

Towards Nutrition-Sensitive Agriculture: an evaluation of biocontrol effects, nutritional value, and ecological impact of bacterial inoculants

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Abstract: Nutrition-Sensitive Agriculture (NSA) is a novel concept in agriculture that ~~does not~~ considers ~~not~~ only yield, but also nutritional value of ~~produce the food~~, sustainability of ~~the~~ production, and ~~the~~ ecological impact of agricultural ~~real practices~~. In accordance with its goals, NSA would benefit from applying microbial-based products as they are deemed more sustainable than their synthetic counterparts.

This study ~~aims to characterize the effect of~~ 3 plant-beneficial bacterial strains (*Paenibacillus pasadenensis* strain R16, *Pseudomonas syringae* strain 260-02, *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* strain CC2) ~~on their biocontrol activity and effect on the~~ nutritional and texture quality of romaine lettuce plants (*Lactuca sativa*) ~~and in containing pathogens in controlled conditions (greenhouse)~~. The pathogens used in the trials are *Rhizoctonia solani* and *Pythium ultimum*.

The obtained results indicate that strain R16 had a significant ability to ~~cause a statistically significant reduction in the e~~-symptoms caused by both *P. ultimum* (reduction of 32%) and *R. solani* (reduction of 42%) ~~analyzed pathogens~~, while the other two strains showed a less efficient biocontrol ability.

Indices of the nutritional quality (~~photochemical activity of photosystem II~~, content in phenols, carotenoids and chlorophyll) were ~~largely~~ unaffected by the treatments, indicating that the product was equivalent to that obtained without using the bacteria, while the texture of the leaves benefits from the biocontrol treatments. ~~In particular, the mechanical resistance of the leaves was significantly higher in non-treated plants affected by R. solani but was restored to the values of healthy plants when the bacterial inoculants were present as well.~~

The ecological impact was evaluated by characterizing the bacterial microbiota in bulk soil, rhizosphere, and root ~~microbiota~~ in the presence or absence of the inoculants.

The composition of the microbiota, analyzed with a Unifrac model to describe beta-diversity, was radically different in the rhizosphere and the root endosphere among treatments, ~~but while~~

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43 the bulk soil ~~formed a single cluster regardless of treatment~~~~remained practically unchanged,~~
44 indicating that the use of these treatments did not have an ~~an~~ ~~large-scale~~ ecological ~~impact outside~~
45 ~~of the plant~~effect.

46
47 **Keywords:**

48 Nutrition-sensitive agriculture; Biocontrol; Microbiota; Lettuce; Texture; Nutritional value;

49
50 **Abbreviations:**

51 CFU: Colony-forming units

52 G%: Germination percentage

53 GLV: Green leafy vegetables

54 I%: Infection percentage index

55 NSA: Nutrition-sensitive agriculture

56 NSR: Roots grown in non-sterilized soil

57 NT: Non-treated

58 OTU: operational taxonomic unit

59 PDA: Potato-dextrose agar

60 PI: Performance index

61 PNA: Peptide-nucleic acids

62 PU: *Pythium ultimum*

63 RH: Rhizosphere

64 RS: *Rhizoctonia solani*

65 S: Bulk soil

66 SR: Roots grown in sterilized soil

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68 **Number of words:** 6240

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71 **1. Introduction**

72 In recent years, the subject of Nutrition Sensitive Agriculture (NSA) is becoming gradually
73 more widespread and relevant. While the name itself of NSA makes it clear that it gives great
74 relevance to the nutritional quality of food obtained from agriculture, the concepts of NSA take
75 into account also health-related properties, food security, sustainable agricultural production,
76 and maintaining biodiversity in the agroecosystem (Jaenicke and Virchow, 2013).

77 Plant diseases are a major threat to worldwide food security, causing severe yield loss in
78 all known crop species, and their management is one of the main concerns regarding the
79 sustainability of agriculture: in order to control pathogens and pests, several pesticides are
80 employed, and these can have a high environmental impact (Berg, 2009). The use of more
81 sustainable methods to manage plant diseases is thus a very important step towards making
82 the goals of NSA a reality. One of the most promising alternative strategies to the use of
83 synthetic pesticides for a more environmental-friendly control of diseases is the use of biocontrol
84 microorganisms (Albouvette et al., 2009). Biocontrol can be defined as the exploitation of
85 organisms, or molecules they produce, capable of reducing or eliminating the damage caused
86 by pathogens, either by direct antagonism or by enhancing the plant's defenses against the
87 pathogens (Junaid et al., 2013). In most cases, biocontrol does not achieve the same level of
88 protection of the crops as synthetic pesticides do and faces the problem of having inconsistent
89 results when used in field scale (Barret et al., 2011), but it is still a promising, more sustainable
90 technique that can be employed in agriculture (Berg, 2009). Despite this, there are several
91 questions regarding the use of biocontrol and its respect of the concept of NSA. For example,

92 the effect of biocontrol treatments on the health-oriented quality and perceived quality of the
93 produce is a little-investigated topic, as is the effect of these treatments on the microbiota of the
94 plant and soil in which they are inoculated. The safety and ecological impact of these inoculants
95 is still a matter of debate in the scientific community (Deising et al., 2017; [Koch et al., 2018](#);
96 Lugtenberg, 2018) and the full extend of the effect of inoculants on non-target organisms is an
97 important point to investigate and define. This is especially true regarding the endophytic
98 communities of the treated plants, in contrast with the effect on the rhizosphere community
99 which has been more extensively investigated (Grosch et al., 2012, Erlacher et al., 2014,
100 Cipriano et al., 2016)

