
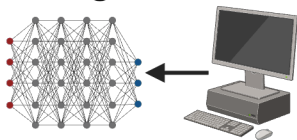

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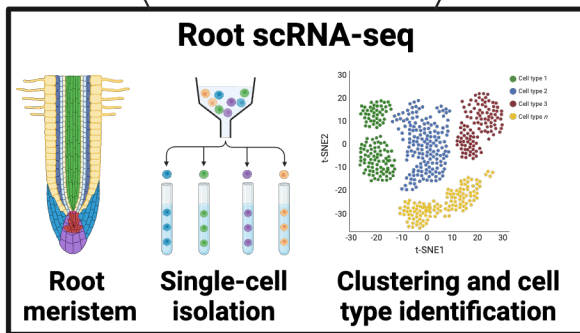
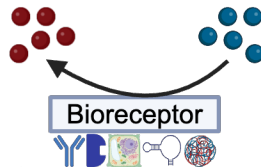
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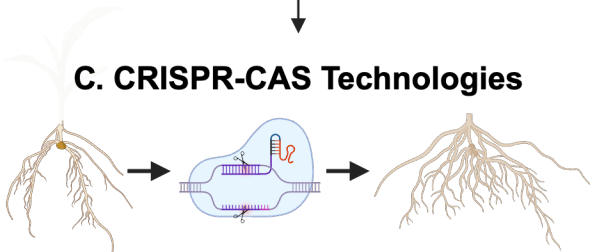
A. Multimodal Profiling and Modeling



B. Biosensors



C. CRISPR-CAS Technologies



1 **Advancing Root Biology: Technologies and Insights from Diverse Examples**

2 Núria S. Coll¹, Miguel Moreno-Risueno², Lucia C. Strader³, Alexandra V. Goodnight⁴, Rosangela
3 Sozzani^{#4,5}

4
5 ¹Centre for Research in Agricultural Genomics (CRAG), CSIC-IRTA-UAB-UB, Campus UAB,
6 Bellaterra, 08193 Barcelona, Spain; Department of Genetics, Universitat de Barcelona, 08028
7 Barcelona, Spain.

8 ²Centro de Biotecnología y Genómica de Plantas (Universidad Politécnica de Madrid (UPM) –
9 Instituto Nacional de Investigación y Tecnología Agraria y Alimentaria- CSIC (INIA-CSIC)),
10 Madrid, Spain

11 ³Department of Biology, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina 27708 USA.

12 ⁴N.C. Plant Sciences Initiative, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC 27607, USA

13 ⁵Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC
14 27607, USA

15 [#ross_sozzani@ncsu.edu](mailto:ross_sozzani@ncsu.edu) for correspondence

16 **Running Title: *Advanced Insights into Root Development***

17 **Abstract**

18 Understanding root development is critical for enhancing plant growth and health, and advanced
19 technologies are essential for unraveling the complexities of these processes. This review
20 highlights select technological innovations in the study of root development, with a particular
21 emphasis on the transformative impact of single-cell gene expression analysis. The insights
22 shared here are intended to provide a high-level overview of recent advancements, illustrating
23 how single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) has become a pivotal tool in plant biology.
24 Single-cell RNA sequencing has revolutionized root biology by enabling detailed, cell-specific
25 analysis of gene expression. This has allowed researchers to create comprehensive root
26 atlases, predict cell development, and map gene regulatory networks with unprecedented
27 precision. Complementary technologies, such as multimodal profiling and bioinformatics, further
28 enrich our understanding of cellular dynamics and gene interactions. Innovations in imaging and
29 modeling, combined with genetic tools like CRISPR, continue to deepen our knowledge of root
30 formation and function. Moreover, the integration of these technologies with advanced
31 biosensors and microfluidic devices has advanced our ability to study plant-microbe interactions
32 and hormone signaling at high resolutions. These tools collectively contribute to a more
33 comprehensive understanding of root system architecture and its regulation by environmental

34 factors. As these technologies evolve, they promise to drive further breakthroughs in plant
35 science, with significant implications for agriculture and sustainability.

36 **Advances Box**

- 37 ● **Single-cell RNA technologies (sc/snRNA-seq):** Enabled detailed, cell-specific gene
38 expression analysis, leading to comprehensive root atlases and precise predictions of
39 cell development.
- 40 ● **Multimodal Profiling and Bioinformatics:** Integrated analyses of the transcriptome,
41 genome, epigenome, and proteome, enhancing our understanding of cellular dynamics
42 and gene regulatory networks.
- 43 ● **Innovative Imaging and Modeling:** Advanced imaging and mathematical modeling
44 techniques have provided new insights into cell lineage tracing and non-stereotypic cell
45 division patterns.
- 46 ● **CRISPR/Cas Applications:** CRISPR technologies have uncovered key genetic
47 elements and regulatory mechanisms in root initiation and formation.
- 48 ● **Enhanced Plant-Microbe Studies:** Biosensors, microfluidic devices, and sequencing of
49 microbes have advanced our understanding of plant-microbe interactions and root
50 microbiome integration.

51 **Outstanding Questions Box**

- 52 ● How can single-cell RNA technologies be further optimized to capture rare cell types and
53 transient states in root development?
- 54 ● What are the key regulatory networks and molecular mechanisms governing root-
55 microbe interactions at single-cell resolution?
- 56 ● How can advanced imaging and modeling techniques be integrated to provide real-time
57 visualization and analysis of root growth and development?
- 58 ● How can multimodal profiling be expanded to include more comprehensive analyses of
59 the epigenome and proteome in root cells?

