

# 1    **Unveiling potato cultivars with microbiome interactive traits for**

## 2    **sustainable agricultural production**

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23 ties, plant-microbiome interactions, plant holobiont

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 Root traits significantly shape rhizosphere microbiomes, yet their interaction with mi-  
26 crobes is often overlooked in plant breeding programs. Here, we propose that selecting  
27 modern cultivars based on microbiome interactive traits (MITs), such as root biomass,  
28 exudate patterns and the rhizosphere microbiome, can enhance agricultural sustainabil-  
29 ity by interacting effectively with soil microbiomes, which in turn, promotes plant  
30 growth and resistance to stress, thereby reducing reliance on synthetic crop protectants.

31 Through a stepwise selection process (*in silico* and *in vitro*) that started with approxi-  
32 mately 1000 potato genotypes, we chose 51 potato cultivars based on known phenotypi-  
33 cal properties and distinct root exudate patterns. We conducted a greenhouse experi-  
34 ment to evaluate their capacity to interact with the soil microbiome and to assess their  
35 MITs. Our findings revealed that cultivars significantly influence plant growth, metabo-  
36 lite profiles, and rhizosphere fungal community composition. Moreover, we observed a  
37 positive correlation between microbial community diversity and root biomass. Addi-  
38 tionally, leaf metabolites were correlated with rhizosphere bacterial composition, sup-  
39 porting the plant holobiont framework. Utilising z-scores, we aggregated all data related  
40 to plant growth, metabolomes, and microbiomes, creating a classification of 51 cultivars

41 based on a gradient of MITs. By examining the distribution of low, medium, and high  
42 MITs, we identified a group of 11 potato cultivars suitable for further studies to assess  
43 their resilience and productivity under low-input production systems. This study pro-  
44 vides an in-depth correlation between microbiome and several plant traits across 51 cul-  
45 tivars, offering tools to facilitate and expedite the incorporation of microbiome traits  
46 into breeding goals to support sustainable agriculture.

47

## 48 **1 INTRODUCTION**

49 Potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) cultivations rely heavily on conventional agricultural  
50 practices as a staple crop. Conventional management, which includes the widespread  
51 use of synthetic fertilisers and pesticides, is frequently used to enhance yields and pro-  
52 tect crops from pests and diseases (Timsina, 2018). However, this dependency on syn-  
53 thetic compounds comes with substantial environmental issues. Overusing chemical  
54 inputs in conventional agriculture leads to water pollution, soil degradation, and soil  
55 microbial biomass and activity reduction, which are crucial in maintaining soil fertility  
56 and nutrient cycling (AL-Ani et al., 2019; Tripathi et al., 2020). Balancing high yields  
57 with care for our environment is a critical challenge in the breeding of crops.

58 In conventional breeding, plants are bred for traits such as high yield, disease resistance,  
59 tolerance to environmental stresses, and improved agronomic traits (Breseghezzo and  
60 Coelho, 2013). While pivotal in crop development, conventional breeding has inadver-  
61 tently led to the dissociation between plant and soil microbiomes, negatively affecting  
62 beneficial plant-microbiome interactions (Spor et al., 2020). Comparisons between do-

63 mesticated cultivars and their ancestral plants revealed that the rhizosphere microbiome  
64 of the latter exhibited higher complexity and connectivity (da Silva et al., 2023;  
65 Rossmann et al., 2020). However, relying solely on ancestral or wild plants may not ef-  
66 fectively address the challenge of optimising plant-soil microbiome interactions in mod-  
67 ern agricultural systems. Identifying specific genes associated with beneficial micro-  
68 biomes in ancestral plants, with the aim of a subsequent transfer to modern crops  
69 (Clouse and Wagner, 2021), is complex due to environmental effects on gene expression  
70 (Raaijmakers and Kiers, 2022). Despite the reduced focus on plant-microbiome interac-  
71 tions during domestication (Wei and Jousset, 2017), multiple studies have demon-  
72 strated that inoculating modern crop cultivars with beneficial microbes can significantly  
73 enhance plant growth and stress resistance (Diagne et al., 2020; Fröhlich et al., 2012;  
74 Rodriguez et al., 2019; Tiwari et al., 2017). This suggests that modern cultivars retain  
75 the capacity for beneficial interactions with soil microbes, which can be leveraged or  
76 strengthened. Therefore, it is critical to identify gene markers associated with beneficial  
77 microbiomes in modern crops and apply this knowledge in real-world agricultural sys-  
78 tems, particularly in the context of climate change.

79 The connection between root traits and plant productivity in crops has long been ac-  
80 knowledged, as roots are involved in resource acquisition, drought tolerance, soil explo-  
81 ration and other essential functions (Lynch, 1995; Ober et al., 2021). It is increasingly  
82 evident that our understanding of this connection should extend to how root traits  
83 shape the composition and functionality of the rhizosphere microbiome. While this as-  
84 pect has received somewhat limited attention within plant breeding (Herms et al., 2022),  
85 many studies highlight the role of root traits in the rhizosphere microbiome. For in-

86 stance, a study on maize revealed that wild maize had a significant impact on the struc-  
87 ture of the microbial community, which was attributed to a high root-to-shoot biomass  
88 ratio (Szoboszlay et al., 2015). Plant root traits influence the soil microbial community  
89 by modulating the fungi-to-bacteria ratio, contributing to nutrient cycling (Wan et al.,  
90 2021). Moreover, a study involving beans (Pérez-Jaramillo et al., 2017) indicated that  
91 root architecture is linked to increased specific bacterial taxa, which could be connected  
92 to plant health. In addition to the root system, root exudates substantially impact the  
93 rhizosphere microbiome. As a survival strategy, plants secrete an abundance of com-  
94 pounds in their root exudates that can influence the diversity of the rhizosphere micro-  
95 bial community, promote the development of a more complex microbial network and  
96 enhance microbial carbon cycling, thereby facilitating the growth and survival of the  
97 host (Wang et al., 2022). A study on wheat has demonstrated that cultivars with a strong  
98 capacity for root exudates contribute to increased soil microbial diversity (Iannucci et al.,  
99 2021). Furthermore, the plant-associated microbial community is increasingly consid-  
100 ered an extension of the plant phenotype (Bergelson et al., 2021; Whitham et al., 2003).  
101 Referred to as the plant's "second genome", plant-associated microbiome is strongly  
102 regulated by the plant's genetic makeup (Turner et al., 2013). This suggests that a culti-  
103 var harbouring a more diverse community has a great potential to engage in beneficial  
104 interaction with microbes.

105 Here, we propose a method for identifying plant cultivars that foster beneficial interac-  
106 tions with the soil microbiome. We achieve this by assessing the microbiome interactive  
107 traits (MITs) of existing potato cultivars within the European potato germplasm bank.  
108 We hypothesise that root architecture and exudate patterns significantly influence the

109 rhizosphere microbiome. By combining these traits, we propose a classification of culti-  
110 vars with different MITs. Beginning with approximately 1000 potato genotypes, we em-  
111 ployed a stepwise selection process, conducting *in silico*, *in vitro*, and greenhouse-based  
112 studies to examine the correlation between the plant traits of 51 potato cultivars and  
113 their rhizosphere microbial communities. We advocate for including MITs in breeding  
114 and the development of new crop cultivars. By prioritising these interactive traits, we  
115 can significantly enhance our understanding of plant-microbiome interactions while  
116 supporting microbiome-based innovation, which are essential for achieving sustainable  
117 agricultural practices.

118

## 119 **2 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 120 **2.1 *In situ* analyses**

121 In this project, we began our selection by screening late-season potato cultivars from a  
122 database of one thousand potato cultivars. Considering that disease-resistant plants are  
123 known to interact with beneficial microbes to bolster host immunity (Wille et al., 2019)  
124 and that these traits might be associated with their genetic background, we screened  
125 these cultivars from various resistance levels to numerous pathogens, especially those  
126 relating to potato-specific viruses (Table S1). The resistance scale was assessed using the  
127 method described by Michalak and Chrzanowska (2017). Detailed information on se-  
128 lected cultivars is available in The European Cultivated Potato Database  
129 ([www.europotato.org](http://www.europotato.org)). This selection resulted in a list of 148 to be used in the second  
130 selection round, which included a commercial cultivar, Desiree, as a reference.

