic was performed to search for genes included in the core genome using the following MICFAM 258 259 parameter: 80% of amino acid identity, 80% alignment coverage. The search for genes involved 260 in the synthesis of secondary metabolites was performed using the AntiSMACH prediction of 261 the MaGe platform (Blin et al. 2019). Genomic sequences were submitted to EMBL 262 (PRJEB44811 and PRJEB44812 for S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum, respectively).

263 **2.5.** Proteomic analysis

Sample preparation. The experimental design of the proteomic analysis consisted of
protein extracts from wild-type and *chs5* seedlings inoculated with *S. cocklensis* DSM 42063,
or with *A. bryophytorum* DSM 42138, or mock inoculated, in triplicates (18 samples). Seedlings
(24-days post inoculation) were crushed in liquid nitrogen with a pestle in a mortar and stored
at -80°C for further protein extraction. Lysis buffer (1 ml: Tris 50 mM pH8, SDS 1%) was
added to 100 mg of frozen material in 2 ml-tubes containing 0.25-0.5 mm glass beads for

grinding the mixture 3 min with a Cell Disruptor Genie® (catalog number SKU: SI-DD38, 270 271 Scientific Industries, Bohemia, New York, USA) at 27,850 rpm. The ground mixture was centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min at 4°C. The supernatants were transferred into new tubes 272 273 and protein precipitation was performed by adding 5 volumes of 0.1 M ammonium acetate in 100% methanol, mixing, and incubating overnight at -20°C. The pellet obtained after a 15 min 274 centrifugation step at 12,000 g was washed once with 0.1% ammonium acetate in 100% 275 276 methanol and dried. Unless specified, all chemicals were from Merck Sigma (Merck, 277 Darmstadt, Germany). Protein extracts were suspended in 100-130 µl of Tris 10 mM pH 6.8, EDTA 1 mM, SDS 5%, glycerol 10% buffer. Protein concentration was assessed to 2-6 µg/µl 278 279 using a Detergent Compatible Assay (Catalog number 5000111, DC Protein Assay, Biorad, Hercules,CA, USA). Reductant (10 mM DTT) and bromophenol blue (0.01%) were added to 280 281 the samples and 40 µg of proteins were loaded to in-house poured 5% acrylamide stacking gels. 282 Gels were stained with Coomassie Blue, and the stacking bands were manually excised. Proteins were then reduced, alkylated and digested overnight at 37°C with modified trypsin in 283 284 a 1:100 enzyme:protein ratio (Sequencing grade Trypsin, Promega, Madison, WI, USA). 285 Peptides were extracted from the gel by gentle shaking in 80 µl of 8/2 acetonitrile/water for one hour. Peptide mixtures were then dried and resuspended in 20 µl of water acidified with 0.1% 286 formic acid. 287

Liquid Chromatography-Tandem Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) Analyses. NanoLCMS/MS analyses of peptide extracts were performed on a NanoAcquity LC-system (Waters,
Milford, MA, USA) coupled to a Q-Exactive plus Orbitrap (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
Waltham, MA, USA) mass spectrometer equipped with a nanoelectrospray ion source. Mobile
phase A (99.9% water and 0.1% FA) and mobile phase B (99.9% acetonitrile and 0.1% FA)
were delivered at 400 nl/min. Samples were loaded into a Symmetry C18 precolumn (0.18 x 20
mm, 5 µm particle size, Waters) over 3 min in 1% buffer B at a flow rate of 5 µl/min. This step

295 was followed by reverse-phase separation at a flow rate of 400 nl/min using an ACQUITY 296 UPLC® BEH130 C18 separation column (250 mm x 75 µm id, 1.7 µm particle size, Waters). 900 ng of peptides mixtures were eluted using a gradient from 1% to 35% B in 120 min, from 297 298 35% B to 90% B in 1 min, maintained at 90% B for 5 min and the column was reconditioned at 1% B for 20 min. The Q-Exactive plus Orbitrap instrument was operated in data dependent 299 acquisition mode by automatically switching between full MS and consecutive MS/MS 300 301 acquisitions. Survey full scan MS spectra (mass range 300-1800) were acquired with a 302 resolution of 70,000 at 200 m/z with an automatic gain control (AGC) fixed at 3 x 10⁶ ions and a maximum injection time set at 50 ms. The ten most intense peptide ions in each survey scan 303 304 with a charge state ≥ 2 were selected for MS/MS fragmentation. MS/MS scans were performed at resolution 17,500 at 200 m/z with a fixed first mass at 100 m/z, AGC was fixed at 1 x 10^5 305 306 and the maximum injection time was set to 100 ms. Peptides were fragmented by higher-energy 307 collisional dissociation (HCD) with a normalized collision energy set to 27. Peaks selected for fragmentation were automatically put on a dynamic exclusion list for 60 sec and peptide match 308 309 selection was turned on. MS data were saved in .raw file format using XCalibur software 310 3.1.66.10 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

LC-MS/MS data interpretation and validation. Raw files were converted to .mgf 311 312 peaklists using MSconvert and were submitted to Mascot database searches (version 2.6.2, MatrixScience, London, UK) against an A. thaliana protein sequences database downloaded 313 from The *Arabidopsis* Information Resource TAIR site (TAIR10 gene model, 27,416 entries) 314 315 (Lamesch et al. 2012) concatenated with a selection of bacterial sequences downloaded on 10th 316 of July 2020 from UniprotKB (only Streptomyces tagged proteomes with more than 1000 317 proteins were kept, in addition to the phylogenetically related genus Achromobacter, total of 318 5,889,978 entries). In house assembled S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum predicted proteomes (using the illumina sequenced genomes, 17,237 entries, using the MaGe platform annotation 319

tools and process, https://mage.genoscope.cns.fr/microscope/) derived from the in-house 320 321 genome sequences (section 2.5) were also added to the database, as well as common contaminants (118 entries) and decoy sequences. The concatenated target/decoy database 322 323 contains 2 x 5,934,749 protein entries. Spectra were searched with a mass tolerance of 5 ppm in MS mode and 0.07 Da in MS/MS mode. One trypsin missed cleavage was tolerated. 324 Carbamidomethylation of cysteine residues was set as a fixed modification. Oxidation of 325 methionine residues and acetylation of proteins' N-termini were set as variable modifications. 326 327 Identification results were imported into Proline software (http://proline.profiproteomics.fr/) (Bouyssié et al. 2020) for validation. Peptide Spectrum Matches (PSM) with pretty rank equal 328 329 to one were retained. False Discovery Rate was then optimized to be below 1% at PSM level using Mascot Adjusted E-value and below 1% at Protein Level using Mascot Mudpit score. To 330 331 obtain unambiguous bacterial identifications, peptide sequences shared between A. thaliana (or 332 contaminant proteins) and bacterial sequences were removed, as well as shared spectra (leading to close but different sequences). Quantification methods and statistical analysis are presented 333 334 in the statistical methods section 2.7. The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been 335 deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE (Perez-Riverol et al. 2022) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD041221 and 10.6019/PXD041221. 336

337 2.6. H

2.6. Electron microscopy

For transmission electron microscopy (TEM), leaves were incubated overnight at 4°C in 3% glutaraldehyde – 3% paraformaldehyde in 0.15 M phosphate buffer at pH 7.5 for fixation. Post-fixation was carried out for 2 h at room temperature in 0.5% OsO4. After staining with 0.5% Uranyl acetate, samples were dehydrated through an ethanol series from 50 to 100% and embedded in EPON resin (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Pennsylvania, United States). Embedded leaves were sectioned with a Reichert-Jung microtome (Leica Microsystems GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany) and sections were observed with a Hitachi H7500 TEM (Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan) at 80 kV. For scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of seeds,
samples were handled at a minimum to prevent bacteria dissociating from a seed. Seeds
underwent a graded dehydration with ethanol (70% to 100%). Final dehydration was obtained
in HDMS (hexamethyldisilazane). Samples were gold-palladium sputter coated and examined
with a Hitachi TM1000 SEM at 15 kV.

2.7. Statistical methods

Analysis of chlorophylls accumulation. The normality of the distributions and equality of variances (homoscedasticity) were verified using R (version 1.4.1103) (https://www.rproject.org), with a Shapiro-Wilk test and a Bartlett test, respectively, and a statistical t-test or one-way ANOVA were used to analyze the chlorophylls concentrations.

355 *Microbiote profiling.* For the differential abundance of OTUs, the DEseq2 package (Love 356 et al. 2014), incremented in R was used with a Wald test to compare groups.

Growth of the wild type (WT) or the chs5 mutant inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063. To compare the surface or green intensity of seedlings, the normality of distributions and equality of variances (homoscedasticity) were estimated with a Shapiro-Wilk test and a Bartlett test, respectively. Because at least one of both conditions were not met for some samples, significant differences were evaluated using a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test, and the *p*-value were evaluated with a Dunn test with the Bonferroni correction.