101 Regarding the nutritional and sustainable aspects of NSA, green leafy vegetables (GLV)
102 are important crops to consider thanks to their high nutritional value and for being consumed
103 mostly raw, keeping intact most of their properties. Among GLV, lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.) is
104 one of the most important and common raw edible plants and constitutes a good source of
105 healthy compounds such as polyphenols, carotenoids and vitamins (Becker et al., 2014, Peirez-
106 Loipez et al., 2014). Despite its popularity as a vegetable, lettuce still faces great risks from
107 hard-to-manage diseases caused by soilborne fungal pathogens which can cause devastating
108 losses in field, in particular *Pythium ultimum* and *Rhizoctonia solani* (Van Beneden et al., 2009).
109 The difficulty in managing these pathogens is a limitation both in organic and in conventional
110 farming. For example, *R. solani* was once kept under control by applying methyl bromide, which
111 use was then forbidden because of its ozone-depleting effect and high toxicity (UNEP, 1999),
112 leaving the farmers with few tools that could be used against this pathogen ([Martin, 2003](#)),
113 which can survive in the soil for many years. Since these fumigants are no longer allowed, ~~and~~
114 the pathogens either form sclerotia that can survive in the soil for several years (for *R. solani*) or
115 are often resistant to fungicides (in the case of *P. ultimum*), ~~and~~ *R. solani* is one of the most
116 problematic pathogen to contain in both organic ([Termorshiuzen et al., 2006](#)) and integrated
117 farming ([Bonanomi et al., 2018](#)), novel tools in the management of these diseases are
118 necessary (Fatouros et al., 2018).

119 The present study investigated the biocontrol ability of three different bacterial strains on
120 two different fungal, soilborne pathogens of lettuce, *Pythium ultimum* and *Rhizoctonia solani*.
121 The study did not only evaluate the effect of the inoculated bacteria on their ability to reduce the
122 symptoms induced by the pathogens, but also evaluated some physiological traits of the plants,
123 and consequent macroscopic texture attributes, which are related both to the quality and to
124 defense responses against pathogens, to compare the quality of the produce between
125 treatments. Furthermore, the bacterial communities of endophytes in the roots (grown in
126 sterilized or non-sterilized soil), rhizosphere, and bulk soil either non-treated or inoculated with
127 bacteria were described and compared, to define the effect of these treatments on the microbial
128 diversity inside the root tissues.

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130 2. Materials and methods

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132 2.1. Microbial strains

133 In this study, three bacterial strains were used as candidate biocontrol and plant-growth
134 promoting agents: *Paenibacillus pasadenensis* strain R16, which has been already described as
135 a potential antifungal agent in Passera et al., 2017; *Pseudomonas syringae* strain 260-02, which
136 has been already described as a potential biocontrol and plant-growth promoting agent on
137 Solanaceae plants in Passera et al., 2019; and *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* strain CC2. Both
138 strains were cultivated on LB High Salt Agar plates (tryptone 10 g/L, yeast extract 5 g/L, sodium
139 chloride 10 g/L, agar 15 g/L) at 25 °C and were stored in a 20% glycerol solution at -80 °C for
140 long conservation periods.

141 Two soilborne fungal isolates were used in antagonism assays with bacterial strains:
142 *Rhizoctonia solani* (Cooke) Wint, strain RS1 (which will be identified as RS for the rest of the
143 study), isolated from millet (*Pennisetum glaucum* L.) kernels in 2012; and *Pythium ultimum*
144 Trow, strain DSM 62987 (which will be identified as PU for the rest of the study). The fungal
145 strains were conserved in the fungal culture collection of the Mycology Laboratory at the
146 Department of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences (DiSAA), University of Milan, Italy. The
147 isolates were cultivated on potato dextrose agar (PDA, Difco™) at 20 °C and stored at 4°C.

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2.2. Inoculum with bacterial strains and plant cultivation

150 Two weeks old seedlings of romaine lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L. var. longifolia) were
151 inoculated with the bacterial strains by soil drenching: the plants were transplanted in 13 cm in
152 diameter pots containing potting soil and in each pot was added either a suspension of bacterial
153 cells of strain R16, 260-02, or CC2 (10⁵ CFU/ml in Ringer's solution) or sterile Ringer's solution
154 for the non-treated control. The potting soil used in these trials was previously sterilized by
155 autoclaving 3 times at intervals of approximately 16 hours between each sterilization. The plants
156 were grown in greenhouse at a temperature between 25 °C and 28 °C with 14 hours of light per
157 day and were harvested after three weeks from transplant for further biochemical and molecular
158 analyses. Each treatment was carried out on 7 plants to obtain biological replicates.

159 In parallel, a different trial was set up utilizing the same methods, number of plants, and
160 bacterial treatments, but were carried out in soil which was not sterilized. These plants and soil
161 were used for DNA extraction only.

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2.3. Biocontrol effect against soilborne pathogens

164 Biocontrol assays against the fungal pathogens PU and RS were carried out, based on
165 the methods described by Fatouros *et al.*, 2018, with some modifications, in parallel to the
166 cultivation of healthy lettuce plants, and used either plants inoculated with strain R16, 260-02, or
167 CC2, or non-treated controls. For the biocontrol assay, a further positive control was used,
168 treating the potting soil with a *Trichoderma* ssp.-based product (indicated as TH from now on)
169 commercially available and indicated for the biocontrol of these soilborne pathogens on
170 horticultural crops; these treatments were performed following the manufacturer's instructions
171 for the utilization of the product. These assays were carried out on 7 plants per treatment.

172 The fungal inoculums used in these assays was obtained by air drying active cultures of
173 either PU or RS, incubated on pearl millet at 26 °C for 3 weeks. These inoculums were mixed
174 with the sterile potting soil at a concentration of 20g/kg of soil on the day of the transplant.

175 The plants were visually examined for the presence of symptoms induced by either PU or
176 RS once a week for a period of 3 weeks after transplant and, at the end of the experiment, the
177 roots were examined as well.

