

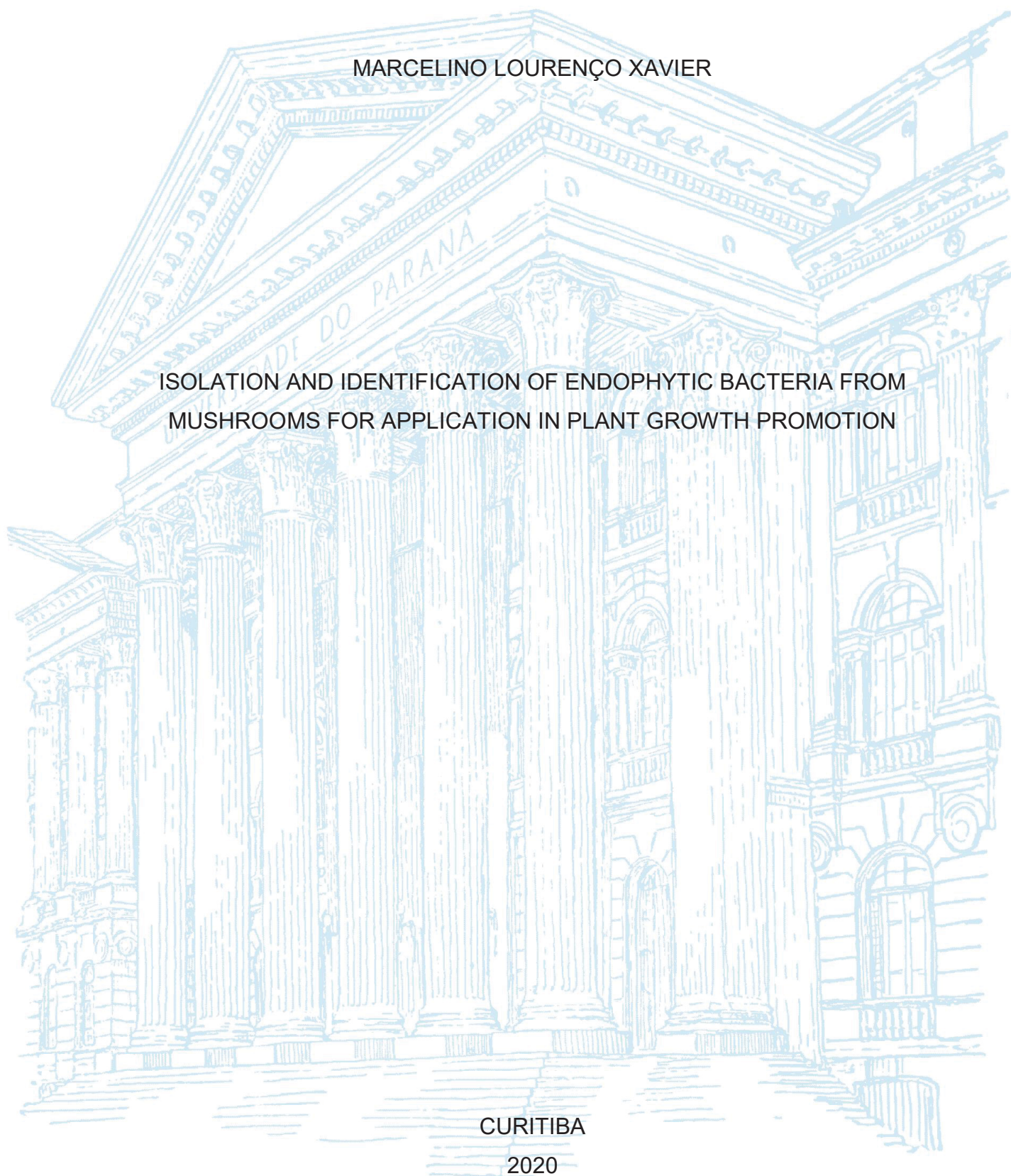
UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DO PARANÁ

MARCELINO LOURENÇO XAVIER

ISOLATION AND IDENTIFICATION OF ENDOPHYTIC BACTERIA FROM  
MUSHROOMS FOR APPLICATION IN PLANT GROWTH PROMOTION

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MARCELINO LOURENÇO XAVIER

ISOLATION AND IDENTIFICATION OF ENDOPHYTIC BACTERIA FROM  
MUSHROOMS FOR APPLICATION IN PLANT GROWTH PROMOTION

Tese apresentada ao curso de Pós-Graduação em Engenharia de Bioprocessos e Biotecnologia, Setor de Tecnologia, Universidade Federal do Paraná, como requisito parcial à obtenção do título de Doutor em Engenharia de Bioprocessos e Biotecnologia.

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Carlos Ricardo Soccol

Coorientadora: Prof.<sup>a</sup> Dr.<sup>a</sup> Susan Grace Karp

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## TERMO DE APROVAÇÃO

Os membros da Banca Examinadora designada pelo Colegiado do Programa de Pós-Graduação em ENGENHARIA DE BIOPROCESSOS E BIOTECNOLOGIA da Universidade Federal do Paraná foram convocados para realizar a arguição da tese de Doutorado de **MARCELINO LOURENÇO XAVIER** intitulada: **ISOLATION AND IDENTIFICATION OF ENDOPHYTIC BACTERIA FROM MUSHROOMS FOR APPLICATION IN PLANT GROWTH PROMOTION**, sob orientação do Prof. Dr. CARLOS RICARDO SOCCOL, que após terem inquirido o aluno e realizada a avaliação do trabalho, são de parecer pela sua **APROVAÇÃO** no rito de defesa.

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This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my brothers António, Águida and Lourenço Júnior, and to the living brothers Xavier and Xandinha; to my wife Lúcia and my three children Nayra, Aren and Ezry.

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Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the  
world! (Nelson Mandela, 1918-2013)



## RESUMO

Este trabalho de pesquisa teve como objetivo isolar novas bactérias endofíticas de cogumelos, selecionar melhores produtores de ácido indol-3-acético (IAA) com outras características de promoção de crescimento de plantas, como solubilização de fosfato e atividade de fixação de nitrogênio, e otimizar as condições de produção de IAA, para aplicação na agricultura como promotores de crescimento de plantas. Para atingir esse objetivo, duas cepas bacterianas endofíticas, identificadas pelo sequenciamento parcial do gene 16S rRNA como *Providencia* sp. e *Enterobacter* sp., foram escolhidas com base no potencial de produção de IAA na presença de L-triptofano, de setenta e uma (71) bactérias endofíticas isoladas de vários cogumelos silvestres. A natureza endófitas destas duas estirpes bacterianas foi confirmada por análise metagenômica do respectivo corpo de frutificação dos cogumelos a partir do qual foram isoladas (*Lactarius deliciosus* e *Boletus edulis*). O potencial de produção de IAA foi detectado a partir de filtrados de cultura usando o método colorimétrico e confirmado por HPLC. A produção de IAA por esses dois isolados foi otimizada com sucesso usando a combinação de métodos clássicos (Um-Fator-De-Cada-Vez) e estatísticos (Planejamento Fatorial Completo de dois-níveis, Planejamento de Plackett-Burman e Metodologia de Superfície de Resposta). A produção de IAA pela cepa *Providencia* sp. foi afetada apenas pela concentração de L-triptofano, para cada unidade de aumento na concentração de L-triptofano foi observado um aumento de 244,29 unidades de IAA (244,29 µg/mL de IAA). A cepa bacteriana *Providencia* sp. atingiu o pico de alta produção de IAA de 2880±11 µg/mL às 15 horas de incubação, o que significa uma produção horária de 192±0,7 µg/mL.h. Por outro lado, a produção de IAA pela cepa *Enterobacter* sp. foi significativamente afetada pelas concentrações de amido e L-triptofano. O pico de alta produção de IAA pela cepa *Enterobacter* sp. foi observado às 168 horas de incubação, com produção horária de IAA de 13,8±0,9 µg/mL.h (2311,0±155,7 µg/mL). A suspensão bacteriana de cada cepa (*Providencia* sp. e *Enterobacter* sp.) contendo IAA, foi avaliada na cultura da soja em casa de vegetação e observou-se que ambas as suspensões bacterianas contendo IAA promoveram positivamente o crescimento (germinação e crescimento de plantas). Além disso, ambas as cepas bacterianas foram positivas para quase todas as características de promoção de crescimento de plantas testadas (solubilização de fosfato, fixação de N<sub>2</sub> atmosférico, produção de HCN, actividade antifúngica contra *Aspergillus niger*, *Fusarium moniliforme* and *Gibberella* sp.).

Palavras-chave: Bactérias Endofíticas. Ácido Indol-3-Acético. Auxinas. Cogumelos. Análise Metagenômica. Promoção do Crescimento de Plantas

## ABSTRACT

This research work aimed at the isolation of novel endophytic bacteria from mushrooms, the selection of better indol-3-acetic acid (IAA) producers with other plant growth promotion traits such as phosphate solubilization and nitrogen fixation activity, and the optimization of the conditions of IAA production, for application in agriculture as plant growth promoters. To achieve this goal, two endophytic bacterial strains, identified by partial 16S rRNA gene sequencing as *Providencia* sp. and *Enterobacter* sp., were chosen based on the production potential of IAA in the presence of L-tryptophan, from seventy-one (71) endophytic bacteria isolated from several wild mushrooms. The endophyte nature of these two bacterial strains was confirmed by metagenomic analysis of the respective mushrooms fruiting body from which they were isolated (*Lactarius deliciosus* and *Boletus edulis*). The IAA production potential was detected from culture filtrates using the colorimetric method and confirmed by HPLC. The IAA production by these two isolates has been successfully optimized using the combination of classic (One-Factor-At-Time) and statistical methods (Two-level Full Factorial Design, Plackett-Burman Design and Response Surface Methodology). The production of IAA by the strain *Providencia* sp. was affected only by the concentration of L-tryptophan, for each unit of increase in the concentration of L-tryptophan generated an increase of 244.29 units of IAA (244.29 µg/mL of IAA). The bacterial strain *Providencia* sp. reached the peak of high IAA production of  $2880 \pm 11$  µg/mL at 15 hours of incubation, which means an hourly production of  $192 \pm 0.7$  µg/mL.h. On the other hand, the production of IAA by the strain *Enterobacter* sp. was significantly affected by starch and L-tryptophan concentrations. The peak of high IAA production by the strain *Enterobacter* sp. was observed at 168 hours of incubation, with hourly IAA production of  $13.8 \pm 0.9$  µg/mL.h ( $2311.0 \pm 155.7$  µg/mL). The bacterial suspension of each strain (*Providencia* sp. and *Enterobacter* sp.) containing IAA, was evaluated in the soybean culture in a greenhouse and it was observed that both bacterial suspensions containing IAA positively promoted the growth (germination and plant growth). In addition, both bacterial strains were positive for almost all tested plant growth promotion characteristics (phosphate solubilization, atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> fixation, ammonia production, HCN production, antifungal activity against *Aspergillus niger*, *Fusarium moniliforme* and *Gibberella* sp.).

Keywords: Endophytic Bacteria. Indol-3-Acetic Acid. Auxins. Mushrooms. Metagenomic Analysis. Plant Growth Promotion

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS OR ACRONYMS

|        |   |
|--------|---|
| ANOVA  | - Analysis of variance                              |
| ATP    | - Adenosine triphosphate                            |
| BBD    | - Box Bohnken Design                                |
| BNF    | - Biological Nitrogen fixation                      |
| CCD    | - Central Composite Design                          |
| gDNA   | - Genomic DNA                                       |
| HPLC   | - High-performance liquid chromatography            |
| IAA    | - Indol-3-Acetic Acid                               |
| NA     | - Nutrient agar                                     |
| NB     | - Nutrient broth                                    |
| NBRIP  | - National Botanical Research Institute's Phosphate |
| NCBI   | - National Center of Biotechnology Information      |
| NfB    | - Nitrogen-free bromothymol blue                    |
| NGS    | - Next-generation sequencing                        |
| OFAT   | - One-Factor-At-Time                                |
| PBD    | - Plackett-Burman Design                            |
| PCR    | - Polymerase chain reaction                         |
| PGP    | - Plant growth promotion                            |
| PGPB   | - Plant growth promoting bacteria                   |
| rpm    | - Revolutions per minute                            |
| rRNA   | - Ribosomal ribonucleic acid                        |
| RSM    | - Response Surface Methodology                      |
| Try    | - Tryptophan  |
| UV-Vis | - Ultraviolet – Visible                             |

## LIST OF SYMBOLS

% – Percent

μL – Microliter

μg – Microgram

mL – Milliliter

min - minute

mg – Milligram

°C – Degree Celsius

cm – Centimeter

g – Gram

L – Liter

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

Auxin was the first identified plant hormone (phytohormone). It plays a fundamental role in plant growth and development (Fu et al. 2015; Pařízková et al. 2017) and is responsible for regulation of a number of biological processes such as cell division, cell expansion, root initiation, phototropism, geotropism, apical dominance, ethylene production, and fruit development (Rincón et al. 2003). Among all naturally occurring endogenous auxins in plants, Indol-3-Acetic Acid (IAA) is the most abundant and has been well characterized so far (Zhao 2010). IAA is not only produced by plants, it is also produced by several microorganisms including endophyte bacteria. Due to its importance in plants, mediated production of IAA by endophyte bacteria has gained a great deal of attention (Aswathy et al. 2013). The use of endophytic bacteria in agricultural practices has increased significantly in recent years, both for promotion of plant growth and for biological control of pests and plant diseases, among other applications, and they are seen as potential substitutes for chemical products (Erica 2015). As well, the application of bacterial IAA has been reported in several studies to promote plant growth (length, fresh and dry mass of roots and shoots) (Rincón et al. 2003; Ali et al. 2008; Malik and Sindhu 2011). Alam et al. (2020) reported that foliar application of IAA to salt stressed tomato plants rescued the plants and had significant positive effects on growth and yield of tomato plants. Likewise, Datta et al. (1997) reported that pre-treatment of *Triticum aestivum* L. seeds with IAA alleviated the growth inhibiting effect due to salt stress.

In addition, Fernández-Falcón et al. (2003) reported that exogenous application of IAA to banana plants induces resistance against *Fusarium wilt* of banana (Panama disease). Similarly, Sharaf and Farrag (2004) reported that IAA exerts disease suppression in tomato plants. In their study, the IAA was tested *in vitro* on growth of tomato wilt pathogen *Fusarium oxysporum lycopersici*, and observed reduced spore germination, mycelial dry weight and protein content. And, *in vivo* application of IAA to soil of the uninoculated plants (controls), Sharaf and Farrag (2004) observed improved growth and yielded longer shoot and root, particularly at low concentrations.

## 1.1 OBJECTIVE

### 1.1.1 General objective

The general objective of this work was to isolate endophytic bacteria from wild mushrooms, select better IAA producers, optimize conditions for IAA production, evaluate growth promotion traits like nitrogen fixation and phosphate solubilization and evaluate the effectiveness of the produced IAA in promoting plant growth.

### 1.1.2 Specific objectives

- Isolate endophytic bacteria from wild mushrooms;
- Select most efficient IAA producers;
- Conduct molecular identification of the selected endophytic bacteria;
- Conduct metagenomic analysis of mushrooms to confirm the endophytic nature of the isolated bacteria;
- Conduct optimization study for IAA production by selected endophytic bacteria;
- Assess other plant growth promotion traits of the selected endophytic bacteria;
- Evaluate, under greenhouse condition, the effect of the bacterial suspension containing IAA in improving plant growth, particularly of the soybean plant.

## 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 ENDOPHYTES

The term endophyte is derived from the Greek words “endon” which means within and “phyte” which means plant (Wilson 2020). Endophytes are microorganisms such as bacteria, archaea, fungi, and protists (Kandel et al. 2017) that spend the whole or part of their life cycle colonizing the interior of healthy living tissues (Weyens et al. 2009; Dutta et al. 2014), seeds, roots, petioles, stems (Weyens et al. 2009), fruit, buds, and leaves (Gouda et al. 2016; Santoyo et al. 2016), without causing any visible damage to plant host (Bandara et al. 2006; Gautam et al. 2016), being distinguished from other plant-associated microbes based on the isolation from surface-sterilized plant materials (Hurst et al. 2016).

Endophytes are classified based on their life style as obligate or facultative (Egamberdieva and Ahmad 2018). Obligate endophytes spend the entire life cycle inside the host, unable to live outside plant tissues, depend on the host plant to survive, and disseminate through seed or vegetative plant tissue (Frank et al. 2017; Kumar and Khapre 2017). The obligate endophytes are not culturable or are hardest to cultivate on the laboratory since they require more specific conditions for their growth (Maela and Serepa-dlamini 2019). On the other hand, facultative endophytes are free-living. They colonize plants opportunistically, this is, exist outside of the plant for a part of their life span, and for the rest, they inhabit inside the plant (Singh et al., 2016). They also may enter in plants through germinated tissue, roots, stomata, and damaged tissue (Herlina et al. 2017), remaining there or becoming systemic by transport or active migration through the conducting elements (Lodewyckx et al. 2015).

Plant and endophyte microorganisms interact in mutualistic manner. Endophyte microorganisms profit from the nutrients made available by the plants including photosynthates (Guo et al. 2017) and residency (Weyens et al. 2009), which in return, the bacteria improve plant nutrient acquisition from the environment such as nitrogen, iron and phosphorus (Kandel et al. 2017), protect the host plant from pathogen and pests (Gunatilaka 2006), help the phytohormone synthesis and nitrogen fixation (Suhandono et al. 2016).

### 2.1.1 Isolation of endophytic bacteria

In plants, the isolation of endophyte bacteria generally consist on washing of a freshly collected plant tissue, to remove dusty, soil particles and epiphytic microorganisms adhered to surface, followed by immersion in sterilizing agents such as sodium hypochlorite, ethanol, sodium bicarbonate, hydrogen peroxide, or mercuric chloride to ensure effective removal of surface microbial flora (Miche and Balandreau 2001; Puri et al. 2017). Being ethanol, sodium hypochlorite and sodium bicarbonate the most used (Muzzamal et al. 2012).

There is no common protocol for tissue surface sterilization. The concentration of sterilizing agents, combination treatment, and immersion period for sterilization should be adapted according to the plant species, and type of plant tissue (Varma and Kharkwal 2009; Puri et al. 2017). Sterilization efficiency may be achieved by the use of one sterilizing agent or by the combination of two or more.

In order to increase the isolation efficiency of endophyte microorganisms, the surface sterilization procedure must be sensitive enough in order to, on the one hand, eliminate epiphytic microorganisms from the plant surface and, on the other hand, allow the recovery of high number of endophytic microorganisms (Amaresan, Velusamy, & Thajuddin, 2014). The immersion period of plant tissue on the solution of sterilizing agent should not last too much, because they may penetrate in the plant tissue, thus being lethal to both epiphytic and endophyte microorganism (Anjum and Chandra 2015). In addition, the residual sterilizing agent should be removed totally by rinsing the plant tissue in sterile distilled water after treatment with sterilizing agent, as it may likely affect growth of microorganism or even induce mutagenesis (Rosenblueth and Martínez-Romero 2006).

### 2.1.2 Identification of endophytic bacteria

Classical methods for bacterial strain identification are based on observation of phenotypic characteristics such as Gram staining, colony morphologies, culture requirements, biochemical activity, and sensitivity to antimicrobial agents. However, these methods are only applicable to organisms that can be cultured *in vitro*, and the identification is based on comparison of the observed characteristics with the known bacterial strains (Petti 2007). Therefore, when a bacterial strain exhibits unique

characteristics that do not fit the pattern of any known genus and species, accurate identification by phenotypes method could be compromised (Woo et al. 2008).

Genotypic identification of bacteria by partial 16S rRNA gene sequencing has emerged as a preferred technique, and is widely considered more accurate and faster method to identify a wide variety of aerobic and anaerobic bacteria, with the added capability of defining taxonomical relationships among bacterial strains (Petti et al. 2005; Park et al. 2011). 16S rRNA region is universally distributed among bacterial species and is species-specific (Senthilraj et al. 2016), and pursue two regions (conserved and variable regions) very important for differentiation purposes, and enables to draw conclusions regarding evolution and phylogeny (Toldrá 2008; Vetrovsky and Baldrian 2013).

The procedure for identification of bacterial strains involves the isolation of genomic DNA, 16S rRNA amplification by Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR), purification and direct sequencing of the PCR products, and the obtained sequences are then compared with available sequence databases such as GeneBank.

The comparison of the 16S rRNA gene sequences allows differentiation between organisms at the genus, species and subspecies levels (Clarridge, 2004). The occasional exceptions to the usefulness of 16S rRNA gene sequencing is usually related to the inability to identify bacteria at species level when there is high sequence similarities between some species (Petti 2007; Peker et al. 2019). Therefore, bacteria that are indistinguishable by 16S rDNA sequences, i.e., those that share complete sequence identity, could be better identified by use of other bacterial gene targets such as *rpoB*, *tuf*, and *sodA* (Petti 2007; Sentausa and Fournier 2013).

### 2.1.3 Metagenomic analysis – endophyte bacteria diversity

Metagenomic analyses of bacterial diversity are often performed using the prokaryotic 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene through 'next-generation' sequencing (NGS) technologies such as Illumina, 454/Roche and Ion Torrent/Ion Proton platforms (Garza and Dutilh 2015; Deurenberg et al. 2017). These technologies enable to sequence microbial communities directly from the sample, without the necessity to obtain the pure cultures. This is important as only around 1-2% of bacteria can be cultured in the laboratory (Wade 2002). Moreover, metagenomic



technologies enable a large number of reads in a single run, and detection of low abundant genera (Capobianchi et al. 2013).

## 2.2 PLANT GROWTH PROMOTION MECHANISM

### 2.2.1 Atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> fixation

Nitrogen is the most important macronutrient for plant growth and development. It is a necessary component of many biomolecules including proteins, nucleic acids, chlorophyll, and other important organic compounds (Ohyama 2010). Nitrogen is an unlimited resource and is highly abundant in atmosphere, accounting for approximately 78% of the atmospheric gases, and mainly present in the diatomic form (N<sub>2</sub>).

Plants cannot use directly atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>, they only uptake nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) or ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) as inorganic nitrogen sources and amino acids under particular conditions of soil composition. Therefore, regardless of huge abundance of atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>, the plant-available nitrogen is commonly deficient in agricultural soils.

Some bacteria, either symbiotic or non-symbiotic (free-living), possess *nif* genes that encode nitrogenase enzyme involved in Biological Nitrogen Fixation (BNF). BNF consist in conversion of atmospheric nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) into ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>). The *nif* genes are found only in some prokaryotes, termed diazotrophs (Poza-Carrión et al. 2014; Santi et al. 2015). Legumes are the most well-known class of plant that utilizes atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> through symbiotic association with diazotrophs.

