

Cytokinin- microbiome interactions regulate developmental functions

Rupali Gupta¹, Dorin Elkabetz^{1,2}, Meirav Leibman-Markus¹, Elie Jami³, and Maya Bar^{1&}

¹Department of Plant Pathology and Weed Research, Plant Protection Institute, Agricultural Research Organization, Volcani Institute, Rishon LeZion, Israel.

²Department of Plant Pathology and Microbiology, Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Rehovot, Israel

³Department of Ruminant Science, Animal Science Institute, Agricultural Research Organization, Volcani Institute, Rishon LeZion, Israel.

⁸Corresponding author: Dr. Maya Bar, Email: mayabar@volcani.agri.gov.il

Dr. Maya Bar is responsible for distribution of materials integral to the findings presented in this article in accordance with the policy described in the Instructions for Authors (www.plantcell.org).

Short title: Cytokinin exerts developmental functions through the microbiome

Keywords: Bacillus, Cytokinin, Microbiome, Morphogenesis, Plant Growth Promotion, Plant Development

ABSTRACT

The interaction of plants with the complex microbial networks that inhabit them is important for plant health. While the reliance of plants on their microbial inhabitants for defense against invading pathogens is well documented, the acquisition of data concerning the relationships between plant developmental stage or aging, and microbiome assembly, is still underway. In this work, we observed developmental-age dependent changes in the phyllophere microbiome of tomato. The plant hormone cytokinin (CK) regulates various plant growth and developmental processes. Here, we show that age-related shifts in microbiome content vary based on content of, or sensitivity to, CK. We observed a developmental age associated decline in microbial richness and diversity, accompanied by a decline in the presence of growth promoting and resistance inducing bacilli in the phyllophere. This decline was absent from CK-rich or CK-hypersensitive genotypes. *Bacillus* isolates we obtained from CK rich genotypes were found to re-program the transcriptome to support morphogenesis and alter the leaf developmental program when applied to seedlings, and enhance yield and agricultural productivity when applied to mature plants. Our results support the notion that CK-dependent effects on microbiome content support developmental functions, suggesting that these are mediated by CK in part via the bacterial community.

INTRODUCTION

The phyllosphere microbial community plays positive roles in host plant life. 2
Disease resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, improved vigor and alterations in 3
life cycle phenology have been documented in the presence of specific 4
bacterial communities (Koskella, 2020; Liu et al., 2020). The plant leaf niche 5
occupies a large surface area, and is important for the plant microbial 6
community structure and function. The agricultural and ecological implications 7
of plant-beneficial interactions with microbes have motivated intense 8
investigation into the factors that shape phyllophore microbiota (French et 9
al., 2021). Deciphering the factors underlying the composition and dynamics 10
of microbiome assembly is a key step towards understanding how the 11
microbial community affects plant health and development. 12
In terms of diversity and richness, the phyllosphere hosts complex microbial 13
communities that are determined by several dynamic factors, such as plant 14
age, plant genotype, environmental variables, geographical location and 15
agricultural practices (Vorholt, 2012; Leveau, 2019). Previous work has 16
uncovered factors that are central in determining the composition of 17
microbiota. In particular, plant genotype has been identified to be an important 18
driver that influences the structure of the phyllophore microbiome 19
(Bodenhausen et al., 2014; Wagner et al., 2016). In addition to host genotype, 20
geographic growth location has also been defined as a dominant factor 21
influencing community structure. For instance, perennial plants belonging to 22
the same species grown in different geographic locations showed surprisingly 23
similar leaf microbial communities than different plant species grown in close 24
proximity (Redford et al., 2010). Recently, (Li et al., 2021) found that 25
phyllosphere specificity varied more with respect to growth stage than to 26
genotype of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. The growth stage and genotype of *A. 27
thaliana* are crucial in shaping phyllosphere bacterial composition, with the 28
former being a stronger driver. Many studies on the structure of plant- 29
associated microbial communities have shown that plants grown in sterile 30
conditions house microbes that resemble airborne communities, while plants 31
grown in natural conditions often have phyllosphere communities comprised 32
of soil microbiota (Bodenhausen et al., 2014; Maignien et al., 2014). Thus, 33

from previous studies it becomes evident that the phyllophosphere microbiome 34
structure is complex, being influenced by various dynamic factors. 35
Growth stage- or age dependent bacterial community shifts in the rhizosphere 36
have been well documented (Chaparro et al., 2014; Cordovez et al., 2021). 37
The phyllosphere microbiome also undergoes dynamic changes as plants 38
develop and/or age, as shown in *Arabidopsis*, *Lactuca sativa* and *Boechera* 39
stricta (Williams et al., 2013; Wagner et al., 2016; Berens et al., 2019) These 40
age-related shifts in microbial content are presumably linked with age- 41
dependent changes in the plant, such as hormonal and/ or physiological 42
variation. Plant aging differentially affected the abundance of multiple leaf- 43
associated microbial taxa such as Actinobacteria, Armatimonadetes and 44
Verrucomicrobia, at various sites in *Boechera stricta* (Wagner et al., 2016). In 45
the phyllophosphere, age-related microbiome differentiation may be associated 46
with the differences in the leaf structure or geometry, cuticle structure, 47
trichome placement, or composition of the volatile substances secreted by the 48
leaf. We recently reported that leaf structural niches influence phyllosphere 49
microbial content in different genotypes (Gupta et al., 2021). 50

Plant age and developmental status are important factors influencing host 51
immune responses (Develey-Rivière and Galiana, 2007; Berens et al., 2019). 52
(Redford et al., 2010). Plants have been shown to have differential age- 53
dependent immune responses at the organ level (Zeier, 2005). In *A. thaliana*, 54
young rosette leaves exhibit greater SA accumulation and SA-mediated 55
resistance than older rosette leaves (Zeier et al., 2005). Age-dependent 56
fluctuations in host resistance can assist plants in prioritizing the protection of 57
valuable tissues, such as young leaves (McCall and Fordyce, 2010). 58
However, little is known about the relationships between plant growth or 59
developmental stage, and bacterial communities in the phyllosphere. 60

The plant hormone cytokinin (CK) regulates various developmental 61
processes, including embryogenesis, cell division and differentiation, shoot 62
and root apical meristem maintenance, shoot and root lateral organ formation, 63
and many others (Kieber and Schaller, 2018; Gupta et al., 2021). Thus, it is 64
not surprising that changing endogenous CK content or signaling would cause 65
alterations to plant development, resulting in changes to organ structure and 66

patterning. CK has been demonstrated to promote morphogenesis and delay 67 differentiation during plant development in many different plant species and 68 developmental contexts (DeMason, 2005; Nikolić et al., 2006; Marsch- 69 Martínez et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013; Israeli et al., 2021), likely by delaying the 70 differentiation of meristematic cells (Bartrina et al., 2011). Tomato plants with 71 altered CK content have altered developmental programs, and modified organ 72 structures. Overexpressing the CK biosynthesis gene *ISOPENTENYL* 73 *TRANSFERASE7 (IPT7)*, resulting in elevated endogenous levels of CK 74 (Shani et al., 2010), or mutating in the MYB transcription factor *CLAU*, 75 resulting in increased CK sensitivity (Bar et al., 2016), results in highly 76 patterned and complex leaves. Concomitantly, decreasing endogenous levels 77 of CK by overexpressing *CK OXIDASE3 (CKX3)* (Shani et al., 2010), results 78 in simplified leaves bearing less organs (Shwartz et al., 2016). 79

Recently, investigating the relationship between CK and the phyllosphere 80 microbiome, we demonstrated that CK acts as a selective force in microbiome 81 assembly, increasing richness, and promoting the presence of Firmicutes 82 (Gupta et al., 2021). We found CK-mediated immunity to partially depend on 83 the microbial community. Bacilli we isolated from CK-rich or CK- 84 hypersensitive plant genotypes, induced plant immunity, and promoted 85 disease resistance. Using biomimetics, we found that bacilli are preferentially 86 supported on leaves high in CK content or signaling, due to the altered leaf 87 structures present in theses genotypes. 88

Following our previous study, one of the main unanswered questions that 89 arose was, given that CK-mediated immunity is dependent in part on the 90 microbiome, and that CK is a driving force in microbiome assembly, could CK- 91 mediated developmental processes also be dependent on the microbiome? In 92 the present study, we investigated developmental-age dependent changes in 93 the microbiome. We found that age-related shifts in microbiome content vary 94 based on CK content/ sensitivity. Bacterial isolates from CK rich genotypes 95 were found to re-program the transcriptome to support morphogenesis and 96 alter the developmental program when applied to seedlings, and increase 97 yield and productivity when applied to older plants. Our results suggest that 98 CK-dependent effects on microbiome content and assembly support 99

developmental functions, in line with our previous reports that CK functions 100
are mediated via the bacterial community. 101
102
103