178 For both pathogens the symptoms included mild to severe leaf and architecture
179 deformation, stunted growth, root damage and, only for RS, crown rot. Root damage could be
180 evaluated only at the end of the trials when the plants were uprooted. The symptoms were
181 evaluated through symptom classes (0: healthy plant, 1: mild leaf deformation, 2: mild leaf and
182 architecture deformation and stunted growth, 3: leaf and architecture deformation and stunted
183 growth, 4: severe leaf and architecture deformation, stunted growth and root damage, 5: dead
184 plant, caused by crown rot) and these classes were then converted to an infection percentage
185 index (I%) using the formula proposed by Townsend and Heuberger (1943).

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186 An additional assay was carried out to test the biocontrol effect of strains R16, 260-02,
187 CC2, and TH, used as a positive control, against RS on lettuce seedlings. This assay was
188 carried out using the methods described by Liu *et al.*, 2018, with some modifications. In detail,
189 pathogen inoculum was carried by mixing potting soil with dried RS inoculum one week before
190 sowing, at a concentration of 20g/kg of soil. Inoculation with strains R16, 260-02, and CC2 was
191 carried out at the same time as sowing by soil drenching using a suspension with a
192 concentration of 10⁵ CFU/mL, pouring 1 L every 1.5 kg of soil. For TH the treatment was
193 performed following the manufacturer's instructions for the utilization of the product. Non-treated
194 control (NT) was obtained inoculating the soil with sterile solution, without the bacterial
195 inoculum. Each treatment was carried out in either soil without RS (Control), or with RS
196 inoculum, in 4 replicates of 50 seeds each. Germination percentage (G%) was evaluated 5 days
197 after sowing. For this evaluation, seedlings that emerged but died due to damping-off were not
198 considered as successfully germinated.

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200 **2.4. Evaluation of physiological responses in lettuce leaves**

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202 **2.4.1. *In vivo* chlorophyll a fluorescence measurement**

203 Immediately before harvesting, the efficiency of the photosynthetic apparatus was
204 evaluated non-destructively, by measuring the chlorophyll *a* fluorescence *in vivo*.

205 This analysis was performed on dark-adapted leaves using a portable fluorimeter (Handy
206 PEA; Hansatech, Kings Lynn, UK). After 30 minutes of dark adaptation, leaf surface was
207 exposed to a saturating light intensity of 3000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ emitted by three diodes. The
208 fluorescence emission was then measured by a fast-response PIN photodiode with an RG9 long
209 pass filter (Technical manual, Hansatech, Kings Lynn, UK). The parameters measured were the
210 maximum quantum efficiency of photosystem II (Fv/Fm) and the performance index (PI) derived
211 from the JIP test.

212 Analysis was performed on six independent replicates.

213

214 **2.4.2. Quantification of functional health-oriented parameters of lettuce leaves**

215 At harvest, total chlorophylls (a+b) and total carotenoids were extracted from lettuce leaf
216 tissue (around 40 mg) using 5 mL of methanol 99.9% as solvent. Samples were then kept
217 overnight in a dark room at 4 °C. Absorbance readings were taken at 665.2 and 652.4 nm for
218 chlorophyll pigments and 470 nm for carotenoids. Chlorophylls and carotenoids concentrations
219 were calculated by Lichtenthaler's formula (Lichtenthaler, 1987).

220 For the extraction of phenolic compounds and anthocyanins, lettuce leaf tissue (around 40
221 mg) were placed in 4 mL of acidified methanol (1 % HCl V/V) and maintained overnight in the
222 dark. The phenolic index was calculated as the absorbance at 320 nm of the diluted extracts,
223 normalized to fresh weight (Ke and Saltveit, 1989). Total anthocyanins were determined
224 spectrophotometrically at 535 nm using an extinction coefficient (ϵ) of 29,600 $\text{mM}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-1}$ and
225 expressed as cyanidin-3-glucoside equivalents and (Klein and Hagen, 1961).

226 Each analysis was performed on three independent replicates.

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228 **2.4.3. Evaluation of leaf texture**

229

230 In order to evaluate the objective textural properties of romaine lettuce leaves grown in all
231 the assayed experimental conditions (with or without biocontrol inoculants and/or pathogens), a

232 mechanical bending test was performed with the TA.TX2 Stable Micro Systems texture analyzer
233 (Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, UK) as reported in Roversi et al. (2016). A single leaf was
234 fixed on an annulus-bounding fixture plate with a central testing area of 7 mm diameter. A
235 round-ended stainless steel plunger of 4 mm diameter was moved to the leaf surface at 10
236 mm/s constant speed until the probe passed through the specimen. During the test the imposed
237 mechanical loading develops a state of flexural stress which causes the leaf to undergo an
238 uniaxial deformation up to failure. A uniform one-dimensional stress distribution within the film
239 thickness was assumed. Results of the mechanical test were expressed in force/distance
240 coordinates. From the recorded curves, mechanical discrete parameters were extracted by
241 means of Texture Exponent Exceed TEE32 (Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, UK) software.
242 The force needed to bend the leaf sample up to failure F (N) was measured as a function of the
243 displacement of the probe (mm). The mechanical properties of lettuce leaves were evaluated at
244 room temperature at harvest time. For each treatment combination, seven specimens were
245 analyzed.

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2.5. Sampling, DNA extraction and 16S sequencing

248 The following samples were collected for DNA extraction: roots from plants grown in
249 sterile and non-sterile soil, rhizosphere from plants growing in non-sterile soil, and non-sterile
250 soil. For each kind of sample, 7 samples were collected from each treatment (NT, CC2, 260-02,
251 and R16).

252 For roots, both grown in sterile and non-sterile soil, samples were collected after three
253 weeks from transplant, cleaned from soil and surface sterilized (3' 70% ethanol, 2' 5% bleach, 3'
254 70% ethanol, 3 washings with sterile water). Starting from 1 gram of each of these samples,
255 total nucleic acids were extracted, following the protocol described by Bulgari and colleagues
256 (2012).

257 For rhizosphere, the roots were carefully extracted from soil and cleaned from loosely
258 attached bulk soil. The remaining, thin layer of soil clinging to the roots, identified as
259 rhizosphere, was collected in falcon tubes containing sterile water. The suspension was then
260 centrifuged and the supernatant was discarded. Rhizosphere pellet was then stored at -30 °C
261 until DNA extraction.