### 2.2.2 Phosphate solubilization

Phosphorus is the second most important macronutrient for plant growth and development, next to nitrogen, and makes up about 0.2% to 0.8% of plant's dry weight (Alori et al. 2017). Phosphorus is an essential component of biological molecules such as nucleic acids, adenosine triphosphate (ATP), and phospholipids (Sharon et al. 2016; Kalayu 2019). In plant, phosphorus is involved in process development of roots, strengthening of stalk and stem, formation of flowers and seeds, and promotion of crop maturity (Sharon et al. 2016; Bononi et al. 2020).

Phosphorus level in the soil is about 0.05% (w/w), but a considerable part of which, 95 to 99%, is present in the form of insoluble phosphates, and hence only 0.1% of this phosphorus is available for plant use (Zhu et al. 2011; Alori et al. 2017). Plants are only able to uptake in considerable amount the orthophosphatic ions ( $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-$  or  $\text{HPO}_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ) from soil solution.

The challenge of phosphorus deficiency in agricultural soil is usually compensated by application of phosphorus fertilizers. However, nearly 70 to 90% of phosphorus fertilizers applied is rapidly immobilized by cations ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Al}^{3+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ ). The speciation of phosphorus is mainly governed by the pH value of soil, in neutral to alkaline soils there are predominance of cation  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  which form a complex calcium phosphate ( $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ ), whereas in acidic soils there is predominance of cations  $\text{Al}^{3+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  which rapidly immobilize phosphorus to form aluminum phosphate ( $\text{AlPO}_4$ ) and ferrous phosphate ( $\text{FePO}_4$ ).

Phosphorus availability can also be augmented by the usage of phosphate-solubilizing microorganisms, which are capable to release phosphorus in phosphorus-containing mineral (e.g. apatite) though soil acidification, and release of complexing or mineral dissolving compounds such as organic acid anions, siderophores and protons (Nannipieri et al. 2011; Sharon et al. 2016).

### 2.2.3 Phytohormones

Phytohormones (plant hormones) are organic substances synthesized in any organ of plants, then transported to other organs (Aziz et al. 2015). Phytohormones do not have nutritional function, they act as signal molecules to influence or control some physical, biochemical and morphological characteristic and responses at different stages of plant development, at very low concentrations (Gaspar et al. 2003; Sauer et al. 2013).

The synthesis of phytohormones may occur everywhere in plant, and their action in plant growth or development can be at distance from their sites of synthesis or even at the same organ where they were synthesized (Gaspar et al. 2003). They are not only synthesized by plants, they can also be synthesized by some associated microorganisms such as bacteria and fungi (Costacurta and Vanderleyden 1995; Shi et al. 2017).

Phytohormones are commonly divided in five categories: auxins, cytokinins, abscisic acid (ABA), gibberellins (GAs), and ethylene (Halmann 1990). However, some other categories of phytohormones may also be included such as brassinosteroids (BRs), jasmonic acid (JA), and salicylates (Halmann 1990; Gray 2004; Sauer et al. 2013; Shi et al. 2017). Each category comprises both naturally occurring hormones and synthetic substances (Gana and A 2011; Wanderley et al. 2014).

#### 2.2.4 Antifungal activity

Endophyte bacteria have been reported to indirectly promote plant growth through suppression of phytopathogen fungi (Lacava et al. 2007; Ryan et al. 2008; Afzal et al. 2019).

The mechanisms responsible for antagonistic activity against phytopathogen fungi include production of antibiotics such as HCN, phenazines, pyrrolnitrin, 2,4-diacetyl phloroglucinol, pyoluteorin, viscosinamide and tensin (Bloemberg and Lugtenberg 2001; Ganeshan and Kumar 2007; Beneduzi et al. 2012), production of fungal cell wall-degrading enzymes such as chitinases, cellulases,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanases, and proteases (Glick 2012; Palaniyandi et al. 2013; Figueiredo et al. 2016) and production of volatile metabolites such as mesityl oxide, acetic acid, 2-methylpropyl ester, 4-methyldecane (Alijani et al. 2019),  $\alpha$ -pinene and limonene (Tenorio-salgado et al. 2013).

The antifungal potential of endophytic bacteria is often accessed *in vitro* through dual culture antagonism method, as well by production of volatile HCN, siderophore (Alijani et al. 2019) and extracellular enzymes such as chitinases, since chitinases hydrolyze chitin, which is the major structural component of fungal cell walls (Aktuganov et al. 2008; Caulier et al. 2019).

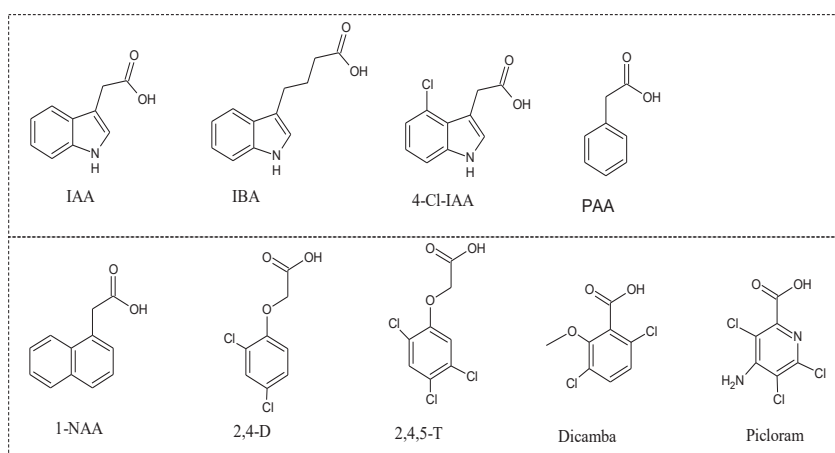
### 2.3 AUXINS

Auxins can be defined as weak organic acids with low molecular weight, containing an indole or an aromatic ring, and a carboxyl group, which to be active, the aromatic ring and the carboxyl acid side need to be separated at distance of 0.55Å (Sauer et al. 2013). Auxins are crystalline, soluble in organic solvents (ethanol,

methanol, acetone, diethyl ether and dimethyl sulphoxide) but slightly soluble in water (Machackova et al. 2008). They are stable with the exception of indol-3-acetic acid (IAA), which is particularly sensitive to oxidants (Machackova et al. 2008) and to light illumination, particularly UV (Yamakawa et al. 1979).

The naturally occurring auxins in plants include IAA, indole-3-butyric acid (IBA), 4-chloroindole-3-acetic acid (4-Cl-IAA), and phenylacetic acid (PAA) (Cao et al. 2019). Along with endogenous auxins, there are many synthetic auxin analogues which include 1-naphthaleneacetic acid (NAA), 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D), 2,4,5-trichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4,5-T), 3,6-dichloro-2-methoxybenzoic acid (dicamba), 4-amino-3,5,6-trichloropicolinic acid (picloram), quinclorac and many others (FIGURE 1).

FIGURE 1 – Auxins



SOURCE: Sauer et al. (2013)

Among all naturally occurring endogenous auxin in plants, IAA is the most abundant and has been well characterized so far (Zhao 2010). The term auxin refers to IAA in plants by strict definition, is an important signal molecule in the regulation of plant growth and development (Patten and Glick 2002b; Donoso et al. 2016). Its central role include stimulation of root initiation (Nutaratat et al. 2016), cell division (Teale et al. 2006), cell elongation by altering cell wall plasticity (Sauer et al. 2013), cell differentiation (Tsavkelova et al. 2006; Sugawara et al. 2015), and response to directional stimuli (tropic response) and shoot branching (Halmann 1990; Grossmann 2010; Ali and Vora 2014).

The IAA response is concentration dependent and different plant tissues might respond in a distinct manner to varying amounts of endogenous IAA (Ludwig-Müller 2011). Regulation of IAA level (Homeostasis) is highly important for the plant to coordinate growth and tissue development. The plant tightly controls the optimum endogenous IAA level by various mechanisms namely: regulation of the rate of IAA biosynthesis; inactivation of the IAA by conjugation with amino acid, peptides or carbohydrates; irreversible degradation (oxidation), and by transportation to other parts of the plant (Olatunji et al. 2017).

### 2.3.1 IAA biosynthesis

IAA biosynthesis is extremely complex, and multiple pathways contribute to *de novo* IAA synthesis, and these pathways can be differentially or combinatorily used in response to environmental signals (Ruiz Rosquete et al. 2012). In both plants and microorganisms, IAA is synthesized by two main routes namely Trp-dependent and Trp-independent pathways (Mohite 2013). The amino acid tryptophan (Trp) has been identified as main precursor for IAA biosynthesis for both plants and microorganisms (Costacurta and Vanderleyden 1995; Spaepen and Vanderleyden 2011; Herlina et al. 2017). The Trp-independent pathway is also believed to exist, it has been demonstrated in *Azospirillum brasilense* (Prinsen et al. 1993) as well in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Normanly et al. 1993), *Lemna gibba* (Baldi et al. 1991), and maize mutant *orange pericarp* (Wright et al. 1991). However, little is known with regard to biochemical and genetic basis for Trp-independent pathway (Mashiguchi et al. 2011; Mano and Nemoto 2012), so far have been only cloned genes encoding Trp-dependent biosynthetic enzymes (Bartel 1997) and have been as well isolated and characterized only biosynthetic intermediates of Trp-dependent pathways (Ljung et al. 2002; Pollmann et al. 2009).

Several different Trp-dependent pathways for synthesis of IAA have been characterized, and most pathways described in microorganism show similarity to those described in plants, although some intermediates can differ (Spaepen et al. 2007; Spaepen and Vanderleyden 2011).

A single microorganism or plant may possess multiple parallel Trp-dependent pathways and some of them may intersect with one another (Patten and Glick 1996; Mohite 2013). These pathways are classified according to their intermediates

namely: indole-3-acetonitrile (IAN), indole-3-acetamide (IAM), indole-3-pyruvic acid (IPyA), tryptamine (TAM), and tryptophan side-chain oxidase (TSO) pathways (FIGURE 2) (Spaepen et al. 2007; Senthil et al. 2010; Li et al. 2018).

#### a) Indole-3-Acetonitrile (IAN) pathway

In the indole-3-acetonitrile (IAN) pathway, tryptophan is first converted into indole-3-acetaldoxime (IAOx) by cytochrome p450 oxidoreductase enzymes (CYP79B2 and CYP79B3 genes) (Zhao et al. 2002). The CYP79B2/B3 genes have so far only been identified in Brassicaceae species (family that includes *Arabidopsis* and other cruciferous plants) (Duca et al. 1996). In the second step, the indole-3-acetaldoxime intermediate is converted into indole-3-acetonitrile by an acetaldoxime dehydratase. The indole-3-acetonitrile intermediate is either converted directly to IAA by a nitrilase enzyme (Reilly and Turner 2003) or is converted into indole-3-acetamide (IAM) by nitrilase or nitrile hydratase, which is further converted to indol-3-acetic acid (IAA) by IAM hydrolase/amidase (Duca et al. 2014).

#### b) Indole-3-Acetamide (IAM) pathway

The indole-3-acetamide (IAM) pathway is considered the most common pathway for IAA biosynthesis in phytopathogenic bacteria (Cerboneschi et al. 2016), and the genes that encode enzymes involved in IAM pathway have been cloned and sequenced (Kochar et al. 2011; Spaepen and Vanderleyden 2011) in many phytopathogens such as in tumor-forming bacterium *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *savastanoi* (Comai and Kosuge 1980; Yang et al. 2007), and in *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (Yamada et al. 1985). This pathway consist in two consecutive steps, first occur oxidative decarboxylation of tryptophan to IAM catalyzed by tryptophan 2-monooxygenase (encoded by *aux1/iaaM/tms-1* genes), then IAM is hydrolyzed to form IAA and ammonia, by IAM hydrolase/amidase (encoded by *aux2/iaaH/tms-2* genes) (Yang et al. 2007; Mano and Nemoto 2012; Kunkel and Harper 2018).

For long time IAM pathway has been considered restricted to bacteria, as no evidence could be found in plant (Spaepen et al. 2007; Mano and Nemoto 2012). However, recent researches have detected enzyme in the genome of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, named *AMI1*, which code an amidase with significant sequence similarity to the IAM-hydrolyzing bacterial amidases, able to catalyze the conversion of IAM to IAA (Pollmann et al. 2003). Nemoto et al. (2009) also isolated the *NtAMI1* gene from BY-2 cells of Tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*), which is equivalent to the *AMI1* gene of *Arabidopsis thaliana*.

### c) IPyA pathway

The IPyA pathway is thought to be the main IAA biosynthetic pathway in land plants (Machackova et al. 2008; Tsugafune et al. 2017). In this pathway, tryptophan is first converted to IPyA by transaminase reaction (Patten and Glick 2002b), followed by decarboxylation of IPyA into indole-3-acetaldehyde (IAAld), which is further converted to IAA either by dehydrogenation (NAD-dependent indoleacetaldehyde dehydrogenase) or by oxidation (indoleacetaldehyde oxidase) (Costacurta and Vanderleyden 1995; Machackova et al. 2008).

The gene *IPDC* which encode indole-3-pyruvate decarboxylase, an enzyme that catalyzes the conversion of IPyA into IAAld for IAA synthesis, has been isolated and characterized in *A. brasilense*, and has been demonstrated that most of IAA synthesis is strongly mediated by *IPDC* (Costacurta et al., 1994). The importance of IPyA pathway in IAA production has been also demonstrated in plant growth-promoting bacterium *P. putida* 12-2, where the inactivation of *IPDC* gene by insertional mutagenesis results in loss of IAA production (Patten and Glick 2002a). However, the accepted role of indole-3-acetaldehyde (IAAld) as an intermediate in this pathway has been questioned by recent data. Genetic and biochemical evidences demonstrated that IAA biosynthesis is predominantly from tryptophan via two sequential enzymatic reactions (Tsugafune et al. 2017), being IPyA the sole intermediate (Zhao 2014; Sugawara et al. 2015; Cook and Ross 2016). The tryptophan is first

converted to IPyA by *TAA*s ( gene family of tryptophan aminotransferase), then IPyA go through decarboxylation by *YUC* (gene family of flavin monooxygenases) to produce IAA (Zhao 2012). *TAA* and *YUC* are two families of enzymes widely found in various plant species, including *Arabidopsis*, maize, rice, and several other species (Cook et al. 2016; Kasahara 2016), being tryptophan a preferred substrate for *TAA* gene family, while IPyA can be converted into IAA by catalyze of *YUC* gene family or IPyA can go through substantial non enzymatic breakdown to produce IAA (Cook et al. 2016).

#### d) Tryptamine (TAM) pathway

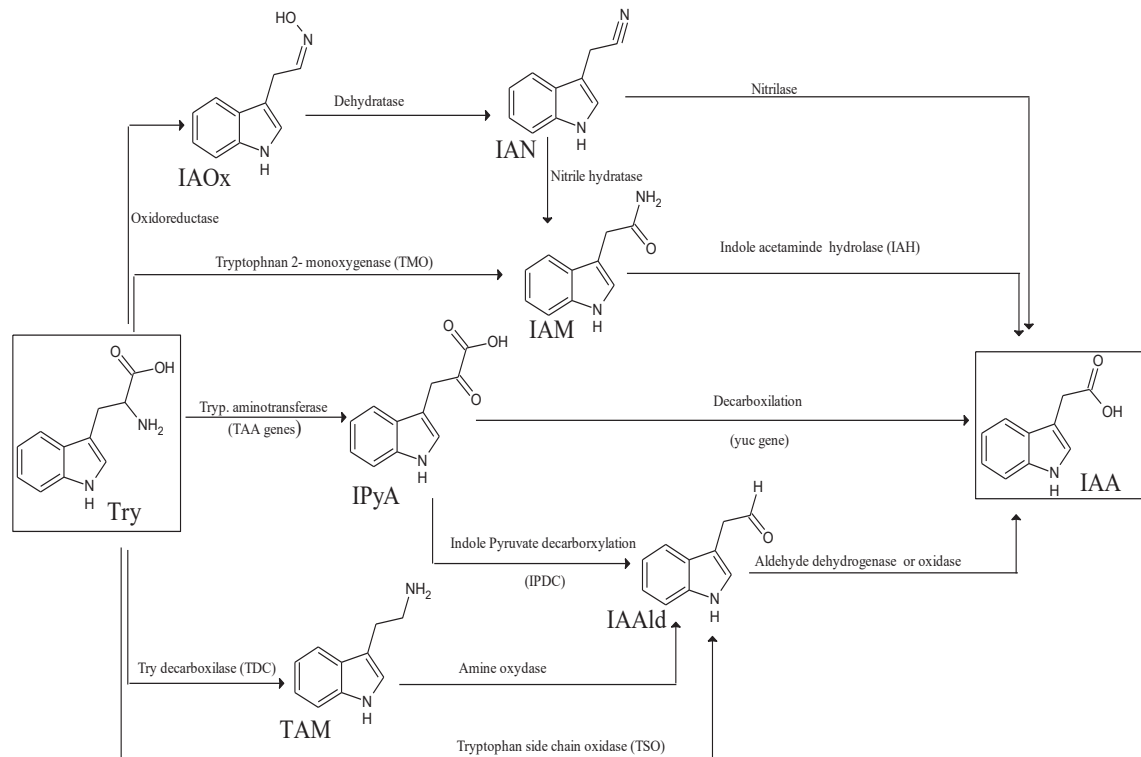
The TAM pathway is similar to the IPyA pathway, the only difference between these two pathways is the order of the deamination and decarboxylation reactions. The IAA biosynthesis in this pathway initiate with decarboxylation of tryptophan to TAM, which is then converted to IAAld by amine oxidase (Bunsangiam et al. 2019). The last step consists in conversion of IAAld into IAA by enzymatic action of IAAld dehydrogenase.

#### e) Tryptophan side chain oxidase (TSO) pathway

In this pathway, tryptophan is directly converted into indole-3-acetylaldehyde (IAAld) by a tryptophan side chain monooxygenase enzyme, which is then converted to IAA by action of IAAld dehydrogenase (Oberhansli et al. 1991).



FIGURE 2– IAA biosynthesis by Trp-dependent pathways



SOURCE: Adapted from Li et al. (2018)

### 2.3.2 Inactivation of IAA by conjugation

The free IAA can conjugate with amino acids, peptides, and proteins via amide bonds or with simple alcohols and sugars (e.g. glucose) by ester linkages (Normanly et al. 1993). In plants, the conjugated form of IAA represents approximately 95% of the IAA pool, and more than 80% of the IAA pool in *Arabidopsis* is present as amide derivatives (Bartel and Fink 1995). The most common amide conjugate in *Arabidopsis* are: IAA-Alanine (IAA-Ala), IAA-Leucine (IAA-Leu), IAA-Aspartate (IAA-Asp), and IAA-Glutamate (IAA-Glu) (Sauer et al. 2013).

Conjugation of endogenous IAA protect the free IAA from irreversibly oxidative degradation (Cohen and Bandurski 1982), inactivate excess IAA allowing rapid alteration of free IAA concentration, and act as temporary storage form of IAA in seeds and is a transport form in shoots (Sitbon et al. 1993; Rampey et al. 2004; Zazimalová et al. 2014).

The IAA-conjugates are not active auxins *per se*, the biological activities of IAA-conjugates are directly correlated to the ability of the plant tissue to enzymatically hydrolyze them to source free IAA (Bialek et al. 1983; LeClere et al. 2002), which has free carboxyl group that is essential for auxin activities.

### 2.3.3 Oxidative degradation of IAA

The over-production in plant or the exogenous application of IAA can trigger the oxidative degradation of IAA, contributing to the regulation of the level of IAA (Novák et al. 2012). The IAA degradation can occur either by oxidative decarboxylation of the side chain or by oxidation of indole ring without decarboxylation of the side chain. The decarboxylative oxidation of IAA is catalyzed by IAA-oxidase/peroxidase and leads to formation of degradation products such as oxindole-3-methanol, indole-3-aldehyde, methylene oxindole and indole-3-carboxylic acid. The IAA degradation without decarboxylation involves complex pathways, and results in formation of oxindole derivatives such as oxindole-3-acetic acid (OxIAA) and dioxindole-3-acetic acid (diOxIAA) (Lalit 2002).

## 2.4 BIOSYNTHESIS OF MICROBIAL SECONDARY METABOLITES

The biosynthesis of secondary metabolites usually occurs at stationary phase (idiophase), when medium is depleted and as result the cells stop dividing (Weinberg 1969; Ruiz et al. 2010). When cells are growing actively, the secondary metabolites are either very less or are not formed, thus cells growth and secondary metabolites production is inversely related.

The synthesis of secondary metabolites is genetic in nature (Okada and Seyedsayamdost 2017), but is greatly influenced by culture conditions. Genes that trigger the biosynthesis of secondary metabolites can be over expressed by the change or manipulation of cultural conditions such as media composition (carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus sources, trace elements), salinity, temperature, pH, and by addition of precursor (Bode et al. 2002; Netzker et al. 2015).

#### 2.4.1 Carbon source

Carbon is the most important medium component, provides both energy for microorganisms and carbon units for biosynthesis of all metabolites (Singh et al. 2017; Pan et al. 2019). The alteration on the type and concentration of carbon sources has been recognized to have a significant influence on microbial secondary metabolite production (Luchese and Harrigan 1993; Ruiz et al. 2010). The carbon regulation of secondary metabolite production could be, for example, by catabolic repression which involves the inhibition of formation of certain enzymes by the catabolic products of carbon source (Bunch and Harris 1986; Demain 2006).

Many enzymes and secondary metabolites have been reported to be affected by carbon catabolic regulation (Spížek and Tichý 1995; Sanchez and Demain 2002). One distinctive characteristic of secondary metabolism is its association with low growth levels (Sánchez et al. 2010), this is, the carbon source rapidly assimilated by microorganism is often used first to produce cells (biomass), and the synthesis of secondary metabolite often occur after most of biomass has been produced. For instance, glucose has been reported to be excellent for growth but interferes with the biosynthesis of many secondary metabolite, whereas polysaccharides (e.g., starch), oligosaccharides (e.g., lactose), and oils ( e.g., soybean oil) are often found to be better than glucose as carbon sources for secondary metabolite production (Martin and Demain 1980).

On the media where the initial growth rate is slower, production of secondary metabolites can become growth associated (Bunch and Harris 1986). However, depending on the type of microorganism, different undesirable carbon catabolic effects on secondary metabolite production can be observed (Romero-Rodríguez et al. 2017).

#### 2.4.2 Nitrogen source

Nitrogen source is required for the synthesis of essential proteins, nucleic acids, and secondary metabolites (Pan et al. 2019). The microorganism can use both inorganic nitrogen source such as nitrate, nitrite and ammonium ions and/or organic nitrogen source like urea and amino acids for production of secondary metabolites (Singh et al. 2017), but preferences varies among microorganisms.

The production of secondary metabolites is negatively affected by nitrogen source favorable for growth such as ammonium (Demain 1986; Tudzynski 2014; Sharma and Jha 2015). As result, the slow assimilated nitrogen sources are often used for secondary metabolite production.