RESULTS	105
Effects of plant developmental status on the phyllosphere microbiome	106
To examine the effect of plant developmental stage on phyllosphere composition, microbial DNA was prepared from the phyllosphere of randomly interspersed tomato (<i>S. lycopersicum</i> M82) seedlings (10 days post germination), vegetative plants (3 weeks post germination) and reproductive flowering plants (6 weeks post germination), grown in a net house in the winter of 2018. When examining community structure between the samples using weighted UniFrac distances, we observed a significant clustering of the samples based on their developmental stage, demonstrating that the distance among biological replicates is significantly smaller within groups than between groups (Figure 1A,B). Interestingly, distances between the samples of the same age also decreased in parallel to the increase in developmental age, with the smallest distance observed in the oldest, reproductive group. Community richness (Figure 1C), Shannon index (Figure 1D), and proportion of Firmicutes in the bacterial community (Figure 1E), also all decreased as developmental age increased, while the proportion of Proteobacteria in the bacterial community increased with aging (Figure 1F).	107 108 109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 123
The amount of bacilli in the bacterial community changes throughout development in a CK dependent manner	124 125
We previously demonstrated that high CK content, or increased CK sensitivity, support an increase in phyllosphere community richness, Shannon index, and in the proportion of Firmicutes (Gupta et al., 2021). Generally, CKs are thought to be synthesized mainly in the roots and transported via the xylem to the shoots, where they exert developmental functions (Davey and van Staden, 1976; Kaminek et al., 1997). We hypothesized that the increased numbers of bacilli present in the bacterial community in seedlings (Figure 1) may be supported by the increased levels of CKs present in young leaves, levels which decline over time (Nordstrom et al., 2004), in accordance with the age-related decrease in Firmicutes we observed (Figure 1E). We examined this by assaying the amount of bacilli present in the bacterial community in	126 127 128 129 130 131 132 133 134 135 136

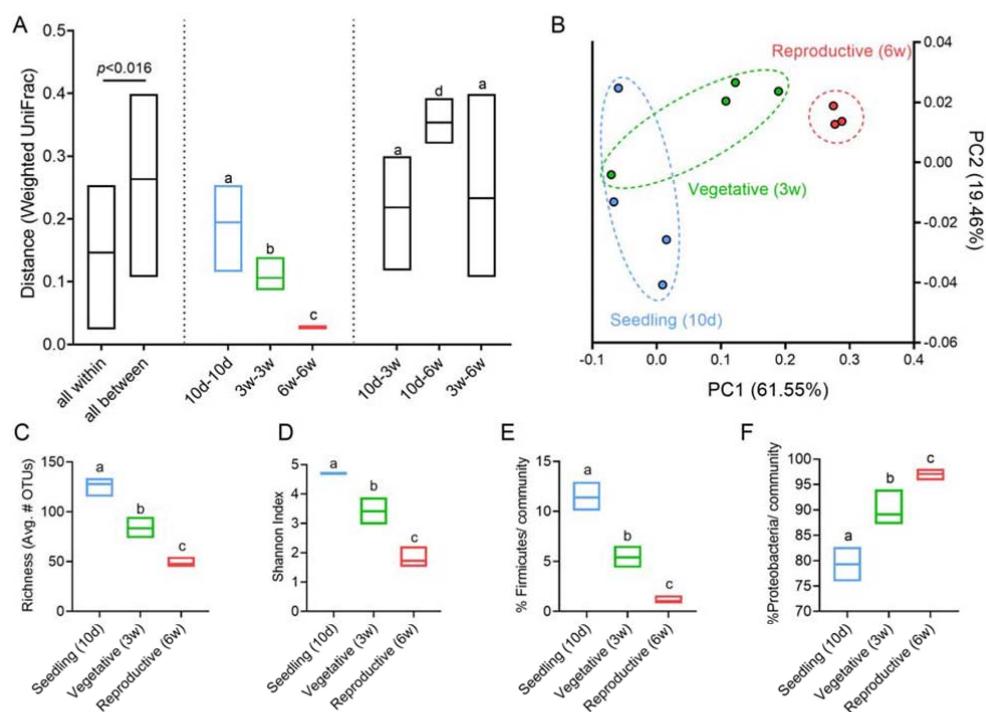


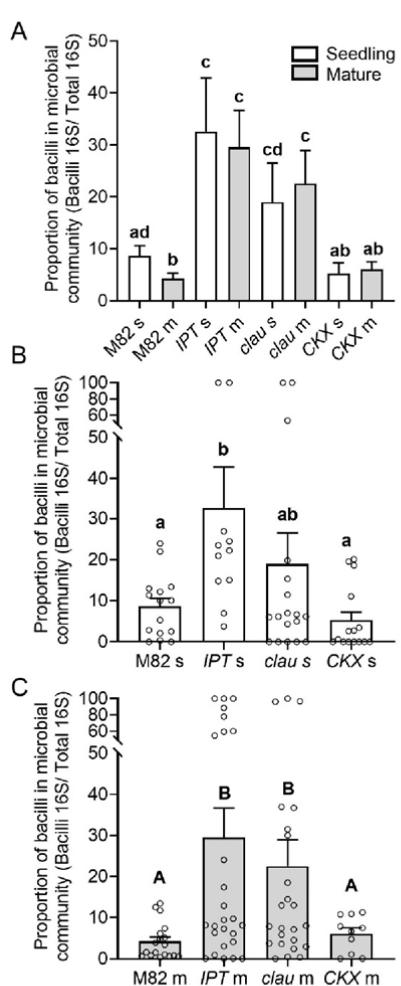
Figure 1. Developmental aging is accompanied by a decrease in bacterial community diversity, richness, and firmicute content.

16S rRNA sequencing of the bacterial phyllosphere of randomly interspersed *S. lycopersicum* M82 plants grown in a net house in the winter of 2018, N=4 for each genotype, of different ages: "Seedling" (10 days old), "Vegetative" (3 weeks old), and "Reproductive" (6 weeks old).

A Weighted UniFrac beta diversity. Distance is significantly smaller within groups than between groups ($p < 0.016$). **B** Principal coordinates analysis of distance between all individual samples in the weighted UniFrac beta diversity calculations. **C** Species richness- alpha diversity. **D** Shannon index. **E** Proportion of Firmicutes in the bacterial community of indicated genotypes. **F** Proportion of Proteobacteria in the bacterial community of indicated genotypes.

Floating bars encompass minimum to maximum values, line indicates mean. Different letters indicate statistical significance between samples in a two-tailed t-test with Welch's correction. C $p < 0.0073$; D $p < 0.04$; E $p < 0.0045$; F $p < 0.0007$.

seedlings and mature plants, in M82 and high and low CK content genotypes, 137 overexpressing *pBLS>>IPT* or *pFIL>>CKX*, as well as in the high CK 138 sensitivity mutant *clausa*. As shown in **Figure 2**, while bacilli decrease with 139 developmental aging in M82, in the altered CK genotypes, bacilli percentage 140 in the microbial community does not change with age. *pFIL>>IPT* and *clausa* 141 have increased percentages of bacilli in the microbial community in both the 142 seedling (**Figure 2A, B**) and mature (Gupta et al., 2021), **Figure 2A,C**) 143 stages, and, unlike in the background M82 (**Figures 1, 2A**), the proportion of 144



bacilli in the bacterial community does not decrease in mature plants when compared with seedlings. In accordance with our previous results (Gupta et al., 2021), we also observed higher amounts of microbial DNA in *pBLS>>IPT*, and lower amounts in *pFIL>>CKX*, suggesting that these genotypes also support increased or decreased amount of bacteria in general, respectively (Figure S1).

145
146
147
148
149
150
151

Phyllosphere isolated bacilli from high-CK genotypes accelerate development

Bacilli are well known to have growth-promoting effects (Miljaković et al., 2020). In our previous work, we characterized several bacilli isolates from different species obtained from the phyllosphere of *pBLS>>IPT*, a high CK

152
153
154
155
156

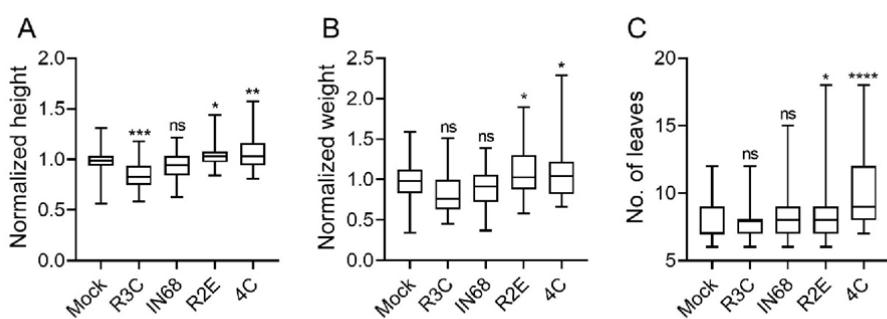


Figure 3. Bacilli isolated from high-CK genotypes affect development in seedlings.

S. lycopersicum cv. M82 seedlings were treated with indicated bacteria ($OD_{600}=0.1$), once a week for 2 weeks, starting from cotyledon emergence. Developmental parameters were measured in 10 day old M82 mock and bacterial isolate treated seedlings. (A) Seedling height (root crown to main shoot apical meristem) in centimeters. (B) Seedling weight. (C) Number of leaves produced starting from P1 (all initiated leaves were counted by dissecting the shoots).

Boxplots depict minimum to maximum values, with box indicating inner quartile ranges and whiskers representing outer quartile ranges. Lines in box indicates median. Five independent experiments were conducted. Asterisks represent statistical significance from mock treatment in a one-way ANOVA with a Tukey post-hoc test (A-B), or a two-tailed t-test with Welch's correction (C). * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$, **** $p<0.0001$, ns=non significant. A N=65, $p<0.041$. B N=50, $p<0.047$. C N=70, $p<0.029$.

content genotype, finding them to promote plant immunity and disease resistance (Gupta et al., 2021). Given that seedlings, which are more morphogenetic, rapidly generating new organs, and growing at a faster pace than mature plants, have more CK and support more bacilli, we next investigated whether our phyllosphere bacilli isolates could affect seedling development. We examined the early development of tomato seedlings following treatment with different bacterial isolates. We found that two bacterial treatments, one at cotyledon emergence, and the second after one week, were sufficient to induce accelerated growth and generation of leaves in the treated seedlings, in the case of the two bacilli isolates R2E and 4C (Figure 3A-C). This treatment regimen also had a negative effect on growth in the case of the *Ralstonia* isolate R3C (Figure 3A). Differentiation of the SAM to floral meristem and sympodial meristem was also significantly increased with 4C treatment (Figure S2).

