

1 ***Strategies to revise agrosystems and breeding for Fusarium wilt control of banana***

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27 **Abstract**

28 The recent emergence of the fungus *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense* tropical race 4 (*Foc*
29 TR4), the deadly strain that causes Fusarium wilt of bananas, has put the banana production
30 chain for export under threat. Here, we propose research priorities and complementary
31 strategies and challenges for an effective and efficient mitigation management of Fusarium
32 wilt. Our strategies include biodiversifying the agrosystems to increase crop resilience, as well
33 as using precision breeding approaches to rapidly assess and introduce disease resistance
34 genes to develop stable and complete *Foc* resistance in commercial banana cultivars.

35 **Main**

36 The recent identification of the fungus *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense* tropical race 4
37 (*Foc* TR4), the most destructive and uncontrollable soil pathogen of banana (*Musa* spp.), in
38 Colombia¹ is sending a dreadful message to the export plantations of Central and South
39 America, demonstrating that this disease has become a global threat.

40 In (sub)tropical regions, banana production is significantly contributing to food security, as
41 cooking bananas and plantains are considered staple crops in more than 120 countries around
42 the (sub)tropical belt. The dessert banana ‘Cavendish’, which is internationally traded, is an
43 important export commodity. Over the last fifty years, the average yield of banana in the
44 world has nearly doubled, increasing from 10.6 tons/ha in 1961 to 20.2 tons/ha in 2017
45 (<http://faostat.fao.org/>). While the yield gain has been attributed to several factors, including
46 climate change², the increasing acreage of banana cropped under intensive monoculture
47 systems has significantly contributed to the increment in banana production.

48 Bananas originated from South(east) Asia and most of the domesticated varieties are seedless
49 triploids ($2n=3x=33$) developed from specific (inter- and intra-) hybridizations of two wild
50 diploid *Musa* species (*M. acuminata* and *M. balbisiana*)³. Modern edible varieties display
51 genome constitutions of AAA (i.e. the cross of three *M. acuminata* genomes), as the sweet
52 dessert and East African Highland bananas; AAB (cross of two *M. acuminata* and one *M.*
53 *balbisiana* genomes), like starchy plantains and some dessert bananas; or ABB (cross of one
54 *M. acuminata* and two *M. balbisiana* genomes), as cooking bananas. Seedless cultivated
55 bananas that are diploids (AA or AB) exist as well.

56 In 2017, global banana production was 114 megatons, with locally consumed bananas, often
57 grown by smallholder producers, making up 80% of global production. Smallholder organic
58 agrosystems rely on 4 to 22 banana varieties⁴ mixed with other food crops and often with
59 trees⁵ (Fig. 1a). This is in striking contrast with commercial plantations, where large fields
60 consisting of one single clone from the ‘Cavendish’ subgroup (*Musa* AAA; Fig. 1b) are
61 managed with agrochemicals, even though intermediate systems are emerging⁶. The
62 monoculture practice directly relies on a very narrow and inflexible genotypic background in
63 the crop. Hence, *Foc* TR4 creates havoc in these monocultures with genetic uniformity⁷.
64 However, in smallholder fields, backyard gardens or mixed agrosystems, the predecessor of
65 ‘Cavendish’ called ‘Gros Michel’ (*Musa* AAA) and other varieties similarly susceptible to
66 *Foc* race 1 (R1) are still used even today^{4,8}. During the first part of the 20th century, ‘Gros
67 Michel’ was the most internationally traded banana due to its favorable traits, i.e. big bunch,
68 bruise-resistant peel and ability to withstand the long journey from farm to market⁹.
69 However, the highly susceptible ‘Gros Michel’ variety was completely replaced by resistant
70 ‘Cavendish’ bananas in the large-scale industrial plantations during the 1950-1960s, as
71 *Fusarium* wilt caused by *Foc* R1 rapidly spread across South and Central America¹⁰.