364 Proteomic analysis statistics. For label free quantifications, peptides abundances were 365 extracted with the Proline software version 2.1 (http://proline.profiproteomics.fr/, (Bouyssié et 366 al. 2020)) using a m/z tolerance of 5 ppm. Alignment of the LC-MS runs was performed using 367 Loess smoothing and peptide identity. Cross Assignment was performed between all runs using 368 only confident features with a m/z tolerance of 5 ppm and a retention time tolerance of 42 sec. 369 MS-derived protein set abundances were calculated by summing the extracted ion

chromatogram peak intensities of all identified peptides uniquely matching to each protein set. 370 371 For statistical analysis, protein abundances were loaded into Prostar software version 1.22.6 (http://www.prostar-proteomics.org/ (Wieczorek et al. 2017)) and associated to their 372 373 conditions. Proteins with 3 values in at least one condition (3 replicates) were kept for further 374 statistical analysis. Proteins identified as contaminants were removed. Protein abundances were normalized using 15% quantile centering overall. Residual Missing Values were assigned in a 375 376 conservative way (quantile 2.5%). Pairwised Limma-tests were performed among the whole set 377 of analyses. *p*-values calibration was corrected using adapted Benjamini-Hochsberg method, and FDR was optimized for each pairwise comparison. Functional annotation enrichment 378 379 analysis of differential proteomics data was performed in an unbiased way using the desktop version of DAVID (Ease v2.0) and an updated version of gene ontology (GO) and KEGG 380 pathway databases (18th of October 2021) (Huang et al. 2009b, 2009a). The list of differential 381 proteins from each comparison of the label free experiment was compared to the list of all 382 383 protein matches identified. Enriched GO terms and KEGG maps were filtered by only 384 considering those with an Ease score lower than 0.1 and a Benjamini *p*-value lower than 0.05. 385 Enriched GO terms and KEGG maps were thereafter grouped together into broad functional categories, which were considered as enriched broad functions. 386

- **387 3. Results**
- 388

3.1. S. cocklensis DSM 42063 and A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 genome analysis

389 Bacterial genomes were sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq sequencer. The assembly 390 yielded 156 contigs and 139 scaffolds (N50= 356,135, 8.06 Mb, with 43 scaffolds >1000nt), 391 and 232 contigs and 220 scaffolds (N50=178,610, 9.15 Mb, with 117 scaffold >1000nt) for A. 392 bryophytorum DSM 42138 and S. cocklensis DSM 42063, respectively. The completeness for S. cocklensis was 99.4709 %. A. bryophytorum genome was also sequenced using the Nanopore 393 (MinION) technology, leading to 23 scaffold (N50=974, 8,07 Mb). The completeness for A. 394 395 bryophytorum was 99.4709 %. The general features of these genomes are described in Table 396 S2. The GC-contents (63.7% - 63.9%) are similar, while the size differed by 1Mb. The S. 397 cocklensis genome had more duplications (129 tandem duplications versus 113) and a higher 398 percentage of repetitive sequences compared to the A. bryophytorum genome (Table S2). The genome similarity based on the Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) was estimated with 187 399 400 Streptomycetaceae genomes. The resulting phylogram revealed that A. bryophytorum DSM 401 42138 was part of a clade also including Actinacidiphila paucisporea CGMCC 4.2025 and 402 Actinacidiphila guanduensis CGMCC 4.2022 (Fig. S1). These data support the reclassification 403 of these species into the Actinacidiphila genus as previously suggested (Madhaiyan et al. 2022; 404 Labeda et al. 2017). Our results revealed that S. cocklensis also belongs to this clade suggesting 405 that this bacterium may be included in the *Actinacidiphila* genus, but further biochemical and 406 morphological experiments are required to demonstrate this. A comparative genomic analysis 407 showed that the pan genome of the two Streptomycetaceae strains had 17,163 genes, while the 408 core-genome encompassed 4918 families of genes, representing 54.7%, and 61.7% of the S. 409 cocklensis and A. bryophytorum genes, respectively. The S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum 410 variable genomes encompassed 45.3 and 38. 3% of the predicted ORFs, respectively, which 411 may confer specific capacities to each of these strains (Fig. S2).

412

3.2. Genomic features of S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum adaptation to plants

413 We searched for genetic determinants found in plant-associated bacteria that could 414 contribute to plant colonization or plant growth promoting (PGP) capacities (Afzal et al. 2019; Levy et al. 2017; Pinski et al. 2019) (Fig. 1, Table S2). S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum 415 416 exhibited genes involved in the metabolism of fructose, D-mannose, L-arabinose, lactose, 417 ribose and xylose, which are carbohydrates found in root exudates. In Streptomycetaceae, γ butyrolactone (GBL) has been described as part of a Quorum Sensing (QS) system, this process 418 419 is known to be important for plant-bacteria interactions and for regulating antibiotic production 420 (Du et al. 2011; Polkade et al. 2016). In S. cocklensis genome, we identified a gene homolog to 421 barS (SCOCK v1 30036) encoding an A-factor type GBL 1'-reductase, and two genes 422 (SCOCK v1 60217 and SCOCK v1 70112) involved in A-factor biosynthesis. These genes 423 were previously described in other bacteria as essential for the biosynthesis of GBL (Shikura et 424 al. 2002; Salehi-Najafabadi et al. 2014; Intra et al. 2016). In A. bryophytorum, SBRY v2 50115 425 is also predicted to be involved in A-factor biosynthesis. Moreover, we found 29 and 27 genes 426 in S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum, respectively, bearing more than 30% identity with GBL 427 receptors or GBL binding proteins previously characterized in other Actinobacteria, suggesting that such signaling molecules may play a role in S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum. Biofilm 428 429 formation plays an important role in the interaction between plants and bacteria (Naseem et al. 2018). Both bacteria have all genes required for colanic acid biosynthesis, a polysaccharide that 430 431 contribute to biofilm formation in Enterobacteriaceae and also found in one Pseudomonas 432 strain isolated from root endosphere (Prigent-Combaret et al. 2000; Barak et al. 2007; Zhang et 433 al. 2020). Furthermore, we found one gene in each S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum genome 434 (SCOCK v1 190032 and SBRY v2 60465) displaying 49 % identity with vbfA from Bacillus 435 subtilis. vbfA encodes an acetate Na+-dependent symporter subunit involved in the formation of biofilms under the control of volatile molecular signals (Chen et al. 2015). We identified also 436

437 a *bdcA* homolog (more than 43 % identity, SBRY_v2_11100, SCOCK_v1_100057 and 438 SCOCK_v1_250124) of *E. coli* that controls biofilm-related phenotypes such as cell motility, 439 cell size, cell aggregation and production of extracellular DNA and extracellular 440 polysaccharides (EPS) (Ma et al. 2011). Bacteria interacting with plant often produce cell-wall 441 degrading enzymes. We noticed that both *S. cocklensis* and *A. bryophytorum* have genes 442 required for polymer degradation, such as 1,4- β -xylan, cellulose, glycogen, and chitin.

We searched for PGP-related genes required for bacterial mechanisms enhancing plant 443 nutrient acquisition and growth. Both bacteria exhibited the ability to acquire phosphate through 444 four acid phosphatases (Fig. 1, Table S2). Both bacterial genomes also carried genes 445 446 homologous to *rhbACDF* involved in the synthesis of the siderophore rhizobactin produced by 447 the symbiotic nitrogen-fixing bacteria Ensifer meliloti (Lynch et al. 2001), and feuV/yusV, gobMP, involved in iron(III)-siderophore transport. S. cocklensis carried pvsABCDE homologs 448 449 (SCOCK v1 100083- SCOCK v1 100086) required in Vibrio alginolyticus for iron 450 acquisition (Wang et al. 2007). Bacterial genes involved in phytohormone homeostasis were found in S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum genomes. The genes SCOCK v1 360062 and 451 SBRY v2 10788 had more that 30% identity with the acdS genes from several Gram-negative 452 453 symbiotic bacteria encoding the ACC-deaminase associated with plant ethylene homeostasis 454 (Tittabutr et al. 2008). S. cocklensis had two genes SCOCK v1 140087 and SCOCK v1 270097 encoding an indole acetamide hydrolase and a tryptophan 2-455 monooxygenase, respectively, required for IAA biosynthesis via the indole-3-acetamide 456 457 synthesis. A. bryophytorum had only the gene encoding a tryptophan 2-monooxygenase 458 (SBRY v2 70106). The gene SBRY v2 10668, SCOCK v1 390035 shared 66.5 and 62 % 459 identity, respectively, with the "Lonely guy" (Log) gene from Corynebacterium glutamicum 460 ATCC 13032, acting as a cytokinin-activating protein (Seo and Kim 2017). In addition, the 461 genes SBRY v2 11141 and SCOCK v1 130169 shared about 36 % identity with the LOG5

protein from A. thaliana involved cytokinin biosynthesis (Kuroha et al. 2009). Other 462 463 phytohormone related genes were found in A. bryophytorum genome, like SBRY v2 100168 that shared 39 % identity with the fas5 gene of Rhodococcus fascians D188 strain required for 464 465 fasciation of its host plants (Crespi et al. 1994). SBRY v2 100168 shared also 33 % identity 466 with the CKX4 gene of A thaliana encoding a cytokinine dehydrogenase (Werner et al. 2003). PGP effects may be indirectly due to the inhibition of pathogen growth by specialized 467 468 metabolites and antibiotics produced by beneficial microorganisms (Kim et al. 2012; van der 469 Meij et al. 2017). We identified 37 and 30 biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) for specialized metabolites in the genome of S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum, respectively. BCGs with high 470 471 completion were predicted for isorenieratene/carotenoid biosynthesis, for antibiotic or antifungal compounds like griseusin, and curamycin, and for other bioactive molecules like 472 alkylresorcinol, pristinol, and 1-heptadecene, or for VOCs (geosmin, 2-methylisoborneol). 473 474 BGCs predicted to produce the antibacterial lipopeptide rhizomide were found in the case of A. bryophytorum and BGCs predicted to produce ketomemicin were found in the case of S. 475 476 cocklensis.

477 Lastly, we searched for genes encoding proteins with Pfam domains enriched in plant associated Streptomycetaceae genomes and previously predicted with five independent 478 479 statistical approaches (Levy et al. 2017). We searched also for plant-resembling plant-480 associated and root-associated domains (PREPARADOs) enriched in plant-associated Streptomycetaceae as highlighted by (Levy et al. 2017). We found most of the genes encoding 481 482 such proteins (18 and 17 genes in S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum, respectively) (Table S2). 483 Overall, the analysis of novel genomic data generated here suggest that S. cocklensis and A. 484 bryophytorum have the capacity to engage various processes necessary to interact with host 485 plants. Nevertheless, 38.3 and 45.3 % of the genes of A. bryophytorum and S. cocklensis, respectively, were found in only one genome (Fig. S2). Of these strain-specific genes, 3 (among 486

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88 genes, 3.4%) and 10 (among 98 genes, 10.2%) genes from *A. bryophytorum* and *S. cocklensis*, respectively, were proposed to be involved in plant-bacteria interactions and at least
16 and 20 genes (considering only complete pathways) from *A. bryophytorum* and *S. cocklensis*,
respectively, were proposed to be involved in secondary metabolites biosynthesis (**Table S2**).
These observations indicate that the metabolic, adaptive, or plant-interacting capabilities of *S. cocklensis* and *A. bryophytorum* may be different.