Nitrogen regulation of secondary metabolites production has been well demonstrated in Cyanobacteria and consists in repression of the pathways of assimilation of some nitrogen sources when other easily assimilated source of nitrogen is available to the cells. Rückert and Giani (2004) reported that nitrate, nitrite and ammonium are all used as inorganic nitrogen source by the Cyanobacteria, but when ammonium is available in culture medium in addition to one of these nitrogen source, the ammonium repressed the uptake of these other nitrogen source. Likewise, Herrero et al. (2001) reported that most of the genes encoding nitrogen assimilation enzymes are repressed by ammonium in Cyanobacteria.

In general, the nitrogen source rapidly assimilated such as ammonia, represses enzymes involved in the use of other nitrogen sources such as nitrite reductase, nitrate reductase, arginase, glutamate dehydrogenase, ornithine transaminase, extracellular protease, acetamidase, and threonine dehydratase (Martin and Demain 1980; Demain 1986).

In addition to above mentioned, the type and availability of nitrogen source also regulate the secondary metabolite production. Aharonowitz and Demain (1979) demonstrated that ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) when was added as the sole nitrogen source strongly inhibited and/or repressed the antibiotic production, whereas certain amino acid including asparagine stimulated the antibiotic (cephalosporin) production in *Streptomyces clavuligerus*. They also observed that the production was highest under nitrogen limitation even when ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) was the sole nitrogen source. Likewise, Giordano et al. (1999) reported that bikaverin and gibberellins production by *Gibberella fujikuroi* began after nitrogen source depletion. Sánchez et al. (1981) reported that high  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  concentration in the medium led to 38% reduction in antibiotic (penicillin G) formation in *Penicillium chrysogenum* NRRL 1951.

#### 2.4.3 Carbon-Nitrogen balance

The Carbon-Nitrogen (C-N) balance has been reported to regulate the secondary metabolite production (López et al. 2003). Brzonkalik et al. (2012) studied

the effect of different C-N ratios on production of alternariol (AOH), alternariol monomethylether (AME) and tenuazonic acid (TA) by *Alternaria alternata* DSM 12633, and observed that carbon to nitrogen (C-N) ratio was one of factors that influenced their production. They demonstrated clearly that alternariol is produced in the stationary growth phase after nitrogen depletion, and that an excess of carbon has a positive impact on alternariol production. On the other hand, Dinarvand et al. (2013) obtained higher production of enzymes under excess of nitrogen and carbon limitation.

#### 2.4.4 Metal ion

The biosynthesis of the secondary metabolites can be enhanced or repressed by addition of certain metal micronutrients to the fermentation medium. Some metal ions such as Fe, Cu, Mn, Zn, Co, Ni, Mo, Mg, are used as cofactors by certain microbial enzymes involved in biosynthesis of secondary metabolite, and many other metal micronutrients are also directly or indirectly involved in the secondary metabolism of microbes (Dubey et al. 2019). For example, Failla and Niehaus (1986) observed that  $Zn^{2+}$  regulates the synthesis of versicolorin A in a mutant strain of *Aspergillus parasiticus*. Likewise,  $Fe^{3+}$ ,  $Cu^{2+}$  and  $Zn^{2+}$  ions have been shown to enhance canthaxanthin production of *D. natronolimnaea* HS-1 (Nasrabadi and Razavi 2010). Heavy metal ions  $La^{3+}$ ,  $Ce^{3+}$  and  $Nd^{3+}$  had been reported to have stimulatory effect on carotenoid synthesis in *Phaffia rhodozyma* (Pettit 2011).

#### 2.4.5 Phosphate

Phosphate ions are essential for all energy requiring enzymatic reactions for synthesis of protein and nucleic acids, carbon and nitrogen metabolism, biomass production, as well as in the regulation of secondary metabolite biosynthesis (Spížek and Tichý 1995).

The synthesis of secondary metabolite often reported in literature are negatively regulated by phosphate, their synthesis occur only under phosphate-limiting nutritional conditions (Luchese and Harrigan 1993; Martín 2004) including

spiramycin (Lounès et al. 1996), actinorhodin (Hobbs et al. 1990), nanaomycin (Masuma et al. 1986) and actinorhodin (Doull and Vining 1990).

#### 2.4.6 Salinity

The secondary metabolites produced by a variety of microorganism may be regulated by environmental factors including salinity. Suitable salinity is needed for normal microbial growth, but high salt stress may trigger synthesis pathway to restore osmotic imbalance, thus activating silent genes encoding secondary metabolite (Huang et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2011; Pan et al. 2019).

#### 2.4.7 Temperature

Temperature is an important factor that affects the bacterial growth and modulates secondary metabolite gene expression. Lind et al. (2016) reported that the regulation of secondary metabolism by the velvet protein complex was temperature-responsive in *Aspergillus fumigatus*.

The synthesis of secondary metabolite is directly influenced by optimal temperature of microbial enzyme activity (Pan et al. 2019). Cultivation of microorganism at higher temperature often weakened and reduce enzyme production (Thi Nguyen and Tran 2018).

#### 2.4.8 External pH

The regulator effect of pH on the synthesis of microbial secondary metabolite had been reported in many studies. These studies presented genetic evidence that external pH exerts great influence over secondary metabolite gene expression. Gardiner et al. (2009) observed that low pH regulates the production of deoxynivalenol by *Fusarium graminearum*. Keller et al. (1997) reported that sterigmatocystin and aflatoxin biosynthesis in *Aspergillus* spp. was regulated by pH. Likewise, Espeso et al. (1993) reported that fungal penicillin biosynthetic gene expression was regulated by pH.

#### 2.4.9 Precursor

The addition of a biosynthetic precursor (intermediate) to culture medium, that is rate limiting during secondary metabolite formation, is able to increase the yield or to directs the biosynthesis route toward desired secondary metabolite (Drew and Demain, 1977; Demain, 1998).

Several classes of secondary metabolites use aromatic amino acids or other metabolites derived from the shikimate pathways (e.g. flavonoids and alkaloids) as precursors (Pickens et al. 2011), for example, amino acid L-tryptophan has been reported to enhance the synthesis of IAA when exogenously supplied in the culture medium (Bharucha et al., 2013; Costacurta et al., 1994; Hasuty et al., 2018).

### 2.5 OPTIMIZATION OF SECONDARY METABOLITE PRODUCTION

#### 2.5.1 Classical “One-Factor-At-Time” method

The one-factor-at-time (OFAT) method has been the most preferred choice for initial stage of optimization of medium components as well as for fermentation conditions. This method consists in changing one variable at a time while keeping other variables constant (at fixed level) (Frey et al. 2003; Soni et al. 2007; Chen et al. 2009). The OFAT is simply and convenience for screening short list of variables and the results of experiments can be analyzed by using simple graphs without the aid of sophisticate statistical programs (Panda et al. 2007). However, this method is extremely laborious, time consuming and expensive when involves the analysis of a large number of variables, and often does not bring about the effect of interaction among various parameters (Soni et al. 2007; Nor et al. 2017).

#### 2.5.2 Statistical method - Two level full Factorial Designs

Two-level ( $2^k$ ) full Factorial Designs are the most powerful screening designs and require experiments to be carried out at all possible combinations of the two levels of each of the k factors considered. The low and high levels of the factors in the design are expressed as (−1) and (+1) in coded units, respectively.

The two-level ( $2^k$ ) full factorial designs allows the estimation of the effect of a factor at different levels of the other factors, as well as the magnitude of interactions effect (antagonistic or synergistic effects) between two or more factors on the response (Syed et al. 2013).

However, the two-level ( $2^k$ ) full factorial designs become infeasible when involve a large number of factors. For example, a  $2^k$  design with 8 factors ( $2^8$ ) has 256 combinations, therefore would be required 256 experiments. Certainly, it would be difficult to maintain experimental conditions unchanged during a large number of experiments, as well as to interpret the large size of factorial experiment especially when there are interactions between factors (Durakovic 2017).

On the other hand, the Fractionate Factorial Designs enable the evaluation of a large number of input factors with a reduced number of experiments required (Bezerra et al. 2008), by fractionating a full factorial  $2^k$  design into a  $2^{k-p}$  design, where  $p$  is the number of generators chosen to fractionate the design. For example, a full factorial  $2^k$  design with four (4) input factors can be half-fractionated ( $2^{4-1} = 8$  experiments), and five (5) input factors can be quarter fractionated ( $2^{5-2} = 8$  experiments) (Fukuda et al. 2018).

### 2.5.3 Plackett-Burman Design

Plackett-Burman Design (PBD) is a special type of two-level Fractionate Factorial Designs, is often used early in the experimentation phase to screen out non-contributing factors or to identify factors with significant effect to the response, which are then optimized by Response Surface Methodology in the subsequent studies. It allows the estimation of main effects for  $(4n-1)$  factors using a minimal number of experiments ( $n$ ), where  $n$  represents multiples of 4, and starts from 8 and goes until 100 with the exception of  $n = 92$  ( $n = 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32, 36$ ). For example, 4, 5, 6, or 7 factors would require 8 experimental runs, whereas 8, 9, 10, or 11 factors would require 12 experimental runs.

The Plackett-Burman Design should be used to study main effects when the factors have no interactions or are negligible, otherwise the effect of a certain factor would be enhanced or masked by other factors (Cheng 2006).

The construction of Plackett-Burman experimental design is based in Hadamard matrices, and the elements are either identified by (-) or (+) which



designate the lower and higher levels of the corresponding factor, respectively (Plackett and Burman 1946). However, caution must be taken when setting the level differential, as a small differential may not show any effect and a large differential for a sensitive factor can mask other factors (Rajput et al. 2016; Fukuda et al. 2018).

#### 2.5.4 Response Surface Methodology

Response Surface Methodology (RSM) is a collection of mathematical and statistical techniques often used for optimization of multiple variables with minimum/reduced number of experiments (Kunamneni and Ellaiah 2002; Zhang et al. 2009; Yadavalli et al. 2013). It is useful for setting up a series of experiments (design) able to yield adequate and reliable data to build empirical models, as well as to study the effects of interaction between factors and to determine the region of optimum conditions (input factors) that lead to the production of desirable responses (Chen et al. 2009; Barışçı and Turkay 2016). The RSM typically consists in the following steps:

- Screening of important factors using Plackett-Burman Design, for example;
- Choice of appropriate experimental design, and selection of experimental matrix. The Central Composite Design (CCD) and the Box-Behnken Design (BBD) are the two RSM designs commonly used for response optimization (Ahsan et al. 2017). However, CCD is one of the most preferred optimization designs, which is a five levels design ( $-\alpha, -1, 0, +1, +\alpha$ ), created from a  $2^k$  factorial (or  $2^{k-p}$ ) design and augmented with center points and axial points ( $\alpha$ ) (Fukuda et al. 2018). The axial points depend on the number of variables and can be calculated by  $\alpha = 2^{(k-p)/4}$  (Bezerra et al. 2008);
- Running of experiments accordingly to experimental matrix chosen;
- The results of the experiments are then mathematically and statistically treated to fit a second-order model (polynomial function). The coefficient of the linear terms (e.g.,  $X_1, X_2, X_3$ ), interaction terms ( $X_1X_2, X_1X_3, X_2X_3$ ), and quadratic terms (e.g.,  $X_1^2, X_2^2, X_3^2$ ) should be included in the mathematical model based on their p-values

through application of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) (Fukuda et al. 2018);

- Evaluation of the model's fitness;
- Verification of the necessity and possibility of performing a displacement in direction to the optimal region;
- Determination of optimum values for each input factor. The surface contour plots (3D surface and contour graphs) visually describe the relationship between variables and response. The surface contour plots are generated as a combination of two input factors with the others maintained at their respective zero levels.

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### **3 ISOLATION OF ENDOPHYTIC BACTERIA AND SELECTION OF BETTER IAA PRODUCERS**

#### **3.1 MATERIAL AND METHODS**

##### **3.1.1 Mushroom collection**

The wild mushrooms were collected at the Polytechnic Center (25°26'57.52"S, 49°13'53.12"W and 25°26'52.51"S, 49°13'1.99"W) and at Botanical Garden (25°26'49,19"S, 49°14'11,64"W and 25°26'49,09"S, 49°14'16,16"W) of the Federal University of Paraná Campus, municipality of Curitiba-PR, during period of September to November of 2017 and April to May of 2018. The collected mushrooms were taken to the Bioprocess Engineering Laboratory – CENBAPAR (25°26'56,08"S, 49°14'04,52"W) for isolation of endophytic bacteria.

##### **3.1.2 Mushroom surface sterilization**

Mushrooms were surface sterilized following the method described by Gautam et al. (2016) with slight modifications. Mushrooms were first washed with tap water to remove dust and adhering soil residues. Then, mushrooms were immediately surface sterilized by rinsing it in 70% EtOH for 1min, 2.5% NaClO for 2min, 70% EtOH for 30s, and washing three times in autoclaved dH<sub>2</sub>O. Following, the mushrooms were surface dried with sterile paper towels.

##### **3.1.3 Assessment of surface sterilization**

In order to check the effectiveness of the disinfection process, two drops of the last rinse in autoclaved dH<sub>2</sub>O was inoculated in Petri dishes containing nutrient agar (NA) medium. The Petri dish was sealed with parafilm paper and taked to incubation in darkness, at 30°C for 48h. The absence of bacterial growth on the Petri dish means that the surface sterilization was effective.

### 3.1.4 Isolation of endophytic bacteria

In a laminar air flow cabinet, inner portions of surface sterilized mushrooms were cut in 1x1x1cm pieces with a sterile scalpel. Then, three pieces were immediately inoculated separately in the same Petri dish containing NA medium and sealed using parafilm tape; they were also inoculated in a tube containing nutrient broth (NB) medium, then taken to incubation in darkness, at 30°C in order to recover the maximum possible bacterial endophytes. After 48h of incubation, the endophytic bacteria cultivated in NB medium were subcultured in NA medium. After all, morphologically different bacterial colonies were selected and repeatedly streaked on NA medium until pure cultures were obtained. The pure bacterial colonies were then characterized based on morphology (e.g. color), Gram's staining, oxygen requirements, and biochemical testing following protocols described by Johnson and Case (2014). All isolated endophytic bacteria were stored in 20% glycerol at -20°C, for other subsequent experiments.

### 3.1.5 Screening of isolates for IAA production

Bacterial colonies were aseptically inoculated in 10mL NB medium, then incubated in darkness, at 30°C for 48h. After incubation, 120µL of cell suspension was transferred to sterile conical tube (15mL) containing 5mL of medium for IAA production (TABLE 1), pH adjusted to 7.0, then taken to incubation on shaker at 120rpm, 30°C for 16h. Ended the incubation period, an aliquot of 250µL was aseptically inoculated in 150mL Erlenmeyer flask containing 25mL of medium for IAA production supplemented with 0.5mg/mL L-tryptophan. The Erlenmeyer flask was then incubated on shaker at 120rpm, 30°C for 5 days. The experiments were performed in triplicate.

The production of IAA was qualitatively and quantitatively determined by colorimetric method using Salkowski's reagent (Gordon and Weber 1950). After fermentation, 2mL aliquot of each sample was taken to centrifugation at 3500rpm for 10min. In a clean tube was mixed 1mL of culture supernatant with 2mL of Salkowski's reagent (50mL Perchloric acid 35% and 0.5mL of FeCl<sub>3</sub> 0.5M). The mixture was then kept on darkness for 30min at room temperature. After 30min, the development of pink color was considered as positive for IAA production. The

intensity of color development is proportional to IAA production, and hence the resulting colors were qualitatively rated as following: (-) No IAA production, (+) Low IAA production, (++) Medium IAA production, and (+++) High IAA production. The samples that exhibited color intensity qualitatively classified as medium and high IAA production were further quantified by measuring absorbance at 530nm in spectrophotometer. The IAA concentration was determined from authentic IAA standard curve.

TABLE 1 – Medium for IAA production

| Medium components                    | Concentration |
|--------------------------------------|---------------|
| K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub>      | 1.0 g/L       |
| MgSO <sub>4</sub> .7H <sub>2</sub> O | 0.2 g/L       |
| NaCl                                 | 1.0 g/L       |
| CaCl <sub>2</sub> .6H <sub>2</sub> O | 0.06 g/L      |
| Glycerol                             | 48.34 g/L     |
| Corn steep liquor                    | 9.09 g/L      |

### 3.1.6 Phosphate solubilization

All isolates were qualitatively assessed for phosphate solubilizing activity according to the method described by Nautiyal (1999). Briefly, bacterial culture (10µL), previously grown in NB medium, was inoculated in the middle of Petri dishes containing National Botanical Research Institute's Phosphate (NBRIP) solid medium, and then incubated in darkness, at 30°C for 7 days. The ability to solubilize phosphate was detected by the formation of clear halo around bacterial colony and qualitatively rated as (+), whereas the lack of formation of halo around bacterial colony was classified as (-).

### 3.1.7 Nitrogen fixation activity

All isolates were tested for nitrogen fixation activity through the methodology described by Goswami et al. (2015). Bacterial colony was aseptically inoculated in a tube with 8mL of nitrogen-free bromothymol blue (NfB) medium, then incubated at 30°C for 4 days. Color change, from green to blue, was a positive indicator for nitrogen fixation activity and qualitatively classified as (+) whereas the lack of change of color was classified as (-) which means no nitrogen fixation activity.

### 3.2 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In total, seventy-one (71) endophytic bacteria with different morphologies, oxygen requirements, and biochemical characteristics were isolated from surface sterilized mushrooms (TABLE 2). In agreement with our result, Ramalashmi et al. (2018) isolated a high number of endophytic bacteria with the use of NA medium. Likewise, Anjum and Chandra (2015) reported successful isolation of about 35 endophytic bacteria from four medicinal plants using NA medium.

This study demonstrated the occurrence and diversity of culturable endophyte bacteria from wild mushrooms (FIGURE 3), however the recovering of these microorganisms depended mainly on the isolation media and surface sterilization. In the present study, NA and NB media have been used as an initial strategy for recovering endophytic bacteria from mushrooms. NB has the same formulation as NA, the only difference is that the NB medium is liquid (does not contain agar for solidification). The strategy of using both liquid and solid/semi-solid media for initial growth is important because certain bacterial strains might have their growth inhibited by oxygen. Pure cultures of endophytic bacteria were obtained by streaking on NA medium, since NA medium allows separation of bacterial colonies (visible to the naked eye). This is not the first study to report the isolation of endophytic bacteria from mushrooms. Gautam et al. (2016) reported the isolation endophytic bacteria *Enterobacter* sp. from edible mushroom *Agaricus bisporus*, with ability to produce bioactive compounds.

The protocol used for sterilization of mushrooms was found effective, as confirmed by the absence of any colony growth on the NA plates where aliquots of dH<sub>2</sub>O used for final rinse of mushroom surface were inoculated. Therefore, bacterial isolates obtained from sterilized mushrooms can be considered endophytic. Moreover, the huge number of endophytic bacteria isolated from mushrooms means that the surface sterilization protocol used was effective at eliminating the epiphytic microorganisms, without affecting or affecting in minimal magnitude the endophytic microorganisms.

The IAA production capacity was used as the main characteristic for the selection of endophytic bacteria capable of promoting plant growth. Based on qualitative analysis, eight (8) endophytic bacteria were classified as medium (++) and high (+++) producers of IAA (TABLE 2). Quantitative analysis of these 8 endophytic bacteria

revealed that only two (2) isolates, namely *Cog placa 12ST1* and *Cog tubo umido 2*, were the efficient producers of IAA (124–140  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ), and this production of IAA is equal to or higher than many other bacteria previously reported by many authors (TABLE 3).

Endophytic bacteria may exhibit multiple traits for promotion of plant growth. The results of this study revealed that some isolated endophytic bacteria, in addition to IAA production capability, also have other mechanisms for plant growth promotion such as phosphate solubilization and nitrogen fixation activity (FIGURE 4). Approximately 35% were able to solubilize phosphate, and 27% exhibited ability to fix nitrogen (TABLE 2).

FIGURE 3 – Some wild mushrooms collected. Names are coded.

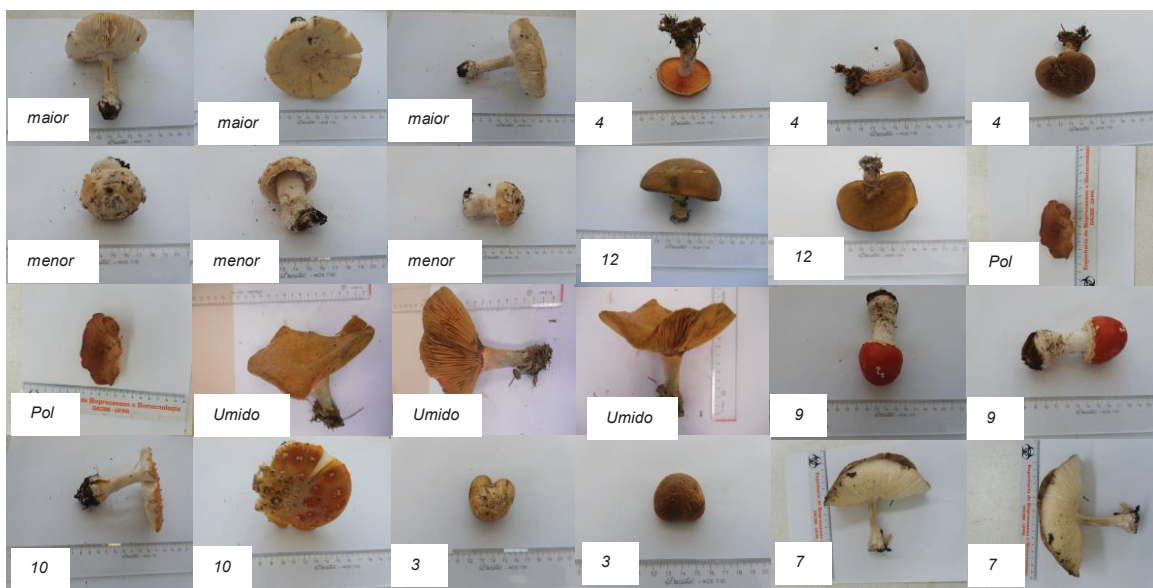


FIGURE 4 – a) Phosphate solubilization activity shown by formation of clear zone around bacterial growth. b)  $\text{N}_2$  fixation activity detected by color changing of culture.