72

73 **Fig. 1 Two contrasting banana cropping systems.** a, Organic farm in Tanzania with ‘Mchare’ banana (AA
 74 genome group) intercropped with coffee and in the shade of big trees, ensuring a richer above- and belowground
 75 biodiversity. b, Conventional banana plantation in Honduras based on the monoculture of ‘Cavendish’ (AAA
 76 genome group). Credit: Rony Swennen.

77 **Research priorities and complementary strategies to control Fusarium wilt of**
 78 **banana**

79 **Biodiverse agrosystems to increase resilience**

80 Unlike other banana fungal diseases such as Sigatoka leaf diseases, which are largely
 81 controlled by fungicides with up to 50 sprays per year, Fusarium wilt cannot be controlled
 82 unless performing complete sterilization of the soil¹¹, which is unaffordable and moreover
 83 destroys the soil microbiome. Therefore, an effective and efficient mitigation management of
 84 Fusarium wilt should consist of a combination of strategies including redesigned banana
 85 cropping systems conducive to higher above- and belowground biological diversity.

86 Smallholder farms tend to rely on more heterogenous agrosystems with minimal inputs⁵.
 87 Noticeably, ‘Sukari Ndizi’, a local banana variety in Eastern Africa susceptible to *Foc* R1,
 88 can be cultivated under such heterogenous agrosystems in *Foc* R1 endemic regions¹². Efforts
 89 are being made to identify specific bacterial and fungal genera present in asymptomatic
 90 ‘Sukari Ndizi’ plants and *Foc* suppressive soils, as they were demonstrated to host a wide
 91 diversity of microorganisms¹². Cover crops in industrial banana plantations are a first good
 92 attempt to not only reduce chemical weed control, but also to reduce weevil and nematode
 93 infestations^{13,14}. However, more research is needed to identify the ideal cover crops
 94 contributing to pest regulation and biomass production. Such cover crops should be able to
 95 grow in the shade of the banana plants and not compete with them. Banana varietal mixtures
 96 are an additional option, as practices in East and Central Africa showed that banana
 97 production with *Foc* R1 susceptible varieties is possible where *Foc* R1 is paramount¹⁵. It is in

108 such varietal mixtures where the *Foc* R1-susceptible ‘Gros Michel’ has not disappeared from
109 biodiverse smallholders fields in Africa - nearly 70 years after the *Foc* R1 epidemics
110 annihilated ‘Gros Michel’ plantations in Latin America. Moreover, such susceptible varieties
111 are cultivated as part of intercropped or agroforestry systems in association with small trees
112 like coffee, but also in the shade of big trees^{16,17} (Fig. 1a). Agricultural management practices
113 with increased level of biodiversity on the farm were shown to reduce the intensity of
114 important fungal diseases in crops¹⁸, including Fusarium wilt¹⁹. The mechanisms involved in
115 these biodiverse agrosystems remain elusive. It is possible that higher biodiversity in the field
116 triggers, directly or indirectly, the induction of resistance mechanisms in neighbouring plants
117 through competition for resources (e.g. light, water, nutrients), the release of specific plant-
118 derived compounds, or the establishment of plant-microbiome interactions²⁰.