493

3.3. Exploring Plant Microbiota

To find out whether bacteria affiliated to S. cocklensis or A. bryophytorum occur in the 494 495 microbiota of other plants, we compared the 16S rRNA sequences obtained from genomic data 496 of these two strains with those found in plant metagenomic datasets using the Joint Genome 497 Institute (JGI) BLAST tools (https://img.jgi.doe.gov/cgi-bin/mer/main.cgi (accessed 17 August 498 2020)). We found several sequences sharing 100% identity with the 16S rRNA sequences of S. 499 cocklensis DSM 42138 and A. bryophytorum DSM 42063 (with a coverage of more than 350 500 nt), in the Arabidopsis metagenomic datasets but also in the metagenomic data of Populus, 501 Miscanthus, Switchgrass, Corn, or Agave microbiota. Consequently, S. cocklensis and A. bryophytorum are most probably found ubiquitously. 502

3.4. S. cocklensis DSM 42063 and A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 colonize A. thaliana and have differential effects on host growth

To evaluate colonization and effects of either *Streptomycetaceae* strains on *A. thaliana* growth, sterilized seeds were inoculated with *A. bryophytorum* DSM 42138 and *S. cocklensis* DSM42063 and growing them under controlled conditions (**Fig. S3**). Bacterial colonization of *A. thaliana* seedlings inoculated with *S. cocklensis* or *A. bryophytorum* was visualized by Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (**Fig. 2A, Fig. S4A**). Bacteria were visible on seed surface as soon as four days after inoculation, although in the case of *S. cocklensis* only a few

bacteria were observed. Streptomycetaceae cells colonized also the surface of leaves after 24 511 512 days of seedling growth but no bacteria were detected within the leaf tissues (Fig. 2B, Fig S4B). At the same stage, bacterial colonization of A. thaliana seedlings was quantified by 513 514 metabarcoding analysis (Fig. 3, Fig S5). Interestingly, the presence of bacteria affiliated to 515 Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, Firmicutes Bacteroidota and Acidobacteriota was 516 demonstrated in non-inoculated seedlings even though seeds underwent a surface-sterilization treatment (Fig. S5A). Two major OTUs named Cluster 2 and Cluster 3 detected in the 517 518 inoculated seedlings were affiliated to *Streptomyces* spp. and *A. bryophytorum*, respectively. As expected, these OTUs were more abundant in inoculated than in non-inoculated seedlings 519 520 (ANOVA, *p*-value = 0.003 and *p*-value = 0.009 for Cluster 2 and Cluster 3, respectively) (Fig. 3), and far more abundant than other bacteria present in non-inoculated control conditions (Fig 521 S5B). Therefore, this quantitative analysis indicated that S. cocklensis as well as A. 522 523 *bryophytorum* colonized less efficiently the *chs5* mutant than the wild type seedlings.

The effect of A. bryophytorum and S. cocklensis on seedling growth was evaluated 24 524 525 or 31 days after inoculation (dai) by measuring their leaf surfaces (Fig. 4). S. cocklensis had a 526 small but significant growth-promoting effect on wild-type plants at 24 dai which became nonsignificant at 31 dai. S. cocklensis had no significant effect on chs5 growth at 24 or 31 dai. A. 527 bryophytorum had no significant effect on wild type seedlings at 24 or 31 dai but had a 528 529 significant negative effect on growth of the chs5 mutant at 24 and 31 dai (Fig. 4). Overall, these observations provide evidence that both bacterial species were capable of colonizing A. thaliana 530 wild type and the chs5 mutant although significantly less on the latter. Both bacteria had 531 532 different effects on either Arabidopsis wild type or chs5 mutant, and only A. bryophytorum had a permanent negative effect on growth of the *chs5* mutant host plant. 533

534 3.5. S. cocklensis DSM 42063 and A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 express proteins 535 involved in amino acid and carbohydrate metabolism when associated with A. 536 thaliana in vitro

537 To investigate the interaction between S. cocklensis or A. bryophytorum and 538 Arabidopsis seedlings, we carefully analyzed the proteomes of wild type or mutant holobionts, 539 to identify bacterial proteins expressed, in inoculated wild-type or mutant plants. A proper 540 differential analysis was not possible because the number of bacteria colonizing the two 541 genotypes was dramatically different (Fig. 3). We identified 66 proteins expressed by bacteria affiliated to the *Streptomycetaceae* family. As the non-inoculated plants were still colonized by 542 543 few bacteria after seed sterilization (Fig. S5, non-inoculated plants), we focused only on 23 544 proteins, which were associated with A. bryophytorum or S. cocklensis based on genome annotations and because they were detected in wild-type plants inoculated with A. 545 546 bryophytorum or S. cocklensis, but not in non-inoculated plants (Table S3). For 7 of these proteins, at least one specific peptide was unambiguously identified as originating from A. 547 548 bryophytorum or S. cocklensis proteins in the corresponding samples inoculated with A. 549 bryophytorum or S. cocklensis. For the remaining 16 proteins, no specific peptide to one of those two bacteria was found, i.e. we could not distinguish whether the identified protein 550 551 originated from A. bryophytorum or S. cocklensis. Since we inoculated with one bacterial 552 species separately, we could identify the origin of proteins ambiguously identified as part of either bacteria proteome. 553

The bacterial proteins expressed *in planta* were associated with several major biological processes (**Table S3**). Interestingly, *S. cocklensis* expressed an adenosylhomocysteinase (SCOCK42063_v1_650034) sharing 76.1% identity with the adenosylhomocysteinase encoded by the *flI* gene from *Streptantibioticus cattleyicolor* (previously named *Streptomyces cattleya* (Madhaiyan et al. 2022)). This enzyme catalyzes the reversible hydrolysis of S-adenosyl-L- homocysteine (AdoHcy) into homocysteine and adenosine, preventing the inhibition of the fluorinase FlA required for the synthesis of fluoroacetate in this bacterium (Huang et al. 2006). *A. bryophytorum* expressed a protein, SBRY_v2_40138, exhibiting 33.65% identity with a perakine reductase of *Rauvolfia serpentina*, which is an aldo-keto reductase involved in the biosynthesis of the monoterpenoid indole alkaloids such as ajmaline. *S. cocklensis* and *A. bryophytorum* expressed two proteins involved in xylose import, suggesting a bacterial capacity to use this carbohydrate when associated with plants.

3.6. The *chs5* mutant is mainly impaired in its plastid/thylakoid function when grown in axenic conditions

In a next step, we compared the abundance of plant proteins in the following samples: wild-type or mutant plants, inoculated or not with *S. cocklensis* or *A. bryophytorum*. A total of 3039 *Arabidopsis* proteins expressed in wild-type or *chs5* seedlings was found. About one tenth (331 proteins) of those showed an abundance significantly different (FDR<6%) between *chs5* and the wild-type, or between inoculated and non-inoculated plants (**Table S4**).

573 A differential analysis of the proteomes of non-inoculated wild-type versus chs5 574 seedlings (1.46% FDR, *p*-value below 0.000447) indicated that the abundance of 94 proteins 575 were significantly different between these two genotypes grown in axenic conditions (Table 576 S4, columns D and E). A functional annotation enrichment analysis of both proteomes (Fig. 577 5) revealed that 14 of the 94 proteins (14.9%) were plastid/thylakoid components or were involved in RNA binding (11 were more abundant and 3 were less abundant in chs5 than in 578 579 wild-type seedlings), suggesting that the chs5 mutant is strongly impaired in its 580 plastid/thylakoid function when grown in axenic conditions. Among 15 proteins that were more 581 abundant in the wild type, we identified proteins involved in photosynthesis (2 proteins), in 582 general metabolism (2 proteins), in specialized metabolism (2 proteins), in stress response (2

proteins) and in plant development (1 protein) (Table S4, columns D and E, positive 583 **Log2FC**). Interestingly, among these proteins, we identified a β -1,3-glucanase 3, BGLU21 584 which is a β-D-glucosidase involved in scopolin, esculin, 4-MU-glucoside or DIMBOA-585 glucoside metabolism, and the 12-oxophytodienoate reductase 1 involved in the biosynthesis 586 587 of oxylipins, a class of compounds active in plant-bacteria interactions (Poloni and Schirawski 2014; Schenk and Schikora 2015; Stassen et al. 2021). The remaining 79 differential proteins 588 589 were more abundant in *chs5* than in wild-type seedlings (Table S4, columns D and E, negative Log2FC). Three proteins were enzymes involved in the plastidial isoprenoid biosynthesis: 4-590 hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl diphosphate synthase (HDS) and 4-hydroxy-3-methylbut-2-enyl 591 diphosphate reductase (HDR) acting in the isopentenyldiphosphate pathway, and 592 593 homogentisate prenyltransferase (PDS2) implied in the synthesis of plastoquinone-9. The other 594 proteins were involved in general metabolism, translation, protein folding and turnover, stress 595 response, plant development, hormone-mediated signaling pathway, or photosynthesis. In addition, 12 ribosomal proteins were more abundant in chs5 when compared to wild-type 596 597 plants. These results indicated that, under axenic and non-inoculated conditions, the chs5 598 mutant proteome differs from the wild-type proteome especially regarding proteins involved in 599 isoprenoid synthesis and photosynthesis, but also in plastidial translation, stress response and 600 in the synthesis of compounds that may play a role in bacteria-plant interactions.