In addition to the growth and organ initiation promoting effects, we observed (Figure 3) changes to the plant developmental program following bacterial treatment were an intriguing possibility. Treatment with bacterial isolates

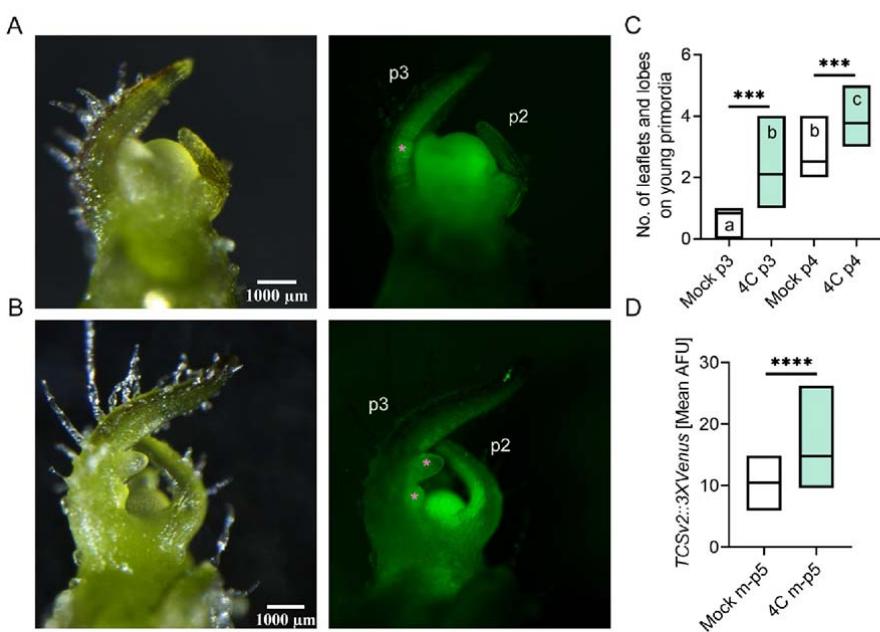


Figure 4. *B. megaterium* 4C accelerates leaf development and increases CK pathway activation.

S. lycopersicum cv. M82 seedlings were treated with indicated bacteria ($OD_{600}=0.1$), once a week for 2 weeks, starting from cotyledon emergence. Leaf complexity and TCSv2::3XVenus expression were measured in 10 day old M82 mock and 4C treated plants. (A) Typical Mock treated shoot apical meristem (SAM) and three youngest leaf primordia (p1-p3). Bar=1000 μ m. (B) Typical *B. megaterium* 4C treated SAM and p1-p3. P2 and p3 are indicated in the Venus fluorescence images, with asterisks indicating the nascent leaflets on p3. (C) Number of leaflets and lobes produced on p3 and p4. (D) TCSv2 driven total Venus fluorescence was measured as mean arbitrary fluorescent units (AFU) in images captured under identical conditions in shoots comprising the 5 youngest primordia. Each primordia was quantified for leaflet number and TCS expression when Leaf No. 5 was at that developmental stage- all quantifications were done on the fifth leaf as it developed.

C-D Floating bars depict minimum to maximum values, with lines indicating mean. Three independent experiments were conducted. Asterisks represent statistical significance from mock treatment, and different letters represent statistically significant differences among samples, in a one-way ANOVA with a Dunnett post-hoc test (C), or in a two-tailed t-test (D). *** $p<0.001$, **** $p<0.0001$. **C** N=12, $p<0.0002$. **D** N=21, $p<0.0001$.

increased the number of leaves produced (Figure 3C). We therefore chose to examine leaf development, which follows a predictable and well characterized program in *S. lycopersicum* M82 (Shani et al., 2010; Israeli et al., 2021), in depth. For this, we selected the *B. megaterium* isolate 4C, which consistently performed best in growth promotion assays we conducted (Figure 3). We conducted an in depth analysis of leaf complexity, starting from the third leaf primordium (p3), in mock plants and plants treated with 4C. P3 was chosen since the first and second primordia are completely un-patterned in M82 (Bar et al., 2016). We found that starting from p3, *B. megaterium* 4C treatment

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

results in a significant increase in leaf patterning (**Figure 4A-C**). Leaf 183
complexity over time was also examined upon *B. megaterium* 4C or *B. 184
*pumilus** R2E treatment in seedlings (**Figure S3**). We found that both R2E and 185
4C increase leaf complexity (**Figure S3**), with 4C doing so earlier. Leaf 186
complexity significantly increased during development in the mock treated 187
plants when comparing the first and last time points among mock treatments, 188
as expected, reflecting the "normal" developmental program. 189

190

***Bacillus* treatment activates the CK response machinery and 191 developmental genes 192**

Using the CK activity response synthetic promoter TCS (two-component 193
signaling sensor) fused to the VENUS fluorescent protein as a reporter 194
(Zürcher et al., 2013), we determined that the CK pathway is activated 195
following bacterial treatment. When examining expression of the synthetic CK- 196
responsive promoter *TCSv2* driving Venus in transgenic M82 tomato plants 197
stably expressing *pTCSv2::3 x VENUS*, we observed a significant increase in 198
CK responsiveness of the leaf tissue in seedlings treated with *B. megaterium* 199
4C (**Figure 4A-B,D**), indicating that the accelerated development correlates 200
with an increase in CK pathway activation. 201

To further characterize the effect of bacterial isolates on development, we 202
next examined the expression of a variety of developmental genes. We chose 203
genes related to boundary definition, which is important for organ initiation 204
(Steiner et al., 2020; Bar et al., 2016), meristem maintenance, which is 205
important for increased morphogenesis (Israeli et al., 2021), and, given the 206
TCSv2 activation results, genes of the CK pathway. We found that the bacilli 207
isolates exclusively activated CK pathway genes (**Figure 5A-E**), with *B. 208
*megaterium** 4C not surprisingly activating more CK pathway genes than *B. 209
*pumilus** R2E. The expression of CK-responsive type-A tomato response 210
regulators (*TRRs*) increased and the expression of *CKX* genes was also 211
significantly altered (**Figure 5A,B,C**). All isolates activated the meristem 212
maintenance *KNOTTED1-LIKE HOMEOBOX* (*KNOXI/TKN2*) (**Figure 5F**) 213
(Avivi et al., 2000; Shani et al., 2009), while only the bacilli activated the 214
differentiation MYB transcription factor *CLAU* (**Figure 5G**) (Bar et al., 2016), 215
and the organ boundary determination CUC transcription factor *GOB* (**Figure** 216

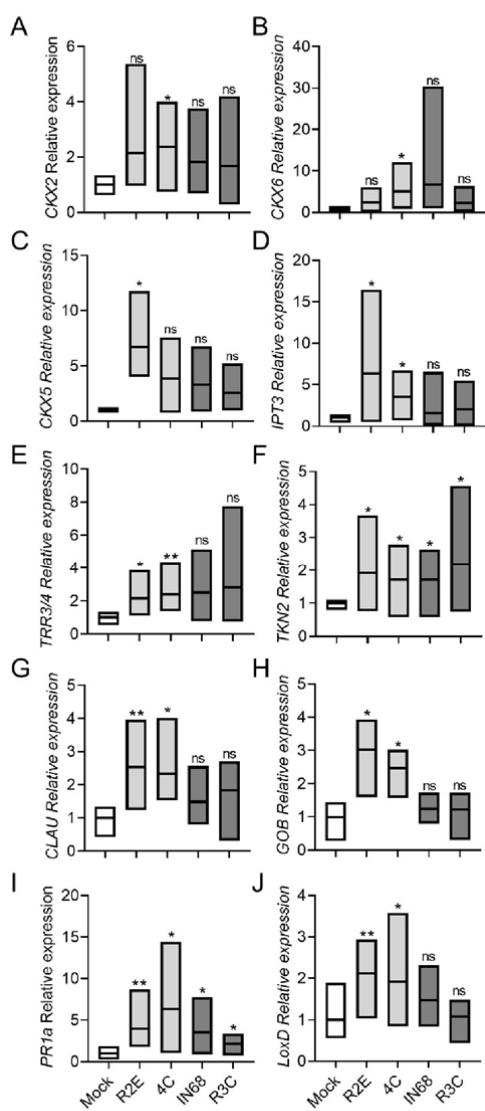


Figure 5. Bacilli from high-CK genotypes differentially activate morphogenetic genes and CK pathway genes.

S. lycopersicum cv. M82 plants were pre-treated with indicated bacteria ($OD_{600}=0.1$) once a week, two treatments in total, starting from cotyledon emergence. Gene expression was assayed by qRT-PCR, 3 days after the second treatment.

Floating bars indicate minimum to maximum values (box) with mean (line in box). Bacilli are indicated in pale gray bars, gram negative bacteria in dark gray bars. Genes were normalized to a geometric mean of the expression of 3 normalizers: *SIExp*, *SICYP*, and *SIRPL8*.

A- *SICKX2*; B- *SICKX6*; C- *SICKX5*; D- *SIPT3*; E- *SITRR3/4*; F- *SITKN2*; G- *SICLAU*; H- *SIGOB*; I- *SIPR1a*; J- *SLoxD*. Asterisks indicate statistical significance from Mock treatment in an unpaired two-tailed t-test with Welch's correction, $N=6$, $p<0.05$. (* p value<0.05; ** p value<0.01; ns- non significant).