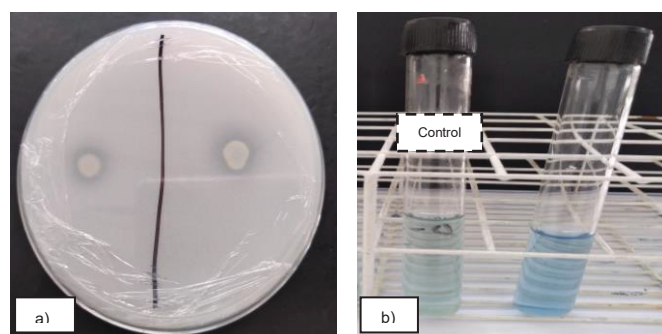


TABLE 2 – Morphology, oxygen and biochemical characteristics of isolates, along with IAA production and other PGP traits

| Mushroom Code | Isolation tissue | Initial growth media | Isolate code            | Morphological Characteristics |               |               | Biochemical Characteristics |                             |       |          | Oxygen requirements |                    |                       |                | IAA production |                      | Other PGP traits         |                         |
|---------------|------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|----------|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
|               |                  |                      |                         | Colony color                  | Gram staining | Cell shape    | Fermentation of sugars      | H <sub>2</sub> S production | Indol | Motility | Obligate aerobic    | Obligate Anaerobic | Facultative anaerobic | Microaerophile | Qualitative    | Quantitative (µg/mL) | Phosphate solubilization | N <sub>2</sub> Fixation |
| 1             | Stem             | NA                   | <i>Calo placa 1-1</i>   | white                         | +ve           | Bacillus      | -                           | -                           | -     | -        | X                   |                    |                       |                | -              |                      | -                        | -                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Calo placa 1-2</i>   | white                         | -ve           | Coccus        | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | -                        | -                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Calo placa1-3</i>    | white                         | -ve           | Coccus        | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | +                        | -                       |
|               |                  | NB                   | <i>Calo tubo 1-1</i>    | yellow                        | -ve           | Coccus        | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | -                        | +                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Calo tubo 1-2</i>    | white                         | -ve           | Diplococcus   | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | +                        | -                       |
| 3             | Cap              | NA                   | <i>Cog placa 3-1</i>    | yellow                        | -ve           | Streptococcus | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     | X                  |                       |                | +++            | 89.9± 8              | -                        | -                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Cog placa 3-2</i>    | yellow                        | +ve           | Coccus        | Glu/Lac/Suc                 | -                           | -     | +        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | -                        | -                       |
|               |                  | NB                   | <i>Cog tubo 3-1</i>     | yellow                        | +ve           | Coccus        | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | +                        | -                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Calo placa 4-1</i>   | cream                         | -ve           | Coccus        | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     | X                  |                       |                | -              |                      | -                        | +                       |
| 4             | Cap              | NA                   | <i>Calo placa 4-2</i>   | yellow                        | -ve           | Bacillus      | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    | X                     |                | +              |                      | -                        | -                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Calo placa 4-2A</i>  | cream                         | +ve           | Coccus        | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     | X                  |                       |                | -              |                      | -                        | +                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Calo placa 4-3</i>   | white                         | +ve           | Coccus        | Glu                         | -                           | -     | -        |                     | X                  |                       |                | +              |                      | -                        | -                       |
|               |                  | NA                   | <i>Calo placa 6-1</i>   | yellow                        | -ve           | Coccus        | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     | X                  |                       |                | -              |                      | -                        | -                       |
| 6             | Stem             | NB                   | <i>Calo tubo 6-1</i>    | white                         | +ve           | Coccus        | Glu                         | -                           | -     | -        | X                   |                    |                       |                | -              |                      | -                        | -                       |
|               | Cap              | NA                   | <i>Cog placa 6-1</i>    | yellow                        | +ve           | Bacillus      | Glu                         | -                           | -     | -        |                     | X                  |                       |                | -              |                      | -                        | +                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Cog placa 6-2</i>    | white                         | +ve           | Bacillus      | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | -                        | -                       |
| 7             | Stem             | NB                   | <i>Calo tubo 7-1</i>    | cream                         | +ve           | Coccus        | Glu                         | -                           | -     | +        |                     |                    | X                     |                | ++             | 29±11                | -                        | -                       |
|               |                  | NA                   | <i>Calo placa7-1</i>    | cream                         | +ve           | Coccus        | Glu                         | -                           | -     | +        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | +                        | -                       |
| 9             | Stem             | NA                   | <i>Calo placa 9-1</i>   | yellow                        | +ve           | Diplococcus   | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | -                        | +                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Calo placa 9-2</i>   | yellow                        | +ve           | Coccus        | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    |                       | X              | -              |                      | +                        | -                       |
|               |                  | NB                   | <i>Calo tubo 9-1</i>    | yellow                        | -ve           | Coccus        | Glu/Lac/Suc                 | -                           | -     | +        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | +                        | -                       |
| 10            | Stem             | NB                   | <i>Calo tubo 10-1A</i>  | yellow                        | +ve           | Diplococcus   | Glu/Lac/Suc                 | -                           | +     | +        |                     |                    | X                     |                | ++             | 21±1                 | +                        | -                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Calo tubo 10-1</i>   | cream                         | +ve           | Coccus        | Glu                         | -                           | -     | +        |                     |                    |                       | X              | +++            | 96±25                | +                        | -                       |
|               |                  | NA                   | <i>Calo placa 10-2</i>  | cream                         | +ve           | Bacillus      | Glu/Lac/Suc                 | -                           | -     | +        | X                   |                    |                       |                | -              |                      | +                        | +                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Calo placa 10-3</i>  | cream                         | +ve           | Coccus        | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | -                        | +                       |
|               |                  |                      | <i>Calo placa 10-3A</i> | transparent                   | -ve           | Bacillus      | -                           | -                           | -     | -        |                     |                    | X                     |                | -              |                      | -                        | -                       |
| 11            | Cap              | NA                   | <i>Cog placa 11-1</i>   | white                         | +ve           | Bacillus      | -                           | -                           | -     | +        | X                   |                    |                       |                | +++            | 68± 31               | -                        | +                       |
|               |                  | NB                   | <i>Cog tubo 11-1</i>    | white                         | +ve           | Bacillus      | Gluc                        | -                           | -     | +        |                     |                    | X                     |                | +              |                      | -                        | +                       |







### 3.3 CONCLUSION

The study demonstrated that wild mushrooms harbor a variety of cultivable endophytic bacteria, with diverse plant growth promotion traits. Among seventy-one (71) endophytic bacterial strains isolated from wild mushrooms, 35% were able to solubilize phosphate, 27% were able to fix atmospheric nitrogen and 38% were able to produce IAA. Eight (8) endophytic bacteria were qualitatively classified as good IAA producers. Based on the quantitative analysis of the production of IAA, two (2) bacterial strains called *Cog placca 12ST1* and *Cog tubo umido 2* were considered efficient producers of IAA, therefore they were selected for the study of medium and conditions optimization for IAA production.

In the later study, the strains *Cog placca 12ST1* and *Cog tubo umido 2* were identified by molecular technique as *Enterobacter* sp. and *Providencia* sp., respectively.

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**4 ARTICLE 1: OPTIMIZED PRODUCTION OF INDOL-3-ACETIC ACID FOR AGRICULTURE APPLICATION BY A NOVEL *Enterobacter* sp. ISOLATED FROM WILD MUSHROOM *Boletus edulis***

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#### 4.1 ABSTRACT

Strain *Enterobacter* sp. was isolated from fruiting body of a common edible mushroom *Boletus edulis* and identified using 16S rRNA. The presence of Enterobacteriaceae family within the fruiting body of *Boletus edulis* was confirmed by metagenomic analysis.

The ability to produce Indol-3-Acetic Acid (IAA) was assessed by colorimetric method and confirmed by HPLC analysis. The IAA production was optimized using classical “One-Factor-At-Time” method and statistical methods namely: Two Level Full Factorial Design, Plackett-Burman Design and Response Surface Methodology. Starch and yeast extract were found as the best carbon and nitrogen sources, respectively. The starch/yeast extract ratio for higher IAA production was 60/4.146 (g/L) or simply 14.47. Starch and L-tryptophan were the input factors found significant to the IAA production and their optimal concentration were 52.556 g/L and 15mg/mL, respectively. Under optimized concentrations of starch and L-tryptophan, *Enterobacter* sp. strain produced  $1838.8 \pm 67.8$  µg/mL of IAA, representing about 12-fold increase when compared to IAA produced under un-optimized fermentation medium. The effect of incubation time on IAA production revealed 168h as suitable, with horary IAA production of  $13.8 \pm 0.9$  µg/mL.h ( $2311.0 \pm 155.7$  µg/mL).

According to *in vitro* studies, the strain *Enterobacter* sp. showed ability to solubilize phosphate, fix atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>, produce NH<sub>3</sub>, had antagonistic activity against *Gibberella* sp. and *Fusarium moniliforme*, and delayed sporulation of *Aspergillus niger*.

*In vivo* studies, bacterial suspension of the strain *Enterobacter* sp. containing IAA promoted higher germination rate and dry weight of soybean plant than bacterial suspension without IAA (control).

**Keywords:** endophytic bacteria; Indol-3-Acetic Acid; plant growth promotion traits; mushroom; metagenomic analysis

#### 4.2 INTRODUCTION

According to United Nations (2015, 2019) reports, the current world population of 7.6 billion is projected to grow to around 8.5 billion in 2030, 9.7 billion in 2050, and 10.9 billion in 2100, and the demand for food and other agricultural products is anticipated to increase by 50% between 2012 and 2050.

During the last century, world agriculture experienced higher increase in crop yield, due to the increased use of chemical fertilizers, pesticides, and intensive irrigated farming system (Tilman et al. 2002; Mateo-Sagasta et al. 2017). This, in turn, led to substantial environmental problems such as water scarcities, depletion of soil quality, water and air pollution, and emergence of pathogens.

The negative effect of the intensive use of agrochemicals is now clearly visible, for example, the pesticide poisoning account for 1 million/year worldwide

death and chronic diseases (Aktar et al. 2009), lower agriculture yield due to degradation of soils (Kopittke et al. 2019), and huge losses of harvestable produce due to the emergence of resistant pathogens (Forget 1994). Therefore, the world agriculture is more likely to have lower growth rate in yields compared to the past. This calls to urgent actions such as adoption of strategy of sustainable agriculture, able to increase the crop production while preserving the environment.

The environmentally friendly approach suggested in this paper is the use of Plant Growth Promoting Bacteria (PGPB). PGPB are bacteria with ability to stimulate plant growth through production of phytohormone (auxin, cytokinin, and gibberellins), nutrient acquisition (nitrogen fixation, phosphate solubilization, and iron sequestration by siderophores), production of HCN which confer resistance against plant pathogens, and by production of enzyme 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate (ACC) which control the level of ethylene biosynthesis in response to biotic or abiotic stress (Khan et al. 2016a; Kandel et al. 2017). However, the most reported mechanism predominantly used to explain the positive effects of PGPB for plant growth promotion is their ability to produce auxin (Olanrewaju et al. 2017), being indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) the most relevant and common natural auxin, synthesized mainly through tryptophan dependent pathway (Spaepen and Vanderleyden 2011).

The IAA controls various plant physiological processes including cell division and elongation, tissue differentiation, root initiation and phototropic response (Kumla et al. 2020). Thus, IAA produced by PGPB, particularly endophyte bacteria has attracted a great deal of attention in scientific community. Many studies have reported growth enhancement by increasing plant height and/or biomass when plants were inoculated with endophyte bacteria capable of producing IAA (Shi et al. 2009; Xin et al. 2009; Khan et al. 2016b; Bhutani et al. 2018; Ribeiro et al. 2018).

Several endophyte bacteria, such as *Pseudomonas* (Chen et al. 2017; Tamošiūnė et al. 2018) *Stenotrophomonas*, *Bacillus*, *Pantoea*, *Serratia* (Etminani and Harighi 2018), *Enterobacter* (Macedo-Raygoza et al. 2019; Panigrahi et al. 2019; Silva et al. 2019) and *Arthrobacter* (Hernández-Soberano et al. 2020) have proved to have plant growth and biocontrol activities. However, member of genus *Bacillus* are the most used and preferred in agriculture due to their ability to produce endospores allowing them to survive in stress conditions such as hot climate and salinity (Torres et al. 2020).

Therefore, the present study was focused in bacterial Indole-3-Acetic Acid, rather than bacterial cell. The study aimed to optimize the Indole-3-Acetic Acid produced by strain *Enterobacter* sp. isolated from the fruiting body of wild mushroom *Boletus edulis*.

#### 4.3 MATERIAL AND METHODS

##### 4.3.1 Isolation

The wild mushroom morphologically identified as *Boletus edulis* (Porcino) was collected in Pinus Forest located in Federal University of Paraná Campus - Polytechnic Center, Brazil, in April of 2018. The endophyte bacteria was isolated from mushroom through surface sterilization method (Gautam et al. 2016). Mushroom was first washed with tap water to remove dust and adhering soil particles. Then, surface sterilized by a chemical disinfection treatment, which consisted on consecutive rinse in 70% EtOH for 1min, 2.5% NACIO for 2min, 70% EtOH for 30s, and three times in autoclaved dH<sub>2</sub>O. Following, the inner part of mushroom was cut in blocks of 1cm<sup>3</sup> with scalpel sterile blade then inoculated in Nutrient Agar (NA), and incubated for 24h, in darkness, at 30°C. The bacteria colony was purified by repeated streaking on NA. The last dH<sub>2</sub>O rinse was used as negative control to check the efficacy of disinfection treatment. The pure endophyte bacteria was then stored in 20% glycerol at -20°C.

##### 4.3.2 Bacterial DNA extraction

The extraction of gDNA was carried out following Cheng and Jiang (2006) methodology with slight modifications. Briefly, bacterial strain was grown in 10mL nutrient broth medium at 30°C, in darkness, for 48h. The bacterial culture was then centrifuged at 5000rpm for 15min. The supernatant was discharged, and the pellet was washed two times with 400µL STE Buffer (100mM NaCl, 10mM Tris/HCl, 1mM EDTA, pH 8.0). The resulting pellet was suspended in 400µL TE Buffer (10mM Tris/HCl, 1mM EDTA, pH 8.0), then mixed by vortex with 200µL of saturated phenol. The mixture was centrifuged at 1300g for 5min at 4°C, and then collected the upper aqueous phase (320µL) to a clean tube. In tube was added 80µL of TE Buffer and

200µL of chloroform, then centrifuged at 13000g for 5min at 4°C. The aqueous phase (320µL) was collected and precipitated with 3 volumes of isopropanol, then centrifuged at 12000g for 20min at 4°C. The upper aqueous phase (150µL) was collected to a clean tube and stored at -20°C for the subsequent experiments.

#### 4.3.3 Bacterial DNA amplification and sequencing

The bacterial 16S ribosomal DNA (rDNA) was amplified following Cheng and Jiang (2006) methodology with minor modifications. The primers used for DNA amplification were 27F (5'-AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3') and 1512R (5'-TACCTTGTTACGACTT-3') (Lefebvre et al. 2010). The PCR reaction mixture consisted of 5µL of 1x PCR buffer, 1µL of MgCl<sub>2</sub> (50mM), 0.55µL of dNTPs mix (0.22mM), 0.5µL of 27F (0.2mM), 0.5µL of 1512R (0.2mM), 0.2µL of Taq DNA polymerase (1U), 1µL of template DNA (50ng/µL), and 16.25µL of Milli-Q water to a final volume of 25µL. The amplification reaction was performed in Veriti Thermal Cycler (AB Applied Biosystems) under the following thermal cycling conditions: 5min at 95°C, 30 cycles (1min at 93°C, 1min at 50°C and 1min 30s at 72°C), followed by a final elongation cycle at 72°C for 5min. The PCR product was assessed on 0.7% agarose gel. The PCR product was purified and sequenced by ACTGene Análises Moleculares Ltda. (Alvorada, RS-Brazil), using own protocols.

#### 4.3.4 Bioinformatic analysis

Sequences were analyzed and edited using sequence alignment editor software (BioEdit 7.2) and aligned through CLUSTALW using MEGA version X (Kumar et al. 2018). The consensus sequence was used to identifying the highly similar sequences at nucleotide database collection of NCBI (National Center of Biotechnology Information) using BLAST search online program. The closely related sequences obtained were aligned through MAFFT version 7 online program (Katoh et al. 2018). The phylogenetic tree was constructed using MEGA version X (Kumar et al. 2018). The evolutionary history was inferred by Maximum Likelihood method and Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano model with Gamma distribution rate (Hasegawa et al. 1985), and bootstrap consensus tree inferred from 1000 replicates.



#### 4.3.5 Metagenomic analysis

The metagenomic analysis of *Boletus edulis* fruiting body was done by GoGenetic (Federal University of Paraná Campus - Polytechnic Center, Curitiba-Brazil) using the following protocol. Twenty nanograms of metagenomic DNA were used as a template for 18 cycles of amplification of the V4 region of the 16S rDNA of bacteria and archaea, using primers 515F/806R (Caporaso et al. 2012) and GoTaq Master Mix (Promega). The PCR product was analyzed by electrophoresis in 1.5% agarose and quantified using Qubit dsDNA HS kit (Invitrogen). The 10 pM mixture of the amplicons were sequenced in Illumina MiSeq apparatus using MiSeq Reagent 500V2 (Illumina), generating 250 base sequences. DNA sequences were analyzed through QIIME (Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology) version 1.9.2 (Caporaso et al. 2010). The sequences were grouped into OTUs (Operational Taxonomic Units) considering 97% identity with database of 16S/18S SILVA 132 (Quast et al. 2013).

#### 4.3.6 Fermentation

A colony of the isolated bacterial strain was aseptically inoculated in 10mL Nutrient Broth (NB) medium, then incubated in darkness, at 30°C for 48h. After incubation, 120µL of cell suspension was transferred to sterile conical tube (15mL) containing 5mL of un-optimized medium for IAA production (1.0 g/L  $K_2HPO_4$ , 0.2 g/L  $MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$ , 1.0 g/L NaCl, 0.06 g/L  $CaCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ , 48.34 g/L glycerol, 9.09g/L corn steep liquor, pH 5.0), then taken to incubation on shaker at 120rpm, 30°C for 16h. Ended the incubation period, an aliquot of 250µL was aseptically inoculated in 150mL Erlenmeyer flask containing 25mL of un-optimized medium for IAA production supplemented with 0.5mg/mL L-tryptophan. The Erlenmeyer flask was then incubated on shaker at 120 rpm, 30°C for 5 days.

##### 4.3.6.1 Quantification of IAA production by colorimetric method

The concentration of IAA was assessed by Salkowski's method (Gordon and Weber 1950). After fermentation, 2mL aliquot was taken to centrifugation at 3500rpm for 10min. In a clean tube was mixed 1mL of culture supernatant with 2mL of Salkowski's reagent (50mL Perchloric acid 35% and 0.5mL of  $FeCl_3$  0.5M). The



mixture was then kept on darkness for 30min at room temperature. The absorbance was measured at 530nm in a spectrophotometer, and the IAA concentration was determined by comparison with the standard curve of authentic IAA.

#### 4.3.6.2 High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC)

The HPLC analysis was performed according to Sheikhan and Bina (2016) using Agilent technologies 1260 Infinity HPLC system (Varian Inc., Palo Alto, CA, USA). HPLC column Microsorb 60-8, C18, 21.4x250mm (Varian) was used as stationary phase and 1% water-Acetic Acid/methanol (50:50 v/v) as mobile phase. The elution rate was 0.5mL/min, and the UV wavelength detector was set at 283nm.

#### 4.3.7 IAA optimization production

##### 4.3.7.1 Screening of the C-sources by One-Factor-At-Time (OFAT)

Three C-sources (24.17g/L glucose, 24.17g/L mannitol, and 24.17g/L starch) were separately added in the un-optimized medium for IAA production replacing 48.34g/L glycerol, while other medium components were kept constant. After fermentation, the IAA production was assessed by Salkowski's method (Gordon and Weber 1950).

##### 4.3.7.2 Screening of the N-sources by One-Factor-At-Time (OFAT)

The screening of C-sources by OFAT found starch as the best C-source, and hence starch replaced glycerol in the un-optimized medium for the screening of N-sources. Three (3) N-sources namely peptone (2.6906g/L), yeast extract (3.3633g/L) and urea (0.7214g/L), were separately added in the un-optimized medium replacing corn steep liquor (9.09g/L), while the other medium components were kept constant. As positive control, the un-optimized medium was used, which had glycerol (48.34g/L) and corn steep liquor (9.09g/L) as C and N sources, respectively. The IAA production was quantified through Salkowski's method (Gordon and Weber 1950).

#### 4.3.7.3 Two-level full Factorial Design

The OFAT found starch and yeast extract as the best C and N sources, respectively. The effect of each variable and their interaction on the IAA production was assessed by  $2^2$  Factorial Design. The  $2^2$  Factorial Designs consisted on two factors and two levels (-1 and +1). For starch, the coded value for high level (+1) was 60g/L and for low level (-1) was 24.17g/L. The coded value for yeast extract was 4.146g/L for the high level (+1) and 1.68g/L for the low level (-1). Four (4) experiments were run in duplicate, as shown in TABLE 4.

TABLE 4 –  $2^2$  Factorial Design matrix, along with IAA production

| Run order | Starch | Yeast extract | IAA production (µg/mL) |
|-----------|--------|---------------|------------------------|
| 1         | 1      | 1             | 613                    |
| 2         | 1      | -1            | 522                    |
| 3         | -1     | -1            | 399                    |
| 4         | -1     | -1            | 396                    |
| 5         | -1     | 1             | 229                    |
| 6         | 1      | -1            | 486                    |
| 7         | 1      | 1             | 610                    |
| 8         | -1     | 1             | 214                    |

#### 4.3.7.4 Plackett-Burman Design

The Plackett-Burman experimental design was developed using Minitab Statistical Software, to identify factors that make significant contribution to IAA production. The Plackett-Burman Design assumes that there is no interaction among factors, and is based on the first order polynomial model given by the following equation:

$$y = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_i X_i \quad (1)$$

Where,  $y$  is the response,  $\beta_0$  is the model intercept,  $\beta_i$  is the variable estimates, and  $X_i$  is the independent factor level (Zeinab et al. 2015).

The Minitab Statistical Software set fourteen (14) runs to study three (3) variables at three different concentration levels namely: low (-1) and high (+1), and central level (0), and the corresponding coded values are shown in TABLE 5, and the experimental design matrix is shown in TABLE 6.

