

ELUCIDATION OF THE PLANT GROWTH –PROMOTING EFFECT OF Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus ON TOLERANCE OF BARLEY TO SALT STRESS

Cumulative Dissertation Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of natural sciences (Doctor rerum naturalium - *Dr. rer. nat*.)

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Gießen, 2021

The present work was carried out at the Institute for Applied Microbiology, Faculty of Agricultural Sciences, Nutritional Sciences and Environmental Management, Justus-Liebig-University, Gießen during the period from January 2017 to January 2021 under the guidance of **Prof. Dr. Sylvia Schnell**.

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Declaration

I declare that the dissertation here submitted is entirely my own work, written without any illegitimate help by any third party and solely with materials as indicated in the dissertation.

I have indicated in the text where I have used texts from already published sources, either word for word or in substance, and where I have made statements based on oral information given to me. At all times during the investigations carried out by me and described in the dissertation, I have followed the principles of good scientific practice as defined in the "Statutes of the Justus Liebig University Gießen for the Safeguarding of Good Scientific Practice".

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List of peer-reviewed publications

Rojas, J., Ambika Manirajan, B., Ratering, S., Suarez, C., Geissler-Plaum, R., & Schnell, S. (2021). *Spirosoma endbachense* sp. nov., isolated from a natural salt meadow. International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology, 71(1), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1099/ijsem.0.004601

Rojas, J., Ambika Manirajan, B., Ratering, S., Suarez, C., & Schnell, S. (2020). Draft Genome Sequences of *Spirosoma agri* KCTC 52727 and *Spirosoma terrae* KCTC 52035. Microbiology Resource Announcements, 9(23). https://doi.org/10.1128/MRA.00317-20

Rojas, J., Suarez, C., Ratering, S., Krutych, M., Hormaza, A., & Schnell, S. Effect of *Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus* inoculation and lanthanum on barley growth under saline conditions. **Submitted to: Biology and Fertility of Soils**

JARB designed the experiments and performed data collection, data evaluation and writing of manuscripts drafts.

List of conference contributions

Poster

Rojas, J., Suarez, C., Ratering, S., & Schnell, S. (2018) Plant growth-promoting effect of *Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus* and lanthanum on barley under saline conditions. 17th International Symposium on Microbial Ecology (ISME17), Session: Plant microbe interactions, 12-17 August 2018, Leipzig, Germany

List of Abbreviations

16S rRNA	16S ribosomal RNA
ABA	Abscisic acid
ACC	1-aminociclopropane
ACC-deaminase	Enzyme 1-aminociclopropane-1-carboxylase
aRuMP	Assimilatory ribulose monophosphate pathway
Asp	Aspartic acid
ASV	Amplicon sequence variations
BS	Bifidobacterium shunt
C1	One-carbon metabolism
CDS	Coding sequence
DDH	DNA-DNA hybridization
DAP	Dihydroxyacetone phosphate
DPG	2,3-diphosphoglycerate
E19 ^T	Hartmanibacter diazotrophicus
EDD	Entner-Doudoroff pathway
EMP	Embden-Meyerhof-Parnas pathway
E4P	Erythrose-4-phosphate
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
Fdh	Formate dehydrogenase
FDH	Formate dehydrogenase
F6P	Fructose 6-phosphate
F1,6P	Fructose 1,6-bisphosphate
G3P	Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate
G6P	Glucose 6-phosphate

He6P	3-hexulose 6-phosphate
нкт	High-affinity potassium transporter
HPi	3-hexulose 6-phosphate isomerase
HPR	Hydroxypyruvate reductase
HPS	3-hexulose 6-phosphate synthase
H₄FP	Folate-linked C1 transfer
H₄MTP	Methanopterin-linked C1 transfer
IAA	Indole acetic acid
KDPG	2-keto-3-deoxy 6-phosphogluconate
MCL	Malyl coenzyme A lyase
MD	Malate dehydrogenase
MDH	Methanol dehydrogenase
ммо	Methane monooxygenase
MtdA MTK	Methylene tetrahydromethanopterin dehydrogenase Malate thiokinase
mxaF	Methanol dehydrogenase-gene
NDH ₂	NADH:quinone oxidoreductase
6PG	6-phosphogluconate
PEP	phosphoenolpyruvate
PGA	3-phosphoglycerate
PGPR	Plant Growth-Promoting Rhizobacteria
Pi	Inorganic phosphate
PPi	Diphosphate
PQQ	Pyrrolo-quinoline quinone
рММО	Particulate form methane monooxygenase
REEs	Rare earth elements

ROS	Reactive oxygen species
RuMP	Ribulose monophosphate pathway
Ru5P	Ribulose 5-phosphate
R5P	Ribose 5-phosphate
SC	Serine cycle
S7P	Sedoheptulose 7-phosphate
sMMO	Soluble form Methane monooxygenase
STHM	Serine hydroxymethyl transferase
voc	Volatile organic compounds
xoxF	Methanol dehydrogenase-gene
X5P	Xylulose 5-phosphate

Summary

A novel type of methanol dehydrogenase was recently identified, this dehydrogenase is encoded by the gene xoxF and for its activity requires lanthanum (La³⁺) as a cofactor. The xoxF-gene was detected in the bacterium Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus which stands out by its activity as a plant growth promoter under saline stress by mechanisms that include production of ACCdeaminase, nitrogen fixation, phosphorus solubilization, among other. Methanol dehydrogenase xoxF activity of H. diazotrophicus was evaluated by its growth on methanol in a mineral medium supplemented with lanthanum and the suitable concentration of lanthanum of optimal growth was determined. Moreover, a greenhouse experiment with barley plants growing in saline soil (NaCl 3%) was reassessed and six experimental treatments were set up namely: Two treatments of barley seeds inoculated with *H. diazotrophicus* with/without lanthanum amendment, two treatments of seeds with addition of H. diazotrophicus death biomass with/without lanthanum amendment, one treatment of seeds with lanthanum amendment and the controls without amendments respectively. Variations in shoots and roots dry weights, changes in microbial diversity and colonization of *H. diazotrophicus* in roots and rhizosphere were evaluated. Inoculated plants with/without lanthanum showed significant increases of leave and root dry weights in comparison to controls. Plants growing with only La³⁺ also exhibited higher leave and root dry weights in contrast to treatments with death biomass addition and the controls. Plants inoculated with dead biomass of H. *diazotrophicus* with and without lanthanum had no significant effect in plant growth under salt stress compared to non-inoculated plants. Changes in alpha and beta bacterial diversity in communities of rhizosphere and roots were evidenced among the treatments; alpha diversity indicators showed an increase in the number of ASVs (Amplicon sequence variations) for treatments with H. diazotrophicus, whereas beta diversity analysis revealed variation in microbial communities throughout the treatments. Furthermore, for *H. diazotrophicus* a high colonization capacity of roots and rhizosphere was demonstrated in presence/absence of lanthanum.

Furthermore, samples from natural saline environments of soil and waters were collected for bacterial enrichments in liquid mineral medium with methanol and lanthanum in order to isolate potential halotolerant bacteria with methylotrophic activity. Thirty-one bacteria were isolated and among them, one new species of *Spirosoma sp.* genus was identified and after polyphasic approach was proposed and accepted as *Spirosoma endbachense* I-24^T. The draft genome of *S. endbachense* I-24^T confirmed the position as new species and 4 clusters involved in biosynthesis of ladderane, terpene, polyketide synthese type I and III and non-ribosomal peptide synthese were identified. For *Spirosoma agri* KCTC 52727^T and *Spirosoma terrae* KCTC 52035^T which are the next relatives to *S. endbachense* I-24^T, draft genome sequences were also assembled. The annotation revealed carbohydrate-active enzymes and secondary metabolite biosynthesis gene clusters as well as alkaline phosphatase, cellulose and amylase activity. The genomes contribute to the genomic knowledge of the members of the genus *Spirosoma*.

Zusammenfassung

Vor kurzem wurde ein neuartiger Typ einer Methanol-Dehydrogenase identifiziert. Diese Dehydrogenase wird durch das Gen xoxF kodiert und benötigt für ihre Aktivität Lanthan (La³⁺) als Cofaktor. Das *xoxF*-Gen wurde im Bakterium Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus nachgewiesen, das sich durch seine Aktivität als Pflanzenwachstumsförderer unter Salzstress auszeichnet, und zwar durch Mechanismen, die u.a. die Aktivitäten von ACC-Deaminase, Stickstofffixierung und Phosphorsolubilisierung umfassen. Die Methanol-Dehydrogenase xoxF-Aktivität von H. diazotrophicus wurde durch sein Wachstum auf Methanol in einem mit Lanthan supplementierten Mineralmedium untersucht und die geeignete Lanthankonzentration für optimales Wachstum wurde bestimmt. Außerdem wurde ein Gewächshausexperiment mit Gerstenpflanzen, die in salzhaltigem Boden (NaCl 3%) wachsen, durchgeführt und dafür sechs Versuchsgruppen eingerichtet, nämlich: Zwei Versuchsgruppen von Gerstensamen mit H. diazotrophicus beimpften mit/ohne Lanthan-Zusatz, zwei Versuchsansätze von Samen mit Zusatz von abgetöteter Biomasse von H. diazotrophicus mit/ohne Lanthan-Zusatz, ein Versuchsansatz von Samen mit Lanthan-Zusatz und Kontrollen ohne Zusatz. Die Trockengewichte von Blättern und Wurzeln, die Veränderungen der mikrobiellen Diversität und die Kolonisierung von H. diazotrophicus an Wurzeln und in der Rhizosphäre wurden ausgewertet. Inokulierte Pflanzen mit/ohne Lanthan zeigten einen signifikanten Anstieg des Blatt- und Wurzeltrockengewichts im Vergleich zu den Kontrollen. Pflanzen, die nur mit La³⁺ wuchsen, zeigten ebenfalls ein höheres Blatt- und Wurzeltrockengewicht im Vergleich zu den Versuchsansätzen mit Zusatz von toter Biomasse und den Kontrollen. Pflanzen, die mit toter Biomasse von H. diazotrophicus mit oder ohne Lanthan inokuliert wurden, zeigten keine signifikante Wirkung auf das Pflanzenwachtum unter Salzstress im Vergleich zu nichtbeimpften Pflanzen. Veränderungen der Alpha- und Beta-Diversität der bakteriellen Rhizosphäre- und Wurzelgemeinschaften wurden analysiert; Alpha-Diversitätsindikatoren zeigten eine Zunahme der ASVs (Amplicon sequence variations) für die Versuchsgruppen mit *H. diazotrophicus*, während die Analyse der Beta-Diversität Unterschiede der mikrobiellen Gemeinschaften entsprechend der Versuchsansätzen zeigte. Für H. diazotrophicus wurde eine hohe Kolonisierungskapazität der Wurzeln und in der Rhizosphäre in Anwesenheit/Abwesenheit von Lanthan gezeigt.

Um potenziell halotolerante Bakterien mit methylotropher Aktivität neu zu isolieren wurden Proben aus natürlichen salzhaltigen Umgebungen von Böden und Gewässern gesammelt und für Bakterienanreicherungen in flüssigem Mineralmedium mit Methanol und Lanthan verwendet. Einunddreißig Bakterienstämme wurden isoliert und darunter wurde eine neue Art der Gattung Spirosoma identifiziert und nach einem polyphasischen Ansatz als Spirosoma endbachense I-24^T vorgeschlagen und akzeptiert. Das (draft) Genom von S. endbachense I-24^T bestätigte die Position der neuen Art und 4 Gengruppen für die Biosynthese von Ladderan, Terpen, Polyketid Synthese Typ I und III sowie eine nicht-ribosomale Peptidsynthetase wurden identifiziert. Für Spirosoma agri KCTC 52727^T and *Spirosoma terrae* KCTC 52035^T als nächst verwandte Arten von Spirosoma endbachense wurden ebenfalls die Genome sequenziert und assembiert (draft genomes). Die Annotation ergab Gene für kohlenhydrataktive Enzyme und Gencluster für die Biosynthese von Sekundärmetaboliten sowie für alkaline Phosphatase, Zellulase und Amylase Die Genomsequenzen ergänzen das genomischen Wissen über Vertreter der Gattung Spirosoma.

CHAPTER 1.

Introduction and Background

1. Introduction and background

Climate change plays a role in increasing environmental stresses such as drought, salinization, floods and extreme temperatures that lead to reduction in crop productivity (Mahajan and Tuteja, 2005). Among them, soil salinity is one of the major threats to crops quality and productivity (Apse et al., 1999). Salinization has affected more than 20% of cultivated lands according to the Food and Agriculture organization (FAO) (Munns and Tester, 2008) and may increase with the accumulation of salt due to ongoing climate change (Corwin, 2020; Shrivastava and Kumar, 2015). The exponentially growing world population requires increasing food supply and hence soil remediation and salinity mitigation strategies are required to increase crop yields.

1.1 Salinity

Salt stress is the excessive concentration of soluble salts such as NaCl (most common), Na₂SO₄, MgSO₄, CaSO₄, MgCl₂, KCl, and Na₂CO₃ (Ilangumaran and Smith, 2017; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2020). A soil with an electrical conductivity (of the saturated paste extract) of 4 dS m⁻¹ or more is considered a saline soil (Ilangumaran and Smith, 2017), equivalent to 40 mM NaCl and 0.2 MPa osmotic pressure (Munns and Tester, 2008). These conditions cause a significant reduction in the productivity of most crops.

The source of dissolved salts in soils are physical or chemical weathering of primary rocks, geological depositions that releases salts, evapotranspiration phenomena from salt-affected groundwater that originates and deposits salts near surface, inflow of seawater or seawater flooding in coastal areas; these types of occurrences are also referred to as primary salinization (Daliakopoulos et al., 2016; Mustafa et al., 2019). Salts can also be introduced as a result of human activities such as land clearing, irrigation with saline water, cultivation activities, addition of chemical fertilizers, inadequate drainage; practices that are associated with secondary salinization (Daliakopoulos et al., 2016; Mustafa et al., 2019).

Increasing climate change is negatively affecting the hydrological cycle, leading to a decrease in rainfall followed by prolonged droughts (Corwin, 2020). Thus, when rainfall levels are low to leach salt ions from the topsoil, salts accumulate, which is one of the main reasons for salinization (Akhtar, 2019).

1.2 Effects of soil salinity on plant growth

Plants are able to detect salt stress and trigger a series of changes at hormonal and physiological levels in response (Munns, 1992). This set of responses develops in two phases; an immediate phase known as the osmotic phase and an ionic phase that occurs after prolonged exposure to salt stress (several days or weeks) (Munns et al., 1995); both phases result in most vital processes in the plant being negatively affected, including, mineral transport, reproduction, photosynthesis and transpiration. The main consequence of osmotic phase is the loss of intracellular water, plant cells under normal conditions have higher osmotic potential than soil, which allows the uptake of water and nutrients from the soil solution, but under salt stress, the osmotic potential in the soil is higher, causing an osmotic imbalance, which impedes the plant from carrying out the normal uptake process from the soil (Passioura and Munns, 2000; Yeo et al., 1991).

As an effect of the disturbed water balance, the synthesis of abscisic acid (ABA) is stimulated, whereupon the stomata are closed to prevent water loss. In addition, the closure of the stomata leads to the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as hydroxyl radicals, superoxides, disrupt cellular components and processes (Claeys et al., 2014; Pel et al., 2000; Wise and Naylor, 1987). Another consequence of osmotic shock is the reduction of photosynthesis rate, which leads to plant growth limitation as energy is expended to maintain ionic balance and water conservation (Allakhverdiev et al., 1999, 2000).

On the other hand, the ionic phase is manifested by a constant accumulation of salt in the leaves, the ions of Na⁺ are transported to the leaves through the xylem, most of the ions remain in the leaves, but a small portion is returned through the phloem, causing Na⁺ to accumulate in the leaves, resulting in a mineral imbalance that leads to an interruption of leaf growth, a decrease in the photosynthetic process and senescence (Flowers and Yeo, 1986; Munns and Passioura, 1984).

1.3 Plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR)

Soil bacteria are the most abundant group of microorganisms in soil with about 10⁸-10⁹ bacteria per gram of soil (Schoenborn et al., 2004). Most of them are found with a high population density in the rhizosphere zone of plant roots (DeAngelis et al., 2009), attracted by the presence of various metabolites such as amino acids, sugars and organic acids exuded by the plant (Zhalnina et al., 2018). A group of bacteria known as plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) are found in the rhizosphere and are of particular interest because of their beneficial relationship with plants; these bacteria have several mechanisms that promote plant growth, such as nutrient supply through biological nitrogen fixation (Marroquí et al., 2001)(Christiansen-Weniger and van Veen, 1991), phosphorus solubilization (Kumar et al., 2001; Rodriguez et al., 2004) siderophore production (Radzki et al., 2013), inhibition of phytopathogens agents (Mazurier et al., 2009), likewise, PGPR are able to produce or modulate phytohormones for plant growth, including indoleacetic acid (IAA), cytokinins, gibberellins and ethylene (Nieto and Frankenberger, 1989; Tien et al., 1979); they participate in the biodegradation of toxic organic compounds which promotes phytoremediation processes (Muratova et al., 2005; Weyens et al., 2015)

1.3.1 Alleviation of salt stress by PGPR

PGPR have been reported to increase the tolerance of plants to environmental stress (Kumar et al., 2007; Ortiz et al., 2015; Staudinger et al., 2016) and especially in alleviating stress caused by salt in plants (Hmaeid et al., 2014; Porras-Soriano et al., 2009; Sukweenadhi et al., 2015) hence the application of halotolerant bacteria with PGPR activity on salt-affected soils is suggested to reactivate crop yields of plants.

The mechanisms of PGPR conferring salt tolerance include the synthesis of cytokinins, indoleacetic acid, ACC deaminase, volatile organic compounds (VOC), exopolysaccharides, restoration of osmotic balance, regulation of oxidative stress, and modulation of gene expression (Forni et al., 2017; Ilangumaran and Smith, 2017).

Plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria have been shown to be able to restore osmotic balance by modulating gene expression of proteins such as plasma membrane aquaporin protein (ZmPIP), which is involved in stomata opening. Studies by Marulanda et al., 2010 showed that maize plants exposed to salt stress and inoculated with *Bacillus megaterium* increased the expression of ZmPIP, leading to a reduction in leaf's damage and improvement of water conductance.

The accumulation of osmolytes with osmoprotective properties maintains cell turgor and allows water to move from the soil into the roots; examples of osmolytes include proline, trehalose, and glycine betaines produced or induced by PGPR. Bacteria belonging to the genera *Bacillus* and *Arthrobacter* enhanced the accumulation of proline in maize plants under salinity conditions, thereby improving plant growth (Ullah and Bano, 2015), another study using soybean plants inoculated with *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas* demonstrated an increase in proline concentration in roots, which allowed water uptake and improved shoot growth under salinity conditions (Kumari et al., 2015).

Due to ion imbalance, plants have different mechanisms for Na⁺ efflux and K⁺ influx to diminish ion toxicity, one of which is the high-affinity potassium transporter (HKT), which increases the uptake of K⁺ over Na⁺ ions, PGPR can upregulate the expression of HKT genes in the roots and thus restrict the entry of Na⁺ into roots (Safdarian et al., 2019). Microbes also minimize the uptake of salt ions by producing exopolysaccharides that act as a physical barrier around the roots, trapping cations in their matrix to prevent uptake by plants (Akhtar, 2019).

Another mechanism to restore osmotic balance regulated by PGPR is the release of volatile organic compounds (VOCs), these low molecular weight compounds are able to induce the production of ROS scavenger enzymes such as catalase, superoxide dismutase, glutathione reductase which protect the plant from cellular damage (Timmusk et al., 2014). Moreover, VOCs are found to upregulate the production of HKT proteins and subsequently promote growth and increase plant leaf biomass. HKT1 gene expression in roots and shoots is up-regulated in *Arabidopsis thaliana* in association with *Bacillus subtilis* under salt stress by exposure to VOCs, which induces a lower Na⁺ accretion (Zhang et al., 2008).

Rhizobacteria favour the production of phytohormones, leading to the activation of various response mechanisms that help the plant cope with biotic and abiotic stress effects. One of the most studied phytohormones produced by PGPR is indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) which is taken up by the plant and is involved in the stimulation of cell division (Khalid et al., 2004). The synthesis of IAA is given by the utilization of tryptophan, which is secreted by plants as a metabolite in the rhizosphere, which in turn is transformed to IAA by rhizobacteria (Dodd et al., 2010). During salt stress in tomato plants, IAA was shown to accumulate in the roots at a concentration of 100 mM NaCl (Albacete et al., 2008). However, once NaCl concentration is increased to 300 mM, IAA levels decrease significantly (Dunlap and Binzel, 1996). PGPR can alleviate salt stress in plants by producing IAA, shoot and root growth were stimulated by inoculating wheat with IAA-producing bacteria *Pseudomonas aurantiaca* and *Pseudomonas extremorientalis* at 100 mM NaCl (Egamberdieva, 2009).

As described above, abscisic acid (ABA) is also induced under salt stress, ABA is induced in roots and then transported via xylem to leaves where it is involved in closing stomata to minimize transpiration activity and regulate water potential (Borel et al., 2001), PGPR are capable of producing ABA but their role in the plant-microbe interaction has not been elucidated, however, these microorganisms could enhance plant survival by regulating ABA pathways. The concentration of ABA in cucumber plants under salt stress inoculated with PGPR was reduced compared to plant controls, which improved the plant growth (Kang et al., 2014); in another report, ABA accumulation was reduced in cotton plants associated with *Pseudomonas putida* RS-198, which induced salt tolerance and increased plant biomass in salinized soil (Yao et al., 2010).

Another important plant hormone associated with biotic and abiotic stress is ethylene, which is critical for seed dormancy breaking, rhizobial nodule formation, fruit ripening and leaf abscission, among others, but is also induced in high concentrations in response to stress phenomena that cause senescence (Glick, 2014). As a means to reduce stress and promote plant growth, PGPR have been shown to be able to inhibit ethylene biosynthesis by cleaving the precursor 1aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylase (ACC) to a-ketobutyrate and ammonia with the release of the enzyme ACC-deaminase, thus reducing ethylene levels in plants (Glick, 2014); a study indicated the decrease in ethylene synthesis in red pepper plants grown at 150 mM NaCl and inoculated with ACC-deaminase-producing halotolerant bacterial strains *Bacillus licheniformis* RS656, *Zihhengliuela alba* RS111" and *Brevibacterium iodinum* RS16, resulting in an increase in nutrient assimilation and increased tolerance to salt stress compared to non-inoculated control plants (Siddikee et al., 2011). Strains of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* and *Enterobacter* spp. containing ACC deaminase decreased induced ethylene levels and increased maize yield in salt-affected soils compared to the non-inoculated control (Nadeem et al., 2009).