3.7. S. cocklensis DSM 42063 and A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 affect the abundance of a common set of plant proteins

To assess the impact of bacteria on the wild-type or the *chs5* proteome, we first searched for proteins whose abundance was different between inoculated and non-inoculated plants. We did not detect any proteins with significant differences in abundance between *Streptomycetacea*-inoculated and non-inoculated wild-type plants. In contrast, *A*.

bryophytorum- or S. cocklensis-inoculated chs5 plants displayed 24 and 23 differentially 607 608 abundant proteins, respectively, compared to non-inoculated chs5 plants (Table S4, columns F and G, and J and K, respectively). The abundance of 4 proteins (2 are involved in 609 610 photosynthesis (AT1G31330.1 (PSAF) and AT5G64040.2 (PSAN), one is involved in translation, and one has an unknown function), were lower when inoculated with either A. 611 bryophytorum or S. cocklensis, as compared to non-inoculated chs5. Conversely, the abundance 612 613 of ELIP1 protein (AT3G22840.1) inhibiting the entire chlorophyll biosynthesis pathway, was 614 higher in inoculated as compared to non-inoculated mutant plants. These observations suggested that both bacteria could modulate these same 5 proteins of the chs5 mutant, 3 are 615 616 involved in photosynthesis. We observed a significant reduction of the green intensity (Fig. S6A) and a reduction of chlorophylls a and b and xantophyll and carotenoid contents in chs5 617 618 (Fig. S6B) inoculated with those bacteria as compared to the inoculated wild-type plants, or in 619 chs5 inoculated with A. bryophytorum as compared to non-inoculated chs5. However, this decrease was correlated with the decrease of the plant surface (Fig. S7). When pigments were 620 621 quantified per mg of dry weight, a higher amount of those pigments was observed in chs5 622 inoculated with S. cocklensis.

623 For plants inoculated with each bacterial strain, we compared the proteomes of wild 624 type vs chs5 (Table S4, columns H and I or L and M). In these comparisons, we checked 625 whether plant proteins were common when inoculated with either bacterium. The abundance of a common set of 81 proteins varied between wild-type or *chs5* seedlings inoculated with A. 626 bryophytorum or S. cocklensis, 21 of those proteins were already described as differentially 627 628 abundant between non-inoculated wild-type and mutant plants. The 60 other proteins are known to exert functions in photosynthesis (13 proteins), general metabolism (7 proteins), translation 629 (7 proteins), protein folding or turnover (8 proteins), stress response (9 proteins) and 8 proteins 630 were related to phytohormone metabolism: ABA metabolism, perception or functions 631

(AT3G08590.1, Phosphoglycerate mutase, AT5G13630.1 magnesium-chelatase subunit *chlH*)
or proteins implied in biosynthesis or signaling pathways of jasmonate (AT4G22240.1 Plastidlipid associated protein PAP, AT4G04020.1 fibrillin) and auxin (AT1G06000.1 UDPGlycosyltransferase superfamily protein, AT5G64110.1 and AT1G05240.1 Peroxidase
superfamily protein, AT3G44300.1 nitrilase 2) (Table S4). These results strongly suggest that
both bacteria have some common effect on plant stress responses and phytohormone
homeostasis.

639 3.8. S. cocklensis modulates the abundance of specific proteins involved in various 640 cellular processes in chs5

641 Beyond the common core proteome that vary upon colonization of both bacteria strains (see below), the abundance of 18 other proteins was different in the chs5 seedlings inoculated 642 643 with S. cocklensis, compared to the non-inoculated ones (Table S4, columns J and K) (5.82% 644 FDR, p-value below 0.000437). Inoculation of chs5 with S. cocklensis led to an increase of 2 645 proteins as compared to non-inoculated seedlings: the photoreceptor PHOT1 (AT3G45780.1) 646 that regulates stomata opening and leaf photomorphogenesis, and a chloroplast thylakoid 647 protein kinase AT5G01920.1. Inoculation of chs5 with S. cocklensis also led to a decrease of 16 proteins, four of them being related to general metabolism and among those a 1,2-alpha-L-648 fucosidase FUC95A (AT4G34260.1) possibly acting on cell wall remodeling. Other proteins 649 650 are involved in oxidative stress response, translocation of proteins or lipids across chloroplasts 651 or mitochondria membranes (AT2G28900.1, AT2G38540.1, and AT5G43970.1), and one 652 protein, profilin 2 (AT4G29350.1), regulates the organization of the actin cytoskeleton.

Analysis of functional annotation enrichment in *chs5* plants inoculated with *S. cocklensis* relative to wild-type inoculated plants, and in comparison with the same analysis in non-inoculated plants (**Fig. 5**) suggests that *S. cocklensis* disrupts several biological processes

or molecular functions in wild-type or chs5 seedlings. A comparison of the proteomes of wild-656 657 type and mutant seedlings inoculated with S. cocklensis pointed out a variation in abundance of 195 proteins (0.99% FDR, p-value below 0.000661) (Table S4, columns L and M), 101 had 658 659 already been identified in the non-inoculated seedlings or were also differentially abundant 660 between wild-type and mutant plant inoculated with A. bryophytorum (Table S4). Among the remaining 94 S. cocklensis specific proteins, the abundance of 58 proteins was higher in chs5 661 662 than in the wild-type plants inoculated with S. cocklensis. Some of these upregulated proteins 663 were related to general metabolism (9 proteins), translation or ribosome biogenesis (27 proteins), stress response (3 proteins), defense of plants against pathogens (3 proteins), ABA 664 665 homeostasis (1 proteins). The abundance of 36 specific proteins was higher in the inoculated wild-type than in chs5 plants. These proteins had functions in photosynthesis (11 proteins), 666 667 general metabolism (7 proteins), stress response (2 proteins), and defense of plants against 668 pathogens (5 proteins) (Table S4).

3.9. In the presence of *A. bryophytorum*, the abundance of specific proteins involved in the ABA-mediated stress response was altered in the *chs5* mutant.

Beyond the common core of proteins that vary upon colonization of both bacteria strains 671 (see below), the abundance of 19 specific proteins (4.55% FDR, *p*-value below 0.000363) was 672 different in the chs5 seedlings inoculated with A. bryophytorum, compared to the non-673 674 inoculated ones (Table S4, columns F and G). Seedlings of the chs5 mutant exhibited an 675 increase in the abundance of 8 proteins when inoculated with A. bryophytorum. Among those, 676 Fibrillarin 2, a negative regulator of the expression of immune responsive genes, AT1G13930.1, a protein categorized as salt stress responsive, and AT1G06000.1 an UDP-677 678 Glycosyltransferase acting in flavonol biosynthesis. Seedlings of the chs5 mutant inoculated 679 with A. bryophytorum exhibited also a decrease of the abundance of 11 proteins, among which the oxylipin biosynthetic enzyme allene oxide synthase CYP74A (AT5G42650.1), two proteins 680

681 probably associated with the light/cold stress-related jasmonate (JA) biosynthesis 682 (AT1G77490.1 and AT2G35490.1), and PCAP1 (plasma-membrane associated cation-binding 683 protein, AT4G20260.4) and PATL1 (AT3G14210.1) and PATL2 (AT1G22530.1), which are 684 phosphoinositide interacting proteins involved in membrane-trafficking events associated with 685 cell plate formation during cytokinesis.

Analysis of functional annotation enrichment in chs5 plants inoculated with A. 686 bryophytorum relative to wild-type inoculated plants, and in comparison with the same analysis 687 688 in non-inoculated plants, suggests that this bacterium modulates the abundance of abiotic stressrelated proteins (Fig. 5). A comparison of the proteomes of wild-type and mutant plants 689 690 inoculated with A. bryophytorum revealed that the abundance of 157 proteins varied (0.98% 691 FDR, p-value below 0.000525) (Table S4, columns H and I), among which 90 had already been discussed previously when comparing non-inoculated wild-type and mutant seedlings or 692 693 were identified as differentially abundant in wild type vs mutant plant inoculated with S. cocklensis (see previous paragraphs). Among the remaining 67 A. bryophytorum specific 694 695 proteins), the abundance of 20 proteins was higher in *chs5* than in the wild type when inoculated 696 with A. bryophytorum, especially proteins involved in general metabolism (4 proteins), in 697 translation or ribosome biogenesis (3 proteins), stress response (2 proteins) and ABA 698 homeostasis (1 proteins) (Table S4). A set of 47 proteins was specifically more abundant in the 699 wild-type than in mutant plants, some of which being involved in photosynthesis (18 proteins), 700 general metabolism (3 proteins), stress response (6 proteins) and auxin, ABA and jasmonate homeostasis (3 proteins). These results suggest that in the presence of A. bryophytorum, chs5 701 702 seedlings exhibit different metabolism, photosynthesis capacities, and responses to stress, in 703 particular those related to ABA, jasmonate and auxin, as compared to the wild type.

