

1 **Pseudomonads associated to salt-stressed plants facilitate stress adaption of**
2 **soybean through enhanced lignin biosynthesis**

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26
27 **Short title:** Pseudomonads facilitate soybean stress adaption

28 **Teaser:** Pseudomonads enhance soybean salt tolerance via plant lignin biosynthesis
29 rather than the canonical mechanism of Na⁺ homeostasis.

30 **Abstract**

31 Root-associated microbiota play a critical role in plant tolerance to salt stress. However,
32 the conservation of beneficial interactions across diverse crops and soils, and the
33 underlying mechanisms, remain unclear. Here, we show that pseudomonads were
34 consistently enriched in salt stressed plant roots across multiple soil types and most
35 crop species. Comparative genomics revealed that these pseudomonads harbored
36 unique genomic signatures associated with high salinity tolerance, such as Na⁺
37 transporters. Pseudomonad isolates from salt-stressed plants robustly colonized
38 soybean roots, and significantly improved salt tolerance under both greenhouse and
39 field conditions. Importantly, pseudomonads-dependent plant salt stress tolerance was
40 mediated through plant lignin biosynthesis stimulation rather than the canonical
41 mechanism of Na⁺ homeostasis. Overexpression of the key plant lignin biosynthesis
42 genes, including *GmCAD*, *GmCOMT* and *Gm4CL*, significantly enhanced soybean
43 growth under salt stress. Furthermore, mutant plants deficient in lignin biosynthesis no
44 longer showed pseudomonads-induced salt tolerance. Collectively, our findings reveal
45 a previously unrecognized microbial-mediated pathway that enhances plant resilience
46 to salt stress.

47

48 **Key words:** Root microbiota; Pseudomonads; Salt stress; Lignin biosynthesis

49 **Introduction**

50 Soil salinization is a major global threat to soil fertility (1), biodiversity (2) and crop
51 yield (3). Through climate change, the extent and persistence of salinization are
52 predicted to exceed those observed in recent decades (4), posing a serious threat to
53 global food security. Numerous studies on salt-tolerant plants have uncovered a range
54 of adaptive strategies to cope with salt stress, such as ion homeostasis, accumulation of
55 compatible solutes, and hormonal regulation (5, 6). Soil microbiota are key drivers of
56 plant productivity and ecosystem function, and they also play a critical role in
57 enhancing plant survival under saline conditions (7, 8). Therefore, understanding the
58 interactions between soil microorganisms and plants is essential for improving crop
59 performance in saline-affected soils and for supporting sustainable agriculture.

60

61 The “cry for help” hypothesis has recently been proposed to describe a strategy whereby
62 plants under biotic or abiotic stresses actively secrete specific compounds to recruit
63 beneficial microorganisms that enhance stress adaptation (9, 10). Increasing evidence
64 suggests that conserved microbial recruitment patterns may occur across diverse plant
65 species in response to specific stresses. For example, *Pseudomonas* are frequently
66 enriched in rhizospheres to resist pathogen attacks (11, 12). Under nitrogen deprivation,
67 *Massilia* have been reported to be recruited across diverse plant species to improve
68 nitrogen acquisition and host performance (13-15). Similarly, under drought stress,
69 *Streptomyces* are consistently enriched across diverse plants and soil types (16-18). In
70 a recent study, Zheng et al. (19) reported a significant enrichment of *Pseudomonas*
71 within the salt-stressed roots of wild soybean (*Glycine soja*), and that such
72 *Pseudomonas* isolates enhanced plant resilience to salt stress. Based on these
73 observations, we hypothesize that a conserved plant-microbe interaction mechanism
74 may exist for salt stress tolerance, likely mediated by a common group of beneficial
75 bacteria.

76

77 The microbial driven mechanisms for enhancing plant salt tolerance are proposed to

78 include regulation of ion homeostasis, osmoprotectant synthesis and reactive oxygen
79 species (ROS) scavenging (20-22). Rhizospheric pseudomonads are one of the most
80 widely recognized microorganisms to benefit plants (23), and growing evidence shows
81 that they enhance plant resistance to both abiotic and biotic stresses by producing plant
82 growth regulators, such as indole-3-acetic acid (IAA), siderophores, and antimicrobial
83 compounds, as well as by inducing systemic resistance in plants (24-26). Recent studies
84 have reported that some pseudomonads alleviate plant salt stress by moderating
85 antioxidant enzyme activities, proline accumulation and the Na^+/K^+ ratio (27, 28).
86 Despite widespread claims regarding the physiological efficacy of pseudomonads
87 inoculation (29), the molecular mechanisms underlying its role in enhancing plant salt
88 tolerance remains limited.

89

90 This study hypothesized that salt stress enhances root-associated *Pseudomonas*
91 populations across diverse plant species and soil types. To test this hypothesis, we
92 employed genome-resolved metagenomics to investigate the rhizosphere microbiome
93 shifts associated with salt stress of wild soybean. We included multiple soil types
94 spanning a latitudinal gradient across China, classified as alkaline or acidic, as well as
95 diverse plant species, including the key crops maize (*Zea mays*) and sorghum (*Sorghum*
96 *bicolor*), to determine whether the observed microbial response is species-specific or
97 broadly conserved. Functional differences between salt-enriched and salt-depleted
98 microbial taxa were identified by comparative genomics, to uncover potential genetic
99 adaptations underlying their stress-associated proliferation. Moreover, we conducted a
100 series of genetic, transcriptomic, and inoculation experiments to elucidate the
101 mechanisms by which *Pseudomonas* enhance plant salt tolerance.

102

103 **Results**

104 **Identification of salt-enriched taxa from metagenome-assembled genome (MAG)** 105 **analysis of wild soybean rhizosphere soils**

106 To determine how salt stress shapes the rhizosphere microbiome, we revisited the

107 metagenomic data from rhizosphere soils of salt-stressed and control wild soybean
108 generated in Zheng et al. (19). A total of ~264 Gb high-quality data was retrieved from
109 16 rhizosphere soils of wild soybean treated with salt stress (100 mM, 200 mM and 300
110 mM NaCl) or without (0 mM NaCl; control). We extended the previous analysis, which
111 focused on functional genes from the non-redundant gene set (19), by recovering MAGs
112 to better resolve the salt stress induced shift in taxonomy at the genomic level. Binning
113 of assembled contigs from these metagenomic data resulted in 164 non-redundant
114 MAGs (completeness $\geq 50\%$ and contamination $\leq 10\%$), including 157 bacterial MAGs
115 and 7 archaeal MAGs (table S1). The most dominant phyla were *Pseudomonadota*
116 ($n = 48$), *Actinomycetota* ($n = 32$), and *Acidobacteriota* ($n = 20$) (Fig. 1A). Consistent
117 with the 16S rRNA gene barcoding analysis (19), the MAG dataset also demonstrated
118 a strong enrichment of *Pseudomonas* and a large decrease in the relative abundance of
119 *Acidovorax* in the rhizosphere community under all levels of salt stress, as compared to
120 the control (Fig. 1B).

121

122 To determine whether salt-enriched MAGs exhibited distinct functional profiles
123 compared to salt-depleted MAGs, we identified 35 out of 164 MAGs with significant
124 abundance changes between control and salt treatments, including 21 salt-enriched and
125 14 salt-depleted MAGs (Fig. 1 and fig. S1). Functional annotation using the Clusters of
126 Orthologous Groups (COG) database revealed no significant differences between the
127 enriched and depleted groups [Analysis of similarities (ANOSIM): $R = 0.089$, $P = 0.053$]
128 (Fig. 1C and table S2). Using Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG)
129 annotations, we further assessed the plant growth-promoting (PGP) potential of MAGs
130 and similarly found no statistically significant differences (ANOSIM: $R = 0.046$, $P =$
131 0.172 ; Fig. 1D and table S3). These results suggested that salt-enriched MAGs lacked
132 common functional signatures, at least within the tested databases. Note, previously
133 Zheng et al. observed a marked enrichment of genes associated with cell motility (COG
134 category N) in salt-treated samples (19). This enrichment could largely be attributed to
135 the high number of motility-related genes in *Pseudomonas* MAG (e.g., bin149; Fig. 1E).

136 Together, these findings provided genomic-level support for the previously observed
137 enrichment of *Pseudomonas* in salt-stressed root systems (19). In contrast, *Acidovorax*
138 was identified as the most strongly depleted taxon under salt stress.

139

140 **Salt-mediated *Pseudomonas* enrichment is conserved across diverse soils**

141 To examine if plant enrichment of *Pseudomonas* under salt stress was conserved across
142 different soils, we collected experimental soils from 10 different fields in China
143 spanning a latitudinal range of 12 degrees and different pH gradients (Fig. 2A, and
144 tables S4 and S5). Wild soybean seedlings were grown in the above soils for 10 days
145 and then treated with 300 mM NaCl or sterile water (control) for two weeks in a green
146 greenhouse (fig. S2). 16S rRNA gene barcoding analysis showed that salt stress
147 significantly decreased the α -diversity of root microbiota in alkaline soils, while a
148 similar but non-significant trend was observed in acidic soils (Fig. 2B). For β -diversity,
149 microbial communities significantly differed between wild soybean grown in alkaline
150 and acidic soils. Moreover, salt stress exerted a stronger influence on the microbial
151 communities associated to plants grown in acidic soils compared to alkaline soils (Fig.
152 2C).

153

154 To determine how salt stress affected bacterial recruitment by wild soybean across
155 different soils, we first analyzed the compositional profiles at the order level.
156 *Burkholderiales* and *Rhizobiales* were dominant across both control and salt-treated
157 samples, regardless of alkaline or acidic soils (fig. S3). Intriguingly, salt stress
158 significantly increased the relative abundance of *Pseudomonadales* by 9.6-fold in the
159 wild soybean grown in alkaline soils (Student's *t* test, $P = 9.5 \times 10^{-7}$; from 1.4% of
160 control to 13.6% of salt-treated samples), whereas no significant change was observed
161 in acidic soils (Student's *t* test, $P = 0.71$). Of the top 10 abundant genera, *Pseudomonas*
162 exhibited the most pronounced positive response to salt stress (fig. S4), with fold
163 increases ranging from 3.9 to 96.9 in alkaline soils (Fig. 2D). Note, a salt-induced
164 enrichment of *Pseudomonas* was also observed in acidic soils (Fig. 2E), albeit with

165 modest increases ranging from 0.7 to 4.0-fold. Further analysis of salt-enriched
166 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) in alkaline soils revealed
167 *Pseudomonas* OTU12019 as the most significantly enriched taxon in salt-treated wild
168 soybean roots [Student's *t* test, $P = 2.1 \times 10^{-6}$; $\log_2(\text{fold change}) = 5.2$], with a weaker
169 but still significant enrichment in acidic soils [Student's *t* test, $P = 0.01$; $\log_2(\text{fold}$
170 $\text{change}) = 1.7$] (Fig. 2F). Consistent with the MAG-based observations (Fig. 1), there
171 was also a significant depletion of *Acidovorax* in the salt-treated roots, both in alkaline
172 and acidic soils (Fig. 2E). Combined these data implied that *Pseudomonas* had a
173 competitive advantage over other root-associated bacteria under salt stress conditions,
174 which was conserved across distinct soils, but more pronounced in alkaline soils.

175

176 **Salt-mediated *Pseudomonas* enrichment is conserved across plant hosts**

177 To determine if salt stress induced *Pseudomonas* enrichment is conserved across
178 different plants, six common crops (table S5), including maize (*Zea mays*), sorghum
179 (*Sorghum bicolor*), rice (*Oryza sativa*), wheat (*Triticum aestivum*), rapeseed (*Brassica*
180 *napus*) and tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) were planted and studied in alkaline soils.
181 Ten-day-old plants were subjected to 200 mM NaCl or sterile water (control), and root
182 samples were collected after two weeks. For all plant species, salt stress significantly
183 decreased bacterial α -diversity (Shannon index; fig. S5) and induced shifts in
184 community compositions (Fig. 3A and fig. S6). Consistent with observations in wild
185 soybean, the abundance of *Acidovorax* dramatically decreased in the rhizosphere of all
186 tested salt stressed plant species (Fig. 3B). Similarly, *Pseudomonas* were the most
187 strongly enriched taxa in the salt stressed maize, sorghum, rapeseed, and tomato roots
188 with their relative abundance increasing from 1.42%-21.56% in control to 22.84%-
189 41.12% in salt stressed samples (Fig. 3C). However, *Pseudomonas* were not enriched
190 in the salt stressed roots of rice and wheat (Fig. 3B). These data implied that salt stress
191 induced enrichment of *Pseudomonas* was conserved across many diverse cropped
192 plants, but that this was not a universal phenomenon.

193

194 ***Pseudomonas* harbor versatile genetic capabilities for salt tolerance**

195 With the contrasting responses of *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax* to salt stress in most
196 plants, we hypothesized they had contrasting salt tolerance and genetic architectures for
197 salt stress resistance. To test this hypothesis, we reviewed published data on the salt
198 tolerance of their type strains and found that *Pseudomonas* strains tolerated NaCl
199 concentrations up to 4.9%, whereas most *Acidovorax* species exhibited limited growth
200 at around 1.5% NaCl (Fig. 4A and table S6). Next, comparative genomics was
201 conducted on 359 reference *Pseudomonas* genomes and 128 *Acidovorax* genomes
202 publicly available in the NCBI database (table S7 and S8). Compiling the geographical
203 source of each genome showed that *Pseudomonas* were potentially distributed across
204 more diverse habitats than *Acidovorax* (Fig. 4, B and C), although this pattern may be
205 influenced by unequal genome number for the two genera. With a focus on genes
206 associated with PGP traits and salt stress alleviation, functional gene annotation against
207 the KEGG database revealed that while PGP [e.g., 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate
208 (ACC) deaminase, IAA biosynthesis, and phosphatases] related genes showed some
209 variability between *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax*, the most striking differences were
210 observed in stress-related gene contents. Compared to *Acidovorax*, *Pseudomonas*
211 harbored far more genes involved in antioxidation, betaine synthesis and transport, and
212 Na⁺ transport (Fig. 4D).