In conclusion, PGPR under salt stress induce systemic tolerance that promotes plant growth and development. Moreover, it is important to point out the enormous potential of microorganisms associated with the rhizosphere of halophytic plants or in the vicinity of saline soils to alleviate salt stress and promote crop plant growth.

1.4 Methylotrophs

Methane and methanol are among the C1 compounds (one carbon-molecule) that are part of the carbon cycle and are widely distributed in nature (Iguchi et al., 2015). The production of methane occurs in anoxic environments by anaerobic archaea, also known as methanogenic archaea, which reduce CO_2 with H_2 (hydrogenotrophic) to CH_4 or convert acetate to methane and CO_2 (acetoclastic) and mostly depend of the activity of H_2 - and acetate-producing fermenting bacteria co-occurring in the same habitat. This group of microorganism can be found as free-living archaea in lakes, paddy fields (Maksimavičius and Roslev, 2020; Whiticar, 2020), as well as in specialized compartments such as the rumen of ruminants like cows (Vanwonterghem et al., 2016). Methane is also produced in abiotic processes such as coal mining, oil and gas operations, anaerobic waste treatment plants, landfills etc. (Iguchi et al., 2015; Whiticar, 2020). These processes have made methane the second most important gas produced by anthropogenic activities, and it is in turn part of the atmospheric gases that promote the greenhouse effect (Whiticar, 2020).

On the other hand, methanol is a volatile carbon compound and the main contributors to its emissions are plants through the processes of repair and demethylation of pectin polymers in the cell wall as well as lignin breakdown (Fall and Benson, 1996; Galbally and Kirstine, 2002); however, other sources of methanol have been mentioned, including the chemical industry, where it is commonly used as a solvent (Fall and Benson, 1996), and other anthropogenic activities (Singh et al., 2000) and it is one of the most abundant volatile organic compounds in the atmosphere (Galbally and Kirstine, 2002).

Methane and methanol, as well as other C1 compounds, are used by methylotrophic organisms as the sole source of energy; furthermore, facultative methylotrophic organisms capable of utilizing multicarbon compounds have been identified (Chistoserdova et al., 2009; Nazaries et al., 2013); methylotrophs are widely distributed in ecosystems such as geothermal reservoirs, soils, peat bogs or aquatic environments and sediments, where most of them grow under oxic conditions at neutral pH (6.0–8.0) and temperatures between 10 and 40 °C (Nazaries et al., 2013), but acidic, alkaliphilic, thermophilic and psychrophilic species have also been described (Op den Camp et al., 2009); they are also representative members of *Proteobacteria*, *Verrucomicrobia*, *Flavobacteria* and *Actinobacteria* (Kolb, 2009; Stacheter et al., 2013).

As mentioned above, plants can produce methanol as result of their biochemical activities, which can be exuded from the leaves or the roots, whereby phyllosphere (Stacheter et al., 2013) and the rhizosphere (Macey et al., 2020) have been described as zones with high densities of methylotrophs. Moreover, the presence of proteins involved in methylotrophic metabolism has been demonstrated in the phyllosphere and roots of rice plants (Knief et al., 2012) and of taxonomic groups with methylotrophic activity in wheat roots (Turner et al., 2013). Activities to promote plant growth under abiotic stress have been reported for methylotrophic bacteria relieving the adverse effects through activities such as increased uptake of essential elements through nitrogen fixation, P, K and Zn solubilization, production of chelating compounds, increase in tolerance through production of phytohormones (Kumar et al., 2019).

1.4.1 Aerobic oxidation of methane to formaldehyde

Methanotrophic bacteria oxidize methane under oxic conditions via methane monooxygenase and dehydrogenases, producing intermediates such as methanol, formaldehyde, and formate, which are further converted to CO₂ (Jiang et al., 2010; Macey et al., 2020). To catalyze the oxidation of methane to methanol, methanotrophic bacteria can produce two forms of methane monooxygenases (MMO) enzymes with the same metabolic function; particulate (pMMO) or soluble

methane monooxygenases (sMMO). The pMMO is a membrane-bound enzyme with copper in its active site, requiring a copper-sufficient environment for its functionality, the pMMO is the most common enzyme among methylotrophic bacteria; the sMMO, on the other hand, is a cytoplasmic enzyme with a di-iron active site that is released at low copper concentrations and is found in selected groups of methylotrophs (Jiang et al., 2010; Park and Lee, 2013).

The methanol produced is subsequently oxidized to formaldehyde by means of a periplasmic pyrroloquinolinequinone (PQQ)-dependent methanol dehydrogenase (MDH), encoded by the calcium dependent *mxaF*-gene or the *xoxF*-gene, the latter recently discovered to have lanthanide dependent activity; then the formaldehyde is converted to formate via tetrahydrofolate or tetrahydromethanopterin intermediaries, the pathway ends with the final conversion of formate to CO_2 by NAD-dependent formate dehydrogenase. Alternatively, another part of formaldehyde can be assimilated into the cell biomass via the assimilatory ribulose monophosphate (aRuMP) pathway or via the serine cycle pathway (Figure. 1) (Kalyuzhnaya, 2016; Nazaries et al., 2013)



Figure 1. Aerobic methane metabolism; membrane-bound methane monooxygenase (**pMMO**); soluble methane monooxygenase (**sMMO**); PQQ-linked methanol dehydrogenases (**Mxa**); PQQ-linked methanol and formaldehyde dehydrogenases (**Xox**); methanopterin-linked C1 transfer (**H**₄**MTP**); folate-linked C1 transfer (**H**₄**FP**); formate dehydrogenase (**Fdh**); NADH:quinone oxidoreductase (**NDH**₂); assimilatory ribulose monophosphate pathway (**RuMP**); serine cycle (**SC**) (Modified from Kalyuzhnaya, 2016)

The ribulose monophosphate pathway (RuMP pathway) occurs with the condensation of formaldehyde on ribulose 5-phosphate by 3-hexulose 6-phosphate synthase (Hps) to form hexulose 6-phosphate and its isomerization to fructose 6-phosphate by 3-hexulose 6-phosphate isomerase (Hpi). The fate of this six-carbon compound could occur via three predicted RuMP pathways, including the Embden-

Meyerhof-Parnas pathway (EMP) (glycolytic); the Entner-Doudoroff (EDD) pathway (KDPG variant); and the Bifidobacterium shunt (BS) variant (phosphoketolase, Xfp variant)(Figure. 2) (Kalyuzhnaya, 2016). Via all pathways important intermediates for biomass synthesis (sugars, acetyl-CoA, glycerin-phosphate) are provided.



Figure 2. The ribulose monophosphate (RuMP) represented with the three predicted routes for cleavage for formaldehyde assimilation (a) EMP (FBA) variant; (b) EDD (KDPG) variant; and (c) BS (Xfp) variant. Dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DAP); 2,3-diphosphoglycerate (DPG); erythrose-4-phosphate (E4P); fructose 6-phosphate (F6P); fructose 1,6-bisphosphate (F1,6P); glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate (G3P); glucose 6-phosphate (G6P); 3-hexulose 6-phosphate (He6P); 2-keto-3-deoxy 6-phosphoglycerate (PGA); ribulose 5-phosphate (RuSP); ribose 5-phosphate (RSP); sedoheptulose 7-phosphate (S7P); (XSP) xylulose 5-phosphate; diphosphate (PPi); inorganic phosphate (Pi). (Modified from Kalyuzhnaya, 2016)

The serine cycle, on the other hand, begins with the condensation of methylene-H4F and glycine to serine, which in turn, after several transformations, is converted to phosphoenolpyruvate, which is carboxylated to malate, followed by CoAaddition to generate malyl-CoA, which is cleaved to glyoxylate and acetyl-CoA, glyoxylate is finally converted back to glycine (Figure. 3) (Chistoserdova and Lidstrom, 2013).



Figure 3. The serine cycle in in methanotrophic bacteria. Methane monooxygenase (**MMO**); methanol dehydrogenase (**MDH**); methylene tetrahydromethanopterin pathway (**H4MPTP**); methylene tetrahydromethanopterin dehydrogenase (**MtdA**); formate dehydrogenase (**FDH**); serine hydroxymethyl transferase (**STHM**); hydroxypyruvate reductase (**HPR**); malate dehydrogenase (**MD**); malate thiokinase (**MTK**); malyl coenzyme A lyase (**MCL**). (Adapted from Fei et al., 2014)

1.4.2 Methanol dehydrogenase (MDH)

The MDH is a protein found in the periplasm of most model methylotrophs; this protein has a prosthetic group (PQQ) placed in the center of a large a_2 subunit folded in a β -propeller structure and a β_2 -subunit surrounding the a_2 - subunit (Figure 4). The mechanism of enzyme action begins when PQQ is reduced with a proton that is withdrawn from the alcohol group present in the methanol molecule by an active site dominated by Asp³⁰³ and a cofactor that acts as a Lewis acid (Anthony, 2004); this reduced PQQ is reoxidized transferring two electrons to the heme group of cytochrome C_L , which in turn is oxidized by cytochrome C_H . This latter compound transfers the electrons to a membrane-bound C-type, which could be cytochrome aa3 or CO (oxidase); the electron chain ends with a final step where the electrons reach the final acceptor oxygen (Anthony, 1992; Read et al., 1999), this process of electron transfer generates a proton motive force that can generate one molecule of ATP per molecule of oxidized methanol (Williams et al., 2005).



Figure 4. Structure of *Methylobacterium extorquens* MDH. The a-subunit folded in propeller-structure (green) coupled with a PQQ and a calcium ion (green sphere) in the active center, the small β -subunit (yellow) (Adapted from Williams *et al.*, 2005).

The first MDH was discovered in Methylobacterium extorquens, which is encoded by the mxaF-gene that requires calcium (Ca⁺²) as a cofactor for its activation; the mxa cluster in *M. extorquens* consists of the mxaF and mxaI genes, which express the large and small subunits of MDH, mxaG, which encodes cytochrome C_{L} , mxaACKL which encodes proteins for calcium insertion, and other genes required for MDH activity (Chistoserdova, 2011). This MDH-Ca²⁺ dependence was considered the most traditional and widely used enzyme model for methanol oxidation in methylotrophic bacteria such as Methylobacterium sp., P. denitrificans, Hyphomicrobium methylovorum, and Methylophilus methylotrophus (Hibi et al., 2011a). Recently, however, Hibi et al., 2011 found an alternative MDH in Methylobacterium radiotolerans encoded by a xoxF-gene, a homologous gene of mxaF that is dependent on lanthanum (Ln³⁺) as a cofactor and widely predominant in methylotrophic bacteria and co-occurs with the mxaF gene or alone (Lv et al., 2018). The operon of *XoxF* includes the *xoxF*-gene, encoding Ln-dependent MDH, the *xoxG*-gene, encoding cytochrome C_{L} and the *xoxJ*-gene, encoding a protein for La³⁺ transport (Featherston and Cotruvo, 2021; Keltjens et al., 2014). MDH encoded by xoxF shows optimal activity at neutral pH and is not dependent on ammonium, in contrast to mxaF, which requires pH around 9-10 and is dependent on ammonium for its activity (Pol et al., 2014). Some of methylotrophic bacteria with *xoxF* activity include, *Methylobacterium radiotolerans*, *Bradyrhizobium* sp., "*Candidatus Methylacidiphilum fumariolicum* SolV", *M. extorquens* AM1, and others (Hibi et al., 2011a; Pol et al., 2014).

The rare earths elements (REEs) comprise a group of 17 chemical elements from lanthanum to lutetium with atomic numbers 57 to 71 in the periodic table and also include yttrium and scandium; rare earths elements are widely distributed as mixtures in the Earth's crust and are classified into two groups according to electron configuration, mineralogy and chemical behavior: Light rare earths (LREEs), which include from La to Eu, and heavy rare earths (HREEs), which include Gd-Lu and Y (Hoshino et al., 2016). The rare earth elements (REEs) are used as components of electronic devices such as mobile-phones, solar cells, and computers (Pol et al., 2014) and are often found in insoluble forms such as oxides, silicates, carbonates, and phosphates (Habashi, 2013). Due to their low solubility, unestablished association with biological functions and mechanisms, these REEs were usually considered nonessential until their role as cofactors of MDH for methanol oxidation in methylotrophic species was discovered (Pol et al., 2014). The association of REEs coupled to PQQ exhibit a stronger Lewis character, which plays an important purpose in polarizing atoms and enhances the redox activity of MDH compared to Ca²⁺ (Bogart et al., 2015; Pol et al., 2014). It is evident that REEs are assimilated as described above, but, the mechanisms have not been elucidated, however, despite their low solubility, some evidence for the assimilation of these elements has been suggested. The presence of binding groups for REEs in the bacterial cell surface such as carboxylates and phosphates has been pointed out (Takahashi et al., 2005), another study on REEs uptake mechanism described the involvement of molecules with similar activity to chalkophores or siderophores involved in copper or iron acquisition, these compounds are known as lanthanophores which solubilize La³⁺ from mineral complexes, the lanthanophores are transferred to the periplasm by a TonBdependent receptor in the outer membrane, once in the periplasm the La³⁺ is released from the lanthanophore and the La^{3+} is recognized by apo-xoxF or a periplasm binding protein that induces the expression of the *xoxF* cluster; another pathway involves the transfer of La³⁺ from the periplasm to the cytoplasm through a ABC transport system coupled to the internal membrane; in the cytoplasm, La^{3+} also activates transcription of the *xoxF* cluster (Ochsner et al., 2019).

1.4.3 Expression Regulation of *xoxF*

The gene *XoxF* is involved in carbon metabolism and is expressed when lanthanide species such as La³⁺, Ce³⁺, Pr³⁺ and Nd³⁺ are available, but it prefers La³⁺, as shown by an experiment in which Methylorubrum extorquens strain AM1, growing in a mineral medium containing a mixture of Ln-species, used La³⁺ as a preferred cofactor (Xu et al., 2007). As mentioned above, methylotrophic bacteria can harbor both MDH-genes (*mxaF-xoxF*) and under growth conditions in an environment with methanol and free of lanthanides, normally express *mxaF* but preferentially induce xoxF at low concentrations of lanthanide elements, even when the Ca²⁺ concentration is higher. This mechanism is known as the "lanthan-switch", in which transcription of the mxaF gene is repressed and expression of the xoxF gene is upregulated in the presence of lanthanides (Chu and Lidstrom, 2016; Vu et al., 2016). A periplasmic binding protein has been identified in *M. extorquens*, that may be associated with the "lanthan-switch". This is the La³⁺-selective chelator called Lanmodulin (LanM), which occurs in the periplasm and contains four carboxylate-rich metal coordination motifs known as EF hands, allowing it to selectively recognize La³⁺ ions.

Depending on the organism, expression regulation may vary. Three-component systems, *MxbDM*, *MxcQE*, *MxaB* are involved in the regulatory mechanism of *M. extorquens*, but only the *MxbM* component is required for repression of the *xoxF* cluster in the absence of lanthanum, however, *XoxF* is required for expression of the *mxa* cluster and the *MxbDM* component system leads to repression of itself (Featherston and Cotruvo, 2021; Vu et al., 2016); to fulfill the requirement of *xoxF* for expression of the *mxa* cluster, Skovran et al., 2019 propose the involvement of apo-*xoxF* (metal not incorporated into *xoxF*) as a lanthanide sensor in periplasm that interacts with either *MxcQ* or *MxbD*; once apo-*xoxF* reacts with La³⁺, it triggers transcription of the *xoxF* operon and represses *mxa* expression. In another methylotrophic bacteria *Methylomicrobium buryatense*, the component system of *MxbDM* and *MxcQE* is not present, but a sensor kinase known as *MxaY*, which can recognize Ln³⁺, regulates the expression of *mxa* and *xoxF* clusters (Chu et al., 2016).

1.5 Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus E19^T

Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus E19^T is a gram-negative bacterium isolated from the rhizosphere of the plant *Plantago winteri Wirtg.*, as part of bacterial screening project with PGPR potential associated with halotolerant plants growing in a natural salt meadow. Taxonomically, the bacterium belongs to the Domain Bacteria, Phylum Proteobacteria, Class Alphaproteobacteria (Suarez et al., 2014) and was recently assigned to the Order Hyphomicrobiales, novel family *Pleomorphomonadaceae* along with other genera such as *Chthonobacter*, Methylobrevis, Mongoliimonas, Oharaeibacter, and Pleomorphomonas (Hördt et al., 2020).

H. diazotrophicus is described as motile, strictly aerobic, oxidase-positive and catalase-negative, grows in 1–3% (w/v) NaCl, the major respiratory quinone is Q-10, DNA G+C content is $59.9\% \pm 0.7$ mol%. The activities described to promote plant growth of *H. diazotrophicus* include: Phosphate solubilization, nitrogen fixation, ACC and VOC production, iron uptake. The ability of phosphate solubilisation by *H. diazotrophicus* was tested in liquid medium with inorganic phosphorus complex sources [Ca₃(PO₄)₂, AlPO₄ and FePO₄] and organic ones such as inositol hexaphosphate (IHP), obtaining values ranging from 0.15 to 0.37 mg·l⁻ ¹ of soluble phosphate; it was also observed that gluconic acid is the most produced organic acid for solubilization activity (Suarez et al., 2019). The gluconic acid is synthetized in the oxidation pathway of glucose by means of enzyme glucose dehydrogenase and a cofactor pyrroloquinoline quinone (PQQ) (Suleman et al., 2018). The gene pqqBCDE, encoding the biosynthesis of PQQ and a substitute of the enzyme glucose dehydrogenase encoded by yliI are present in the H. diazotrophicus genome, but genes for acidic phosphatase, alkaline phosphatase and phosphatidic acid production are also present (Suarez et al., 2019). Nitrogen fixation by *H. diazotrophicus* was confirmed by its growth on nitrogen-free medium and nitrogenase activity by acetylene reduction to ethylene; genes involved in the biological nitrogen cycle were annotated in its genome. The genes described for nitrogen fixation activity include *nifH*, *nifD* and *nifK*, which encode the structural subunits of nitrogenase, genes involved in the synthesis and incorporation of FeMoco into nitrogenase, such as nifE, nifN, nifX, nifB, nifQ and nifV, as well as other genes involved in the protection, stabilization and regulation of nitrogenase

(Suarez et al., 2019). Mechanisms for the acquisition and metabolism of sulfur and iron in *H. diazotrophicus* are possible through specific protein complexes in the outer membrane; mixed sulfur compounds, e.g. alkane sulfonates, are taken up by an aliphatic sulphonate ABC transport encoded by *ssuABC*; once inside the cell, sulfur compounds are mineralized to sulfite by an alkane sulfonate monooxygenase and an NADPH-dependent FMN reductase encoded by the genes ssuD and ssuE genes respectively. Second, the iron is chelated by a siderophore, which in turn is transported by the protein complex of TonB, ExbB and ExbD into the periplasmic space, where the siderophore releases the ferrous ion and the iron is taken up by a Fe-binding protein and transported to the cytoplasm via an ATP transporter. It has been mentioned that ACC-deaminase can degrade the precursor 1aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylase (ACC), thereby lowering the ethylene levels in plants while reducing stress from salt (Glick, 2014), H. diazotrophicus was able to grow in a ACC-supplemented medium (Suarez et al., 2014), moreover, genes with enzymatic potential for ACC-degradation are present in its genome (Suarez et al., 2019). A metabolic pathway for the production of VOCs is also evidenced with the gene *ilv*, which encodes the enzyme acetolactate synthase for acetolactate production, and the gene budC, which encodes diacetyl reductase that subsequently converts acetolactate to acetoin by decarboxylation. Н. *diazotrophicus* possesses genes for proline and glutamate biosynthesis, the genes otsA and otsB, which express the production of trehalose synthase and trehalose phosphatase, involved in the synthesis of trehalose, and the genes betA, betB, which encode for choline dehydrogenase and betaine aldehyde dehydrogenase, essential enzymes for betaine synthesis (Suarez et al., 2019). Trehalose, proline, glutamate, betaine belong to the group of compatible solutes that plants accumulate as osmoprotectants during salt stress (Ullah and Bano, 2015).

Other gene-activities identified in *H. diazotrophicus* that may help the plant to cope with salt stress are peroxidases, superoxidase and glutathione S-transferase, which are encoded in coding sequences (CDS) and are involved in the protection of the cell against oxidative stress, also the *KDP* operon, which is involved in the expression of high-affinity K⁺ and favors the uptake of K⁺ over Na⁺, and the gene cluster *mrpABCDEFG*, which stimulates Na⁺ efflux and regulates cell volume and pH homeostasis (Suarez et al., 2019).

In methylotrophic bacteria, two genes have been associated with methanol dehydrogenase expression, *mxaF* and *xoxF* (Daumann, 2019). In *H.*

diazotrophicus, the presence of the *xoxF4*-lanthanide-dependent gene was detected and its activity was confirmed by growth of the bacteria in mineral medium supplemented with methanol and lanthanum (Lv et al., 2017). The genome of *H. diazotrophicus* harbors genes for other methylotrophy activities associated such as PQQ synthesis, H4MPT and H4F pathways, formate oxidation, serine cycle and methylamine dehydrogenase (Lv and Tani, 2018; Suarez et al., 2019).

The plant growth-promoting activity of *H. diazotrophicus in planta* was demonstrated when barley plants growing under salt stress were inoculated, which increased shoot and root dry weights compared to non-inoculated plants; moreover, ethylene levels were reduced as a possible consequence of ACC deaminase activity (Suarez et al., 2015); another study showed that inoculation of alfalfa plants with *H. diazotrophicus* under salinity enhanced K⁺ uptake and carotenoids production and increased relative water content (Ansari et al., 2019).