119 In such biodiverse-rich environments, plants are exposed to different types of microbiota
120 leading to complex plant - microbiome interactions, with considerable potential to increase
121 plant health²¹. Indeed, the molecular signals that trigger plant immune responses are highly
122 similar and often identical in pathogenic and beneficial microbes²². However, the beneficial
123 effects of plant-associated microbiome are usually variety- and species-specific, and reveal
124 robust habitat and genotype-dependent selections²³. Therefore, functional plant - microbiome
125 interactions should be incorporated into breeding processes as a trait for selection²⁴.
126 Nevertheless, further efforts need to be made in order to identify key genotype-
127 microorganism interactions and candidate genes for *Foc* tolerance. To achieve this, a better
128 characterization of the microbiomes in relation to banana genotypes, agricultural practices
129 and environments would result in essential information to adapt banana breeding. For
130 instance, microbiome profiles from tolerant and susceptible banana plants would help
131 identifying those microorganisms and, ultimately, candidate genes associated with *Foc*
132 tolerance and/or inducing resistance. Likewise, identifying *Foc*-resistant accessions through
133 germplasm screening would help to understand mechanisms of resistance and provide banana
134 breeders with the genetic resources to be integrated into commercial varieties. Therefore,
135 selection of naturally resistant varieties needs to tap into the available banana diversity²⁵.
136 Because soil microbiome impacts plant health, these new varieties should then be integrated
137 into agrosystems and crop management practices that stimulate soil biodiversity associated
138 with resistance against Fusarium wilt¹⁹.

129 **Precision breeding approach**

130 With the export industry still highly dependent on its preferred ‘Cavendish’ varieties, it is
131 also necessary to develop *Foc* TR4 resistant ‘Cavendish’ or ‘Cavendish’-like bananas.
132 However, conventional breeding is time- and labour-consuming, especially in crops with long
133 life cycles which require large plantation areas, such as banana²⁶. In addition, although
134 sources of resistance to *Foc* TR4 were found in wild banana species²⁷, introgression of *Foc*
135 TR4 resistance genes into commercial varieties by conventional breeding remains a difficult
136 task due to the sterile nature of ‘Cavendish’²⁶. On the other hand, mutation induction resulted
137 in ‘Cavendish’ and other varieties with only intermediate resistance²⁸. Genetic transformation
138 of banana offers the opportunity to overcome the difficulties of classical breeding²⁶.
139 Transformation of ‘Cavendish’ with *resistance gene analog 2* (*RGA2*), isolated from a TR4-
140 resistant diploid banana, showed promising results²⁹. However, acceptance of transgenic
141 products by consumers, particularly in the European Union, prevents adoption of transgenic
142 technologies by the banana export industry³⁰. Therefore, new approaches to develop
143 ‘Cavendish’ varieties displaying stable and complete resistance are urgently needed.

144 New Plant Breeding Techniques (NPBTs) are opening venues to breed difficult crops such as
145 banana and can accelerate the transition towards precision breeding for crop improvement³¹.
146 Polyploidy in *Musa* varieties is associated with domestication, and speed breeding techniques
147 could be instrumental to rapidly reproduce domestication events and provide access to novel
148 traits, including disease resistance, for subsequent selection of improved varieties³². Precision
149 breeding using CRISPR technology also holds tremendous opportunities for rapid and direct
150 editing of current elite triploid varieties. Genome editing of banana has been established
151 using *Agrobacterium*-mediated stable genetic integration of a *Cas9*-containing transgene in
152 the genome of sterile triploid varieties³³⁻³⁶ (Fig. 2). *Agrobacterium*-mediated stable
153 transformation offers the advantage of a high efficiency. However, the main drawbacks are
154 the impossibility of out-crossing the T-DNA in triploid genotypes and the needed efforts to
155 select well-characterized single-insertion events (Supplementary Figure 1). Proof-of-concept
156 and optimization of genome editing methods in banana have largely relied on the inactivation
157 of the *Phytoene desaturase* (*PDS*) gene in triploid genotypes as shown by ourselves (Fig. 2c)
158 and others^{33,35,36}. However, the drastic albino phenotype of *PDS* knock-out in banana
159 significantly impedes plant regeneration and growth, thus hampering optimization of gene
160 editing methods. By contrast, the gene coding for a subunit of the chloroplast signal
161 recognition particle (cpSRP) machinery, *cpSRP43/CHAOS*³⁷ appears as a suitable alternative
162 target to monitor genome editing efficiency and further advance genome editing protocols.