213

214 Using antiSMASH, 3,873 and 616 putative biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) were
215 identified in *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax*, respectively. On average, the number of
216 BGCs per genome was two-fold higher in *Pseudomonas* than in *Acidovorax* (fig. S7A),
217 suggesting that *Pseudomonas* species possess greater genetic potential for secondary
218 metabolite biosynthesis. Moreover, these two genera displayed different BGC profiles.
219 The predicted product classes of *Pseudomonas* mainly comprised non-ribosomal
220 peptides (NRPS, 32.5%), ribosomally synthesized and post-translationally modified
221 peptides (RiPP, 13.1%), redox-cofactor (9.2%), and N-acetylglutaminylglutamine
222 amide (NAGGN, 8.6%), whilst *Acidovorax* comprised terpenes (23.5%), RiPP (19.5%),

223 betalactones (15.7%), and NRPS (14.4%) (fig. S7, B and C). Strikingly, the potential
224 secondary metabolites related to salt tolerance, including NRPS, siderophore, NAGGN,
225 and ectoine, were found to be far more prevalent in *Pseudomonas* compared to
226 *Acidovorax* species (Fig. 4C). In particular, the compatible solute NAGGN was
227 ubiquitously present across nearly all *Pseudomonas* species, whereas it was not
228 predicted in any *Acidovorax* species. Given some *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax*
229 genome assemblies were incomplete, we reanalyzed salt tolerance-related pathways
230 using only complete genomes to assess whether genome completeness impacted our
231 estimation of these functions. The results were consistent with those from the full
232 genome datasets (fig. S8), indicating that the observed differences between the two
233 genera are robust and not affected by genome assembly level.

234

235 Since NAGGN synthesis potential was the most conspicuous predicted metabolic
236 difference between *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax*, we hypothesized that it played a key
237 role in salt tolerance in *Pseudomonas*. To test this, two representative *Pseudomonas*
238 strains, *P. stutzeri* XN05-1 and *P. frederiksbergensis* YE17, previously isolated from
239 salt-treated wild soybean roots in Zheng et al. (19), were selected for further
240 experiments. AntiSMASH analysis revealed that both XN05-1 and YE17 strains
241 harbored the NAGGN biosynthetic gene cluster (fig. S9). This cluster comprised three
242 NAGGN synthesis genes encoding N-acetylglutaminylglutamine amidotransferase, N-
243 acetylglutaminylglutamine synthetase, and peptidase (designated as *nbsABC* in this
244 study; Fig. 4E and table S9). Deletion of *nbsABC* in strain XN05-1 severely impaired
245 growth compared to the wild-type strain in media containing 3-7% NaCl (w/v), and
246 strain YE17 exhibited markedly reduced growth under 3-5% NaCl (w/v) conditions
247 (Fig. 4F). These results suggest that NAGGN biosynthesis represents one of the key
248 strategies used by *Pseudomonas* to tolerate high salinity, which may contribute to their
249 enrichment in plant roots under salt stress.

250

251 ***Pseudomonas* alleviate soybean salt stress via a non-canonical salt-tolerance**

252 **mechanism**

253 The consistent enrichment of salt-tolerant *Pseudomonas* in roots of many plant species
254 under salt stress made it an ideal model system to examine their potential interaction
255 and benefits to salt-stressed plants. Soybean (*Glycine max*), an economically
256 important crop that has evolved from wild soybean, was utilized as the model plant. To
257 determine whether *Pseudomonas* could colonize soybean roots, *Pseudomonas* strains
258 XN05-1 and YE17 were inoculated onto soybean seedlings, and their root colonization
259 was examined using scanning electron microscopy. Both *Pseudomonas* strains robustly
260 adhered to the root surface (Fig. 5A). To quantify colonization dynamics under salt
261 stress (50 mM NaCl), *Pseudomonas* strains were genetically tagged with green
262 fluorescent protein (GFP), which showed no detectable effects on motility and only a
263 minor effect on growth kinetics (fig. S10). The fluorescence intensity revealed both
264 strains exhibited a twofold increase in root colonization under salt stress compared to
265 control conditions (Fig. 5, B and C). Colony forming units (CFU) enumeration further
266 confirmed effective root colonization, with strains XN05-1 and YE17 reaching
267 densities of 1.78×10^6 and 1.12×10^6 CFU per gram of fresh root under salt stress,
268 respectively. Consistent with their enhanced colonization, salt-stressed soybean plants
269 inoculated with either XN05-1 or YE17 exhibited significant growth promotion,
270 particularly in root growth and development (fig. S11, A and B). Morphological
271 observations further confirmed that both *Pseudomonas* strains significantly promoted
272 root elongation and lateral root formation under salt stress (Fig. 5, C to E, and fig. S11C).

273
274 To elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying the enhancement of salt tolerance
275 in soybean by *Pseudomonas*, RNA-seq analysis was performed on the roots of soybean
276 inoculated and un-inoculated (mock) with strains XN05-1 and YE17. Compared to the
277 control condition, the inoculated soybean roots exhibited pronounced transcriptional
278 reprogramming under salt stress conditions (300 mM NaCl) (Fig. 5, G and H, and fig.
279 S12, A and B). Specifically, inoculation with strains XN05-1 and YE17 under salt stress
280 resulted in 5972 (up: 1628, down: 4344) and 928 (up: 381, down: 547) differentially

281 expressed genes (DEGs), respectively. In contrast, under control condition, only 177
282 and 149 DEGs were identified for strains XN05-1 and YE17, respectively (table S10).
283 Given that Na⁺ toxicity will directly impair root growth, we hypothesized that the
284 observed growth promotion by *Pseudomonas* involves Na⁺ homeostasis regulation.
285 Unexpectedly, Na⁺ and K⁺ transporter genes (including members of the *CHX*, *NHX*,
286 and *HKT* families) were not differentially expressed in response to either XN05-1 or
287 YE17 inoculation (Fig. 5H and table S11). Consistent with this, ion content analysis
288 revealed no significant differences in root Na⁺ or K⁺ contents between inoculated and
289 mock-treated plants under either salt or control conditions (Fig. 5, I and J). Taken
290 together, these data revealed that *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17 mitigated
291 salt stress in soybean through a non-canonical salt-tolerance mechanism.

292

293 ***Pseudomonas* improve soybean salt tolerance by enhancing root lignin** 294 **biosynthesis**

295 To reveal the mechanisms underlying *Pseudomonas*-mediated salt tolerance, we
296 performed KEGG enrichment analysis of the soybean root transcriptomes. A
297 phenylpropanoid biosynthesis pathway was significantly enriched in roots inoculated
298 with either XN05-1 or YE17 under salt stress (Fig. 6A), but not under control condition
299 (fig. S12, C and D), indicating that *Pseudomonas*-mediated activation of this metabolic
300 pathway was specific to salt stress. In the phenylpropanoid biosynthesis pathway, the
301 gene *Glyma.01G021000* was strongly induced by strains XN05-1 and YE17. This gene
302 (named *GmCAD*) encodes cinnamyl alcohol dehydrogenase, an enzyme that plays a
303 critical role in lignin synthesis. Strikingly, several other lignin-associated genes,
304 including *Gm4CL*, *GmCCR*, *GmCOMT*, and *GmPOX*, were also upregulated in the
305 roots of soybean inoculated with *Pseudomonas* strains (Fig. 6B). Thus, we
306 hypothesized that *Pseudomonas* may activate lignin biosynthesis in the roots to enhance
307 soybean salt tolerance. To test this hypothesis, plant lignin content was quantified
308 following *Pseudomonas* inoculation. Under salt stress, lignin levels in roots increased
309 by 35.2% and 30.3% upon inoculation with strains XN05-1 and YE17, respectively,

310 whereas no significant changes were observed under the control condition (Fig. 6C).
311 Phloroglucinol staining also showed enhanced lignin deposition (red and purple
312 coloration) in the root cell walls of inoculated plants (Fig. 6D). These results supported
313 the notion that *Pseudomonas*-induced lignin biosynthesis was specifically triggered by
314 salt stress.

315

316 To further validate the role of lignin biosynthesis in soybean salt tolerance, plant lines
317 over-expressing *GmCAD*, *Gm4CL* and *GmCOMT* (*OE-GmCAD*, *OE-Gm4CL* and *OE-*
318 *GmCOMT*) were generated using a transgenic hairy root system (fig. S13). Compared
319 to the wild-type (WT), all over-expression lines exhibited enhanced salt tolerance, as
320 evidenced by a marked reduction in leaf chlorosis symptoms (Fig. 6E). In addition, root
321 elongation was significantly improved in *OE-GmCAD*, *OE-Gm4CL*, and *OE-*
322 *GmCOMT* plants compared to WT under both control and salt stress conditions (Fig.
323 6F). This improvement in root elongation was more pronounced under salt stress,
324 showing a 3.3 to 13.4-fold increase compared to the 2.5 to 3.4-fold improvement under
325 control conditions, suggesting that overexpression of lignin biosynthesis genes
326 conferred a salt stress-specific advantage. Supporting this conclusion, soybean plants
327 with disrupted lignin biosynthesis genes no longer displayed *Pseudomonas*-induced salt
328 tolerance (Fig. 6G), confirming lignin biosynthesis as a critical mechanism underlying
329 this beneficial interaction.

330

331 Field trials are essential for evaluating microbial inoculants under real-world conditions.
332 A field experiment conducted in naturally saline soil (salinity of 0.42%) showed that
333 soybean plants inoculated with *Pseudomonas* strains exhibited superior growth
334 performance relative to uninoculated controls (Fig. 6H). Specifically, inoculation with
335 *Pseudomonas* led to notable increases in root biomass, nodule number, and pod number
336 compared to non-inoculated plants (Fig. 6, I to K). These findings indicated that the
337 application of *Pseudomonas* strains enriched from salt-stressed plants offers a
338 promising strategy for improving crop performance in saline agriculture. Collectively,

339 our findings establish a mechanistic link between *Pseudomonas* symbiosis and
340 enhanced salt tolerance in soybean, wherein root-associated *Pseudomonas* activate the
341 host's lignin biosynthesis, leading to root architectural modifications that contribute to
342 improved stress resilience (Fig. 7). However, further work is needed to establish exactly
343 how *Pseudomonas* enhanced plant lignin gene expression, if this mechanism is
344 conserved in the other plants for which pseudomonads were enriched by salt stress.

345

346 **Discussion**

347 Although plants have evolved diverse adaptive mechanisms to cope with biotic and
348 abiotic stresses in nature, they still rely on their microbial partners to bolster survival
349 and provide additional protection against these stresses (30-32). In this study, genome-
350 wide insights were provided into shifts of root microbiota composition of wild soybean
351 under salt stress. The observed enrichment and depletion of specific taxa, exemplified
352 by *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax*, respectively (Fig. 1), supported the notion that
353 abiotic stresses significantly influenced the assembly of plant-associated microbiomes
354 (13, 33). Extending this, we further found that the salt-induced enrichment of
355 *Pseudomonas* was a highly conserved phenomenon across most tested diverse plant
356 species and soil backgrounds (Figs. 2 and 3), indicating its selective advantage of salt-
357 adaption and beneficial roles in stress alleviation (Fig. 4). We experimentally confirmed
358 that *Pseudomonas* enhanced soybean salt tolerance through a lignin-mediated
359 mechanism, in contrast to the widely recognized mechanism of ion homeostasis (Fig. 5
360 and 6). This finding highlights the potential of harnessing root-associated microbiota to
361 improve crop resilience under saline conditions.

362

363 Different plant species possess unique root architectures, exudation profiles, and abiotic
364 stress tolerance, all of which have been shown to shape symbiotic microbial
365 communities (34, 35). Unexpectedly, most crops examined here exhibited a conserved
366 pattern of *Pseudomonas* enrichment. This finding aligns with previous reports of salt-
367 induced *Pseudomonas* enrichment in both salt-sensitive and salt-tolerant plants within

368 the family Curcubitaceae, such as *Cucumis sativus*, *Cucurbita ficifolia*, and *Lagenaria*
369 *siceraria* (36). Together with our prior demonstration of this phenomenon in salt-
370 stressed wild and domesticated soybean (19), these results support the conclusion that
371 *Pseudomonas* enrichment is a broadly conserved response to salt stress across diverse
372 plant species, despite notable exceptions in rice and wheat. These exceptions might be
373 caused by either lineage-specific host selection mechanisms or differential host genetic
374 factors that influenced microbiome recruitment. To further elucidate the interplay
375 between salt stress and *Pseudomonas* enrichment in plants, future research should
376 determine the salt stress threshold needed for *Pseudomonas* enrichment and assess
377 whether this relationship follows a linear pattern or exhibits greater complexity.

378

379 *Pseudomonas* species exhibit significant plant-beneficial traits, notably the production
380 of diverse bioactive metabolites (25) and other compounds that help plants withstand
381 biotic (37, 38) and abiotic stresses (39). These may explain its widespread occurrence
382 in salt-stressed plants. Members of *Pseudomonas* have been shown to synthesize the
383 compatible solute NAGGN in response to osmotic stress (40-42). Consistent with this,
384 comparative genomic analysis revealed that the NAGGN biosynthetic gene cluster is
385 widely present across nearly all *Pseudomonas* species (Fig. 4C). Disruption of the
386 NAGGN biosynthetic pathway significantly impaired the growth of *Pseudomonas*
387 strains under saline conditions (Fig. 4E). This osmoprotective mechanism may
388 contribute to the observed enrichment of *Pseudomonas* in salt stressed root
389 microbiomes. Given the conserved nature of this enrichment, we propose the
390 *Pseudomonas* genus as a promising model system for investigating plant-microbe
391 interactions under saline conditions.

392

393 Microbe-mediated strategies for plant adaptation to salt stress have gained wide
394 recognition, with core mechanisms involving the maintenance of ion homeostasis,
395 scavenging of reactive oxygen species (ROS), and activation of stress response
396 signaling pathways (20, 21, 43). Among these, the regulation of Na⁺ homeostasis is

397 regarded as a key mechanism by which plants adapt to salt-stress conditions (44).
398 However, our RNA-seq analysis revealed that *Pseudomonas* did not directly activate
399 genes or pathways related to Na⁺ transport, such as *CHX* and *NHX* genes (Fig. 5D).
400 Intriguingly, we found that *Pseudomonas* significantly induced enrichment of the
401 phenylpropanoid metabolic pathway, with multiple lignin biosynthesis-related genes
402 (*GmCAD*, *Gm4CL*, and *GmCOMT*) exhibiting marked differential expression (Fig. 6,
403 A and B). This led to elevated root lignin content and evident lignin deposition in the
404 cell wall (Fig. 6, C and D). Lignin is a major component of the cell wall and plays a
405 critical role in enhancing cell wall mechanical strength and structural stability (45). It
406 has been demonstrated that increasing lignin content can significantly enhance plant
407 salt tolerance and growth performance (46, 47). For instance, in tomato, overexpression
408 of *SICOMT2* promoted both plant growth and salt tolerance (48). Notably,
409 *Pseudomonas*-induced lignin biosynthesis was mainly observed under salt stress,
410 indicating that stress condition was essential for the activation of this pathway by
411 *Pseudomonas*. Our previous work has identified purines as key chemical signals
412 mediating the enrichment of *Pseudomonas* under salt stress (19). These findings
413 together suggested a coordinated interaction, in which salt stress first promoted the
414 secretion of root-derived purines to recruit *Pseudomonas*. In turn, *Pseudomonas*
415 functioned as a specific signal that activated the host lignin biosynthetic pathway,
416 thereby enhancing plant stress tolerance. However, future studies are needed to
417 elucidate how *Pseudomonas* activates these plant lignin biosynthetic genes.