1.6 Barley

Barley (*Hordeum vulgare, vulgare L.*) is a cereal crop which grows in a variety of climates from sub-Arctic to subtropical and is listed on position five of crops with the highest dry weight production in the world. Barley is composed primarily of soluble and insoluble dietary fiber, with β -glucans predominating, but is also a source of protein, carbohydrates, vitamin E, B-complex vitamins, minerals, and phenolic compounds. Barley is incorporated in breakfast cereals, soups, baking flour and is an important food source that is also used in the production of alcoholic beverages such as beer (Gupta et al., 2010).

Barley belongs to the grass family *Poaceae*, subfamily *Festucoideae*, tribe *Triticeae and* genus *Hordeum*. The tribe *Triticeae* includes the best known cereals, namely: wheat (*Triticum*, several species), rye (*Secale cereale*), barley (*H. vulgare*) and others (Von Bothmer and Komatsuda, 2011). Of genus *Hordeum*, thirty-one species have been described (Von Bothmer and Komatsuda, 2011) but the cultivated barley varieties belongs to the species: *vulgare* and the wild form which belongs to the species *spontaneum*. Morphologically, barley is similar to other grasses and has spikes consisting of a series of spikelets which in turn contain florets, the organization of the spikelets can be two-rowed or six-rowed, resulting in differences in composition and reproduction (MacGregor, 2003).

1.7 Taxonomical description of a new *Spirosoma* species

The study of the biodiversity and relationships among living organisms is facilitated by taxonomical classification (Gevers et al., 2005); for bacteria, the taxonomy enables their reliable identification from clinical and environmental samples (Moore et al., 2010). Currently, a polyphasic approach is the standard method for bacterial novel taxa classification (Tindall et al., 2010), which consists of a series of tests for the evaluation of phenotypic, genotypic, and chemotaxonomic traits (Stackebrandt et al., 2002). Phenotypic tests comprises morphological, physiological, and biochemical characteristics (Wayne et al., 1987); genotypic methods are referred to DNA-based analysis such as %G+C content, DNA-DNA hybridization (DDH) and 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis (Stackebrandt and Ebers, 2006; Tindall et al., 2010), and chemotaxonomic characterization on the other hand, include tests to evaluate differences in the structural components such as the cell wall, the cell membrane or cytoplasm (Tindall et al., 2010).

In bacterial taxonomy, the species is the basic unit of bacterial taxonomy (Wayne et al., 1987) and can cluster similar strains which share 70% or more DNA-DNA relatedness. For the delineation of new species multiple rules of thumb have been proposed such as, DDH value which calculate genetic similarities at genome level between two species, value that should be less 70% to be designated as different species (Wayne et al., 1987); comparative sequence analysis of the 16S rRNA gene with identity values < 98,7% (Stackebrandt and Ebers, 2006) in combination with tests for evaluation of chemotaxonomy, physiological and cultural characteristics.

The genus *Spirosoma* was described first time by Migula, 1894 and is assigned to the proposed family *Spirosomaceae*, phylum *Bacteroidetes*, the family description was emended by García-López et al., 2019. The genus comprises 42 members validly published (Euzéby, 2018) that were isolated from natural environments such as water, soil, dust and soil (Lee, et al., 2018; Ten, et al., 2018). Members of the genus are described as Gram-negative, aerobic or facultatively anaerobic, non-spore-forming, variable motility, rods with various morphologies such as

rings, coils, filaments, colonies pink to yellow pigmented, the major menaquinone is MK-7 (Ahn et al., 2014), phosphatidylethanolamine as major polar lipid and G+C content from 47.2 to 57.0 mol% (Chang et al., 2014).

1.8 Comparative genomics

Genome sequencing is a tool of valuable importance, as it can aid in the taxonomic classification, the study of dynamics, evolution, and function of an unknown organism in an ecosystem. (Andersson and Goodman, 2012; Loman and Pallen, 2015) The use of NGS (Next generation sequencing) technologies in combination with informatic tools enable to sequence any bacterial genome project. A downstream analysis for a genome sequence involves the assembly of individual sequence reads into larger contigs; gene annotation and functional prediction based on referenced sequence databases to check genetic and metabolic capabilities of the bacteria; and comparative sequence analysis of single genes or whole genomes to genotypic characterization (Del Chierico et al., 2015; Roumpeka et al., 2017), core and even pan-genome analysis for multiples strains of species (Bentley, 2009).

1.9 Aim of the study

Soil salinization negatively affects plant growth and all their metabolic processes and is also one of the major challenges for agriculture due to increasing climate change (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2020). PGPRs have been shown to alleviate the negative effects caused by salt stress in plants through ACC deaminase, phytohormones and VOCs production (Etesami and Maheshwari, 2018). Among PGPRs, salt halotolerant bacteria were found to have activities as plant growth promoters *eg. H. diazotrophicus* which showed improved growth of barley and alfalfa under saline conditions (Ansari et al., 2019; Suarez et al., 2015), however, the gene *xoxF*-lanthanide-dependent was amplified in *H. diazotrophicus* which confers the ability to methylotrophy through methanol uptake (Lv et al., 2017). The study of lanthanide dependent methylotrophy has attracted particular interest in recent years and most studies on methylotrophic bacteria with *xoxF* activity associated with plants have been conducted in the phyllosphere, but there is little information on *xoxF*-methylotrophic bacteria with plant-promoting growth activity associated with roots, apart from a few studies on halotolerant bacteria dependent on lanthanides.

Since methanol is a by-product of cell wall metabolism in plants, it can be released from either leaves and shoots (Macey et al., 2020; Stacheter et al., 2013), which could allow methylotrophic metabolism to influence plant-associated microbes and benefit the plant as PGPRs.

In this study a greenhouse experiment with barley growing in saline soil was carried out, several treatments were established where plant seeds grow with/ without bacteria inoculation, with/without lanthanum supplementation, non-inoculated seeds grown in presence/absence of lanthanum and the controls of seeds only growing in saline soil without further amendments. The aims of this study were as follow: (I) Reassess the growth of *H. diazotrophicus* with methanol supported by lanthanum and to find the optimal concentration required as a metal cofactor for methanol dehydrogenase. (II) Evaluate, if performance of *H. diazotrophicus* as plant growth-promoting rhizobacterium on barley plants under salt stress is enhanced in presence of lanthanum. (III) Evaluate, if the presence of lanthanum without seed inoculation with *H. diazotrophicus* does not affect plant growth. (IV) Availability of lanthanum improves rhizosphere abundance of *H. diazotrophicus*. (V) Bacterial communities are affected by E19^T inoculation and lanthanum application in rhizosphere and roots.

Furthermore, methylotrophic lanthanum-dependent bacteria from saline natural environments samples have been enriched in a methanol lanthanum containing liquid medium. The isolated strains were characterized for their ability to grow with lanthanum and for taxonomic identification.

1.10 References

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CHAPTER 2.

Effect of *Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus* and lanthanum on the plant growth and microbial communities of barley grown under salt stress

Submitted to: Biology and Fertility of Soil

Effect of *Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus* and lanthanum on the plant growth and microbial communities of barley grown under salt stress

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Abstract

Increasing agriculture soil salinity caused by intensive fertilization or deficient irrigation negatively affects agricultural crop production. Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus E19^T was isolated from a salt meadow and exhibited plant growth promoting activities. Substrates provided from plants like methanol support associated microorganism and genome analysis of H. diazotrophicus identified the gene xoxF which encodes for methanol dehydrogenase protein and confers the ability to grow on methanol only in the presence of lanthanum (La). For elucidation of lanthanum on plant growth promotion effects of H. diazotrophicus on barley under salt stress conditions (NaCl 3%) seed inoculation was performed in the presence of La. For a greenhouse experiment soil was amended with and without La (8 mg kg⁻¹) and barley seeds were inoculated with alive or dead H. diazotrophicus. Plant growth, H. diazotrophicus colonization and bacterial community composition and diversity of rhizosphere and roots were studied. Significant differences of fresh and dry weight biomass of leaves and roots were obtained with H. diazotrophicus in the presence and absence of La³⁺. Treatments with La amended soil (without bacterial inoculation) also evidenced significant differences in leaves and roots biomass under salt stress compared to dead biomass addition of the respective bacterial strain and control. Presence of H. diazotrophicus in roots was 4.3 10⁶ target copies gdw⁻¹ as quantified by realtime PCR using a specific primer set for H. diazotrophicus based on the 16S rRNA gene. Similar target numbers were obtained with a primer set for the La-dependent methanol dehydrogenease gene (xoxF). Bacterial community analysis on roots and rhizosphere revealed Rhodanobacteriaceae (29.3%) as most dominant together with other families such as Acidobacteriaceae and Caulobacteraceae. Interestingly the alpha diversity analysis indicated higher indices in treatments with H. diazotrophicus, and in presence of La. According to nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) most similar communities were found in treatments of H. diazotrophicus and H. diazotrophicus with La; most different was the community in control soil. Differential abundance analysis showed Rhodanobacter as most frequent ranked genus in all treatments This study reasserts the role of *H. diazotrophicus* in growth promotion of barley plants under salt stress and the importance of lanthanum for methylotrophic bacteria xoxF4-type.

Keywords: *Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus*, Salt stress, PGPR, Lanthanum, Methylotrophic Bacterium, XoxF

Introduction

Salinization is a problem which affects according to FAO (United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization) already 22% of agricultural lands (Kolodyazhnaya et al., 2009). As a result of the greenhouse effect this value is increasing constantly due to low precipitation and the need of more irrigation. It has been predicted, that more than 50% of the cropland might be salinized by the year 2050 (Ashraf, 1994; Vinocur and Altman, 2005). The soil salinity has a negative impact in agricultural land decreasing crop yield. High concentration of salt ions such as Na⁺, K⁺, Cl⁻, Ca⁺ lead to osmotic stress and inhibits plant growth (Numan et al., 2018; Shrivastava and Kumar, 2015). The constant growing of world population requires to develop strategies for soil recovering and mitigation of salinity for a further increase of crop yield.

One strategy to alleviate salinity stress for crop plants is the application of plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) which can be inoculated to crop seeds and by different mechanisms enable better plant growth in saline soil. These mechanism include induction of systemic tolerance (IST), production of ACC-deaminase, support with nutrient uptake and resistance to phytopathogens (Suarez et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2009; Zarea et al., 2012). *Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus* E19^T was isolated from a salt meadow and was shown to promote barley growth under salt stress (Suarez et al., 2015). Recently the genome of *H. diazotrophicus* was sequenced and candidate genes for potential plant growth promoting activities were recognized (Suarez et al. 2019) such as *nif* genes involved in nitrogen fixation, genes for acid and alkaline phosphatase associated to phosphorus metabolism, genes for protein expression of *ton*B, *exb*B, and *exb*D related to iron acquisition and also board clusters of genes involved in salt tolerance.

Also three CDSs encoding for methanol dehydrogenase genes were found (Suarez et al. 2019) that as previously shown (Lv and Tani, 2018) belongs to *xoxF* type of the methanol dehydrogenases, that required for its activity the presence of rare metals as a cofactors such as lanthanum (La³⁺) and Cesium (Ce⁺³) (Chu and Lidstrom, 2016; Fitriyanto et al., 2011; Lv et al., 2017; Pol et al., 2014). *H. diazotrophicus* expressed only this type and cannot oxidize methanol without lanthanides (Lv et al., 2017).

Methanol is a byproduct of pectine demethylation during the process of cell walls maturation in plants which is exudates in leaves (Fall and Benson, 1996; Galbally and Kirstine, 2002) and was also suggested in roots (Sy et al., 2005). In the root zone and below the *xoxF* type methanol dehydrogenases was found to be one of the most abundant expressed bacterial proteins (Butterfield et al. 2016, Li et al. 2019) and thus methanol could be an important carbon source of *H. diazotrophicus* on the root surface. In this work we tested the following working hypothesis: (I) Performance of *H. diazotrophicus* as plant growth promoting rhizobacterium on barley plants under salt stress is enhanced in presence of lanthanum. (II) Presence of lanthanum without seed inoculation with *H. diazotrophicus* has no effect on

plant growth. (III) Availability of lanthanum improves rhizosphere abundance of *H. diazotrophicus*. (IV) Bacterial communities are affected by strain $E19^{T}$ inoculation and lanthanum application in rhizosphere and roots. For testing our hypothesis, a greenhouse experiment was performed with barley under saline soil conditions and soil amendments with/without lanthanum and with/without seed inoculation of barley. Plant biomass, rhizosphere abundance of *H. diazotrophicus*, and effect of amendments of rhizosphere bacterial community were determined.

Material and Methods

Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus E19^T was recultured from a glycerin stock from the culture collection of the Institute of Applied Microbiology, JLU Giessen.

Growth of H. diazotrophicus on methanol

For confirmation of lanthanum dependent methanol growth of strain E19^T of our stock culture, a growth test was performed to proof enzymatic activity of the La-containing methanol dehydrogenase of *H. diazotrophicus*. A modified liquid freshwater media (FWM) (Widdel and Bak, 1992), containing 1.0 g NaCl, 0.4 g MgCl x 6H₂O, 0.15 g CaCl₂ x 2H₂O, 0.5 g KCl, 0.2 g KH₂PO₄, 0.25 g NH₄Cl, 1.4 g Na₂SO₄, 1.0 ml trace element solution containing no lanthanum (SL10), 50 ml Phosphate buffer 0.4 M pH 7.0, 1.0 ml vitamin B12-solution, 1.0 ml vitamin-5 solution, 1.0 ml thiamine solution, 1.0 ml riboflavine solution in 1.0 liter deionized water, the pH was adjusted to 6.5. Methanol 5% v/v as carbon source and 30 μ M LaCl₃ was added to this liquid culture medium, as well as *H. diazotrophicus* as inoculum which has been grown on glucose. As further growth tests 5 mM glucose (as a positive control of growth), no carbon source and methanol without lanthanum were included. The cultures were incubated at 28 °C on a shaker with 120 rpm. Growth was monitored by measurements of optical density at 600 nm. Another growth experiment was performed with different concentrations of LaCl₃ (0, 30,60,90,120 μ M), methanol 5% v/v under slightly saline conditions with 1% NaCl in the above described medium in order to test the optimal lanthanum concentration for growth.

Growth experiment with barley in presence of H. diazotrophicus

The effect of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T on growth of barley seeds was studied in pots filled with soil substrate under salt stress (NaCl 3%). Pots were arranged in a randomized complete block design (RCBD; McKillup, 2011), with six treatments and five replications per treatment. The treatments were (I) E19^T, (II) E19^T with La, (III) E19^T dead biomass, (IV) E19^T dead biomass with La, and (V) non-inoculated seed control. Two suspensions of *H. diazotrophicus* were obtained by growing the bacteria in FWM liquid medium with glucose or FWM with addition of methanol and 30 μ M LaCl₃ until 10⁷ CFU ml⁻¹. The suspension was centrifuged and suspended in 30 mM MgSO₄. Seeds of barley were disinfected with 70% ethanol, 2.5% bleach, washed five times with sterile water and incubated for 1 h in the suspension of *H. diazotrophicus* for treatments of strain E19^T without La or FWM with

methanol for treatments of strain $E19^{T}$ with La with gentle shaking. Further control assays consisted of barley seeds inoculated with an autoclaved aliquot of *H. diazotrophicus* $E19^{T}$ to assess the effect of dead bacteria and an assay with non-inoculated seeds.

Plastics pots (13 x 10 cm) were filled with ~ 750 ml (~140 g dry weight) non-sterile soil (Fruhstorfer Erde Hawita typ P, Table. S1). Soil water holding capacity (WHC) was determinate to be 225 ml and each pot was watered with 170 ml water (~75% WHC) in order to keep the soil substrate moistened. Ten barley seeds were placed on the filled soil pots and were covered with 1 cm layer of soil substrate. The experiments were carried out in a greenhouse with 12 h of light, 21 °C of temperature. After germination the pots were rarefied to 6 plants per pot.

In order to establish salt stress, the pots were irrigated three times during sowing, germination and rarefaction phases with 136 mM NaCl solutions in water until a salinity of 3.0% was reached. To evaluate the sorption of La³⁺ for the used substrate, the substrate without plants was flushed with solutions containing different La³⁺ concentration and the concentration of La³⁺ was determined by ICP-MS analysis in the runout (Table S2). Afterwards for the plant experiment a solution LaCl₃ in water was added into the soil during seeding to obtain a concentration of 8 mg La kg⁻¹.

Plants were monitored for 35 day. Five plants per pot were separated for harvest of leaves and roots and collected in paper bags for determination of fresh weights. From root biomass soil was washed out thoroughly and air dried before fresh weights were determined. For dry biomass leaves and roots were dried at 80 °C for 48 h and subsequently their weights were recorded.

Data normality was evaluated by Anderson-darling-test (Fig. S3); statistical differences of plants fresh and dry weight between treatments were analyzed by ANOVA followed by Tukey post-hoc tests at P<0.05 using the Minitab 19 Statistical Software (2019).

DNA extraction from rhizosphere and roots

From each pot one plant was separated and carefully the soil loosely adhering to the roots was removed by gentle shaking, collected in sterile centrifuge tubes and frozen to -80 °C. Additionally from the same plant one long root was cut out, remaining soil was removed by gentle shaking, afterwards root was collected in DNA-free tube and stored at -80 °C. For DNA extraction samples of rhizosphere were defrosted and kept in ice box. Approximately, 300 mg rhizosphere soil was transferred to tubes with ceramic beads and DNA was extracted using NucleoSpin [®] Soil kit (Macherey- Nagel, Düren, Germany). Roots samples were disrupted to fine powder with a mortar and pestle using liquid nitrogen. Mortar and pestle were before use washed with soap, then rinsed with deionized water, flame treated with 100% ethanol and in last step the tools were wiped with ROTI[®]Nucleic Acid-free solution (ROTH, Germany). From the powder 300 mg was transferred to tubes with ceramics beads. To these tubes with powdered roots and ceramic beads 1 ml extraction buffer (5 g l⁻¹ SDS, 0.2 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8), 50 mM EDTA and 0.1 M NaCl, pH 8) was added and shaken for 2 min at maximum speed in a cell mill MM200 (Retsch Haan, Germany). Then samples were centrifuged at 4 °C and 10.000 g for 5 min in a microcentrifuge (Heraeus Fresco, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, USA). The supernatant was collected in a new tube, added 5 µl RNase A (10 mg ml⁻¹) and incubated at 37 °C for 30 min.

DNA from roots was extracted using a modified phenol-chloroform methodology (Bürgmann et al., 2001). After RNAse A treatment 500 µl of phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) were added and mixed by inverting the tubes 5 times. The tubes were centrifuged again at 10.000 g for 5 min at 4 °C; aqueous phase was collected in a new DNA-free tube and chloroform/isoamyl alcohol (24:1) was added, mixed by gentle inverting and centrifuged again at 10.000 g for 5 min at 4 °C. Aqueous phase was recovered and DNA was precipitated with 1 ml of PEG [20% Poly (ethylene glycol) and 2.5 M NaCl], tubes were kept in ice box at 4 °C for 30 min and centrifuged again at 10.000 g for 5 min at 4 °C; PEG was discarded and DNA pellets were washed with ice cold 75% ethanol, dried out, dissolved in nuclease free water. DNA extracts of rhizosphere and roots were used for quantification of strain E19^T by real-time PCR and taxonomic metabarcode sequencing by Ion Torrent.

Quantification of *H. diazotrophicus* by real-time-PCR (qPCR)

A specific primer set (E19_F_932: 5'-GTCCGGCTATCCAGAGAGAT-3'; E19_R_1261: 5'-ATTAGCTGACCCTCGAGGGT-3') targeting the 16S rRNA gene of *H. diazotrophicus* has been developed through alignment of 16S rRNA gene of strain E19^T and the closest relatives. The sequences obtained from the SILVA database (Quast et al., 2013) were aligned and merged with the database LTPs111 (Feb 2013) (Yilmaz et al., 2014) using the ARB version 5.2 program (Ludwig et al., 2004). The specificity of the primer pair was checked using the online program Probe Check (Loy et al., 2008) and also by cloning and sequencing of the PCR products amplified from DNA from bulk and rhizospheric soil of plants in two different environments. Likewise, a primer pair set (E19_F_*xoxF*: 5'-CGCTGCCATCTCACTGCCTA-3'; E19_R_*xoxF*: 5'-ACTGGTCGCCTTCCCATGTG-3') targeting the *xoxF*-gene in strain E19^T was designed on primerBLAST tool of NCBI (Ye et al., 2012) using NZ_LT960614, region: 2806010-2807833 sequence of the GenBank; the specificity of the primers were confirmed as well with primerBLAST.

For cloning, PCR products were cleaned using NucleoSpin gel PCR clean-up (Macherey-Nagel) and ligated by TA-cloning to a vector plasmid pGEM-T (Promega GmbH, Mannheim, Germany); competent cells of *Escherichia coli* JM 109 (Promega) were transformed with the plasmids thereafter plasmids from transformed cells were isolated as described in Kampmann et al., 2012. The purified plasmids with insert were quantified using the fluorescence of DNA-quantification Helixyte Green kit (Biomol, Hamburg, Germany), copy numbers of standard fragments were calculated according to Kampmann et al. (2012) and used as a standards for real-time PCR curve in 10-fold dilutions from 10⁶ to 10¹ of strain E19^T 16S rRNA gene copies.

Real-time PCRs were carried out in 10-µl reaction mixture volumes using a 72-well rotor in a Rotor-Gene 3000 cycler (Corbett Research, Sydney, Australia). All samples including the standard curve were run in quadruplicates starting with a preheating step at 94 °C for 2 min followed by 40 cycles of thermal cycling protocol: 45 s at 94 °C, 45 s at 63 °C, 45 s at 72 °C and 15 s at 84 °C. After the last amplification step, a melting curve was obtained by heating the amplification product from 60 °C to 95 °C and SybrGreen fluorescent (SYBR-Green JumpStart Ready Mix, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) measurement was performed with Qiagen Software Rotor Gene Q 2.3 (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). The copy numbers were determined using the reference curve plotting the log of starting target amount versus threshold cycle, from the equation of reference DNA plots the initial concentration of each unknown sample was calculated. Data normality was tested using the method of Anderson-Darling and analysed by ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc at P<0.05 test in Minitab.

lon torrent sequencing

For sequencing of rhizosphere and root bacterial community a procedure according to Kaplan et al., (2019) was followed; PCR reactions were performed for the amplification of the 16S rRNA gene using a general bacterial primer sets (520_F: 5'-AYTGGGYDTAAAGNG-3'; 926_R: 5'-CCGTCAATTYYTTTRAGTTT-3') (Claesson et al., 2009; Engelbrektson et al., 2010) targeting hypervariable regions V4 and V5 of bacteria. Purified PCR products of samples were transferred to a 314 chip and a 318 chip (Ion PGM Hi-Q Sequencing kit , Ion 314v2 chip & Ion 318v2 chip) (Life Technologies) and sequenced using Ion PGM Sequencer (Life Technologies).