TABLE 5 – Coded values of the Plackett-Burman Design

| Variables    | Units | Levels   |      |           |
|--------------|-------|----------|------|-----------|
|              |       | Low (-1) | 0    | High (+1) |
| L-tryptophan | mg/mL | 0.4      | 1.2  | 2.4       |
| Starch*      | g/L   | 10.0     | 25.0 | 40.0      |
| Initial pH   | -     | 5.0      | 7.0  | 9.0       |

(\*) the ratio of starch/yeast extract was 14.47

TABLE 6 – Plackett-Burman Design matrix, along with IAA production

| Run order | L-tryptophan | Initial pH | Starch | IAA (µg/mL) |
|-----------|--------------|------------|--------|-------------|
| 1         | 0            | 0          | 0      | 238         |
| 2         | -1           | 1          | -1     | 179         |
| 3         | -1           | 1          | 1      | 46          |
| 4         | 1            | -1         | -1     | 212         |
| 5         | -1           | -1         | 1      | 143         |
| 6         | 1            | 1          | 1      | 247         |
| 7         | -1           | -1         | -1     | 45          |
| 8         | 1            | 1          | -1     | 377         |
| 9         | 1            | 1          | -1     | 255         |
| 10        | 1            | -1         | 1      | 755         |
| 11        | 1            | -1         | 1      | 710         |
| 12        | -1           | -1         | -1     | 49          |
| 13        | 0            | 0          | 0      | 244         |
| 14        | -1           | 1          | 1      | 358         |

#### 4.3.7.5 Response Surface Methodology

The central composite design (CCD) of Response Surface Methodology (RSM) was used to determine the optimal concentration of the two variables selected by the Plackett-Burman Design, namely L-tryptophan and starch. Each variable was studied at five levels (-1.4142; -1; 0; +1; +1.4142). The experimental design was formulated with the aid of Minitab Statistical Software, and the coded values are shown in TABLE 7. The experimental design consisted on fourteen (14) runs, with four (4) cube points, three (3) centre points in the cube, four (4) axial points, and three (3) centre points in axial, as presented in TABLE 8.

The response (IAA production) was used to estimate variable coefficients to generate the empirical mathematical model, which follows a quadratic model given by the equation 2 (Pan and Fan 2008):

$$y = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_i X_i + \sum \beta_{ii} X_i^2 + \sum \beta_{ij} X_i X_j \quad (2)$$

Where  $y$  is the predicted response (IAA production),  $\beta_0$  is the intercept,  $\beta_i$  is the linear coefficient,  $\beta_{ii}$  is the squared coefficient, and  $\beta_{ij}$  is the interaction coefficient,  $X_i$  and  $X_j$  are the coded values of the variables.

The effect of variables on the IAA production was accessed by F-test of ANOVA and their significance was evaluated through p-value. The 3D response surface and 2D contour plot were plotted using Minitab Statistical Software. The fitness or accuracy of the RSM model was accessed by  $R^2$  and adjusted  $R^2$ . The resulted model was validated by running experiments at optimal conditions.

TABLE 7 – Coded values of CCD

| Variables    | Units | Levels  |    |    |    |         |
|--------------|-------|---------|----|----|----|---------|
|              |       | -1.4142 | -1 | 0  | +1 | +1.4142 |
| L-tryptophan | mg/mL | 2.9289  | 5  | 10 | 15 | 17.0711 |
| Starch*      | g/L   | 21.4436 | 26 | 37 | 48 | 52.5564 |

(\*) the ratio of starch/yeast extract was 14.47

TABLE 8 – CCD matrix, along with IAA production

| Run order | L-tryptophan | Starch  | IAA production ( $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ) |           |
|-----------|--------------|---------|-------------------------------------|-----------|
|           |              |         | Experimental                        | Predicted |
| 1         | 1            | -1      | 959.39                              | 950.85    |
| 2         | 0            | 0       | 1307.46                             | 1417.50   |
| 3         | -1           | 1       | 1324.03                             | 1403.71   |
| 4         | -1           | -1      | 1072.65                             | 1049.81   |
| 5         | 0            | 0       | 1368.23                             | 1417.50   |
| 6         | 1            | 1       | 1575.41                             | 1669.39   |
| 7         | 0            | 0       | 1445.58                             | 1417.50   |
| 8         | 0            | 0       | 1373.76                             | 1417.50   |
| 9         | 1.4142       | 0       | 1362.71                             | 1317.02   |
| 10        | -1.4142      | 0       | 1224.59                             | 1199.14   |
| 11        | 0            | 0       | 1533.98                             | 1417.50   |
| 12        | 0            | 0       | 1475.97                             | 1417.50   |
| 13        | 0            | 1.4142  | 1766.02                             | 1657.96   |
| 14        | 0            | -1.4142 | 862.71                              | 899.64    |

#### 4.3.7.6 Effect of incubation time on IAA production

The effect of incubation time was assessed under optimized concentrations of starch and L-tryptophan. Aliquot for IAA quantification was taken at every 3h interval in the first 24hours of fermentation, then at intervals of 24h in the subsequent fermentation periods.

#### 4.3.8 Plant growth promotion traits

##### 4.3.8.1 Phosphate solubilization

The National Botanical Research Institute's Phosphate (NBRIP) solid medium (Nautiyal 1999), was used to assess the ability of bacterial strain to solubilise phosphate. Bacterial culture (10 $\mu$ L) previously growth in nutrient broth medium, was inoculated in the middle of Petri plate containing NBRIP solid medium, then incubated in darkness, at 30°C for 7 days. The ability to solubilise phosphate was detected by the formation of clear halo around bacterium colony, and the width of the clear zone was determined through equation 3 (Yulianti and Rakhmawati 2018):

$$\text{Width of the clear zone} = \text{Halo zone diameter} - \text{Colony diameter} \quad (3)$$

##### 4.3.8.2 Nitrogen fixing activity

The ability to fix nitrogen was qualitatively assessed through methodology described by Goswami et al. (2015). Bacterial colony was aseptically inoculated in tube with 8mL of nitrogen-free bromothymol blue (NfB) medium, then incubated in darkness, at 30°C, for 4 days. The ability to fix nitrogen was evaluated by colour change from green to blue.

##### 4.3.8.3 Ammonia production

Bacterial colony was inoculated in tube with 8mL peptone water, then incubated at 30°C for 4 days. After incubation, 0.5mL of Nessler's reagent (K<sub>2</sub>HgI<sub>4</sub>, Potassium Tetraiodomercurate II) was added in tube, and the change of color from brown to yellow confirms the production of ammonia (Goswami et al. 2015).

##### 4.3.8.4 Hydrogen Cyanide (HCN) production

The ability of the bacterial isolate to produce HCN was qualitatively accessed following methodology described by Durve (2017). Briefly, bacterial colony was streaked on Petri plate containing NA medium amended with 4.4 g/L of glycine. A

sterile whatman filter paper was soaked in 0.5% of picric acid solution, then put in the top of the Petri plate, then incubated at 30°C for 7 days. The development of red color after incubation was considered positive for HCN production.

#### 4.3.8.5 Antifungal activity

The antagonistic activity against *Aspergillus niger*, *Fusarium moniliforme* and *Gibberella* sp. was assessed by method described by Das et al. (2015). Briefly, 1cm<sup>2</sup> mycelial block of phytopathogenic fungi was inoculated in the middle of the Petri plate containing PDA medium, and in two opposite sides (at distance of 2.5cm from fungal block) was streaked the bacterial strain, then incubated at 30°C for 7 days in darkness. Plate without bacterial isolate was used as negative control. The antagonism activity was assessed by growth inhibition and sporulation. The relative growth inhibition was expressed by equation 4 (Lahlali et al. 2007):

$$\text{Relative Growth Inhibition} = \frac{R_i - R_c}{R_c} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

Where,  $R_i$  is length of hyphal growth toward bacterial isolate, and  $R_c$  is length of hyphal growth on control.

#### 4.3.9 Effect of bacterial suspension containing IAA on germination and growth of soybean plant

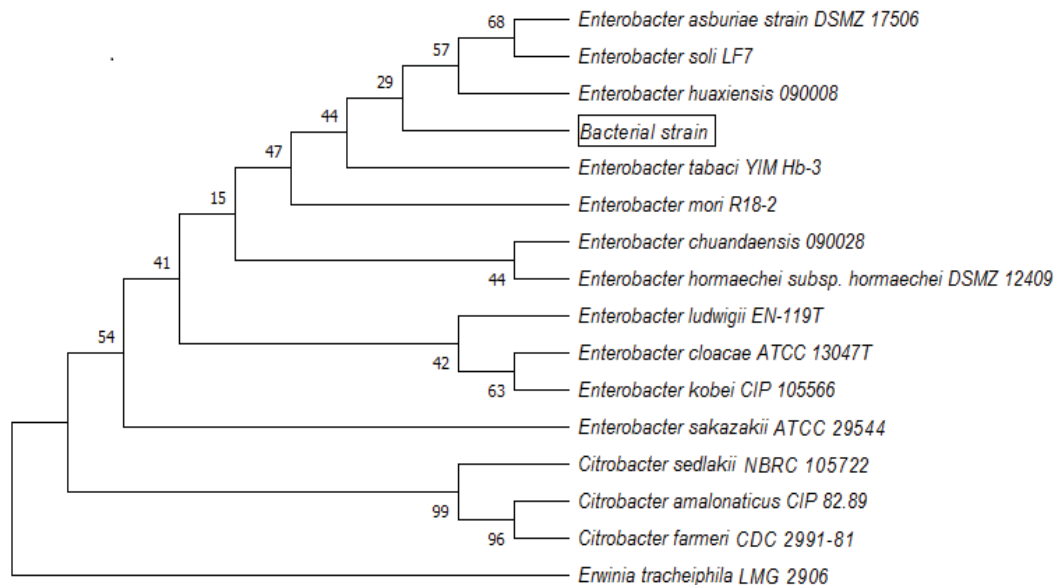
The evaluation of the effect of bacterial suspension containing IAA on soybean culture was performed in greenhouse. The soybean seeds were treated with water (0µg/mL of bacterial IAA), bacterial suspension containing 5µg/mL of IAA and bacterial suspension containing 15µg/mL of IAA, corresponding to control, treatment 1, and treatment 2, respectively. For each treatment were used 10 seeds. The seeds were sown in 1L pots containing moist sand. The germination analysis was performed daily for 14 days. The first foliar application of treatments (control, treatment 1 and treatment 2) was carried out fifteen (15) days after seedling emergence, and the second at 30 day. The harvest was performed at 45 days after seed emergence and assessed the height and dry weight of root and aerial part of the plant.

## 4.4 RESULTS

### 4.4.1 Molecular Identification

Comparing 16S rDNA sequence of the bacterial isolate with the NCBI database, the highest similarity (99.08%) was obtained with members of the *Enterobacter* genera, as shown in the phylogenetic tree (FIGURE 5). The nucleotide sequence was submitted to GenBank with accession number MT422205.

FIGURE 5 – Phylogenetic tree

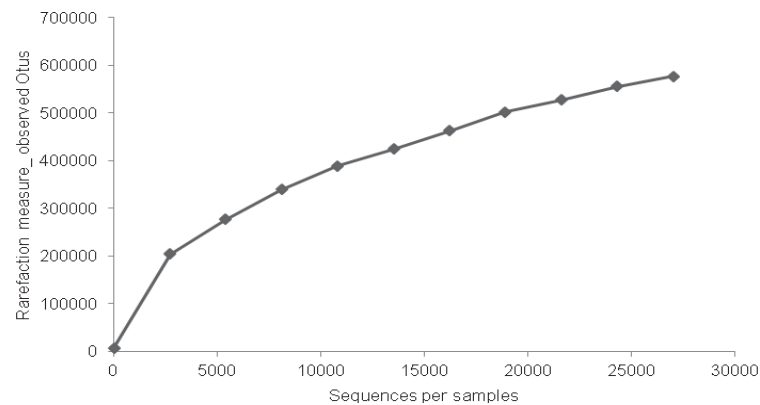
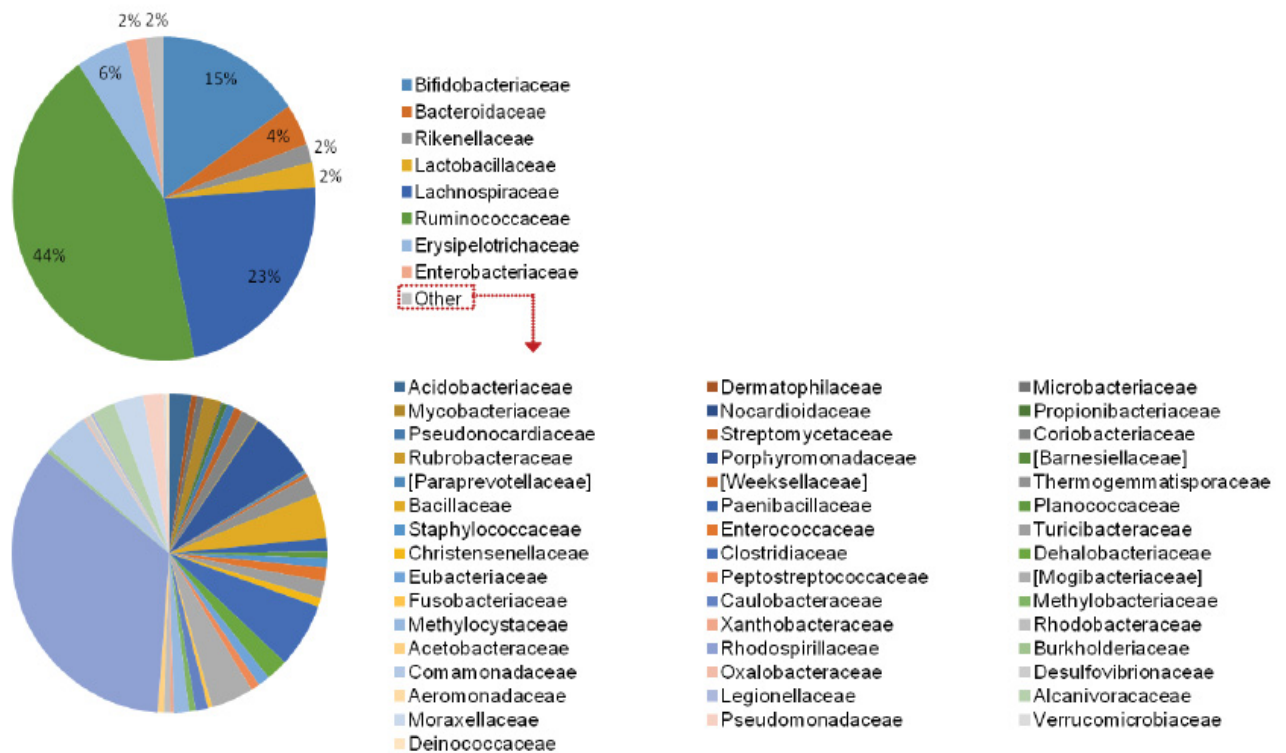


### 4.4.2 Metagenomic analysis

The bacteria diversity within *Boletus edulis* fruiting body is totally described or covered, and can be used to characterize the endophytic microbiota as demonstrated by the rarefaction curve (FIGURE 6). The most detected family was Ruminococcaceae (43.73%), followed by Lachnospiraceae (22.88%), Bifidobacteriaceae (15.35%), Erysipelotrichaceae (5.52%), Bacteroidaceae (4.18%), Lactobacillaceae (2.44%), Enterobacteriaceae (2.13%), and Rikenellaceae (1.89%). Other families with relative abundance less than 1% represented 1.88% (FIGURE 7).



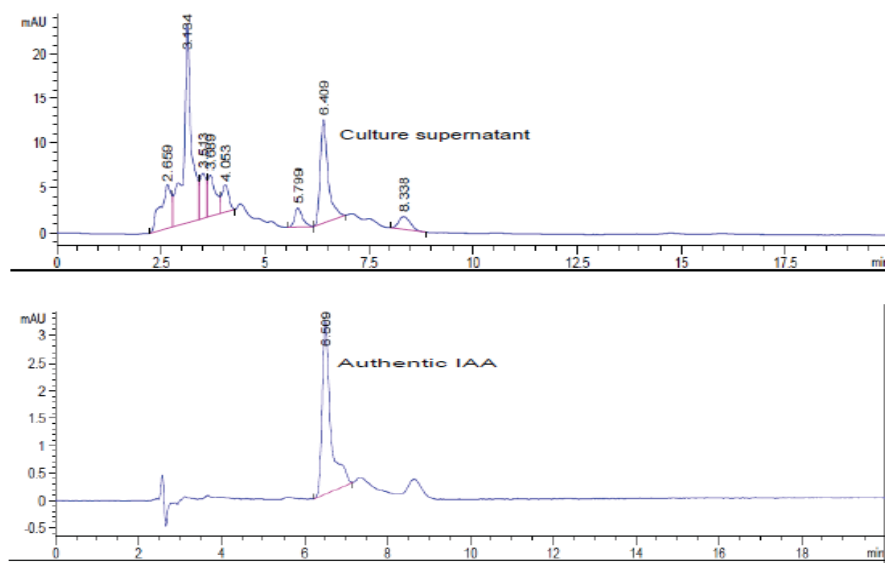
FIGURE 6 – Rarefaction curve of the observed OTUs (97% similarity)

FIGURE 7 – Bacterial diversity in *Boletus edulis* fruiting body, at family level

#### 4.4.3 HPLC analysis of IAA production

The IAA production was confirmed by HPLC analysis. Strong peak was observed at 6.409min in the chromatogram corresponding to culture supernatant, and the authentic IAA is recorded at the retention time 6.509min (FIGURE 8).

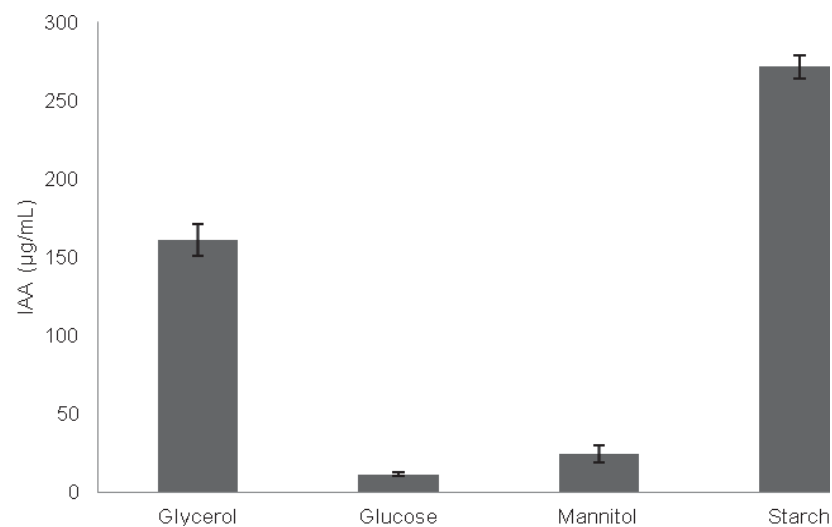
FIGURE 8 – HPLC analysis



#### 4.4.4 Screening of the C-sources by One-Factor-At-Time (OFAT)

The effect of different C-sources on the IAA production is shown in FIGURE 9. Among C-sources tested, starch was the best C-source producing  $271.5 \pm 7.1$   $\mu\text{g/mL}$  of IAA.

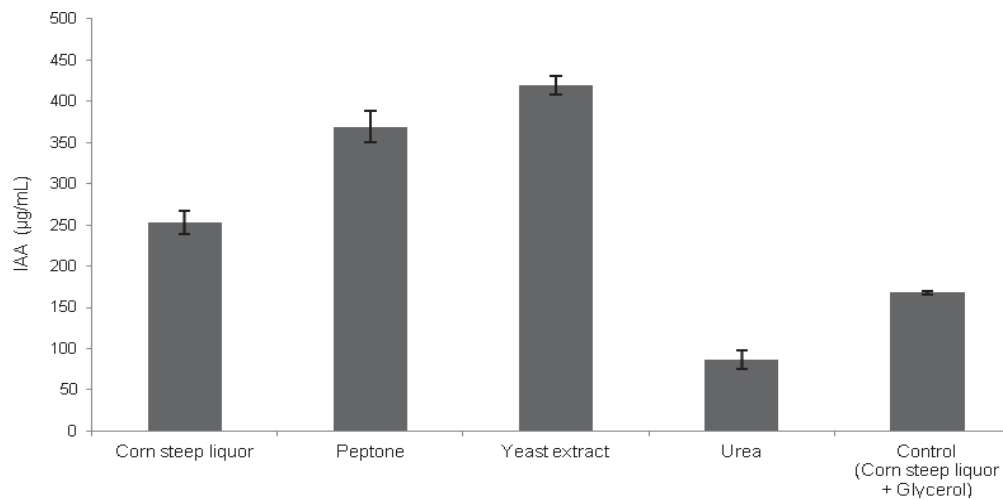
FIGURE 9 – Screening of C-sources for IAA production. Each value is mean of 3 replications. Vertical bars represent standard error.



#### 4.4.5 Screening of the N-sources by One-Factor-At-Time (OFAT)

Among all N-sources tested, yeast extract was the best N-source producing 419.5µg/mL of IAA, followed by peptone 368.9µg/mL IAA, and corn steep liquor 253.20µg/mL IAA (FIGURE 10).

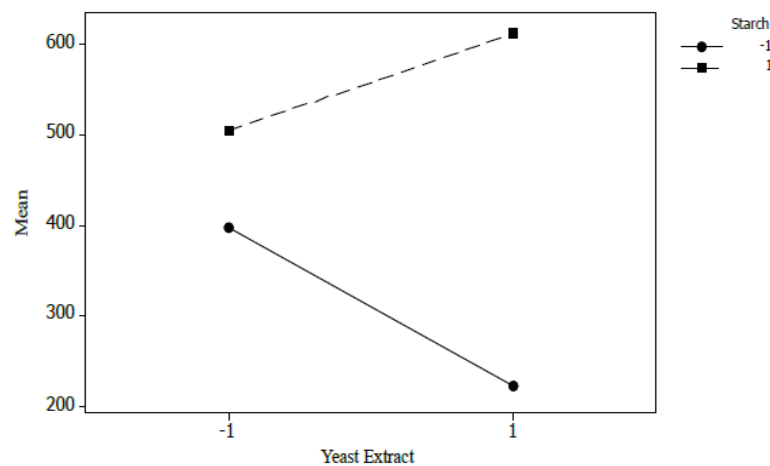
FIGURE 10 – Screening of N-sources for IAA production. Each value is mean of 3 replications. Vertical bars represent standard error.



#### 4.4.6 Two-level Full Factorial Design

The result of  $2^2$  Factorial Designs is shown in FIGURE 11. The mean response is maximum when starch and yeast extract were both at high levels (+1).

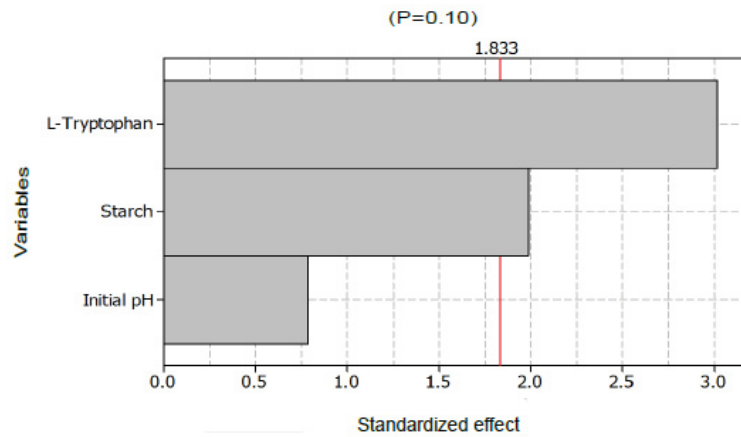
FIGURE 11 – Effect of starch and yeast extract on IAA production



#### 4.4.7 Plackett-Burman Design

The Pareto chart of standardized effects (FIGURE 12) was used to show the result of the PBD. The factors with confidence level above 90% were considered significant on IAA production.