5H) (Bar et al., 2015). To verify the response to bacterial treatment, we examined SA pathway activation using *PR1a* (Figure 5I) (Gupta et al., 2020), and JA pathway activation using *LoxD* (Figure 5J) (Dimopoulos et al., 2019). We found that all isolates activated the SA pathway (Figure 5I), however, interestingly, only the bacilli isolates activated the JA pathway (Figure 5J).

217

218

219

220

221

222

Phyllospere isolated bacilli from high-CK genotypes promote growth and increase agricultural productivity in mature plants

223

224

Since we found that bacilli isolates from high-CK genotypes accelerated development and growth in seedlings, we next examined whether they could

225

226

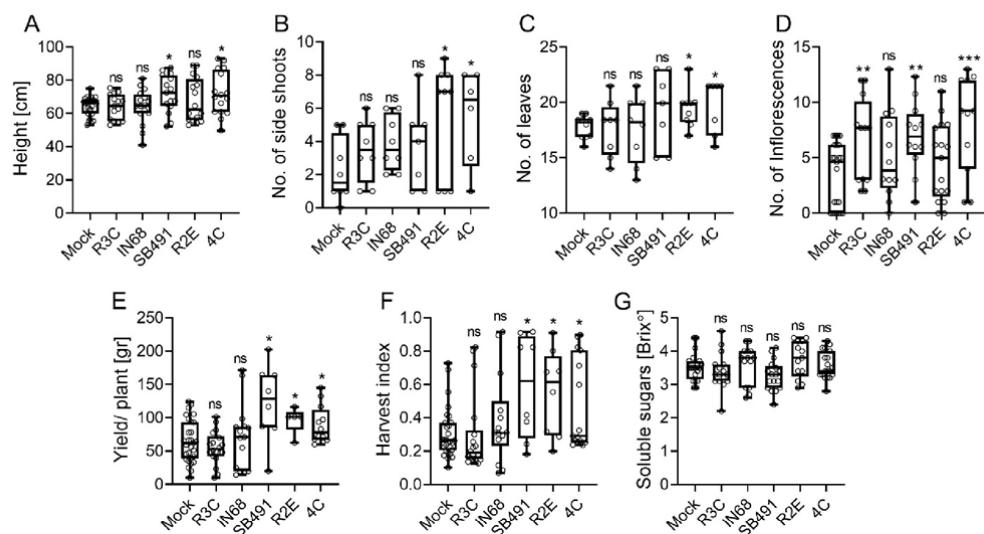


Figure 6. Bacilli from high-CK genotypes increase agricultural productivity.

3 week-old *S. lycopersicum* cv. M82 plants were treated with indicated bacteria ($OD_{600}=0.1$), once a week for 4 weeks. Agricultural parameters were measured in M82 mock and bacterial isolate treated plants, just prior to harvest (65-75 days after germination). (A) Plant height (root crown to main shoot apical meristem) in centimeters. (B) Number of side shoots used as a measure of apical dominance. (C) Number of leaves produced. (D) The average number of inflorescences per plant. (E) Average yield, expressed as the total fruit weight per plant in grams. (F) Harvest index (HI), calculated as the ratio between the total mass of fruit yield and the total biomass. (G) Total soluble sugars were measured using a refractometer and are expressed as °Brix.

Boxplots depict minimum to maximum values, with box indicating inner quartile ranges and whiskers representing outer quartile ranges. Lines in box indicates median. Four independent experiments were conducted. Asterisks represent statistical significance from mock treatment in a two-tailed t-test with Welch's correction, * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$. A N=16, $p<0.035$. B N=8, $p<0.033$. C N=8, $p<0.05$. D N=12, $p<0.0095$. E N=9, $p<0.037$. F N=9, $p<0.043$. G N=12, ns=non significant.

affect growth and agricultural productivity in older plants. Several instances of agricultural use for bacilli have been reported (reviewed in (Miljaković et al., 2020). Treatment with the bacillus isolate *B. megaterium* 4C increased plant height (Figure 6A) and decreased apical dominance (Figure 6B), increased the number of leaves (Figure 6C), number of inflorescences (Figure 6D), as well as the average yield per plant (Figure 6E) and harvest index (Figure 6F). Treatment with the bacillus isolate *B. pumilus* R2E decreased apical dominance (Figure 6B), and increased the number of leaves (Figure 6C), as well as the average yield per plant (Figure 6E) and harvest index (Figure 6F), but did not affect plant height (Figure 6A) or the number of inflorescences (Figure 6D). The gram negative controls, *R. picketti* R3C and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* IN68, had no effect on agricultural parameters, except for an

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

increase in the number of observed inflorescences with IN68 (**Figure 6D**). A 239
control *B. subtilis* lab strain, SD491, also increased some of the tested 240
agricultural parameters vis., height (**Figure 6A**), number of inflorescences 241
(**Figure 6D**), yield (**Figure 6E**), and harvest index (**Figure 6F**). None of the 242
bacterial strains significantly affected fruit sugar content (**Figure 6G**). 243

244

DISCUSSION	245
Developmental status/ aging influence the phyllophore microbial community	246
Studies of the driving forces underlying microbial community formation have revealed that both environmental variables (reviewed in (Leveau, 2019), and host genotype and age, can be defined as the key factors driving community content and assembly (Bodenhausen et al., 2014; Li et al., 2021), depending on the context of the study. Despite recent progress in our understanding of the phyllophore microbiome, much of the variation found in the phyllophore remains unsolved, suggesting that the driving forces shaping microbial community structure and function have not yet been adequately defined.	247
Our study considered the effect of plant developmental stages on microbial community composition of the phyllophore microbiome. Analysis of the bacterial phyllophore community dynamics throughout plant developmental stages revealed significant changes to community richness and diversity (Figure 1). These results are in agreement with earlier reports concerning succession of microbial communities in the phyllophore (Wagner et al., 2016; Manching et al., 2018; Moroenyane et al., 2021). A more detailed look at the assembled phyllophore microbiome through developmental aging revealed that the core microbiome, composed mostly of Firmicutes and Proteobacteria, was altered in the microbial communities across development, suggesting that changes in the conditions required for survival, succession, persistence, and colonization of different microbial taxa, may occur during plant development and growth. These factors were previously reported to be important in determining phyllophore microbial content (Maignien et al., 2014).	248 249 250 251 252 253 254 255 256 257 258 259 260 261 262 263 264 265 266 267 268 269 270
Age-related changes to the microbiome are affected by CK content	271
CK is a central driver of development and morphogenesis. CK positively regulates cell division and proliferation in the plant shoot, driving mitosis and cytokinesis, and is involved in the organization of the shoot apical meristem (Kieber and Schaller, 2018; Yang et al., 2001). CK promotes morphogenesis by delaying the differentiation of meristematic cells (Bartrina et al., 2011). Alterations to the CK pathway in tomato result in changes in leaf phenotypes	272 273 274 275 276 277

(Shwartz et al., 2016). Overexpression of the CK biosynthesis gene *AtIPT7* in 278
tomato leaves leads to the formation of highly complex leaves, whereas 279
overexpression of the CK oxidase/degradation gene *CKX*, results in reduced 280
leaf complexity (Shani et al., 2010; Bar et al., 2016). The *CLAU* gene 281
promotes an exit from morphogenesis by negatively affecting CK signaling, 282
resulting in increased leaf complexity upon its knockout in the *clausa* mutant 283
(Bar et al., 2016). Recently, we found that increased CK content, as in 284
pBLS>>IPT7, or sensitivity, as in *clausa*, can have a strong effect on shaping 285
the microbiome (Gupta et al., 2021). We found that high CK content or 286
signaling increased species richness while reducing distances among 287
samples within high-CK genotypes, resulting in dominant and consistent 288
driving forces on bacterial community structure, and favoring Gram-positive 289
bacteria, and bacilli in particular (Gupta et al., 2021). CK was found to shape 290
the microbiome through both structural cues, with CK-patterned leaf 291
structures resulting in niches that are favored by bacilli, and chemical cues, 292
with CK promoting growth of some bacilli in vitro (Gupta et al., 2021). 293
Here, we analyzed the content of phyllosphere microbiota from genotypes 294
with different CK content or sensitivity, at the seedling and mature 295
reproductive developmental ages. We found that the abundance of total *Bacilli* 296
was lower in WT *M82* and *pFIL>>CKX* than in *pBLS>>IPT* and *clausa* at both 297
developmental stages (**Figure 2**). The mature plant results were similar in our 298
previous microbiome analysis of these genotypes (Gupta et al., 2021). 299
Interestingly, examination of the microbiome shift between these two 300
developmental stages with respect to bacilli content in high-CK and low-CK 301
genotypes showed that, while bacilli spp. content decreases with age in the 302
background *M82*, bacilli remain in high amounts in the CK-rich genotypes 303
pFIL>>IPT and *clausa*, where this age-related decline in bacilli content was 304
absent (**Figure 2A**). One possibility that arises is that the significantly lower 305
CK content, per gram tissue, in mature plants (Davey and van Staden, 1976; 306
Kaminek et al., 1997) underlies the age-related decline in bacilli in the 307
microbiome in WT plants. Previous studies (Davey and van Staden, 1976) 308
have demonstrated a close correlation between developmental changes 309
taking place in the shoot, and the amount of CK translocated from the roots. 310
Thus, the increased levels of CKs present in seedlings might support the 311

increased numbers of bacilli present in the microbial community in seedlings. 312
These increased CK levels decline over time as the plant matures (Albacete 313
et al., 2008), which could explain the parallel decline in bacilli in the microbial 314
community that we observed in the mature plants. This points to the possible 315
existence of a specific microenvironment associated with CK levels, which 316
distinctly promotes an abundance in bacilli. This microenvironment could be 317
both structural, i.e., smaller cells and increased number of trichomes in young 318
leaves when compared to mature (Wilkens et al., 1996; Busta et al., 2017) 319
that create an altered physical topography available for bacterial colonization, 320
as we previously reported in connection with high-CK genotypes (Gupta et al., 321
2021), or direct chemical effects stemming from the actual changes in CK 322
levels. Of note, is that we previously found CK was able to support our 323
phyllosphere isolates in vitro, improving their growth, biofilm formation, and 324
swarming motility, when applied in the absence of a plant (Gupta et al., 2021). 325
Therefore, although distinct changes in structural leaf microenvironments 326
available for colonization between seedling leaves and mature plant leaves 327
are highly likely, it is also possible that the abundance of CK present in 328
younger plants acts chemically to support an increased amount of bacilli in the 329
phyllosphere. 330
331