60 These questions aim to guide future research towards a deeper understanding of root
61 development and its broader implications

62

63

**65 Integrating Single-Cell Transcriptomics, Spatial Technologies, Bioinformatics to Uncover
66 Gene Function and Spatial Dynamics in Root Development**

67 Understanding root development is essential for plant growth, as it plays a crucial role in nutrient
68 acquisition, water uptake, and overall plant health (Sparks and Benfey, 2017). Recent
69 technological advancements (Figure 1) have accelerated our comprehension of these complex
70 processes, particularly the interactions between stem cells, developmental and hormone
71 programs, and microbial relationships. Single-cell and single-nucleus RNA sequencing
72 technologies (scRNA-seq and snRNA-seq) have enabled detailed analyses of gene expression
73 at the cellular level, thus providing insights into primary and lateral root development (Minne et
74 al., 2022). By examining cell identities through their molecular profiles, single-cell techniques
75 have facilitated the creation of detailed root atlases and predictions of cell development and
76 gene regulation (He et al., 2024; Shahan et al., 2022). Specifically, scRNA-seq has been
77 effective in defining cell clusters and populations in an unbiased manner, enhancing our
78 understanding of cellular processes. It captures rare cells or cell types, although their low
79 frequency in whole organ atlases may limit statistical power and hinder gene discovery and
80 functional studies. This limitation can be addressed by enriching these rare cell states or
81 tissues, resulting in more specific datasets (Gala et al., 2021). Techniques like Fluorescence-
82 activated cell sorting (FACS) or Fluorescence-activated nuclei sorting (FANS) using fluorescent
83 protein-tagged reporter lines have demonstrated that increased specificity can lead to novel
84 biological insights, as shown in studies profiling the sieve element lineage and early stages of
85 lateral root formation (Roszak et al., 2021; Serrano-Ron et al., 2021b). Alternatively, snRNA-seq
86 is used to access a broader range of cell types across diverse tissues and species, including
87 frozen samples, reducing capture bias (Guillot et al., 2023). However, snRNA-seq generally
88 captures fewer transcripts and is limited to nuclear RNA, which may not fully represent
89 transcripts with lower nuclear abundance. A combined approach of scRNA-seq and snRNA-seq
90 could provide a more comprehensive analysis, offering both depth and breadth in understanding
91 cell identity in plants. Complementing scRNA-seq, multimodal profiling examines various
92 parameters of the transcriptome, genome, epigenome, or proteome within each cell, offering a
93 deeper understanding of cellular dynamics (Lim et al., 2024).

94 Single-cell transcriptomics has been proven to be highly valuable in studying root development
95 and initiation. Advances in bioinformatics have enabled the inference of genetic interactions
96 from sequenced transcriptomes and the reconstruction of gene regulatory networks (GRNs),
97 which map the regulatory dependencies among genes (Serrano-Ron et al., 2021a). These
98 advancements, combined with computational models that integrate mechanistic insights with
99 hormonal inputs, have significantly improved our ability to predict root responses in complex
100 scenarios. However, challenges remain in fully utilizing this technology (Kaur et al., 2024). While
101 new protocols using artificial intelligence are beginning to address issues related to data
102 analysis and processing of scRNA-seq raw data (Hsu et al., 2022), other inherent limitations of
103 the technology are still unresolved. One notable limitation of scRNA-seq data is its inherent
104 sparsity. Although scRNA-seq is highly effective for capturing intermediate transcriptional states
105 along developmental trajectories (Seyfferth et al., 2021), it falls short in predicting individual

106 gene expression levels. In contrast, RNA-seq provides a more accurate depiction of gene
107 expression, but it typically reflects specific cell states or a mixture of them. Recent
108 advancements have introduced methods that combine scRNA-seq and RNA-seq datasets,
109 facilitating the identification of novel transcriptional signatures (Li et al., 2024). Despite these
110 advances, comprehensive computational models that integrate scRNA-seq and RNA-seq data
111 to achieve high-resolution, single-cell transcriptomic insights are still lacking. Furthermore,
112 integrating scRNA-seq with other single-cell omics datasets will be crucial for a deeper
113 understanding of cellular identity and function. While strategies to "anchor" different datasets
114 together (Stuart et al., 2019) have been developed, there is a need for new methods that
115 integrate various types of data into a cohesive, multidimensional system. Such innovations
116 could transform our approach to studying root development and advance biotechnological
117 research.

118 Another limitation of scRNA-seq is its inability to retain the spatial context of cells within tissue
119 samples, which complicates the analysis of spatial organization and biological interactions
120 during root initiation and formation. To address this issue, a new suite of technologies has
121 emerged, offering solutions to the lack of spatial dimensionality inherent in traditional scRNA-
122 seq approaches (Yin et al., 2023). Among these spatial transcriptomics technologies, Slide-seq
123 (Rodrigues et al., 2019) and Stereo-seq (Xia et al., 2022) utilize chips embedded with beads of
124 varying diameters. These beads, each carrying molecular identifications and location barcodes,
125 enable reverse transcription and double cDNA synthesis directly on the sample. The tissue is
126 finely dissected, typically through cryo-sectioning, and placed on the chip so that each cell
127 interacts with at least one bead, though ideally, 10-15 beads per cell are preferred. Slide-seq
128 uses beads on a micrometer scale, while Stereo-seq employs beads on a nanometer scale. The
129 choice between these techniques depends largely on cell size, with Stereo-seq offering higher
130 resolution for larger cells by increasing the number of beads and, consequently, the number of
131 reads compared to traditional scRNA-seq.

132 Additionally, spatial transcriptomics technologies based on high-throughput fluorescent in situ
133 hybridization (Xia et al., 2019; Yin et al., 2023) offer another approach. Although these methods
134 detect a limited number of genes per cell, they are effective for studying multiple genes
135 simultaneously. Multiplexed fluorescence in situ hybridization methods, already applied to root
136 studies (Nobori et al., 2023b), are expected to become more prevalent in addressing root
137 initiation and formation. While single-cell transcriptomics provides detailed insights into gene
138 expression at the cellular level, accurately pinpointing these expressions within the complex
139 architecture of plant tissues remains a challenge. This spatial information is vital for
140 understanding the functional dynamics and interactions of cells within their natural
141 environments. Integrating scRNA-seq data with spatial information (Robles-Remacho et al.,
142 2023) shows promise in revealing RNA functions within specific spatial contexts. Techniques
143 like PHYTOmap (Plant Hybridization-Based Targeted Observation of Gene Expression Map)
144 (Nobori et al., 2023b), and MERFISH (Nobori et al., 2023a) have facilitated single-cell and
145 spatial gene expression analysis in whole-mount plant tissues, including insights into spatial
146 variability in plant immune responses and others.