262 For soil samples, a 2 grams aliquot of soil was taken from each pot and stored at -30 °C
263 until DNA extraction.

264 DNA from soil and rhizosphere samples was extracted using the DNeasy PowerSoil kit
265 (QIAGEN), following the manufacturer's instructions.

266 DNA from the sampled roots was sent to an external service (Personal Genomics, Verona
267 (VR), Italy) for sequencing of the hypervariable V3–V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene using a
268 MiSeq1000 sequencer, utilizing a PNA blocker for organellar 16S rDNA amplification (Lundberg
269 et al., 2013). The obtained reads (deposited in EMBL-ENA under accession number
270 PRJEB35767) were analyzed using the QIIME pipeline in order to assign them to OTUs and
271 determine the richness of species in the different samples. Reads that mapped on plant-derived
272 sequences (mitochondria, chloroplasts), and reads with low quality, were filtered out. ~~Alpha
273 diversity indexes (Chao-1, Shannon and PD) were calculated for each sample.~~

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2.6. Microbiota analysis

276 The OTU table obtained from the sequencing analysis was analyzed in R (version 3.6.0)
277 using the R Phyloseq package (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). The sequencing data were

278 ~~analyzed in different ways.~~ A first stage of analysis included the identification of OTUs that were
279 unique to certain treatments or compartments, opposed to shared or “core” OTUs, considering
280 only OTUs with 10 or more counts per sample type to determine the shared or unique OTUs.
281 These data were visually represented as Venn’s diagrams using the online software Venny
282 (Oliveros, 2007-2015).

283 The calculations for alpha- and beta-diversity were carried out as described by Pietrangelo
284 et al., 2018, except as follows: the beta-diversity was calculated exclusively using the weighted
285 Unifrac index, and that 10000 permutations were used with the adonis function.

286 The composition of the bacterial community, expressed as relative abundance, was
287 defined at the Phylum level and at Family level, with 1% cutoff threshold.

288 ~~The beta diversity among the samples was determined with a Unifrac model using the~~
289 ~~Phyloseq package for R. The significance of the effect of the treatments and/or compartments~~
290 ~~on the observed diversity was tested with the ADONIS algorithm, employing 10000~~
291 ~~permutations.~~

292 2.7. Statistical analyses

293 The data obtained from the biocontrol assays (described in section 2.3.) were analyzed as
294 follows: (i) the values obtained for I%I among the different treatments throughout the 3 weeks of
295 observation were compared by performing a general linearized model test, optimized for
296 repeated measures, followed by Tukey’s exact post-hoc test ($p < 0.05$); (ii) the values obtained
297 for G% were compared between treatments and pathogen by One-Way ANOVA followed by
298 ~~BonferroniTukey’s exact~~ post-hoc test ($p < 0.05$).

299 The data obtained from the functional health-oriented quality parameters quantification
300 (described in section 2.4.) were analyzed as follows: results obtained in different conditions
301 were compared by a two-way ANOVA followed by ~~BonferroniTukey’s~~ multiple comparisons test.
302 Statistics were performed using GraphPad Prism version 6 for Windows, GraphPad Software,
303 La Jolla, California, USA (www.graphpad.com).

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306 3. Results

307 In the present study the effect of bacterial inoculants on lettuce plants was examined taking into
308 consideration different aspects: biocontrol against relevant soilborne pathogens of lettuce (*P. ultimum*
309 and *R. solani*), effects on the physiology and nutritional quality of the leaves, and the effect on the
310 bacterial microbiota associated to the soil and roots of the plants.

311 The plants were grown in greenhouse conditions, either in healthy soil or in soil experimentally
312 inoculated with the pathogens, to assess the biocontrol efficacy of the selected bacterial inoculants in
313 providing biocontrol. Biocontrol efficacy against *R. solani* was also assessed in a different experiment
314 which involved planting seeds of lettuce in healthy soil or soil inoculated with the pathogen,

315 determining how the bacterial inoculants affected germination of the seedlings, a development stage of
316 lettuce that is particularly susceptible to the attack by *R. solani*. All these biocontrol assays included
317 controls that were not treated with any biocontrol inoculant, and control that were treated with a
318 commercial biocontrol product which uses *Trichoderma* spp. as the biocontrol agent. These results are
319 reported in section 3.1.

320 Effects on the physiology of the plant and nutritive content was carried out in two stages: during the
321 biocontrol assay, parameters related to photosynthetic efficiency were measured; at the end of the
322 experiment (3 weeks after transplant and inoculation) the leaves were sampled from these plants to
323 quantify chlorophyll content, phenols content, and total carotenoid. The values obtained from these

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324 experiments were compared between plants grown with different combinations of pathogens and
325 bacterial inoculants to determine if statistically significant differences could be identified, highlighting
326 differences in the physiology of the treated plants. These results are reported in section 3.2.
327 Lastly, the effect on the bacterial microbiota was evaluated in four different compartments (bulk soil,
328 rhizosphere, roots grown in sterilized soil, roots grown in non-sterilized soil) related to the healthy plants
329 grown either without inoculation or with one of the bacterial inoculants. The abundance and identity of
330 OTUs was compared among all compartments and treatments; beta-diversity and OTU abundance
331 analyses were carried out to determine which differences could be caused by the treatments. These
332 results are reported in section 3.3.

333 **3.1. Biocontrol effect against soilborne pathogens**

334
335 The plants grown in soil inoculated with either PU or RS developed symptoms starting
336 from one week after transplant. While the most common symptoms that these pathogens inflict
337 on seedlings (e.g. damping off) were not observed on these plants, symptoms regarding the
338 plant architecture were observed on most plants and, in the case of RS, four plants out of 35
339 died due to crown rot. Comparison between the 1%I in different treatments shows that, for both
340 pathogens, the non-treated plants showed a more severe symptomatology (Fig 1 A and B)
341 compared to the treated plants. In particular, the treatment with strain R16 managed to
342 significantly reduce the 1%I for both pathogens, while CC2 and 260-02 reduced the symptom
343 severity but without any significant difference with the non-treated control. Likewise, the
344 treatment with TH managed to reduce the symptom severity compared to the non-treated
345 plants, but the difference is not statistically significant.