418

419 Collectively, our study provides the most comprehensive investigation to date of how
420 salt stress shapes root bacterial communities across diverse soil types and plant species.
421 The discovery of the conserved enrichment of *Pseudomonas* in salt-stressed plant root
422 underwrites its ecological significance as a key stress-alleviating taxon. We further
423 establish *Pseudomonas* as a model system for investigating plant-microbe interactions
424 under salt stress, and evidence that specific strains enhance soybean salt tolerance
425 through a lignin-dependent mechanism, revealing a previously unrecognized microbial

426 strategy for modulating host salt resilience. These findings fill key knowledge gaps in
427 understanding how environmental stress reconfigures the plant microbiome, and
428 identify lignin biosynthesis as a promising target for breeding salt-tolerant crops and
429 screening of beneficial microbes.

430

431 **Materials & Methods**

432 **Metagenomic sequencing and binning**

433 As described in Zheng et al. (19), 10-day-old wild soybeans were treated with 100, 200
434 or 300 mM NaCl (60 mL per pot, applied as 20 mL per day for three consecutive days),
435 with sterile water as the control. Rhizosphere soils were collected at 14 days after the
436 salt treatment and six plants per pot were combined to generate one composite sample.
437 Each treatment had four biological replicates.

438

439 Genomic DNA of rhizosphere soil was extracted using the FastDNA® Spin Kit for Soil
440 (MP Biomedicals) following the manufacturer's protocol. Libraries were prepared
441 without amplification and sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq X-Ten platform at the
442 Majorbio Bio-Pharm Technology. After removing adapter and reads containing low
443 quality bases or 10% of undefined bases, ~264 Gb high-quality data was generated from
444 16 samples, as reported previously in Zheng et al. (19). This study focused on MAGs
445 to better resolve the salt stress induced shift in taxonomy at the genomic level. Briefly,
446 MetaWRAP v1.3.2 (49) was used for assembly and genomic binning. Two groups of
447 co-assemblies were performed using MegaHit v1.1.3 (50) through the “assembly
448 module” in MetaWRAP, with one including only the control samples, and the other
449 including all salt treatment samples. Assembled contigs were binned using MetaBAT2
450 v2.12.1(51), MaxBin2 v2.2.6 (52), and CONCOCT v1.0.0 (53) integrated within the
451 MetaWRAP pipeline. The retrieved MAGs were refined using the “bin_refinement”
452 module with the options -c 50 and -x 10. All bins were subsequently dereplicated using
453 dRep v2.2.3 (54) with the following parameters: -sa 0.99, -nc 0.1. Finally, we obtained
454 164 non-redundant MAGs for downstream analyses.

455

456 **MAG analyses**

457 The completeness and contamination of MAGs were evaluated by CheckM v1.0.12
458 (55). Taxonomic classifications of MAGs was performed using the GTDB-Tk v2.4.0
459 (56) with ‘gtdbtk classify_wf’ against the GTDB database release 220 (57). Genes were
460 predicted using Prodigal v2.6.3 (58) and annotated with Prokka. Additional annotations
461 were performed by aligning genes to the EggNOG 5.0 (59) database using eggNOG-
462 mapper v2.1.12 (60). The KEGG and COG term annotation results for each gene were
463 extracted from the output of eggNOG-mapper. Relative abundance of the MAGs in
464 each sample was calculated by CoverM v0.7.0 (available at
465 <https://github.com/wwood/CoverM>), with the parameter --min-read-percent-identity
466 0.95 and --min-read-aligned-percent 0.5. A phylogenetic tree of 164 MAGs was
467 constructed using PhyloPhlAn 3.0 (61) based on concatenated alignments of up to 400
468 ubiquitously conserved proteins, and then visualized using iTOL (<https://itol.embl.de/>)
469 (62).

470

471 **Salt-induced *Pseudomonas* enrichment across different soils and hosts**

472 For experiment 1, we aimed to characterize whether salt-induced *Pseudomonas*
473 enrichment is conserved across different soil types. Bulk soils at a depth of 0-10 cm
474 were collected from 10 geographically distinct fields across China, spanning a
475 latitudinal range of 12 degrees (table S4). Soil pH was determined in a mixture with 1:5
476 ratio of soil: water using pH meter (Thermo Orion Star A111, Thermo Fisher, Germany).
477 We grew wild soybean plants using these soils under controlled conditions. Briefly,
478 wild soybean seeds were surface sterilized with 0.15% mercuric chloride for 10 min
479 and thoroughly washed with sterile water. Thereafter, the seeds were germinated in Petri
480 dishes with sterile water in the dark at 25°C for 2 days. Seedlings were transferred to
481 plastic pots containing 200 g of field soil, and incubated in a growth chamber at 25°C
482 under a 16/8 h light/dark photoperiod (light intensity, 200 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and 65%
483 relative humidity. Plants were regularly watered with sterile water as needed. After 10

484 days of growth in pots, wild soybean plants were treated with 300 mM NaCl (60 mL
485 per pot, applied as 20 mL per day for three consecutive days), while control plants
486 received 60 mL of sterile water applied in the same manner. The experiment was
487 performed with five biological replicates (table S5).

488

489 For experiment 2, we aimed to explore whether salt-induced *Pseudomonas* enrichment
490 was conserved across different plant species. The plant materials used in this study
491 included maize (*Zea mays*, cv. Zhengdan 958), sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*, cv. Kangsi),
492 rice (*Oryza sativa*, cv. Zhenghan No.10), wheat (*Triticum aestivum*, cv. Jimai 22),
493 rapeseed (*Brassica napus*, cv. Zhongshuang 11) and tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*, cv.
494 Zhongshu No. 4), all of which are important crops. All seeds were surface sterilized
495 with 0.15% mercuric chloride for 10 min and thoroughly washed with sterile water.
496 They were germinated in Petri dishes with sterile water in the dark at 25°C for 2-3 days.
497 Seedlings were transferred to plastic pots, each containing 200 g of the same soil used
498 in our previous study (19). Plants were regularly watered with sterile water as needed.
499 Since these crops are not salt-tolerant plants, 200 mM NaCl (60 mL per pot, applied as
500 20 mL per day for three consecutive days) were imposed on 10-day-old plants. Control
501 plants received 60 mL of sterile water applied in the same manner. The experiment was
502 performed with five biological replicates (table S5).

503

504 **Sampling, DNA extraction and 16S rRNA gene barcoding**

505 Since salt-induced *Pseudomonas* enrichment is more pronounced in root samples than
506 in rhizosphere soil as described by Zheng et al. (19), we focused on root samples to
507 further evaluate whether this pattern is conserved across soils and plant species. Root
508 samples were collected at 14 days after the salt treatment. All plants within each pot
509 (six for wild soybean, wheat and rice; four for maize, sorghum, rapeseed and tomato)
510 were combined to generate one composite sample. To collect root samples, root-
511 adhered soil was first removed by gently washing under running water. Roots were then
512 further washed, sonicated and frozen at -80 °C until DNA extraction. Due to failure of

513 DNA extraction or 16S rRNA gene amplification, several treatments included less than
514 five but more than three biological replicates. The summary of sampling information is
515 shown in table S5.

516

517 Genomic DNA was extracted using the FastDNA® Spin Kit for Soil (MP Biomedicals)
518 according to the manufacturer's protocol. The concentration of extracted DNA was
519 measured with the NanoDrop spectrophotometer (ND2000, Thermo Scientific, DE,
520 USA). Amplification of the V5-V7 regions of the 16S rRNA gene was performed using
521 the primers 799F and 1193R (table S12). Sequencing libraries were generated using the
522 NEXTFLEX Rapid DNA-Seq Kit (Bioo Scientific, USA) following the manufacturer's
523 recommendations and sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq PE300 platform at the
524 Majorbio Bio-Pharm Technology. Quality-filtered sequences were clustered into OTUs
525 with a 97% sequence similarity using UPARSE (63). Representative sequences for each
526 OTU were taxonomically classified with the RDP Classifier 2.13 (64) and annotated
527 against the SILVA database (release 138). All OTUs identified as chloroplast and
528 mitochondria were discarded from the data set.

529

530 ***Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax* genomic analyses**

531 To compare the metabolic potential of *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax* species, their
532 representative genomes were collected by searching the NCBI's Genome Browser
533 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/genome/>) using "*Pseudomonas*" and
534 "*Acidovorax*" as keywords, respectively. Genome selection was performed using
535 standardized filtering criteria. For *Pseudomonas*, only reference genomes were
536 included, while atypical genomes, MAGs, and genomes from large multi-isolate
537 projects were excluded. Using these criteria, 359 *Pseudomonas* genomes were retained
538 from the over 45,000 available genomes (accession date: October, 2024). For
539 *Acidovorax*, only 12 reference genomes are available in NCBI. Therefore, we applied
540 the same exclusion criteria (i.e., removal of atypical genomes, MAGs, and genomes
541 from large multi-isolate projects) but did not restrict the dataset to reference genomes

542 only, resulting in a total of 128 *Acidovorax* genomes (accession date: October, 2024).
543 Phylogenetic tree of the 359 *Pseudomonas* and 128 *Acidovorax* genomes were
544 constructed using PhyloPhlAn 3.0 (61) based on concatenated alignments of up to 400
545 ubiquitously conserved proteins, and then visualized using iTOL (62). The habitat and
546 location for *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax* species were sourced from the metadata of
547 genomes downloaded from NCBI or manually extracted from publications. Instances
548 where information remained unclear were labeled as “unknown”.

549

550 BGCs in each genome were identified using antiSMASH v6.1.1(65) with the following
551 parameters: --genefinding-tool prodigal --tigrfam --cc-mibig --rre --cb-general --cb-
552 knownclusters --cb-subclusters --asf --pfam2go --smcog-trees. Each BGC was
553 functionally characterized based on the predicted product types defined in BiG-SCAPE
554 v1.1.5 (66).

555

556 **NaCl tolerance of *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax* type strains**

557 NaCl tolerance data for type strains of *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax* were compiled
558 through a systematic survey of published literatures (accessed 1 February 2026), using
559 the List of Prokaryotic names with Standing in Nomenclature (LPSN;
560 <https://lpsn.dsmz.de>) as the reference database. In total, NaCl tolerance information was
561 available for 321 of 362 *Pseudomonas* and 14 of 22 *Acidovorax* type strains (table S6).

562

563 **AntiSMASH prediction and construction of NAGGN synthetic gene mutants in** 564 ***Pseudomonas* strains**

565 Based on the genome sequences of *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17, the
566 secondary metabolic gene cluster was predicted using the antiSMASH 7.1.0 online
567 website (<https://antismash.secondarymetabolites.org/>). Three genes (ctg1_1282 to
568 ctg1_1284 in strain XN05-1 and ctg1_3641 to ctg1_3643 in strain YE17, named
569 *nbsABC*) are implicated in the biosynthesis of NAGGN (table S9). Mutants of *nbsABC*
570 were generated via tri-parental conjugation using the suicide vector pK18mobsacB (19).

571 Specifically, the upstream and downstream fragments of genomic DNA from strains
572 XN05-1 were amplified using the primers XN05-1-NAGGN-UF/UR and XN05-1-
573 NAGGN-DF/DR, respectively. The amplified fragments were purified and cloned into
574 the suicide vector pK18mobsacB. The resulting recombinant plasmid was then
575 transformed into an Amp^R-derivative of XN05-1, with the aid of the helper plasmid
576 pRK2013. Potential mutants were grown on NA medium containing 15% (w/v) sucrose
577 to facilitate the excision of the suicide vector from the chromosome. The final mutant
578 was confirmed using primers XN05-1-NAGGN-UF/XN05-1-NAGGN-DR and
579 designated $\Delta nbsABC_{XN05-1}$. The NAGGN biosynthesis gene mutant of YE17, named
580 $\Delta nbsABC_{YE17}$, was constructed following the same procedure using the corresponding
581 primers. The primers used are listed in table S12.

582

583 **Salt tolerant of wild-type and NAGGN biosynthesis mutants of *Pseudomonas***

584 To evaluate the salt tolerance of wild-type and NAGGN biosynthesis mutants, growth
585 kinetics of each strain were monitored across a range of NaCl concentrations (0-8%,
586 w/v) in nutrient broth (NB) media (10 g/L peptone, 3 g/L beef extract, pH 7.2 ± 0.2). In
587 a 96-well microplate, 198 µL of medium containing different NaCl concentrations was
588 added to each well, followed by 2 µL of bacterial suspension (OD₆₀₀ = 0.4). Each
589 treatment was performed in triplicate. Microplates were incubated at 28°C with shaking
590 at 180 rpm to ensure adequate aeration and prevent cell precipitation. The OD₆₀₀ values
591 were measured every 4 h over a 36-h period to capture the full growth profile.

592

593 **Root colonization analysis**

594 To investigate the colonization of strains XN05-1 and YE17 on soybean roots under
595 control and salt stress conditions, the strains were labeled with GFP. The GFP-
596 expressing plasmid *pBBR1MCS5-Tac-EGFP* was transformed into the recipient
597 bacterial cells via triparental conjugation, with pRK2013 used as the helper strain. GFP-
598 labeled strains were cultured on nutrient agar (NA) plates supplemented with
599 gentamicin (final concentration, 30 µg/mL). A single colony was then transferred into

600 NB medium without antibiotic and cultured overnight. The culture was harvested by
601 centrifugation, and resuspended in sterile water to an optical density of $OD_{600} = 1.0$.
602 Subsequently, 1 mL of the prepared suspension was added to 39 mL of 1/8-strength
603 Hoagland solution (either without NaCl or supplemented with 50 mM NaCl) for co-
604 cultivation with soybean (cv. Zhonghuang 13) seedlings (67, 68). Each treatment was
605 conducted in triplicate. After three days of inoculation, the roots of the soybean
606 seedlings were rinsed under running tap water and observed using a confocal
607 microscope (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany). Fluorescence images were
608 quantitatively analyzed using Image J software v1.54g. Briefly, each image was divided
609 into consecutive regions (15.0×1.0 pixels) along the root axis to cover the entire
610 imaged root system. The integrated density of each selected region was then measured
611 to quantify fluorescence intensity.

612

613 **Motility and growth of GFP-labeled and wild-type strains**

614 Bacterial motility was determined using a semi-solid agar assay (1% peptone, 0.5%
615 NaCl, and 0.3% agar). Overnight cultures grown in NB medium at 28 °C with shaking
616 were adjusted to an OD_{600} of 0.4. Then, 2 μ L of each bacterial suspension was spotted
617 onto the semi-solid agar plates and incubated at 28 °C for 18 h. The diameter of the
618 spreading zone was measured as an indicator of bacterial motility. Each treatment
619 included six biological replicates. Growth was assessed according to the method
620 described above for wild-type and NAGGN biosynthesis mutants.