163 Indeed, CRISPR-Cas9 mediated knockout of *CHAOS* in banana leads to pale-green
164 regenerants with normal *in vitro* growth (Fig. 2c).

165 Because stable transformation of sterile banana triploids does not allow subsequent transgene
166 removal by outcrossing like those in other edited crop species³⁸, gene editing could also be
167 performed at the pre-breeding stage by editing improved diploid parents. Since the generation
168 of totipotent embryogenic cell cultures essential for *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation
169 (Fig. 2a) is genotype-dependent, this approach might encounter limitations with diploids,
170 which are often recalcitrant to embryogenic cell induction from meristems³⁹. Initiating such
171 embryogenic cell cultures from immature zygotic embryos excised from seeds would, thus,
172 provide an alternative⁴⁰. Another approach that remains to be tested in diploid banana is the
173 haploid induction editing (HI-Edit) technology, which combines haploid induction with gene
174 editing⁴¹. The main haploid inducer locus is known to encode MATRILINEAL (MTL) and
175 CRISPR-Cas9 knockout of MTL has been used to make haploid inducers in rice and wheat⁴².

176 The sterile nature of triploid commercial varieties and the reluctance to use transgenic banana
177 make DNA-free CRISPR-Cas delivery methods indispensable for direct gene editing.
178 Transient T-DNA delivery using *Agrobacterium*⁴³ or the use of carriers such as
179 nanoparticles⁴⁴ can help establishing T-DNA-free edited banana. Because CRISPR-Cas9
180 functions as a ribonucleoprotein complex (RNP), it can also be delivered as *in vitro*
181 synthesized RNPs by biolistics to plant cells, as pioneered in maize and wheat^{45,46}, or to
182 protoplasts⁴⁷. Protocols for biolistics of cells and protoplast electroporation followed by
183 plantlet regeneration were explored for banana in the past^{48,49}. Biolistics or particle
184 bombardment of banana cells is a relatively simple delivery system that remains constrained
185 by low transformation efficiency and the production of chimeric plants when no selection
186 marker is used (Supplementary Figure 1). Transformation systems of banana protoplasts
187 ensure regeneration of non-chimeric plants but they are limited by the low viability of
188 protoplasts after electroporation (Supplementary Figure 1). These aforementioned limitations,
189 as well as the availability of good quality embryogenic cells cultures with low probability of
190 somaclonal variation⁵⁰, will need to be addressed in order to establish routine DNA-free
191 genome editing protocols for banana. Reducing tissue culture time by direct somatic
192 embryogenesis using morphogenic regulators and by cryopreservation could limit somaclonal
193 variation and make banana gene editing more efficient^{51,52}. Cryopreservation would be
194 executed as soon as enough quantity of good quality embryogenic cells suspensions is

195 obtained, leading to a long term genetically stable stock of totipotent cells. Additionally,
196 optimizing the photoperiod and the light quality/intensity required for plant regeneration after
197 transformation could be applied to shorten the process⁵³.



198
199 **Fig. 2 Targeted genome editing of banana using CRISPR-Cas9.** a, Embryogenic cell culture of ‘Williams’
200 (‘Cavendish’, AAA genome group) used for *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation and genome editing. b,
201 Transformed embryogenic cells growing on selective regeneration medium. c, Genome-edited plants showing: i)
202 mutations in *Phytoene desaturase* (*MaPDS*) leading to albino phenotypes (left), ii) mutations in *Chlorophyll a/b*
203 *binding protein harvesting–organelle specific* (*MaCHAOS*) leading to pale-green phenotype (middle), and iii)
204 wild type phenotype (right). *Ma*: *M. acuminata*. Credit: Yasmín Zorrilla-Fontanesi.