346 The results of the germination trial in presence of RS follow the same general trend as the
347 experiment carried out on two-weeks-old plants, except for the treatment with TH which showed
348 an effective biocontrol effect in this trial. The seeds grown without RS in the soil show a high
349 G%, ranging from 62% to 83% and, while there is an increase of G% with the treatments (in
350 particular CC2 and TH), this difference is not statistically significant (Fig 1C). Seeds grown in
351 the presence of RS instead show differences between the treatments: in the NT seeds, average
352 germination drops from 71% to 26%, the seeds treated with CC2 and 260-02 show an average
353 germination above 30%, while those treated with R16 maintain a higher germination rate of
354 53%, which is statistically different from those of other treatments with RS, and comparable to
355 that of seeds sowed in soil without RS (Fig 1C). The best result in this assay is obtained by TH,
356 which shows a G% over 70% also in the presence of RS.

357 **3.2. Evaluation of physiological responses**

358
359 The chlorophyll a fluorescence-related parameters indicated that the maximum efficiency
360 of the photosystem II was generally maintained in all the experimental conditions (Fig. 2A). The
361 only exception was represented by lettuce leaves inoculated with RS and treated with the
362 strains R16 and 260-02, which showed a slight but statistically significant decrement in the
363 Fv/Fm ratio, compared to untreated leaves. (Fig 2B).

364 Considering the health-related compounds, at harvest there were no marked differences
365 among treated and non-treated plants, although some specific combinations of bacterial
366 inoculant and pathogen showed some results of relevance. For example, the phenolic index
367 showed a significant increment in leaves of non-treated plants challenged with RS (Fig. 3A),
368 while the leaves of plants treated with different strains and challenged with RS did not show the
369 same trend. Interestingly, to note that these physiological values are mirrored in the results
370 obtained from the analysis of leaf texture, with the NT-RS plants having leaves with a
371 significantly tougher firmness (force at break = 1.46 ± 0.09 N) compared to all other treatments

372 (force at break = 1.12 ± 0.12 N) (data not shown). Significant changes were observed in the
373 total carotenoid contents. In fact, plants treated with the strains R16 and 260-02 and challenged
374 with RS had a higher content compared to the plants treated with the same bacterial strains but
375 without the pathogen (Fig 3C). The same trend was observed in the case of total chlorophyll
376 content, which reached the maximum level in leaves treated with the strain R16 and inoculated
377 with RS as well (Fig 3D).

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3.3. Description of bacterial community

381 Sequencing of partial 16S gene on the surface-sterilized roots (grown in sterilized or non-
382 sterilized soil), rhizosphere, and bulk soil produced, after filtering out organellar sequences, a
383 total of 2.47 million sequences belonging to 7205 different OTUs. Number of sequences and
384 OTUs obtained from each compartments and treatment are reported in Table 1. Of these OTUs,
385 42 were shared among all compartments and treatments. Comparison between the different
386 compartments in the non-treated controls ~~or treated samples~~ showed ~~a~~ high variability among
387 the different compartments: on ~~average, only 5.7%~~ ~~8.4%~~ of the OTUs ~~we~~ are shared among all 4
388 examined compartments ~~in each treatment, ranging from 8.4% of shared OTUs between the~~
389 ~~compartments for NT (Fig 4A) to 3.9% for CC2 (Fig 4C). The highest amount of unique OTUs~~
390 ~~was registered in the rhizosphere (RH) compartment in all treatments, but it is of note that in the~~
391 ~~treated plants the amount of OTUs specific to the rhizosphere was around two times higher than~~
392 ~~in the NT control. , while values above 10% are found for the OTUs unique to the rhizosphere,~~
393 ~~soil, and roots compartment when the latter are grown in non-sterilized soil.~~ On the contrary,
394 roots grown in sterilized soil showed very few unique OTUs ($0.5 \leq 1\%$). The only two
395 compartments ~~which~~ showed ~~ing~~ a higher level of similarity are rhizosphere and bulk soil,
396 sharing ~~approximately 25-2%~~ of ~~all the~~ OTUs ~~identified in 3 conditions out of 4~~ (Fig 4A, B, D),
397 ~~this percentage was lower in plants treated with CC2, only 16%, but this seems to be due to the~~
398 ~~higher number of OTUs shared not just among rhizosphere and soil, but also in the root~~
399 ~~endosphere (Fig 4C). Comparisons between the same compartment among different treatments~~
400 ~~showed~~ that, regardless of the compartment, the shared OTUs between treatments ~~we~~ are
401 slightly above 30%, while the remainder is affected by treatment. In particular, in roots of plants
402 grown in non-sterilized soil (NSR), the highest number of non-core OTUs are those unique to
403 plants treated with strain CC2 (Fig 54BA); in roots of plants grown in sterilized soil (SR) the
404 highest number of non-core OTUs ~~was~~ found in non-treated plants (Fig 5B4C); in rhizosphere
405 samples (RH) the highest number of ~~of a~~ non-core OTUs ~~we~~ are those shared by the three bacterial
406 treatments, but missing in the non-treated control (Fig 5C4D); in the soil, the highest number of
407 non-core OTUs are those unique to the 260-02 treatment (Fig 5D).

408 Analysis of Beta-diversity calculated with the Unifrac model highlight a vast difference
409 between compartments: root endosphere, regardless of soil sterilization, is different from the
410 rhizosphere and soil, which are very similar between them, although clustering separately (Fig
411 65A). It is interesting to note that, for the non-treated samples, there is no clear separation
412 between bulk soil and rhizosphere, while these two compartments ~~form~~ ~~are~~ clearly separate ~~d~~
413 ~~for the treated samples. Also, for the non-treated samples, there is no distinction between bulk~~
414 ~~soil and rhizosphere, while the two compartments form separate~~ clusters for all the treated
415 samples.