Sequence data obtained were analyzed using the microbiome analysis package QIIME2 (version 2020.6) (Bolyen et al., 2019). After importing the sequencing in the QIIME2 format the reads were demultiplexed with the tool cutadapt (Martin, 2011) then quality filtered, chimeras removed, clustered and dereplicate using DADA2 (Callahan et al., 2016). After removing sequences with plastid and mitochondrial origin, the dereplicated sequences were classified using a pre-trained Naive Bayes classifier (Pedregosa et al., 2011) trained with the SILVA 132 database (Quast et al., 2013). Alignment of the sequences were done with MAFFT (Katoh and Standley, 2013) and the phylogenetic tree using the maximum-likelihood algorithms was generate using FastTree (Price et al., 2010). Alpha diversity indexes were compared statistically using Minitab 19 and beta biodiversity analysis was compared statistically using the "vegan" package within the R software environment version 3.6.3 (R Core Team, 2020) with R Studio version 1.3.1056 (RStudio Team, 2020). The alpha diversity indexes Observed ASVs and Shannon were calculated to estimate species diversity, normality data test was performed as aforementioned and ANOVA test along with Tukey at P<0.05 was used to analyze the effects of the treatments in roots and rhizosphere soil and their interaction with microbial alpha diversity. For beta diversity analysis a Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was performed to reproduce the influence among the treatments in roots and rhizosphere soil on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix by applying the Adonis function permutational multivariate analysis of variance (ADONIS) (permutations = 999). Differential abundance testing was performed using the QIIME2-plugin Songbird (Morton et al., 2019) following the procedure described by Estaki et al. (2020). The method applies a multinomial regression model to estimate differential ranks of taxa across the treatments.

RESULTS

Lanthanide-dependent methylotrophic activity of *H. diazotrophicus*

Fresh water medium supplemented with 0.5% (v/v) methanol in presence of La³⁺ was used to test the growth of *H. diazotrophicus* using methanol as carbon source (Fig. S1). It is evident that the presence of La³⁺ promote growth of *H. diazotrophicus* and is required for growth on methanol as source of carbon. In addition, growth was evaluated under slightly saline conditions with 1% NaCl and different concentrations of lanthanum (30, 60, 90, 120 μ M) and methanol 5% (v/v) to evaluate the optimal La³⁺ concentration. Results indicated that 60 μ M La³⁺ was slightly the best concentration for growth of *H. diazotrophicus* (Fig.1).



Fig 1. Growth of *H. diazotrophicus* in mineral medium with NaCl 1%, 5% methanol (v/v) under different concentrations of La³⁺ (0, 30, 60, 90, 120 μ M). Values represent the average of triplicate replications with corresponding standard deviations, the optical density (OD₆₀₀) was used as growth parameter.

Plant growth promotion activity and colonization of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T on barley

The effect of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T inoculation on fresh and dry weights of barley under salt stress conditions of greenhouse experiment was test after 35 days (Fig. 2), normality test on the data using the Anderson-Darling test revealed all of the data sets were normally distributed (Table. S3). Overall, the tendency is similar for fresh or dry weight of plants inoculated with strain E19^T. A significant difference was revealed in fresh ($F_{5,20}$ =5.45, P=0.003), ($F_{5,20}$ =11.35, P<0.001) and dry weight ($F_{5,20}$ =57.78, P<0.001) ($F_{5,20}$ =15.91, P<0.001) of leaves and roots. The biomass was higher in plants which have been inoculated with strain E19^T and also in presence of La³⁺ compared to treatments with dead biomass (DB), dead biomass with lanthanum (DB+La) and the corresponding control (non-inoculated plants). Plants inoculated with *H. diazotrophicus* showed an increase in leaves biomass by 5, 5 and 18% and in roots biomass by 38, 36 and 49% against DB, DB+La and the control (Tab. S4) (Tukey HSD, P<0.05; Fig. 2). Similarly, plants inoculated with strain E19^T combined with lanthanum

showed increases for leaves biomass by 17, 18, 29% and roots biomass by 48, 46, 58% compared to DB, DB+La and control.

Plants grown in presence of only lanthanum showed also a good performance with increased leaves and root dry biomass (Tukey HSD, P< 0.05; Fig. 2) by 7, 7, 20% and 49,48, 60% compared to DB, DB+La, and control respectively. Plants inoculated with dead biomass of *H. diazotrophicus* with and without lanthanum had no significant effect in plant growth under salt stress compared to non-inoculated plants.



Fig 2. Fresh and dry weight of leaves and roots (mean \pm SD, n = 5) of barley plants with inoculation of *H. diazotrophicus* (E19^T), in combination with La³⁺ (E19^T + La), dead biomass of E19^T (DB) and mixed with La³⁺ (DB + La³⁺), single La³⁺ (La) and control without amendments. Each value is the average of five replicates. Bars with the same letter are not significantly different (Tukey HSD, P< 0.05) among treatments after ANOVA.

Quantification of H. diazotrophicus on roots and rhizosphere of barley

Survival and growth of *H. diazotrophicus* on roots and rhizosphere of barley plants 35 days after seed inoculation were determined using a specific qPCR assay. Specificity was confirmed *in silico* with the online tool TestPrime from Silva (Klindworth et al., 2013) and *in situ* by cloning environmental 16S rRNA genes and subsequent sequencing of the plasmid insert which recovered the expected sequence (Data not shown).

A clear difference was observed between E19^T colonization in rhizosphere ($F_{5,20}$ =5.33, P=0.003) and roots ($F_{5,20}$ =6.78, P=0.001) with much higher DNA target numbers of the root (Fig. 3). In rhizosphere quantification of *H. diazotrophicus* gene copies were twice in treatment with *H. diazotrophicus* in comparison to the bacterial treatment with lanthanum (E19^T+La); whereas results for *H. diazotrophicus* gene copies in/on roots (Tukey HSD, P<0.05, Fig. 4 A, B) were similar on both treatments (E19^T) and (E19^T+La). Furthermore, the new primer for detection and quantification of E19^T *xoxF-gene* (encoding the La-dependent methanol dehydrogenase) was tested, its specificity was evaluated *in silico* by PrimerBlast from NCBI and *in situ* as described for strain E19^T 16S rRNA gene. The *xoxF*-gene involved in methylotrophic activity was detected on root samples with gene copies numbers of *the xoxF-gene* in a similar tendency ($F_{5,20}$ =3,18, P=0.024) to that observed for strain E19^T 16S gene in/on roots (Fig. S2).



Fig 3. Quantification of strain E19^T in rhizosphere soils (A) and roots (B) of barley 35 days after seed inoculation and plant growth. A specific primer for strain E19^T targeting the 16S rRNA gene was used for qPCR. Each value is the average (\pm SD) of five replicates measured quadruple. Bars with the same letter are not significantly different (Tukey HSD; P<0.05) among treatments after ANOVA. E19 refers to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T, E19+La to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* and lanthanum, DB to sample with addition of dead biomass, DB+La to sample with addition of dead biomass and lanthanum, La to sample with addition of lanthanum, Control to samples without addition.

Effect of seed inoculation with *H. diazotrophicus* on rhizosphere and root microbial community

Total rhizosphere and root microbial community consisted of 45 phyla, 98 classes, 255 orders, 451 families and 845 genera. At phyla level most dominant in roots and rhizosphere were members of Proteobacteria with a relative abundance of 62%. In roots other dominant phyla were Actinobacteria (20.5%), Acidobacteria (6.9%), Verrucomicrobia (4.0%), Bacteroidetes (3.6%) and others less abundant phyla (5.24%) comprising the phyla Gemmatimonadetes. "Candidatus Patescibacteria", Chloroflexi, Firmicutes, Lentisphaerae, "Candidatus Dependentiae", Armatimonadetes, Cyanobacteria among others. In rhizosphere community besides Proteobacteria also Acidobacteria (14.6%), Verrucomicrobia (5.6%), Actinobacteria (4%), Bacteroidetes (3.3%) and others (6.2%) were found. The phylum Tenericutes was found only in rhizosphere. At classes level Gammaproteobacteria and Alphaproteobacteria were most abundant in roots with 40.6% and 18.3% and rhizosphere with 43.4% and 21.9% respectively (Fig. S3). At the order level, Xanthomonadales was the most abundant either in rhizosphere or roots with 35.7%. Family-level analysis revealed that with a mean relative abundance of 29.3% the family Rhodanobacteraceae was the most dominant in both habitats (rhizosphere and roots), other families such as Nocardioidaceae, Xanthomonadaceae, Caulobacteraceae, Opitutaceae, Xanthobacteraceae, Acidobacteriaceae (Subgroup.1), an uncultured family belonging to the order Vicinamibacterales, Solimonadaceae and Acetobacteraceae also were founded dominant in roots, whereas in rhizosphere; Acidobacteriaceae (Subgroup.1), Caulobacteraceae, an uncultured family belonging to the order Vicinamibacterales, Xanthobacteraceae, Opitutaceae, Xanthomonadaceae, Acetobacteraceae, Nocardioidaceae and Gemmatimonadaceae were the most dominant families (Fig. 4).





Fig 4. Phylogenetic distribution at family level of bacterial community from rhizosphere (A) and roots (B). E19 refers to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* $E19^{T}$, $E19^{T}$ + La to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* and lanthanum, DB to sample with addition of dead biomass, DB + La to sample with addition of dead biomass and lanthanum, La to sample with addition of lanthanum, Control to samples without addition. Only the ten most abundant classes are shown, while the further 220 (Rhizosphere) and 159 (roots) families were collapsed into "Others".

Alpha and Beta-diversity

The alpha diversity of the bacterial community was evaluated using several diversity indicators. Bacterial taxonomic diversity on rhizosphere and roots showed significant changes among the treatments in alpha-diversity indices observed ASVs ($F_{5,16}$ =6.45, P=0.002) ($F_{5,23}$ =3.47, P=0.0017) and Shannon only in rhizosphere ($F_{5,16}$ =4.99, P=0.006) ($F_{5,23}$ =1.76, P=0.161). In rhizosphere most significant differences of alpha diversity were found for the treatments with E19^T and E19^T with lanthanum (Tukey HSD P<0.05; Fig. 5). Roots showed a similar trend (Fig. 5) where the most significant differences in alpha diversity were found for E19^T, dead biomass and E19^T with lanthanum. The inoculation of barley seeds with E19^T evidently showed changes of alpha diversity metrics for bacterial root and rhizosphere community in comparison to control seeds without inoculation.



Fig 5. Alpha diversity indices of the different treatments based on ASVs of bacterial community from rhizospheric soil and roots. Boxes with the same letter are not significantly different (Tukey HSD P<0.05) among treatments after ANOVA. E19 refers to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T, E19 + La to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* and lanthanum, DB to sample with addition of dead biomass, DB + La to sample with addition of dead biomass and lanthanum, La to sample with addition of lanthanum, Control to samples without addition.

According to the Bray-Curtis dissimilarities, nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was employed to depict the beta diversity of the bacterial community (Fig. 6). The variation of communities in rhizosphere (Adonis, $F_{5,16}$ =3.82, P<0.001)) and roots (Adonis $F_{5,22}$ =2.93, P<0.001) of barley plants was significant between the different treatments. In both rhizosphere and roots similar bacteria communities were found in treatments with E19^T and E19^T with lanthanum; most different was the community in control soil. Other cluster correspond to the treatments of dead biomass and death biomass with lanthanum.



Fig 6. Non-Metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) plot of β -diversity by Bray-Curtis dissimilarities for barley microbiota in (A) Rhizosphere (Adonis (P<0.001)) and (B) Roots (Adonis (P<0.001)). The number of permutations was 999. E19^T refers to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T, E19^T + La to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* and lanthanum, DB to sample with addition of dead biomass, DB + La to sample with addition of dead biomass and lanthanum, La to sample with addition of lanthanum, Control to samples without addition.

Differential Abundance Ranking

Differential abundance analysis was tested on the genus level to identify the most associated genus by the different treatments using the plugin Songbird (Morton et al., 2019) for QIIME2 computing relative differentials ranks. The genus with higher differential ranking associated to the different treatments in rhizosphere and roots are showed in Table 1, and the top ten of genus are included in Table S5 and S6. As a whole *Rhodanobacter* was the most strongly associated genus between the treatments whereas *Granulicella*, *Aquicella*, uncultured bacteria of order *Vicinamibacterales* were associated to rhizosphere and *Alkanibacter*, uncultured bacteria of order *Vicinamibacterales* to roots respectively (Tables S5 and S6).

Table 1. Top-ranked genus abundance per treatment obtained from a multinomial regression rank test. Strain $E19^{T}$ refers to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* $E19^{T}$, $E19^{T}$ + La to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* and lanthanum, DB to sample with addition of dead biomass, DB + La to sample with addition of dead biomass and lanthanum, La to sample with addition of lanthanum, Control to samples without addition.

Genus Ranked				
Treatment	Rhizosphere	Roots		
E19 [™]	Rhodanobacter sp.	Tistrella sp.		
E19 ^T +La	Alkanibacter sp.	Dongia sp.		
DB	Rhodanobacter sp.	Rhodanobacter sp.		
DB+La	Caulobacter sp.	Rhodanobacter sp.		
La	Solirubrobacter sp.	Family Blastocatellaceae-Uncultured bacteria		
Control	Rhodanobacter sp.	Nocardioides sp.		

DISCUSSION

Rare earth elements (REE) were long time overseen as trace metals for enzyme activity of microorganisms. Since the publications of Hibi et al. (2011), Fitriyanto et al. (2011) and Pol et al. (2014) the importance of the REE for the lanthanides depending methanol metabolisms in bacteria in different environments (Howat et al., 2018; J. Huang et al., 2019) become evident. Therefore, we postulate that H. diazotrophicus as plant growth promoting bacteria and able to grow with methanol expressing a Ladependent methanol dehydrogenase is supported/favored in root colonization in the presence of La. The results obtained in this work support some of the hypotheses stated. Barley seed inoculation with strain E19^T in presence of La enhanced plant biomass more that the treatment with E19^T but without La (hypothesis I). Fresh and dry weight of both leaves and roots grown under salt stress were highest after E19^T inculcation and presence of La. However the difference of leave and root biomass in the presence of strain E19^T supplemented with La were not significant different compare to E19^T, thus this hypothesis was not supported by our data. The untreated control plants and plants after seed inoculation of dead biomass of strain E19^T were significantly lower compare to treatments with alive strain E19^T and/or lanthanum. The observed growth stimulation of barley plants inoculated with strain E19^T confirmed results of Suarez et al. (2015) who also reported significantly increased dry biomass of roots and leaves of barley plants after inoculation with strain E19^T under salt stress conditions.

The second working hypothesis (presence of lanthanum has no effect on plant growth) was not fulfilled, interestingly, in the presence of lanthanum dry and fresh weights were increased compared to control treatment. Previous studies reported that lanthanum might play a role in regulation of the plant antioxidant defense system, increasing its activity removing reactive oxygen species like oxygen peroxide (H_2O_2), superoxide ($O^2 -$), and therefore diminishing the salt stress (Huang and Shan, 2018). Huang and Shan (2018) demonstrated a positive effect in plant height, stem diameter and dry weight after application of LaCl₃ to tomato seedlings under salt stress conditions. Other studies carried out by Xu et al. (2007) and Liu et al. (2016) indicated that lanthanum application alleviated the oxidative damage in maize leaves and promoted the growth of *Salvia involucrata* under salt stress protecting the photosynthetic system from damage. An additional effect could be that other plant growth promoting

bacteria were stimulated with lanthanum. Rare-earth element depending alcohol dehydrogenases seems to be widely distributed (Howat et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2019) and rare earth depending enzyme activity were also found for another substrate (glycerol) in *Pseudomonas putida* known as well by its activity as PGPR (Wehrmann et al., 2020).

Plants inoculated with dead bacteria did not improve barley growth, which supports work of Suarez et al. (2015) who stated that salt stress tolerance of barley is due to PGPR activity of bacteria and not an effect of nutrients provided in the dead biomass. Treatments of barley seeds inoculated with dead biomass with and without the presence of lanthanum were the same and the effect of lanthanum supporting plant growth disappeared. This observation could be explained by microprecipitation of lanthanum with the dead bacterial biomass. A similar observation was described by Kazy et al. (2006) where inactive biomass of *Pseudomonas sp.* accumulated high amount of lanthanum in a mechanism of La-biosorption.

Our third hypothesis that lanthanum improves strain E19^T rhizosphere abundance was not supported since the abundance of E19^T in rhizosphere was lower in presence of lanthanum compared to no lanthanum treatment (Fig. 3 A). We suggest that lanthanum did not improve growth of strain E19^T in the rhizosphere likely due to a rare earth element (REE) switch; a regulatory mechanism which modulate the expression of methanol dehydrogenase (*xox*F) (Yu and Chistoserdova, 2017) conditioning the primary substrate consumption in strain E19^T to methanol uptake. In pure culture E19^T showed Ladependent growth on methanol (Fig. 1). If methanol concentrations however would be very low in the rhizosphere, possibly also because of substrate competition of other methylotrophic bacteria growth of strain E19^T might occur based on other low molecular weight compounds like glucose, arabinose, mannose which have been described as typical rhizosphere compounds (Derrien et al., 2004; Sasse et al., 2018). These substrates can be utilized also in absence of lanthanum.

On roots strain E19^T was able to grow successfully and high copies numbers of bacteria were determined compared to rhizosphere (roots 4.3 x 10⁶ copy numbers vs. rhizosphere 3.2 x 10⁴ copy numbers gdw⁻¹). Treatment with lanthanum did not affect growth of strain E19^T on roots, methanol production during root growth through pectin demethylation of wall cells as described by Fall and Benson, 1996 and Galbally and Kirstine (2002) might attract E19^T. However also other root exudates enable growth of strain E19^T independent of La.

Similarly high copy numbers of $E19^{T} xoxF$ gene were quantified (roots 4.8 x 10⁶ copy numbers g⁻¹), the ecological role of *xoxF* in establishment of bacteria in/on plants roots has not been up to date elucidated, however studies of *Methylobacterium* groups on phyllosphere of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, showed a high expression of *xoxF* over *mxaF* suggesting *xoxF* gene can play an important role during plant colonization (Delmotte, 2009).

Further studies are required to clarify how strain E19[⊤] can settle on roots and establish a synergistic interaction with the plant. Various strategies for roots colonization have been described for different PGPR by Compant et al. (2010) and Gamez et al. (2019). For *Pseudomonas fluorescens* the presence of an exudated mucigel of roots (Hansen et al., 1997) has been described for attraction.

Our fourth hypothesis was confirmed, and significant differences were found in alpha diversity indices and beta diversity metrics. Seed inoculation with strain E19^T influenced bacterial alpha diversity possibly due to the ability of strain E19^T to stimulate exudates release from roots which subsequently enriches the microbial community diversity. Similar studies have reported that inoculation of plants with PGPR modified the composition and/or function of the rhizosphere bacterial community. Bhattacharyya et al. (2018), founded that inoculation of cabbage with Proteus vulgaris induced changes in community abundance. Inoculation of maize plants with Azospirillum lipoferum shaped the composition of the indigenous rhizobacterial community changing exudate patterns that result in the variability of the bacterial community as demonstrated by Baudoin et al. (2009) in a field trial. In our experiment seed treatment with dead biomass of strain E19^T also showed a higher alpha diversity metrics possibly because nutrients from inactivated bacterial biomass might have enriched the bacteria populations. For lanthanum treatments only in roots, observed ASVs index were significant different to control treatment, which might indicate a specific enrichment of methylotrophic microbiota inside the roots using methanol for their grown (Butterfield et al., 2016). Interestingly, the Observed ASVs and Shannon index are higher in rhizosphere than in roots, the differences in the habitats could imply more restrictions for the growth and proliferation of specific adapted bacteria recruited by the plant in the roots (Compant et al., 2010). Beta diversity showed that all the treatments evidenced changes in bacterial communities and the differences are linked to the effects described for alpha diversity analyses.

The taxonomical composition at the phylum level indicated that the most abundant phyla founded were *Proteobacteria*, *Actinobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, *Acidobacteria*, and *Bacteroidetes* which have also been detected by Ma and Gong (2013) in a soil affected by salt. On the taxonomic order level *Xanthomonadales* represent the abundant order between the treatments which coincide with the study carried out by Valenzuela-Encinas et al. (2009) who described the bacterial composition in three saline soil samples and found bacterial members belonging to the order *Xanthomonadales*. At the family level the dominant family was *Rhodanobacterace*.

A multinomial regression designed for differential abundance analysis was used to identify the most abundant bacterial genera associated to the treatments; from the top ten most abundant genus (Table. S5 and S6) we observed that *Rhodanobacter* was by far the most dominant associated to the treatments in both rhizosphere and roots, in rhizosphere were also predominant the genera *Granulicella* and *Caulobacter*, while for roots an uncultured bacterial sequence of order Vicinamibacterales, no genera was uniquely present in either the soil or root samples.

The first *Rhodanobacter* isolate was described as new genera and species able to catalyze the first steps of lindane (γ -HCH) degradation and was isolated from soil (Nalin et al., 1999). Many other *Rhodanobacter* species have been isolated later from soil including rhizosphere soil (Huo et al., 2018; Won et al., 2015) and the rhizoplane (Madhaiyan et al., 2014). DNA hydrolyzing activity was described for *Rhodanobacter hydrolyticus* (Dahal et al., 2018) which might contribute to abundance under treatments with dead biomass of E19^T. *Granulicella* is the largest group from family *Acidobacteriaceae*, most of *Granulicella* species were isolated from peat bogs and tundra soils (Yamada et al., 2014); some species can tolerate high NaCl concentrations being able to growth at concentrations of 3.5% (W/V)

(Pankratov and Dedysh, 2010) what allowed them the develop in the saline conditions settled for our study. Species of genus *Caulobacter* have a particular mode of reproduction where the division generate one non motile prostheca cell and one cell with a polar flagellum (Staley, 1968), and can be found in environments, such as soil, water, rhizosphere soil, roots (Gao et al., 2018; Jin et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2020). A study reported by Benidire et al. (2020) of microbiota structure of *Vicia faba* after inoculation with PGPR in the presence or absence of saline stress showed *Caulobacter* as one of the main groups in root colonization in absence of saline stress, which coincide with not dominance of *Caulobacter* in roots in our study across the treatments, moreover the plant growth promotion activity have been also examined, a novel specie of *Caulobacter* isolated from maize roots has demonstrated to promote lateral root formation in the root, and increased size and number of shoots in plants of *Arabidopsis thaliana* as described by Luo et al. (2019).