In conclusion, it appears that proteomes from *chs5* seedlings colonized by *S. cocklensis*or *A. bryophytorum* are broadly modified when compared to the proteome of axenic *chs5*

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706 seedlings. Overall, the differences between wild-type and mutant proteomes of inoculated 707 seedlings are proteins of a wide range of functions, even more so than in non-inoculated seedlings. Both bacteria apparently affect the abundance of a common set of proteins known to 708 709 play a role in photosynthesis. Nevertheless, in addition to this common set, these two bacteria 710 modify the abundance of different Arabidopsis proteins associated with various cellular 711 processes like phytohormone homeostasis or stress responses. Such a change in the proteome 712 profiles of *chs5* is most likely responsible, at least in part, for its reduced growth, particularly in the presence of A. bryophytorum (Fig. 4). 713

714 **4. DISCUSSION**

715 Plant organs and tissues are the hosts of microbial communities (or microbiota) that 716 consequently form holobiont entities. Our previous work revealed that the metabolic status of 717 A. thaliana was crucial for the colonization of Streptomycetaceae into the microbiota, in 718 particular, those affiliated to A. bryophytorum and S. cocklensis (Graindorge et al. 2022). The 719 aim of this work was to study the interaction between wild-type or mutant A. thaliana and A. 720 bryophytorum DSM 42138 and S. cocklensis DSM 42063, isolated from moss and soil, 721 respectively (Kim et al. 2012; Li et al. 2016). We indeed confirmed that these two bacteria colonize A. thaliana. The results presented here demonstrate a decreased colonization of A. 722 723 bryophytorum and S. cocklensis in the chs5 mutant that carries a weak allele of the gene coding 724 for DXS1, a key enzyme of the plastidial MEP pathway, as compared to the wild type. This is 725 in full accordance with our previous observations suggesting that colonization and/or growth 726 of A. bryophytorum or S. cocklensis are reduced when these bacteria interact with this chs5 mutant (Graindorge et al. 2022). Since the chs5 mutant has defects in the synthesis of 727 728 isoprenoids, phenylpropanoids and lipids, these metabolites could participate in the recruitment 729 of A. bryophytorum and S. cocklensis by the wild-type plant, and /or colonization or bacterial growth when associated to the host plant. In this study, in addition to metabolites, we observed 730

significant variations in the *chs5* proteome, compared to the wild type. The detailed proteome
analysis of the *chs5* mutant confirms a major deficit of the plastid/thylakoid function.
Interestingly, we also observed variation in the abundance of proteins related to stress
responses, photosynthesis and hormone homeostasis or perception. We cannot exclude that
those variations may directly or indirectly affect bacterial colonization.

This study enabled us to study the mechanisms of interactions between 736 737 Streptomycetaceae and Arabidopsis. When associated with their host, A. bryophytorum and S. 738 cocklensis expressed proteins involved in xylose import and a glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase, suggesting that xylose can be used by the bacteria and further transformed via 739 740 the glycolysis pathway. Interestingly, xylose is one of the most important carbohydrate 741 produced in Arabidopsis roots (Peng et al. 2000). Other proteins expressed by the bacteria may 742 be important for their interaction with their host. For example, S. cocklensis expressed an 743 adenosylhomocysteinase and A. bryophytorum expressed a protein, SBRY v2 40138, which is 744 an aldo-keto reductase involved in the biosynthesis of monoterpenoid indole alkaloids. 745 Interestingly, proteins containing an aldo-keto reductase domain (Pfam00248) were enriched 746 in the genome of plant-associated bacteria, suggesting that metabolites generated by such enzymatic activity may be important for plant-bacteria interactions (Levy et al. 2017). These 747 748 proteomic data suggest that a metabolic interaction is possible between A. thaliana and A. 749 bryophytorum or S. cocklensis.

Streptomycetaceae have the capacities to promote growth of plants (PGP) (Olanrewaju and Babalola 2019). We observed that *S. cocklensis* had a temporary minor but significant PGP effect on wild-type *Arabidopsis thaliana* using the seedling growth bioassay described in this work. This bacterium exhibit genes for the synthesis of IAA, which may be responsible for this PGP effect, as previously observed with other *Streptomycetaceae* (Fu et al. 2022). This minor PGP effect was not observed when the *chs5* mutant seedlings were inoculated with *S*.

cocklensis, and a negative effect on growth was visible in the case of *chs5* inoculated with *A*. *bryophytorum*. These observations suggest that the *chs5* seedlings, but not the wild-type
seedlings, have several defects and must withstand adverse conditions when inoculated with *A*. *bryophytorum*. Thus, the interaction between *Arabidopsis* and these two *Streptomycetaceae*could be defined as neutral in a wild-type context but, in the case of *A*. *bryophytorum*, harmful
in the *chs5* background where isoprenoid, phenylpropanoid and lipid syntheses are partially
impaired.

763 Both bacteria modulate the plant *chs5* proteome, revealing that colonization by these bacteria influences plant physiology. A. bryophytorum and S. cocklensis share a common effect 764 765 on plant stress responses and phytohormone homeostasis. However, each bacterium also has specific effects on the Arabidopsis proteome, as shown in Figure 5. The abundance of proteins 766 767 involved in general metabolism was different between the wild-type and the chs5 seedlings 768 inoculated with S. cocklensis DSM 42063, whereas the abundance of proteins implied in the response to abiotic stresses was different between the wild-type and in chs5 seedlings 769 770 inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138. These variations could be at least partly 771 responsible for the reduced growth of *chs5* in the presence of *A. bryophytorum*. Inoculation of chs5 with this strain led to an increase of the fibrillarin 2 that acts as a negative regulator of the 772 773 expression of immune responsive genes, and of a protein involved in the regulation of abscisic 774 acid (ABA) biosynthesis (AT1G13930.1). This observation indicates that A. bryophytorum may directly or indirectly manipulate the immune response of its mutated host or modulate ABA 775 homeostasis. This effect on plant immune response or ABA homeostasis may indirectly play a 776 777 role in the abiotic stress response (drought or salinity for example) and/or change the capacity 778 of the plant to resist to pathogens. A. bryophytorum may therefore modulate the induced 779 systemic response (ISR) (Pinski et al. 2019; Vlot et al. 2021). Remarkably, chs5 plants were less efficiently colonized by bacteria affiliated to Streptomycetaceae and were more sensitive 780

781 to Pseudomonas syringae infection when grown in holoxenic conditions (Graindorge et al. 782 2022). The Streptomycetacea-dependent tuning of the Arabidopsis immune response observed in this study under gnotoxenic conditions could be in part responsible for the increased 783 784 pathogen susceptibility of the chs5 mutant observed previously under holoxenic conditions (Graindorge et al. 2022). However, further studies are needed to characterize a possible 785 modulation of the immune response induced by A. bryophytorum. In addition, other indirect 786 787 effect could be proposed to explain the above observations. For example, these bacteria have 788 the capacity to produce antibiotics, which is crucial for the biocontrol effect previously described for such bacteria (van der Meij et al. 2017; Olanrewaju and Babalola 2019). S. 789 790 cocklensis produces the antibiotic dioxamycin (Kim et al. 2012). S. cocklensis and A. *bryophytorum* probably produce other antibiotics, since we found in their genomes more than 791 792 30 clusters of genes with a putative role in the synthesis of antibiotic and specialized 793 metabolites.

794 Our data revealed that each bacterial strain had distinct effect on their host and the 795 genomic content of A. bryophytorum and S. cocklensis was different in terms of gene content, 796 for example genes involved in plant-bacteria interactions. A. bryophytorum and S. cocklensis are two phylogenetically closely related strains but the genomic data indicate that the variable 797 798 genome otherwise known as dispensable genome of these two Streptomycetaceae strains 799 encompass 45.3 and 38.3% of the predicted ORFs. In fact, genomes of Streptomycetaceae 800 strains are indeed quite divergent with large dispensable regions localized in the sub-telomeric 801 part of their linear genome (Kim et al. 2015; Bu et al. 2020).

Finally, the results presented here are consistent with a specific selection of *Streptomycetaceae* by *Arabidopsis* via signals or perception mechanisms involving isoprenoids, phenylpropanoids and/or lipids. Database searches suggest that bacteria affiliated to *S. cocklensis* or *A. bryophytorum* are found in the microbiota of other plants. It is therefore most

806	likely that the bacterial effect observed here in the case of Arabidopsis could also be observed
807	with other plants. Overall, the work presented here provides a better understanding of the
808	molecular mechanisms involved in the interaction between Streptomycetaceae and A. thaliana
809	and, more broadly, the selection mechanisms of the plant microbiota.
810 **5.** CONFLICT OF INTEREST:

811 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

812 6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

813 H.S. warmly thanks Toshiya Muranaka and Koh Iba for a gift of Arabidopsis thaliana chs5 814 seeds. This work was supported by the Université de Strasbourg (UdS) and the Centre National 815 de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS). The LABGeM (CEA/Genoscope & CNRS UMR8030), the France Génomique and French Bioinformatics Institute national infrastructures (funded as 816 part of Investissement d'Avenir program managed by Agence Nationale pour la Recherche, 817 818 contracts ANR-10-INBS-09 and ANR-11-INBS-0013) are acknowledged for support within the MicroScope annotation platform. The French Proteomic Infrastructure (ProFI; ANR-10-819 820 INBS-08-03, FR2048) is acknowledged for its support in the MS-based proteomics analysis.

821 7. AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M.R., S.G, S.K., C.C., H.S. and F.A.-P. conceived, planned, and designed the research. F.A-P.
performed extraction and quantification of chlorophylls and carotenoids. S.G., S.K. and F.A-P
performed microbiota profiling. S.K. A.A. and V.C. sequenced and assembled the bacterial
genomes. M.R. and C.C conducted MS-proteomics experiments and data analysis. J.M.
quantified the rosette surface and green intensity using Image J. M.E. performed electron
microscopy. F.A.-P. performed *in vitro* experiments and analyzed proteomic and genomic data.
H.S. and F.A.-P. wrote the manuscript.

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1048 LEGENDS TO FIGURES

1049 Figure 1. Schematic representation of the major metabolic capacities in A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063. These

- 1050 capacities were ascertained using genomic data. Blue, Plant-bacteria interaction capacities of S. cocklensis DSM 42063; Green, Plant-bacteria
- interaction capacities of *A. bryophytorum* DSM 42138; Red, Carbon and phosphate metabolism capacities of both bacteria. Created with
 BioRender.com.
- 1053 Figure 2. Electronic microscopy of seeds and leaves of wild-type (WT) or chs5 mutant A. thaliana inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM

1054 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063. (A) Bacteria observed on the seed surface 4 days after inoculation. (B) Leaves of wild-type seedlings

- 1055 inoculated with S. cocklensis DSM 42063. Pictures were taken 24 days after inoculation. Bacteria are indicated by an arrow. NI: Non-inoculated.
- +42063: inoculated with S. cocklensis DSM 42063. +42138: inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138.

1057 Figure 3. Normalized abundance of the OTUs identified as A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063.

- 1058 *p*-values (ANOVA) were calculated for the two major OTUs, cluster-2 and cluster-3 corresponding to *A. bryophytorum* DSM 42138 or *S. cocklensis*
- 1059 DSM 42063. *: *p*-values < 0,05; **: *p*-values < 0,01.