416 Performing beta-diversity analysis only between the root endosphere samples highlights
417 that there are differences between the microbiota of roots grown in sterilized soil and in non-
418 sterilized soil (Fig 65B). Also, it is possible to see that while the non-treated samples are
419 generally found on the left side of the graph and the treated samples are found on the middle
420 and right side, there is no clear clustering between the different treatments.

421 Abundance analysis at phylum level shows that all compartments and all treatments are
 422 dominated by Proteobacteria, with other relevant phyla being Verrucomicrobia, Bacteroidetes,
 423 Actinobacteria, and Acidobacteria (Fig 6A). In particular, in root endosphere samples there is a
 424 higher abundance of Proteobacteria and lower abundance of the other four aforementioned
 425 phyla compared to soil and rhizosphere.

426 Moving to family level allows to better discriminate between different compartments and
 427 treatments. Regarding the Proteobacteria, which are highly abundant in all compartments, it can
 428 be seen that in the rhizosphere and soil compartments they are mostly composed by
 429 Hyphomicrobiaceae, Caulobacteraceae, and Xanthomonadaceae, while the root endosphere is
 430 dominated by Burkholderiaceae, but showing also presence of Xanthomonadaceae.

431 The main difference between treated and non-treated samples in the root endosphere and
 432 rhizosphere compartments is the family Oxalobacteraceae: bacteria of this family are relevantly
 433 present in root endosphere of non-treated plants and are absent in the rhizosphere of non-
 434 treated plants; on the contrary, they are present only in the rhizosphere of treated plants, and
 435 absent from the root endosphere of those plants.

436 Lastly, in none of the treated samples can be observed an increase in OTUs belonging to
 437 the taxonomy of the bacteria used for the inoculation (Pseudomonadaceae for 260-02,
 438 Bacillaceae for CC2, or Paenibacillaceae for R16).

439
 440 **Table 1.** Sequencing of 16S sequencing, reporting the number of reads and OTUs (expressed
 441 as reads - OTUs) produced for each kind of sample analyzed in this study. Each row indicates a
 442 compartment (roots grown in non-sterilized soil, NSR; roots grown in sterilized soil, SR;
 443 rhizosphere, RH; bulk soil, S) while each column indicates a different treatment (non-treated,
 444 NT; strain 260-02; strain CC2; strain R16).

	NT	260-02	CC2	R16
NSR	181'906 – 2'131	107'365 – 1'572	106'560 – 1'997	88'911 – 1'525
SR	22'434 – 1'191	14'064 – 842	10'898 – 680	13'786 – 977
RH	301'272 – 2'413	254'580 – 3'357	280'308 – 3'444	247'405 – 3'682
S	217'595 – 2'007	217'721 – 1'997	177'479 – 2'226	226'864 – 2'678

445
 446 **4. Discussion**

447 While the overall lower environmental impact of biological control compared to synthetic
 448 pesticides is well-established (Berg, 2009), in order to conform to the guidelines of NSA these
 449 treatments should also guarantee the quantity and quality of production, while having a minimal
 450 impact on the biodiversity found in the agroecosystem.

451 Regarding the yield, no direct evaluation was carried out in this specific study, but the
 452 results obtained in the biocontrol assays can indicate how effective the tested inoculants are in
 453 comparison to a commercially-available product. The experiments carried out in this study
 454 highlighted a positive biocontrol effect of one of the three assayed bacterial strains, R16, against
 455 the fungal pathogens *P. ultimum* and *R. solani*. The other treatments carried out, including a
 456 commercial *Trichoderma*-based product, managed to reduce the symptoms induced by both
 457 pathogens, although not in a statistically significant way. Results obtained in the seed-
 458 germination assay with *R. solani* showed similar results to those obtained on grown seedlings,
 459 with strain R16 managing to cause a statistically significant reduction in the symptoms.
 460 Interestingly, in this assay also the *Trichoderma*-based product managed to cause a statistically
 461 significant reduction in the damage caused by the pathogen, restoring conditions similar to
 462 those of healthy plants, suggesting that the development stage of the plant can influence the
 463 effect of this product. These results are of particular relevance because, while there are several

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464 biocontrol agents (BCA) ~~reported in literature as being able to antagonize either *P. ultimum* or~~
465 ~~*R. solani* known to control one of these soilborne pathogens are very abundant~~, BCA effective
466 on both are very rare. Only two similar cases are currently reported in literature: *Gliocladium*
467 *virens* strain G20 (Lumsden and Locke, 1989) and *Paenibacillus alvei* strain K165 (Fatouros et
468 al., 2018). The fact that both strains R16 and K165 belong to the *Paenibacillus* genus might be
469 an indication that further research in broad-range biocontrol strains against soilborne pathogens
470 could become more successful by focusing on bacteria of this genus.

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471 Despite slight variations in the quantum efficiency of the photosystem II in plants treated
472 with different bacterial strains and pathogens, the leaves functionality was maintained in all the
473 experimental conditions tested. In fact, in all the plants the Fv/Fm values were always above the
474 value 0.83, which, in the case of leafy vegetables, is generally considered as a threshold
475 between non-stressed and stressed conditions (Björkman and Demmig, 1987).

476 Regarding the quality of the product, the biochemical and technological analyses carried
477 out give strong indication that there is no loss of quality related to the treatments. Chlorophyll
478 content in treated plants was generally increased, suggesting a possible positive physiological
479 effect on carbon fixation and visual appearance of the produce.