***Bacilli isolated from high-CK genotypes can alter developmental 332
programs and increase plant productivity*** 333

The microbiome has been demonstrated to be required for achieving 334
predictable developmental outcomes, as plants in sterile or axenic 335
environments often grow more slowly and have altered development (Kremer, 336
2018; Li et al., 2020). Recently, the necessity of plant growth promoting 337
Bacillus in the microbial community for disease management has been 338
restated (Chen et al., 2020). *Bacillus* spp. are well known to have plant growth 339
promoting activities (reviewed in Miljaković et al., 2020). We reported that 340
bacilli we isolated from *pBLS>>IPT* enhance disease resistance by triggering 341
plant immunity (Gupta et al., 2021). A trade-off between induced disease 342
resistance and plant growth has been reported (Berens et al., 2019; Karasov 343
et al., 2017). The bacilli isolates we obtained from high-CK plant genotypes 344
protected tomato plants from disease (Gupta et al., 2021), while also 345

supporting growth (**Figure 6**), suggesting a positive, rather than negative, correlation between growth and defense when tomato plants are treated with these bacteria. This could indicate an agricultural advantage to treatment with certain bacilli isolated at specific regimens, and will be investigated further. 346
347
348
349
Our results indicate that the growth promotion exerted by bacilli strains isolated from high-CK environments are the result of alterations to developmental programs (**Figures 3-4, S2-S3**). During leaf development, the young leaf undergoes morphogenesis and reaches the mature, differentiated stage of its development simultaneously with the decline in its morphogenetic potential. Compound leaves of tomato are composed of multiple leaflets, which initiate basipetally from a meristematic region at the leaf margin known as the marginal blastozone (Shani et al., 2010; Hagemann and Gleissberg, 1996; Steiner et al., 2020). The leaf morphogenetic potential is harbored by meristematic cells, which respond to CK and therefore exhibit *TCS* activation. *TCSv2* driven expression was observed in an expanded region in *B. megaterium* 4C treated tomato seedlings in the shoot apical meristem (SAM) and three youngest leaf primordia (p1-p3), demonstrating that CK pathway activation during leaf development was increased upon *B. megaterium* treatment (**Figure 4A,B,D**). In parallel, leaves from bacillus treated plants displayed an increase in patterning, exhibiting 1-2 additional organs than typically observed on leaves of a similar developmental plastochron (**Figure 4A,B,C**), confirming that morphogenesis is indeed promoted by *B. megaterium* treatment. 360
361
362
363
364
365
366
367
368
CK pathway genes regulate the activity of meristems (Bartrina et al., 2011). 369
The KNOXI gene *Tkn2*, plays important role in promoting leaf morphogenesis 370
by delaying differentiation, preserving the meristematic identity of the leaf 371
margin. The NAM-CUC transcription factor GOBLET determines boundaries 372
within meristematic regions, that are necessary for organ initiation (Berger et 373
al., 2009; Bar et al., 2016) While the MYB transcription factor *CLAU* regulates 374
the exit from the morphogenetic phase of tomato leaf development by 375
affecting the CK/ GA balance (Israeli et al., 2021). The changes in the 376
expression levels of these genes upon treatment with bacilli isolated from 377
high-CK genotypes (**Figure 5**) further supports the notion that these particular 378
bacilli isolates boost the leaf morphogenetic potential, in part through the 379

promotion of CK signaling. Possibly, these effects are also mediated by bacterial CK produced by these bacilli isolates for the purpose of their interaction with the host plant they colonize, though further work is needed to examine the role of bacterial CKs in this interaction and determine whether plant developmental programs can be, directly or indirectly, altered by bacterial CK. 380
381
382
383
384
385

Interestingly, age-related immunity was recently suggested to be microbiome dependent (Berens et al., 2019). This raises the attractive possibility that the effect of CK on microbial content, which depends on plant age/ developmental status, could also relate to CK-mediated immunity, i.e., CK-mediated immunity is age-dependent, or age-dependent immunity is CK-mediated, depending on the context. Further work is needed to elucidate the level of overlap between these two previously described phenomena. 386
387
388
389
390
391
392

Given its roles in growth and development, CK basically alters aging. In high CK content, plants become more morphogenetic, meristems are supported for longer times, senescence is delayed, and thus, "juvenile" is retained, i.e., "aging" is delayed. This delay apparently causes a lengthening of the developmental and temporal windows that support bacilli in the phyllosphere, leading to both increased growth and development (Figures 3-6, S2-S3), and improved pathogen resistance (Gupta et al., 2020, 2021). 393
394
395
396
397
398
399
400

CONCLUSION 401

Analyzing developmental-age related changes in the phyllosphere microbiome, we observed a developmental age associated decline in microbial richness and diversity, accompanied by a decline in the presence of growth promoting and resistance inducing bacilli in the phyllosphere. We show that this is likely caused by the parallel decline in CK content as the plant ages. Treating WT seedlings with bacilli isolated from high-CK genotypes, resulted in significant alterations to plant development, and increased agricultural productivity. This suggests that bacterial treatments, either as single isolate or in a consortia context, could be examined in order to "re-introduce" these beneficial microbial community members that are lost 402
403
404
405
406
407
408
409
410
411

during aging, or prevent their loss from occurring. Additional work is needed to examine the performance of these bacilli in agricultural settings.	412
	413
	414
	415

Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank Stefan J Green and Jonathan Friedman for helpful discussions, and the Bar and Jami group members for continuous discussion and support.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: MB. Design: MB and RG. Methodology: RG, ML-M, EJ, and MB. Experimentation: RG, DE, ML-M and MB. Analysis: RG, DE, ML-M, EJ, and MB. Manuscript: RG and MB.

Data availability Statement

The authors declare that the data supporting the findings of this study are available within the paper and its Supplementary information files. Raw data is available through NCBI-SRA, Bioproject PRJNA729221.

Competing Interests Statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

Supplemental material

Figure S1: The amount of bacteria in the phyllosphere is CK dependent.

Figure S2: *B. megaterium* 4C induces differentiation of the flowering meristem.

Figure S3: *B. megaterium* 4C and *B. pumilus* R2E accelerate leaf development- Leaf complexity over time.

Table S1: qRT-PCR primers used in this work.

METHODS	417
Plant materials and sample collection	418
During the winter of 2018, tomato leaf samples were collected from a roofed net house, 2 mm nylon mesh net, in ARO, Volcani Institute, Rishon Lesion, Israel. , Genotypes used, all in the cv. M82 background, were as follows: M82 background line; <i>pBLS</i> » <i>IPT7</i> , which contains elevated endogenous levels of CK- referred to hereinafter as " <i>pBLS</i> » <i>IPT</i> " or " <i>IPT</i> "; <i>clausa</i> , which has increased CK sensitivity coupled with decreased CK content, referred to hereinafter as " <i>clausa</i> " or " <i>clau</i> "; and the CK depleted <i>pFIL</i> » <i>CKX3</i> , referred to hereinafter as " <i>pFIL</i> » <i>CKX</i> " or " <i>CKX</i> " (Gupta et al., 2021).	419 420 421 422 423 424 425 426
	427
16S rRNA amplification, amplicon sequencing and bioinformatic analysis	428 429
To examine whether plant developmental age affects tomato phyllosphere composition, phyllosphere microbial DNA was extracted from <i>S. lycopersicum</i> cv. M82 at various developmental ages. Plants were transplanted into the nethouse at randomly interspersed locations, and all samples were collected when the latest developmental stage was reached (for the oldest plants) on the same sampling date. For phyllosphere DNA isolation, five leaflet samples per sampling age were collected from the middle lateral leaflets of leaves 5-6 of 10 different plants per sample, using ethanol-sterilized forceps. Twenty mL of 0.1 M potassium phosphate buffer at pH 8 were added to the tubes. The samples were sonicated in a water bath for 2 min and vortexed for 30 s twice. The pellet of microbes was obtained after centrifugation at 12,000 g for 20 min at 4°C. The pellet re-suspended in potassium phosphate buffer (Gupta et al., 2021). Total DNA from tomato phyllosphere microorganisms was isolated using modified protocols described by (Yang et al., 2001) and (Tian et al., 2017), and used as a template for 16S rRNA PCR amplification. 16S rRNA amplicons were generated with the following primers:	430 431 432 433 434 435 436 437 438 439 440 441 442 443 444 445
CS1_515F:5'- ACAGTGACGACATGGTTCTACAGTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGT- '3;	446 447