147

148 Notably, scRNA-seq has been combined with spatial transcriptomics to investigate how trees
149 regulate secondary radial growth. In a study in trees (Du et al., 2023), a developmental gradient
150 of meristematic cells from primary to secondary vascular tissues was characterized in stems,
151 identifying two types of cambium meristematic cells that distinctively generate phloem and
152 xylem cells. Combining scRNA-seq with spatial transcriptomics has also been proven to be
153 useful to unravel dynamic molecular maps of cambium differentiation in the primary and
154 secondary growth of trees (Li et al., 2023). Different regulatory networks involved in cell
155 differentiation from cambium to xylem precursors and phloem precursors were identified and
156 connected with auxin accumulation and distribution. scRNA-seq has also been successfully
157 applied to other crops such as pea (Chen et al., 2024b) and medicago (Pereira et al., 2024) to
158 study shoot development and cell-type-specific responses to boron deficiency and cell lineages
159 involved in nodule development, respectively.

160 Despite these advances, challenges persist in spatially localizing gene expression within non-
161 model plants and more agriculturally relevant conditions such as plants growing in soil. Issues
162 include the need for non-live imaging, tissue sectioning, and limited sensitivity to low-abundance
163 transcripts (Wang et al., 2024). Additionally, the vast amounts of data generated by spatial
164 transcriptomics - often reaching terabytes - pose significant challenges in processing, analysis,
165 and visualization. As technology evolves, the development of advanced data analysis tools and
166 statistical methods (Bressan et al., 2023), along with the potential for 3D and spatial-temporal
167 approaches, will be crucial for offering deeper insights into cellular dynamics over time.

168 **Integrating Spatial Context, Gene Editing, and Advanced Imaging for Enhanced** 169 **Understanding of Root Development**

170 Integrating single-cell transcriptomics with spatial technologies and advanced bioinformatics
171 represents a significant leap forward in our understanding of root development. The combination
172 of these spatial techniques with CRISPR gene editing allows for precise manipulation of genes
173 identified through single-cell analyses, thereby validating their roles in root development and
174 hormonal responses (Zhang et al., 2021). High-throughput imaging and biosensors further
175 complement these approaches by providing real-time observations of root-environment
176 interactions and molecular events (Rowe and Jones, 2021). Together, these technologies
177 provide a comprehensive understanding of root dynamics, from the cellular and tissue levels to
178 how roots respond to environmental stimuli. This integrative approach enables researchers to
179 gain a more nuanced understanding of root development, especially in unraveling the
180 complexity of how different genetic and environmental factors influence root architecture and
181 function.

182 The advent of CRISPR-Cas technology has further revolutionized research into root
183 development. By enabling precise and targeted modifications of genes involved in critical
184 processes such as hormonal signaling and the formation of root structures, CRISPR allows us
185 to explore the specific roles of individual genes with unprecedented accuracy (Cardi et al.,
186 2023). This ability to manipulate genetic pathways in root development sheds light on how roots
187 grow, divide, and adapt at the molecular level. As detailed below, CRISPR facilitates both the
188 exploration of gene function and the ability to generate new root phenotypes, allowing for

189 deeper investigations into the regulatory networks controlling root morphology and physiology
190 (Wachsman et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2021).

191 Equally transformative are high-throughput imaging techniques, such as confocal microscopy
192 and live-cell imaging, which allow real-time visualization of root growth and interactions with
193 their environment (Sozzani et al., 2014). These technologies provide invaluable insights into
194 how roots dynamically respond to environmental conditions, including changes in nutrient
195 availability, water, and soil structure. Observing these processes in real time has enabled
196 researchers to understand the adaptive strategies of roots, such as how root hairs extend or
197 how lateral roots emerge in response to external signals. In addition to imaging, biosensors
198 have become an essential tool for monitoring molecular events within root cells. These sensors
199 detect and measure key molecules such as hormones and nutrients, revealing how these
200 factors drive developmental changes and signaling pathways within the plant (Beltrán et al.,
201 2022; Madison et al., 2024; Naresh and Lee, 2021). By monitoring the presence and activity of
202 hormones, nutrients, and other key molecules, biosensors will help in understanding of how
203 plants perceive and respond to environmental changes, and how these responses could be
204 modulated by interactions with microbes as briefly described below.

205 Another key development in understanding root biology is the integration of metagenomics,
206 which characterizes the root microbiome and explores its role in shaping root growth and
207 function (Nwachukwu and Babalola, 2022). The complex communities of microorganisms
208 associated with root systems have been increasingly examined, leading to new understandings
209 of how the microbiome influences root development and nutrient acquisition. These studies
210 have progressively revealed deeper insights into the symbiotic relationships between roots and
211 microbes, underscoring the microbiome's evolving role in promoting root growth, optimizing
212 nutrient uptake, and enhancing plant health across diverse environmental conditions (Das et al.,
213 2023; Edwards et al., 2015). Metagenomic sequencing techniques further provide detailed
214 analyses of these microbial communities, identifying key microbes that support root growth and
215 help plants adapt to environmental stress. Understanding these root-microbe interactions is
216 crucial for gaining a comprehensive picture of root development and function within their natural
217 ecosystems.

218 These technological advancements are essential for achieving a comprehensive understanding
219 of root development (Figure 1). By integrating stem cell, developmental, and hormonal
220 pathways with microbial interactions, these innovations are set to shape the future of
221 sustainable agriculture, improving crop resilience and productivity. This review briefly highlights
222 key technological advancements, particularly scRNA-seq, which have significantly expanded
223 our knowledge of root development - from studies on the SHOOTROOT and SCARECROW
224 relationship in primary roots (Shahan et al., 2022), to recent breakthroughs in imaging
225 technologies that offer insights into lateral root formation and plant-microbe interactions.
226 Furthermore, the review presents examples of CRISPR/Cas applications in this area.

227 ***Revealing Developmental Trajectories Through Single-Cell Transcriptomics***

228 Single-cell root atlas has revealed developmental trajectories in both wild-type and cell identity
229 mutants, with high-resolution characterization of mutant molecular phenotypes achieved using
230 scRNA-seq, particularly in epidermal and ground tissue mutants (Denyer et al., 2019; Ryu et al.,
231 2019; Shahan et al., 2022). These studies have unveiled the steady-state transcriptional status
232 of cells, which contributes to the molecular basis underlying observable phenotypic traits,
233 demonstrating the power of single-cell approaches in molecular phenotype discovery.
234 Additionally, droplet-based scRNA-seq has been effectively applied to *Arabidopsis* primary roots
235 in multiple studies (Denyer et al., 2019; Jean-Baptiste et al., 2019; Ryu et al., 2019; Shahan et
236 al., 2022; Shulse et al., 2019; Turco et al., 2019; Wendrich et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020).
237 These investigations have validated the reliability of scRNA-seq data and confirmed the utility of
238 known cell type markers for annotating root cell populations. Furthermore, plate-based scRNA-
239 seq methods, such as Smart-seq, have been employed to profile specific root cell types, such
240 as phloem cells, revealing developmental trajectories during tissue maturation (Roszak et al.,
241 2021).