480 The only relevant change in the observed parameters is the quantity of phenols in the
481 leaves of non-treated plants challenged with RS, which is higher than that of all other plants.
482 This difference can be explained by an activation of defense pathways by the plants in response
483 to the infection by RS, causing the accumulation of phenolic compounds (Cruickshank and
484 Perrin, 1964, Toffolatti et al., 2012). In contrast, the plants inoculated with the beneficial bacteria
485 showed a lower level of phenolic compounds, comparable to the healthy plants, as the stress
486 caused by the pathogen is not perceived as strongly. The increase of phenolic compounds is
487 also an important nutritional aspect, since increase in the antioxidant capacity has beneficial
488 effects on human health. Results indicated that growing management can contribute to the
489 enrichment of bioactive compounds in produce (Toscano et al., 2019) while protecting the
490 crops.

491 This difference is also reflected in the texture of the leaves, an important feature for salads
492 tissues which are sensitive to stressful events that can determine a loss of instrumental
493 firmness, or crispness in sensorial terms. Considering that textural properties are one of the
494 main perceived quality attributes of salads (Dinnella et al., 2014), it is interesting to note that the
495 treatment with the bacterial strains aided the leaves in maintaining the textural properties of
496 fresh salads even in the presence of pathogens.

497 These results suggest that the obtained biocontrol effect therefore comes at a very little, if
498 any, cost on the plant's metabolism, supported by the lack of an increase in phenolic
499 compounds, which are higher in plants that activate resistance pathways (Cruickshank and
500 Perrin, 1964, Toffolatti et al., 2012). The results obtained would suggest that this response is in
501 fact activated by exposure to RS in non-treated plants, which show a higher abundance of
502 phenolic compounds and a tougher leaf surface, both values that could explain the development
503 of mild *Rhizoctonia*-induced symptoms that did not lead to plant death. On the other hand,
504 plants that were treated with bacteria and exposed to RS developed even milder symptoms
505 without undergoing drastic changes in their metabolism.

506 The effect on bacterial biodiversity, both in the soil and associated to the plant, was
507 analyzed through the 16s amplicon sequencing, producing several interesting results.

508 The least expected one was that, even though there was no enrichment in OTUs
509 belonging to the bacteria used in the inoculation, the bacterial community of the treated plants
510 was markedly different from that of the non-treated plants. This result indicates that the

511 employed bacteria were either unable to colonize the plants or did so in a transient way, as is
512 often the case with single strains inoculated in a complex microbial community. In spite of this,
513 the effects on both the plant-associated microbial community and the symptoms caused by the
514 pathogens are relevant. These results suggest that a high rhizosphere competence and ability
515 to colonize the host plant's tissues may not be essential to the development of a beneficial
516 effect, in contrast with previous research that report direct colonization of the host as a
517 necessary step to obtain effective biocontrol (Barret et al., 2011, Ghirardi et al., 2012, Schreiter
518 et al., 2018). The results obtained with three different inoculums show that, while the microbiota
519 associated to the plants faces a shift when exposed to these external bacteria inoculations, the
520 soil microbiota remains largely unaffected, suggesting that the impact on the soil biodiversity is
521 minimal.

522 One explanation for the reduced symptoms that were recorded could be a direct biocontrol
523 effect against the pathogen, expressed in the early period after the inoculation. Both strains R16
524 and 260-02 have been reported to have antifungal effect both in *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays
525 (Passera et al., 2017; Passera et al., 2019) and strain CC2 belongs to the *Bacillus*
526 *amyloliquefaciens* species, for which many strains are known as antifungal agents (Yu et al.,
527 2002, Chowdhury et al., 2013).

528 Another explanation is that the effect was caused by the shift of microbial community in
529 the rhizosphere and roots. It is possible that the presence of the bacteria either induced directly
530 this shift or caused it through interactions with the plant host. The composition of the
531 rhizosphere microbiota in the treated plants suggests that the biocontrol could be mostly
532 mediated by an activation of the native microbiota since there is a relevant increase of
533 Oxalobacteraceae, bacteria previously reported to have an antifungal activity and which
534 abundance has been reported to be positively correlated with soil suppressiveness towards
535 soilborne fungal pathogens (Cretoiou et al., 2013; Li et al., 2015).

536 The facts that (i) bacteria belonging to this family are not found in the bulk soil and in the
537 non-treated rhizosphere, (ii) they are present in the non-treated endosphere, (iii) they are found
538 in the rhizosphere of treated plants, (iv) they are not found the endosphere of treated plants,
539 would suggest the possibility that the treatment could cause these Oxalobacteraceae to
540 translocate from the inside of the roots to the rhizosphere, rather than being recruited from the
541 soil.

542 A third hypothesis on this effect could be made regarding the increase in bacteria
543 belonging to the Burkholderiaceae family in the endosphere of treated roots, a phenomenon
544 which is particularly evident for the roots grown in non-sterile soil and treated with strains R16 or
545 260-02. This family includes the genera *Burkholderia* and *Paraburkholderia* which are well-
546 known for their plant-beneficial effects (Depoorter et al., 2016), and have recently been
547 described as contributing to soil suppressiveness towards *R. solani* (Carrion et al., 2018)

548 ~~The results obtained with three different inoculums show that, while the microbiota~~
549 ~~associated to the plants faces a shift when exposed to these external bacteria inoculations, the~~
550 ~~soil microbiota remains largely unaffected, suggesting that the impact on the soil biodiversity is~~
551 ~~minimal.~~

552 Lastly, it is interesting to note that the composition of the salad-associated microbiota
553 described in this study is quite different from that reported in some previous publications. For
554 example, Cipriano and colleagues (2016) describe a lettuce-associated rhizosphere microbiota
555 in which the most abundant genus is *Bacillus*, while in our data the whole Firmicutes phylum
556 comes in a negligible amount. This diversity can be explained by having worked on different
557 soils and different lettuce genotypes, stressing once again the role of the environment and of
558 the host's genetic background when describing microbial communities (Bulgarelli et al., 2015).

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559 For this reason, studies aimed at describing the effect of host-pathogen-microbiota, especially in
560 the scope of sustainable production, must keep in mind that also the crop genotype, deeper
561 than species level, is an essential variable in determining the success or failure of a biocontrol
562 agent inoculation.