CS2_806R: 5'- 448
TACGGTAGCAGAGACTTGGTCTGGACTACHVGGGTWTCT-3' (Green et 449
al., 2015). Amplicon sequencing was conducted at the UIC core facility, using 450
Illumina MiSeq sequencing. QIIME 1.9 (Caporaso et al., 2010) was used for 451
basic bioinformatics analysis: read merging, primer trimming, quality trimming, 452
length trimming, chimera removal, clustering of sequences, annotation of 453
clusters, and generation of a biological observation matrix (BIOM; sample-by- 454
taxon abundance table). Taxonomy for the operational taxonomic units 455
(OTUs) was assigned using BLAST against the Silva database (Glöckner et 456
al., 2017) (silva_132_16S.97). Alpha and beta-diversity, and Shannon index, 457
were performed with QIIME 1.9 as well the workflow script 458
core_diversity_analysis.py. The sequence data generated in this study was 459
deposited to the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) at NCBI under 460
PRJNA729221. 461

462

Quantification of leaf bacteria through DNA qPCR 463

Total DNA extracts were used for quantification of specific genes using qPCR. 464
Total 16S rRNA and bacillus genes copy numbers were obtained using the 465
16S rRNA 515F/806R primer pair (515f: 5'- GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGT-3' 466
and 806R: 5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCT-3') (Green et al., 2015) and bacillus 467
specific BacF/BacF (BacF: 5'- AGGGTCATTGGAACTGGG-3' and 806R: 5'- 468
CGTGTAGCCCCAGGTCTATA-3') (Kuske et al., 1998), respectively. The 469
quantification was performed with a Rotor-Gene Q machine (Qiagen) 470
detection system and Power SYBR Green Master Mix protocol (Life 471
Technologies, Thermo Fisher, United States). The standard regression curve 472
was obtained using a *B. megaterium* 16S rRNA gene fragment and serial 1:10 473
dilutions. Four replicates of each standard dilution were prepared to generate 474
a mean value. The standard regression curve was prepared to determine the 475
gene copy numbers in the unknown samples, and numbers were normalized 476
to the standard sample. All PCR reactions were performed in triplicates. 477

478

Bacterial isolate treatments 479

Epiphytic bacteria were isolated and identified as described (Gupta et al., 480
2021). Accession numbers and details of bacterial isolates used in this study 481
are provided in Table 1. 482

Table 1- bacterial isolates used in this work.

<u>ID</u>	<u>Accession</u>	<u>Species</u>	<u>Source</u>
4C	MZ148746	<i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	<i>pBLS>>IPT</i> isolate
R3C	MZ148747	<i>Ralstonia pickettii</i>	<i>pBLS>>IPT</i> isolate
R2E	MZ148745	<i>Bacillus pumulis</i>	<i>pBLS>>IPT</i> isolate
IN68	--	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Wheat phylloplane isolate obtained from Jonathan Friedman, Hebrew University of Jerusalem
SB491	SB491 "legacy" strain (Zeigler et al., 2008; Friedman et al., 2017)	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Jonathan Friedman, Hebrew University of Jerusalem

483

S. lycopersicum cv. M82 seeds were sown after surface sterilization (with 484
1.5% NaOCl for five minutes, followed by three rinses with sterile water) in a 485
tray containing potting mixture. After germination, a single tomato seedling 486
was transplanted to each pot (0.5 L, diameter = 10 cm) containing green 487
quality soil mix, Tuff soil, Israel. Pots were kept in the nethouse at ambient 488
temperature (Day- 20°C-26°C; Night- 12°C-20°C), 12-h photoperiod. Bacterial 489
colonies of *B. pumulis* R2E, *B. megaterium* 4C, *R. pickettii* R3C, *P. 490
aeruginosa* IN68 and *B. subtilis* SB491 from a 24 h plate culture were washed 491
twice in sterile distilled water, and then re-suspended in a 10 mM MgCl₂ 492
solution. The cell suspension was adjusted to an optical density of OD₆₀₀=0.1 493

(approximately equal to 10^8 CFU mL $^{-1}$) using a spectrophotometer (Tecan). 494
For mature plants (4-5 weeks old at the start of the experiment), soil 495
drenching of the plants was carried out by pouring 10 mL of bacterial 496
suspension into each pot once a week, for four weeks. For seedlings, plants 497
were spray-drenched using a hand-held spray bottle once a week, for two 498
weeks, starting from cotyledon emergence. Plants treated with sterile distilled 499
water served as controls. 500
501

Plant RNA preparation and qRT-PCR 502

RNA was isolated from liquid N2 ground shoot apices of 10 day old seedlings, 503
including the shoot apical meristem (SAM) and P1-P5 leaf primordia, of 12 to 504
15 seedlings individually treated with bacteria viz., *B. pumulis* R2E, *B. 505
megaterium* 4C, *R. pickettii* R3C, and *P. aeruginosa* IN68, using Tri reagent 506
(Sigma-Aldrich) as per the manufacturer's recommendations. RNA 507
concentrations were quantified, and cDNA was then synthesized from 2 μ g 508
RNA in a 20 μ L reaction, using both reverse transcriptase and oligo(dT) 509
primers provided with the cDNA Synthesis kit (Promega, United States). RT- 510
qPCR was performed according to the Power SYBR Green Master Mix 511
protocol (Life Technologies, Thermo Fisher, United States), using a Rotor- 512
Gene Q machine (Qiagen) detection system. Primer sequences used for the 513
qRT-PCR analyses are detailed in Supplemental Table 1 (Gupta et al., 2020; 514
Bar et al., 2016). Expression of all assayed genes was normalized relative to 515
tomato a geometric mean of the copy number of the three housekeeping 516
genes, ribosomal protein *S/RPL8* (Solyc10g006580), *S/cyclophilin* 517
(Solyc01g111170) and *S/EXP* (Solyc07g025390) was used for normalization. 518
All primer efficiencies were in the range 0.98-1.03 (see supplementary Table 519
1). Relative expression was calculated using the copy number method for 520
gene expression (D'haene et al., 2010). 521
522

Seedling developmental analysis, dissection, and imaging 523

Seedlings were harvested from soil by cutting them at the stem base. Height 524
from the stem base to the SAM, and weight were measured using a ruler and 525
an analytical scale, respectively. The number of leaves was counted by 526
dissecting the shoot under a stereomicroscope and counting all the initiated 527
leaves, starting from P1. Differentiation of the meristem to floral and 528
sympodial follows a predictable pattern in *S. lycopersicum* M82 (Park et al., 529
2012; Steiner et al., 2020), and was analyzed microscopically in dissected 530
shoots. 531

Leaves are produced successively on the plant, and at a given time point 532
each leaf is at a different developmental stage. Each leaf is thus characterized 533
by both its position on the plant (for example, L1 is the first leaf produced and 534
L5 is the fifth), and by its developmental stage. Thus, L5 P1 is the fifth leaf 535
when it is at the P1 stage and has just initiated from the SAM, and it becomes 536
L5 P2 after the next primordium initiates, and so on. For each developmental 537
stage analyzed, the fifth leaf from at least ten different plants was analyzed for 538
leaf complexity (the amount of leaflets). For analysis of TCSv2:3XVENUS 539
expression, dissected whole-leaf primordia were placed into drops of water on 540
glass microscope slides and covered with cover slips. The pattern of VENUS 541
expression was observed with a Nikon SMZ-25 stereomicroscope equipped 542
with a Nikon-D2 camera and NIS Elements v. 5.11 software (Steiner et al., 543
2020). 544

545

Data analysis 546

All experimental data is presented as minimum to maximum values with 547
median or mean, in boxplots or floating bars, or as average \pm SEM, with all 548
points displayed. For microbiome analyses, differences between two groups 549
were analyzed for statistical significance using a Mann-Whitney test, or a two- 550
tailed t-test, with Welch's correction where applicable (unequal variances). 551
Differences among three groups or more were analyzed for statistical 552
significance with a Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA, with Dunn's multiple comparisons 553
post-hoc test. For all other analyses, differences between two groups were 554
analyzed for statistical significance using a two-tailed t-test, with Welch's 555

correction where applicable (unequal variances), and differences among three 556
groups or more were analyzed for statistical significance with a one-way 557
ANOVA. Regular ANOVA was used for groups with equal variances, and 558
Welch's ANOVA for groups with unequal variances. When a significant result 559
for a group in an ANOVA was returned, significance in differences between 560
the means of different samples in the group were assessed using a post-hoc 561
test. The Tukey test was employed for samples with equal variances when the 562
mean of each sample was compared to the mean of every other sample. The 563
Bonferroni test was employed for samples with equal variances when the 564
mean of each sample was compared to the mean of a control sample. The 565
Dunnett test was employed for samples with unequal variances. All statistical 566
analyses were conducted using Prism⁸. 567

Supplemental materials

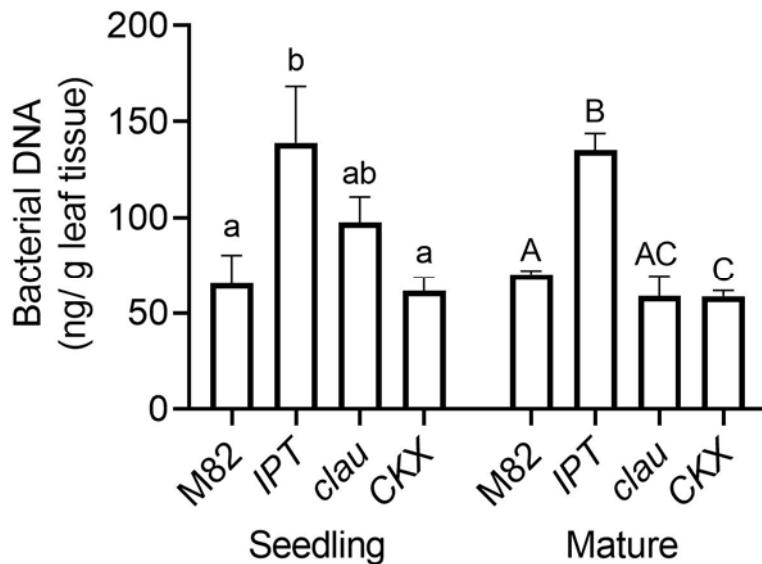


Figure S1. The amount of bacteria in the phyllosphere is CK dependent.