The order *Vicinamibacterales* and family *Vicinamibacteraceae* which include two species *Vicinamibacter silvestris* and *Luteitalea pratensis*, members of this order have been described as gramnegative, non-spore-forming and chemoheterotrophic (Dedysh and Yilmaz 2018); sequences of bacteria belonging to order *Vicinamibacterales* also were retrieved in a study of microbial communities of a soil cultivated with napier grass and amended with biochar (Yu et al., 2020).

In conclusion, this study is the first study carried out to understand the interaction between a plant and a xoxF-type methylotrophic bacterium with PGPR activity in presence of a rare metal like lanthanum and corroborated that seed inoculation with *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T promoted the growth on barley plants under saline conditions. Novel results include the (i) bacterial diversity in rhizosphere and roots of barley plants were higher in plants after seed inoculation with strain E19^T, and (ii) lanthanum treatment had no incidence improving PGPR activity of strain E19^T. Further studies are required to elucidate the action mechanism of strain E19^T on growth of barley.

Acknowledgements

We are very grateful to Rita Geisser-Plaum, Renate Baumann, and Bellinda Schneider for the valuable technical support. For the helping with the lanthanum measurements we are thankful to Romy Auerbach. The Universidad Nacional de Colombia- Sede Medellín is thanked for the participation in the project.

Funding

The scholarship program "Pasaporte a la ciencia" from Colombian government provided financial support of Julian Rojas

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Biology and Fertility of Soils- Supplementary Data

Effect of Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus and lanthanum on the plant growth and microbial

communities of barley grown under salt stress

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 Table S1. Physico-chemical properties of the substrate Fruhstorfer Erde Hawita typ P (HAWITA Gruppe GmbH, Vechta, Germany), the substrate used for the plant assays.

Physico-chemical parameter	Value	
pH (CaCl ₂)	5.9	
KCI	1.0 g. l ⁻¹	
Nitrogen (CaCl ₂)	120 mg l ⁻¹	
Phosphate (CAL)	120 mg l ⁻¹	
Potassium (CAL)	120 mg l ⁻¹	
Magnesium (CaCl ₂)	120 mg l ⁻¹	

Table S2. Sorption test of Lanthanum by ICP-MS analysis on non-sterile soil in triplicate replications (Fruhstorfer Erde Hawita typ P)

Sample	La (isotop 139) mg l ⁻¹
Stock 20 ppm	20.09
Stock 2 ppm	2.81
Typ P 2 ppm	0.81
Typ P 2 ppm	0.22
Typ P 2 ppm	0.28
Typ P 20 ppm	4.43
Typ P 20 ppm	4.08
Typ P 20 ppm	4.71



Figure S1. Growth of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T in freshwater media with La³⁺ (lanthanum 30 μ M) and MeOH (methanol 5%v/v). Values represent the average of triplicate replications with corresponding standard deviations, the optical density (OD₆₀₀) was used as growth parameter

Data	Anderson Darling-Value	P-value
Fresh Weigh Shoots	0.201	0.869
Fresh Weigh Roots	0.201	0.869
Dry Weigh Shoots	0.669	0.073
Dry Weigh Roots	0,504	0.189
qPCR-Copies/g Rhizosphere	0.213	0.757
qPCR Copies/g Roots	0.656	0.065
Alpha diversity Observed ASVs-Rhizosphere	0.567	0.125
Alpha diversity Shannon-Rhizosphere	0.809	0.325
Alpha diversity Observed ASVs-Roots	0.586	0.117

Table S3. Data sets evaluated by normality Anderson-Darling test prior to ANOVA analysis. Data sets with P-values less than alpha 0.05 (P<0.05) not come from a normal distribution.
Table S4. Fresh and dry weight values of leaves and roots of barley plants with inoculation of *H. diazotrophicus* (E19^T), supplemented with La³⁺ (E19^T + La), dead biomass of E19^T (DB) and mixed with La³⁺ (DB + La³⁺), single La³⁺ (La) and control without amendments. Average ± standard error from 5 replications.

Growth	E19 [⊤]	E19 ^T + La	DB	DB + La	La	Control
Parameter						
Leaves fresh						
weight (g ⁻¹)	12.35 ± 2.70	13.07 ± 2.98	12.06 ± 3.15	12.02 ± 3.16	12.48 ± 2.74	11.61 ± 3.12
Leaves dry						
weight (g-1)	1.84 ± 0.50	1.98 ± 0.52	1.79 ± 0.51	1.79 ± 0.50	1.86 ± 0.48	1.62 ± 0.46
Roots fresh						
weight (g-1)	5.72 ± 2.70	5.89 ± 2.98	4.38 ± 3.15	4.33 ± 3.16	5.76 ± 2.74	3.94 ± 3.12
Roots dry						
weight (g-1)	0.63 ± 0.50	0.69 ± 0.52	0.54 ± 0.51	0.56 ± 0.50	0.73 ± 0.48	0.52 ± 0.46



Figure S2. Quantification *xoxF*-gene of strain E19^T in roots of barley 35 days after seed inoculation and plant growth. Each value is the average (\pm SD) of five replicates measured quadruple. Bars with the same letter are not significantly different (Tukey HSD; P<0.05) among treatments after ANOVA. E19 refers to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T, E19+La to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T, E19+La to samples with addition of *H. diazotrophicus* and lanthanum, DB to sample with addition of dead biomass, DB+La to sample with addition of dead biomass and lanthanum, La to sample with addition of lanthanum, Control to samples without addition.



Figure S3. Phylogenetic distribution at class level of bacterial community from rhizosphere (A) and roots (B). Only the ten most abundant classes are shown, while the further 44 (Rhizosphere) and 35 (roots) classes were collapsed into "Others".

Table. S5 Top ten ranked taxa genus per treatment in rhizosphere.

Treatment E19

Feature ID

722f3de083fe8bcbfbd08cb6e2f5f0fe cfd3c6d979b698047f6b5d54290932a0 9cfe32c6dad0f09b722dc51ac417823c 82996ae173075afd94a55ba684a5ea59 e641e131483e297b5e69ef6fcb901bea 6a42a3bb44fb31e743bb20bddeafea4 5c502159d8025e710f37f509c20021e7 abee41022a9cce3620183c485f494d2d 288b3b0cb1cae1e302ceafc49de2f2a9 4557e11e97b0be54e2890bbc1ab17aa4

Treatment E19+La

d8fe8fce20f5033355c8b591dc70fa78 e641e131483e297b5e69ef6fcb901bea 12ddf670a2a1a4c7b562b286ba5367ac 722f3de083fe8bcbfbd08cb6e2f5f0fe 8ebaa5061aa34b1fbfa1eec3ed47983b 5493a905ede49d0f9141effc82aae995 f8cf9ff7ffc137d8486a1a6dc047bb3f abbbbce464d2e6b809867604f6876b96

dd7beb41e3d66aa46d69907586418e21 a5d3593d869d7e1e9633b970b449b9bc

Treatment Death biomass

220b5a09598e39a9f564e1e86007a46c 4cc8857431d97ba771ed1d941b15875d e8594d94fae64ee074836846f8efa5df 2ee5b26882e6c8a61f3a984af852280a d8fe8fce20f5033355c8b591dc70fa78 e3d8616809b19796ee96b370f8af563c eb4541bfc1922a99b0bc7ef1e6c06d79 179f89ab409c974dbe519f00812e5434 f1e170d5f3c8736838136a76df08d8b3 a5d3593d869d7e1e9633b970b449b9bc

Treatment .DB+La

dd7beb41e3d66aa46d69907586418e21 9cfe32c6dad0f09b722dc51ac417823c 4cc8857431d97ba771ed1d941b15875d 8c6b0c63ca6922b21c76c66539a60923 fb82af326f24c8e2492d613ac2e15271 e8594d94fae64ee074836846f8efa5df 2ee5b26882e6c8a61f3a984af852280a 85c64dfcc7e38e56239cbc7d661d6816 179f89ab409c974dbe519f00812e5434 d9c290dad797d0636e94fa8c5cdb0c49

Treatment La

28502a411927dadb7af7eea937c8a905 c7f519f50a9112eed281131d9329ca32 fe9f0ebd7aab56ce96f498bced86bf80 9e851dfbc37ff8cc2a47cd21e1cc3fe7 80201efe5481555cee510e108c297090 40f27c637cde80714a2313cf67d5f692 9bc8bf2b9ad588a867f23ee077754929 4055f3ab461b2adf7c59a5dfa410e2e6 5c502159d8025e710f37f509c20021e7 dc03a075baf013d7de0df3debbb01070

Taxonomy

Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Rhodanobacteraceae; Rhodanobacter Acidobacteriota; Vicinamibacteria; Vicinamibacterales; uncultured; uncultured Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Legionellales; Coxiellaceae; Aquicella Verrucomicrobiota; Verrucomicrobiae; Opitutales; Opitutaceae; Opitutus Acidobacteriota; Acidobacteriae; Acidobacteriales; Acidobacteriaceae_(Subgroup_1); Granulicella Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Caulobacterales; Caulobacteraceae; Caulobacter Acidobacteriota; Acidobacteriae; Solibacterales; Solibacteraceae; Caulobacter Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Acetobacterales; Acetobacteraceae; Rhodovastum Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Dongiales; Dongiaceae; Dongia Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhizobiales; Xanthobacteraceae; Bradyrhizobium

Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Salinisphaerales; Solimonadaceae; Alkanibacter Acidobacteriota; Acidobacteriae; Acidobacteriales; Acidobacteriaceae_(Subgroup_1); Granulicella Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Reyranellales; Reyranellaceae; Reyranella Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Rhodanobacteraceae; Rhodanobacter Acidobacteriota; Acidobacteriae; Solibacterales; Solibacteraceae; Candidatus_Solibacter Acidobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Micrococcales; Microbacteriaceae Dependentiae; Babeliae; Babeliales; Vermiphilaceae; Vermiphilaceae Patescibacteria; Parcubacteria; Candidatus_Kaiserbacteria; Candidatus_Kaiserbacteria; Candidatus_Kaiserbacteria Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Caulobacterales; Caulobacteraceae; Caulobacter Actinobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Micrococcales; Promicromonosporaceae; Promicromonospora

Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Rhodanobacteraceae Acidobacteriota; Vicinamibacteria; Vicinamibacterales; uncultured; uncultured Actinobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Streptomycetales; Streptomycetaceae; Streptomyces Acidobacteriota; Acidobacteriae; Acidobacteriales; Acidobacteriaceae_(Subgroup_1); Granulicella Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Salinisphaerales; Solimonadaceae; Alkanibacter Verrucomicrobiota; Verrucomicrobiae; Opitutales; Opitutaceae; Lacunisphaera Sumerlaeota; Sumerlaeia; Sumerlaeales; Sumerlaeaceae; Sumerlaea Bdellovibrionota; Oligoflexia; 0319-6G20; 0319-6G20 Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Xanthomonadaceae; Luteimonas Actinobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Micrococcales; Promicromonosporaceae; Promicromonospora

Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Caulobacterales; Caulobacteraceae; Caulobacter Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Legionellales; Coxiellaceae; g_Aquicella Acidobacteriota; Vicinamibacteria; Vicinamibacterales; uncultured; uncultured Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhizobiales; Xanthobacteraceae; Rhodopseudomonas Verrucomicrobiota; Verrucomicrobiae; Opitutales; Opitutaceae Actinobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Streptomycetales; Streptomycetaceae; Streptomyces Acidobacteriota; Actinobacteriae; Acidobacteriales; Acidobacteriaceae_(Subgroup_1); Granulicella Actinobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Opinibacteriales; Nocardioidaceae; Kribbella Bdellovibrionota; Oligoflexia; 0319-6G20; 0319-6G20; 0319-6G20 Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Caulobacterales; Caulobacteraceae; Phenylobacterium

Actinobacteriota; Thermoleophilia; Solirubrobacterales; Solirubrobacteraceae; Solirubrobacter Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhizobiales; Devosiaceae; Devosia Verrucomicrobiota; Verrucomicrobiae; Opitutales; Opitutaceae Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Legionellales; Coxiellaceae; g_Aquicella Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhodospirillales; Rhodospirillaceae; uncultured Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Caulobacterales; Caulobacteraceae; Phenylobacterium Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Acetobacterales; Acetobacteraceae; uncultured Acidobacteriota; Acidobacteriae; Acidobacterales; Acidobacteriaceae_(Subgroup_1); Granulicella Acidobacteriota; Acidobacteriae; Solibacterales; Solibacteraceae; Candidatus_Solibacter Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Burkholderiaceae; Burkholderia-Caballeronia-Paraburkholderia

Control

40ae6e0f80204fddef2b030fb08dd3ae 8d1be44b544f7271330c4a68697346c0 ed583e3562a89139a870af286de44084 96ac15fdf84ba15d752b4f098f053793 31af174831d38265000802fb9c54c974 4557e11e97b0be54e2890bbc1ab17aa4 f1e170d5f3c8736838136a76df08d8b3 6eceb3ef8939eee83bb630c6e9f63769 90e2666427144e93bed1cd32da1f2c39 2167e8f2ceb12316eff450b006e71ed3 Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Rhodanobacteraceae; Rhodanobacter Verrucomicrobiota; Verrucomicrobiae; Opitutales; Opitutaceae; Opitutus Acidobacteriota; Acidobacteriae; Acidobacteriales; Acidobacteriaceae_(Subgroup_1); Granulicella Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Caulobacterales; Caulobacteraceae Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhizobiales; Xanthobacteraceae; Rhodopseudomonas Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhizobiales; Xanthobacteraceae; Bradyrhizobium Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Xanthomonadaceae; Luteimonas Bacteroidota; Bacteroidia; Chitinophagales; Chitinophagaceae; Chitinophaga Actinobacteria; Actinobacteria; Propionibacteriales; Nocardioidaceae; Kribbella Gemmatimonadota; Gemmatimonadetes; Gemmatimonadales; Gemmatimonadaceae; uncultured

Table. S6 Top ten ranked taxa genus per treatment in roots.

Treatment E19	Taxonomy
Feature ID	
ca9958262efc0ea520e109a45bfa6281 27a614bf842ae59c6056672d720701fd	Verrucomicrobiota; Verrucomicrobiae; Pedosphaerales; Pedosphaeraceae; Pedosphaeraceae Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Rhodanobacteraceae; Rhodanobacter
76a6e03ae98d8836ca380dacd294332d 3cfc18fb09ff6ec6c12d237afd940df5 209f831103775cb6da3afb10f447fcb6	Bacteroidota; Bacteroidia; Sphingobacteriales; Sphingobacteriaceae; Pedobacter Acidobacteriota; Vicinamibacteria; Vicinamibacterales; uncultured; uncultured Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Caulobacterales; Caulobacteraceae; Brevundimonas
a008a56100a38856379e0285c7221aaf	Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhizobiales; Xanthobacteraceae; Rhodopseudomonas
ee0036283ef96e94d4b13784cbe2b5c1	Actinobacteriota; Acidimicrobiia; Microtrichales; Iamiaceae; Iamia
5689250dae3b42d639e404ae649fc0dd b00c77a07594dfa8e25854514ccb1888	Actinobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Propionibacteriales; Nocardioidaceae; Nocardioides Abditibacteriota; Abditibacteria; Abditibacteriales; Abditibacteriaceae; Abditibacterium
ec41952da0cf83f457a4a4080d8b5e1f	Patescibacteria; Parcubacteria; Candidatus_Kaiserbacteria; Candidatus_Kaiserbacteria; Candidatus_Kaiserbacteria
Treatment E19+La	
8cd5233fa58de785d0747e27b1473d12 5cefece331e3d797138525d689dcbeba d2888eeaf0a056ccdb69c75feef9d049 1dd1f1bc267a302964ae649ab647649c 165eb72f4ed1a5f9d1bbd90d49333bfd 3694db554c4bbc01f2f1134822d19079 a65f5796ad14dba33e77b80686a206e6 a6f6fa82a84b34cc25f48c8450e7b249 88e745080e90b2f90e54a8b257f94b64 8e31565fcaaa5627529016e16e5af346	Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Dongiales; Dongiaceae; Dongia Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Acetobacterales; Acetobacteraceae; uncultured Chloroflexi; Dehalococcoidia; S085; S085 Planctomycetota; Planctomycetes; Planctomycetales; Schlesneriaceae; Schlesneria Gemmatimonadota; Gemmatimonadetes; Gemmatimonadales; Gemmatimonadaceae; uncultured Firmicutes; Sulfobacillia; Sulfobacillales; Sulfobacillaceae; Sulfobacillus Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; uncultured; uncultured Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Rhodanobacteraceae; Rhodanobacter Sumerlaeota; Sumerlaeia; Sumerlaeales; Sumerlaeaceae; Iamia
Treatment Death Biomass	
27a614bf842ae59c6056672d720701fd 3cfc18fb09ff6ec6c12d237afd940df5 90747717ff3ade88dea933c904d0f6f2 02ca4e3cd35a5ac9e758ffe99c2ebdf5 5aee2ce96031a900dc66fb28cc5897d6	Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Rhodanobacteraceae; Rhodanobacter Acidobacteriota; Vicinamibacteria; Vicinamibacterales; uncultured; uncultured Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Salinisphaerales; Solimonadaceae; Alkanibacter Gemmatimonadota; Gemmatimonadetes; Gemmatimonadales; Gemmatimonadaceae; uncultured Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Xanthomonadaceae; Luteimonas
ddbe1f93ec71e195ea91b2ecfdd21e23	Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Xanthomonadaceae; Pseudoxanthomonas
76a6e03ae98d8836ca380dacd294332d	Bacteroidota; Bacteroidia; Sphingobacteriales; Sphingobacteriaceae; Pedobacter
2a8ab5c1bf2d8b56026d183ac75c0f9e	Acidobacteriota; Acidobacteriae; Acidobacteriales; Acidobacteriaceae_(Subgroup_1); Granulicella
c1abf51c267237256993ac5a591a4aca	Actinobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Propionibacteriales; Nocardioidaceae; Aeromicrobium
35f62206ebe4a0845822a88e230d78ed	Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhodospirillales; uncultured; uncultured

Treatment DB + La

27a614bf842ae59c6056672d720701fd 354d85911f43d9fbc72d1a58337b883f 9af5c02f01fbca4fc803869f3bd25b90 0b37066af79eac2c068a0ddf79cf0fbf 3cfc18fb09ff6ec6c12d237afd940df5 c4fd969d3b59f48f5ff85ec5487946cc eb912b6a8cdf34585299f27b3ea573c3 79e6fecfd64ce85be66774789481edb7 262f9d9c05883a19d56776389266069b 3ac0e153f0a77e63b1e7ab931dd73a68 Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Rhodanobacteraceae; Rhodanobacter Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Rhodanobacteraceae; Dyella Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Nitrosomonadaceae; Nitrosospira Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Salinisphaerales; Solimonadaceae; Alkanibacter Acidobacteriota; Vicinamibacteria; Vicinamibacterales; uncultured; uncultured Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Reyranellales; Reyranellaceae; Reyranella Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Caulobacterales; Caulobacteraceae; Phenylobacterium Acidobacteriota; Acidobacteriae; Acidobacteriales; Acidobacteriaceae_(Subgroup_1); Granulicella Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Xanthomonadaceae; Luteimonas Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Legionellales; Legionella

Treatment La

b0f3c9c756d25481280498c7c682b085 bef0ea6a4379edb4874c8fcd55d1aace 8363af5c48b88b9d7e127bd9b3b0ee17 7bc7e6881183ae9794629f048cf63ce5 958fc4d7612c3b84c8853f215d2ca2f9 a008a56100a38856379e0285c7221aaf ca9958262efc0ea520e109a45bfa6281 cd8a58fe596daa1c15855e36de32aae8 ce3463c6cab44347c61b5fa79a48bb65 ee0036283ef96e94d4b13784cbe2b5c1 Acidobacteriota; Blastocatellia; Blastocatellales; Blastocatellaceae; uncultured Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Alcaligenaceae Verrucomicrobiota; Verrucomicrobiae; Opitutales; Opitutaceae; Cephaloticoccus; Acidobacteriota; Vicinamibacteria; Vicinamibacterales; uncultured; uncultured Bacteroidota; Bacteroidia; Sphingobacteriales; Sphingobacteriaceae; Pedobacter Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhizobiales; Xanthobacteraceae; Rhodopseudomonas Verrucomicrobiota; Verrucomicrobiae; Pedosphaerales; Pedosphaeraceae; Pedosphaeraceae Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhizobiales; Xanthobacteraceae; Nitrobacter Bacteroidota; Bacteroidia; Cytophagales; Microscillaceae; uncultured Actinobacteriota; Acidimicrobiia; Microtrichales; Iamiaceae; Iamia

Control

e1e80cb02e4f8e3997cd124d3fcdc900 c78b590810def61034e0e1653e3400e6 01dc497fa9db2a4238044630a9598628 5aee2ce96031a900dc66fb28cc5897d6 209f831103775cb6da3afb10f447fcb6 9b5facd4baa2f80a0cb44762b134de10 a32cb9f206aac5984238431d2e61ffe6 c1abf51c267237256993ac5a591a4aca 7be716d1ee84aac44f591723e811542c f37c3b9161b02a42696ae6c896df2909 Actinobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Propionibacteriales; Nocardioidaceae; Nocardioides Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Rhodanobacteraceae; Rhodanobacter Verrucomicrobiota; Verrucomicrobiae; Opitutales; Opitutaceae; Opitutus Proteobacteria; Gammaproteobacteria; Xanthomonadales; Xanthomonadaceae; Luteimonas Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Caulobacterales; Caulobacteraceae; Brevundimonas Actinobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Propionibacteriales; Nocardioidaceae; Kribbella Sumerlaeota; Sumerlaeia; Sumerlaeales; Sumerlaeaceae; Sumerlaea Actinobacteriota; Actinobacteria; Propionibacteriales; Nocardioidaceae; Aeromicrobium Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Rhizobiales; Xanthobacteraceae; Bradyrhizobium Proteobacteria; Alphaproteobacteria; Reyranellales; Reyranella

CHAPTER 3.