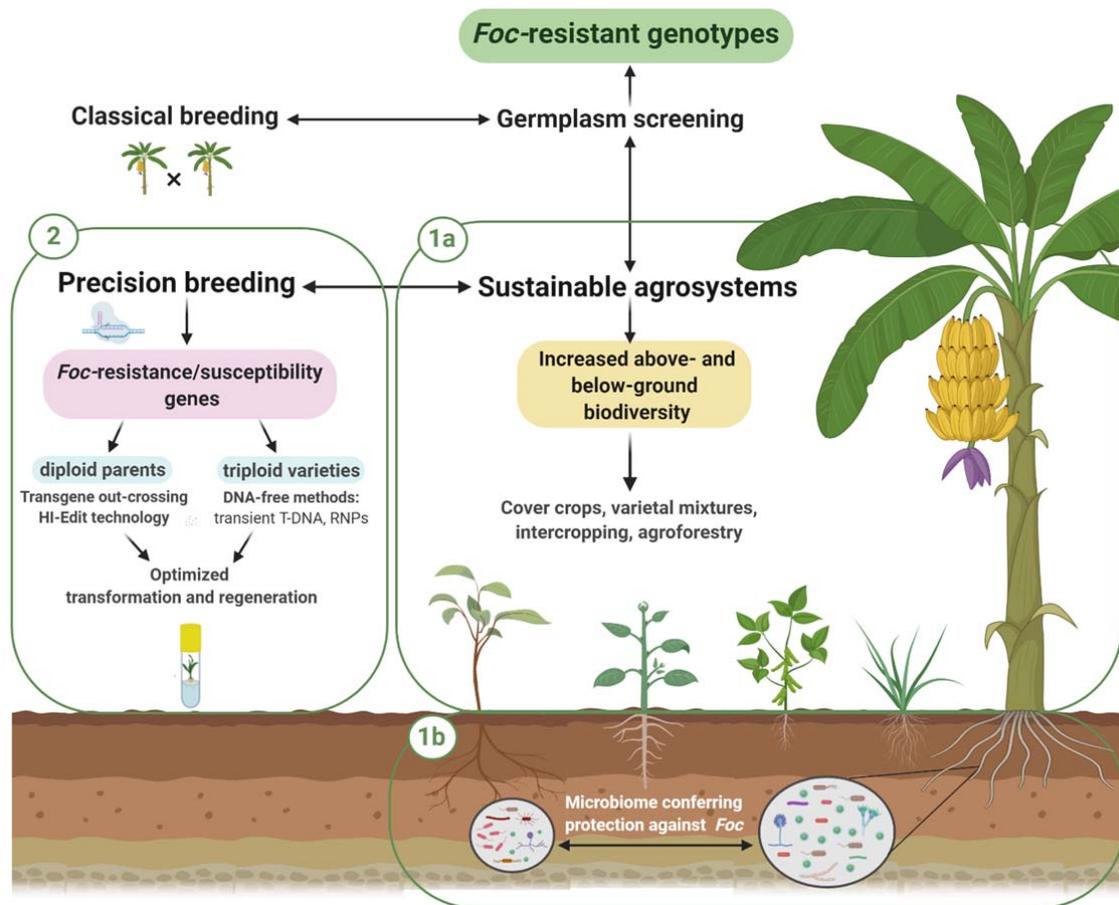
205 Progress in NPBTs for banana needs to be concomitant with the identification of candidate
206 genes for disease resistance. Despite several years of research, identification and
207 characterization of genes conferring resistance against *Foc* TR4, the closely related
208 subtropical race 4 (STR4) and R1 remain scarce^{29,54}. Recent efforts to characterize the
209 transcriptome modulation after *Foc* TR4 inoculation have led to the identification of a
210 number of candidate resistance genes whose validation could be accelerated by fast and