Bacterial DNA was extracted from indicated genotypes at the seedling and mature plant stages. Amount of bacterial DNA obtained per gram leaf tissues is plotted. Graphs depict mean \pm SE. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences in an unpaired two-tailed t-test with Welch's correction, N=10, $p<0.05$.

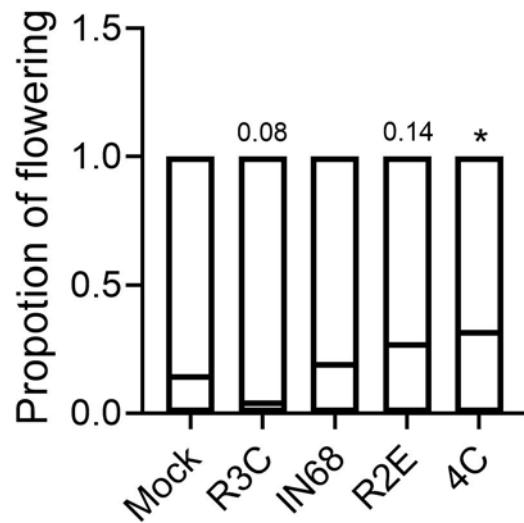


Figure S2: *B. megaterium* 4C induces differentiation of the flowering meristem.

Presence of the floral meristem was examined in 10 day old M82 mock and bacterial isolate treated seedlings. Floating bars depict minimum to maximum values, with lines indicating mean. Five independent experiments were conducted, N=30. Asterisks represent statistical significance from mock treatment in a two-tailed t-test. * $p<0.05$.

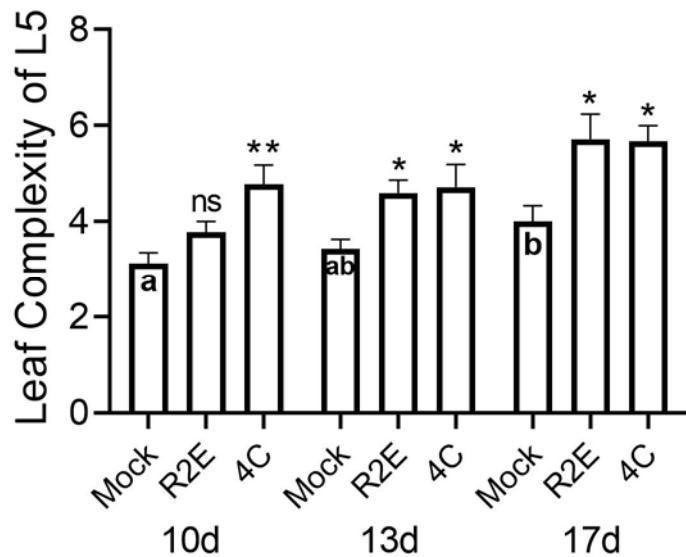


Figure S3: *B. megaterium* 4C and *B. pumilus* R2E accelerate leaf development- Leaf complexity over time.

Leaf complexity of the fifth leaf (L5) was measured in M82 mock, R2E, and 4C treated plants over time. Bars depict mean \pm SEM. Three independent experiments were conducted, N=10 for each time point. Asterisks represent statistical significance from mock treatment, and different letters represent statistically significant differences among samples, in a two-tailed t-test. * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$.

Supplemental Table1 Primers used for qRT-PCR.

Gene	Accession No.	Primer pairs (5'-3')	Efficiency
<i>PR1a</i> (Pathogenesis related-1a)	Solyc01g106620	F: CTGGTGCTGTGAAGATGTGG R: TGACCCTAGCACAACCAAGA	0.98
<i>LoxD</i>	Solyc03g122340	F: CCATCCTCACCACCCCTCATC R: TACTCGGGATCGTCTCGTC	0.97
<i>IPT3</i>	Solyc01g080150	F: TTCCATGCTTGATGTGCTTC R: GCTTGCTGTCAACGTAAAA	0.98
<i>CKX2</i>	Solyc01g088160	F: CCCCCGAAAATGGTGAAATG R: CAAAGTGGCTTGCTTGAACA	1.01
<i>TKN2</i>	Solyc02g081120	F: CCATATCCATCGGAATCTCAG R: TGGTTCCAATGCCTCTTC	1.00
<i>CKX5</i>	Solyc04g016430	F: TGTCACTGGTAAAGGAGAGGTG R: GAGCAATCCTAGCCCTTGTG	1.02
<i>CKX6</i>	Solyc12g008900	F: CAGGTGCTAACGCCATACTCTAGG R: GGACATTCCATTAGGGGACA	1.03
<i>CLAU</i>	Solyc04g008480	F: CCTCTCACAAAGCAATGAACCT R: AGGACGATGCAATGAGAGAGAC	0.97
<i>GOBLET</i>	Solyc07g062840	F: CAGGAGTTCGAAGGACGAGTGG R: TTGGCTGTAGTGTATGCAAGGTG	1.00
<i>TRR3/4</i>	Solyc05g006420	F: CGTCCCCTAAAGCATTCTCA R: CGTCTTGTGGTGTAGTTGG	0.98
<i>EXP</i> (Expressed)	Solyc07g025390	F: TGGGTGTGCCTTCTGAATG R: GCTAAGAACGCTGGACCTAATG	1.00
<i>RPL8</i> (Ribosomal protein L2)	Solyc10g006580	F: TGGAGGGCGTACTGAGAAC R: TCATAGCAACACCACGAACC	1.03
<i>CYP</i> (Cyclophilin)	Solyc01g111170	F: TGAGTGGCTAACCGGAAAGC R: CCAACAGCCTCTGCCTTCTTA	1.03

Parsed Citations

Albacete, A., Ghanem, M.E., Martínez-Andújar, C., Acosta, M., Sanchez-Bravo, J., Martínez, V., Lutts, S., Dodd, I.C., and Perez-Alfocea, F. (2008). Hormonal changes in relation to biomass partitioning and shoot growth impairment in salinized tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.) plants. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 59.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Bar, M., Ben-Herzel, O., Kohay, H., Shtein, I., and Ori, N. (2015). CLAUSA restricts tomato leaf morphogenesis and GOBLET expression. *The Plant Journal* 83.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Bar, M., Israeli, A., Levy, M., ben Gera, H., Jiménez-Gómez, J., Kouril, S., Tarkowski, P., and Ori, N. (2016). CLAUSA is a MYB Transcription Factor that Promotes Leaf Differentiation by Attenuating Cytokinin Signaling. *The Plant Cell*.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Bartrina, I., Otto, E., Strnad, M., Werner, T., and Schmülling, T. (2011). Cytokinin Regulates the Activity of Reproductive Meristems, Flower Organ Size, Ovule Formation, and Thus Seed Yield in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *The Plant Cell* 23.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Berens, M.L. et al. (2019). Balancing trade-offs between biotic and abiotic stress responses through leaf age-dependent variation in stress hormone cross-talk. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 116.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Berger, Y., Harpaz-Saad, S., Brand, A., Melnik, H., Sirding, N., Alvarez, J.P., Zinder, M., Samach, A., Eshed, Y., and Ori, N. (2009). The NAC-domain transcription factor GOBLET specifies leaflet boundaries in compound tomato leaves. *Development* 136.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Bodenhausen, N., Bortfeld-Miller, M., Ackermann, M., and Vorholt, J.A. (2014). A Synthetic Community Approach Reveals Plant Genotypes Affecting the Phyllosphere Microbiota. *PLoS Genetics* 10.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Busta, L., Hegebarth, D., Kroc, E., and Jetter, R. (2017). Changes in cuticular wax coverage and composition on developing *Arabidopsis* leaves are influenced by wax biosynthesis gene expression levels and trichome density. *Planta* 245.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Caporaso, J.G. et al. (2010). QIIME allows analysis of high-throughput community sequencing data. *Nature Methods* 7.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Chaparro, J.M., Badri, D. v, and Vivanco, J.M. (2014). Rhizosphere microbiome assemblage is affected by plant development. *The ISME Journal* 8.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Chen, T. et al. (2020). A plant genetic network for preventing dysbiosis in the phyllosphere. *Nature* 580.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Cordovez, V., Rotoni, C., Dini-Andreote, F., Oyserman, B., Carrión, V.J., and Raaijmakers, J.M. (2021). Successive plant growth amplifies genotype-specific assembly of the tomato rhizosphere microbiome. *Science of The Total Environment* 772.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Davey, J.E. and van Staden, J. (1976). Cytokinin translocation: Changes in zeatin and zeatin-riboside levels in the root exudate of tomato plants during their development. *Planta* 130.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

DeMason, D.A. (2005). Auxin–cytokinin and auxin–gibberellin interactions during morphogenesis of the compound leaves of pea (*Pisum sativum*). *Planta* 222.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Develey-Rivière, M. and Galiana, E. (2007). Resistance to pathogens and host developmental stage: a multifaceted relationship within the plant kingdom. *New Phytologist* 175.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