621

622 **Greenhouse and field experiments with *Pseudomonas* inoculation**

623 *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17 were inoculated onto soybean plants with or
624 without salt stress under greenhouse condition. In brief, soybean seeds (cv. Zhonghuang
625 13) were surface-disinfected as described above. Five seeds were sown per pot
626 containing 60 g of sterilized vermiculite, with ten replicate pots per treatment.
627 *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17 were cultured overnight in NB medium,
628 followed by centrifugation at 4°C and 4000 rpm to concentrate the bacterial cells. The

629 pellets were then resuspended in sterile water, and inoculated into 10-day-old soybean
630 seedlings with 20 mL bacterial suspension ($\sim 2.6 \times 10^7$ CFU/mL) for each pot.
631 *Pseudomonas* were applied three times at a two-day interval. After the final inoculation,
632 salt stress was imposed by applying 300 mM NaCl (60 mL per pot, applied as 20 mL
633 per day for three consecutive days). Control plants received 60 mL of sterile water
634 applied in the same manner. All plants were incubated in a climate chamber as described
635 above, and watered regularly with sterile water from the top. Watering was controlled
636 to prevent drainage, and pots were placed on base trays to retain excess water and
637 minimize bacterial loss. The growth phenotypes, root morphology, root Na⁺ and K⁺
638 contents, root lignin levels, and root RNA-seq were analyzed 10 days after the salt
639 treatment. At the end of the experiment, *Pseudomonas* were quantified from soybean
640 roots at a density of $> 4.2 \times 10^6$ copies per gram of fresh root, confirming persistent root
641 colonization. Quantification of *Pseudomonas* was performed as previously described
642 by Zheng et al. (19).

643

644 A field experiment was conducted in natural saline soils (salinity of 0.42%) at Dongying,
645 Shandong Province (37°17'28"N, 118°38'28"E), with treatments consisting of a non-
646 inoculated control and two *Pseudomonas*-inoculated groups (strains XN05-1 and
647 YE17). Each treatment was replicated three times in plots measuring 5 m \times 7 m,
648 arranged in a randomized block design. Soybean seeds (cv. Zhonghuang 13) were
649 grown with an inter-row spacing of 40 cm and an intra-row spacing of 10 cm. Overnight
650 cultures of *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17 were diluted by fourfold, and then
651 used to coat soybean seeds at a dosage of 40 mL/kg. Control seeds received equal
652 amounts of sterile water in the same manner. The treated seeds were sown in the
653 designated plots. At 40 days after planting, each plot was treated with 100 L of a 50-
654 fold diluted *Pseudomonas* suspension (prepared from an overnight culture) via root
655 irrigation. Soybean plants were harvested at 70 days after planting to determine root
656 weight, nodule number and pod number.

657

658 **Root morphology observation**

659 Soybean roots were gently rinsed with water, spread evenly on a transparent tray, and
660 scanned using root scanner (Epson V700, Beijing, China). Root morphological
661 parameters, including length, surface area, and volume, were analyzed using
662 WinRHIZO Pro v2007 (Regent Instruments, Canada).

663

664 **Determination of root Na⁺ and K⁺ contents**

665 The root samples were dried at 65°C until a constant weight was achieved, and the final
666 dry mass was recorded. Subsequently, the samples were digested in nitric acid at 110°C
667 for a duration of 6 hours. The concentrations of Na⁺ and K⁺ were quantified using
668 inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES; Varian, Inc.,
669 USA).

670

671 **Soybean root RNA-seq analysis**

672 Root samples of soybean grown in vermiculite with or without salt stress (300 mM
673 NaCl) were collected for RNA extraction and sequencing. Total RNA was extracted
674 using TRIzol® Reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA sequencing
675 libraries were prepared using a poly(A) selection strategy to enrich mRNA and
676 sequenced on the NovaSeq 6000 platform. The raw paired end reads were trimmed and
677 quality controlled by fastp (69) with default parameters. Quality-filtered reads were
678 mapped exclusively to a reference soybean genome (Glycine_max_v2.1;
679 http://plants.ensembl.org/Glycine_max/Info/Index) using HISAT2 v2.2.1 (70).
680 Normalized read counts were calculated using the transcripts per kilobase million (TPM)
681 method. DEGs were identified using DESeq2 v1.24.0 (71). Genes with an absolute |log₂
682 fold change| > 2 and a *P*-value < 0.05 were considered significantly differentially
683 expressed. GO and KEGG pathway enrichment analyses of the DEGs were performed
684 using the Goatools v0.6.5 (72) and Python SciPy v1.13.0 packages (73), respectively.

685

686 **Quantification of lignin content in soybean roots**

687 The soybean root samples were dried at 80°C until reaching a constant weight.
688 Subsequently, the dried roots were finely ground and passed through a 40-mesh sieve.
689 Lignin content in the soybean roots was extracted and quantified using a commercial
690 kit purchased from Solarbio (Beijing, China). In brief, 3 mg of dried root sample was
691 subjected to acetylation of the phenolic hydroxyl groups in lignin. The resulting
692 supernatant was thoroughly mixed with glacial acetic acid, followed by measurement
693 of absorbance at 280 nm. The lignin content was then calculated using the formula
694 provided in the manual.

695

696 **Vector construction for the generation of transgenic soybean plants**

697 To construct the *GmCAD* overexpression vector, the *GmCAD* coding sequence was first
698 amplified from soybean root cDNA using primers *GmCAD-F* and *GmCAD-R*. Primers
699 *GmCAD-pFGC5941-F* and *GmCAD-pFGC5941-R* were used to introduce restriction
700 sites. The cloning vector pFGC5941 was digested with *Bam*HI and *Sam*I, and the
701 amplified *GmCAD* product with restriction sites was subsequently ligated into the
702 pFGC5941 vector (74). The recombinant vector was transformed into *Escherichia coli*
703 DH5 α for propagation. Plasmid DNA from positive clones was then transformed into
704 *Agrobacterium rhizogenes* K599. Transformants were selected on kanamycin-
705 containing medium (50 μ g/mL) and sequenced for validation. The overexpression
706 vectors of *Gm4CL* and *GmCOMT* were constructed following the same procedure using
707 the corresponding primers. All primer sequences are provided in table S12.

708

709 To generate *GmCAD* loss-of-function mutants, CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing
710 was performed following previous study (75). Target fragments were cloned into the
711 pHSE401 vector via Golden Gate assembly using *Bsa*I, and the resulting constructs
712 were introduced into *A. rhizogenes* K599 for soybean transformation. Mutant lines of
713 *Gm4cl* and *Gmcomt* were constructed in parallel using the same cloning and
714 transformation workflow. Primer sequences used for cloning are provided in table S12.

715

716 **Soybean hairy-root transformation and phenotypic analysis**

717 To generate composite soybean plants, *A. rhizogenes* strain K599 harboring
718 overexpression vector was used to infect soybean seedlings following a previously
719 described protocol with minor modifications (76). Briefly, seeds of the soybean cultivar
720 Zhonghuang 13 were germinated for 4 days before inoculation with *A. rhizogenes* K599.
721 Once transgenic hairy roots reached a length of 3-5 cm, the primary root was excised,
722 and the plants were transferred to 1/8-strength Hoagland solution for 7 days. Initial
723 hairy root lengths were recorded prior to salt treatment, after which the plants were
724 transferred to fresh 1/8-Hoagland solution containing either 0 mM or 50 mM NaCl.
725 After two weeks of salt stress, root lengths were measured again, and relative elongation
726 was calculated as: (root length after salt treatment – root length before salt treatment)/
727 root length before salt treatment. Roots were then harvested for subsequent gene
728 expression analysis. The expression levels of *GmCAD*, *Gm4CL*, and *GmCOMT* were
729 validated by qRT-PCR with specific primers (table S12).

730

731 For the *Pseudomonas* inoculation experiment, *A. rhizogenes* strain K599 carrying the
732 CRISPR/Cas9 vector was used to infect soybean seedlings. Transgenic soybean hairy
733 roots (20 days post-infection) were inoculated with a mixture of *Pseudomonas* strains
734 XN05-1 and YE17. Co-inoculation was chosen because the two isolates exhibited
735 highly similar functional traits, including root colonization, intrinsic salt tolerance,
736 mitigation of soybean salt stress, and induction of comparable root transcriptomic
737 responses, and therefore was unlikely to confound validation of the lignin-disruption
738 experiment. Moreover, co-inoculation may better reflect ecologically relevant
739 conditions, as these strains naturally coexist in microbial communities. All plants were
740 subsequently treated with 50 mM NaCl in a hydroponic system containing Hoagland
741 solution. After 15 days of NaCl treatment, the salt injury index was calculated according
742 to previous study (77).

743

744 **Statistical analyses**

745 Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was used to ordinate the bacterial community
746 based on the Bray-Curtis distance using the vegan v2.7.1 and ggplot2 v3.5.2 packages
747 in R v3.5.3. PERMANOVA was calculated based on Bray-Curtis distance with 999
748 permutations in R. Heatmap of the top 10 bacterial genera of control and salt treatment
749 for acidic and alkaline soils was plotted using TBtools (78). Linear discriminant
750 analysis (LDA) of effect size (LEfSe) was applied to identify the enriched bacterial taxa
751 in control and salt treatments for all plant species. All statistical analyses were
752 performed using two-sided *t*-tests, unless otherwise specified.

753

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1026

1027 **Acknowledgements**

1028 We thank Prof. Zhichang Chen (Fujian Agriculture and Forestry University) for kindly
1029 providing the pFGC5941 vector.

1030

1031 **Funding**

1032 This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China
1033 (32570138 to Y.Z., 32402669 to Y.W., 32572904 to C.Z., 32171948 to C.M.), Youth
1034 Innovation Program of the Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (Y2025QC35 to

1035 Y.Z.), Shandong Province Natural Science Foundation (ZR2024JQ006 to J.L.),
1036 Young Talent of Lifting Engineering for Science and Technology in Shandong
1037 (SDAST2025QTA075 to Y.Z.), Agricultural Science and Technology Innovation
1038 Program of China (ASTIP-TRIC06 to Y.L., ASTIP No. CAAS-ZDRW202407 to Y.L.,
1039 and ASTIP-TRIC-ZD04 to C.Z.) and Natural Environmental Research Council, UK
1040 (NE/S001352, NE/X000990 and NE/X014428 to J.D.T.).

1041

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1043 Conceptualization: Y.Z., Y.W., Z.W., J.D.T., Y.L., J.L., D.Z., and C.Z. Methodology:
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1049 editing: Y.Z., Y.W., Z.W., Z.L., J.D.T., C.M., S.H., X.S., Q.R., S.M., Y.L., J.L., D.Z.,
1050 and C.Z.

1051

1052 **Competing interests**

1053 The authors declare they have no competing interests.

1054

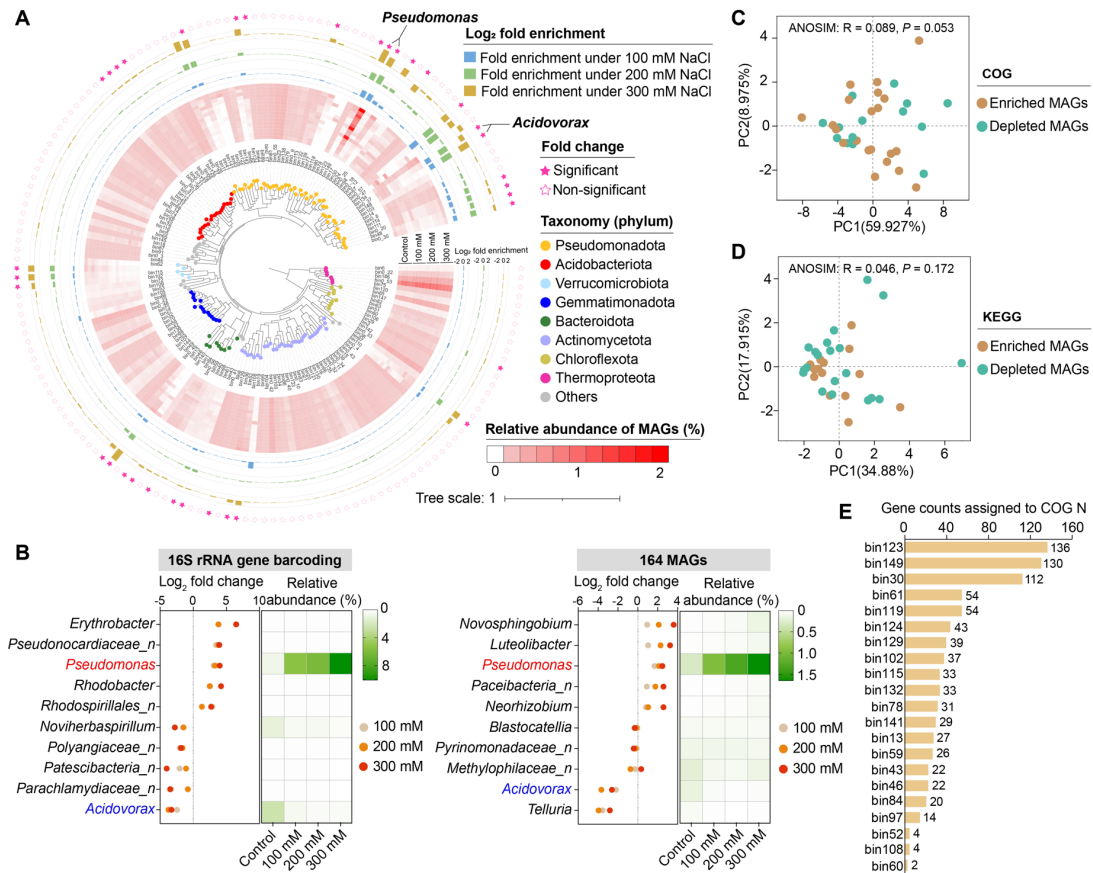
1055 **Data and materials availability**

1056 The raw reads of 16S rRNA gene barcoding data (BioProject: PRJCA028745;
1057 <https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/gsa/search?searchTerm=PRJCA028745>) and RNA-seq data
1058 from soybean roots (BioProject: PRJCA041248;
1059 <https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/gsa/search?searchTerm=PRJCA041248>) have been deposited
1060 in the Genome Sequence Archive of China National Center for Bioinformatics. All data
1061 needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in the paper and/or the
1062 Supplementary Materials. The *nbsABC* mutant strains and GFP-labeled strains can be
1063 provided by Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences pending scientific review and

1064 a completed material transfer agreement with C.Z. Requests for the *nbsABC* mutant
 1065 strains and GFP-labeled strains should be submitted to: C.Z. at
 1066 zhangchengsheng@caas.cn.