131 **2.2 *In vitro* experiment**

132 For the second selection, the 148 cultivars including Desiree were evaluated according to  
133 the amount of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in the root exudates of 6-week-old *in vi-*  
134 *tro* plants grown under sterile conditions (cf. section 2.1). Specifically, two-week-old  
135 potato plantlets grown from vegetative propagation in tissue culture at the Institute of  
136 Plant Breeding and Acclimation in Bonin (Bonin, Poland) were transplanted from agar  
137 tubes into 15 ml Eppendorf tubes, each containing 12 ml of sterile 0.5 x Hoagland solu-  
138 tion. The agar was carefully removed from the roots of each plant, and to ensure aseptic  
139 conditions, sterile cotton wool was wrapped around the above-ground part of the plant-  
140 lets, which were then gently placed into the 15 ml tubes. The roots were submerged in  
141 the Hoagland medium, while the above-ground part remained above it. The plantlets  
142 were allowed to acclimate to their new environment during a one-week growth period in  
143 a controlled climate chamber. The climate chamber maintained a temperature of 22 °C  
144 during the day and 18 °C at night, with a photoperiod of 16 hours of light and 8 hours of  
145 darkness. Upon completion of the initial week, the plantlets were transferred to new  
146 sterile 15 mL tubes, maintaining the 12 ml sterile 0.5 x Hoagland solution, as described  
147 in the previous step. To compensate for the liquid lost during the experiment, sterile  
148 water was added to maintain the volume at 12 ml. After the third week, the plants were  
149 harvested, and root and shoot length and dry weight were measured. Additionally, 3 ml  
150 aliquots of the growth medium were collected and frozen for DOC analysis. Moreover, 1  
151 ml aliquots were freeze-dried for root exudate metabolite analysis (cf. section 2.4). The  
152 samples were immediately stored at -80 °C until further analysis. The DOC content

153 analysis was later processed in Helmholtz Zentrum München GmbH (Munich, Germany)  
154 (Data S1).

155 The data based on DOC content of the growth medium per root dry weight and shoot  
156 dry weight from the *in vitro* experiment revealed the variation among cultivars (Figure  
157 S1 and Table S2). We then selected a representative set of 50 cultivars plus the commer-  
158 cial cultivar, Desiree, representing the whole variation in DOC, for the third selection  
159 round in a greenhouse experiment.

160 **2.3 Greenhouse experiment**

161 The soil used in this experiment originated from a sugar beet field and was sieved with a  
162 2 mm sieve. Before starting the experiment, six bulk soil samples were kept for physico-  
163 chemical analyses (Table S3) and DNA extraction. Two-week-old potato plantlets grown  
164 from vegetative propagation in tissue culture at the Institute of Plant Breeding and Ac-  
165 climation in Bonin (Bonin, Poland) were transplanted from agar tubes into small pots  
166 containing soil (0.5 L) in the greenhouse. Before transplanting, the agar was carefully as-  
167 preciously described to ensure aseptic conditions. After two weeks of acclimatisation,  
168 the potato plants were transplanted into larger pots with the same soil (1.45 L). In the  
169 sixth week, the samples were taken as follows: Plant leaves, specifically the second or  
170 third leaf from the shoot top, were harvested for metabolomics analysis. The harvested  
171 leaves were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and then transferred to a freezer at -80 °C.  
172 The rhizosphere soil was obtained by gently brushing off adhering soil from the roots  
173 with a disposable toothbrush. Additionally, six bulk soil samples were collected from  
174 pots without plants for physicochemical analyses (Table S3) and DNA extraction. The

175 soil samples for DNA analysis were frozen at -20 °C until DNA extraction the following  
176 day. Shoot height and root length were measured on the day of harvesting, and shoot  
177 and root dry weights were measured after drying at 60 °C for at least 48 hours.

178 **2.4 Metabolite profiling of root exudates and leaf tissue**

179 Metabolite fractions enriched for primary metabolites were profiled by gas chromatog-  
180 raphy and electron impact ionisation-time of flight mass spectrometry (GC/EI-TOF-MS)  
181 (Lisec et al., 2006; Erban et al., 2020). Root exudate samples, i.e. equal debris-free 1 mL  
182 volumes, of the *in vitro* experiment, cf. section 2.2, were freeze-dried directly without  
183 further sample preparation. A polar metabolite fraction was prepared from 50 mg snap-  
184 frozen leaf samples of the greenhouse experiment, cf. section 2.3. The frozen samples  
185 were extracted by a water-methanol-chloroform solvent mixture; a polar fraction was  
186 prepared from the extracts by water-induced liquid-liquid phase separation and dried in  
187 a speed-vacuum-concentrator, as described earlier (Erban et al., 2020). The dried frac-  
188 tions were subjected to methoxyamination and trimethylsilylation prior to GC/EI-TOF-  
189 MS analysis. <sup>13</sup>C<sub>6</sub> Sorbitol was added to all leaf samples before metabolite extraction  
190 (Erban et al., 2020). N-alkanes were added to each sample upon chemical derivatisation  
191 for subsequent retention index (RI) calibration (Erban et al., 2020). The GC/EI-TOF-  
192 MS chromatograms were obtained and baseline adjusted by ChromaTOF software  
193 (LECO Instrumente GmbH, Mönchengladbach, Germany) and background corrected  
194 using non-sample controls. Metabolite annotation was performed using TagFinder  
195 software (Luedemann et al., 2008), the NIST17 mass spectral database (U.S. Depart-  
196 ment of Commerce, Gaithersburg, USA), and the RI and mass spectral reference data of  
197 the Golm Metabolome Database, <http://gmd.mpimp-golm.mpg.de/> (Hummel et al.,

198 2010; Kopka et al., 2005). Compounds representing known contaminants and added  
199 internal standards were removed from further analysis. Metabolites absent from more  
200 than 75% of all analysed exudates or leaf tissue samples were excluded, resulting in 84  
201 characterised leaf metabolites (Data S2) and 49 metabolites (Data S3) that were robustly  
202 present in root exudates.

203 Relative concentrations were normalised for further analyses to record the sample's  
204 fresh weight and internal standard or exudate volume (Schaarschmidt et al., 2020). An  
205 ANOVA tool was used to perform a batch correction of the metabolite data sets for dif-  
206 ferent measurement batches and the measurement sequence within batches (Lisec et al.,  
207 2011). All presented metabolite data are relative metabolite abundances. Three replicate  
208 samples per cultivar were analysed. The missing values were substituted by zero.

## 209 **2.5 Soil sample sequencing and processing**

210 DNA was extracted from 12 bulk soil samples and 153 rhizosphere samples with DNeasy  
211 PowerSoil Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) on 0.25 g of soil. DNA extraction followed the  
212 kit's instructions except for the initial stage of bead beating, which was conducted with a  
213 FastPrep-24TM 5G Instrument at 6000 rpm/s for 40 s (MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana,  
214 USA). For sequencing of the bacterial community, the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene  
215 was targeted using the primer sets 515F (5'-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGTAA-3') and 806R  
216 (5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3') (Caporaso et al., 2012, 2011). For the fungal  
217 community, the ITS2 region was sequenced with the primer sets 5.8SR (5'-  
218 TCGATGAAGAACGCGCAGCG-3') and reverse primer ITS4 (5'-  
219 TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3') (White et al., 1990). The Illumina MiSeq platform was

220 used for paired-end sequencing ( $2 \times 250$ bp for 16S,  $2 \times 300$ bp for ITS) at the PGTB  
221 (Genome Transcriptome Platform of Bordeaux, Cestas, France).

222 The 16S rRNA gene sequencing data were processed using a QIIME2 (version 2020.8)  
223 pipeline (Bolyen et al., 2019). Sequences were filtered, denoised, and dereplicated using  
224 the default setting of the Divisive Amplicon Denoising Algorithm (DADA2) plugin (Cal-  
225 lahan et al., 2016). 16S rRNA taxonomic classification was performed using the q2-  
226 feature-classifier plugin (Bokulich et al., 2018) against the SILVA database (version 138)  
227 (Yilmaz et al., 2014). ITS sequencing data was processed using the PIPITS v. 2.4 pipeline  
228 (Gweon et al., 2015). In brief, the PEAR plugin was used to join read pairs (Zhang et al.,  
229 2014). The FASTX-Toolkit was utilised for quality filtering (Gordon and Hannon, 2010).  
230 The fungal-specific ITS2 region was extracted via ITSx (version 1.1b) (Bengtsson-Palme  
231 et al., 2013). The VSEARCH 2.13.3 plugin (Rognes et al., 2016) was used to dereplicate  
232 unique sequences, clustering to 97% sequence identity, and the UNITE Uchime refer-  
233 ence dataset was used for chimera detection (Nilsson et al., 2015). Ultimately, the tax-  
234 onomy was assigned with the RDP Classifier against the UNITE database (version 8.0)  
235 (Kõljalg et al., 2013).

236 **2.6 Statistical Analysis**

237 A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test variation in plant metabolite  
238 diversity, plant performance (shoot and root growth), and rhizosphere microbial alpha  
239 diversity (Data S2-S5). Post hoc comparisons were performed through Tukey's honest  
240 significant differences or Duncan's multiple range tests.

241 Analysis of soil microbial community structure (bacteria and fungi) was performed in R  
242 (version 4.2.0). Feature tables were rarefied at 14400 reads for bacterial 16S rRNA gene  
243 and 6361 for fungal ITS sequences, resulting in 8970 amplicon sequence variants (ASVs)  
244 for the bacterial community and 2006 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) for the fun-  
245 gal community after excluding non-microbial OTUs (Data S5). The rarefactions of fea-  
246 ture tables were generated via 'rarefy' function in the package 'vegan' (Dixon, 2003). The  
247 same package was used to calculate the alpha diversity metrics for microbial communi-  
248 ties and plant metabolites. Specifically, species richness indicates the number of unique  
249 species or metabolites observed, evenness describes how evenly the abundances of dif-  
250 ferent species or metabolites are distributed, and the Shannon Diversity Index accounts  
251 for both the number of species/metabolites and their relative abundances (Jost, 2006;  
252 Wagner et al., 2018; Young and Schmidt, 2008).