242 Single-cell omics techniques have further shed light into the dynamic responses of *Arabidopsis*
243 roots to environmental cues. These studies investigate how changes in sucrose levels and heat
244 shock stress induce cell type- and developmental stage-specific transcriptional responses
245 (Jean-Baptiste et al., 2019; Shulse et al., 2019). This research underscores the adaptability of
246 roots to environmental fluctuations and provides a molecular understanding of stress responses
247 at a cellular level.

248
249 Protoplast-based techniques have demonstrated efficacy in *Arabidopsis* root apical meristem
250 studies, yet they generally necessitate fresh tissues and may induce changes in specific parts of
251 the transcriptome (Denyer et al., 2019). In contrast, nuclei-based methodologies are emerging
252 as viable alternatives, capable of transcriptome profiling through single-nuclei RNA-seq
253 (snRNA-seq) or identification of open chromatin regions via single-cell sequencing using Assay
254 for Transposase Accessible Chromatin (scATAC-seq), applicable to both fresh and frozen
255 tissues. Utilizing scATAC-seq on *Arabidopsis* roots, a few studies have revealed distinct cell
256 identities through accessible chromatin regions, which often differ from those identified by
257 scRNA-seq (Dorrity et al., 2021). This technique has also aided in pinpointing transcription
258 factor-binding sites specific to individual cells or clusters, thereby facilitating the reconstruction
259 of gene regulatory networks (Dorrity et al., 2021; Marand et al., 2021).

260 Single-cell RNA sequencing has deepened our understanding of the roles of SHR and SCR in
261 *Arabidopsis* root development, providing insights into how these molecular regulators influence
262 cellular differentiation and identity. Through sophisticated computational analyses, it has been
263 shown that SCR mutant cells span a spectrum between cortex and endodermis identities,
264 indicating a continuum rather than discrete cell types and that SHR mutant cells predominantly
265 maintain cortex-like characteristics throughout developmental stages. These findings challenge
266 previous notions of static cell identities and propose a dynamic model where cells transition
267 between developmental states. This example highlights the power of single-cell gene
268 expression analysis in unraveling complex processes like the trans-differentiation observed in
269 SCR mutant cells, which exhibit characteristics of both cortex and endodermis cell types.

270 ***A Combination of New Methods and Traditional Technologies Improves Our Mechanistic***
271 ***Understanding of Root Initiation and Organogenesis***

272 Organ formation typically occurs during embryogenesis. However, plants have the remarkable
273 ability to produce entirely new organs not present in the embryo as part of their normal
274 development. This flexibility allows plants to generate the same organ under different
275 developmental programs, with roots being a prime example. Thus, new roots can be initiated
276 not only during embryogenesis but also through lateral and adventitious (or shoot-borne) root
277 formation, as well as from regenerative programs following wounding. Leveraging novel
278 technologies, in combination with established methods, some of them which have been updated
279 using new molecular technologies, has led to a more comprehensive understanding of the
280 intricate processes underlying the initiation and formation of new roots (Cabrera et al., 2024;
281 Gaudinier et al., 2023; Serrano-Ron et al., 2021a; Zhu et al., 2022).

282 Lateral root initiation and formation have been extensively studied over the last few decades,
283 with recent approaches being critical in providing insights into both the cellular and molecular
284 contexts. These advances have allowed for a more comprehensive description of
285 developmental mechanisms and the generation of new hypotheses (Torres-Martínez et al.,
286 2022). Seminal studies identified the pericycle in *Arabidopsis* as a reprogrammable tissue from
287 which lateral roots are initiated. These studies also characterized the formative process into
288 seven developmental and/or temporal stages, distinguishing the central and lateral growth
289 domains within the lateral root primordium as intrinsically different in terms of developmental
290 patterns and cell morphologies (Perianez-Rodriguez et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2022). In the
291 following years, many developmental mechanisms and molecular players were identified, with
292 auxin showing a prevalent role in orchestrating lateral root initiation and formation through
293 different regulatory modules composed of AUXIN RESPONSE FACTORS (ARFs) and their
294 AUX/IAA partners. These factors regulate lateral root initiation, cell division, and growth through
295 specific downstream targets (e.g. LATERAL ORGAN BOUNDARIES-DOMAIN (LBD) factors,
296 GATA TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR 23 (GATA23), etc.), either alone or in combination with
297 various receptor-like protein kinases (e.g. ACR4, TARGET OF LBD SIXTEEN2 (TOLS2),
298 RECEPTOR-LIKE KINASE7 (RLK7), etc.) or peptides (e.g. GOLVEN/ROOT GROWTH
299 FACTORS (GLVs), etc.), while root developmental regulators (PLT factors and SCR) were
300 shown to be involved in tissue patterning and/or stem cell specification (Du and Scheres, 2017;
301 Goh et al., 2016; Torres-Martínez et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2023b). Additionally, imaging
302 studies combined with mathematical modeling to trace cell lineages and divisions showed that
303 the central and lateral growth domains of the lateral root primordium emerged from non-
304 stereotypic cell division patterns (von Wangenheim et al., 2016). Moreover, the inference of a
305 lateral root formation gene regulatory network identified the central growth domain to be defined
306 by mutual inhibition of ARFs (Lavenus et al., 2015). Despite all this knowledge, it was not until
307 the advancement of the scRNA-seq technology and more sophisticated four dimensional
308 models recapitulating cell behaviors and growth mechanics that a more comprehensive picture
309 of lateral root histogenesis and patterning was obtained.

310 High-throughput scRNA-seq has emerged as a powerful tool to decipher the processes of
311 lateral root initiation and morphogenesis. Using gravistimulation to synchronize lateral root

312 formation, scRNA-seq was performed in dissected regions of previously gravistimulated roots at
313 various time points (Gala et al., 2021). This study captured the first molecular events associated
314 with lateral root initiation, demonstrating that root initiation could be part of a developmental
315 trajectory involving the stele of the primary root. It also identified an early cell fate switch during
316 lateral root initiation involving novel regulation, such as chromatin remodeling factors. As this
317 dataset also captured primary root tissues, it allowed for the identification of subpopulations of
318 endodermis and pericycle cells responding in coordination during lateral root initiation.
319 Remarkably, this suggests communication between the newly forming organ and the host
320 tissues as part of the organogenesis mechanism. A novel computational model integrating
321 spatial tissue growth mechanics and auxin transport advocates for the necessity of this
322 coordination, proposing that topological cues are interpreted at the molecular level affecting
323 auxin distribution (Ramos et al., 2024).