1067

1068 **Figure legends**



1069

1070 **Fig. 1. Relative abundance and function of all metagenome-assembled genomes**

1071 **(MAGs) obtained in this study.** (A) The maximum likelihood tree (IQ-TREE, based

1072 on concatenation of 400 ubiquitously conserved proteins) of the 164 MAGs was

1073 constructed using PhyloPhlAn 3.0. The tree scale indicates the number of substitutions

1074 per site. Tips of the tree are colored according to phylum-level taxonomy. The relative

1075 abundances of MAGs in different treatments (control, 100 mM, 200 mM and 300 mM

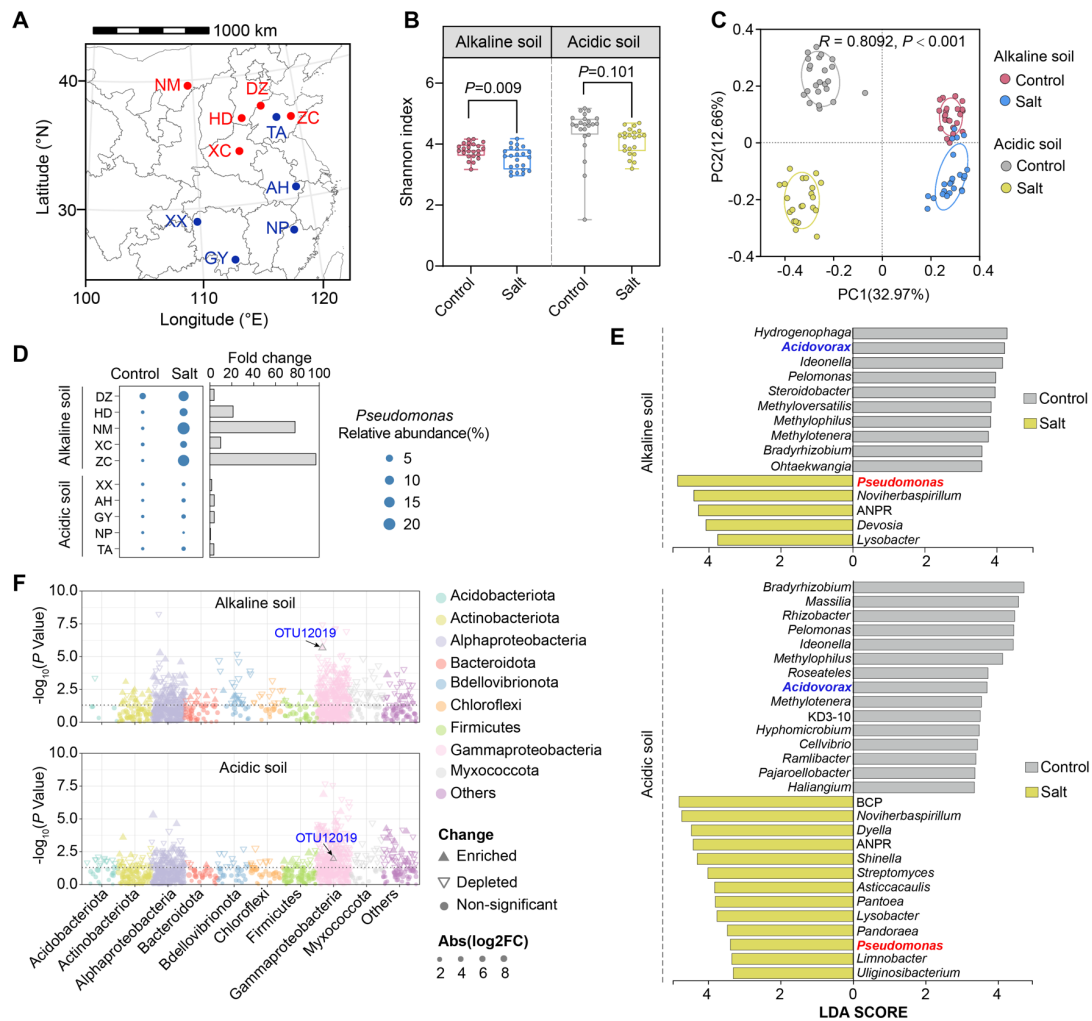
1076 NaCl) are shown in the heatmap, with four biological replicates for each treatment. Bar

1077 plots represent the fold enrichment under salt stress. The outer filled stars indicate

1078 MAGs exhibiting a significant change (two-sided Student's *t*-test, $P < 0.05$) between

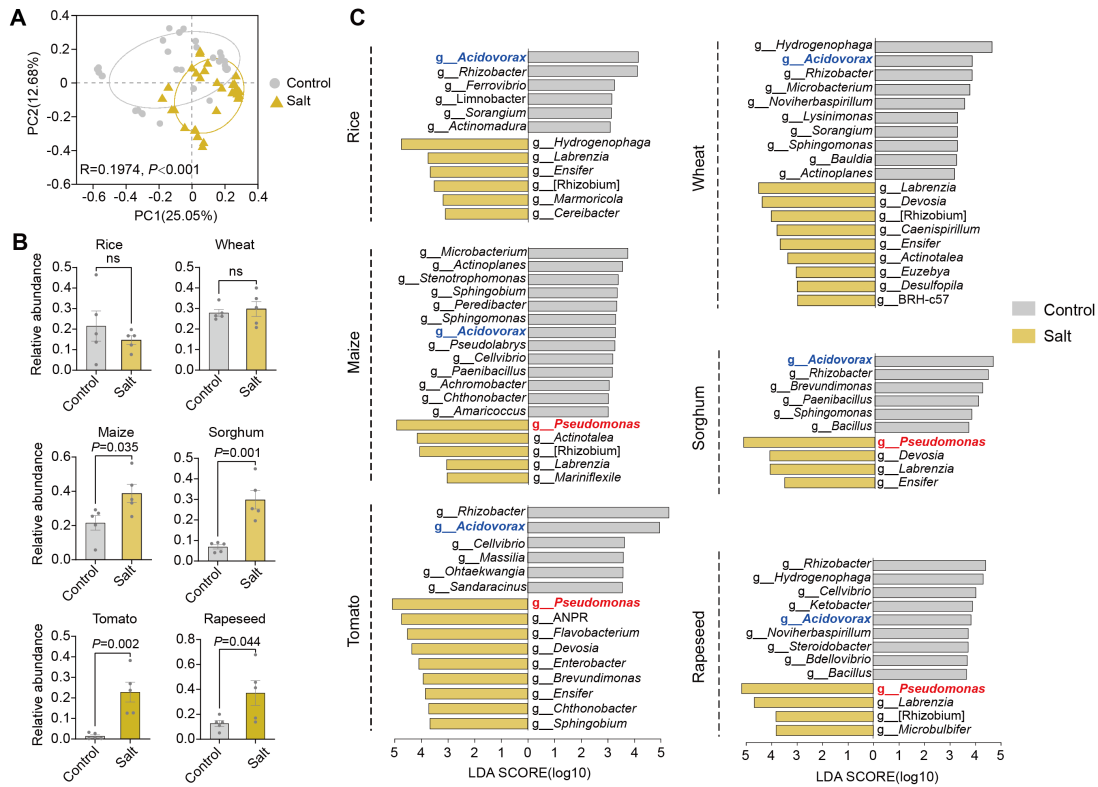
1079 the control and at least one of the three salt treatment groups, whereas unfilled stars

1080 denote non-significant differences. **(B)** The top 5 enriched or depleted genera in salt-
 1081 treated rhizosphere soils of wild soybean based on 16S rRNA gene barcoding (19) and
 1082 MAG datasets. Red and blue fonts indicate the consistent enriched or depleted taxon
 1083 between 16S rRNA gene barcoding and MAG datasets, respectively. **(C and D)** The
 1084 PCA ordination of COG (C) and KEGG (D) functions for the enriched and depleted
 1085 MAGs. Statistical analysis was performed using ANOSIM (analysis of similarities). **(E)**
 1086 Number of genes assigned to COG category N (cell motility) in salt-enriched MAGs.
 1087



1088
 1089 **Fig. 2. The root-associated bacterial communities of wild soybean growing in**
 1090 **alkaline and acidic soils.** **(A)** The sampling sites of soil used for greenhouse
 1091 experiment in this study. Word in red and blue colors indicate the sampling sites of
 1092 alkaline soil and acidic soil, respectively. **(B)** Bacterial community alpha diversity
 1093 (Shannon index) between control and salt stress for alkaline soil and acidic soil.

1094 Statistical analyses were performed by two-sided Student's *t* test. Tops and bottoms of
1095 boxes represent 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively. Horizontal bars within boxes
1096 denote medians, and the upper and lower whiskers represent the range of non-outlier
1097 data values. (C) PCoA ordination of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix (OTU level)
1098 between control and salt stress for alkaline soil and acidic soil. Statistical analysis was
1099 performed using ANOSIM (analysis of similarities). (D) The relative abundance and
1100 fold change of *Pseudomonas* in the roots of wild soybean growing in alkaline and acidic
1101 soils. (E) The linear discriminant analysis (LDA) scores to identify the salt-enriched
1102 taxa at the genus level, determined by the LDA of effect size (LEfSe) analysis. Only
1103 taxa with LDA scores >3.5 in alkaline soil and >3.3 in acidic soil (to visualize
1104 *Pseudomonas*) are shown. Abbreviation: ANPR, *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-*
1105 *Pararhizobium-Rhizobium*; BCP, *Burkholderia-Caballeronia-Paraburkholderia*. (F)
1106 Manhattan plot displaying the taxonomic information of OTUs salt-enriched or
1107 depleted in the root of wild soybean growing in alkaline soil and acidic soil. The
1108 threshold of significant changed OTU is $P < 0.05$ & $|\log_2(\text{fold change})| > 1$. Salt stress
1109 in this experiment was applied with 300 mM NaCl. Statistical analyses were performed
1110 by two-sided Student's *t* test.
1111



1112

1113 **Fig. 3. The root-associated bacterial communities across different plant species. (A)**

1114 PCoA ordination of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix (OTU level) between control

1115 and salt stress for all plants. Statistical analysis was performed using ANOSIM

1116 (analysis of similarities). (B) Relative abundance of *Pseudomonas* in the root-

1117 associated bacterial communities of control and salt stressed plants. Statistical analyses

1118 were performed by two-sided Student's *t* test. Values are means \pm SEM ($n = 5$). (C) The

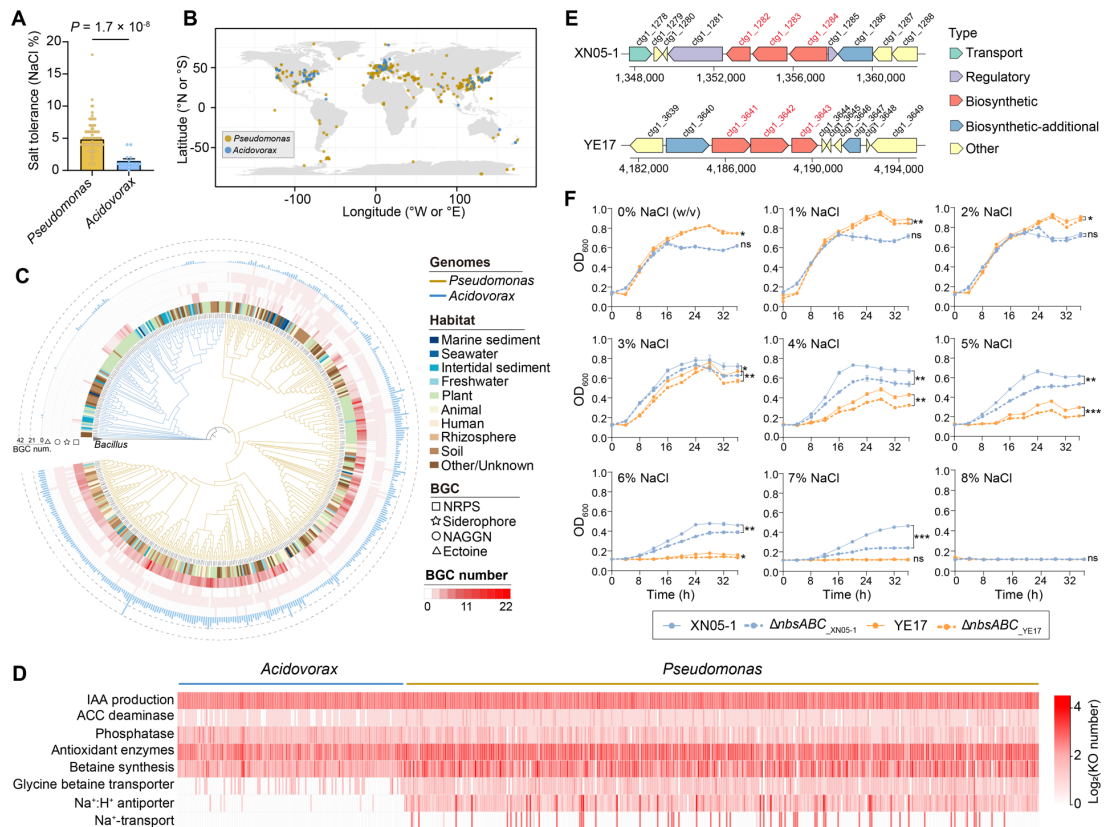
1119 LDA scores to identify the salt-enriched taxa at the genus (g) level, determined by the

1120 LEfSe analysis. Only taxa with the LDA score >3.5 are shown. Salt stress in this

1121 experiment was applied with 200 mM NaCl, as these crops have lower salt tolerance

1122 than wild soybean.