253 The soil microbial community, root exudate and leaf metabolite compositions (Data S2,  
254 S3 and S5) were visualised through Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) based on  
255 Bray-Curtis distance. This analysis used the 'ape' package in R (Paradis et al., 2004).  
256 PCoA scores per axis were averaged for each sample to illustrate the distribution of dis-  
257 tinct cultivars in PCoA plots clearly. Permutational multivariate analysis of variance  
258 (PERMANOVA) was conducted using the 'adonis' function within the 'vegan' package to  
259 assess the impact of cultivars on soil microbial communities and metabolite profiles  
260 (Dixon, 2003).

261 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) based on the covariance matrix was performed  
262 with the R package 'FactoMineR' to reduce the dimensionality of the data and to visual-  
263 ise the distribution of plant cultivars (Lê et al., 2008). The variables included in the

264 analysis were shoot and root length, shoot and root dry weight, metabolite diversity and  
265 composition of plant leaf tissue and root exudates (Data S4). Due to the significant  
266 variation in root exudate relative abundance observed in the *in vitro* experiment, me-  
267 dian values were used for PCA plotting. Normalisation of plant data and metabolite  
268 richness was performed before analysis by calculating Z-scores. Subsequently, a PER-  
269 MANOVA was conducted to assess the influence of variables on the distribution of 51  
270 cultivars. The cultivars were classified into four functional groups based on their distri-  
271 bution across the first and second principal components (PC1 and PC2). The classifica-  
272 tion was done by dividing the PCA plot into four quadrants, each representing a distinct  
273 functional group of cultivars, reflecting differences in growth characteristics and me-  
274 tabolite profiles. The summarised group details can be found in Table S4.

275 To investigate the relationship between plant cultivars and rhizosphere microbiome  
276 composition, we categorised the 51 potato cultivars into four distinct functional groups.  
277 The category was determined by the distribution of cultivars and variables along the  
278 first two axes in the PCA plot.

279 The correlation between plant growth and related omics datasets (Data S4) was calcu-  
280 lated using the Spearman correlation coefficient via the 'corr.test()' function from the  
281 'psych' package in R (Revelle, 2024). The resulting p-values were adjusted using the  
282 False Discovery Rate (FDR) method to control for multiple comparisons and minimise  
283 false positives. We used the Mantel test with Spearman's rank correlation to assess the  
284 correlation between microbial community compositions and metabolite profiles, utilis-  
285 ing Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrices. This analysis aimed to investigate the relation-  
286 ship between plant leaf metabolites and rhizosphere soil community.

287 To assess the overall MIT score of 51 potato cultivars, we calculated the average of the  
288 standardised scores (z scores) for various traits, including root length, root biomass,  
289 root-to-shoot biomass ratio, root exudate metabolites richness and Shannon diversity,  
290 as well as bacterial and fungal richness and Shannon diversity (Data S6)

291 Using the 'ggsankey' R package (Sjoberg, 2021), a Sankey plot was generated based on  
292 functional groups to summarise the selection of the 11 cultivars with the most potential  
293 for future research. The distribution of rhizosphere bacterial and fungal community  
294 compositions was illustrated for the 11 selected cultivars using Spearman correlation  
295 analysis. The first axis of the PCoA plot of bacterial and fungal communities served as  
296 the indicator of community composition (Data S4).

297

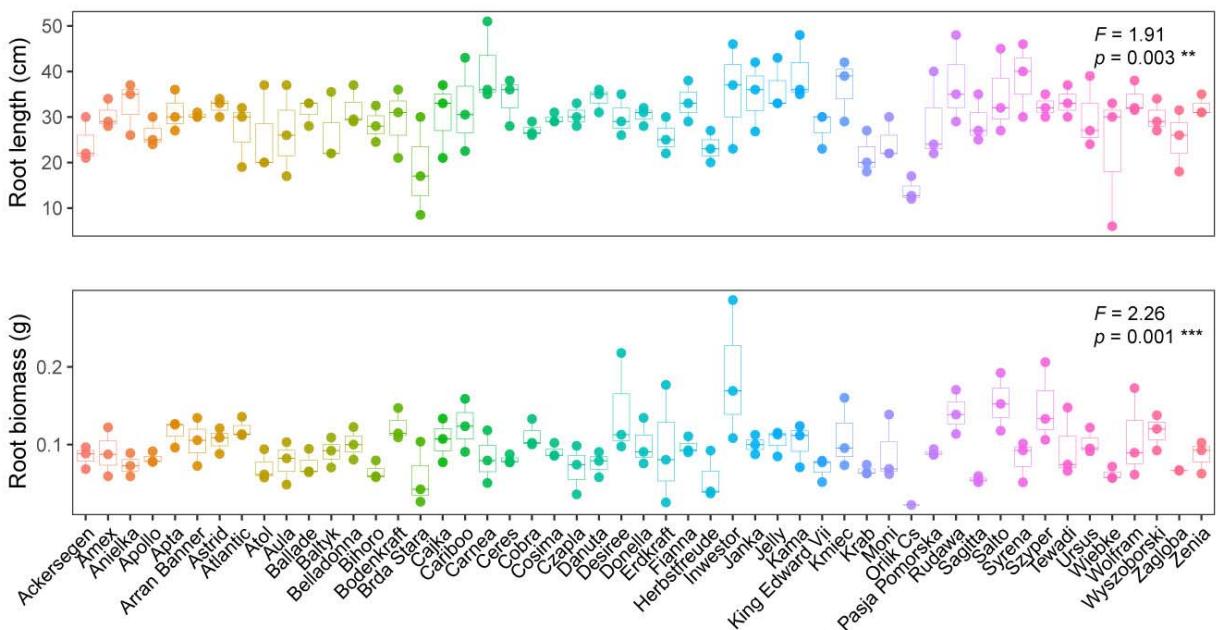
## 298 **3 RESULTS**

### 299 **3.1 Plant growth**

300 In the greenhouse experiment, plants from 51 potato cultivars were harvested from the  
301 soil in the sixth week, with plant growth varying among the cultivars. Analysis of vari-  
302 ance (ANOVA) revealed that most of these cultivars' growth patterns differed signifi-  
303 cantly according to their identity, with marked variation in both root biomass and root  
304 length (root biomass:  $p = 0.001$ ,  $F = 2.26$ ; root length:  $p = 0.003$ ,  $F = 1.91$ ; Figure 1).  
305 Specifically, the cultivars Inwestor, Salto and Szyper demonstrated higher root biomass  
306 than others. In addition, shoot length and shoot biomass varied significantly between  
307 cultivars (shoot length:  $p = 0.001$ ,  $F = 6.80$ ; shoot biomass:  $p = 0.009$ ,  $F = 1.75$ ; Figure

308 S2). Here, the cultivars Astrid, Inwestor, and Tewadi cultivars had the highest shoot  
309 biomass. Regarding the root-to-shoot ratio based on length exhibited a significant re-  
310 sponse to distinct cultivars ( $p = 0.001$ ; Figure S3) while the ratio of root-to-shoot dry  
311 weight did not show a substantial difference between the different cultivars ( $p = 0.36$ ;  
312 Figure S3).

313



314  
315 **Figure 1.** Root growth analysis of 51 potato cultivars. The upper panel displays root length, while the  
316 lower panel illustrates root dry weight. Each colour represents a distinct potato cultivar in alphabetical  
317 order. The upper right corner of each plot displays one-way ANOVA results, where the F-value explains  
318 the variation among different cultivars, and the p-value indicates the statistical relationship among culti-  
319 vars. Significance levels are denoted as \*\* ( $p = 0.01$ ) and \*\*\* ( $p = 0.001$ ).

### 320 **3.2 Plant leaf and root exudate metabolites**

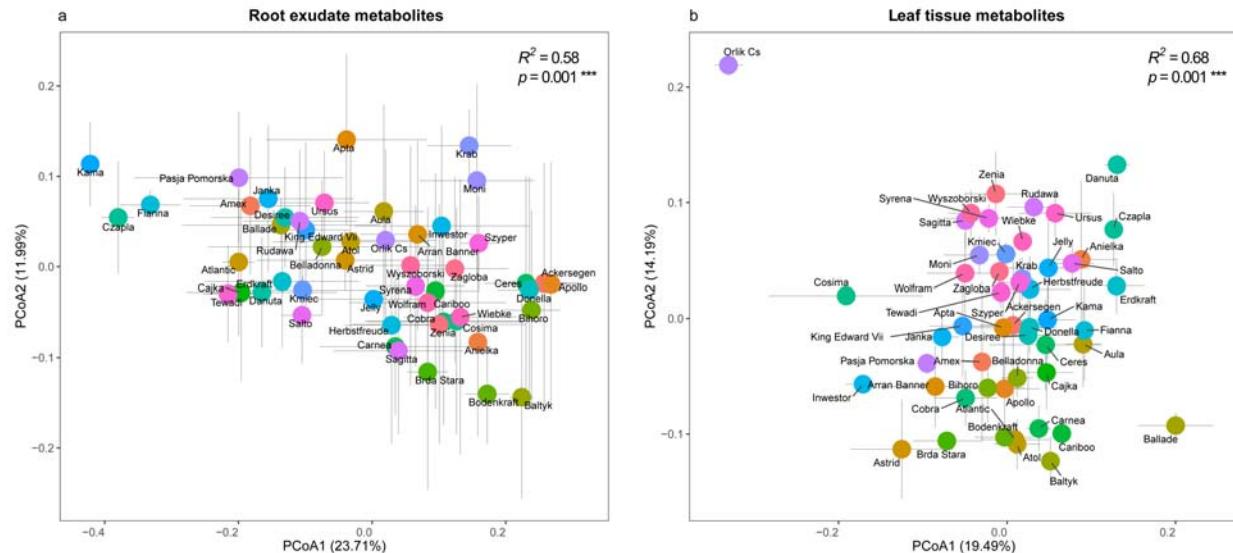
321 We further evaluated our selected 51 cultivars according to their root exudate metabo-  
322 lites (obtained under *in vitro* conditions) and leaf metabolites (obtained from the