211 robust NPBTs⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷. Additionally, the characterization of resistance genes in other *Fusarium*
212 *oxysporum* – host plant pathosystems combined with genomics approaches might also narrow
213 down natural resistance gene candidates in banana^{58,59}. Strong candidates for genome editing
214 in banana could be either negative regulators of disease resistance genes or host susceptibility
215 genes, which have been used to generate loss-of-function mutations (knock-outs) in other
216 plant-fungal pathosystems³¹. However, in perennial plant species that underwent recent
217 whole-genome duplications, such as banana⁶⁰, a large proportion of genes belong to well-
218 conserved gene families comprised of several paralogs with highly similar DNA sequence.
219 Simultaneous expression of multiple single guide RNAs targeting different paralogs would
220 allow to perform ‘multiplex genome editing’ (e.g., double, triple, quadruple mutants), as
221 demonstrated in many plants, including rice³¹, and provide a powerful tool for addressing the
222 problem of genetic redundancy in banana. Likewise, the generation of gain-of-function
223 mutants (knock-ins) of resistance genes by homology-driven repair is another option,
224 although this method still remains difficult to implement efficiently in higher plants³¹.
225 Alternatively, enhancing the expression of resistance genes in ‘Cavendish’(-like) bananas, as
226 the *RGA*²⁹ gene, by means of CRISPR-mediated gene regulation, targeted promoter
227 mutagenesis or replacement^{31,38} may also lead to the generation of transgene-free banana
228 varieties resistant to *Foc* TR4.

229 **The way forward**

230 Current challenges in banana production will require a holistic approach building on new
231 agronomic practices supporting biodiversity and the development of banana varieties
232 requiring lower agricultural inputs (Fig. 3). Sustainable and immediate mitigation strategies
233 for the *Foc* TR4 should rely on a combination of “smart” agrosystems⁶¹ and cohort-based
234 crop management practices⁶². Cohort-based banana management will also require a global
235 surveillance system of pathogens to match banana cropping systems and risk management⁶³.
236 Due to the limitations inherent to banana genetics, breeding disease resistant bananas,
237 including the ‘Cavendish’ dessert banana, represents a middle to long-term strategy.
238 However, the potential of banana improvement to increase the durability of banana cropping
239 systems cannot be underestimated. Concomitantly, implementation of such durable cropping
240 systems will also ensure that the newly developed resistant varieties will hold longer in the
241 field by slowing down the emergence of pathogens able to overcome the deployed resistance.
242 High-throughput sequencing technologies have helped identifying soil microbiomes
243 associated with plant health²¹, and banana breeding programs could take advantage of such

244 approaches to develop resistance to *Fusarium* wilt (Fig. 3). Because the diversity of cultivated
 245 banana has long been impeded by its genetic structure, breeding programs also need to take
 246 advantage of recent progress in tools for genetic improvement to rapidly assess and introduce
 247 disease resistance genes in susceptible banana varieties (Fig. 3).



248
 249 **Fig. 3 Intergrated view of the proposed strategies for *Fusarium* wilt mitigation management in banana.**
 250 Sustainable agrosystems increasing the above- and below-ground biodiversity on the farm (1a) can lead to the
 251 establishment of novel plant - microbiome interactions (1b) and the discovery of candidate genes associated to
 252 *Foc* resistance or tolerance. Concomitantly, New Plant Breeding Techniques (NPBTs), such as CRISPR genome
 253 editing, can be used for precision breeding in banana (2) and the generation of improved *Foc*-resistant lines
 254 through targeted modification of susceptibility/resistance genes either in diploid parents (pre-breeding stage) or
 255 triploid varieties. *Foc*: *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense*. HI-Edit : haploid induction editing technology ;
 256 RNPs : ribonucleoproteins.

257 **References**

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415 R.S., H.V. and Y.Z-F. led the writing of the paper. L.P., B.P. and S.S. contributed to the
416 critical reading of the manuscript, provided suggestions and contributed to the writing of
417 specific sections. Y.Z-F. composed Figures 1, 2 and 3. S.S. composed the Supplementary
418 Figure. R.S. and H.V. initiated and coordinated the manuscript.

419 **Competing interests**

420 The authors declare no competing interests.