324 As lateral root initiation and formation occurs in a small number of cells, a different approach
325 using a lateral-root-specific organogenesis promoter to isolate cells through FACS followed by
326 scRNA-seq was employed (Serrano-Ron et al., 2021b). This research led to a model in which a
327 single group of precursor or founder cells, termed primordial cells, rapidly reprograms to form
328 three developmental trajectories in two sequential steps, with pre-stem cells located in the
329 central region of the new organ, pre-vascular cells on the sides, and flanking cells in the upper
330 and lower parts of the new organ. Intriguingly, as these developmental trajectories are
331 established following three spatial orthogonal axes (a left-right axis to delimit the sides, an
332 upper-lower axis to delimit the flanks and a proximodistal axis to delimit the central part of the
333 primordia) the existence of unknown positional information cues is hypothesized. Additionally,
334 traditional time-course laser ablation of the central and flank regions of the newly forming organ,
335 followed by confocal microscopy, showed a pre-established sequence for tissue initiation that
336 cannot be reversed (Serrano-Ron et al., 2021b). A combination of dynamic Bayesian network
337 inference alongside tree-based methods, based on a time-course dataset of RNA-seq cells
338 isolated through FACS using single and double fluorescent markers across the lateral root stem
339 cell trajectory, demonstrates the existence of a gene regulatory networks structured as a
340 morphogenetic cascade (Cabrera et al., 2024). This network topology could explain why root
341 initiation cannot be easily reversed and requires restarting if the forming organ is damaged.

342 An implemented version of the classical clonal analyses was used to trace lineages during
343 lateral root initiation through confocal laser microscopy (Torres-Martínez et al., 2020). In this
344 system a heat shock-induced transposition of a DS1 transposon within the construct 35S-DS1-
345 H2B:YFP results, when heat is applied, in the production of a yellow fluorescent protein (YFP)
346 labeling a specific cell lineage. As a result, it was shown that founder cells are progressively
347 recruited by pre-existing ones, which could provide positional information during organogenesis.
348 A different methodological approach proposes to record *in vivo* signaling networks during lateral
349 root initiation using orthogonal serine integrases to induce a switch between fluorescent
350 reporters (the mScarlet and the mTurquoise fluorescent proteins) through site-specific and
351 irreversible DNA recombination (Guiziou et al., 2023). The switch would be driven by the
352 promoter of the gene of interest and can be used to build history-dependent circuits, facilitating
353 the understanding of regulation through developmental trajectories. Light sheet analysis of cell
354 division, combined with information of the cell geometry derived from computational volumetric

355 segmentation was used to generate a four dimensional reconstruction of the early developing
356 organ (Schütz et al., 2021). This study shows different cases of asymmetries in volume partition
357 among daughter cells, which could relate to cell fate specification and be involved in
358 establishing the new developmental axes for the new organ. Future experiments addressing the
359 specific four dimensional reconstruction of the developmental trajectories during root initiation
360 could facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of how tissue growth mechanics and cell
361 fate specification are coupled.

362 Understanding lateral root formation in the context of plant root systems can be instrumental in
363 modulating and selecting a desired root system architecture. A novel method to quantify the
364 transition through the various lateral root developmental stages was devised (Uemura et al.,
365 2023; Uemura and Tsukagoshi, 2024). In this method, developmental stages are captured using
366 time-lapse imaging of gravistimulated roots followed by deep neural network (DNN) analysis.
367 Time-lapse images of lateral root primordium development through the gravistimulation process
368 serve as input for machine learning, facilitating the construction of the DNN model. The DNN
369 model performs the automated identification of the developmental stages correlating actual time
370 after gravistimulation with development. Next, statistical differences are analyzed for a specific
371 time and associated with a particular developmental stage.

372 scRNA-seq was also successfully utilized to increase our knowledge of root initiation during
373 shoot-borne root formation (Omary et al., 2022) and from callus (Zhai et al., 2023; Zhai and Xu,
374 2021). In tomato, shoot-borne roots originate from a particular type of phloem cells, and to
375 isolate these very rare tissues, a combination of microdissection, cell disassociation and FACS
376 upon a doubly fluorescently marked line was used followed by scRNA-seq (Omary et al., 2022).
377 This analysis identified a developmental trajectory from specific phloem cells, which could
378 acquire additional transient identities to initiate a new meristem through the formation of
379 precursor stem cells, termed as transition cells and representing the progenitors of the new root.
380 A critical regulator of transition cell specification was a LBD factor, which was not only required
381 for shoot-borne formation but was also involved in wound-induced and lateral root formation and
382 was part of a conserved superlocus in angiosperms. Roots can also be initiated from callus, and
383 scRNA-seq was also used to profile callus formation and identify regulation specifying root or
384 shoot fates (Zhai et al., 2023; Zhai and Xu, 2021). This study confirms at higher resolution, as
385 initially proposed (Sugimoto et al., 2010), that a callus is organized as a root primordium and
386 that it is the central layer with stem cell properties which can initiate new organs. Intriguingly,
387 fate of the new organ is determined by cytokinin sensibility conferred by levels of WUSCHEL-
388 RELATED HOMEODOMAIN (WOX) factors, with increased WOX levels leading to shoot fate.