Spirosoma endbachense sp. nov., isolated from a natural salt meadow

Published in:

International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF SYSTEMATIC AND EVOLUTIONARY MICROBIOLOGY TAXONOMIC DESCRIPTION Rojas et al., Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol. 2021;71:004601 DOI 10.1099/ijsem.0.004601



Spirosoma endbachense sp. nov., isolated from a natural salt meadow

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Abstract

A Gram-stain-negative bacterium, designated I-24^T, was isolated from soil of a natural salt meadow. Strain I-24^T was aerobic, non-motile, rod-shaped, catalase-positive, oxidase-positive and grew optimally at pH 7 and 25 °C. Comparative 16S rRNA gene analysis indicated that strain I-24^T has closest similarities to *Spirosoma agri* KCTC 52727^T (95.9%) and *Spirosoma terrae* KCTC 52035^T (95.5%). Strain I-24^T contained summed feature 3 ($C_{16:1} \omega 7c/C_{16:1} \omega 6c$) and $C_{16:1} \omega 5c$ as the major fatty acids, the predominant respiratory quinone was menaquinone MK-7, and the major polar lipids were phosphatidylethanolamine as well as an unidentified phosphoaminolipid. The draft genome of strain I-24^T consists of 10326072 base pairs with 9153 predicted coding sequences and a G+C content of 47.7 mol%. Clear distinctions between strain I-24^T and *S. agri* KCTC 52727^T or *S. terrae* KCTC 52035^T were shown in the pairwise average nucleotide identity results with values of 76.71 and 74.01%, respectively. Moreover, the digital DNA–DNA relatedness values to these strains were 20.8 and 19.0%. Based on its phenotypic, genotypic and chemotaxonomic characteristics, strain I-24^T represents a novel species of the genus *Spirosoma*, for which the name *Spirosoma endbachense* sp. nov. is proposed. The type strain is I-24^T (DSM 111055^T=KCTC 72613^T).

INTRODUCTION

The family Cytophagaceae comprises 25 genera and is considered to be one of the largest families in the phylum Bacteroidetes [1]. Among these genera, the genus Spirosoma [2-5] has 42 published species of which 40 species have valid names [6] including ten recently described species: Spirosoma telluris HMF3257^T, Spirosoma arboris HMF4905^T [7], Spirosoma agri S7-3-3^T [8], Spirosoma terrae 15J9-4^T [9], Spirosoma jeollabukense S2-3-6^T [10], Spirosoma pollinicola HA7^T [11], Spirosoma humi S7-4-1^T [12], Spirosoma horti S7-3-19^T [13], Spirosoma harenae S7-3-19^T [14] and Spirosoma pomorum S7-2-11^T [15]. Species that belong to the genus Spirosoma have been isolated from a wide range of mostly oxic environments such as air, dust and water. Characteristics that are predominant in this genus include Gram-negative staining, yellow to orange colony colour, diversity of morphologies such as rods, coils and filaments, phosphatidylethanolamine as the major polar lipid, menaquinone of type 7 (MK-7) as the predominant quinone, summed feature 3 ($C_{16:1}\omega7c/C_{16:1}\omega6c$), $C_{16:1}\omega5c$, iso- $C_{15:0}$ and $C_{16:0}$ as major fatty acids, and DNA G+C content from 47.2 to 57.0 mol% [8, 9, 13, 15].

ISOLATION AND CULTIVATION

Strain I-24^T was isolated from a soil sample collected in a natural salt meadow near Bad Endbach, Hessen, Germany (50° 45′ 54.9″ N 8° 26′ 41.2″ E) as a part of an investigation on bacteria with methylotrophic activity. For enrichment, 3 g soil sample was suspended in 30 ml liquid freshwater media [16] supplemented with 0.5% (v/v) methanol and incubated on a shaker at 110 r.p.m. and 25 °C. After several transfers (10%) in new liquid medium, methanol utilizing bacteria enriched cultures were transferred on solid fresh water media containing methanol 0.5% (v/v) and plates were incubated at 28 °C for 5 days. Single colonies with different morphologies appeared on the plates and a white round colony was selected and purified by several rounds of fractioned streaking. The uniformity of the cell morphology was confirmed by microscopic observation (×1000 magnification; Zeiss Axioplan 2).

Keywords: Bacteroidetes; methanol; salt meadow; Spirosoma.

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Abbreviations: ANI, average nucleotide identity; dDDH, digital DNA–DNA hybridization; LB, Luria–Bertani; MK-7, menaquinone 7; NA, nutrient agar; R2A, Reasoner's 2A.

The GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ accession number for the 16S rRNA gene sequence of strain I-24⁺ is MN657228. The whole-genome shotgun BioProject number is PRJNA588685 with the accession number CP045997.

Six supplementary figures and one supplementary table are available with the online version of this article.

Thereafter, the white colony was transferred to Reasoner's 2A (R2A) agar (Oxoid) medium and incubated again under the same conditions. On R2A agar medium, yellow round colonies were observed and designated as $I-24^{T}$. Strain $I-24^{T}$ was routinely cultured in R2A medium at 25 °C and stored in 20% glycerol (v/v) suspension at -80 °C. *S. agri* KCTC 52727^T and *S. terrae* KCTC 52035^T were used for comparisons of morphological, physiological and biochemical properties with the novel isolated strain $I-24^{T}$.

16S rRNA GENE PHYLOGENY

For the phylogenetic analysis, genomic DNA was extracted using the method of Pitcher *et al.* [17]. The 16S rRNA gene was amplified by PCR using the primers EUB9F–EUB1492R as described by Kampmann *et al.* [18]. Sequencing of both strands was done by LGC Genomics, forward and reverse reads were aligned, and a consensus sequence was built with MEGA 7.0 for retrieving a sequence of 1374 bp. The software toolset DECIPHER 2.13.1 [19] was used to prove that the sequence is not chimeric. Next relative species were identified using the EzBioCloud server [20] and the BLAST sequence analysis tool of the National Center for Biotechnology Information [21].

The recovered sequences of related taxa were aligned with the sequence of strain I-24^T using the online tool SINA (version 1.2.11) [22]. The aligned sequences were merged with the prealigned 16S rRNA gene database LPTs132 (June 2018) using ARB (version 6.0.6). Phylogenetic trees using the maximum-likelihood, maximum-parsimony and neighbour-joining algorithms were reconstructed using the corresponding ARB tools with 1000 replicates. The tree calculated with the neighbour-joining algorithm was corrected using the Jukes–Cantor correlation model and a termini filter between positions 67 and 1353 (*Escherichia coli* numbering) [23] of the 16S rRNA gene sequences was applied. Maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony trees were calculated using the algorithms RAxML and Phylip DNAPARS integrated in the ARB program, respectively.

Sequence similarity analysis of 16S rRNA gene using the EzBio-Cloud database and the ARB program showed that strain I-24^T has the highest pairwise gene similarity to validly published species S. agri KCTC 52727T (95.9%) [8] and S. terrae KCTC 52035^T (95.5%) [9]. Another close relative to strain I-24^T is strain BT328 with a pairwise similarity of 97%. According to Stackebrandt and Ebers [24], strains sharing less than 98.7% pairwise gene similarity are considered different species; therefore indicating that I-24^T may represent a potential novel species of the genus Spirosoma. Based on the phylogenetic trees (maximumlikelihood, maximum-parsimony and neighbour-joining) and sequence similarity analysis with EzBioCloud, S. agri KCTC 52727^T and S. terrae KCTC 52035^T were selected as reference strains. The phylogenetic trees (Figs 1, S1 and S2, available in the online version of this article) revealed the position of I-24^T in the cluster of the genus Spirosoma close to the other species mentioned above.

GENOME FEATURES

From axenic cultures of strains I-24^T grown for 48 h in R2A liquid medium, high molecular weight DNA was isolated using the method of Pitcher et al. [17] and sequenced using the Miseq V3 sequencer system (Illumina) at LGC Genomics. The reads were assembled with SPAdes 3.13.1 [25]. Open reading frames and gene annotations were done with the GenDB platform [26]. Digital DNA-DNA hybridization (dDDH) between the genome sequence of strain I-24^T and the genome sequences of the reference strains (PRJNA590616 and PRJNA590610) were determinate using the Genometo-Genome Distance Calculator (http://ggdc.dsmz.de/ distcalc2.php) [27] with default settings. Genome completeness and contamination were estimated with CheckM [28]. Comparative genome analysis such as average nucleotide identity (ANI) scores, as well as the calculation of core and pan genomes and singletons were performed at the online platform EDGAR [29] using default settings. Furthermore, identification of secondary metabolite biosynthesis gene clusters was performed using antiSMASH [30].

The draft genome of strain I-24^T consisted of 10326072 base pairs of which 9153 were predicted as coding sequences. The content of G+C was 47.7 mol%, the completeness value was >99% and the contamination was 1.19%. The 16S rRNA gene sequence retrieved by PCR was identical to the single copy of 16S rRNA gene contained in the draft genome of strain I-24^T. The ANI values of strain I-24^T to S. agri KCTC 52727^T and S. terrae KCTC 52035^T were 76.71 and 74.01%, respectively (Fig. S4); the dDDH value of I-24^T with S. agri KCTC 52727^T was 20.8% and for S. terrae KCTC 52035^T 19%. These values [<96% (ANI) and <70% (dDDH)] were too low to assign the strains to the same genomic species [31]. This statement also applies equally to strain BT328 whose dDDH value was 49.60% and the ANI value was 92.04% (Fig. S3) compared to strain I-24^T. The comparative analysis between the genomes of I-24^T, S. agri KCTC 52727^T and S. terrae KCTC 52035^T showed 3731 core genes, 11866 genes in the pangenome and 3443 singleton coding sequences for strain I-24^T (Fig. S4). Calculation of a maximum-likelihood tree with 1504 shared genes of the genome of I-24^T and other Spirosoma species genomes also confirmed the position of I-24^T next to S. agri KCTC 52727^T, S. terrae KCTC 52035^T and strain BT328 (Fig. 2). Secondary metabolite clusters annotated in antiSMASH from I-24^T were ladderane, terpene, polyketide synthase type I and III (T1PKS, T3PKS) and non-ribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS) (Fig. S5).

PHYSIOLOGY

Gram-staining of strain I-24^T was performed according to Gerhardt *et al.* [32]. Cell morphology of cells grown for 3 days in R2A liquid culture at 25 °C was assessed by light microscopy using a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope with ×1000 magnification. The cell motility was evaluated by the microscopic hanging drop technique. Catalase activity was determined by the production of bubbles in 3% v/v H₂O₂ and oxidase activity was tested with oxidase



Fig. 1. Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree, based on 16S rRNA gene sequences, showing the phylogenetic position of strain I-24^T among related members in the genus *Spirosoma* and other members of the family *Cytophagaceae*. Bootstraps values (based on 1000 replications) greater than 70% are shown at the branch points. Filled black points indicate that the corresponding nodes were also recovered in trees generated with neighbour-joining and maximum-parsimony algorithms. The tree was rooted using type strains of *Sphingobacterium, Flammeovirga, Flexithrix* and *Adhaeribacter*. Bar, 0.10 substitutions per nucleotide position.



Fig. 2. Maximum-likelihood tree based on 1504 shared genes of the genomes showing the phylogenetic position of strain I-24^T among related members in the genus *Spirosoma*. Bar, 0.01 substitutions per nucleotide position.

test strips (Merck). The presence of flexirubin pigments was assessed by the KOH test proposed by Bernardet et al. [33]. Growth was tested on R2A agar, Luria-Bertani agar (LB; Sigma), nutrient agar (NA; Difco) and CASO agar (Roth). Growth at pH 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 was assessed in R2A broth (LabM) adjusted with the following buffers (final concentration 100 mM) citrate (pH 4-5), phosphate (pH 6-8) and Tris-hydrochloride (pH 9). Growth was checked at temperatures of 4, 15, 20, 25, 30, 37 and 40 °C on R2A agar medium. Salt tolerance was examined by observing growth in R2A agar medium containing 1.0, 2.0 and 5.0% (w/v) NaCl after 7 days of incubation. Anaerobic growth of I-24^T was tested for 7 days on R2A agar medium at 25 °C using the Anaerocult A system (Merck). Enzyme activities, assimilation of carbon sources and other biochemical characteristics were determined using API ZIM, API 20 NE and API 50CH strips following the manufacturer instructions (bioMérieux).

Cells of strain I-24^T were Gram-stain-negative, aerobic, non-spore-forming, rod-shaped (0.8–1.2 µm wide and 3–5 µm long), non-motile, catalase-positive and oxidase-positive. After 3 days of growth on R2A agar medium at 25 °C, colonies were yellow-pigmented, circular and slimy. The strain grew well on R2A agar, NA and LB agar medium but not on CASO agar medium. The pH and temperature ranges for growth were pH 6–8 (optimum at pH 7) and 15–25 °C (optimum at 25 °C). No growth was observed below 15 °C and over 25 °C nor at pH below pH 6 and over pH 8.

Strain I-24^T could not grow on R2A agar medium with more than 1% NaCl. Flexirubin-type pigments were absent in strain I-24^T. In API 20NE tests, β -glucosidase activity was positive but arginine dihydrolase, glucose fermentation, indole production, nitrate reduction and urease activity were negative. Test results were positive for glucose, *N*-acetyl-glucosamine and maltose assimilation but negative for other substrates.

In API 50 CH tests, acid was produced from D,L-arabinose, D-ribose, D,L-xylose, D-galactose, D-glucose, D-fructose, D-mannose, L-rhamnose, methyl a-D-mannopyranoside, methyl α-D-glucopyranoside, N-acetyl-glucosamine, arbutin, amygdalin, aesculin, salicin, cellobiose, maltose, lactose, melibiose, sucrose, trehalose, inulin, melezitose, raffinose, gentiobiose, turanose, D-lyxose, D-tagatose, D-fucose and L-fucose. In the API ZIM kit, strain I-24^T was positive for alkaline phosphatase, esterase (C4), esterase lipase (C8), leucine arylamidase, valine arylamidase, cysteine arylamidase, α-chymotrypsin, acid phosphatase, α-galactosidase. naphthol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase, β-galactosidase, α-glucosidase, β-glucosidase, N-acetyl-βglucosaminidase and a-mannosidase. The morphological, physiological and biochemical characteristics that could be used to distinguish strain I-24^T from its closest relatives S. agri KCTC 52727^T and S. terrae KCTC 52035^T are shown in Table 1.

CHEMOTAXONOMY

Cellular fatty acids, respiratory quinones as well as polar lipid composition of strain I-24^T and the reference strains were analysed using cultures grown in R2A medium at 30 °C for 3 days in shaken flasks. Centrifuged and freeze-dried cultures were sent to the identification service of the Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen (DSMZ) for analyses. Cellular fatty acid composition was analysed with conversion to fatty acid methyl ester by saponification, methylation and extraction using the method of Kuykendall et al. [34] and a modification of the method of Miller [24]. Subsequently, fatty acid methyl esters were analysed by gas chromatography and identified with the Sherlock Microbial Identification System (MIDI, Microbial ID). Respiratory quinones were extracted using the method described by Tindall et al. [35, 36] from freeze-dried cells using hexane and then purified and analysed by HPLC using a reverse-phase column recording absorption spectra. Ubiquinones were read at 270 nm and menaquinones at 326 nm. Polar lipids were recovered using a chloroform-methanol-0.3% NaCl mixture solution at 1:2:0.8 (v/v/v) [37]. The polar lipids were concentrated in chloroform phase adjusting the mixture ratio solution by 1:1:0.9 (v/v/v) and separated by two-dimensional silica gel TLC [first direction, chloroform-methanol-water (65:25:4, v/v/v); second direction, chloroform-methanolacetic acid-water (80:12:15:4, v/v/v/v)]. Total lipid material and specific functional groups were revealed using spray reagents specific dodecamolybdophosphoric acid (total lipids), Zinzadze reagent (phosphate), ninhydrin (free amino groups), periodate-Schiff (a-glycols), Dragendorff reagent (quaternary nitrogen) and a-naphthol-sulphuric acid (glycolipids) according to the procedure described by Tindall et al. [38].

On R2A medium the major fatty acids of I-24^T were summed feature 3 ($C_{16:1}\omega7c$ and/or $C_{16:1}\omega6c$; 36.07%), $C_{16:1}\omega5c$ (18.34%), $C_{15:0}$ iso (11.65%) and a moderate amount of $C_{16:0}$ (6.34%) (Table 2). A difference between I-24^T and its closest relatives could be observed in the low percentages of $C_{15:0}$ anteiso (3.45%), $C_{13:0}$ iso (0.73%), $C_{14:0}$ iso (0.91%) and summed feature 8 (0.71%), traces of $C_{17:0}$ 2-OH and no detected C_{19:0} anteiso in I-24^T. The major polar lipids of the isolate were phosphatidylethanolamine (also detected in other Spirosoma species [8, 9]), six unidentified lipids, three unidentified aminolipids, one glycolipid, five unidentified phospholipids and an unidentified phosphoaminolipid (Fig. S6). It is important to note that glycolipid was found in I-24^T, S. agri KCTC 52727^T and Spirosoma terrae KCTC 52035^T but not in S. migulaei KCTC 52028^T, S. pulveris KCTC 42550^T and other species of Spirosoma, as well as aminolipid, was detected in I-24^T, S. agri KCTC 52727^T, S. terrae KCTC 52035^T but not in S. migulaei KCTC 52028^T (Table S1). MK-7 was the predominant isoprenoid quinone of strain I-24^T and its relatives which is also the major respiratory quinone in other members of the genus Spirosoma [8, 9, 39]. In addition, MK-8 was detected in the closest relatives S. agri KCTC 52727^T and S. terrae KCTC 52035^T.

Table 1. Differential characteristics of strain I-24^T and its nearest relatives

Strains: 1, I-24^T; 2, Spirosoma agri KCTC 52727^T, 3, Spirosoma terrae KCTC 52035^T, +, Positive; –, negative. All data were obtained in this study, except the DNA G+C content for S. agri KCTC 52727^T [4] and S. terrae KCTC 52035^T [5]. All strains were Gram-stain-negative, non-motile, oxidase-positive and catalase-positive.

Characteristics	1	2	3
Isolation source	Soil	Soil	Soil
Cell shape	Rods	Rods	Rods
Growth on/at/with:			
CASO	-		+
Temperature range (°C) (optimum)	15-25 (25)	15-30 (25)	15-37 (25)
pH range (optimum)	6-8 (7)	6-8 (7)	6-8 (7)
NaCl (%)	0-1	0-2	0-2
Methanol	+	-	Ξ.
Assimilation of (API 20NE):			
D-Mannose	-		+
Potassium gluconate	-	-	+
Acid production from (API 50CH):			
L-Arabinose, L-xylose, D-tagatose	+	-	+
L-Rhamnose, D-tagatose, D-fucose, L-fucose	+	-	-
Raffinose, melezitose	+	+	
Enzyme activity (API ZYM):			
Trypsin	_	_	+
DNA G+C content (mol%)	47.7	50.5	47.4

PROTOLOGUE

According to the results of our polyphasic approach it was demonstrated that strain $I-24^{T}$ belongs to the genus *Spirosoma*. Based on its distinctive phenotypic characteristics and its phylogenetic distances from other members of the genus *Spirosoma*, it is suggested that strain $I-24^{T}$ represents a novel species, for which the name *Spirosoma endbachense* sp. nov. is proposed.

DESCRIPTION OF SPIROSOMA ENDBACHENSE SP. NOV.

Spirosoma endbachense (end.bach.en'se. N.L. neut. adj. *endbachense* pertaining to Bad Endbach, a town in Germany, where the strain was isolated).

Cells are Gram-stain-negative, non-motile, aerobic, rodshaped, non-spore-forming, $0.8-1.2 \,\mu$ m wide and $3-5.0 \,\mu$ m long. Colonies are circular, convex, smooth, slimy and yellow after 3 days of incubation at 25 °C on R2A agar. Growth occurs at 15–25 °C and pH 6–8, with optimal growth 25 °C and pH 7. Cells tolerate 0.5 and 1% NaCl, but not 2% NaCl. Cells are positive for aesculin, β -galactosidase, oxidase and catalase but negative for indole production and nitrate reduction. Positive for *N*-acetyl-glucosamine, D-glucose and maltose assimilation, but none of the other substrates in the API 20 NE kit. In the API 50 CH kit, acid is produced from D,L-arabinose, D-ribose, D,L-xylose, D-galactose, D-glucose, D-fructose, D-mannose, L-rhamnose, methyl a-D-mannopyranoside, methyl a-Dglucopyranoside, N-acetyl-glucosamine, arbutin, amygdalin, aesculin, salicin, cellobiose, maltose, lactose, melibiose, sucrose, trehalose, inulin, melezitose, raffinose, gentiobiose, turanose, D-lyxose, D-tagatose, D-fucose and L-fucose. In the API ZIM kit, strain I-24^T is positive for alkaline phosphatase, esterase (C4), esterase lipase (C8), leucine arylamidase, valine arylamidase, cysteine arylamidase, α-chymotrypsin, phosphatase, naphthol-AS-BI-phosphohydrolase, acid α -galactosidase, β -galactosidase, α -glucosidase, β -glucosidase, N-acetyl-β-glucosaminidase and α-mannosidase, but negative for the other substrates. The major cellular fatty acids are summed feature 3 (C_{_{16:1}}\omega7c/C_{_{16:1}}\omega6c), C_{_{16:1}}\omega5c and C_{15:0} iso. The predominant respiratory quinone is MK-7. Phosphatidylethanolamine is the main polar lipid. The type strain, I-24^T (DSM 111055^T=KCTC 72613^T), was isolated from a soil sample collected in a natural salt meadow near Bad Endbach, Hessen, Germany (50° 45' 54.9" N 8° 26' 41.2" E). The DNA G+C content is 47.7 mol% (draft genome data). The GenBank/EMBK/DDBJ accession number of the 16S rRNA gene sequence is MN657228, the whole-genome Table 2. Major fatty acids composition of strain I-24 $^{\scriptscriptstyle \rm T}$ and its close relatives

Strains: 1, I-24^T; 2, *Spirosoma agri* KCTC 52727^T, 3, *Spirosoma terrae* KCTC 52035^T. All data were obtained in the present study. Strains were cultured in R2A liquid medium on a rotary shaker at 25°C. Values are percentages of total fatty acids.