323 greenhouse experiment). To understand the variation in metabolites produced and re-  
324 leased by the 51 potato cultivars, we conducted a Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA)  
325 and visualised the distribution of metabolites among different cultivars (Figure 2). The  
326 PERMANOVA results indicated significant differences in metabolite composition  
327 among cultivars for both root exudates and leaves ( $p_{\text{root exudate}} = 0.001$  and  $p_{\text{leaf}} = 0.001$ ;  
328 Figure 2). Overall, leaf metabolite composition was more strongly explained by plant  
329 cultivar identity than root exudate metabolites ( $R^2_{\text{leaf metabolite}} = 0.68$ , and  $R^2_{\text{root exudates}} =$   
330 0.58; Figure 2). The first two axes of the PCoA plot explained more than 34% of the  
331 variation for both metabolites.

332 Although most cultivars tended to cluster together, several cultivars stood out, suggest-  
333 ing a different metabolite profiles. Specifically, Kama, Czapla and Fianna showed dis-  
334 tinct root exudate metabolites compared to other cultivars, while Orlik Cs exhibited a  
335 unique leaf metabolite profile (Figure 2). To better illustrate the variance of remaining  
336 cultivars, we remove these four cultivars with extreme metabolites values in Figure S4.

337 Furthermore, we found that the alpha diversity of plant metabolites was significantly  
338 affected by cultivars (Table S5). These results indicate that different potato cultivars ex-  
339 hibit distinct metabolites, contributing to variations in metabolite composition among  
340 cultivars.

341



342  
343 **Figure 2.** Distribution of metabolites in root exudates and leaves across 51 different cultivars. Principal  
344 Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) based on mean Bray-Curtis dissimilarity of metabolite composition of root  
345 exudates (a) and leaves (b). Distinct potato cultivars are represented by different colours, with the error  
346 bars for each cultivar displayed in grey. PERMANOVA results are shown in the upper right corner of each  
347 panel, indicating variations in metabolite composition among different cultivars.  $R^2$  quantifies the ex-  
348 plained variation, and  $p$ -values are derived from 9999 permutations; \*\*\* denotes statistically significant  
349  $p$ -values ( $p = 0.001$ ).

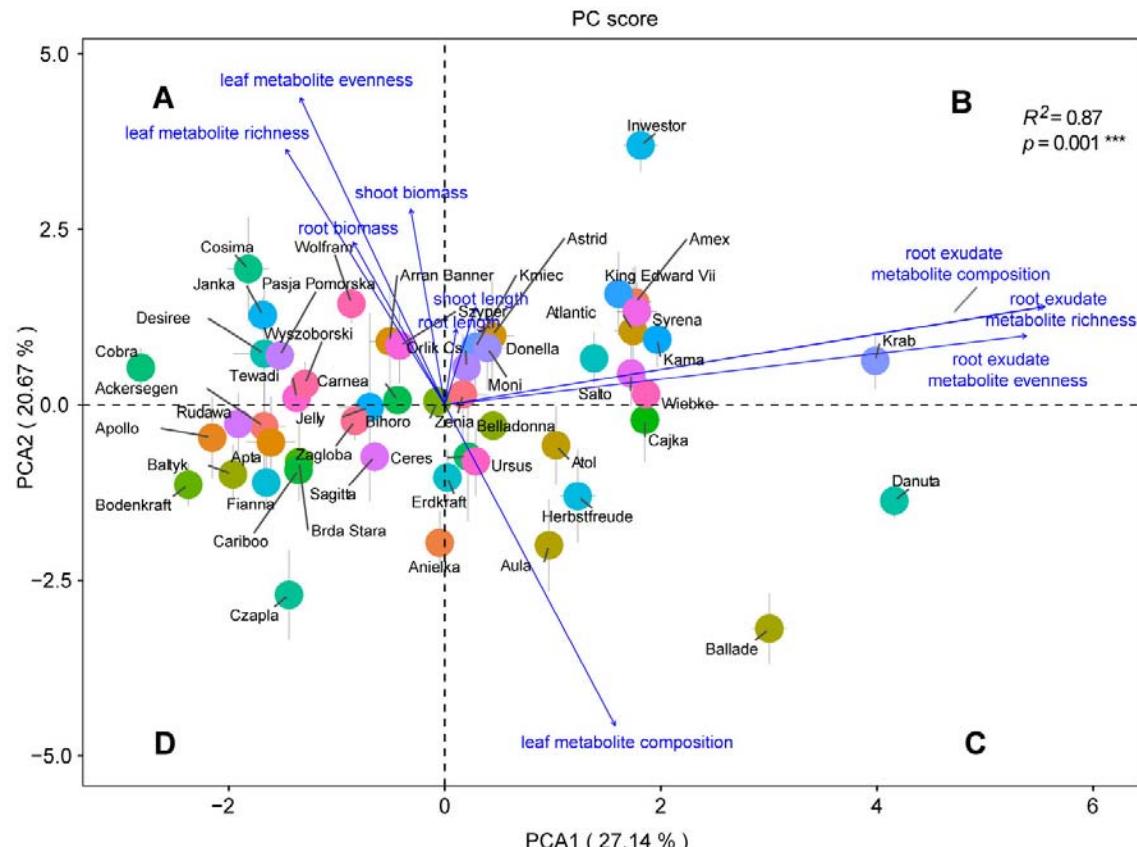
### 350 **3.3 Plant cultivar functional groups**

351 To understand the distribution of plant growth and metabolite traits across our 51 se-  
352 lected cultivars, we used PCA to classify them into functional groups (Figure 3). These  
353 were based on data on plant cultivar growth characteristics, including shoot and root  
354 growth, leaf metabolites and root exudates. This approach allowed us to consider the  
355 overall metabolite composition, encompassing alpha and beta diversity, rather than fo-  
356 cusing solely on metabolite richness and evenness. Our results revealed that the distri-  
357 bution of these traits differed significantly among different potato cultivars, as evi-  
358 denced by the results of the PERMANOVA analysis ( $p = 0.001$ ; Figure 3). Specifically,

359 the first axis of the PCA biplot prominently reflected the impact of root exudate metabo-  
360 lite diversity and composition (Figure 3). In contrast, plant performance metrics and  
361 leaf metabolite composition mainly drove the second axis.

362 Based on the distribution of cultivars and variables across the first two axes, the 51 po-  
363 tato cultivars were systematically categorised into four distinct functional groups ac-  
364 cording to their distribution in each of the four PCA quadrants (Figure 3). Group A fea-  
365 tured cultivars exhibiting high leaf metabolite diversity and plant biomass, suggesting  
366 strong performance in leaf metabolic diversity and plant development. Group B in-  
367 cluded cultivars with high root exudate diversity and plant length, indicating a focus on  
368 below-ground metabolic processes and vertical growth of plants. Group C consisted of  
369 cultivars characterised by distinct leaf metabolite composition, as this variable primarily  
370 derived the cultivars distribution within this group. These cultivars may have a distinct  
371 composition of leaf metabolites compared to other groups, indicating specific leaf meta-  
372 bolic profiles that differentiate them from other cultivars. Group D comprised cultivars  
373 with low root exudate metabolite diversity and different metabolite compositions. The  
374 summarised group details and cultivars can be found in Table S4.

375



376  
377 **Figure 3.** Distribution of 51 potato cultivars based on plant performance, root exudates and leaf metabo-  
378 lite profiles. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) based on the covariance matrix, highlighting variables  
379 impacting the distribution of potato cultivars. Distinct potato cultivars are represented by different col-  
380 ours, with the error bars for each cultivar displayed in grey. The result of PERMANOVA is shown in the  
381 upper right, elucidating the cultivar's influence on the distribution.  $R^2$  quantifies the explained variation,  
382 and p-values, derived from 9999 permutations, are denoted with \*\*\* for statistically significant results ( $p$   
383 = 0.001). Letters A, B, C and D represent the four distinct functional groups.