389 To address the role of the candidate genes identified by scRNA-seq approaches investigating
390 lateral root initiation and formation, CRISPR/Cas9 technology or new methods based on it have
391 been devised. Multiplex CRISPR/Cas9, which can target up to six genes (Bollier et al., 2021),
392 has been used to investigate redundant regulation following scRNA-seq studies of root initiation
393 in tomato (Omary et al., 2022). Remarkably, this approach led to the identification of an ancient
394 angiosperm superlocus formed by class IIIA and IIIB LBD paralogs, with class IIIB specifically
395 regulating shoot-borne root initiation, and both class IIIA and IIIB redundantly regulating wound-
396 induced and lateral root formation. New approaches based on the CRISPR/Cas9 technology

397 leverage promoters with known specific expression during root initiation and formation. One of
398 these methods (Gala et al., 2021) uses an enhancer trap system to drive, under the bacterial
399 UAS promoter, expression of the nuclease-deactivated CRISPR-associated protein (dCas9)
400 fused to the TOPLESS repressor domain (Khakhar et al., 2018). The resulting construct is
401 combined with specific single guide RNAs (sgRNAs) directed to the promoter regions of genes
402 of interest to inhibit their transcription. Specificity is provided by the specific enhancer trap line
403 chosen, in which the bacterial GAL4 transcription factor was already targeted to a specific tissue
404 or group of cells (Laplaze et al., 2005). As a result, the role of novel regulation during root
405 initiation has been investigated with unprecedented spatial and/ or temporal resolution
406 confirming novel hypotheses such as lateral inhibition influencing organ spacing. In a different
407 approach, a tissue-specific knockout system, termed CRISPR-TSKO, was devised
408 (Decaestecker et al., 2019). Specific promoters driving expression of Cas9 during lateral root
409 formation was combined, through Golden Gate assembly, with one of two sgRNAs targeting the
410 genes of interest. As a proof of concept, targeting ARF factors or cell cycle regulators involved
411 in lateral root formation showed reduced organogenesis.

412 Collectively, the study of root initiation and organogenesis has been greatly facilitated by the
413 utilization of new technologies, such as scRNA-seq, which identified new cell types and
414 developmental trajectories, new computational models that integrate molecular and mechanical
415 or spatial regulation, and genome editing technologies that enable multiple or tissue-specific
416 inactivation of genes. Research has already concentrated on crops, particularly tomatoes,
417 highlighting the exciting potential of these techniques to deepen our understanding of
418 organogenesis in other agriculturally relevant species.

419 ***New strategies and tools to modulate root architecture through its interactions with***
420 ***microbes.***

421 As holobionts, plants harbor a variety of external and internal microbes that greatly contribute to
422 their fitness and survival (Vandenkoornhuyse et al., 2015). The root is no exception to that: plant
423 roots release a vast range of substances into the soil, making their surrounding nutrient rich and
424 thus an attractive niche for microbes. These root-derived materials include root exudates
425 abundant in photosynthetically fixed carbon, and rhizodeposition consisting of a mixture of
426 mucilage, shed cells and cellular debris. In this context, the rhizosphere is defined as the layer
427 of soil surrounding the root and the microorganisms that live therein and are affected by plant
428 inputs (Mohanram and Kumar, 2019). Rhizospheric microbes can be beneficial, harmful or
429 neutral for the plant and complex interactions between them also take place ultimately defining
430 microbial population structures (Mendes et al., 2013). Adding complexity, the interactions
431 between the root and microbes in the rhizosphere is strongly modulated by abiotic factors and
432 also by interactions with other plants and animals in the soil (Fitzpatrick et al., 2018). In addition,
433 along with rhizospheric microorganisms, which live outside the root, microbes residing inside,
434 known as root endophytes, are equally important but in comparison far less studied (Verma et
435 al., 2021). As part of their interaction with the plant, all these microbial communities affect and
436 are affected by root development and architecture. In this regard, a better understanding of root-
437 microbe interactions will be key to rationally engineer plant holobionts with radicular systems
438 better adapted to the environmental challenges.

439 Root-associated microbes communicate with the plant and surrounding via a vast array of
440 signals and this communication will ultimately shape their interaction modulating root system
441 architecture and consequently plant health (Enagbonma et al., 2023). The secondary
442 metabolites produced by rhizobial microbes that have a direct impact on plant root growth and
443 development include both phytohormones (auxins, cytokinins, ethylene, gibberellins and
444 abscisic acid) and a growing list of non-hormonal chemicals (Mukherjee et al., 2022). Perception
445 of these microbial bioactive metabolites by the root activates signaling pathways that result in
446 alterations in the root system architecture mostly involving the changes in the number, length,
447 density and biomass of basal roots, lateral roots and root hairs (Grover et al., 2021). In this
448 regard, a combination of various metabolomics will be key to define the plant holobiont's
449 metabolome. These include liquid or gas chromatographic methods coupled to mass
450 spectrometry and spectroscopic techniques such as nuclear magnetic resonance or Fourier
451 transform-near-infrared (Pang et al., 2021). On the other hand, mass spectrometry imaging has
452 allowed the determination of the spatial distribution of metabolites in the rhizosphere (Döll et al.,
453 2021; Gomez-Zepeda et al., 2021; Korenblum et al., 2020; Sasse et al., 2020), while single-cell
454 mass spectrometry can help discriminating plant- and microbe-produced metabolites (Masuda
455 et al., 2018; Taylor et al., 2021). However, there is still a huge lack of annotation and functional
456 assignment among mass features, which will need to be addressed in the coming years
457 (Aharoni et al., 2023).

458 While the effects of rhizosphere microbes on roots have been extensively studied, how root
459 system architecture in turn modulates microbial associations remains poorly understood,
460 particularly in agricultural soils (Galindo-Castañeda et al., 2024). This is important to determine
461 the sites of interaction and composition of specific microbe communities along the root axis and
462 the role of these communities in the holobiont. In this regard, the vertical gradients that exist in
463 natural soils determine availability of nutrients, water and oxygen, influencing microbial diversity
464 and potentially affecting the assembly of communities along the root axes (He et al., 2023). The
465 root hair zone and the sites of lateral root emergence constitute microbial hotspots along the
466 root axis (Rüger et al., 2021). Root hairs play a critical role in the interplay among soil, plants
467 and microorganisms, controlling root exudates and contributing to resource exchange (Molefe et
468 al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023a). In turn, lateral root emergence generates an exit point for
469 various metabolites and other compounds that attract specific microbial communities (Baudoin
470 et al., 2002; Jaeger et al., 1999; Park et al., 2004; Rüger et al., 2021). The root cap is also an
471 important determinant for the assembly of the rhizosphere microbiome (Rüger et al., 2023).
472 Despite major advances in recent years, mechanistic knowledge about the spatial and temporal
473 variability of microbiome assembly on roots is still very sparse. However, a deep understanding
474 of the highly dynamic process of microbial assembly along the root axis will be extremely
475 important for targeted improvement of microbiome function in agricultural soils.