Fatty acids	1	2	3
C _{15:0} iso	11.65	7.72	12.83
C _{15:0} iso 3-OH	2.79	2.04	2.32
C _{15:0} anteiso	3.45	10.51	8.16
C _{16:0} iso	1.18	0.38	0.50
$C_{16:1}\omega 5c$	18.34	19.76	22.51
C _{16:0}	6.34	5.66	4.72
С _{16:0} 3-ОН	2.68	2.75	1.92
C _{17:0} iso	1.55	0.69	1.03
C _{17:0} iso 3-OH	9.87	4.02	8.19
C _{17:0} anteiso	0.55	3.56	1.95
Summed feature 3*	36.07	37.89	31.37

*Summed features contain two or three fatty acids that could not be separated by GLC with the MIDI system. Summed feature 3 comprises $C_{16:1} \omega^7 C/C_{16:1} \omega \delta c$.

shotgun BioProject number is PRJNA588685 with the accession number CP045997.

Funding information

The scholarship programme 'Pasaporte a la ciencia' from the Colombian Government provided financial support to J.R.

Acknowledgements

We are very grateful to Bellinda Schneider for the valuable technical support. We thank the GenDB-Team of the Institute of Bioinformatics and System Biology (JLU Giessen) for the assembly of the genome.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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Supplement Material

International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology Spirosoma endbachense sp. nov., isolated from a natural salt meadow

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Fig. S1. Maximum-parsimony phylogenetic tree based on 16S rRNA gene sequences, showing the phylogenetic position of strain I-24^T among related members in the genus *Spirosoma* and other members of the family *Cytophagaceae*. Bootstraps values (based on 1000 replications) greater than 70% are showed at the branch points. Filled black points indicate that the corresponding nodes were also recovered in trees generated with maximum-likelihood and neighbor-joining algorithms. The tree was rooted using type strains of *Sphingobacterium*, *Flammeovirga*, *Flexithrix* and *Adhaeribacter*. Bar: 0.10 substitutions per nucleotide position.



Fig. S2. Neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree based on 16S rRNA gene sequences (a-termini filter between positions 67 and 1353, *Escherichia coli* numbering), showing the phylogenetic position of strain I-24^T among related members in the genus *Spirosoma* and other members of the family *Cytophagaceae*. Bootstraps values (based on 1000 replications) greater than 70% are showed at the branch points. Filled black points indicate that the corresponding nodes were also recovered in trees generated with maximum-likelihood and maximum-parsimony algorithms. The tree was rooted using type strains of *Sphingobacterium, Flammeovirga, Flexithrix* and *Adhaeribacter*. Bar: 0.10 substitutions per nucleotide position.



Fig. S3. ANI (Average Nucleotide Identity) mean values matrix heatmap between strain I-24^T, *S. agri* KCTC 52727^T and *S. terrae* KCTC 52035^T.



Fig. S4. Venn diagram depicted the number of coding sequences shared between I-24^T, *S. agri* KCTC 52727^T and *S. terrae* KCTC 52035^T.

antismash version 5.0.0				
Select genomic region: Overview 1321.1 1386.1 2106.1 2515.1				
Identified secondary metabolite regions				
c01321_fig666 (original name was: fig 66666666.466251.peg.3237)				
RegionTypeFromToMost similar known clusterSimilarityRegion 1321.1ladderane II11,218				
c01386_fig666 (original name was: fig 66666666666666251.peg.3448)				
RegionTypeFromToMost similar known clusterSimilarityRegion 1386.1terpene Id11,155				
c02106_fig666 (original name was: fig 66666666.466251.peg.5502)				
RegionTypeFromToMost similar known clusterSimilarityRegion 2106.1T3PKS II11,209				
c02514_fig666 (original name was: fig 66666666.466251.peg.6582)				
RegionTypeFromToMost similar known clusterSimilarityRegion 2514.1NRPS Id14,107				
c02515_fig666 (original name was: fig 66666666666666683)				
RegionTypeFromToMost similar known clusterSimilarityRegion 2515.1T1PKS ID, NRPS-like ID16,705				

Fig. S5. Predicted gene clusters of secondary metabolites biosynthesis annotated in antiSMASH against strain I-24^T draft genome. Analyses showed the identification of 4 clusters involved in biosynthesis of ladderane, terpene, polyketide synthase type I and III (T1PKS, T3PKS) and non-ribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS)



Fig. S6. Polar lipids profile of strains **A.** I-24^T **B.** *S. agri* KCTC 52727^T and **C.** *S. terrae* KCTC 52035^T separated by two-dimensional silica gel thin layer chromatography. L, unidentified lipid; AL, unidentified aminolipid; PL, unidentified phospholipid; GL, glycolipid; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PNL, phosphoaminolipid. Total lipid material and specific functional groups were revealed using spray reagents specific dodecamolybdophosphoric acid (total lipids), Zinzadze reagent (phosphate), ninhydrin (free amino groups), periodate-Schiff (α -glycols), Dragendorff reagent (quaternary nitrogen) and α – naphthol-sulphuric acid (glycolipids).

	PE	GL	PL	AL	APL	L	Reference
<i>I-24</i> ^T	+	+	+	+	+	+	*
Spirosoma agri	+	+	+	+	+	+	*
Spirosoma terrae	+	+	+	+	+	+	*
Spirosoma migulaei	+	-	+	-	+	+	[1]
Spirosoma pulveris	+	-	+	+	+	+	[2]
Spirosoma swuense	+	+	+	+	+	+	[3]
Spirosoma aerophilum	+	-	-	+	+	+	[4]
Spirosoma rigui	+	-	-	+	-	+	[5]
Spirosoma litoris	+	-	+	-	+	+	[6]
Spirosoma koreense	+	-	+	+	+	+	[7]
Spirosoma linguale	+	-	-	+	-	+	[8]

Table S1. Polar lipids profile of strain I-24^T compared to nearest *Spirosoma* species. L, unidentified lipid; AL, unidentified aminolipid; PL, unidentified phospholipid; GL, glycolipid; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PNL, phosphoaminolipid. *Data obtained in this study

Spirosoma	-	-	+	+	+	+	[9]
jeollabukense							

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CHAPTER 4.

Draft Genome Sequences of Spirosoma agri KCTC 52727 and Spirosoma terrae KCTC 52035

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GENOME SEQUENCES





Draft Genome Sequences of Spirosoma agri KCTC 52727 and Spirosoma terrae KCTC 52035

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ABSTRACT Spirosoma agri 57-3-3 (KCTC 52727) and Spirosoma terrae 15J9-4 (KCTC 52035) are type strains isolated from an apple orchard and beach soil in South Korea, respectively; their draft genome sequences were assembled and annotated. The draft genome sequences of $57-3-3^{T}$ (7,239,915 bp; G+C content, 50.6%) and $15J9-4^{T}$ (7,551,610 bp; G+C content, 47.3%) are reported.

S*pirosoma* is the largest genus in the family *Cytophaga*, class *Bacteroidetes*. Recently described species have been isolated from several environmental habitats, such as air, dust, water, and soil (1–4).

Typical characteristics of the group members are the following: diversity of morphology such as rods, coils, and filaments; Gram-negative staining; colonies yellow to orange pigmented; phosphatidylethanolamine as the major polar lipid; MK7 as the major menaquinone; summed feature 3 ($C_{16:1} \omega 7c/C_{16:1} \omega 6c$) as the major fatty acid; and DNA G+C content range of 47.2 to 57.0 mol% (2, 3, 5–8).

Spirosoma agri S7-3-3^T was described by Li et al. (3) and Spirosoma terrae 15J9-4^T by Ten et al. (2), and both were validly published according to the International Code of Nomenclature of Prokaryotes (9). Both strains are Gram-negative, nonmotile, rodshaped bacteria initially isolated from apple orchard soil in Gyeongsangnam, South Korea, and from soil collected on Jeju Island, South Korea, respectively, using a dilution plating method on R2A agar (Difco). Both grow optimally in R2A medium at 25°C and pH 7.0. According to the 16S rRNA gene similarities, the closest relatives to *S. agri* S7-3-3^T were *Spirosoma rigui* WPCB118^T (94.3%) and *Spirosoma pulveris* JSH5-14^T (93.9%) (3), and those for *Spirosoma terrae* 15J9-4^T were *Spirosoma panaciterrae* Gsoil 1519^T (94.2%) and *Spirosoma luteolum* 16F6E^T (94.1%) (2).

S. agri S7-3-3^T (KCTC 52727) and S. terrae 15J9-4^T (KCTC 52035) were purchased from the Korean Collection for Type Cultures (KCTC). The total genomic DNA for each strain was obtained using the method of Pitcher et al. (10) after growing the colony in R2A liquid medium for 48 h at 25°C. Two paired-end libraries were sequenced using 300-bp paired-end chemistry on a MiSeq v3 sequencer system (Illumina) at LGC Genomics (Germany). The sequencing yielded 1,780,390 raw reads for Spirosoma agri S7-3-3^T and 1,350,368 for Spirosoma terrae 15J9-4^T, and quality control of the reads was assessed with FastQC (11). The reads were assembled with SPAdes v3.13.1 (12) using k-mer values of 21, 33, and 55. Open reading frames (ORFs), gene annotation, and G+C contents were determined using the NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP) (13). Genome completeness and contamination were assessed with CheckM v1.0.18 using default parameters (14). Carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes) were annotated with the dbCAN database using model HMMdb v8.0 (E value, <1e⁻¹⁵; coverage, >0.35) (15), and secondary metabolite biosynthesis gene clusters were identified using antiSMASH v5.0.0 with default parameters (16). Information about sequencing and annotation results is summarized in Table 1.

Volume 9 Issue 23 e00317-20

Citation Rojas J, Ambika Manirajan B, Ratering S, Suarez C, Schnell S. 2020. Draft genome sequences of *Spirosoma agri* KCTC 52727 and *Spirosoma terrae* KCTC 52035. Microbiol Resour Announc 9:e00317-20. https://doi.org/10.1128/ MRA.00317-20. Editor David Rasko, University of Maryland School of Medicine Copyright © 2020 Rojas et al. This is an openaccess article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0

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Received 26 March 2020 Accepted 14 May 2020 Published 4 June 2020

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	Assembly	No. of contigs	No. o N ₅₀ (bp) codin	No. of predicted	No. of:	G+C	
Strain	size (bp)			coding sequences	tRNAs	rRNAs (5S, 16S, 23S)	content (%)
S. agri S7-3-3 [⊤]	7,239,915	36	4,167,621	5,826	41	3 (1, 1, 1)	50.6
S. terrae 15J9-4 [⊤]	7,551,610	62	365,996	6,170	43	4 (1, 2, 1)	47.3

TABLE 1 Sequencing and annotation results for S. agri S7-3-3^T and S. terrae 15J9-4^T

Based on CheckM, the draft genomes were estimated to be \geq 99% complete with <1.2% contamination.

Genome annotation revealed genes for nitrate reduction in *S. agri* $57-3-3^{T}$ but not in *S. terrae* $15J9-4^{T}$; furthermore, both strains have genes for alkaline phosphatase, cellulase, and amylase activity.

The dbCAN analysis described 355 genes for *S. agri* S7-3-3^T and 314 genes for *S. terrae* 15J9-4^T encoding proteins for carbohydrate binding, carbohydrate esterases, glycoside hydrolases, and glycoside transferases. Additionally, using antiSMASH, gene clusters for the production of ladderane, terpene, polyketide synthase types I and III (T1PKS, T3PKS), and nonribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS) were annotated. These genomes will contribute to the genomic knowledge of the members of genus *Spirosoma*.

Data availability. The genome sequences of these two strains have been deposited in GenBank; the raw data sets can be found under BioProject accession numbers PRJNA590610 for *S. agri* 57-3-3^T and PRJNA590616 for *S. terrae* 15J9-4^T. The assembled sequences for *S. agri* 57-3-3^T (BioSample accession number SAMN13335970) can be accessed under accession number ASM1074741v1; the assembly version described in this paper is the first version. For *S. terrae* 15J9-4^T (BioSample accession number SAMN13335992), the assembled sequences can be accessed under accession number ASM1043591v1; the assembly version described in this paper is the first version.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are very grateful to Rita Geissler-Plaum and Bellinda Schneider for valuable technical support. We thank the GenDB team of the Institute of Bioinformatics and System Biology (JLU Giessen) for assembly of the genomes.

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CHAPTER 5.

Screening of bacterial strains with methylotrophic activity lanthanum dependent

Summary

The methanol is one of the most abundant volatile organic compounds in the atmosphere (Galbally and Kirstine, 2002) and it is also one of the carbon sources that methylotrophic bacteria oxidize to formaldehyde by means of methanol dehydrogenase (MDH) as their sole carbon and energy source (Kolb, 2009). In gram-negative methylotrophic bacteria, MDH is well characterized, it possesses pyrroloquinoline quinone (PQQ) as a prosthetic group and is encoded by *mxaF-gene*. More recently a lanthanide-dependent methanol dehydrogenase, encoded by the gene *xoxF* has been discovered (Hibi et al., 2011a; Fitriyanto et al., 2011). No study has focused on bioprospection of methanol consuming microorganisms that may use the recently discovered lanthanum-dependent MDH-*xoxF* from saline and alkaline environments which is why this study aimed to isolate lanthanum-dependent methanol utilizing bacteria from saline habitats.

Methodology

Sample collection

Soil samples were collected from natural salt meadows nearby Münzenberg, Hessen, Germany (50°27'46.2"N 8°45'55.1"E) and Bad Endbach, Hessen, Germany (50° 45' 54.9" N 8° 26' 41.2"E), branches from a blackthorn wall at graduation buildings where salty spring water slowly trickles down (50° 21' 48.8"N 8°44' 39.6"E) as well a water sample from a fountain with salty spring water (50° 22' 2.23"N 8°44' 36.8"E) in Bad Nauheim, Hessen, Germany were collected.

Isolation and identification of methanol utilizers

The samples of soils and water were used as inoculum for enrichment cultures in modified liquid freshwater media (Widdel and Bak, 1992) containing 1.0 g NaCl, 0.4 g MgCl x $6H_2O$, 0.15 g CaCl₂ x $2H_2O$, 0.5 g KCl, 0.2 g KH₂PO₄ , 0.25 g NH₄ Cl, 1.4 g Na₂SO₄ , 1.0 ml trace element solution containing no lanthanum (SL10), 50 ml Phosphate buffer 0.4 M pH 7.0, 1.0 ml vitamin B12-solution, 1.0 ml 5-vitamin solution, 1.0 ml thiamine solution, 1.0 ml riboflavine solution in 1.0 liter deionized water, the pH was adjusted to 6.5; additionally 30 µM lanthanum and methanol

5.0% V/V were added to the liquid medium. The enrichment cultures were shaken with 110 rpm and incubated at 28°C for one month. After several transfers in new medium the enriched bacteria were isolated on freshwater agar medium containing 30 μM lanthanum chloride and methanol 5% V/V. Different morphologies of colonies were obtained and various cell morphologies have been observed microscopically. For isolated strains the 16S RNA gene was amplified using the primer EUB 9f according to the method of Kampmann et al., 2012; PCR products were purified using the PCR purification kit (Qiagen) prior to sequencing by LGC genomics and the taxonomic affiliations were identified using EzBioCloud server (Yoon et al., 2017).

Growth test with new isolates

A test to evaluate the growth of the identified isolates on fresh water solid media with methanol in presence and absence of lanthanum was performed. For those isolates with good growth in presence of lanthanum on agar medium also liquid medium was tested and growth was evidenced by high turbidity and microscopic controls. Growth curves in liquid freshwater media with methanol 5% v/v and with/without addition of 30 μ M LaCl₃ were carried out. Optical density (OD) measurements were performed in a TECAN infinity 200 fluorescent spectrophotometer using a Greiner 48-well plate. Isolates were cultured for 5 days with orbital shaking amplitude 4 mm, eight OD measurements were taken at 600 nm (bandwidth 9) with 5 flashes at 25 °C.

Results

From collected samples, thirty-one strains were isolated, and their 16S RNA gene was sequenced for taxonomic affiliation. The next relatives of the isolated strains and the morphological and colony description are given in Table 1 and Table S1.

Strain N°	Source	Blast Bacteria 16S	% Similarity	Next Relatives
		rRNA gene		(EZ-Biocloud)
1	Salt meadow Bad	Ancylobacter defluvii	99.33	<i>Starkeya novella</i> 99.07%
	Endbach			<i>Starkeya koreensis</i> 98.53%
				98.53%

				Ancylobacter
2	Salt meadow Bad	Ancylobacter defluvii	99.47	Ancylobacter
	Endbach			oerskovii 98.32% Ancylobacter
				rudongensis 98% Ancylobacter
				dichloromethanicus
3	Salt meadow Bad	Paenibacillus	99.72	97.9% Paenibacillus lautus
	Endbach	alucanolyticus		98.21% Paenibacillus
	Lindbach	gracanory ricus		qingshengii 97.66%
				Paenibacillus lactis 96.96%
4	Salt meadow Bad	Rhizobium nepotum	99.79	Rhizobium
	Endbach			Rhizobium
				<i>skierniewicense</i> 98.72%
				Rhizobium rubi
5	Salt meadow Bad	Ancylobacter defluvii	99.47	Ancylobacter
	Endbach			oerskovii 98.32% Ancvlobacter
				rudongensis 98%
				dichloromethanicus
6	Salt meadow	Variovorax	99.29	97.9% Variovorax
Ũ	M		55125	paradoxus 99.15%
	Munzenberg	boronicumulans		99.01%
				Variovorax
				99.01%
7	Salt meadow	Paenibacillus validus	100	Paenibacillus xylanisolvens
	Münzenberg			97.38% Paenibacillus
				mucilaginosus
				96.97% Paenibacillus filicis
0	Craduation	Angulahastar	00.90	96.97%
0	Graduation	Ancylobacter	99.09	dichloromethanicus
	Building	rudongensis		<i>99.47% Ancvlobacter</i>
	Bad Nauheim			aquaticus 99.36%
				vacuolatus 99.26%
9	Graduation	Jiella aquimaris	98.67	Aurantimonas
	Building			coralicida 96.45% Aurantimonas
	Dad Nauhaire			endophytica 96.45%
	Bad Nauneim			glaciistagni 96.45%
10	Graduation	Tistrella bauzanensis	99.33	Tistrella mobilis 97.33%
	building			FM209132_s
	Bad Nauheim			clon 89.97%
				Aliidongia dinahuensis 89 86%
11	Water Fountain	Paracoccus homiensis	99.73	Paracoccus
	Bad Nauheim			zeaxanthinifaciens 99.33%
				Paracoccus beibuensis 98-38%
				Pararhodobacter
				Jolseile

12	Salt meadow	Azospirillum oryzae	99.73	Azospirillum zeae
	Münzenberg			99.47% Azospirillum
				humicireducens
				Azospirillum
				largimobile 98.25%
13	Salt meadow	Pseudomonas	99.88	Pseudomonas plecoalossicida
	Münzenberg	hunanensis		99.76%
				Pseudomonas monteilii 99.64%
				Pseudomonas
14	Salt meadow	Idonella dechloratans	99.25	Ideonella paludis
	Münzonhora			98% Ideopolla azotifigons
	Mulizenberg			97.99%
				Rubrivivax
15	Graduation building	Aurantimonas coralicida	99.05	Aurantimonas
	Bad Nauhoim			litoralis 99.05%
	Dau Naunenn			manganoxydans
				98.78%
				frigidaquae 97.42%
16	Salt meadow	Hyphomicrobium facile	99.58	Hyphomicrobium
	Bad Endbach	subsp. facile		Tolerans 99.58%
				Hyphomicrobium
				Ureaphilum
				99.58% Hunhomicrohium
				methylovorum
1.9	Salt moadow	Variovoray	08.86	<u>98.31%</u>
10	Salt meadow	Vanovorax	90.00	paradoxus 98.74%
	Bad Endbach	boronicumulans		<i>Variovorax gossypii</i> 98.61%
				Variovorax
20	Salt meadow	Hyphomicrobium faciles	99.58	ginsengisoli 98.61% Hyphomicrobium
				facile subsp.
	Bad Endbach	SUDS. TACIle		Tolerans 99.58% Hyphomicrobium
				facile subsp.
				99.58%
				Hyphomicrobium
				98.31%
21	Salt meadow	Microbacterium	99,9	Microbacterium
	Bad Endbach	natoriense		Microbacterium
				ginsengiterrae
				98.64% Microbacterium
				foliorum 98.54%
22	Salt meadow	variovorax	99.05	variovorax paradoxus 98.74%
	Bad Endbach	boronicumulans		Variovorax gossypii
				98.61% Variovorax
				ginsengisoli 98.61%
23	Salt meadow	Nocardiodes simplex	98.60	Nocardioides caeni 98.6%
	Bad Endbach			Nocardioides
				nitrophenolicus 98.6%

				Nocardioides
				daeguensis 98.38%
24	Salt meadow	Spirosoma	95	Spirosoma pulveris
				94.52%
	Bad Endbach	enbachense		Spirosoma
				aerophilum
				94.3%
				Spirosoma swuense
				94.29%
25	Water fountain	Novosphingobium	100	Novosphingobium
				panipatense 97.38%
	Bad Nauheim	indicum		Novosphingobium
				mathurense 97.38%
				Novosphingobium
				barchaimii 97.17%
26	Salt meadow	Methyllophilus	99.57	Methylophilus
				quaylei 99.36%
	Münzenberg	rhizosphaerae		Methylophilus luteus
	-			98.94%
				Methylophilus flavus
				98.72%
27	Salt meadow	Sphyngopyxis	100	Sphingopyxis
				chilensis 98.2%
	Münzenberg	taejonensis		Sphingopyxis
				ginsengisoli 98.2%
				Sphingopyxis italic
				98.10 %
28	Salt meadow	Pseudomonas	100	Pseudomonas
				hunanensis 99.79%
	Münzenberg	putida		Pseudomonas
				monteilii 99.79%
				Pseudomonas
				taiwanensis 99.69%
29	Salt meadow	Pseudomonas	100	Pseudomonas
				hunanensis 99.79%
	Münzenberg	hunanensis		Pseudomonas
				monteilii 99.79%
				Pseudomonas
				taiwanensis 99.69%
30	Salt meadow	Pseudomonas	100	Pseudomonas
				hunanensis 99.79%
	Münzenberg	putida		Pseudomonas
				monteilii 99.79%
				Pseudomonas
				taiwanensis 99.69%
31	Salt meadow	Pseudomonas	100	Pseudomonas
				hunanensis 99.79%
	Münzenberg	putida		Pseudomonas
				monteilii 99.79%
				Pseudomonas
				taiwanensis 99.69%

Table 1. Bacterial isolates obtained from different salty habitats and their nextrelatives based on the 16S rRNA sequence.