1060 Figure 4. Growth of wild-type (WT) or chs5 mutant seedlings inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063.

- 1061 Total seedling surface was measured using Image J, 24 (left) and 31 (right) days after inoculation- NI: Non-inoculated. The statistical relevance
- 1062 was analyzed using a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test and the *p*-value were evaluated with a Dunn test and the Bonferroni correction. (A: X²(5)
- 1063 = 40.15, *p*-value ≤ 0.0001 , n = 478; (b): X²(5) = 216.36, *p*-value ≤ 0.0001 , n = 478). ***: *p*-value $\le 10^{-4}$; **** *p*-value $\le 10^{-5}$.

Figure 5. Effect of bacterial inoculations on the *Arabidopsis thaliana* proteome. The Benjamini *p*-value (-log10) (y-axis) calculated for each GO term was plotted against the number of *A. thaliana* differentially expressed proteins related to one GO term (x-axis). The GO terms were arranged in three categories (molecular functions in red, biological processes in green and cellular components in blue). The bubbles size illustrates the fold enrichment for each GO term. NI: Non-inoculated. +42063: inoculated with *S. cocklensis* DSM 42063. +42138: inoculated with *A. bryophytorum* DSM 42138.



Figure 1. Schematic representation of the major metabolic capacities in A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063. These capacities were ascertained using genomic data. Blue, Plant-bacteria interaction capacities of S. cocklensis DSM 42063; Green, Plant-bacteria interaction capacities of A. bryophytorum DSM 42138; Red, Carbon and phosphate metabolism capacities of both bacteria. Created with BioRender.com.

254x177mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Figure 2. Electronic microscopy of seeds and leaves of wild-type (WT) or chs5 mutant A. thaliana inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063. (A) Bacteria observed on the seed surface 4 days after inoculation. (B) Leaves of wild-type seedlings inoculated with S. cocklensis DSM 42063. Pictures were taken 24 days after inoculation. Bacteria are indicated by an arrow. NI: Non-inoculated. +42063: inoculated with S. cocklensis DSM 42063. +42138: inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138.

1237x875mm (144 x 144 DPI)



- Figure 3. Normalized abundance of the OTUs identified as A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063.
 - p-values (ANOVA) were calculated for the two major OTUs, cluster-2 and cluster-3 corresponding to A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063. *: p-values < 0,05; **: p-values < 0,01.

338x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Figure 4. Growth of wild-type (WT) or chs5 mutant seedlings inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063. Total seedling surface was measured using Image J, 24 (left) and 31 (right) days after inoculation- NI: Non-inoculated. The statistical relevance was analyzed using a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test and the p-value were evaluated with a Dunn test and the Bonferroni correction. (A: X2(5) = 40.15, p-value ≤ 0.0001, n = 478; (b): X2(5) = 216.36, p-value ≤ 0.0001, n = 478). ***: p-value ≤ 10-4; **** p-value ≤ 10-5.

1228x531mm (144 x 144 DPI)



Figure 5. Effect of bacterial inoculations on the Arabidopsis thaliana proteome. The Benjamini p-value (log10) (y-axis) calculated for each GO term was plotted against the number of A. thaliana differentially expressed proteins related to one GO term (x-axis). The GO terms were arranged in three categories (molecular functions in red, biological processes in green and cellular components in blue). The bubbles size illustrates the fold enrichment for each GO term. NI: Non-inoculated. +42063: inoculated with S. cocklensis DSM 42063. +42138: inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138.

1182x620mm (144 x 144 DPI)

1 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

2

3	Figure S1: Mash-based Phylogram generated with 187 Streptomycetaceae whole genomes.
4	Mash distances are computed with kmer size = 18 and sketch size = 5000 . Colors group the
5	different species. Contaminated or incomplete genomes (not associated to MICGC clusters) are
6	displayed in black. The pairwise genome distance were calculated using Mash, which strongly
7	correlates with the Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) (Ondov et al. 2016; Konstantinidis and
8	Tiedje 2005).
9	Figure S2. Pan-, Variable- and Core-genome of A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S.
10	cocklensis DSM 42063. The Venn diagram shows the specific or shared families of genes.
11	Figure S3. Observations of wild-type (WT) or chs5 mutant seedlings inoculated with A.
12	bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063. The Seedlings have been
13	photographed 24 days after inoculation.
14	Figure S4. Additional pictures for electronic microscopy of seeds and leaves of wild-type
15	(WT) or chs5 mutant A. thaliana inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S.
16	cocklensis DSM 42063. (A) Bacteria observed on the seed surface 0 (DO), 1 (D1) or 4 (D4)
17	days after inoculation. (B) Electronic microscopy of leaves from wild-type seedlings inoculated
18	with S. cocklensis DSM 42063. Pictures were taken 24 days after inoculation. Bacteria are
19	indicated by an arrow. NI: Non-inoculated. +42063: inoculated with S. cocklensis DSM 42063.
20	+42138: inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138.
21	Figure S5. Comparison of the abundance (%) of the different phyla, identified in the wild
22	type (WT) or chs5 mutant seedlings during in vitro studies. (A) The relative abundance of
23	each phylum in the total microbiota is expressed after down-sampling. (B) Total normalized

24 abundance of the OTUs identified. *p*-values are indicated for the two major OTUs, cluster-2

and cluster-3. No: no bacterium. mut = *chs5*. Sbry = inoculated with *A. bryophytorum*. Scoc =
inoculated with *S. cocklensis*.

Figure S6: Green intensity and chlorophylls contents of wild-type (WT) or chs5 seedlings 27 inoculated with A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 or S. cocklensis DSM 42063. (A) The green 28 intensity of seedlings was measured using Image J, after 24 days of inoculation. The statistical 29 relevance was analyzed using a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test and the *p*-values were 30 evaluated with a Dunn test and the Bonferroni correction. (A: $X^2(5) = 130.87$, *p*-value ≤ 0.0001 , 31 n = 478. *: p-value $\leq 10^{-3}$; **** p-value $\leq 10^{-6}$). (B) Chlorophyll a and b, xanthophylls and 32 carotenoids content was shown for 15 plants. (C) Chlorophyll a and b, xanthophylls and 33 34 carotenoids quantities were expressed per mg dry weight. ca: concentration of chlorophyll a; cb: 35 concentration of chlorophyll b; $c_{(x+c)}$: concentration of xanthophylls and carotenes. The normality and equality of variances were verified with a Shapiro-Wilk test and a Bartlett test, 36 respectively, and a statistical one-way ANOVA test was performed. NS: non-significant. NI: 37 Non-inoculated. +42063: inoculated with S. cocklensis DSM 42063. +42138: inoculated with 38 39 A. bryophytorum DSM 42138.

Figure S7: Correlation curve between surface and green intensity of plants grown *in vitro*.
Pearson's product-moment correlation was calculated. *p*-values are presented on each graph.
Significant correlation was assigned when *p*-value <0.01. WT: wild type. NI: Non-inoculated.
+ DSM 42063: inoculated with *S. cocklensis* DSM 42063. +DSM 42138: inoculated with *A. bryophytorum* DSM 42138.

45 SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

46	Table S1: Primers	used for 16S RNA	encoding gene	amplification
10			cheorening gene	amphilication

Name	of	Sequences	reference	
the prim	ler			
799F			(Bulgarelli et	al.
			2013; Schlaer	ppi
			et al. 2014)	
799F1		5'-TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGAACMGGATTAGATACCCKG-3'	(Graindorge	et
-			al. 2022)	
799F2		5'-TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGTAACMGGATTAGATACCCKG-3'	(Graindorge	et
-			al. 2022)	
799F3		5'-TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGGTAACMGGATTAGATACCCKG-3'	(Graindorge	et
70054			al. 2022)	
799F4		5'-TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGCGAAACMGGATTAGATACCCKG-3'	(Graindorge	et
70055			al. 2022)	- 4
/99F5		3 - 1COTCOCAGCOTCAGATOTOTATAAGAGACAGATGAAACMOGATTAGATACCCKG- 3	(Graindorge	et
700E6		5' TCCTCCCCACCCTCACATCTCTATAACACACACTCCCAAACMCCATTACATACCCKC 2'	al. 2022) (Craindorgo	ot
79910		J-ICOICOOCAOCOICAOAIOIOIAIAAOAOACAOIOCOAAACMOOAIIAOAIACCCKO-J	al 2022)	εı
799F7		5' _TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGGAGTGGAACMGGATTAGATACCCKG_ 3'	(Graindorge	et
			(01a11d01ge)	Cl
1193R		5' -TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGCTTGTGGAACMGGATTAGATACCCKG- 3'	(Graindorge	et
11/011			al. 2022)	
1193R1		5'-GTCTCGTGGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGACGTCATCCCCACCTTCC-3'	(Bulgarelli et	al.
			2013; Schlaer	ppi
			et al. 2014)	
1193R2		5'-GTCTCGTGGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGTACGTCATCCCCACCTTCC-3'	(Graindorge	et
			al. 2022)	
1193R3		5'-GTCTCGTGGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGGTACGTCATCCCCACCTTCC-3'	(Graindorge	et
			al. 2022)	

1193R4	5'-GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGCGAACGTCATCCCCACCTTCC-3'	(Graindorge al. 2022)	et
1193R5	5' -GTCTCGTGGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGATGAACGTCATCCCCACCTTCC- 3'	(Graindorge al. 2022)	et
1193R6	5' -GTCTCGTGGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGTGCGAACGTCATCCCCACCTTCC- 3'	(Graindorge al. 2022)	et
1193R7	5' -GTCTCGTGGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGGAGTGGACGTCATCCCCACCTTCC- 3'	(Graindorge al. 2022)	et
	5' -GTCTCGTGGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGCTTGTGGACGTCATCCCCACCTTCC- 3'	(Graindorge al. 2022)	et