476 The field of root-microbe interactions has boomed over the last two decades thanks to the
477 advent of next generation sequencing techniques, which has allowed a deeper understanding of
478 the root and rhizosphere microbial communities (Knief, 2014). However, researchers in this field
479 still face many challenges to go beyond mere descriptions of communities and to be able to
480 move into a more mechanistic understanding of the interactions between roots and their

481 interacting microbes that would allow the use of microbes to engineer root functions and overall
482 plant health.

483 Artificial intelligence will be key to extract valuable information from the large number and
484 diverse omics datasets obtained from roots and their communities. Metagenomics,
485 metatranscriptomics, proteomics and metabolomics techniques have kept becoming more
486 sensitive, relatively affordable and simpler to perform, providing a wealth of information in terms
487 of taxonomic composition and gene expression patterns of root communities (Bai et al., 2015;
488 Lundberg et al., 2012; Saarenpää et al., 2024). However, integrative analyses of these datasets
489 are lacking. In this regard, artificial intelligence can help consolidate data from heterogeneous
490 sources to facilitate unified interpretation. Another challenge faced by the study of root-microbe
491 interactions is the lack of specificity in sampling. Most of the studies are performed with pooled
492 roots, disregarding the spatio-temporal variation in microbial composition along the root axis, or
493 the functional specialization of different root parts. In this regard, it may be important to adapt
494 methods successfully used to isolate single bacterial cells in other bacterial communities to root-
495 associated communities, such as micromanipulation, laser capture microdissection,
496 fluorescence-activated cell sorting or microfluidics (Balestrini et al., 2007; Gomez and Harrison,
497 2009; Hohnadel et al., 2018; Ishøy et al., 2006; Raghunathan et al., 2005; Riba et al., 2016).
498 Recently, spatial profiling of a root bacterial community has been achieved through a highly
499 multiplexed and accurate imaging method known as sequential error-robust fluorescence in situ
500 hybridization (Cao et al., 2023). In addition, recent advances in root phenotyping, including
501 traditional and machine learning-based methods, will aid in the study of root-microbe
502 interactions and help refine sampling techniques.

503 In order to define major root microbial colonization sites it will be essential to develop
504 biosensors coupled with advanced live imaging microscopy. In this regard, the development of
505 microfluidic devices that allow for dynamic imaging of plant-microbe interactions at high
506 spatiotemporal resolution (Massalha et al., 2017). In parallel, recent advances have made
507 possible single cell RNA sequencing of microbial community members, which will help define
508 gene expression patterns in individual cells within a consortium and predict spatial organization
509 (Ma et al., 2019).

510 The assembly of knowledge-based synthetic microbial communities has been leveraged in
511 agriculture to improve plant health. The advances brought about by the CRISPR/Cas9 system
512 has led to more efficient genetic manipulation of microbes, which will facilitate the study of gene
513 function and the targeted engineering of root microbial communities (Aparicio et al., 2019; Bisht
514 et al., 2019). In parallel, this technology can also be employed to develop crops harboring roots
515 engineered to improve colonization/residency of beneficial microbe communities. Ultimately,
516 these modifications can target different aspects of root function to improve water and nutrient
517 uptake, alter selective uptake of solutes from soil, boost immunity to defend from harmful
518 pathogens in the soil or gain tolerance to abiotic stresses.

519 Root-microbiome analysis has already had a strong impact in agriculture by improving nitrogen
520 use efficiency and reducing the dependence on fertilizers and pesticides of certain crops,
521 resulting in more sustainable practices. New technologies are helping understand the complex

522 and dynamic interactions between roots and microbes, integrating the spatiotemporal dimension
523 of interactions and integrating multiple.

524 ***Hormonal Regulation and Technological Advancements in Root Development***

525
526 Phytohormones influence every aspect of primary and lateral root growth and development. In
527 particular, the coordinated activities of auxin, cytokinin, gibberellin (GA), and abscisic acid (ABA)
528 guide the cell specification, division, and expansion events at the heart of root development.
529 Auxin is generally considered to be the primary initiator and promoter of lateral root formation
530 whereas cytokinin activity opposes those of auxin (Jing and Strader, 2019). Under stressful
531 conditions, ABA inhibits lateral root production and promotes primary root elongation (De Smet
532 et al., 2006; Ranjan et al., 2022). The intricate balance of these hormones drives the ultimate
533 architecture of the root system. Recent new technologies enabling a spatial understanding of
534 phytohormone action has improved our understanding of this balance.

535
536 Advancements in hormone biosensors and imaging technologies have revolutionized our ability
537 to visualize hormone distribution within root tissues (Rowe and Jones, 2021). Biosensors and
538 fluorescent reporters provide real-time, high-resolution monitoring of hormone concentrations
539 and signaling events and continual refinement of these biosensors and reporters allow for a
540 deeper understanding of the dynamic relationships between these hormones and environmental
541 modulators of lateral root formation.

542
543 Asymmetric auxin distribution is a critical driver of root gravitropic responses and lateral root
544 setpoint angle (Konstantinova et al., 2021). Auxin reporters, such as DR5 (for auxin response)
545 and R2D2 (for auxin perception) have provided much insight into these processes and also of
546 the developmental events underlying *de novo* meristem formation during lateral root initiation.
547 Biosensors can also unmask plant hormone roles in the root meristem. For example, the GPS1
548 biosensor unmasked a GA gradient in the primary root elongation zone, which correlated with
549 root cell lengths (Rizza et al., 2017). In this system, GA levels increase from the meristematic
550 zone toward the elongation zone (Rizza et al., 2017). A combination of detailed GA sensor
551 experiments and mathematical modeling has led to a deeper understanding of the GA metabolic
552 processes underlying this gradient (Rizza et al., 2021). Further, a second generation GPS2
553 biosensor with improved orthogonality and reversibility (Griffiths et al., 2024) will surely allow for
554 deeper insights into the multilevel hormone control of root growth, as it has done for our
555 understanding of hypocotyl growth. Indeed, it has already been used to understand the GA
556 dynamics underlying nodulation in *Medicago truncatula* (Drapek et al., 2024). GA accumulates
557 at the site of nodule primordia and acts as a positive regulator of nodule growth (Drapek et al.,
558 2024). A separate GA sensor, called qmRGA and based on GA-induced degradation of the
559 DELLA repressor protein RGA, provides insight into GA signaling dynamics and spatial
560 responses (Shi et al., 2024). Future work with these sensors, and others developed for
561 additional phytohormones, will help elucidate the roles for their distributions in shaping root
562 architecture.