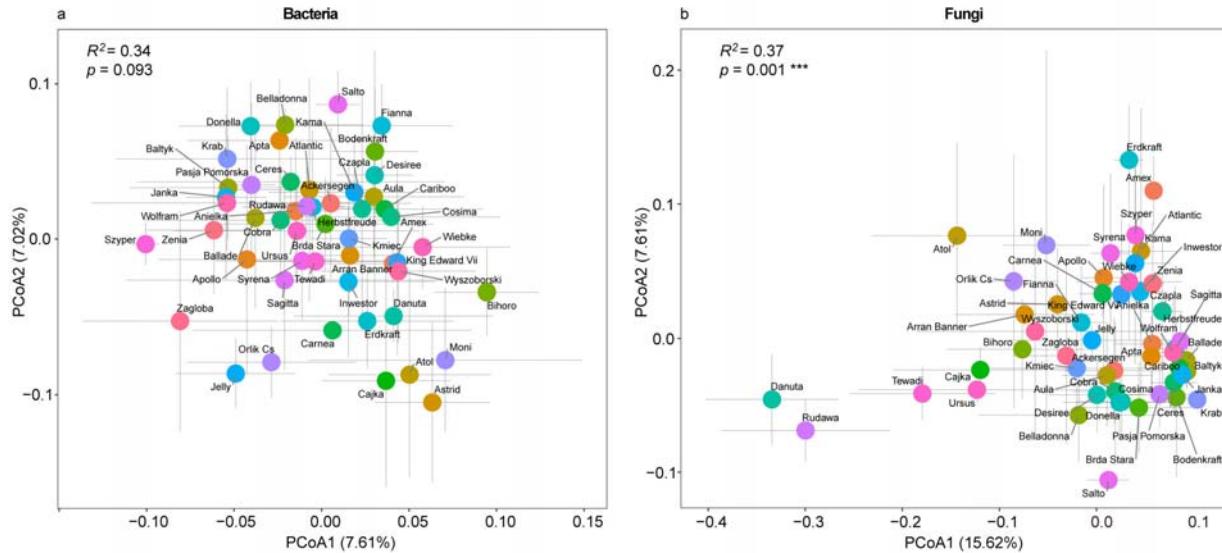
### 384 **3.4 Soil microbial communities**

385 The analysis of microbial communities in bulk and rhizosphere soil from the greenhouse  
386 experiment revealed a significant impact of plant presence on microbial communities.  
387 There was a significant difference in bacterial evenness between different soil compart-  
388 ments ( $p = 0.001$ ; Figure S5b), whereas no significant effect on fungal richness and

389 evenness ( $p > 0.05$ ; Figure S5c,d) was observed. Bacterial and fungal community com-  
390 positions responded to the presence of plants (Figure S6). Specifically, all bulk soil sam-  
391 ples were found to cluster together in bacterial communities, separate from the  
392 rhizosphere samples (Figure S6a). Some potato cultivars' rhizosphere fungal communi-  
393 ties were grouped distinctly apart from the bulk soil (Figure S6b).

394 Comparison across the 51 potato cultivars revealed considerable variation and no sig-  
395 nificant effect of cultivar on bacterial and fungal alpha diversities, except for the cultivar  
396 effect on fungal evenness ( $p = 0.03$ ; Figure S7). Plant cultivars showed no significant  
397 impact at the composition level but a trend towards influencing bacterial community  
398 distribution ( $p = 0.093$  and  $R^2 = 0.34$ ; Figure 4a). However, cultivars exhibited signifi-  
399 cant variation in fungal community composition ( $p = 0.001$  and  $R^2 = 0.37$ ; Figure 4b),  
400 indicating that cultivars can significantly influence the fungal community composition  
401 within their rhizosphere.

402



403 **Figure 4.** Rhizosphere microbial community composition. Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) based  
 404 on mean Bray-Curtis dissimilarity of community composition of bacteria (a) and fungi (b). Distinct potato  
 405 cultivars are represented by different colours, with the error bars for each cultivar displayed in grey.  
 406 PERMANOVA results in the upper left corner of each panel elucidate the influence of cultivars on com-  
 407 munity composition.  $R^2$  quantifies the explained variation, and  $p$ -values are derived from 9999 permuta-  
 408 tions. The symbol \*\*\* denotes statistically significant  $p$ -values ( $p = 0.001$ ).  
 409

410 Grouping the cultivars in the functional groups determined by MIT revealed no signifi-  
411 cant differences in the alpha diversity of bacterial and fungal communities between the  
412 different functional groups ( $p > 0.05$ ; Figure S8). Similarly, the composition of  
413 rhizosphere microbial communities did not vary among the functional groups ( $p_{\text{bacteria}} =$   
414 0.49 and  $p_{\text{fungi}} = 0.14$ ; Figure S9).

### 415 **3.5 Correlation between plant traits, metabolites and rhizosphere micro- 416 biome**

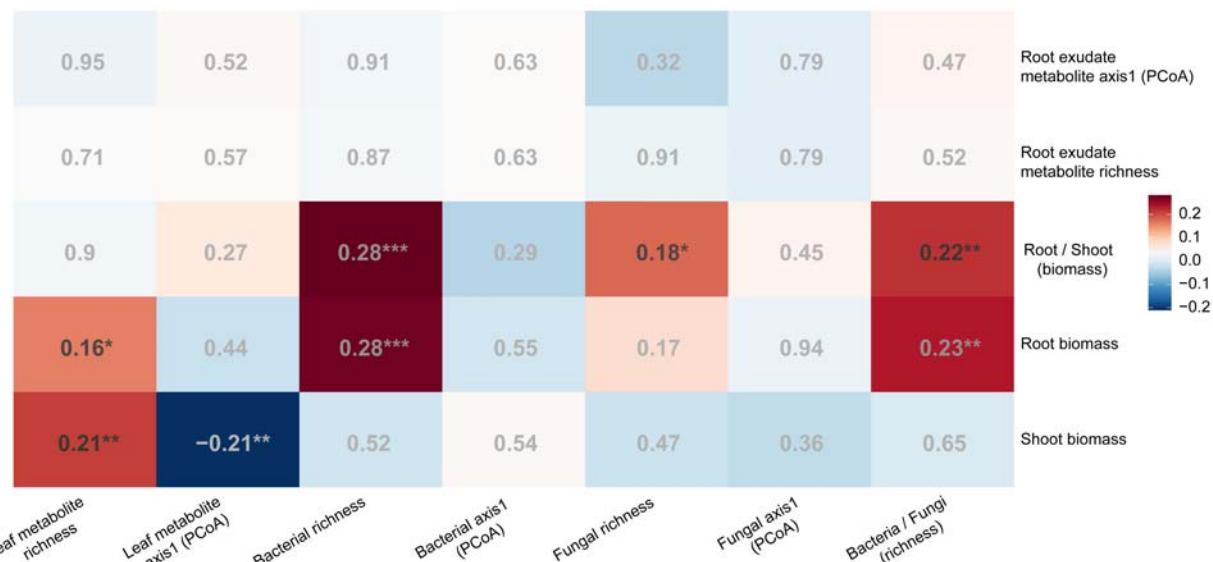
417 To evaluate how different plant traits relate to root-associated microbes and metabolite  
418 release, we correlated plant shoot biomass, root biomass and root exudate metabolites

419 with leaf metabolites and rhizosphere microbial communities of the 51 potato cultivars.  
420 Positive correlations were observed between plant biomass and leaf metabolite richness.  
421 In contrast, negative correlations were identified between plant shoot growth and leaf  
422 metabolite composition (Figure 5). One possible explanation is that investment in  
423 growth represents a cost of metabolite synthesis but this needs to be proven by further  
424 experiments.

425 Regarding the microbiome, we observed positive correlations between rhizosphere bac-  
426 terial species richness, root biomass, and root-to-shoot biomass ratio (Figure 5). Simi-  
427 larly, rhizosphere fungal species richness positively correlated with the root-to-shoot  
428 biomass ratio. However, the composition of the rhizosphere microbial community  
429 showed no significant correlations with root growth. Notably, the bacteria-to-fungi spe-  
430 cies richness ratio (B/F) was positively associated with root and root-to-shoot biomass  
431 ratios. Additionally, we did not observe a pronounced correlation between root exudate  
432 metabolites and the rhizosphere microbial community (Figure 5).

433 We performed Mantel tests based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrices to further inves-  
434 tigate the relationship between plant leaf metabolites and soil microbial communities.  
435 Our analysis revealed a subtle yet statistically significant positive correlation between  
436 bacterial community compositions and leaf metabolite profiles ( $r = 0.10, p = 0.02$ ). This  
437 suggests that plant cultivars with similar leaf metabolite profiles tend to harbour similar  
438 bacterial communities in the rhizosphere. In contrast, the Mantel test for fungi showed  
439 no significant correlation between fungal community compositions and leaf metabolite  
440 profiles ( $r = 0.04, p = 0.22$ ).

441



442  
443 **Figure 5.** Correlation analysis between shoot biomass, MITs, leaf metabolite, and rhizosphere microbial  
444 community of the 51 potato cultivars. Correlations are based on the Spearman's rank correlation coeffi-  
445 cient. Dark-coloured boxes indicate a significant correlation ( $p < 0.05$ ), with the colour intensity reflecting  
446 the strength of the correlation coefficient. Red represents a positive correlation, while blue represents a  
447 negative correlation. The numbers displayed within the boxes represent the correlation coefficient. Sig-  
448 nificance levels are denoted as follows: \* ( $p < 0.05$ ), \*\* ( $p < 0.01$ ), and \*\*\* ( $p < 0.001$ ).