FIGURE 12 – Pareto chart of standardized effects



#### 4.4.8 Response Surface Methodology

L-tryptophan and starch were found significant at 90% confidence level by Plackett-Burman Design, hence were further optimized using Central Composite Design of RSM. The experimental results of Central Composite Design were fitted in the following quadratic polynomial model:

$$y = 1417.50 + 41.68X_i + 268.11X_j - 79.71X_i^2 - 69.35X_j^2 + 91.16X_iX_j \quad (5)$$

Where,  $y$  is the predicted response (IAA production),  $X_i$  and  $X_j$  is L-tryptophan and starch concentrations, respectively.

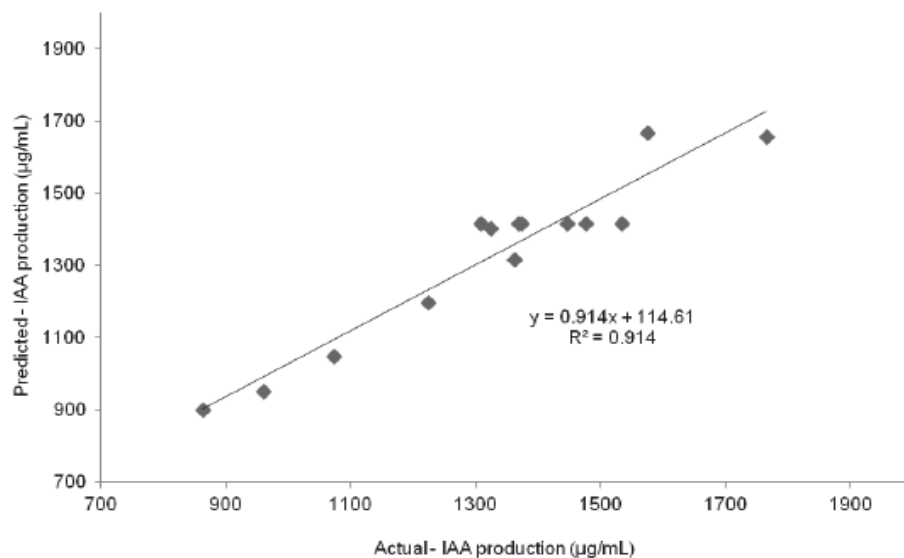
The ANOVA results were validated by testing the assumptions of normal distribution, homogeneity of variance, and independence (figures not shown). All assumptions were satisfied, therefore, the coefficient and p-values were not biased.

The coefficient of determination  $R^2$  of the model was 94.19%, which means good fit. The  $R^2$  of the model suggests that 5.81% of all variations in the IAA production are caused by uncertainties and cannot be explained by the model.

The  $R^2$  always lies between 0% and 100%, and higher  $R^2$  values ( $R^2 \cong 100\%$ ) are preferable as indicates that the model perfectly fits the data. However, according to Hegde et al. (2013), higher  $R^2$  does not mean that the model is accurate, it may be deceiving because doesn't take into account the degree of freedom in the model determination, this is, the  $R^2$  increases with the addition of new variable, doesn't matter whether the new variable is statically significant or not.

The adjusted  $R^2$  attempt to overcome that issue, particularly when there is more than one variable in the model, as it measures the proportion of the variation explained by only independent variables that really help in explaining the response. In the present study, the adjusted  $R^2$  was 89.21%, and according to Saedon et al. (2012) adjusted  $R^2 > 80\%$ , are within the acceptable level. These findings were strengthened by the plot of actual versus predicted IAA production (FIGURE 13), where can easily be observed that the data points falls close to the straight line, with degree of correlation ( $R^2$ ) of 0.914. Thus, the quadratic model is very accurate.

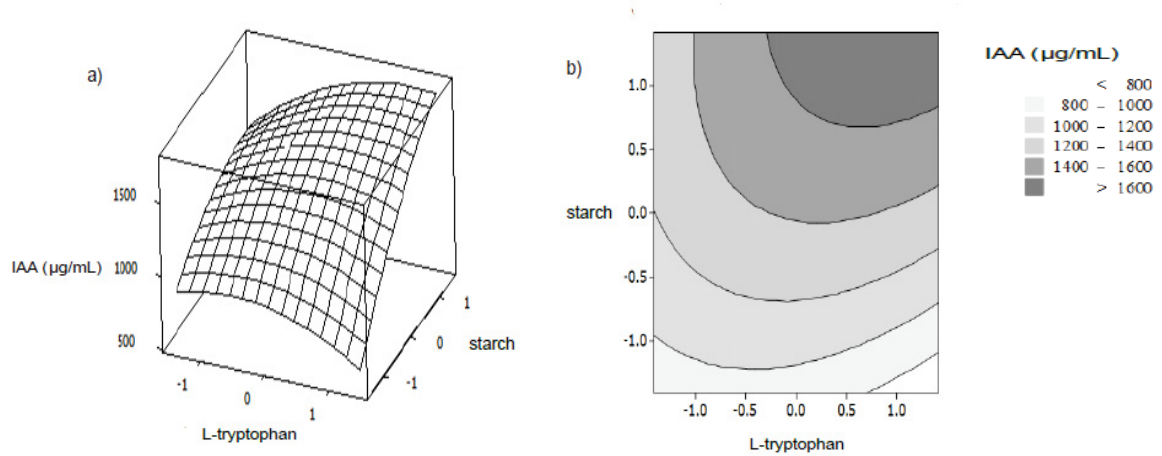
FIGURE 13 – Actual values versus Predicted values for IAA production



The optimal concentration range of the two variables is shown in 3D response surface and contour plot (FIGURE 14). The theoretical optimal

concentrations suggested by Minitab Statistical Software were: starch (+1.4142) and L-tryptophan (+1). The RSM model validation resulted in  $1838.8 \pm 67.8$   $\mu\text{g/mL}$  of IAA production.

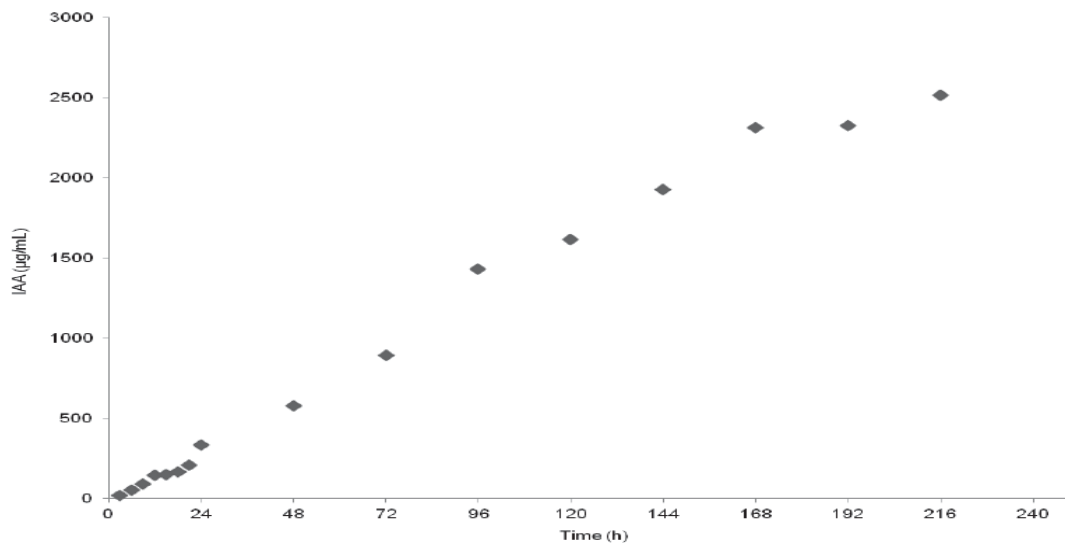
FIGURE 14 – Interaction effect of L-tryptophan versus starch on IAA production. a) 3D response surface. b) 2D contour plot



#### 4.4.9 Effect of incubation time on IAA production

The effect of different incubation periods was investigated in the optimized concentration of starch and L-tryptophan and the results are shown in FIGURE 15.

FIGURE 15 – Effect of incubation time on IAA production



#### 4.4.10 Plant growth promotion traits

The plant growth promotion traits of the isolated bacterial strain are shown in TABLE 9.

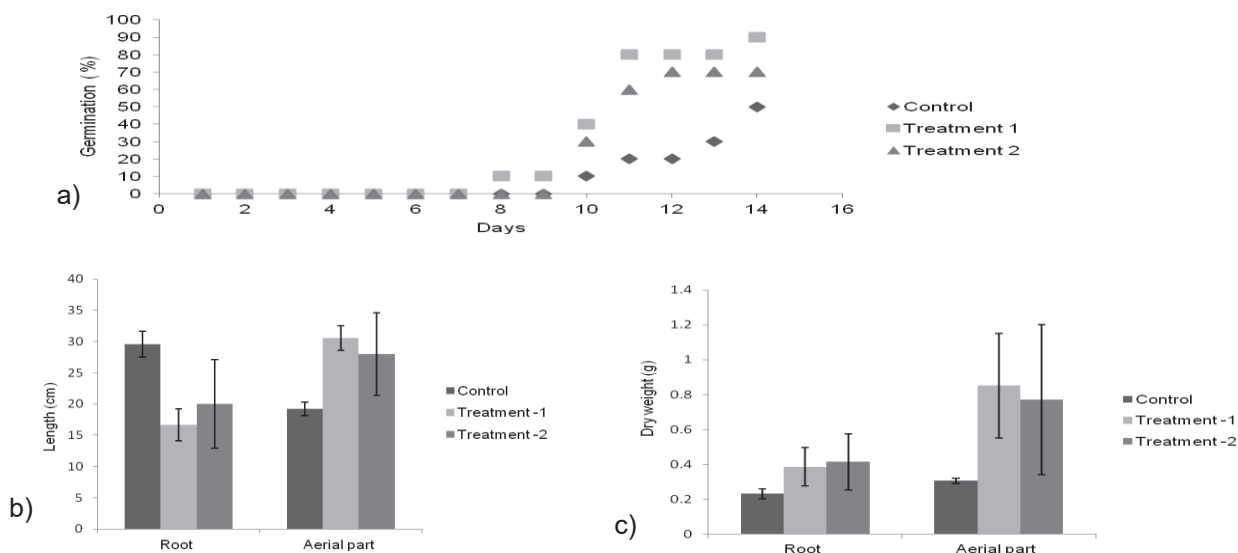
TABLE 9 – Summary of bacterial strain's plant growth promoting traits.

|                                     |             |                                |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------------------|
| Phosphate Solubilization width (mm) | 5           |                                |
| N <sub>2</sub> Fixation Activity    | +           |                                |
| NH <sub>3</sub> Production          | +           |                                |
| HCN Production                      | -           |                                |
| Antagonistic Test                   | Sporulation | Relative growth inhibition (%) |
| <i>Aspergillus niger</i>            | Delayed     | 0                              |
| <i>Gibberella</i> sp.               | NA          | 7.6                            |
| <i>Fusarium moniliforme</i>         | NA          | 17.14                          |

#### 4.4.11 Effect of bacterial suspension containing IAA on germination and growth of soybean plant

The result of evaluation of the effect of bacterial suspension containing IAA on soybean culture under greenhouse conditions is shown in FIGURE 16. Both treatments 1 and 2 showed higher germination rate and dry weight than control (0µg/mL of IAA). Although, both treatments 1 and 2 showed root length inferior to control, the dry weight was superior.

FIGURE 16 – Effect of bacterial suspension containing IAA on soybean plant. a) Seed germination. b) Length. c) Dry weight





## 4.5 DISCUSSION

Comparing 16S rRNA sequence of the isolated bacterial strain with the NCBI database, maximum similarity (99.08%) was observed with various species of genus *Enterobacter*. In the phylogenetic tree, the bacterial isolate grouped with *Enterobacter* species (FIGURE 5). Hence, the isolated bacterial strain was identified as *Enterobacter* sp.

The high throughput 16S rRNA gene sequencing analysis of mushroom *Boletus edulis* fruiting body revealed in-depth the presence of several bacterial communities, confirming the presence of Enterobacteriaceae family with relative abundance of 2.13%, but was not classify further than family level.

Some authors have reported that 16S rRNA gene has low phylogenetic power at the species level (Janda and Abbott 2007; Morales-lópez et al. 2019). Therefore, multilocus sequence analysis (MLSA) and several housekeeping genes such as *rpoB*, *gyrB*, *dnaJ* and *recA* have been used to establish higher phylogenetic resolution (Hata et al. 2016). For instance, the identification of *Enterobacter* sp. DMKU-RP206 was based on 16S rRNA and multilocus gene sequences *gyrB*, *rpoB*, *atpD*, and *infB* (Nutaratat et al. 2017), and *Enterobacter arachidis* was identified by combination of 16S rRNA with *rpoB* gene sequence analysis (Madhaiyan et al. 2010).

The IAA production by bacterial strain *Enterobacter* sp. was assessed through Salvolski's reagent (Gordon and Weber 1950) and quantified using UV-Vis spectrophotometer. The IAA production by *Enterobacter* sp. was confirmed by HPLC.

Bacterial strain *Enterobacter* sp. produced 154µg/mL of IAA under un-optimized fermentation medium. This production is higher than IAA produced by many other *Enterobacter* species reported earlier, for example, *Enterobacter cloacae* MSR1 produced 112µg/mL (Khalifa et al. 2016), *Enterobacter ludwigii* produced approximately 30µg/mL (Shoebitz et al. 2009), *Enterobacter asburiae* strain PS2 produced a maximum 32µg/mL (Ahemad and Khan 2010), and *Enterobacter arachidis* produced 5.57µg/mL.

The OFAT found starch as the best carbon source for IAA production (271.5 ±7.1µg/mL) among C-sources tested. The replacement of glycerol by starch showed positive effect, whereas negative effect was observed when glycerol was replaced by glucose and mannitol. Similarly, Myo et al. (2019) found starch as the most suitable

C-source for IAA production by *Streptomyces fradiae* NKZ-259. Nalini and Rao (2014) as well found starch as being one of the three best C-source out of twelve C-sources tested for IAA production by *Rhizobium* species. However, Balaji et al. (2012) observed total inhibitor effect when starch, glucose, lactose and cellulose were added in medium for IAA production, being only glycerol the C-source that stimulated the IAA production by *Pseudomonas* species.

Among N-sources tested for IAA production, yeast extract was distinguished as the best. Likewise, Nutaratat et al. (2017) observed that the highest amount of IAA was obtained when yeast extract was used for IAA production by *Enterobacter* sp. DMKU-RP206. Balaji et al. (2012) also found yeast extract as the best N-source followed by beef extract in IAA production by *Pseudomonas* species. Therefore, these finding corroborates with the statement of Bhutani et al. (2018) that the utilization of C and N-source are exclusive for each bacterial strain.

The 2<sup>2</sup> Factorial Design revealed that yeast extract was sensitive to mean response at both levels of starch, but maximum yield was observed when starch was kept at high level. The mean response was maximum when starch and yeast extract were both kept at high levels (+1), which correspond to starch/yeast extract ratio of 60/4.146 g/L (14.47). The Carbon/Nitrogen (C/N) balance has been reported to regulate the secondary metabolite production (López et al. 2003). Brzonkalik et al. (2012) studied the effect of different C/N ratios on production of alternariol (AOH), alternariol monomethylether (AME) and tenuazonic acid (TA) by *Alternaria alternata* DSM 12633, and observed that carbon to nitrogen (C/N) ratio was one of factors that influenced their production. They demonstrated clearly that alternariol is produced in the stationary growth phase after nitrogen depletion, and that an excess of carbon has a positive impact on alternariol production. On the other hand, Dinarvand et al. (2013) obtained higher production of enzymes under conditions of carbon limitation and an excess of nitrogen.

The Plackett-Burman Design found starch and L-tryptophan as variables that significantly influence the IAA production, and were further optimized by Response Surface Methodology. The optimal concentration of starch and L-tryptophan was 52.556g/L and 15mg/mL, respectively. The RSM model was validated using the optimal concentration of starch and L-tryptophan above mentioned and resulted in production of 1838.8±67.8 µg/mL of IAA. This represent about 12-fold increases when compared with the IAA produced in un-optimized fermentation medium. The

error between the actual and predicted value (1749 $\mu$ g/mL) was 4.9%. According to Rahimi and Mokrtari (2018) errors between the actual and predicted values lower than 12% are acceptable. Therefore, RSM model of the present study is able to accurately predict the IAA production.

The effect of incubation time on IAA production by bacterial isolate (*Enterobacter* sp.) revealed gradual increase in the IAA production from the start of the analysis at 3h up until 216h. The maximum IAA production was observed in 216h (2563.4 $\pm$ 150.2  $\mu$ g/mL). However, the IAA production at incubation periods of 168h (2311.0 $\pm$ 155.7  $\mu$ g/mL), 192h (2323.9.0 $\pm$ 122.7  $\mu$ g/mL) and 216h (2563.4 $\pm$ 150.2  $\mu$ g/mL), were not statistical different ( $p < 0.05$ ). From 168h, the increase in incubation period did not resulted in significant increase in IAA production, thus the incubation time for higher IAA production was considered 168h (7 days). Similarly, Nutaratat et al. (2017) observed maximum IAA production (448.5  $\mu$ g/mL) by *Enterobacter* sp. DMKU-RP206 after 10 days, but decided to reduce the fermentation time to 5 days (414.2  $\mu$ g/mL of IAA) as to reduce the costs of production.

*In vitro* studies also demonstrated that the isolated bacterial strain is able to solubilize phosphate, therefore is able to improve phosphorous uptake by the plant. Member of the genus *Enterobacter* have been reported to show phosphate solubization trait, for example, *Enterobacter cloacae* MSR1 (Khalifa et al. 2016), and *Enterobacter* sp. ENB1 (Delgado et al. 2014). Moreover, the isolated bacterial strain showed ability to fix atmospheric nitrogen and to produce ammonia. With regard to fungal mycelium growth inhibition, the isolated bacteria showed antifungal activity against *Gibberella* sp. and *Fusarium moniliforme*, with relative growth inhibition of 7.6% and 17.14%, respectively. Additionally, was able to delay *Aspergillus niger* sporulation. However, was negative for HCN production and was unable to inhibit the growth of *Aspergillus niger*.

The result of evaluation of the effect of bacterial suspension containing IAA on soybean plant under controlled conditions revealed higher germination rate, length of the aerial part and dry weight of both treatments 1 and 2 (bacterial suspension containing IAA) than control (0 $\mu$ g/mL of IAA).

## 4.6 CONCLUSION

To our knowledge, this is the first report addressing optimization of IAA produced by *Enterobacter* sp. strain isolated from mushroom fruiting body, particularly *Boletus edulis*. The culture conditions were successfully optimized using both classical and statistical approaches and resulted in about 12-fold increase in IAA production. This result demonstrated that the bacterial strain *Enterobacter* sp. has great potential for Indole-3-Acetic Acid production. Moreover, this study demonstrated that mushrooms harbor various bacterial groups, which can be easily isolated and be exploited for agricultural applications in way of biofertilizer or bioenhancer for plant growth promotion.

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## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author declares no conflict of interest.

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**5 ARTICLE 2:** *Providencia* sp. ISOLATED FROM *Lactarius deliciosus* FRUITING BODY WITH HIGH POTENTIAL TO PRODUCE INDOL-3-ACETIC ACID, SOLUBILIZE PHOSPHATE AND FIX NITROGEN

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## 5.1 ABSTRACT

Bacterial strain *Providencia* sp. isolated from edible mushroom *Lactarius deliciosus* was found to produce high amount of Indol-3-Acetic Acid (IAA),  $2880 \pm 11$   $\mu\text{g/mL}$  in 15h of incubation (horary production of  $192 \pm 0.7$   $\mu\text{g/mL.h}$ ) under following medium and fermentation conditions:  $\text{K}_2\text{HPO}_4$  (1g/L),  $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (0.2g/L), NaCl (1g/L), starch (24.17g/L), yeast extract (1.68g/L), L-tryptophan (9mg/mL), initial pH 5, shaking speed of 120 rpm, 30°C. The IAA concentration achieved by the optimized cultivation of *Providencia* sp. is comparable to the best results of the literature, however its high productivity of  $192 \pm 0.7$   $\mu\text{g/mL.h}$  was never reported in the literature. In the optimization process, starch and yeast extract were found as the best C and N sources, respectively. Result of Plackett-Burman experimental design indicated L-tryptophan as the only factor that significantly affected the IAA production. The relationship between L-tryptophan and IAA production was described by simple linear regression model.

The strain *Providencia* sp. was also found positive for almost all plant growth promotion traits tested, namely: phosphate solubilization, nitrogen fixation, ammonia production, HCN production, and antifungal activity against *Fusarium moniliforme* and *Gibberella* sp.

The bacterial suspension of the strain *Providencia* sp. containing IAA was effective in germination and growth promotion (length and dry-weight) of *Glycine max* (soybean).

**Keywords:** Endophytic bacteria; indol-3-acetic acid; plant growth promotion traits

## 5.2 INTRODUCTION

The increased cost of chemical fertilizer and growing concern over their negative impact to the human health and environment is regarded as the key driver to the continuous search for microorganisms with great potential to increase the soil fertility and to stimulate the plant growth. Many of these microorganisms are isolated from plant surfaces (phylosphere and rhizosphere) and in inside plant tissues known as endophyte (Bhutani et al. 2018). Endophytic microorganisms, particularly bacteria, are being largely recognized as plant growth promoter (Frank et al. 2017; Macedo-Raygoza et al. 2019; Panigrahi et al. 2019; Hagaggi and Mohamed 2020). They promote plant growth through several mechanisms, which include phytohormones synthesis (auxin, cytokinin and gibberellins), suppression of ethylene production by 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate (ACC) deaminase, and by facilitating the availability and acquisition of essential nutrients which typically includes nitrogen, phosphorus and iron, as well as by production of antagonistic substances against phytopathogens (Santoyo et al. 2016).

Among mechanisms applied by endophyte bacteria to improve plant growth and development, the production Indol-3-Acetic Acid (IAA) is considered the most important (de Souza et al. 2015), synthesized mainly via tryptophan dependent pathway (Li et al. 2018). Indol-3-Acetic Acid is the main natural phytohormone of the auxin class, and is able to regulate many physiological processes in plants, such as cell division and elongation, seed germination, root initiation and development, phototropism, and fruit formation (Sauer et al. 2013).