Genome characteristics	DSM42063	DSM42138
Size (bp)	9153011	8071242
GC-content (%)	72.05	72.50
Predicted CDS	9117	8046
Genome coding (%)	88.44	90.27
Average CDS size (bp)	940.3	979.03
Number of tRNA	20	20
Number of 16S encoding gene	1	1
ORF of unknown function (%)	3232 (35.45)	2707 (33.67)
Repetitive regions (%) ^a	9.37	8.44
Nb of scaffold	135	23
Completeness (%) ^b	99.47	99.47
Putative genes involved in plant-bacteria interactions		
Polymer degradation Genes involved in metabolism of Nitrogen fixation	1,4-β-xylan, cellulose, glycogen, and chitin fructose, D-mannose, L- arabinose, lactose, ribose and xylose nd ^c	1,4-β-xylan, cellulose, glycogen, and chitin fructose, D-mannose, L- arabinose, lactose, ribose and xylose nd ^c
Siderophore	SCOCK_v1_190099- SCOCK_v1_190102, SCOCK_v1_310026 (<i>rhbACDF</i>), SCOCK_v1_500009- SCOCK_v1_500011 and SCOCK_v1_220108- SCOCK_v1_220110 (<i>feuV-fepDG</i> , <i>gobMP</i>), SCOCK_v1_100083- SCOCK_v1_100086 ^d (<i>pvsABCDE</i>)	SBRY_v2_60544- SBRY_v2_60547, SBRY_v2_20954 (<i>rhbACDF</i>), SBRY_v2_30340- SBRY_v2_30344 and SBRY_v2_40121- SBRY_v2_40124 (<i>feuV-fepDG</i> , <i>gobMP</i>)
Phosphate acquisition	SCOCK_v1_20358 (gpm) SCOCK_v1_210117 SCOCK_v1_320067 (sapM) SCOCK_v1_430054 (gpm)	SBRY_v2_20102 (gpm) SBRY_v2_20729 (sapM) SBRY_v2_40074 SBRY_v2_140108 (gpm)
<i>Quorum sensing</i> A-factor synthesis (γ- butyrolactone)	SCOCK_v1_30036 (<i>barS</i>) ^d , SCOCK_v1_60217 and SCOCK_v1_70112 ^d	SBRY_v2_50115

Table S2. General characteristics of the S. cocklensis DSM 42063 and A. bryophytorum DSM 42138 genomes.

Number of genes encoding putative butyrolactone receptors or butyrolactone binding proteins	29	27
<i>Phytohormone homeostasis</i> ACC-deaminase IAA synthesis	SCOCK_v1_360062 (<i>acdS</i>) SCOCK_v1_140087 (indole acetamide hydrolase) ^d and SCOCK_v1_270097 (tryptophan 2-	SBRY_v2_10788 (<i>acdS</i>) SBRY_v2_70106 (tryptophan 2- monooxygenase),
Cytokinine synthesis	SCOCK_v1_390035, SCOCK_v1_130169 (<i>log</i>)	SBRY_v2_10668, SBRY_v2_11141 (<i>log</i>), SBRY_v2_100168 (<i>fas5</i>) ^d
Secondary metabolites Number of BGCs (AntiSMASH)	37 carotenoids (isorenieratene), antibiotics or antifungal compounds (griseusins, Curamycin), bioactive molecules (alkylresorcinol, pristinol, 1-heptadecene, ketomemicin), VOCs (geosmin, 2- methylisoborneol)	30 carotenoids (isorenieratene), antibiotics or antifungal compounds (griseusins, Curamycin), antibacterial lipopeptide rhizomide, bioactive molecules (alkylresorcinol, pristinol, 1-heptadecene), VOCs (geosmin, 2- methylisoborneol)
Biofilm formation and regulation Number of genes involved in colanic acid synthesis Protein domain enriched in	21 genes (SCOCK_v1_280106 ^d) SCOCK_v1_190032 (<i>vbfA</i>), SCOCK_v1_100057 and SCOCK_v1_250124 (<i>bdcA</i>)	18 genes SBRY_v2_60465 (<i>vbfA</i>), SBRY_v2_11100 (<i>bdcA</i>)
<i>plant- associated</i> Streptomycetaceae ^e Pfam00295 (Glycosyl hydrolases family 28) Pfam02705 (putative potassium transport system protein kup)	SCOCK_v1_150111 ^d SCOCK_v1_60101 ^d	SBRY_v2_100229 ^d SBRY_v2_50187 ^d
Pfam03239 (iron transporter FTR1 family) Pfam16355 (Beta- galactosidase)	SCOCK_v1_140217, SCOCK_v1_20006 SCOCK_v1_60045	SBRY_v2_20515, SBRY_v2_40652 SBRY_v2_50249

Pfam00190 (Cupin)	SCOCK_v1_70084	SBRY_v2_30541
Pfam00544 (Pectate lyase)	SCOCK_v1_590017,	SBRY_v2_40509,
	SCOCK_v1_80248	SBRY_v2_40889
Pfam01095 (Pectinesterase)	SCOCK_v1_380033,	SBRY_v2_120034,
	SCOCK_v1_400051	SBRY_v2_40833
Pfam01179 (Copper amine	SCOCK_v1_140167 ^d ,	SBRY_v2_70400
oxidase, enzyme domain)	SCOCK_v1_170004	
Pfam01301 (Glycosyl	SCOCK_v1_110049,	SBRY_v2_130007,
hydrolases family 35)	SCOCK_v1_170044,	SBRY_v2_40253,
	SCOCK_v1_280088,	SBRY_v2_40751,
	SCOCK_v1_770022	SBRY_v2_80165
Pfam02727 (Copper amine	SCOCK_v1_170004	SBRY_v2_70400
oxidase, N2 domain)		
Pfam02728 (Copper amine	SCOCK_v1_170004	SBRY_v2_70400
oxidase, N3 domain)		
	1.1 4. 1 1 1 4 1 1	$(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{I}\mathbf{Y})1$ by 1

50 ^aCalculation of repetitive regions did not include undetermined ('N') bases. ^bCompleteness

51 was estimated using CheckM (Parks et al. 2015). ^cnd : Not found. ^dStrain-specific genes.

⁵² ^ePfam domains reproducibly enriched in plant-associated *Streptomycetaceae* genomes

53 predicted with five independent statistical approach by (Levy et al. 2017), or plant-resembling

54 plant-associated and root-associated domains (PREPARADOs) enriched in plant associated

55 *Streptomycetaceae* and highlighted by (Levy et al. 2017).

<u>57</u>

Table S3. Bacterial proteins identified in plan	ts inoculated with A. bryoph	ytorum or S. cocklensis	
Accession	Found in plants/inoculated	Description	Function
Bacterial proteins identified with A. bryophyto	orum or 5. cocklensis specifi	c peptides (7 proteins)	
SBRY_v2_100019 ID:85706936	Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	ABC transporter substrate- binding protein	[G] Carbohydrate transport and metabolism
SCOCK42063_v1_650034 ID:72902332 ahcY	Col-0 /S. cocklensis	Adenosylhomocysteinase	[H] Coenzyme transport and metabolism,
SCOCK42063_v1_70039 ID:72896013	Col-0 /S. cocklensis	Arylsulfotransferase (ASST)	[S] Function unknown
SBRY_v2_10287 ID:85700244 groEL	Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	Chaperonin large subunit	[O] Post-translational modification, protein turnover, and chaperones
SBRY_v2_10186 ID:85700143 rpsG	Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	Ribosomal protein S7	[J] Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis
SCOCK42063_v1_120081 ID:72897190 rp1A	Col-0 /S. cocklensis	Ribosomal protein L1	[J] Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis
SBRY_v2_60368 ID:85705648	Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	D-xylose transport system substrate-binding protein	[G] Carbohydrate transport and metabolism
Restarial proteins identified with populdes me	taking with both A howards	starum and S cachlangia prot	coomes (16 proteins)
SCOCK42063_v1_200106 ID:72898820 rpsF or SBRY_v2_50631 ID:85705042 rpsF or 15 other trembl accession	Col-0 /S. cocklensis	30S ribosomal protein S6	[J] Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis
SBRY_v2_30377 ID:85702840 groEL or SCOCK42063_v1_220073 ID:72899145 groEL or 340 other trembl accession	Col-0 /S. cocklensis ; Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	Chaperonin large subunit	[O] Post-translational modification, protein turnover, and chaperones

SBRY_v2_10077 ID:85700034 cspC or SCOCK42063_v1_710030 ID:72902524 cspC or 6 other trembl accession	Col-0 /S. cocklensis; Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	Cold-shock protein	[K] Transcription
SBRY_v2_11162 ID:85701119 serA or SCOCK42063_v1_130144 ID:72897479 serA	Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	D-3-phosphoglycerate dehydrogenase	[E] Amino acid transport and metabolism
SBRY_v2_30075 ID:85702538 eno or SCOCK42063_v1_90166 ID:72896669 eno or tr A0A1M7F5J0 A0A1M7F5J0_9ACTN	Col-0 /S. cocklensis; Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	Enolase	[G] Carbohydrate transport and metabolism
SBRY_v2_110199 ID:85707376 or tr A0A1M7PAY2 A0A1M7PAY2_9ACTN	Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	Putative thiosulfate sulfurtransferase	[P] Inorganic ion transport and metabolism
SBRY_v2_30380 ID:85702843 or SCOCK42063_v1_220068 ID:72899140 or 764 other trembl accession	Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	Threonine synthase	[E] Amino acid transport and metabolism
SBRY_v2_40138 ID:85703601 or tr A0A0M8VEZ0 A0A0M8VEZ0_9ACTN or tr A0A560XHT1 A0A560XHT1_9ACTN or tr A0A5P1YKK5 A0A5P1YKK5_STRTE	Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	Predicted oxidoreductase	[C] Energy production and conversion
SCOCK42063_v1_130048 ID:72897383 rpsB or SBRY_v2_11262 ID:85701219 rpsB or 587 other trembl accession	Col-0 /S. cocklensis	30S ribosomal protein S2	[J] Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis
SBRY_v2_11343 ID:85701300 rpsO or SCOCK42063_v1_510009 ID:72901676 rpsO or 243 other trembl accession	Col-0 /S. cocklensis	Ribosomal protein S15	[J] Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis
SBRY_v2_60368 ID:85705648 or SCOCK42063_v1_600017 ID:72902098 or tr A0A1M7LJ96 A0A1M7LJ96_9ACTN	Col-0 /S. cocklensis; Col-0 /A. bryophytorum; Chs-5 /A. bryophytorum	D-xylose transport system substrate-binding protein	[G] Carbohydrate transport and metabolism