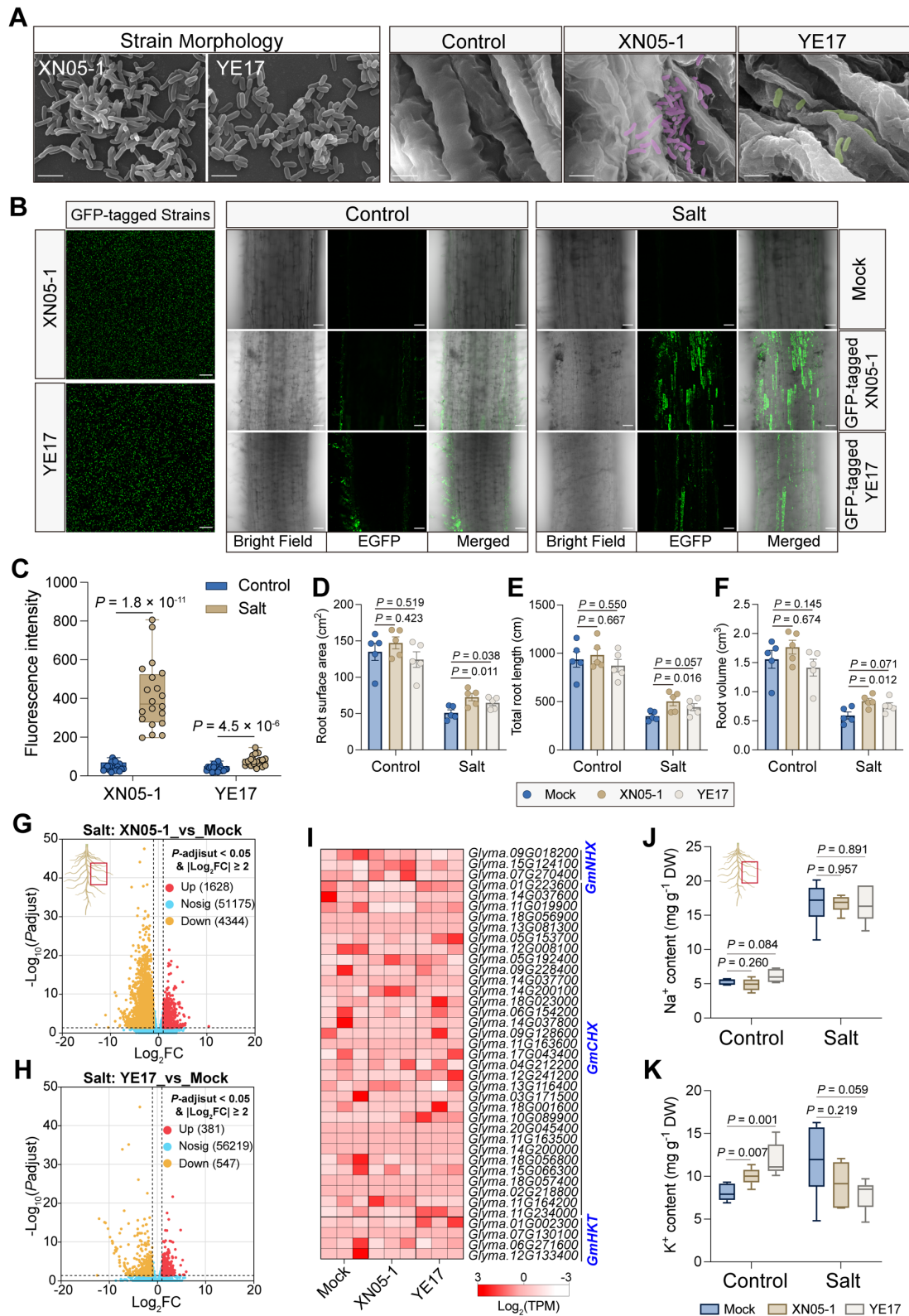
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1124

1125 **Fig. 4. The genetic potential of *Pseudomonas* for salt tolerance.** (A) The salt
 1126 tolerance of *Pseudomonas* ($n = 78$) and *Acidovorax* ($n = 15$) type strains reported in
 1127 published literature (table S6). (B) The global distribution of *Pseudomonas* and
 1128 *Acidovorax* species. The world map was generated using the maps and ggplot2
 1129 packages in R. (C) The maximum likelihood tree (IQ-TREE, based on concatenation
 1130 of 400 ubiquitously conserved proteins) of *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax* genomes was
 1131 constructed using PhyloPhlAn 3.0. The number of biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs)
 1132 related to salt tolerance are shown in the heatmap. Bar plots represent the total BGCs
 1133 related to salt tolerance in each genome. (D) The predicted genes associated with plant
 1134 growth-promoting traits and salt stress alleviation in *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax*
 1135 genomes. Abbreviation: IAA, indole-3-acetic acid; ACC, 1-aminocyclopropane-1-
 1136 carboxylate. (E) N-acetylglutaminylglutamine amide (NAGGN) biosynthetic gene
 1137 cluster in genomes of *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17. Genes highlighted in
 1138 red are those involved in the synthesis of NAGGN, which were subsequently knocked
 1139 out in the following experiment. (F) The growth curves of wild-type and NAGGN

1140 biosynthesis mutants (named *ΔnbsABC*) of *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17
1141 across a range of NaCl concentrations (0-8%, w/v) over a 36-h period. Statistical
1142 analyses were performed using repeated-measures two-way analysis of variance
1143 (ANOVA) with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction. Values are means ± SEM ($n = 3$).
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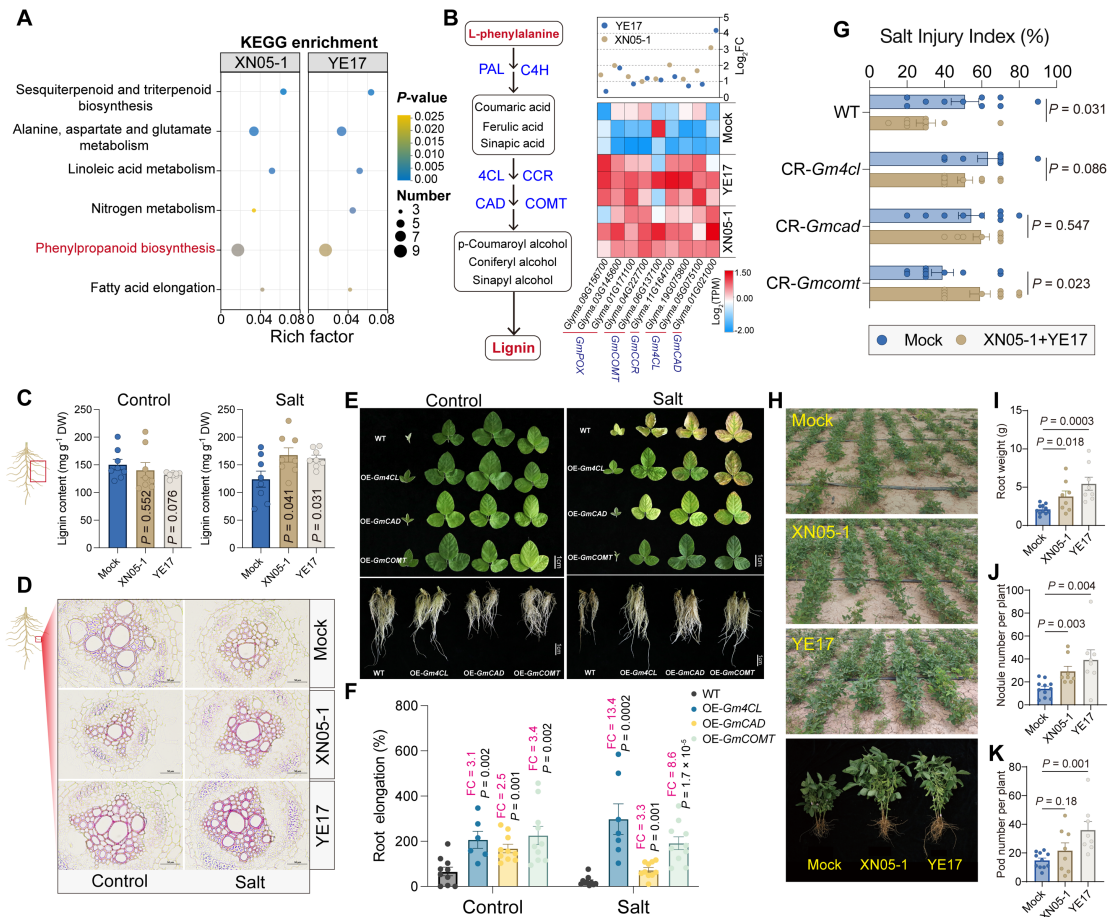
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Fig. 5. Colonization by *Pseudomonas* XN05-1 and YE17 and the transcriptional response of soybean roots. (A) Scanning electron microscopy images of *Pseudomonas* strains alone or in the root surface. Bars = 2 μ m. (B) Colonization patterns of strains

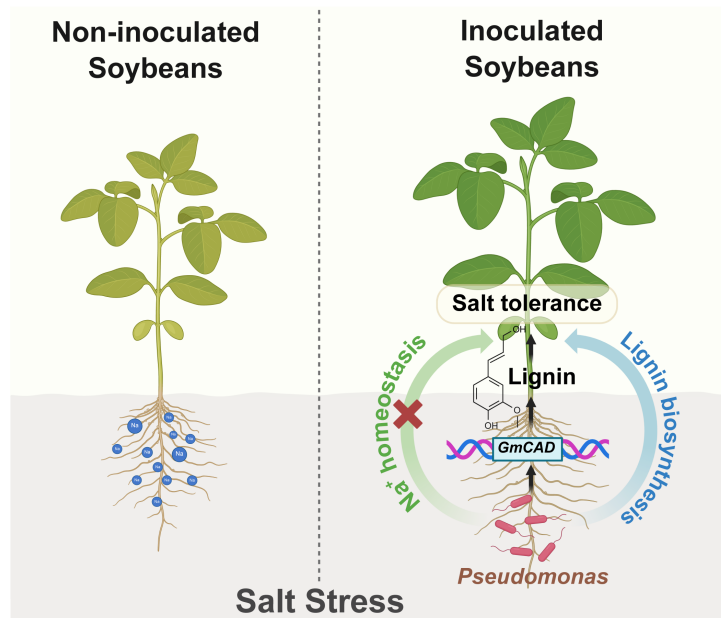
1149 XN05-1 and YE17 in soybean roots visualized by GFP labeling. Bars = 75 μm . (C)
1150 Quantitative analysis of the fluorescent intensity, $n = 20$ image area (15.0×1.0 pixel).
1151 (D to F) Roots were characterized using the WinRHIZO root analysis system ($n = 5$),
1152 including total root length (D), root surface area (E), and root volume (F). (G and H)
1153 The volcano plots show the differentially expressed genes induced by inoculation with
1154 strains XN05-1 and YE17 under salt stress. (I) Expression levels of *GmNHX*, *GmCHX*,
1155 and *GmHKT* genes based on normalized TPM values. *GmNHX*: Na^+/H^+ Exchanger,
1156 *GmCHX*: Cation/ H^+ Exchanger, *GmHKT*: High-affinity K^+ Transporter. (J and K) Na^+
1157 and K^+ content, $n = 6$ root samples. For figures A-C, *Pseudomonas* colonization
1158 experiment was conducted in Hoagland solution with or without salt stress (50 mM
1159 NaCl) to obtain clean roots for observation. For figures D-K, *Pseudomonas* inoculation
1160 experiment was performed in vermiculite with or without salt stress (300 mM NaCl).
1161 Exact *P* values were calculated using a two-tailed Student's *t*-test. All data are means \pm
1162 SEM.
1163



1164

1165 **Fig. 6. *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17 regulate lignin biosynthesis in**
 1166 **soybean. (A)** KEGG enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes in soybean
 1167 root inoculated with XN05-1 and YE17 strains under salt stress (300 mM NaCl). **(B)**
 1168 Expression level and fold change (FC) of lignin biosynthesis-related genes in soybean
 1169 roots under mock inoculation and treatments with strains XN05-1 and YE17 under salt
 1170 stress (300 mM NaCl). The gene heatmap was based on normalized TPM values. CAD:
 1171 Cinnamyl alcohol dehydrogenase, 4CL: 4-Coumarate: CoA ligase, CCR: Cinnamoyl-
 1172 CoA Reductase, COMT: Caffeic acid O-methyltransferase, POX: Peroxidase. **(C)**
 1173 Lignin content in soybean roots under control and salt stress (300 mM NaCl) conditions
 1174 following inoculation with XN05-1 and YE17 strains ($n = 8$). **(D)** Phloroglucinol was
 1175 used for histochemical staining of root lignin, followed by sectioning and microscopic
 1176 observation. Bars = 50 μm. **(E)** Phenotypes of transgenic plants under control and salt
 1177 stress (50 mM NaCl) conditions in a hydroponic system. Bars = 1 cm. **(F)** Root
 1178 elongation (%) of OE (overexpression) soybean lines (*OE-GmCAD*, *OE-Gm4CL*, and

1179 *OE-GmCOMT*) under control and salt stress (50 mM NaCl) conditions ($n = 6$ or 10).
 1180 Fold change (FC) = transgenic plants / WT (wild-type). (G) The salt injury index of
 1181 WT and CR (CRISPR/Cas9 knockout) soybean lines (*CR-Gmcd*, *CR-Gm4cl*, and *CR-*
 1182 *Gmcomt*) deficient in lignin biosynthesis after inoculating *Pseudomonas* ($n = 8$ to 10).
 1183 (H) The soybean growth performance with or without *Pseudomonas* inoculation under
 1184 field condition. (I to K) Root weight, nodule number and pod number of soybean with
 1185 or without *Pseudomonas* inoculation under field condition ($n = 8$ or 11). Exact *P* values
 1186 were calculated using a two-tailed Student's *t*-test. All data are means \pm SEM.
 1187



1188
 1189 **Fig. 7. Conceptual diagram of the conserved *Pseudomonas* in enhancing soybean**
 1190 **salt tolerance.** *Pseudomonas* functions as a specific signal that induces the expression
 1191 of lignin biosynthesis-related genes, rather than Na⁺ homeostasis, thereby promoting
 1192 lignin deposition in the cell wall and improving plant salt tolerance. Created in
 1193 BioRender. Zheng, Y. (2026) <https://BioRender.com/5986dgo>.
 1194

Supplementary Materials for

Pseudomonads associated to salt-stressed plants facilitate stress adaption of soybean through enhanced lignin biosynthesis

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The PDF file includes:

Figs. S1 to S13

Legends for tables S1 to S12

Other Supplementary Material for this manuscript includes the following:

Tables S1 to S12

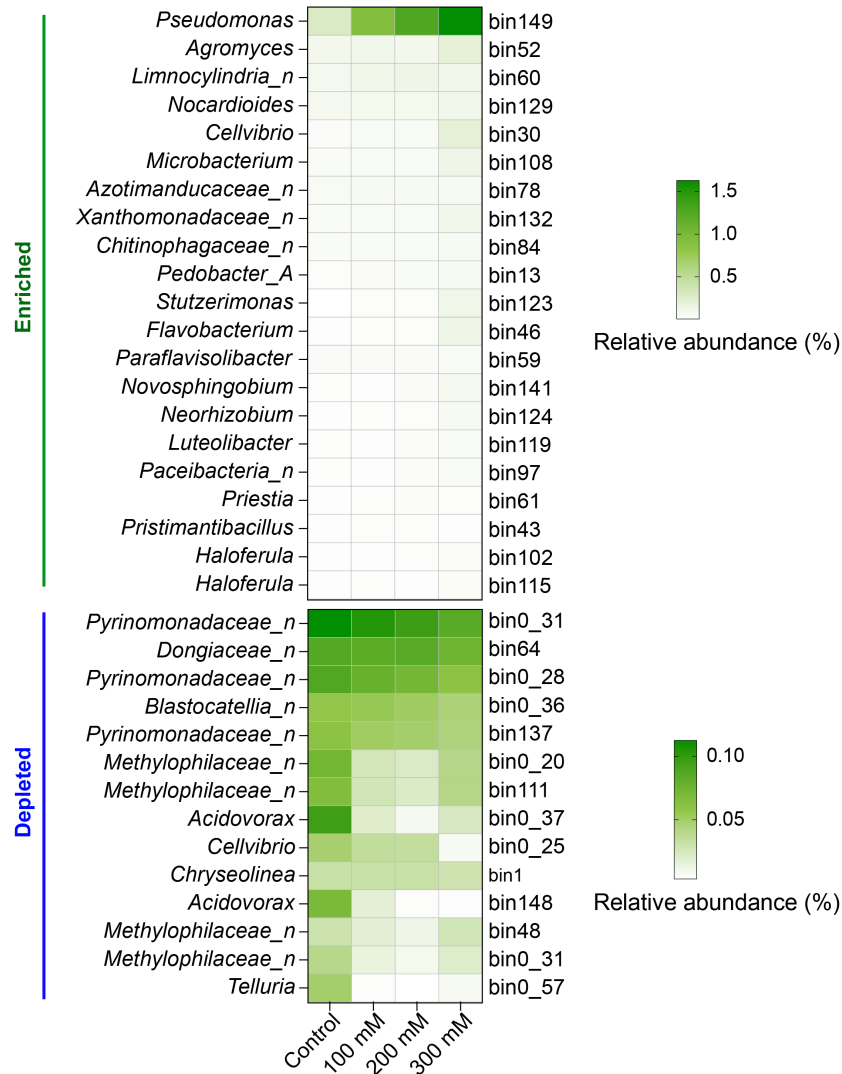


Fig. S1. The relative abundance of all enriched or depleted MAGs in rhizosphere soil of control and salt-treated wild soybean. Based on metagenomic data, 35 MAGs were detected with significant abundance changes between control and salt treatments, including 21 salt-enriched and 14 salt-depleted MAGs. Enriched or depleted MAGs were defined if their abundance differed significantly between the control and at least one of the three salt treatment groups (two-sided Student's *t*-test, $P < 0.05$). Values represent means from four biologically independent samples.