563

564 5. Conclusion

565 In conclusion, our study provides useful elements for the evaluation of the use of bacterial
566 inoculants as biocontrol agents for the production of salads in a NSA-driven perspective,
567 indicating an effect against symptoms induced by soil-borne pathogens, without showing
568 adverse effects for the plant physiology or the biodiversity of the soil.

569

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578

579 Figure Captions

580

581 **Figure 1. Results of the biocontrol assays.** A) symptoms observed in plants challenged with
582 *Pythium ultimum* PU. B) symptoms observed in plants challenged with *Rhizoctonia solani* RS. In
583 both graphs, the Y-axis reports the infection percentage index (%) while the X-axis reports the
584 different weeks of observation. The black dotted line represents the NT plants, the green line
585 with square-shaped dots represent plants treated with strain CC2, the blue line with rhomboid
586 dots represent plants treated with Trichoderma, the yellow line with triangle-shaped dots
587 represent plants treated with strain 260-02, and the red line with circular dots represent plants
588 treated with strain R16. Different letters (a,b) on the right side of the lines indicate statistically
589 significant differences in the results throughout the three weeks of observation, determined by a
590 general linear model, optimized for repeated measures, followed by the Bonferroni-Tukey's exact
591 post-hoc test ($P < 0.05$). C) graph representing the results obtained in the germination assays.
592 The Y-axis reports the germination percentage of the seeds, while the X-axis represents the
593 different treatments. Dark grey bars represent plants grown in healthy soil without RS, while the
594 white bars represent plants grown in soil containing RS. Different letters (a, b, c) on top of the
595 bars indicate statistically significant differences among the results, according to a One-Way
596 ANOVA followed by the Bonferroni-Tukey's exact post-hoc test ($P < 0.05$).

597

598 **Figure 2. Photosynthetic efficiency.** The chlorophyll *a* fluorescence indexes measured *in vivo*
599 on dark-adapted romaine lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L. var. longifolia) leaves grown under different
600 growing conditions. A: performance index (PI), B: maximum quantum efficiency of photosystem
601 II (Fv/Fm). Values are means \pm SE (n = 6). Different letters (a,b) indicate statistically significant
602 differences among the results, according to a Two-Way ANOVA followed by the Bonferroni
603 post-hoc test ($P < 0.05$).

604

605 **Figure 3. Physiological parameters.** Phenolic index (A), total carotenoids (B) and total
606 chlorophyll (C), measured in Romaine lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L. var. longifolia) leaves grown
607 under different growing conditions. The values are means \pm SE (n = 3). Different letters (a,b,c,d)

608 indicate statistically significant differences among the results, according to a Two-Way ANOVA
609 followed by the Bonferroni post-hoc test among different cycles (P < 0.05).

610
611 **Figure 4. Microbiota: OTU distribution within the same treatments.** Venn diagrams showing
612 the comparative distribution of OTUs in the different treatments and/or compartments analyzed
613 for the same treatment. Each circle is labeled with the compartment (NSR – endosphere of root
614 grown in non-sterilized soil, in blue; SR – endosphere of root grown in sterilized soil, in yellow;
615 RH – rhizosphere, in green; S – soil, in red) and treatment (NT – non-treated; CC2 – inoculated
616 with strain CC2; 260-02 – inoculated with strain 260-02; R16 – inoculated with strain R16). A) Comparison
617 between all four investigated compartments in non-treated plants; B) Comparison
618 between all four investigated compartments in plants treated with strain 260-02; comparison
619 between the NSR compartment in all four treatments; C) Comparison between all four
620 investigated compartments in plants treated with strain CC2; comparison between the SR
621 compartment in all four treatments; D) Comparison between all four investigated compartments
622 in plants treated with strain R16; comparison between the RH compartment in all four
623 treatments; E) comparison between the S compartment in all four treatments.

624
625 **Figure 5. Microbiota: OTU distribution within the same compartment.** Venn diagrams
626 showing the comparative distribution of OTUs in the different treatment for each compartment
627 analyzed. Each circle is labeled with the compartment (NSR – endosphere of root grown in non-
628 sterilized soil; SR – endosphere of root grown in sterilized soil; RH – rhizosphere; S – soil) and
629 treatment (NT – non-treated, in green; CC2 – inoculated with strain CC2, in yellow; 260-02 –
630 inoculated with strain 260-02, in blue; R16 – inoculated with strain R16, in red). A) Comparison
631 between the NSR compartment in all four treatments; B) comparison between the SR
632 compartment in all four treatments; C) comparison between the RH compartment in all four
633 treatments; D) comparison between the S compartment in all four treatments.

634
635
636 **Figure 6. Microbiota: Beta-diversity.** Graphs reporting the distribution of the samples
637 according to beta-diversity calculated with a weighted Unifrac index UNIFRAC model. A) graph
638 with all samples; different shape of the markers indicates different compartments and different
639 colors indicate different treatments, as reported in the legend. B) graph reporting only root
640 endosphere samples; different shape of the markers indicates roots grown in sterilized or non-
641 sterilized soil, different colors indicate different treatments, as reported in the legend. Circles
642 were added to highlight the different clusters of samples.

643
644 **Figure 7. Microbiota: relative abundance.** Graphical representations of the abundance at
645 different taxonomic levels of the microbiota. Stacked bar plots representing the relative
646 abundance of each taxonomical unit (graph A, clustered at phylum level; graph B, clustered at
647 family level) among the samples. Y-axis reports the relative abundance of the considered
648 taxonomic order, while the X-axis reports the different treatments, divided by compartments in
649 the grid. For ease of interpretation, each graph reports only the most abundant taxonomical
650 groups (cutoff 1%); when a stacked bar does not reach 100%, the missing values belong all to
651 taxonomical groups with abundance lower than the cutoff threshold.

652 653 654 655 **Bibliography**

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