SBRY_v2_20998 ID:85702307 gapA or 6 other trembl accession	Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (NAD- dependent, glycolytic)	[G] Carbohydrate transport and metabolism
SBRY_v2_10241 ID:85700198 rplE or SCOCK42063_v1_120131 ID:72897240 rplE or 119 other trembl accession	Col-0 /A. bryophytorum	Ribosomal protein L5	[J] Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis
SCOCK42063_v1_120136 ID:72897245 rpsE or SBRY_v2_10246 ID:85700203 rpsE or 6 other trembl accession	Col-0 /S. cocklensis	30S ribosomal protein S5	[J] Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis
SCOCK42063_v1_230015 ID:72899241 gapA or tr A0A1M7DMT1 A0A1M7DMT1_9ACTN	Col-0 /S. cocklensis	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (NAD- dependent, glycolytic)	[G] Carbohydrate transport and metabolism
SCOCK42063_v1_520034 ID:72901741 or tr A0A1H0KDK6 A0A1H0KDK6_9ACTN or tr A0A4U0SP23 A0A4U0SP23_9ACTN	Col-0 /S. cocklensis	NitT/TauT family transport system substrate-binding protein	[P] Inorganic ion transport and metabolism

59 Table S4: *A. thaliana* proteins differentially abundant in the wild type as compared to *chs5*, and/or in inoculated or non-inoculated plants

60 cultivated *in vitro*. NS: Non-Significant. LogFC: Log2Fold Change

Figure S1 1.10e-1 Streptomyces sp. AA4 (Streptomyces sp. AA4) -- [MICGC1070] 8.97e-2 Streptomyces otsuchiensis OTB305 (Streptomyces otsuchiensis) -- [MICGC4051] 7.90e-2 Streptomyces sp. AA0539 (Streptomyces sp. AA0539) -- [MICGC2235] 7.86e-2 Streptomyces triticirhizae NEAU-YY642 (Streptomyces triticirhizae) -- [MICGC4059] 7.55e-2 Streptomyces hoynatensis KCTC 29097 (Streptomyces hoynatensis) -- [MICGC4083] 9.07e-2 Streptomyces sulphureus DSM 40104 (Streptomyces sulphureus) -- [MICGC4080] 9.09e-2 ____Streptomyces sp. CNZ301 (Streptomyces sp. CNZ301) -- [MICGC4076] Streptomyces sp. AA1529 (Streptomyces sp. AA1529) -- [MICGC2236] 4.82e-2 7.06e-3 Streptomyces nanshensis 10374 (Streptomyces nanshensis) -- [MICGC2236] 1.37e-2 ____Streptomyces sp. CNZ279 (Streptomyces sp. CNZ279) -- [MICGC4065] 5.28e-2 1.20e-2 _____Streptomyces sp. CNZ298 (Streptomyces sp. CNZ298) -- [MICGC4065] 6.45e-2 _ Streptomyces sp. HPH0547 (Streptomyces sp. HPH0547) -- [MICGC1815] 7.15e-2 Streptomyces sp. NHF165 (Streptomyces sp. NHF165) -- [MICGC4072] 9.54e-3 Streptomyces sp. CNZ306 (Streptomyces sp. CNZ306) -- [MICGC978] ●.37e-3_ Streptomyces sp. CNZ288 (Streptomyces sp. CNZ288) -- [MICGC978] _ Streptomyces sp. CNS335 (Streptomyces sp. CNS335) -- [MICGC978] 2.19e-2 Streptomyces sp. CNY243 (Streptomyces sp. CNY243) -- [MICGC978] 4.92e-2 1.08e-2 Streptomyces sp. CNZ289 (Streptomyces sp. CNZ289) -- [MICGC978] 3.50e-2 Streptomyces sp. CNZ287 (Streptomyces sp. CNZ287) -- [MICGC4067] 8.91e-3 _____ Streptomyces lavendulae subsp. lavendulae CCM 3239 (Streptomyces lavendulae) -- [MICGC2846] 4.07e-2 4.38e-2 💶 Streptomyces lavendulae subsp. lavendulae JCM 4055 🔰 (Streptomyces lavendulae) 4.90e-2 2.45e-2 Streptomyces sp. C (Streptomyces sp. C) -- [MICGC974] 6.12e-2 Streptomyces katrae NRRL B-16271 (Streptomyces katrae) -- [MICGC3656] 7.60e-2 Streptomyces pristinaespiralis ATCC 25486 (Streptomyces pristinaespiralis) -- [MICGC2327] 6.73e-2 Streptomyces sp. CNT372 (Streptomyces sp. CNT372) -- [MICGC980] <u>8.86e-3</u> Streptomyces clavuligerus ATCC 27064 PRJNA28551 (Streptomyces clavuligerus) 7.16e-2 _ Streptomyces clavuligerus ATCC 27064 (Streptomyces clavuligerus) -- [MICGC1885] 9.03e-3 L_Streptomyces clavuligerus ATCC 27064 PRJNA42475 (Streptomyces clavuligerus) -- [MICGC1885] 7.69e-2 Streptomyces qinzhouensis SSL-25 (Streptomyces qinzhouensis) -- [MICGC4055] 9.09e-3 _____ Streptomyces sp. CNS615 (Streptomyces sp. CNS615) -- [MICGC977] 7.17e-2 .81e-3 Streptomyces sp. CNT302 (Streptomyces sp. CNT302) -- [MICGC977] 7.34e-2 Streptomyces somaliensis DSM 40738 (Streptomyces somaliensis) -- [MICGC2221] 5.77e-2 Streptomyces albulus B-3066 (Streptomyces albulus) -- [MICGC3655] 1.02e-2 6.19e-2 • Streptomyces sp. NRRL S-118 (Streptomyces sp. NRRL S-118) -- [MICGC3657] 6.96e-2 Streptomyces purpureus KA281 (Streptomyces purpureus) -- [MICGC817] 4.64e-2 Streptomyces venezuelae ATCC 10712 (Streptomyces venezuelae) -- [MICGC587] 2.19e-2 4.73e-2 🔔 Streptomyces globisporus subsp. globisporus NRRL B-2293 (Streptomyces globisporus) -- [MICGC3879] 7.85e-2 Streptomyces paludis GSSD-12 (Streptomyces paludis) -- [MICGC4056] 4.19e-2 Streptomyces niveus NCIMB 11891 (Streptomyces niveus) -- [MICGC821] 3.47e-2 4.48e-2 🗕 Streptomyces niveus SCSIO 3406 (Streptomyces niveus) -- [MICGC2985] 5.81e-2 Streptomyces nitrosporeus ATCC 12769 (Streptomyces nitrosporeus) -- [MICGC3893] • Streptomyces sp. DvalAA-83 (Streptomyces sp. DvalAA-83) -- [MICGC1972] Streptomyces sp. DpondAA-E10 (Streptomyces sp. DpondAA-E10) -- [MICGC1972] 4.21e-2 Streptomyces sp. SirexAA-E (Streptomyces sp. SirexAA-E) -- [MICGC1972] 1.16e-2 Streptomyces halstedii NRRL ISP-5068 (Streptomyces halstedii) -- [MICGC3865] 4.79e-2 7.02e-3 🕇 Streptomyces griseolus NRRL B-2925 (Streptomyces griseolus) -- [MICGC3865] Streptomyces pratensis ATCC 33331 (Streptomyces pratensis) -- [MICGC166] 4.34e-2 1.80e-2 Streptomyces sp. PAMC26508 (Streptomyces sp. PAMC 26508) -- [MICGC166] 4.86e-2 Streptomyces atroolivaceus NRRL ISP-5137 (Streptomyces atroolivaceus) -- [MICGC3880] 6.04e-2 ___Streptomyces sp. AW19M42 (Streptomyces sp. AW19M42) -- [MICGC4066] 4.14e-2 Streptomyces sp. ATexAB-D23 (Streptomyces sp. ATexAB-D23) -- [MICGC976] 1.05e-2 , Streptomyces sp. KhCrAH-244 (Streptomyces sp. KhCrAH-244) -- [MICGC1818] 4.49e-2 7.30e-3 Streptomyces sp. KhCrAH-340 (Streptomyces sp. KhCrAH-340) -- [MICGC1818] 5.75e-2 ____Streptomyces atratus OK807 (Streptomyces atratus) -- [MICGC4111] 7.93e-3 1.14e-2 4.90e-2 Streptomyces atratus OK008 (Streptomyces atratus) -- [MICGC4107] 1.24e-2 4.76e-2 Streptomyces sp. ok210 0K210 (Streptomyces sp. ok210) -- [MICGC4137] 3.81e-2 Streptomyces sp. CcalMP-8W (Streptomyces sp. CcalMP-8W) -- [MICGC973] 1.14e-2 🔔 Streptomyces fulvissimus DSM 40593 (Streptomyces microflavus) -- [MICGC582] 2.43e-2 Streptomyces microflavus NBRC 13062 (Streptomyces microflavus) -- [MICGC582] 3.14e-2 Streptomyces sp. ScaeMP-e10 (Streptomyces sp. ScaeMP-e10) -- [MICGC582] 1.78e-2





Figure S2









Figure S5



Relative abundance after down-sampling









Chlorophyll a





Chlorophyll b









Xanthophylls and carotenes

NS

chs5 +42138