As showed in table 1. most of the colonies were isolated from salt meadows and the genera with high prevalence in the samples were *Ancylobacter*, *Pseudomonas*, *Variovorax*, *Paenibacillus* and *Hyphomicrobium*, moreover the most predominant morphology was rod-shaped (**Table S.1**).

After taxonomic identification, the isolates were grown in FWM liquid medium with methanol and lanthanum addition. For strain 14 (99.25% similarity to *Idonella dechlorotans*) and strain 15 (99.05% similarity to *Aurantimonas coralicida*) a high level of turbidity (measured as optical density) and cell numbers (observed microscopically) were determined. A growth curve on methanol for these two strains was determined in presence and absence of La³⁺ as depicted in Fig.1



Figure 1. Growth of strains 14 and 15 in freshwater media with La^{3+} (LaCl₃ 30 µM) and MeOH (Methanol 5%v/v). Control is medium without bacteria addition. Values represent the average of eight replicate growth experiments with corresponding standard deviations, the optical density (OD 600) was used as growth parameter.

As shown in the Fig. 1, no remarkable difference in growth of both strains on methanol with or without lanthanum was observed. Therefore, lanthanum did not allow better growth on methanol. With strain 15 growth was slightly stimulated in the presence of lanthanum although it was not significant different to growth in absence of lanthanum.

DISCUSSION

Different samples from naturally salty environments within Hesse, Germany that included soils, water and branches impregnated with saline water were used for this study. These samples were used as inoculum for enrichment cultures in freshwater medium with methanol in presence of lanthanum. After three subsequent transfers in liquid medium the enriched bacteria were plated on FWM agar medium. A great variety of colonies and bacterial cell morphologies checked by microscopy were obtained. DNA was extracted from thirty-one pure colonies and based on the 16S rRNA gene sequence a taxonomic affiliation revealed that 83.0% of the isolates belong to the phylum Proteobacteria, 7.0% to Firmicutes, 7.0% to Actinobacteria and 3.0% to Bacteroidetes. Several isolates were affiliated Ancylobacter, Pseudomonas, Variovorax, Paenibacillus to genera and Hyphomicrobium. For genus Ancylobacter methanol consumption was demonstrated and the presence of mxaF-gene that encodes a methanol dehydrogenase dependent of calcium as showed for Ancylobacter aquaticus (Lau et al., 2013) and Ancylobacter sonchi (Agafonova et al., 2017). However also the presence of xoxF-gene a methanol dehydrogenase dependent of lanthanum has been reported for Ancylobacter sp. FA202 and Ancylobacter sp. 501b. (Huang et al., 2018). Pseudomonas was considered a non-methylotrophic model organism but recently a lanthanide-dependent PQQ-alcohol dehydrogenase (PedH) was discovered, which is a homologue of the xoxF-protein which has enzymatic activity on aldehydes, aromatic primary and secondary alcohols and is dependent of lanthanides such as La³⁺, Ce³⁺, Pr³⁺, Sm³⁺(Wehrmann et al., 2017). Variovorax has been described as a genus of versatile metabolism with abilities as plant growth promoters (S.-L. Sun et al., 2018); a metagenomic study to identify the diversity, abundance and activity of methylotrophs revealed a great abundance of Variovorax in the methanol-enriched pea rhizosphere community (Macey et al., 2020); Paenibacillus species can be plant associated and have a good ability to fix nitrogen (Hong et al., 2009), the capacity to use methanol in this genus has been also described (Madhaiyan et al., 2016). The genus Hyphomicrobium is known as facultative methylotrophs which can be found in water or soil (Martineau et al., 2013), methanol dehydrogenase genes such as mxaF are used as molecular markers for identification of new species of Hyphomicrobium (Fesefeldt and Gliesche, 1997) but also xoxF-gene has been detected (Huang et al., 2018).

To evaluate the need of lanthanum for methanol consumption, lanthanum was added to freshwater medium and growth of strain 14 (99.25% similarity to *Idonella dechlorotans*) and strain 15 (99.05% similarity to *Aurantimonas coralicida*) was determined. Growth was very similar in presence and absence of lanthanum (Fig. 1). Similar results have been reported for growth of *Methylobacterium extorquens* in studies with methanol with and without lanthanum (Good et al., 2019; Vu et al., 2016). Also growth of *Methylosinus trichosporium* in medium with methanol and

cerium was not reported to be different than with methanol (UI Haque et al., 2015). Moreover OD values obtained for strain 14 and 15 are lower (OD_{600} 0.1-0.2) in comparison to the studies mentioned before where values were around OD_{600} 0.4-1). The low yield exhibited for both strains may indicate other specific methylotrophy metabolic modules including the serine cycle, the ethylmalonyl-CoA-pathway EMCP, the H4MPT-linked pathway and not the presence of methanol dehydrogenases encoded by *mxaF* and *xoxF* genes as described by Chistoserdova, (2011) for which other factors may affect the yield growth.

This study revealed a great variety of different bacterial genera able to grow on methanol. No clear indication for growth using the lanthanum-dependent methanol dehydrogenase was found. A better identification of lanthanum-dependent methylotrophic bacteria in enrichment cultures could be the detection of *xoxF*-gene through molecular probes in realtime PCR assays or dot plot analysis. Well adapted methylotrophic bacteria with PGPR activity potential could help the plants to cope with salt stress.

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Supplementary Data - Screening of bacterial strains with methylotrophic activity lanthanum dependent

Table S1. Bacterial isolates obtained from different salty habitats with their morphologies and colony shapes

Strain N°	Source	Blast Bacteria 16S	Colony shape	Morphology
			and color	
1	Salt meadow Bad	Ancylobacter defluvii	Round cream	Rod-shaped
	Endbach			
2	Salt meadow Bad	Ancylobacter defluvii	Round White	Rod-shaped
	Endbach			
3	Salt meadow	Paenibacillus	Irregular	Rod-shaped
	Bad Endbach	glucanolyticus	yellow	
4	Salt meadow	Rhizobium nepotum	Round	Rod-shaped
	Bad Endbach		transparent	
5	Salt meadow	Ancylobacter defluvii	Round white	Rod-shaped
	Bad Endbach			
6	Salt meadow	Variovorax	Round red	Rod-shaped
	Münzenberg	boronicumulans		
7	Salt meadow	Paenibacillus validus	Irregular white	long curved rod
	Münzenberg			
8	Graduation	Ancylobacter	Round cream	Rod-shaped
	Building	rudongensis		
	Bad Nauheim			
9	Graduation	Jiella aquimaris	Round cream	Rod-shaped
	Building			
	Bad Nauheim			
10	Graduation	Tistrella bauzanensis	Round white	Rod-shaped
	building			
	Bad Nauheim			
11	Water Fountain	Paracoccus homiensis	Round	Coccus
	Bad Nauheim		transparent	
12	Salt meadow	Azospirillum oryzae	Round cream	Vibrioid
	Münzenberg			

13	Salt meadow	Pseudomonas	Round green	Rod-shaped
	Münzenberg	hunanensis		
14	Salt meadow	Idonella dechloratans	Round	Rod-shaped
	Münzenberg		transparent	
15	Graduation building	Aurantimonas coralicida	Round yellow	Rod-shaped
	Bad Nauheim			
16	Salt meadow	Hyphomicrobium facile	Round white	Rod-shaped with
	Bad Endbach	subsp. facile		prosteed
18	Salt meadow	Variovorax	Round white	Rod-shaped
	Bad Endbach	boronicumulans		
20	Salt meadow	Hyphomicrobium faciles	Round white	Rod-shaped with
	Bad Endbach	subs. facile		prosteca
21	Salt meadow	Microbacterium	Round cream	Vibrioid
	Bad Endbach	natoriense		
22	Salt meadow	Variovorax	Round blue	Rod-shaped
	Bad Endbach	boronicumulans		
23	Salt meadow	Nocardiodes simplex	Irregular	Rod-shaped
	Bad Endbach		transparent	
24	Salt meadow	Spirosoma	Round cream	Rod-shaped
	Bad Endbach	enbachense		
25	Water fountain	Novosphingobium	Round blue	Long curved rod
	Bad Nauheim	indicum		
26	Salt meadow	Methyllophilus	Irregular	Rod-shaped
	Münzenberg	rhizosphaerae	cream	
27	Salt meadow	Sphyngopyxis	Round cream	Rod-shaped
	Münzenberg	taejonensis		
28	Salt meadow	Pseudomonas	Round	Rod-shaped
	Münzenberg	putida	transparent	
29	Salt meadow	Pseudomonas	Round yellow	Rod-shaped
	Münzenberg	hunanensis		
30	Salt meadow	Pseudomonas	Round cream	Rod-shaped
	Münzenberg	putida		
31	Salt meadow	Pseudomonas	Round white	Rod-shaped
	Münzenberg	putida		
CHAPTER 6.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Recent studies have shown that rare metals play an important role to a specialized group of bacteria involved in the global carbon cycle. Rare metals such as lanthanum and cesium are required for the activity of a widespread methanol dehydrogenase (MDH) enzyme encoded by the *xoxF*-gene which is used for methanol utilization as source of carbon and energy by some bacteria. Genes encoding for methanol dehydrogenase have been detected in rhizosphere of pea plants, rice, cereals and grasses (Butterfield et al., 2016; Knief et al., 2012; Tsurumaru et al., 2015) and some of them affiliated to *xoxF*, however the role of this gene in plant root-bacteria interaction is unclear. *Hartmannibacter diazotrophicus* E19^T was isolated from a saline soil and exhibited abilities as plant growth promoter including ACC-deaminase production, nitrogen fixation, phosphorus solubilization (Suarez et al., 2015) but also methylotrophic activity as methanol consumer in presence of lanthanum associated to the presence of *xoxF*-gene was evidenced (Lv et al., 2017).

Methylotrophic activity assays

In order to reassess the methylotrophic activity of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T in liquid culture, a growth curve in a mineral medium with methanol 5% v/v and 30 μ M lanthanum was determined and methylotrophic growth via lanthanum-dependent MDH was confirmed. The suitable concentration of lanthanum for optimal growth of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T was determined in growth studies with the pure culture, however, no significant differences were founded for lanthanum concentrations evaluated (Chapter 2). The effect of lanthanum on growth with methanol of *Methylacidiphilum fumariolicum SolV* was described by Pol et al., (2014) to be essential, however in contrast to the study of Pol et al., (2014) in this study no differences in the growth yield were found when concentrations of lanthanum varied.

Greenhouse trials

To evaluate the plant response under salt stress to inoculation of *H. diazotrophicus* $E19^{T}$ and lanthanum supplementation, a pot experiment with barley plants in greenhouse was carried out (Chapter 2). The trials of the experiment comprised

barley seeds inoculated with strain E19^T sowed in saline soil with/without lanthanum, barley seeds inoculated with strain E19^T dead biomass sowed in saline soil with/without lanthanum, barley seeds in saline soil with lanthanum and the control with barley seeds in saline soil. Growth of plants was monitored after thirty days, when shoots and roots were harvested, and the fresh and dry weights were determined. Furthermore, plant samples from roots and rhizosphere soil were taken to explore changes in microbial diversity upon the treatments and to look into colonization of roots with E19^T.

The barley plants biomass of shoots and roots revealed no effect or differences between plants inoculated with *H. diazotrophicus* $E19^{T}$ with and without lanthanum addition however better biomass was obtained in comparison to the treatments with dead biomass and the non-inoculated control. The results demonstrated that strain $E19^{T}$ can promote growth of barley plants in salty conditions which is in agreement with the study of Suarez et al., (2015). These authors postulated a mechanism of *H. diazotrophicus* $E19^{T}$ to reduce salt stress based on the lowering of ethylene levels in the plant by bacterial production of ACC deaminase.

Unexpectedly with lanthanum addition to soil without bacterial inoculation the plant obtained as good biomass values as the treatments with seed inoculation. The effect of lanthanum to increase plant tolerance under salty conditions was discussed to origin from mechanisms such as up-regulation of the antioxidant capacity in the chloroplast through ascorbate-glutathione cycle, the rising of cytoplasmic calcium levels which block the reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and the enhancement of chlorophyll and carotenoids contents (Huang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2016).

The inoculation of bacteria with plant promotion activity may also change the composition of rhizosphere communities thus indirectly affecting plant growth (Gadhave et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). In the current study, the indicators for microbial diversity were evaluated comparing effects of *H. diazotrophicus* inoculation with those of lanthanum supplementation. In roots and rhizosphere soil alpha diversity indices showed a significant increase in species richness in treatments of plants with *H. diazotrophicus* and *H. diazotrophicus* with lanthanum compared to treatments with death biomass and lanthanum alone. According to nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) most similar communities were found in treatments of *H.*

diazotrophicus and *H. diazotrophicus* with La; most different was the community in control soil (Chapter 2).

The quantification of *H. diazotrophicus* E19^T colonization in rhizosphere soil and root environments was explored through qPCR using a specifically designed primer set targeting the 16S RNA gene sequence. High DNA copy numbers of strain E19^T were detected in barley roots (5.3×10^7 DNA copy number g⁻¹ root dry weight) 30 days after seed inoculation. In rhizosphere soil strain E19^T DNA copy number were 3.2×10^4 DNA copy number g⁻¹ soil dry weight which indicates the good bacterial competence for the plant root colonization but also that the rhizosphere is a suitable environment for the bacteria.

The quantification of bacterial cell number in root samples of plants grown in pots by qPCR are in similar values reported for studies with DNA quantification of other PGPR species; plants of Brassica oleracea were inoculated with Enterobacter *radicincitans* resulting in concentrations of 10⁸ bacterial cells g⁻¹ root fresh weight (Ruppel et al., 2006), in the same way, quantification of Azospirillum lipoferum CRT1 inoculated in maize plants in roots was 10⁴–10⁶ DNA copy number g⁻¹ of root dry weight (Couillerot et al., 2010). On the other hand, the presence of lanthanum not increased the cell density of strain $E19^{T}$, the treatments with seed inoculation of H. diazotrophicus and H. diazotrophicus with lanthanum exhibited similar densities for the inoculated bacteria on roots, while in rhizosphere soil the number of DNA copies were higher in the treatment of strain E19^T without lanthanum supplementation. The differences in cell numbers of *H. diazotrophicus* in roots and rhizosphere soil might be due to the fact that during root growth and cell-plant division with pectin biosynthesis the methanol is directly available for H. diazotrophicus in the root and on its surface whereas in rhizosphere the exudate methanol is consumed by a great diversity of bacterial groups. The high substrate competition in the rhizosphere (Sy et al., 2005) may explain the lower cell numbers of *H. diazotrophicus* in rhizosphere. For the treatment with *H. diazotrophicus* and lanthanum supplementation the growth response of *H. diazotrophicus* may mostly be conditioned to substrate and lanthanum sensing, the presence of a "lanthanideswitch" which is described as transcriptional response can at low concentrations of lanthanum upregulate the xoxF activity conditioning the uptake of methanol and downregulate other metabolic routes for consumption of other carbon sources. A study carried out by Wehrmann et al., (2020) described the growth of *Pseudomonas putida* containing *PedH*-MDH lanthanum dependent, a homologue of *xoxF*-MDH in presence of 10 μ M lanthanum and other carbon sources; a downregulation of metabolic proteins expression was observed when growth occurred with glucose and lanthanum.

The quantification of *H. diazotrophicus* $E19^{T}$ in roots also was performed using a designed primer set targeting the *xoxF*-gene sequence and 4.8 x 10^{6} *xoxF* copies numbers g⁻¹ root dry weight were obtained, which is similar to those DNA copy numbers retrieved with the specific 16S RNA gene assay (Chapter 2). These results confirm the colonization of *H. diazotrophicus* in roots and on the root surface since the primer was designed specifically for *xoxF*-gene sequence of *H. diazotrophicus*. The designed *xoxF* primer will open the path to study the expression of *xoxF* gene on RNA samples for future research focused on bacteria plant interactions.

Bioprospection

For this study, halotolerant methanol-oxidizing and lanthanum-dependent bacteria from salt-affected environmental samples (soil, water, graduation building) have been enriched in a mineral medium supplemented with methanol 5% v/v and 30 µM lanthanum, 31 isolates were recovered and by 16S RNA gene sequencing the taxonomic affiliation revealed most of them belonging to phylums *Proteobacteria*, Firmicutes, Actinobacteria and Bacteroidetes, and some of them also have been reported with genes associated to methylotrophic activity dependent of rare metals (Chapter 5, Table 1). The isolates 14 and 15 exhibited good growth in liquid medium with methanol and lanthanum. Therefor a growth curve in liquid medium with methanol with/without lanthanum supplementation was determined which revealed that lanthanum not caused significant difference in the growth of both strains. However methylotrophic bacteria have high metabolic flexibility, different carbon assimilation pathways have been reported for energy conservation required in growth process including serine cycle, RuMP cycle, Benson cycle where lanthanides are not involved (Khmelenina et al., 2019). Moreover, from the enrichment and screening from soil samples (Chapter 5, Table 1), the bacterium 24 designated I-24 had a 95.0% 16S rRNA gene similarity to the next relative. Since a 16S rRNA gene identity value < 98.7% represents a new species a polyphasic approach was carried out for detailed characterization and identification of isolate I-24. The polyphasic study revealed that isolate I-24 was aerobic, nonmotile, rod-shaped, catalase-positive, oxidase-positive and grew optimally at pH

7 and 25 °C. Based on 16S rRNA gene sequence close relatives are *Spirosoma agri* and *Spirosoma terrae* and isolate I-24 was grouped into the family *Spirosomaceae*, genus *Spirosoma* and with the proposed species name *Spirosoma endbachense* accepted. The draft genome sequence of *Spirosoma endbachense* has a size of 10,326,072 bp with a G+C of 47.7% and the completeness value was >99%. Secondary metabolite clusters annotated for *Spirosoma endbachense* were ladderane, terpene, polyketide synthase type I and III (T1PKS, T3PKS) and non-ribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS) (Chapter 3).

For close the relatives *Spirosoma agri* S7-3-3 (KCTC 52727) and *Spirosoma terrae* 15J9-4 (KCTC 52035) a genome sequencing was not available. For detailed taxonomic characterization whole genome sequencing techniques are suggested to be used along with a polyphasic study to provide more information about identification, phylogenetic analysis, metabolic pathways, antimicrobial resistance and enable comparative genomic. Therefor the total genomes from both strains and *S. endbachense* were sequenced using a MiSeqv3 sequencer system (Illumina), assembled and annotated. The draft genome sequence of *Spirosoma terrae* the size of 7,239,915 bp with a G+C content of 50.6% while for *Spirosoma terrae* the size is of 7,551,610 bp with a G+C content of 47.3% (Chapter 4). Both genomes are \geq 99% complete. Both species have genes for alkaline phosphatase, cellulose and amylase activity and many other carbohydrate-active enzymes. Furthermore gene clusters for the production of ladderane, terpen, polyketide synthase, non-ribolsomal peptide synthesis and secondary metabolite biosynthesis were annotated.

No reports have so far focused on the attempt to characterize methanol utilizing bacteria containing the recently discovered *xoxF*-MDH from saline and alkaline environments. Therefor in an isolation campaign methylotrophic bacteria from saline environments have been enriched in the presence of lanthanum to possibly retrieve halotolerant bacteria which consume methanol via *xox*F-MDH. These isolates are potential new candidates for plant growth promotion under salt stress due to their adaptation to natural salt environments. Other methylotrophic bacteria have been reported to mitigate salt stress effects on plants like the halotolerant *Actinobacterium Nocardioides sp. NIMMe6* which was reported to enhance the growth of wheat plants under salt stress (Meena et al., 2020). For the methanol-

utilising *Bacillus methylotrophicus* M4-1 enhanced uptake of Mg²⁺, K⁺ was reported and the ability to reduce Na⁺ content in leaves of winter wheat under salt stress (Ji et al., 2020). For the latter bacteria however pathways or genes involved in C1 compounds have not been elucidated.

The results obtained in this study contribute to understanding the interaction of plant growth-promoting microorganisms with barley plants under salt stress, in addition, contribute to the knowledge of methylotrophic bacteria with a lanthanum-dependent MDH in saline environments and complement the study of the newly isolated and described *Spirosoma endbachense* and closely related *Spirosoma* species *S. agri* and *S. terrae* in a comparative genome study.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my advisor, Prof. Dr. Sylvia Schnell, for her excellent supervision, guidance, constructive feedback, kind support and encouragement during my PhD. Thank you very much.

I would also like to extend my greatest gratitude to Dr. Stefan Ratering for his great feedback, knowledge sharing, excellent encouragement, and guidance thanks a lot.

I am deeply grateful to Prof. Hans Koyro Institute of Plant Ecology, IFZ, Justus-Liebig University Gießen for his interest and disposition as second supervisor.

Very special thanks to Rita Geißler-Plaum who always encourage and supporting me during the work in lab and the greenhouse and thanks very much for your patience and friendly help.

I also wish to thanks to Belinda Schneider for her support in molecular lab and thanks to make the atmosphere of work funnier.

Many thanks to Renate Baumann for her helpful advice and practical suggestions with the work of lab.

Special thanks to Colombian-Ecuadorian group David Rosado, Christian Suarez Santiago Quiroga, Angel Franco and Yina Cifuentes for your listening, support, advise, friendship and being there always when I needed.

I also had the great pleasure of working with Alessandra Dupont, Julia Sacharow, Hülya Kaplan, Corina Maisinger, Rommy Auerbach, Yulduz Abdullaeva, Binoy Ambika Manirajan, whom I thank for their collaboration and friendship.

I gratefully acknowledge the support and help from the staff and technicians of the Institute of Applied Microbiology Corina, Gundi, Katja, Maria, Jan, and Monika.

Most importantly, I would also like to thank my parents and brothers for their unfailing support and continuous encouragement whenever I have needed.