563

564 Single cell sequencing of roots has enabled an understanding of phytohormone effects on root
565 developmental progression. For example, surveying the transcriptome changes of increased
566 cytokinin at single cell resolution unmasked a counteraction by SHR to create induction and
567 repression modules that organize root vascular development (Yang et al., 2021). In another
568 example, single cell transcriptomics revealed a role for brassinosteroids in the cortex to trigger a
569 shift from proliferation to elongation (Nolan et al., 2023). Leveraging the power of single cell
570 technologies, combined with the plethora of root development and hormone signaling mutants,
571 will enable a dissection of the coordinated activities of multiple pathways in regulating root
572 system architecture.

573 In addition to visualizing isomeric auxin derivatives, along with various hormones and their
574 metabolites in roots using ion mobility mass spectrometry imaging (Chen et al., 2024a; Zhang et
575 al., 2023a), coupling single-cell gene expression with biosensors represents a technological
576 advance needed to unravel the complexities of hormone interactions at the cellular level.
577 Despite remarkable progress and the continuing development of new tools, challenges persist in
578 deciphering the hormone interplay regulating lateral root development. In particular, examining
579 the effects of multiple hormones simultaneously against the backdrop of normal developmental
580 programming and stress response will be the next frontier in understanding how root system
581 architecture is dynamically shaped.

582 **Concluding Remarks**

583 The application of single-cell transcriptome technologies, such as scRNA-seq and spatial
584 transcriptomics, as demonstrated in the above examples, underscores that no single method is
585 universally optimal for all research inquiries. Integrating these approaches with biosensors and
586 imaging enables precise identification of cellular spatial organization, significantly enhancing our
587 understanding of whole-plant tissue architecture and intercellular communication. This
588 combination is especially valuable for resolving cell subpopulations in crop plants that lack
589 specific markers or identity genes. Similarly, proteomics is poised for substantial progress, with
590 innovations in single-molecule mass spectrometry, DNA nanotechnologies, and protein
591 fingerprinting driving advances in single-cell protein analysis. In line with this, a recent study,
592 successfully assessed and demonstrated the feasibility of multiplexed single-cell proteomics by
593 analyzing single cells isolated from the cortex and endodermis of *Arabidopsis* roots (Montes et
594 al., 2024). This work highlights the ability of single-cell proteomics to differentiate the proteomes
595 of these distinct cell types.

596 Such advancements will improve the accuracy of cell-type annotation and facilitate the
597 discovery of new cell types and mechanisms. As single-cell technologies evolve, integrating
598 them with CRISPR-based tools offers transformative potential. CRISPR/Cas knockouts and
599 gene expression modulation can be used to validate key trait genes and improve traits such as
600 stress tolerance, disease resistance, and nutritional quality. High-throughput, genotype-
601 independent transformation techniques will expand genome editing applications to elite
602 breeding materials, accelerating the development of edited plants for agriculture. However,
603 rigorous evaluation of off-target modifications and unintended transgenic insertions remains
604 crucial.

605 The convergence of single-cell transcriptomics, proteomics, multi-omics, biosensors, imaging,
606 and genome editing technologies (see "Outstanding Questions") is set to revolutionize plant
607 science and agriculture, deepening our understanding of plant biology, advancing plant
608 improvement, and promoting sustainable agricultural practices.

609

610

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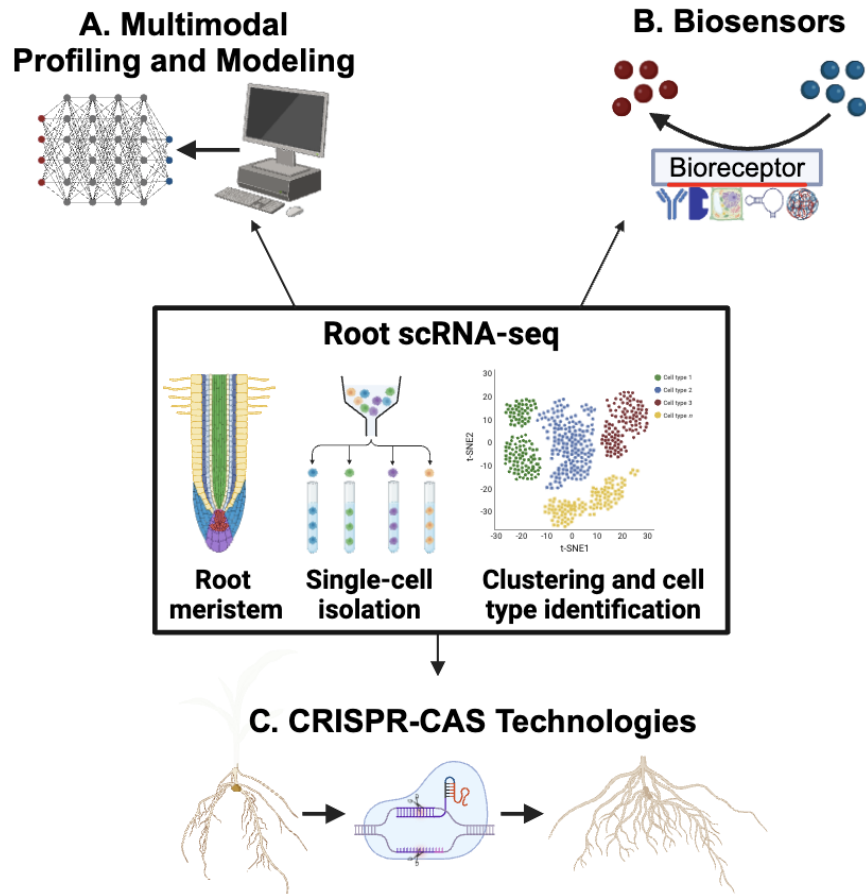
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966

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975 Figure 1 created with BioRender.com.



976
 977 **Figure 1.** The application of single-cell transcriptome technologies highlights the need for
 978 combining methods to optimize investigations. The integration of advanced technologies, such
 979 as scRNA-seq and spatial transcriptomes with biosensors and imaging offers a “cloud” of
 980 possibilities for precise identification of the spatial organization of cells. This approach enhances
 981 our understanding of whole-plant tissue architecture and intercellular communication, paving the
 982 way for more comprehensive insights into plant development and function.

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