Several endophytic as well as rhizospheric bacteria such as *Bacillus*, *Azotobacter*, *Pseudomonas*, *Azospirillum* have been reported as IAA producers (Bhutani et al. 2018). Da Costa et al. (2014) observed high IAA production by most of the genera belonging to the Enterobactereace family namely *Enterobacter*, *Escherichia*, *Grimontella*, *Klebsiella*, *Pantoea*, and *Rahnella*. Various studies have also reported that *Providencia* species are good IAA producer in addition to other plant growth promoting characteristics (Rana et al. 2011; Manjunath et al. 2013; Hussain et al. 2015; Islam et al. 2016), commonly found inhabiting soil and aquatic environment as well as endophytic of mangroves, chili and pepper plants (Amaresan et al. 2014; Aish et al. 2019).

Although the *Providencia* species are known to produce IAA, to the best of our knowledge there is no report about optimization of IAA produced by *Providencia* spp. as well as their isolation from the mushroom. Therefore, this is the first report of optimization of IAA produced by *Providencia* sp. isolated from mushroom *L. deliciosus*.

## 5.3 MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 5.3.1 Mushrooms collection

The edible mushrooms morphologically identified as *Lactarius deliciosus* were collected at Pinus Forest of Federal University of Paraná Campus - Polytechnic Center, Brazil, in April of 2018.

### 5.3.2 Isolation of endophytic bacteria

To isolate endophytic bacteria, mushrooms were surface sterilized following method described by Gautam et al. (2016) with slight modifications. Mushrooms were consecutively washed with tap water, 70% EtOH for 1min, 2.5% NACIO for 2min, 70% EtOH for 30s, and three times in autoclaved dH<sub>2</sub>O. Following, the inner part of mushrooms fruiting body was aseptically cut in blocks of 1cm<sup>3</sup> then placed on Nutrient Agar (NA) plates, and incubated at 30°C for 24h, in darkness. The endophyte bacterium was selected based on colony morphology and purified by repeated streaking on NA.

### 5.3.3 Molecular identification

The gDNA of the isolated bacteria was extracted by phenol/chloroform method described by Cheng and Jiang (2006). The gDNA was used as template for PCR. The 16S rRNA gene was amplified using universal primers 27F (5'-AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3') and 1512R (5'-TACCTTGTTACGACTT-3'). The amplification reaction was carried out in Veriti Thermal Cycler (AB Applied Biosystems), and the reaction mixture consisted on 5µL of 1x PCR buffer, 1µL of MgCl<sub>2</sub> (50mM), 0.55µL of dNTPs mix (0.22mM), 0.5µL of 27F (0.2mM), 0.5µL of 1512R (0.2mM), 0.2µL of Taq DNA polymerase(1U), 1µL of template DNA (50ng/µL), and 16.25mL of Milli-Q water. The thermal cycling conditions used were: 5min at 95°C, 30 cycles (1min at 93°C, 1min at 50°C and 1min 30s at 72°C), followed by a final elongation cycle at 72°C for 5min. The PCR product was analyzed by electrophoresis in 0.7% agarose gel and quantified in NanoVue spectrophotometer (GE Healthcare UK Limited). The PCR product was sequenced using the same primers at the ACTGene Análises Moleculares Ltda. (Alvorada, RS-Brazil). The nucleotide sequences obtained were visualized in BioEdit version 7.2 and aligned by CLUSTALW using MEGA version X (Kumar et al. 2018). The gene sequences were compared to nucleotide collection deposited in NCBI (National Center of Biotechnology Information) using BLAST server. The neighbor-joining (NJ) tree was constructed using MEGA version X (Kumar et al. 2018). The evolutionary history was computed using Maximum Likelihood method and Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano model

with Gamma distribution rate (Hasegawa et al. 1985). The Bootstrap confidence was inferred with 1000 replicates.

#### 5.3.4 Metagenomic analysis

The 16S Illumina amplicon protocol was used to identify endophytic bacteria present in mushroom *L. deliciosus* fruiting body. The metagenomic DNA was amplified using primers 515F/806R targeting V4 region of 16S (Caporaso et al. 2012) and GoTaq Master Mix (Promega). The amplicons generated were sequenced in Illumina MiSeq apparatus using MiSeq Reagent 500V2 (Illumina). The DNA sequences were analyzed through QIIME (Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology) version 1.9.2 (Caporaso et al. 2010), and grouped into OTUs (Operational Taxonomic Units) considering 97% identity of Silva 132 database (Quast et al. 2013).

#### 5.3.5 IAA production

The bacterial strain was inoculated in 8mL Nutrient Broth (NB) medium, then incubated at 30°C, for 48h in darkness. Following, 120µL of bacterial suspension was inoculated in sterile 15mL conical tube containing 5mL of basic medium for IAA production (1.0 g/L  $K_2HPO_4$ , 0.2 g/L  $MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$ , 1.0 g/L NaCl, 48.34 g/L glycerol, 9.09g/L corn steep liquor, pH 5.0), then incubated on shaker at 120rpm, 30°C, for 16h. Subsequently, aliquot of 250µL was inoculated in 150mL Erlenmeyer flask containing 25mL of basic medium for IAA production supplemented with 0.5mg/mL of L-tryptophan previously filter sterilized. The Erlenmeyer flasks were then incubated on shaker at 120rpm, 30°C, for 96h. The concentration of IAA per mL of culture was quantified by colorimetric method described by Gordon and Weber (1950). Aliquot of 2mL of fermented culture was centrifuged at 3500rpm, room temperature, for 10min. One (1) mL of culture supernatant was mixed with 2mL of Salkowski's reagent (50mL Perchloric acid 35% and 0.5mL of  $FeCl_3$  0.5M), then kept in darkness, at room temperature for 30min. The development of pink colour indicates positive test for IAA production, and the colour intensity was quantitatively assessed in UV-Vis spectrophotometer set at 530nm. The absorbance obtained was then converted to IAA concentration by standard curve of IAA. The IAA production was then confirmed

by High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC), performed according to Sheikhian and Bina (Sheikhian and Bina 2016), using Agilent Technologies 1260 Infinity HPLC System (Varian Inc., Palo Alto, CA, USA), equipped with HPLC column Microsorb 60-8, C18, 21.4x250mm (Varian). The mobile phase was 1% water - acetic acid/methanol (50:50 v/v). Elution was carried out at flow rate of 0.5 mL/min, and the absorbance was recorded at 283nm.

### 5.3.6 Optimization of IAA production

#### 5.3.6.1 One-Factor-At-Time (OFAT)

Three C-sources viz. glucose (24.17g/L), mannitol (24.17g/L), and starch (24.17g/L) were separately added in the basic medium for IAA production replacing glycerol (48.34g/L), while other medium components were kept constant. Following, the C-source found as the best for IAA production, was subsequently used for the screening of N-sources (2.6906g/L peptone, 3.3633g/L yeast extract, 0.7214g/L urea and 9.09g/L corn steep liquor) by the same method OFAT. The basic medium which had glycerol (48.34g/L) and corn steep liquor (9.09g/L) as C and N sources, respectively, was used as positive control for N-sources screening. The IAA production was quantified by Salkowski's reagent (Gordon and Weber 1950).

#### 5.3.6.2 Two-level Factorial Design

Starch and yeast extract were found as the best C and N sources, respectively. The single effect and interaction effect of these factors on the IAA production was studied by  $2^2$  Factorial Design. Each factor was studied at two levels (low and high). For starch, the coded values corresponding to low level (-1) and high level (+1) were 24.17g/L and 60g/L, respectively. For yeast extract, 1.68g/L corresponded the low level (-1) whereas 4.146g/L was the high level (+1). The  $2^2$  factorial design consisted on four (4) experiments run in duplicate (TABLE 10).



TABLE 10 – 2<sup>2</sup> Factorial Design matrix, along with IAA production

| Run order | Starch | Yeast extract | IAA production (µg/mL) |
|-----------|--------|---------------|------------------------|
| 1         | 1      | 1             | 221                    |
| 2         | 1      | 1             | 213                    |
| 3         | -1     | 1             | 170                    |
| 4         | -1     | -1            | 258                    |
| 5         | -1     | -1            | 264                    |
| 6         | -1     | 1             | 164                    |
| 7         | 1      | -1            | 210                    |
| 8         | 1      | -1            | 215                    |

### 5.3.6.3 Plackett-Burman Design (PBD)

PBD is one of the most important statistical methods, classified as two-level Fractional Factorial Design. This method helps to find the most important factors among many factors, and hence enabling to discharge those that do not influence the response. Therefore, in this study was used PBD to select the most significant medium components affecting IAA production. The selected variables for study were L-tryptophan, starch and initial pH. Each variable was studied at three levels vis. low (-1) and high (+1), and central level (0), as shown in TABLE 11. Fourteen (14) trials design was generated with the aid of Minitab Statistical Software (TABLE 12).

TABLE 11 – Coded values of PBD

| Variables    | Units | Levels |       |       |
|--------------|-------|--------|-------|-------|
|              |       | -1     | 0     | +1    |
| L-tryptophan | mg/mL | 1.00   | 3.00  | 6.00  |
| Starch*      | g/L   | 4.17   | 14.17 | 24.17 |
| Initial pH   | -     | 5.00   | 7.00  | 9.00  |

(\*) the ratio of starch/yeast extract was 14.39

TABLE 12 – PBD matrix, along with IAA production

| Run order | L-tryptophan | Starch | Initial pH | IAA (µg/mL) |
|-----------|--------------|--------|------------|-------------|
| 1         | -1           | 1      | 1          | 144         |
| 2         | 1            | 1      | 1          | 564         |
| 3         | 1            | 1      | -1         | 668         |
| 4         | 1            | 1      | -1         | 657         |
| 5         | -1           | 1      | -1         | 154         |
| 6         | -1           | -1     | 1          | 201         |
| 7         | -1           | -1     | -1         | 150         |
| 8         | 1            | -1     | -1         | 615         |
| 9         | 0            | 0      | 0          | 337         |
| 10        | -1           | 1      | 1          | 127         |
| 11        | 1            | -1     | 1          | 641         |
| 12        | 0            | 0      | 0          | 326         |
| 13        | 1            | -1     | 1          | 598         |
| 14        | -1           | -1     | -1         | 144         |

#### 5.3.6.4 Effect of L-tryptophan on IAA production

The PBD found L-tryptophan as the only factor that significantly affects the IAA production at 95% confidence level. Therefore, was studied the effect of L-tryptophan on IAA production at different concentrations (0.8; 1.6; 2.4; 3.2; 4.0; 4.8; 5.6 and 6.4 mg/mL). The experiment was performed by varying the concentration of L-tryptophan supplemented to the medium for IAA production (1g/L  $K_2HPO_4$ , 0.2 g/L  $MgSO_2.H_2O$ , 1g/L NaCl, 24.17g/L starch, 1.68g/L yeast extract, initial pH 5.0). Each assay was done in triplicate. The incubation was done on shaker at 120rpm, 30°C, for 96h.

#### 5.3.6.5 Model validation

The model was validated by running experiment at three different concentrations of L-tryptophan (3; 6 and 9 mg/mL) supplemented to the fermentation medium for IAA production.

#### 5.3.6.6 Effect of incubation time on IAA production

The effect of incubation time was assessed on the medium for IAA production (1g/L  $K_2HPO_4$ , 0.2 g/L  $MgSO_2.H_2O$ , 1g/L NaCl, 24.17g/L starch, 1.68g/L yeast extract, initial pH 5.0) supplemented with 9mg/mL of L-tryptophan. Aliquots for IAA quantification and bacterial growth analysis were taken at every 3h interval in 1<sup>st</sup> day of fermentation, then at intervals of 24h up to 9<sup>th</sup> day of fermentation.

#### 5.3.6.7 Other plant growth promotion traits

The ability to solubilize phosphate was detected by formation of a clear zone around bacterial growth on National Botanical Research Institute's Phosphate (NBRIP) solid medium (Nautiyal 1999), and quantitatively determined by equation 6 (Yulianti and Rakhmawati 2018):

$$\text{Width of the clear zone} = \text{Halo zone diameter} - \text{Colony diameter} \quad (6)$$

The ability to fix nitrogen was qualitatively assessed through methodology described by Goswami et al. (2015). Bacterial colony was aseptically inoculated in tube with 8mL of nitrogen-free bromothymol blue (NfB) medium, then incubated at 30°C for 4 days. Colour change from green to blue, was a positive indicator for nitrogen fixation activity.

The ammonia production was determined as well according to Goswami et al. (2015). The isolated bacterial strain was inoculated in 8mL peptone water and incubated for 4 days at 30°C. After incubation, 0.5mL of Nessler's reagent ( $K_2HgI_4$ , Potassium Tetraiodomercurate II) was added in tube. The change of color from brown to yellow was considered positive for production of ammonia.

The HCN production was qualitatively assessed by Saharan (2015) method. Bacterial colony was inoculated on nutrient agar (NA) medium plate amended with 4.4 g/L of glycine. A sterile whatman filter paper was soaked in 0.5% of picric acid solution, then placed to the top of the Petri plate. The plate was then incubated at 30°C for 7days. The development of red color after incubation was recorded as positive for HCN production.

The antifungal activity of the bacterial strain was tested against three (3) phytophathogens: *Aspergillus niger*, *Fusarium moniliforme* and *Gibberella* sp., using dual culture method on potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium (Das et al. 2015). Plates were incubated at 30°C for 7 days in darkness. Plate without bacterium was used as negative control. The antagonistic activity was assessed by growth inhibition, expressed by equation 7 (Lahlali et al. 2007):

$$\text{Relative Growth Inhibition} = \frac{R_i - R_c}{R_c} \times 100\% \quad (7)$$

Where,  $R_i$  is length of hyphal growth toward bacterial strain, and  $R_c$  is length of hyphal growth on control.

### 5.3.7 Effect of bacterial suspension containing IAA on germination and growth of *Glycine max* (soybean)

The study was carried out in a greenhouse, and consisted on three treatments vis. water (0µg/mL of bacterial IAA), bacterial suspension containing 5µg/mL and bacterial suspension containing 15µg/mL, corresponding to the control,

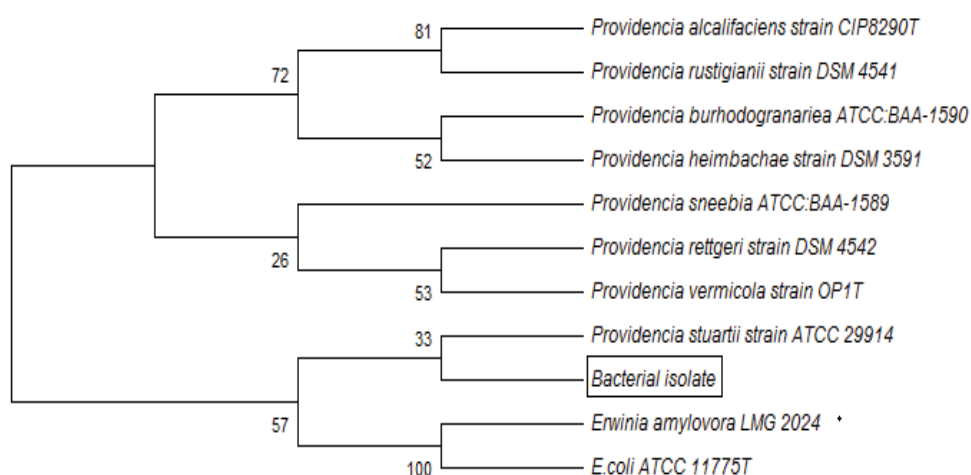
treatment 1, and treatment 2, respectively. The seed density per treatment was in number of ten (10). The treatments were applied directly to seed and via foliar. The seeds treated were sown in 1L pots with moist sand. The first foliar application of treatments was carried out fifteen (15) days after seedling emergence, and the second at 30 day. The irrigation was done by conventional irrigation system. The harvest was performed at 45 days after seed emergence. The agronomic characteristics of the soybean evaluated were germination, length and dry weight of root and aerial part of the plant. To determine the dry masses, plants were dried in oven set at 70°C, until constant mass.

## 5.4 RESULTS

### 5.4.1 Molecular identification

The 16S rDNA sequence of bacterial strain was compared to nucleotide sequences of NCBI database using BLAST server. Higher similarity (98.37%) was obtained with members of genus *Providencia*. The phylogenic position of the isolated bacterial strain in relation to *Providencia* species is shown in FIGURE 17. The nucleotide sequence was deposited in GenBank with accession number MT422206.

FIGURE 17 – Phylogenetic tree



### 5.4.2 Metagenomic analysis

The rarefaction curve of the operational taxonomic units (OTUs) (FIGURE 18) showed that the sequencing depth covered nearly all bacterial communities, and hence can be used to characterize the endophytic microbiota of the *L. deliciosus* fruiting body. The composition of endophytic bacteria at family level is dominated by Pseudomonadaceae with relative abundance of 99% (FIGURE 19).

FIGURE 18 – Rarefaction curve of the observed OTUs (97% similarity)

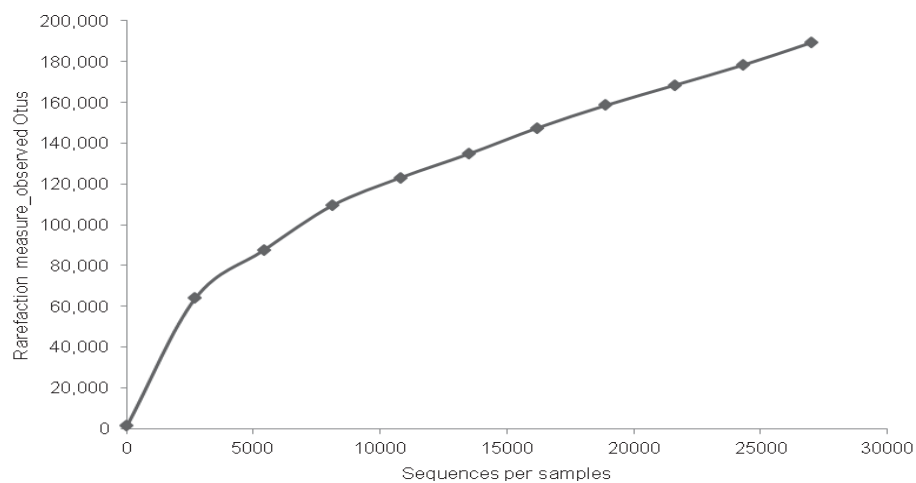
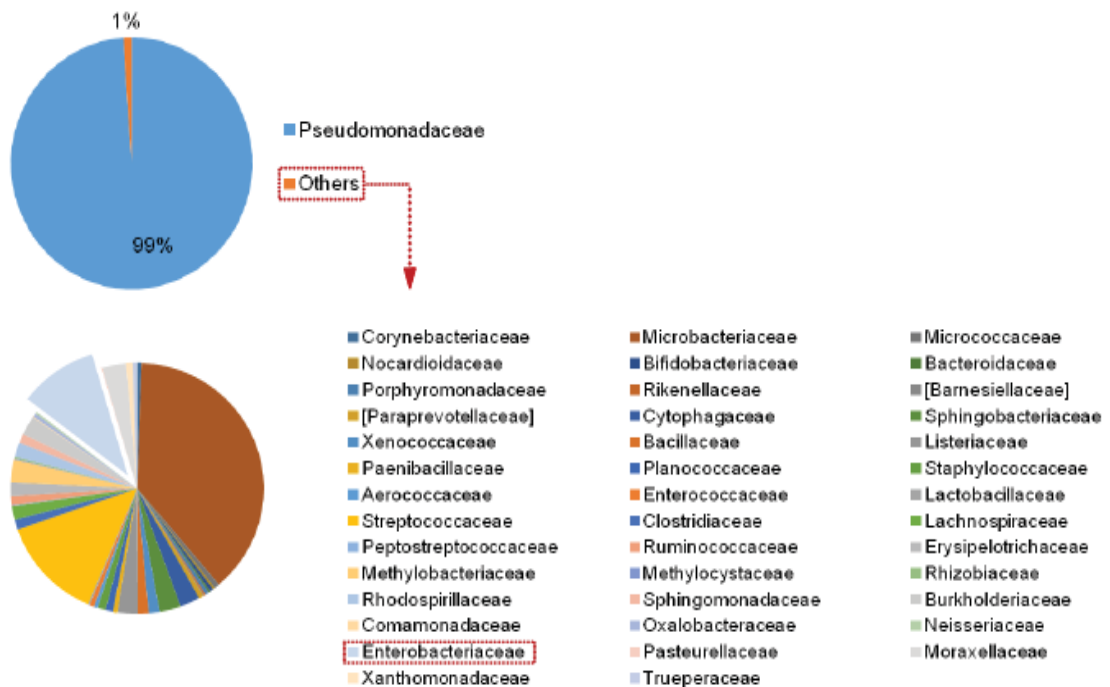


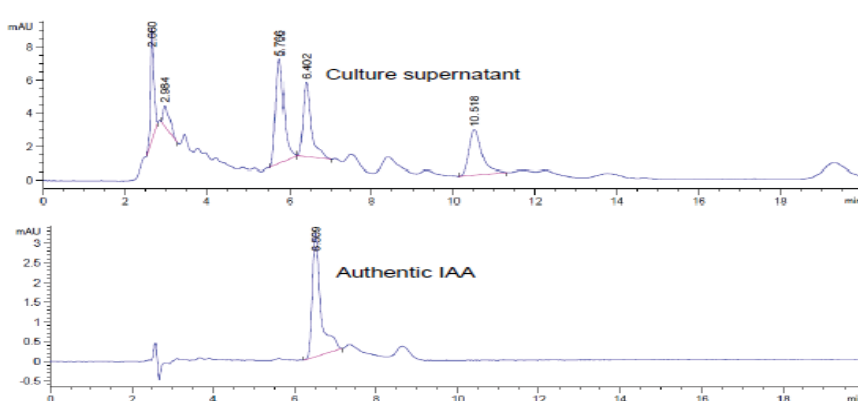
FIGURE 19 – Bacterial diversity in *L. deliciosus* fruiting body, at family level



### 5.4.3 IAA production

The IAA production was detected by colorimetric method then confirmed by HPLC analysis. Chromatograms of HPLC analysis are shown in FIGURE 20. Strong peak was observed at 6.402min in the chromatogram corresponding to culture supernatant. The authentic IAA was recorded at the retention time 6.509min.