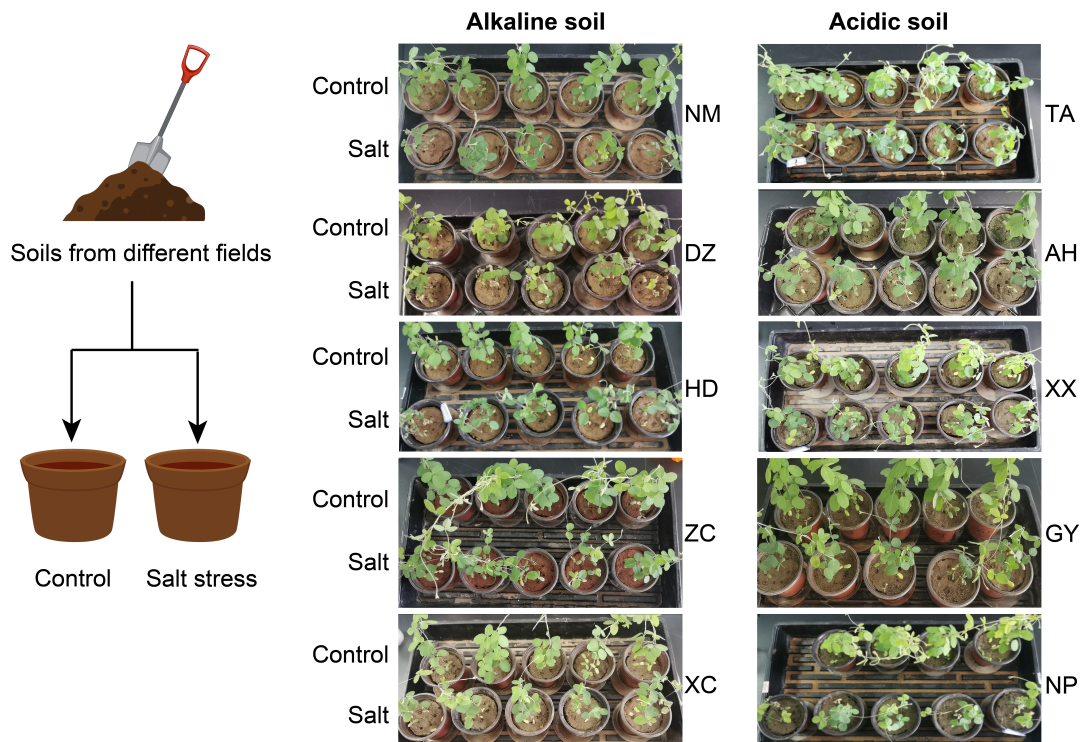


Fig. S2. Phenotype of wild soybean growing in alkaline and acidic soils under control and salt stress conditions. Bulk soils at a depth of 0-10 cm were collected from 10 geographically distinct fields across China (see detailed soil information in table S4). Salt stress in this experiment was applied with 300 mM NaCl.

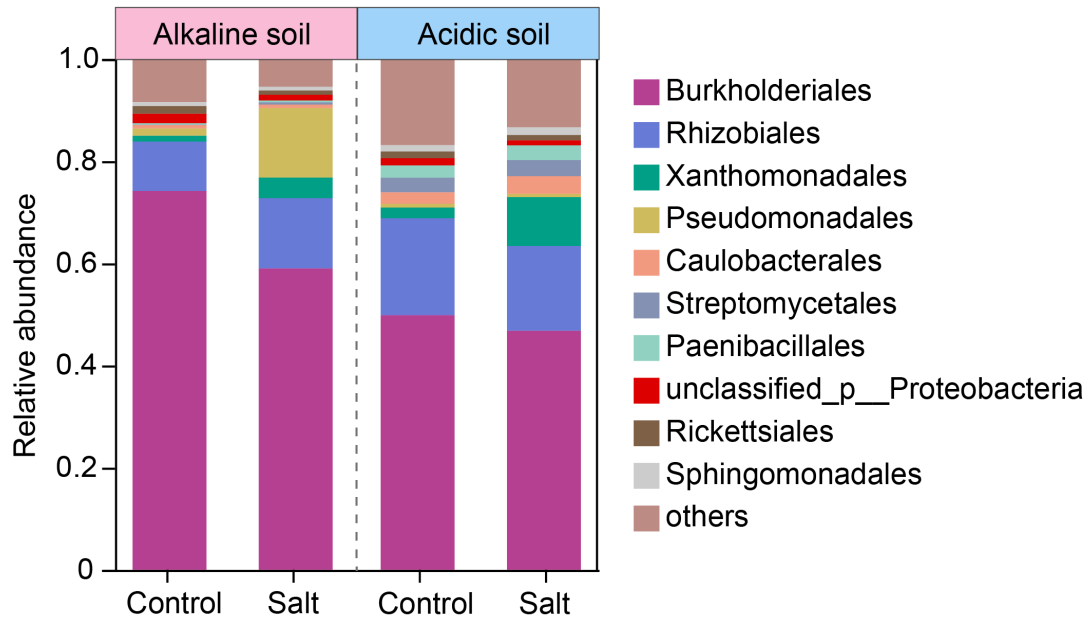


Fig. S3. The top 10 abundant bacterial orders of control and salt treatment for wild soybean growing in alkaline and acidic soils. Data are based on 16S rRNA gene barcoding. Salt stress in this experiment was applied with 300 mM NaCl ($n = 3$ to 5 biologically independent samples).

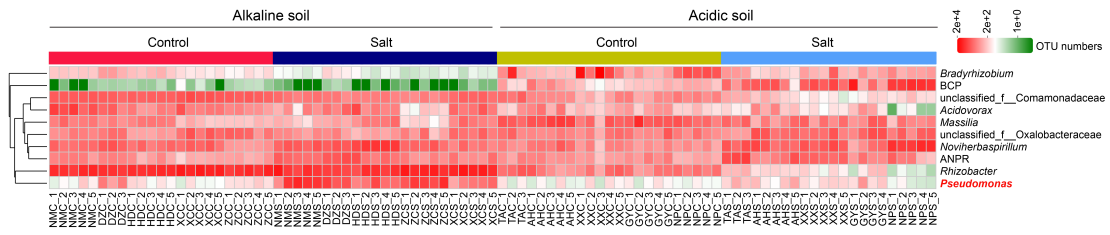


Fig. S4. The relative abundance of the top 10 bacterial genera of control and salt treatment for wild soybean growing in alkaline and acidic soils. *Pseudomonas* exhibited the most pronounced positive response to salt stress especially in alkaline soils. Salt stress in this experiment was applied with 300 mM NaCl. BCP: *Burkholderia-Caballeronia-Paraburkholderia*; ANPR: *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium*.

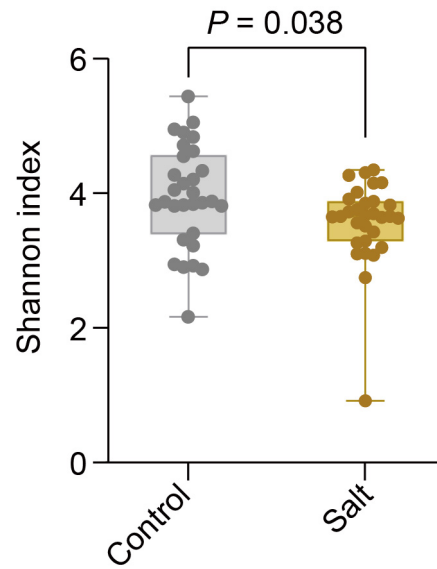


Fig. S5. Bacterial community alpha diversity (Shannon index) between control and salt stress for all plants. Tops and bottoms of boxes represent 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively. Horizontal bars within boxes denote medians, and the upper and lower whiskers represent the range of non-outlier data values. Statistical analysis was performed by two-sided Student's *t* test. Salt stress in this experiment was applied using 200 mM NaCl, as these crops have lower salt tolerance than wild soybean.

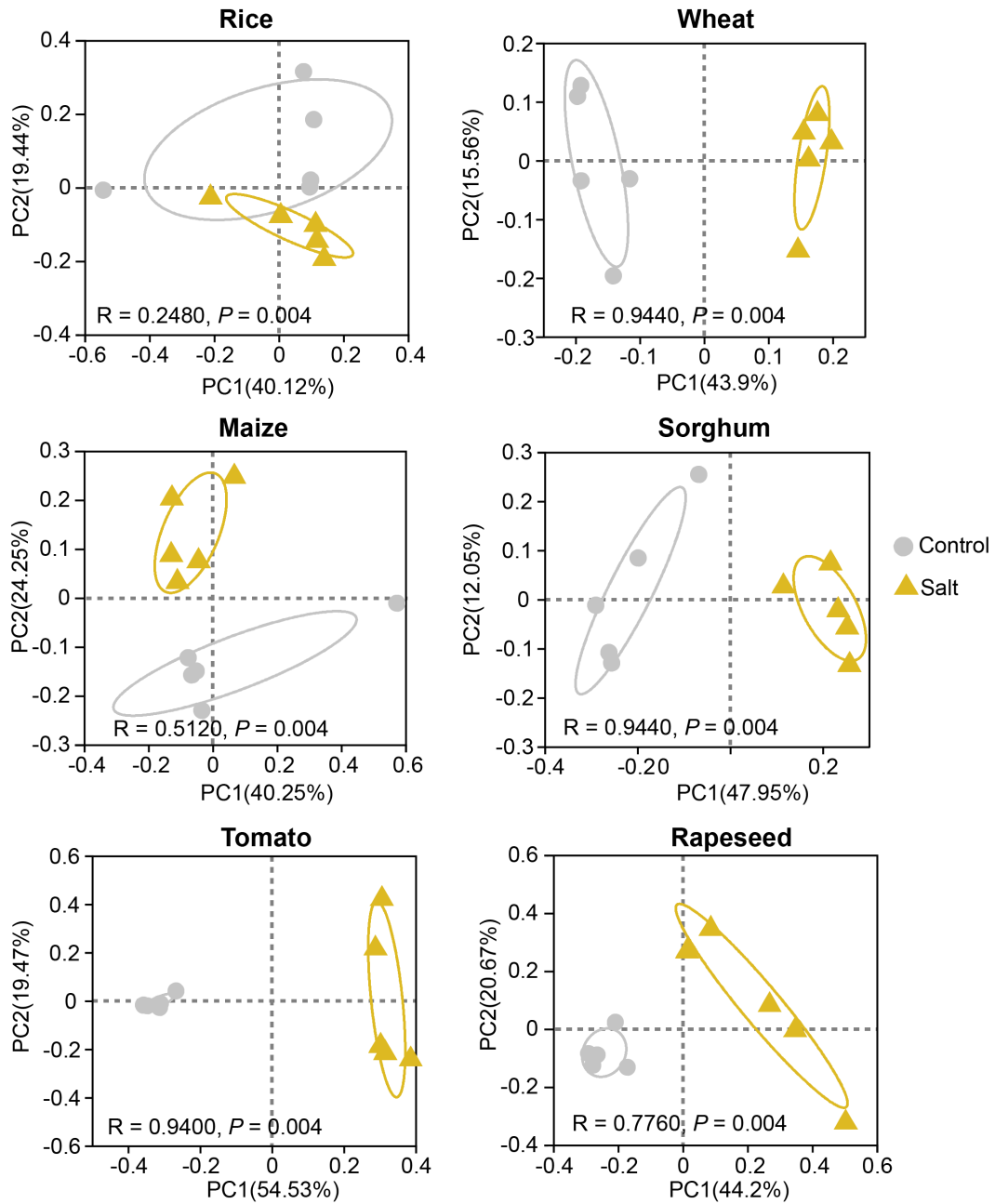


Fig. S6. PCoA ordination of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix (OTU level) between control and salt stress for each plant species. Statistical analysis was performed using ANOSIM (analysis of similarities). Salt stress in this experiment was applied using 200 mM NaCl, as these crops have lower salt tolerance than wild soybean.