D'haene, B. et al. (2010). FOXL2 copy number changes in the molecular pathogenesis of BPES: unique cohort of 17 deletions. *Human Mutation*.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Dimopoulou, A., Theologidis, I., Liebmann, B., Kalantidis, K., Vassilakos, N., and Skandalis, N. (2019). *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* MBI600 differentially induces tomato defense signaling pathways depending on plant part and dose of application. *Scientific Reports* 9.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

French, E., Kaplan, I., Iyer-Pascuzzi, A., Nakatsu, C.H., and Enders, L. (2021). Emerging strategies for precision microbiome management in diverse agroecosystems. *Nature Plants* 7.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Friedman, J., Higgins, L.M., and Gore, J. (2017). Community structure follows simple assembly rules in microbial microcosms. *Nature Ecology & Evolution* 1.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Glöckner, F.O., Yilmaz, P., Quast, C., Gerken, J., Beccati, A., Ciuprina, A., Bruns, G., Yarza, P., Peplies, J., Westram, R., and Ludwig, W. (2017). 25 years of serving the community with ribosomal RNA gene reference databases and tools. *Journal of Biotechnology* 261.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Green, S.J., Venkatramanan, R., and Naqib, A. (2015). Deconstructing the Polymerase Chain Reaction: Understanding and Correcting Bias Associated with Primer Degeneracies and Primer-Template Mismatches. *PLOS ONE* 10.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Gupta, R., Elkabetz, D., Leibman-Markus, M., Sayas, T., Schneider, A., Jami, E., Kleiman, M., and Bar, M. (2021). Cytokinin drives assembly of the phyllosphere microbiome and promotes disease resistance through structural and chemical cues. *The ISME Journal*.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Gupta, R., Pizarro, L., Leibman-Markus, M., Marash, I., and Bar, M. (2020). Cytokinin response induces immunity and fungal pathogen resistance, and modulates trafficking of the PRR LeEIX2 in tomato. *Molecular Plant Pathology* 21.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Hagemann, W. and Gleissberg, S. (1996). Organogenetic capacity of leaves: The significance of marginal blastozones in angiosperms. *Plant Systematics and Evolution* 199.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Israeli, A., Burko, Y., Shleizer-Burko, S., Zelnik, I.D., Sela, N., Hajirezaei, M.R., Fernie, A.R., Tohge, T., Ori, N., and Bar, M. (2021). Coordinating the morphogenesis-differentiation balance by tweaking the cytokinin-gibberellin equilibrium. *PLOS Genetics* 17.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Kaminek, M., Motyka, V., and Vankova, R. (1997). Regulation of cytokinin content in plant cells. *Physiologia Plantarum* 101.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Karasov, T.L., Chae, E., Herman, J.J., and Bergelson, J. (2017). Mechanisms to Mitigate the Trade-Off between Growth and Defense. *The Plant Cell* 29.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Kieber, J.J. and Schaller, G.E. (2018). Cytokinin signaling in plant development. *Development* 145.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Koskella, B. (2020). The phyllosphere. *Current Biology* 30.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Kremer, J.M., P.B.C., R.D., T.C., F.J.E., S.-L.P., T.J.M. and H.S.Y. (2018). FlowPot axenic plant growth system for microbiota research. *bioRxiv*: 254953-undefined.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Kuske, C.R., Banton, K.L., Adorada, D.L., Stark, P.C., Hill, K.K., and Jackson, P.J. (1998). Small-Scale DNA Sample Preparation Method for Field PCR Detection of Microbial Cells and Spores in Soil. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 64.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Leveau, J.H. (2019). A brief from the leaf: latest research to inform our understanding of the phyllosphere microbiome. *Current Opinion in Microbiology* 49.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Li, H. et al. (2013). Cytokinin signaling regulates pavement cell morphogenesis in *Arabidopsis*. *Cell Research* 23.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Li, P., Lu, Y.-J., Chen, H., and Day, B. (2020). The Lifecycle of the Plant Immune System. *Critical Reviews in Plant Sciences* 39.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Liu, H., Brettell, L.E., and Singh, B. (2020). Linking the Phyllosphere Microbiome to Plant Health. *Trends in Plant Science* 25.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Li, Y., Zhang, Z., Liu, W., Ke, M., Qu, Q., Zhou, Z., Lu, T., and Qian, H. (2021). Phyllosphere bacterial assemblage is affected by plant genotypes and growth stages. *Microbiological Research* 248.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Maignien, L., DeForce, E.A., Chafee, M.E., Eren, A.M., and Simmons, S.L. (2014). Ecological Succession and Stochastic Variation in the Assembly of *Arabidopsis thaliana* Phyllosphere Communities. *mBio* 5.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Manching, H.C., Carlson, K., Kosowsky, S., Smitherman, C.T., and Stapleton, A.E. (2018). Maize Phyllosphere Microbial Community Niche Development Across Stages of Host Leaf Growth. *F1000Research* 6.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Marsch-Martínez, N., Ramos-Cruz, D., Irepan Reyes-Olalde, J., Lozano-Sotomayor, P., Zúñiga-Mayo, V.M., and de Folter, S. (2012). The role of cytokinin during *Arabidopsis* gynoecia and fruit morphogenesis and patterning. *The Plant Journal* 72.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

McCall, A.C. and Fordyce, J.A. (2010). Can optimal defence theory be used to predict the distribution of plant chemical defences? *Journal of Ecology* 98.

Miljković, D., Marinković, J., and Balešević-Tubić, S. (2020). The Significance of *Bacillus* spp. in Disease Suppression and Growth Promotion of Field and Vegetable Crops. *Microorganisms* 8.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Moroenyane, I., Mendes, L., Tremblay, J., Tripathi, B., and Yergeau, É. (2021). Plant Compartments and Developmental Stages Modulate the Balance between Niche-Based and Neutral Processes in Soybean Microbiome. *Microbial Ecology*.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Nikolić, R., Mitić, N., Miletić, R., and Nešković, M. (2006). Effects of Cytokinins on In Vitro Seed Germination and Early Seedling Morphogenesis in *Lotus corniculatus* L. *Journal of Plant Growth Regulation* 25.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Nordstrom, A., Tarkowski, P., Tarkowska, D., Norbaek, R., Astot, C., Dolezal, K., and Sandberg, G. (2004). Auxin regulation of cytokinin biosynthesis in *Arabidopsis thaliana*: A factor of potential importance for auxin-cytokinin-regulated development. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 101.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Park, S.J., Jiang, K., Schatz, M.C., and Lippman, Z.B. (2012). Rate of meristem maturation determines inflorescence architecture in tomato. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 109.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Redford, A.J., Bowers, R.M., Knight, R., Linhart, Y., and Fierer, N. (2010). The ecology of the phyllosphere: geographic and phylogenetic variability in the distribution of bacteria on tree leaves. *Environmental Microbiology* 12.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Shani, E., Ben-Gera, H., Shleizer-Burko, S., Burko, Y., Weiss, D., and Ori, N. (2010). Cytokinin Regulates Compound Leaf Development in Tomato. *The Plant Cell* 22.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Shwartz, I., Levy, M., Ori, N., and Bar, M. (2016). Hormones in tomato leaf development. *Developmental Biology* 419.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Steiner, E., Israeli, A., Gupta, R., Shwartz, I., Nir, I., Leibman-Markus, M., Tal, L., Farber, M., Amsalem, Z., Ori, N., Müller, B., and Bar, M. (2020). Characterization of the cytokinin sensor TCSv2 in *arabidopsis* and tomato. *Plant Methods* 16.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Tian, X., Shi, Y., Geng, L., Chu, H., Zhang, J., Song, F., Duan, J., and Shu, C. (2017). Template Preparation Affects 16S rRNA High-Throughput Sequencing Analysis of Phyllosphere Microbial Communities. *Frontiers in Plant Science* 8.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Vorholt, J.A. (2012). Microbial life in the phyllosphere. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* 10.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Wagner, M.R., Lundberg, D.S., del Rio, T.G., Tringe, S.G., Dangl, J.L., and Mitchell-Olds, T. (2016). Host genotype and age shape the leaf and root microbiomes of a wild perennial plant. *Nature Communications* 7.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Wilkens, R.T., Shea, G.O., Halbreich, S., and Stamp, N.E. (1996). Resource availability and the trichome defenses of tomato plants. *Oecologia* 106.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Williams, T.R., Moyne, A.-L., Harris, L.J., and Marco, M.L. (2013). Season, Irrigation, Leaf Age, and *Escherichia coli* Inoculation Influence the Bacterial Diversity in the Lettuce Phyllosphere. *PLoS ONE* 8.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Yang, C.-H., Crowley, D.E., Borneman, J., and Keen, N.T. (2001). Microbial phyllosphere populations are more complex than previously realized. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 98.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Zeier, J. (2005). Age-dependent variations of local and systemic defence responses in *Arabidopsis* leaves towards an avirulent strain of *Pseudomonas syringae*. *Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology* 66.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Zeigler, D.R., Prágai, Z., Rodriguez, S., Chevreux, B., Muffler, A., Albert, T., Bai, R., Wyss, M., and Perkins, J.B. (2008). The Origins of 168, W23, and Other *Bacillus subtilis* Legacy Strains. *Journal of Bacteriology* 190.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)

Zürcher, E., Tavor-Deslex, D., Lituiev, D., Enkerli, K., Tarr, P.T., and Müller, B. (2013). A Robust and Sensitive Synthetic Sensor to Monitor the Transcriptional Output of the Cytokinin Signaling Network in *Planta*. *Plant Physiology* 161.

Google Scholar: [Author Only](#) [Title Only](#) [Author and Title](#)