449  
450 When examining the correlations between plant root biomass and rhizosphere bacterial  
451 community diversity across different functional groups, functional groups A and D  
452 showed significant positive correlations ( $p < 0.05$ ; Figure S10a,b). Functional groups B  
453 and C show no significant correlation between these variables. There were no significant  
454 correlations between root biomass and fungal community diversity ( $p > 0.05$ ; Figure  
455 S10c, d) across functional groups.

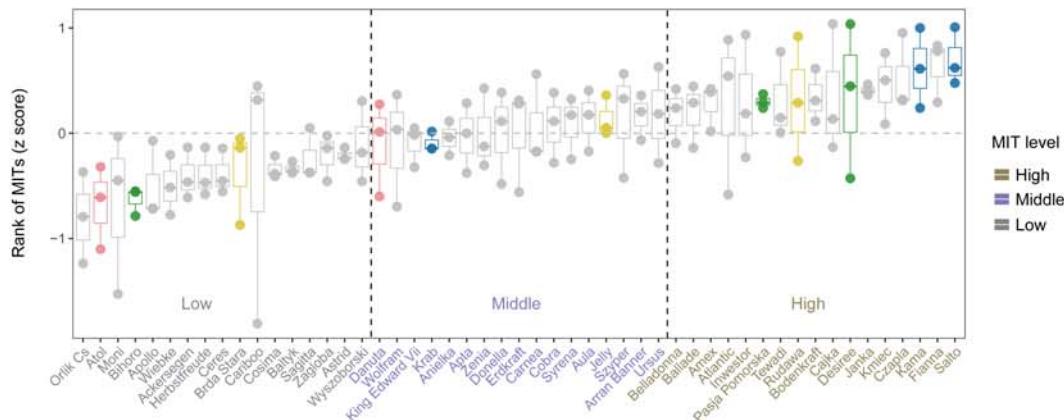
456 **3.6 Classification of cultivars based on MITs**

457 To evaluate the overall MIT scores of different cultivars, we calculated the average of the  
458 standardised scores (z scores) for various traits, including root length, root biomass,  
459 root-to-shoot biomass ratio, root exudate metabolites richness and Shannon diversity,  
460 as well as bacterial and fungal richness and Shannon diversity. Based on these MIT z-  
461 score values, the 51 cultivars were categorised into either high, middle, or low MIT levels  
462 (Figure 6a; Table S6). Furthermore, we illustrated the distribution of the rhizosphere  
463 community composition of the 51 cultivars in Figure 6b, which shows a substantial sepa-  
464 ration in bacterial and fungal compositions among the MIT-selected cultivars.

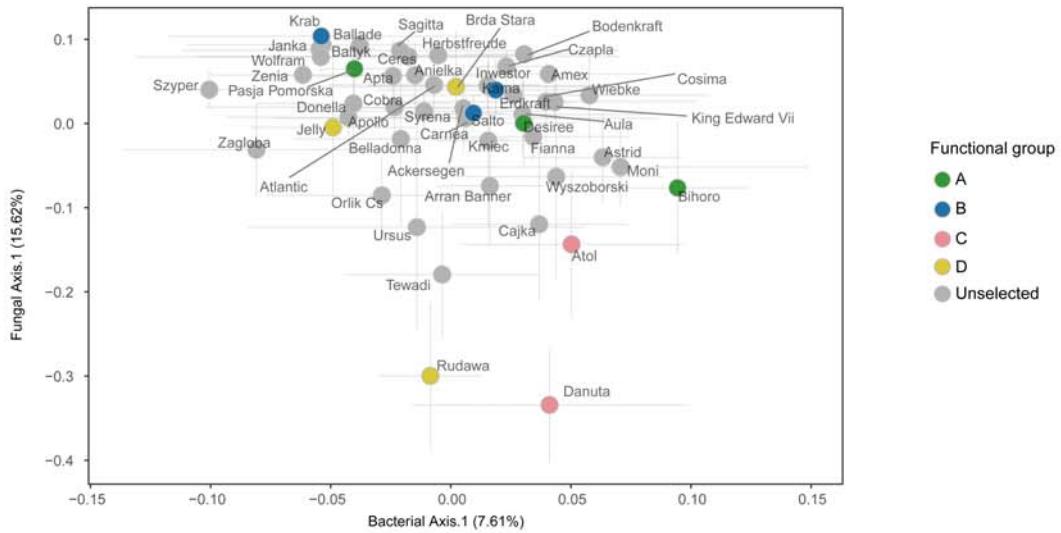
465 **3.7 Summary of the selection procedure**

466 From the different functional groups (Figure 3) and MIT levels, we suggested 10 culti-  
467 vars plus Desiree for future studies (Figure 6c, Table S6). The stepwise selection work-  
468 flow and the selected cultivars are visualised in Figure 6c. We initially selected 148 po-  
469 tato cultivars, including the commercial cultivar Desiree as a reference, from a pool of a  
470 thousand based on their resistance to pathogens *in silico*. These 148 cultivars were then  
471 further grown *in vitro*, from which 51 were selected based on DOC content in root exu-  
472 dates for a subsequent greenhouse experiment. For these 51 cultivars, plant growth, leaf  
473 metabolites and root exudate metabolites were used to classify them into four functional  
474 groups with distinct growth traits. MIT scores allowed us to identify ten representative  
475 cultivars with diverse MIT levels across different functional groups, which should un-  
476 dergo further exploration in real-world conditions to evaluate their potential for inter-  
477 acting with beneficial soil microbiomes.

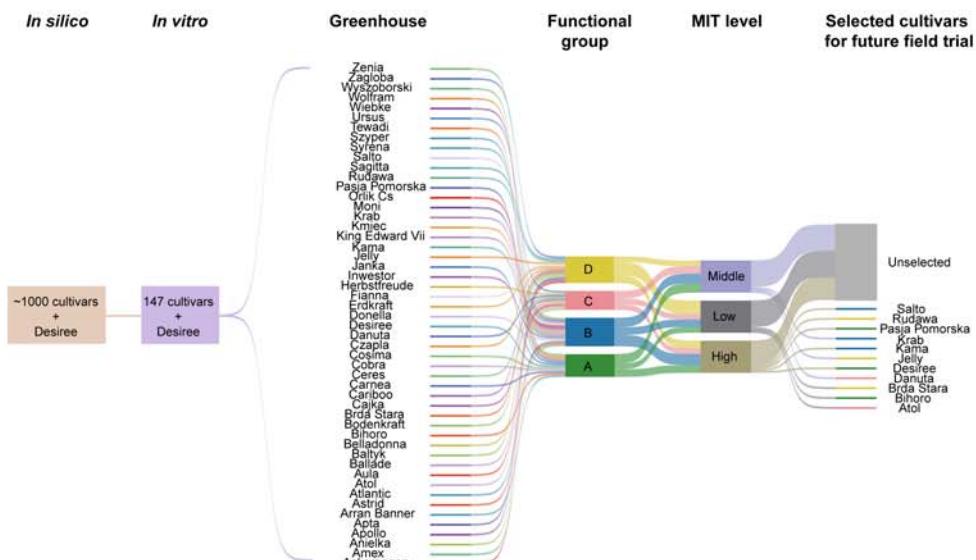
a Rank of microbial interactive traits (MIT)



b Distribution of bacterial and fungal compositions



c Workflow of potato cultivar selection



479 **Figure 6.** Rank of 51 potato cultivars based on microbial interactive trait (MIT) z-scores (a). Cultivars  
480 were ranked according to the standardised (z-score) values of multiple MIT-related parameters, including  
481 root length, root biomass, root-to-shoot biomass ratio, richness and Shannon diversity of root exudate  
482 metabolites, as well as bacterial and fungal richness and Shannon diversity. Based on their overall z-  
483 scores, cultivars were grouped into high, middle, and low MIT levels. Distribution of rhizosphere bacteria  
484 and fungi community composition through Spearman correlation analysis (b). The first axis of principal  
485 coordinate analysis (PCoA1) of microbial community beta-diversity (bacteria and fungi) serves as the in-  
486 dicator of community composition. The error bars for each cultivar are displayed in grey. Workflow of  
487 potato cultivar selection (c). This Sankey plot outlines the selection process of potato cultivars based on  
488 functional group classification and MIT levels. The colour of selected cultivars corresponds to functional  
489 groups. The cultivars that were not selected are depicted in grey.

490

491 We conducted a comprehensive characterisation of the MIT-selected cultivars (Figure  
492 S11). The one-way ANOVA results revealed variations among the selected 11 cultivars  
493 (10 + Desiree) in terms of plant metabolites, root development, and rhizosphere micro-  
494 bial community richness. Specifically, Desiree and Pasja Pomorska from group A dem-  
495 onstrated higher leaf metabolite richness and microbial diversity (Figure S11a, c, d, g, h).  
496 In contrast, in group B, Krab and Salto showed superior microbial alpha diversity per-  
497 formance (Figure S11c, d, g, h). In comparison, Danuta from group D exhibited lower  
498 plant metabolite richness, root growth, and bacterial diversity (Figure S11a-c, e-g). Re-  
499 garding beta diversity, there were no significant cultivar effects on metabolite or micro-  
500 bial profiles, except for root exudate metabolite composition (Figure S11i-l).