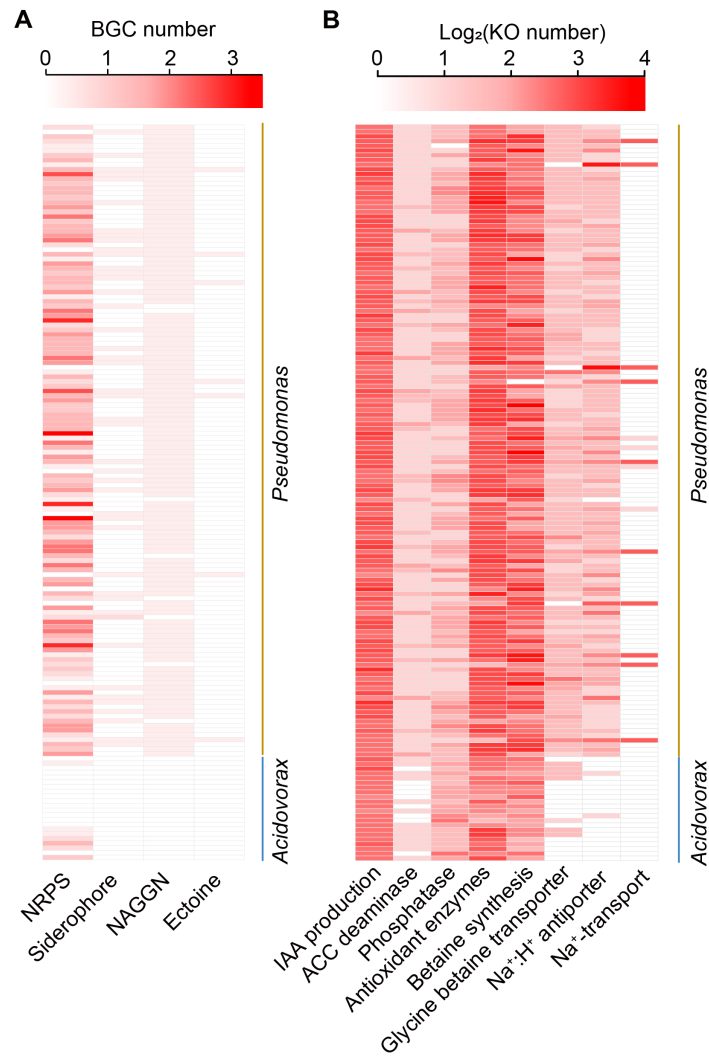


Fig. S8. Genetic potential for salt tolerance based on complete genome assemblies of *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax*. (A) The number of salt tolerance related BGCs in *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax* genomes. (B) The predicted genes associated with plant growth-promoting traits and salt stress alleviation in *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax* genomes.

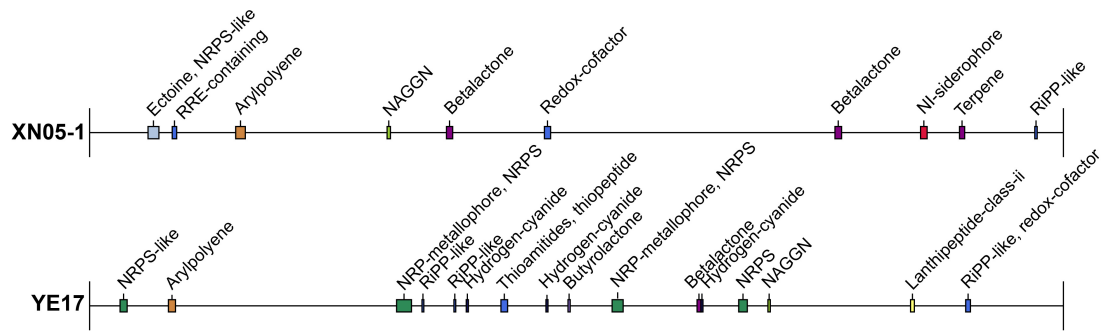


Fig. S9. Overview of BGCs in *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17. BGCs was predicted using the antiSMASH 7.1.0 online website (<https://antismash.secondarymetabolites.org/>). Both the strains harbored the NAGGN biosynthetic gene cluster.

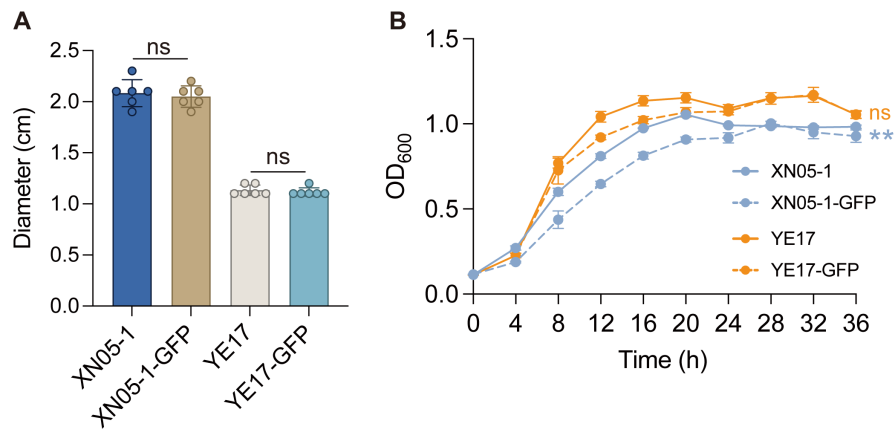


Fig. S10. Effects of green fluorescent protein (GFP) tagging on motility (a) and growth (b) in *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17. Wild-type strains: XN05-1 and YE17; GFP tagging strains: XN05-1-GFP and YE17-GFP. Statistical analysis was performed by two-sided Student's *t*-test.

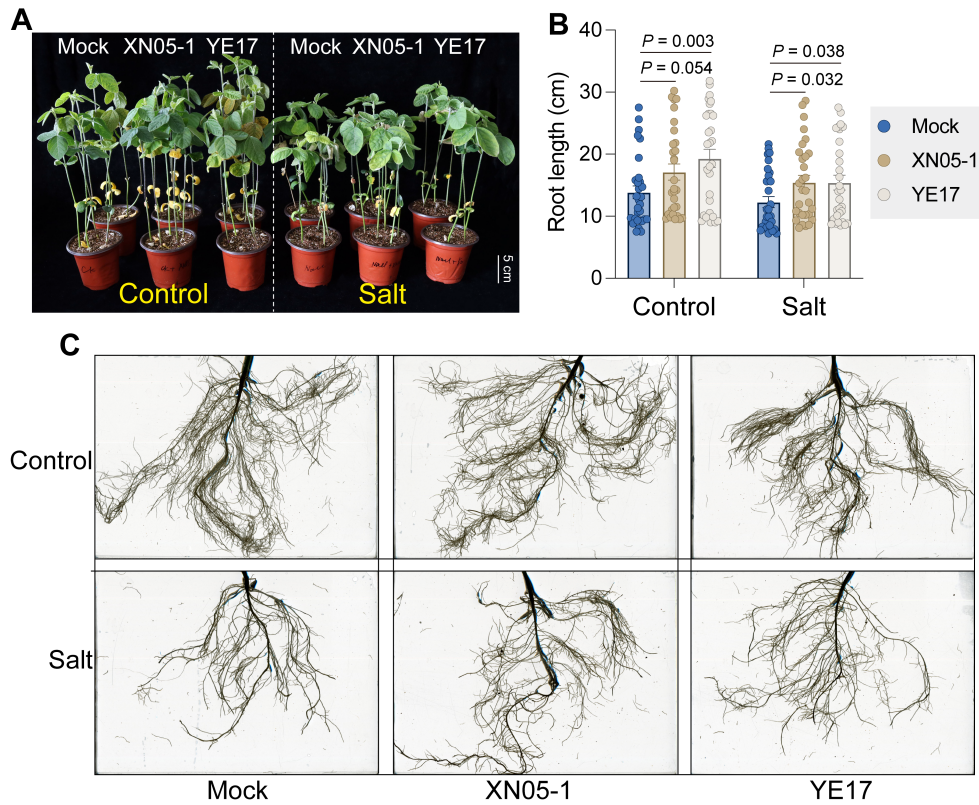


Fig. S11. Effects of *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17 on soybean growth and root development under salt stress. (A) Growth phenotype of soybean following inoculation with strains XN05-1 and YE17. Bars = 5 cm. **(B)** Primary root length. **(C)** Root system architecture. Statistical analysis was performed by two-tailed Student's *t*-test. The values represent the means \pm SEM ($n = 30$ roots in Fig. B). Salt stress in this experiment was applied using 300 mM NaCl.

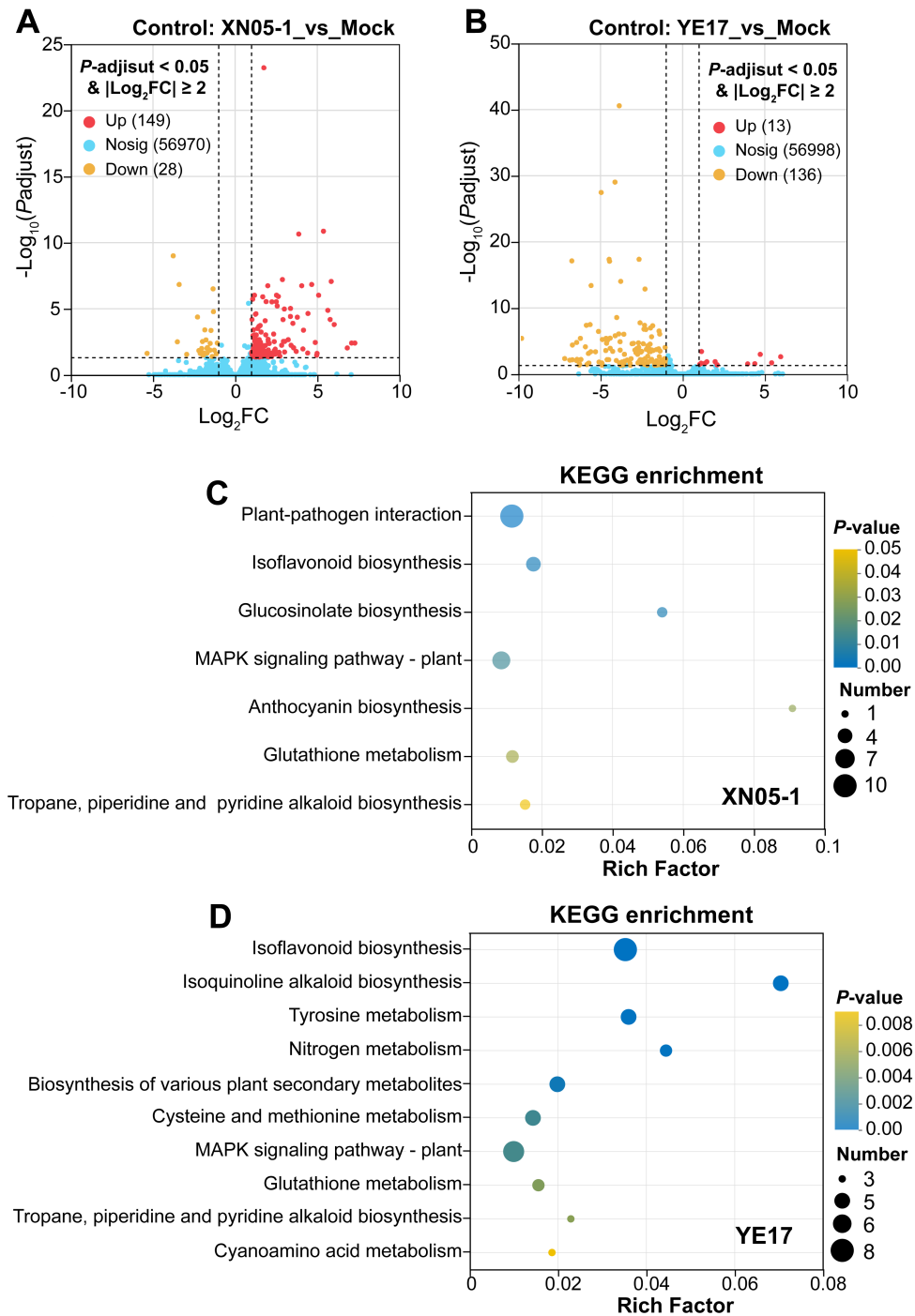


Fig. S12. Transcriptional responses of soybean roots to *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17 under non-saline conditions. (A and B) The volcano plot shows the differentially expressed genes induced by inoculation with strains XN05-1 and YE17. (C and D) KEGG enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes in soybean root inoculated with XN05-1 and YE17 strains.

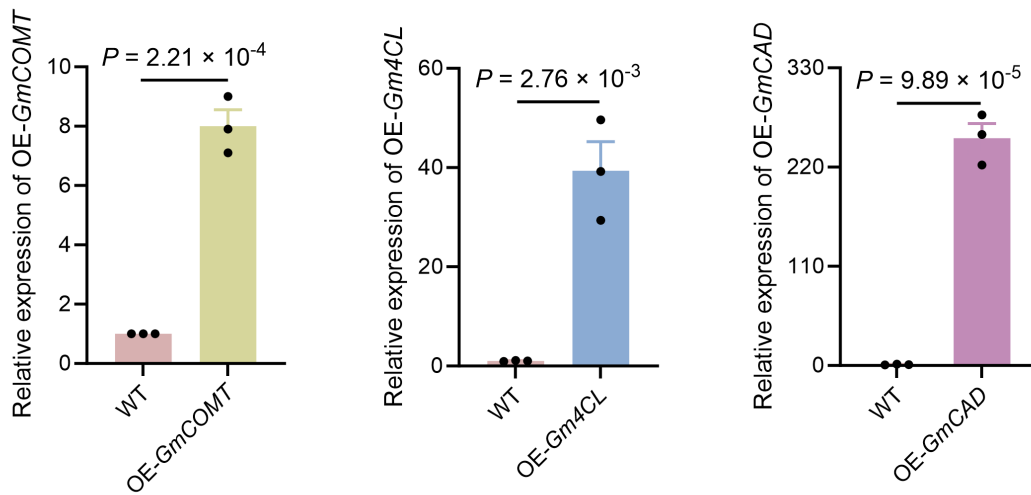


Fig. S13. The expression levels of *GmCAD*, *Gm4CL*, and *GmCOMT* in the corresponding overexpression lines. The values represent the means \pm SEM ($n = 3$ roots). Statistical analysis was performed by two-tailed Student's *t*-test.

Supplementary Tables

Table S1. The information of 164 MAGs obtained in this study.

Table S2. COG functions of the enriched and depleted MAGs in salt-tressed rhizosphere soil of wild soybean.

Table S3. KO numbers of the enriched and depleted MAGs annotated to plant growth-promoting potential.

Table S4. The location and soil pH of each sample site.

Table S5. Summary of samples used for 16S rRNA gene barcoding analysis. Several treatments included less than five but more than three biological replicates due to the failure of DNA extraction or 16S rRNA gene PCR amplification.

Table S6. The salt tolerance of type strains within *Pseudomonas* and *Acidovorax* genera based on published literatures.

Table S7. The information of *Pseudomonas* genomes downloaded from NCBI database.

Table S8. The information of *Acidovorax* genomes downloaded from the NCBI database.

Table S9. Proteins encoded by NAGGN biosynthetic gene cluster in *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17.

Table S10. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) induced by inoculation with *Pseudomonas* strains XN05-1 and YE17 under both control and salt stress conditions.

Table S11. An analysis of gene expression patterns associated with Na⁺ transport.

Table S12. Primers used in this study.