501

502 **4 DISCUSSION**

503 Conventional breeding primarily harnesses genetic variation to achieve the desired  
504 traits of plants. However, the impact of a cultivar's genetic information on associated  
505 microbial organisms has yet to receive much consideration, particularly those associated  
506 with the rhizosphere. Here, we emphasise that modern breeding should consider the soil  
507 microbiome as a strategy to reduce its environmental footprint. Understanding the im-  
508 portance of microbiome interactive traits (MITs), such as root traits and exudates, is  
509 vital to comprehending how plants and microbiomes interact. Below, we discuss our  
510 findings in the context of the correlation between the selected MITs, their potential con-  
511 tribution to sustainable agriculture and additional traits that could be considered in fu-  
512 ture studies. The integration of this knowledge will contribute to informing the breeding  
513 process, providing valuable insights for developing new microbiome-based cultivars.

514 **4.1 Correlation between plant traits, metabolites and rhizosphere micro-  
515 biome**

516 Our findings underscore the significant role of plant genetics in shaping both root exu-  
517 date and leaf metabolite profiles. We observed substantial cultivar-dependent variation  
518 in root exudate metabolite composition consistent with previous studies. This genetic  
519 influence also extends to leaf metabolites, aligning with earlier research on rice (Schaar-  
520 schmidt et al., 2020). These results collectively demonstrate that the genetic makeup of  
521 different plant cultivars significantly influences the metabolite composition of different  
522 plant tissues.

523 We observed a positive correlation between leaf metabolite richness and plant biomass,  
524 a relationship that can be explained through considerations of resource availability and

525 plant growth strategies. Environmental conditions and functional traits influence bio-  
526 mass allocation among plant organs, such as leaves and roots, influencing many growth  
527 processes (Mensah et al., 2016; Poorter et al., 2012). In optimal environmental condi-  
528 tions, biomass allocation (primarily above-ground to compete for light) can enhance the  
529 diversity of leaf metabolites instead of root metabolites (Chapin et al., 2005). The crucial  
530 role of plant secondary metabolites in host defence may also explain this correlation.  
531 These compounds protect hosts against herbivores, pathogens, and (biotic) stresses  
532 (Anjali et al., 2023; Divekar et al., 2022; Yadav et al., 2021; Zaynab et al., 2018). Plants  
533 with higher biomass may invest more in defence mechanisms, producing a wider range  
534 of leaf metabolites for protection. This establishes positive feedback loops, wherein in-  
535 creased biomass boosts photosynthetic activity and energy production, consequently  
536 supporting the synthesis of more diverse metabolites.

537 Previous studies have demonstrated that plant root traits are crucial in regulating  
538 rhizosphere microbial communities (Szoboszlay et al., 2015; Wan et al., 2021). This rela-  
539 tionship is further supported by Eisenhauer et al. (2017), who showed that microbial  
540 diversity increases with increasing root biomass and exudate amount. Our results align  
541 with these findings, revealing positive correlations between plant root biomass and root-  
542 to-shoot biomass ratio, rhizosphere bacterial diversity, and bacteria-to-fungi species  
543 richness ratio (B/F). A more diverse microbial community, in turn, can enhance soil nu-  
544 trient cycling and availability (Jiao et al., 2021), potentially promoting plant growth.

545 Although root exudates significantly influence bacterial and fungal communities in the  
546 rhizosphere (Hartmann et al., 2009), our study did not find a significant correlation be-  
547 tween root exudate metabolites and the rhizosphere microbial community. This unex-

548 pected result may be because we collected root exudate metabolites from 51 potato culti-  
549 vars under *in vitro* conditions, while the microbial community data were obtained from  
550 a greenhouse experiment. The differences in substrates between these environments  
551 may have influenced the root exudate profiles, leading to variances that could explain  
552 the lack of correlation.

553 Given the complexity of collecting root exudates from soil plants, we collected leaf me-  
554 tabolites in our current experiment to explore the relationship between plant metabo-  
555 lites and the soil microbial community. The marginal but positive correlation observed  
556 between leaf metabolites and the rhizosphere bacterial community suggests a potential  
557 influence of leaf metabolites on the composition of rhizosphere bacteria. This finding  
558 indicates a possible link between above-ground plant tissues and below-ground micro-  
559 bial communities, aligning with the holobiont concept, in which plants and their associ-  
560 ated microorganisms are viewed as a holistic ecological unit (Vandenkoornhuyse et al.,  
561 2015).

562 Recent studies further support this interconnection. Korenblum et al. (2020) demon-  
563 strated that the composition of the rhizosphere microbial community affects the me-  
564 tabolomes and transcriptomes of tomatoes' leaves and roots. Earlier research showed  
565 that *Bacillus* can influence photosynthesis, leaf growth, and overall plant phenotypes by  
566 producing phytohormones or volatile organic compounds (Pang et al., 2021), potentially  
567 impacting leaf metabolomes. These findings collectively emphasise the concept of me-  
568 tabolites as primary mediators regulating plant-microbiome interactions within the ho-  
569 lobiont framework (Carper et al., 2022). As described, the transport of leaf-produced  
570 metabolites to the roots via the phloem (Broussard et al., 2023) suggests a potential

571 mechanism for how above-ground metabolites might influence root exudate patterns  
572 and, consequently, the rhizosphere microbiome. However, it's important to note that  
573 our study only demonstrates correlation, not causation. The complex interactions be-  
574 tween leaf metabolites, root exudates, and microbial communities require further inves-  
575 tigation to elucidate the holobiont concept fully.

## 576 **4.2 Enhancing plant-microbiome interactions for sustainable agriculture**

577 The soil microbiome promotes plant growth by promoting carbon, nutrient, and phos-  
578 phorus cycling (Hartmann and Six, 2022). It also contributes to plant resistance by pro-  
579 ducing hormones that protect against abiotic and biotic stress (Eichmann et al., 2021).  
580 Despite its critical functions, the soil microbiome has received limited attention in con-  
581 ventional breeding (Mitter et al., 2019; Wei and Jousset, 2017). Compounding this issue  
582 is the fact that conventional agricultural management not only negatively affects the en-  
583 vironment but also substantially impacts the soil microbiome (Longepierre et al., 2021).  
584 This dual impact increases the decoupling between plants and soil microbiomes (Huang  
585 et al., 2019; Spor et al., 2020).

586 Studies addressing the role of plants in regulating their associated microbiome remain  
587 relatively limited (Wei and Jousset, 2017). More precisely, plant roots, serving as the  
588 primary interface for interaction with soil microbes, are underexplored in plant breed-  
589 ing (Herms et al., 2022; Reinhold-Hurek et al., 2015). Here, we consider morphological  
590 root characteristics and root exudate metabolites as MITs to explore their interaction  
591 with the rhizosphere microbiome. We aim to supply a strategy for breeding that consid-  
592 ers plant-associated microbiota.

593 Indeed, the positive correlation between root growth and rhizosphere microbial diver-  
594 sity indicates that MITs can aid in identifying plant cultivars with the potential to inter-  
595 act effectively with root-associated microbiomes. Cultivars exhibiting high MITs are  
596 likely to harbour a more diverse rhizosphere microbiome, which in turn can lead to en-  
597 hanced plant growth through the support of beneficial microbial interactions. Identify-  
598 ing the genes associated with beneficial microbiomes in modern cultivars and using  
599 them in selective breeding efforts to achieve microbial-assisted cultivars can serve as a  
600 new plant breeding strategy. This approach represents a promising avenue for sustain-  
601 able agriculture, as it harnesses the power of beneficial microorganisms to improve crop  
602 performance while reducing the need for chemical inputs.

603 **4.3 Integrating additional root traits and phyllosphere microbiome in fu-**  
604 **ture studies**

605 We suggest expanding future research beyond the MITs examined in this study to in-  
606 clude a broader range of root phenotypic traits. While the current study focuses on root  
607 biomass and length, future investigations should include root diameter, surface area,  
608 and root type. Although less studied, evidence suggests that fine roots with smaller di-  
609 ameters have larger surface areas, potentially recruiting a greater diversity and abun-  
610 dance of microbes through enhanced nutrient and metabolite exchange (Saleem et al.,  
611 2018; Wan et al., 2021). Pérez-Jaramillo et al. (2017) linked root types (thin or thick) to  
612 specific bacterial phyla, highlighting the importance of root morphology in shaping mi-  
613 crobial communities. Additionally, the spatial distribution of microbial communities  
614 along the root should be considered. Kawasaki et al. (2016) observed that the functional  
615 genes detected in microorganisms near the root tip were distinct from those isolated

616 near the root base. Collectively, these various root phenotypic traits should be consid-  
617 ered to improve plant-microbiome interactions.

618 In addition to expanding our focus on root phenotypic traits, we propose incorporating  
619 the phyllosphere microbiome into future studies. The phyllosphere microbiome, which  
620 includes microorganisms inhabiting the above-ground parts of plants, plays a crucial  
621 role in plant health and function (Thapa and Prasanna, 2018; Vorholt, 2012). Previous  
622 studies have demonstrated that host genotypes significantly influence the composition  
623 of phyllosphere microbial communities (Bodenhausen et al., 2014; Thapa et al., 2017).  
624 The phyllosphere microbiome is involved in nitrogen fixation (Abadi et al., 2021), en-  
625 hancing stress tolerance (Etemadi et al., 2018; Stone et al., 2018), and suppressing plant  
626 diseases (Fan et al., 2019; Das et al., 2023). Additionally, they can regulate plant growth  
627 through the production of plant hormones (Stone et al., 2018). These diverse functions  
628 highlight the importance of the phyllosphere microbiome in plant health and productiv-  
629 ity.

630 By considering the phyllosphere microbiome together with the rhizosphere microbiome  
631 and plant metabolites, we can establish a more comprehensive understanding of the  
632 plant holobiont. This approach will allow us to bridge the gap between the plant's above-  
633 and below-ground components. By harnessing the functions of phyllosphere and  
634 rhizosphere microbiomes, we may enhance crop yields, improve plant resilience, and  
635 reduce reliance on chemical inputs, ultimately contributing to more sustainable agricul-  
636 tural systems.

637

638 **5 CONCLUSION**

639 This study underscores the significant impact of plant cultivars on leaf metabolites and  
640 root exudate metabolites. We also observe a positive correlation between leaf metabo-  
641 lites and rhizosphere bacterial community; further studies are needed to verify the cau-  
642 sation and to involve root exudates to expand our knowledge of the holobiont frame-  
643 work. We systematically selected potato cultivars to identify those with diverse micro-  
644 biome interactive traits (MITs). We lay the foundation for further studies to evaluate the  
645 performance of MIT-selected cultivars in the real world. This is needed to provide a  
646 promising strategy for future breeding programs, including identifying gene markers  
647 associated with a beneficial microbiome and utilising these genes to increase plant-  
648 microbiome interactions. This breeding strategy could promote host growth while re-  
649 ducing the reliance on synthetic chemicals in conventional agriculture. Finally, we sug-  
650 gest integrating additional root phenotypic traits and the phyllosphere microbiome in  
651 future studies to establish a more comprehensive understanding of the plant holobiont,  
652 which can benefit plant-microbiome interactions.

653

654 **Data Availability Statement**

655 The raw sequencing data are available in the National Center for Biotechnology Infor-  
656 mation (NCBI) Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under the accession number  
657 PRJNA1211026. The metadata and datasets used for the bioinformatic analyses are  
658 available at the following link: <https://github.com/tianci-zhao/potatoMETAbiome->  
659 Greenhouse-Experiment.

660

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678

679 **Author contributions**

680 J.F.S., S.N.V., J.T.M.E., A.E., and E.A. designed the experiment; T.Z. and S.N.V. per-  
681 formed the experiment, laboratory work and data analysis; X.J. participated in data  
682 analysis; E.A. and R.G. contributed to plant sampling; D.M. and K.T. provided the po-  
683 tato materials; A.E., S.S., J.K., and E.Z. measured and analysed plant metabolites. T.Z.  
684 drafted the manuscript, with all authors contributing to its modification and approval of  
685 the final version.

686

## 687 **Declaration of competing interest**

688 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
689 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

690

## 691 **Supporting information**

692 **Figure S1.** Root dry weight and root-to-shoot ratio of 51 potato cultivars *in vitro* experiment. Each  
693 colour represents a distinct potato cultivar. The upper left corner of each plot displays one-way ANOVA  
694 results, where the F-value explains the variation among different cultivars, and the *p*-value indicates the  
695 statistical relationship among cultivars.

696 **Figure S2.** Shoot growth analysis of 51 potato cultivars. The upper panel displays the shoot length, while  
697 the lower panel illustrates the shoot dry weight. Each colour represents a distinct potato cultivar. The  
698 upper right corner of each plot displays one-way ANOVA results, where the F-value explains the variation  
699 among different cultivars, and the *p*-value indicates the statistical relationship among cultivars.

700 **Figure S3.** Root-to-shoot ratio analysis of 51 potato cultivars. The upper panel displays the root-to-shoot  
701 length ratio, while the lower panel illustrates the root-to-shoot dry weight ratio. Each colour represents a  
702 distinct potato cultivar. The upper right corner of each plot displays one-way ANOVA results, where the F-  
703 value explains the variation among different cultivars, and the *p*-value indicates the statistical relationship  
704 among cultivars.

705 **Figure S4.** Distribution of metabolites in root exudates and leaves across 47 different cultivars. Four  
706 outlier cultivars (Kama, Czapla, Fianna, Orlik Cs) were excluded to better illustrate the distribution of  
707 distinct cultivars. A Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity was per-  
708 formed to visualise the composition. The metabolite dissimilarities of root exudates and leaf are depicted  
709 separately on the left and right. Distinct potato cultivars are represented by different colours, with the  
710 error bars for each cultivar displayed in grey. PERMANOVA (Adonis) results in the upper right corner of  
711 each panel elucidate the influence of cultivars on metabolite composition.  $R^2$  quantifies the explained  
712 variation, and *p*-values are derived from 9999 permutations. The symbol \*\*\* denotes statistically signifi-  
713 cant *p*-values ( $p = 0.001$ ).

714 **Figure S5.** The alpha-diversity of the bacterial (a,b) and fungal (c,d) communities in bulk and  
715 rhizosphere soil, displayed by species richness and evenness. Different colours represent bulk samples  
716 from the beginning of the experiment (Bulk\_Do), at harvest (Bulk\_D36), and rhizosphere samples of 51  
717 cultivars. The lower right corner of each plot displays one-way ANOVA results, where the F-value explains  
718 the variation among different soil compartments (bulk and rhizosphere), and the *p*-value indicates the  
719 statistical relationship.

720 **Figure S6.** The microbial community composition in bulk and rhizosphere soil. Principal Coordinates  
721 Analysis (PCoA) based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity was performed to visualise the community composi-  
722 tion of bacteria (a) and fungi (b). Different shapes represent different soil compartments (bulk and  
723 rhizosphere). Different colours represent bulk samples from the beginning of the experiment (Bulk\_Do),  
724 at harvest (Bulk\_D36), and different potato cultivars, with the error bars for each cultivar displayed in  
725 grey. PERMANOVA results in the lower left corner of each panel elucidate the influence of soil compart-

726 ments on community composition.  $R^2$  quantifies the explained variation, and  $p$ -values are derived from  
727 9999 permutations.

728 **Figure S7.** Rhizosphere microbial community evenness of 51 potato cultivars. The upper panel is bacte-  
729 rial evenness, and the lower panel is fungal evenness. Different colours indicate different cultivars. The  
730 lower right corner of each plot displays one-way ANOVA results, where the F-value explains the variation  
731 among different cultivars, and the  $p$ -value indicates the statistical relationship among cultivars.

732 **Figure S8.** Rhizosphere microbial community species richness. The upper panel is bacterial richness,  
733 and the lower panel is fungal richness. Different colours indicate different cultivar functional groups. The  
734 “ns” indicates no significant influence of groups on microbial alpha diversity (one-way ANOVA).

735 **Figure S9.** Rhizosphere microbial community composition. Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) based  
736 on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity was performed to visualise the community dissimilarities of bacteria (a) and  
737 fungi (b). Distinct potato cultivar functional groups are represented by different colours, with the error  
738 bars for each cultivar displayed in grey. PERMANOVA results in the upper right corner of each panel elu-  
739 cidate the influence of groups on community composition.  $R^2$  quantifies the explained variation, and  $p$ -  
740 values are derived from 9999 permutations.

741 **Figure S10.** Correlation between plant root biomass and rhizosphere bacterial (a,b) and fungal  
742 (c,d)alpha diversities (species richness and Shannon diversity) across different functional groups. Dis-  
743 played by functional groups A, B, C and D. The Spearman correlation assessed the relationship, with  $R^2$   
744 indicating the strength of the correlation. Y is the regression equation, and a  $p$ -value  $< 0.05$  represents a  
745 significant correlation between the variables.

746 **Figure S11.** Characterisation of selected cultivars. Selected potato cultivars from different functional  
747 groups are represented by different colours, with the error bars for each cultivar displayed in grey. Letters  
748 in the upper two panels indicate significant differences across cultivars (Duncan post hoc test). In the  
749 lower right corner of the last panel plots, PERMANOVA results elucidate the influence of cultivars on

750 community composition.  $R^2$  quantifies the explained variation, and p-values are derived from 9999 per-  
751 mutations. A significance level is denoted as \*\*\* ( $p < 0.001$ ).

752 **Table S1.** Background information on 148 selected cultivars for the *in vitro* experiment.

753 **Table S2.** Plant growth data of 148 potato cultivars from *in vitro* experiment.

754 **Table S3.** Soil physicochemical characteristics at the beginning and end of greenhouse experiment.

755 **Table S4.** Functional groups of potato cultivars categorised based on plant growth and metabolite pro-  
756 files.

757 **Table S5.** The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) shows the influence of cultivar on the plant me-  
758 tabolite alpha diversity.

759 **Data S1.** Dissolved organic carbon content of root exudates from *in vitro* experiment

760 **Data S2.** Leaf tissue metabolites data in greenhouse experiment

761 **Data S3.** Root exudate metabolites data from *in vitro* experiment

762 **Data S4.** Plant performance in greenhouse experiment

763 **Data S5.** Rhizosphere microbial feature tables

764 **Data S6.** MIT z scores data

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