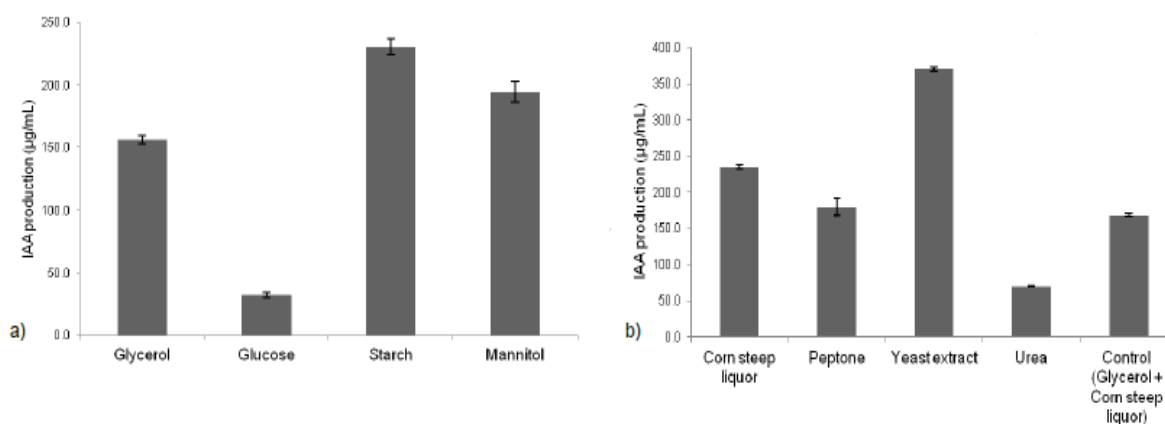
FIGURE 20 – HPLC analysis



### 5.4.4 One-Factor-At-Time

The effect of different C and N sources on the IAA production is shown in FIGURE 21. Among C and N sources tested, starch and yeast extract were found the best sources for IAA production.

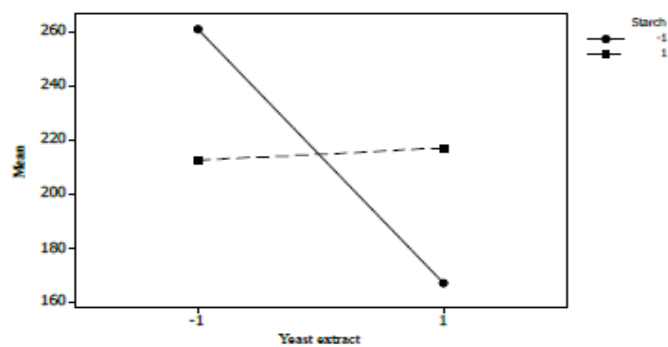
FIGURE 21 – a) Screening of C-sources for IAA production. b) Screening of N-sources for IAA production. Each value is mean of 3 replications. Vertical bars represent standard error.



#### 5.4.5 Two-level Factorial Design

The interaction effect between starch and yeast extract for IAA production is shown in FIGURE 22, and can be observed an antagonistic effect between these input factors, being maximum the IAA production when both factors were at low levels (-1).

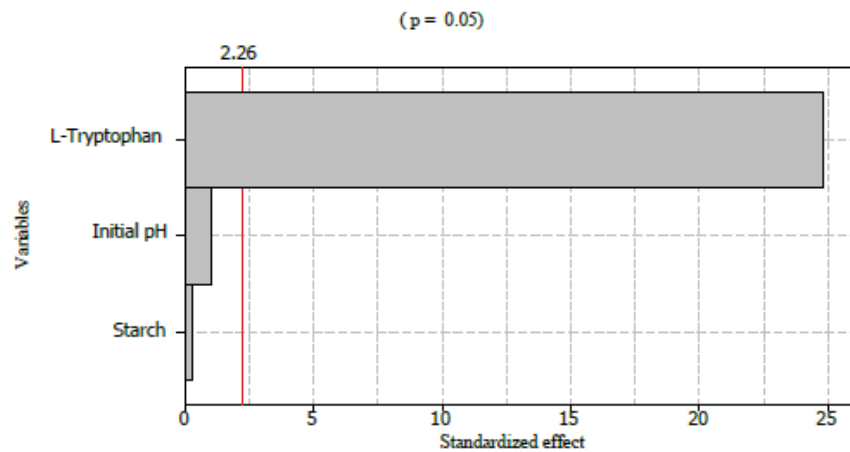
FIGURE 22 – Effect of starch and yeast extract on IAA production



#### 5.4.6 Plackett-Burman Design

Results of PBD are presented through Pareto chart (FIGURE 23). The Pareto chart shows the effect of all variables on IAA production, where variables with statistical confidence level higher than 95% were considered significant to IAA production.

FIGURE 23 – Pareto chart of standardized effects





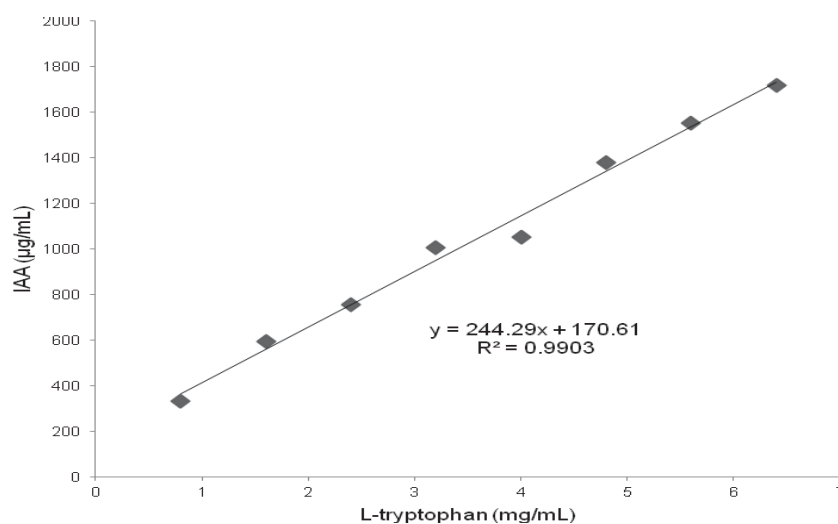
#### 5.4.7 Effect of L-tryptophan on IAA production

The relationship between L-tryptophan and IAA production (FIGURE 24) is described by following simple linear regression model:

$$y = 244.29x + 170.61 \quad (8)$$

Where,  $y$  is the predicted response (IAA production),  $x$  is L-tryptophan concentration.

FIGURE 24 – Relationship between L-tryptophan and IAA production



#### 5.4.8 Model validation

Results of model validation are shown in TABLE 13.

TABLE 13 – Model validation

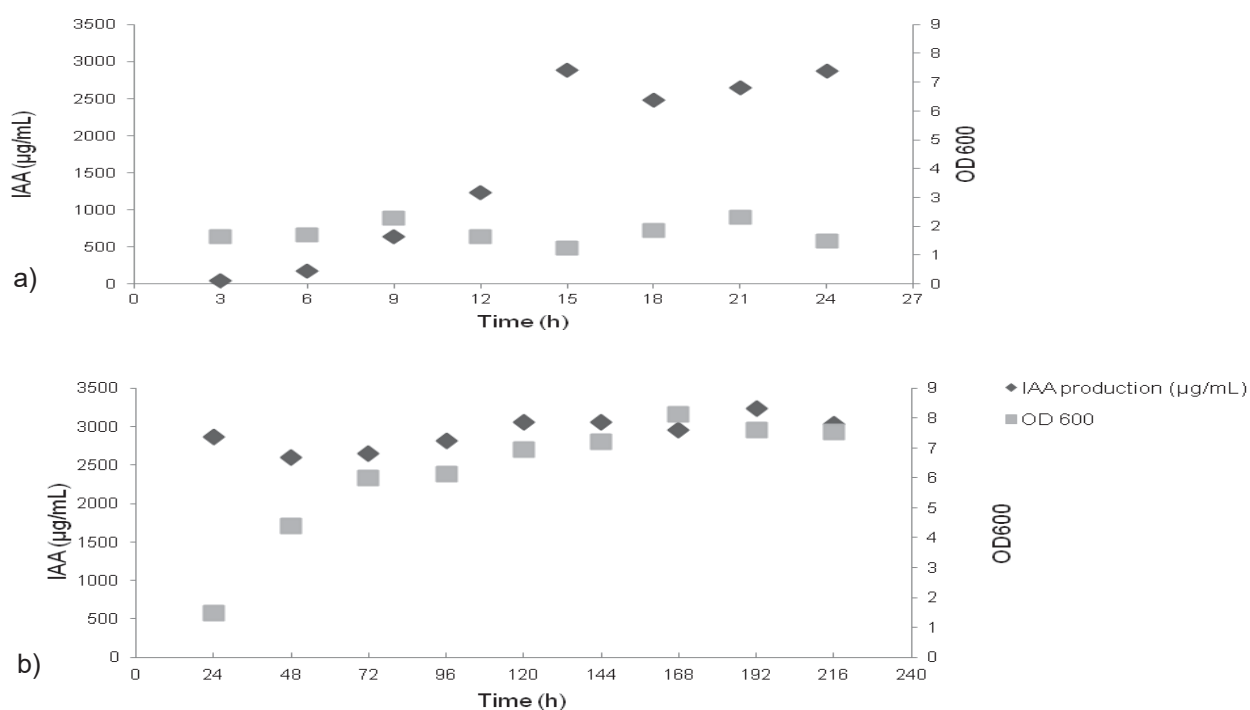
| L-Tryptophan<br>(mg/mL) | IAA production(µg/mL) |           |         |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|---------|
|                         | Actual*               | Predicted | Error % |
| 3                       | 957±82                | 903       | 5.6     |
| 6                       | 1796±47               | 1636      | 8.9     |
| 9                       | 2554±109              | 2369      | 7.2     |

\* mean of 3 replications

#### 5.4.9 Effect of incubation time on IAA production

The effect of different incubation time on IAA production by bacterial strain is shown in FIGURE 25.

FIGURE 25 – Effect of incubation time on IAA production. a) Aliquot taken at ever 3h interval during 24h of incubation. b) Aliquot taken at ever 24h.



#### 5.4.10 Other plant growth promotion traits

Result of plant growth promotion traits are summarized in the TABLE 14.

TABLE 14 – Plant growth promotion traits

| Plant growth traits         |                       |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------|
| Phosphate Solubilization    | 5mm <sup>*</sup>      |
| Nitrogen fixation           | +                     |
| Ammonia Production          | +                     |
| HCN Production              | +                     |
| <i>Aspergillus niger</i>    | 0% <sup>**</sup>      |
| <i>Gibberella</i> sp.       | 12.82 % <sup>**</sup> |
| <i>Fusarium moniliforme</i> | 8.57% <sup>**</sup>   |

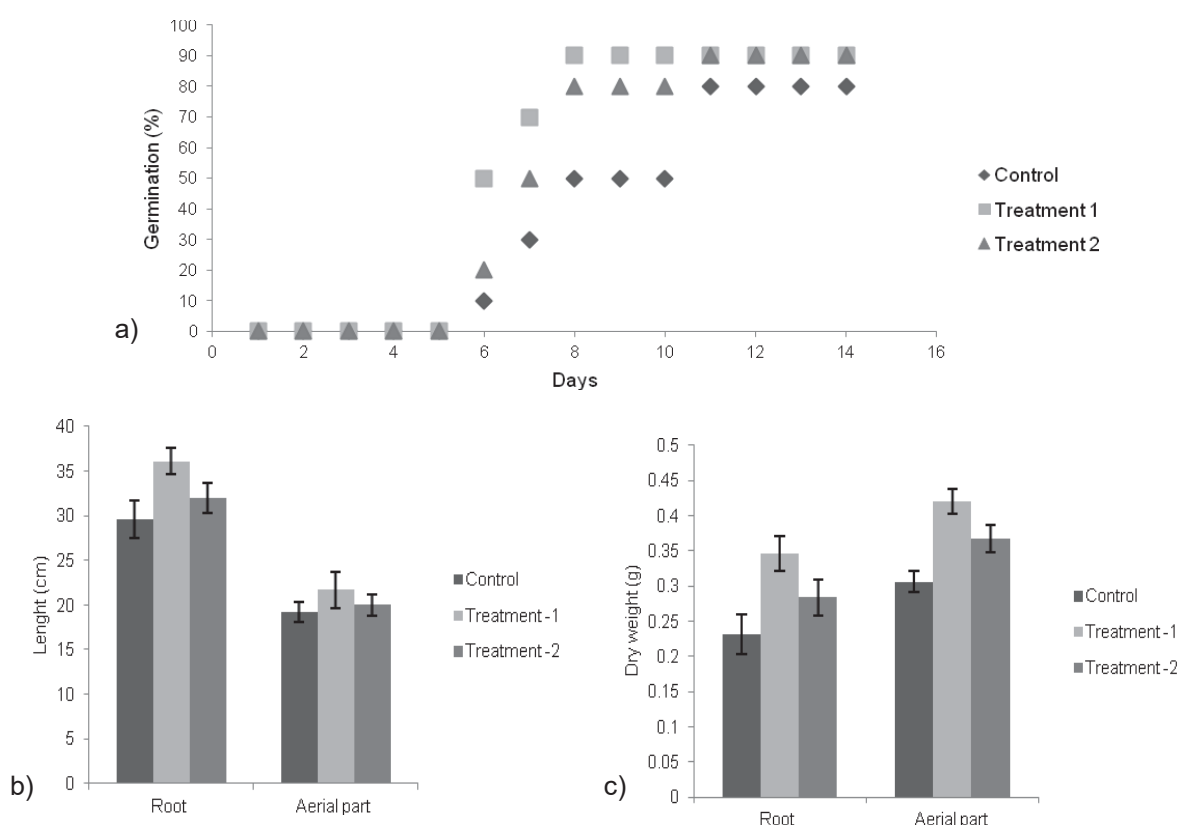
<sup>\*</sup> Width

<sup>\*\*</sup> Relative growth inhibition

#### 5.4.11 Effect of bacterial suspension containing IAA on germination and growth of *Glycine max* (soybean)

The effect of bacterial suspension containing IAA in relation to germination, length and dry weigh of soybean plants is shown in FIGURE 26.

FIGURE 26 – Effect of bacterial suspension containing IAA on soybean crop. a) Germination. b) Plant length. c) Plant weight



## 5.5 DISCUSSION

Based on 16S rRNA gene sequences, the isolated bacterial strain showed 98.37% similarity with *Providencia* species. The genus *Providencia* belongs to the phylum Proteobacteria, class Gammaproteobacteria, order Enterobacterales, family Enterobacteriaceae, and consists of eight species (*P. alcalifaciens*, *P. burhodogranariae*, *P. heimbachae*, *P. rettgeri*, *P. rustigianii*, *P. sneebia*, *P. stuartii* and *P. vermicola*), isolated from various environments (Khunthongpan et al. 2013; Aish et al. 2019). The family Enterobacteriaceae was detected inside the fruiting

body of the mushroom *Lactarius deliciosus* by metagenomic analysis, indicating that the isolated bacterial strain can be a true endophyte. It matches with a genus presenting clear capabilities to promote plant growth through IAA production and phosphate solubilization (Susilowati et al. 2015; Jiang et al. 2018). To corroborate this result, Gautam et al. (2016) reported the isolation of an endophytic bacteria *Enterobacter* sp. from the edible basidiomycete fungus *Agaricus bisporus*, with ability to produce bioactive compounds.

The IAA production was colorimetrically detected using Salkowski's reagent (Gordon and Weber 1950) and quantified by UV-Vis spectrophotometer. The Salkowski's reagent is widely used for colorimetric detection of IAA (Ali et al. 2009), because is simple, rapid and cheap, therefore is used for routine analysis. However, Salkowski reagent is not specific for IAA alone, can react with IAA intermediaries present in liquid culture supernatants such as IPyA and IAM, and therefore contributing to color absorption in spectrophotometer quantification (Glickmann and Dessaux 1995; Ali et al. 2009). On other hand, HPLC is more accurate than colorimetric method, but is costly and time-consuming, and therefore is not recommended for daily assays (Galdiano Junior et al. 2011). Thus, HPLC was only used to confirm the IAA production.

The synthesis of secondary metabolites occurs naturally (Okada and Seyedsayamdost 2017), but is greatly influenced by culture conditions. Genes that trigger the biosynthesis of secondary metabolites can be overexpressed by the change or manipulation of cultural conditions such as medium composition (carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus sources, trace elements), salinity, temperature, pH, and by addition of precursor (Bode et al. 2002; Netzker et al. 2015).

The OFAT revealed that the bacterial strain can use all carbon sources tested for IAA production, but starch was preferred over the other carbon sources tested, yielding  $230.6 \pm 6.6 \mu\text{g/mL}$  of IAA. Stimulation of IAA production was also observed when mannitol was used as C-source, whereas glucose had repressive effect on the IAA production when compared to glycerol. Early studies demonstrated that several carbon sources can be used for growth and secondary metabolites production, but their preference varies among species (Bharucha et al. 2013; Bhutani et al. 2018). The rapidly metabolized carbon, particularly glucose (hexose), although supports rapid biomass production, is the most effective in repression of the synthesis of secondary metabolites, and such regulation can take place at enzymatic

and/or transcriptional levels (Neidhardt and Magasanik 1957; Ruiz et al. 2010; Sánchez et al. 2010; Romero-Rodríguez et al. 2018). Whereas, polysaccharides, oligosaccharides, and oils are often found to be better than glucose as carbon sources for secondary metabolites production (Demain 1986).

In addition, the type and availability of nitrogen sources also regulate the secondary metabolites production. In the present study, the analysis of N-sources by OFAT revealed maximum IAA production ( $369.8 \pm 3.3 \mu\text{g/mL}$ ) when yeast extract was used as N-source. When compared to control, either yeast extract or corn steep liquor stimulated higher IAA production whereas opposite effect was observed with urea.

Results of  $2^2$  Factorial Design revealed that there was antagonistic interaction between starch and yeast extract. The change in mean response for yeast extract at level (-1) was noticeably higher than at level (+1), this is, yeast extract was less sensitive to variation in mean response at level (+1) of starch. The maximum IAA production was observed when both factors were at low levels (-1), which corresponded to a starch/yeast extract ratio of 24.17/1.68 (g/L) or simply 14.38.

PBD was used to identify variables that significantly affected IAA production, and L-tryptophan was the only factor found significant at 95% confidence level. The effect of different concentrations of L-tryptophan on IAA production was described by simple linear regression model. L-tryptophan greatly influenced the IAA production, for each unit increase in L-tryptophan concentration there was an increase in 244.29 units in response ( $244.29 \mu\text{g/mL}$  of IAA). This result corroborates with several studies that demonstrated that L-tryptophan is a precursor for IAA production as its addition to the medium greatly increases IAA production (Costacurta et al. 1994; Bharucha et al. 2013; Hasuty et al. 2018).

The effect of incubation time revealed gradual increase in IAA production from the start of the analysis, at 3h, until 15h of incubation ( $2880 \pm 11 \mu\text{g/mL}$ ). After 15h, the increase in incubation period did not result in significant increase in IAA production. On other hand, in the first 24h of incubation, very little bacterial growth was observed. In agreement with our result, Ruiz et al. (2010) found that one distinctive characteristic of secondary metabolism is its association with low growth level.

The IAA concentration achieved by the optimized cultivation of *Providencia* sp. ( $2880 \pm 11 \mu\text{g/mL}$ ) is comparable to the best results reported in literature, i.e. the

study of Apine and Jadhav (2011) that reported maximum IAA production of 2191 µg/mL by *Pantoea agglomerans* strain PVM at 48h incubation, as well as Srisuk et al. (2018) that reported high-yield production of IAA (3963 µg/mL) by *Enterobacter* sp. DMKU-RP206 after 3 days of incubation. However, the results of the present study were obtained after 15h of incubation, corresponding to a productivity of 192±0.7 µg/mL.h, which is more than three times higher than those of the previously reported studies (45.65 µg/mL.h and 55.04 µg/mL.h, respectively).

The isolated bacterial strain was found positive for almost all plant growth promoting traits tested *in vitro*, namely phosphate solubilization, N<sub>2</sub> fixation, NH<sub>3</sub> production, HCN production and antifungal activity against *Gibberella* sp. and *Fusarium moniliforme*. Bacterial strains with multiple traits are rare, being phosphate solubilization and N<sub>2</sub> fixation, the direct beneficial traits for plant growth. Many studies have reported stimulation of plant growth through inoculation of bacteria with phosphate solubilization and/or N<sub>2</sub> fixation activity. For example, Afzal et al. (2010) reported higher soybean productivity due to the inoculation of bacteria with phosphate solubilization and N<sub>2</sub> fixation activities, as well as Singh et al. (2010) observed significant increase on soybean growth inoculated with phosphate solubilizing bacteria.

In greenhouse studies, seeds treated with bacterial suspension containing IAA (treatments 1 and 2) achieved efficiency of almost 100% of germination with 3 days less than the control. At 6 to 7 days, 50% of seeds submitted to treatments 1 and 2 were already germinated, while 50% germination of the untreated seeds (control) was observed in 8 days after planting. The higher germination rate of seeds treated with bacterial suspension containing IAA (treatments 1 and 2) could be attributed to the positive effect of bacterial IAA that penetrates the tegument during seed treatment. The IAA is able to activate the initial growth phase of the plant, which includes stimulation of embryo development and root initiation (Möller and Weijers 2009; Sauer et al. 2013) enabling the plant to take water and essential nutrients (e.g. N and P).

Compared to the control, an increase in the length of roots of the plants submitted to treatments 1 and 2 was observed, which means greater capacity for absorbing water and nutrient. In addition, an increase of more than 30% in the dry mass of roots and aerial part of the plants submitted to treatments 1 and 2 was observed. Therefore, the plants submitted to treatments 1 and 2 were more structured, and probably with

greater productive potential, if it closed the growth cycle. The increase in the length and dry mass of the roots and aerial parts could be attributed not only to the positive effect of the bacterial IAA, but also to the capacity of the bacterial strain *Providencia* sp. to make P and N available through phosphate solubilization and atmospheric nitrogen fixation mechanisms.

## 5.6 CONCLUSION

The bacterial strain *Providencia* sp., isolated from the mushroom *L. deliciosus*, has enormous potential for application in agriculture due to its high rates of production of IAA never reported in the literature, more equally due to its capacity to solubilize phosphate and fix nitrogen. Results of preliminary studies conducted on soybean crop attest to this potential, as well as its promising contributions to the development of more sustainable agriculture.

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## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author declares no conflict of interest.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT

All authors contributed to the study's conceptualization. Marcelino Lourenço Xavier performed the experiments, data analysis, validation and the writing of manuscript. Susan Grace Karp performed supervision, discussions and reviewed the manuscript. Dão Pedro de Carvalho Neto and Manuel Hospinal-Santiani performed molecular biology analyses. Vanete Thomaz-Soccol provided resources and supervised the experimental work. Carlos Ricardo Soccol performed supervision, project and resources administration, and final manuscript approval.



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## 6 FINAL CONCLUSION

This study demonstrated that wild mushroom harbor in its interior diverse cultivable endophytic bacteria, with important plant growth promotion traits such as IAA production, phosphate solubilization and atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> fixing activities.

Among 71 endophytic bacterial isolates, two were found efficient IAA producers and identified by molecular technique as *Enterobacter* sp. and *Providencia* sp. The conditions for IAA production by each of these two isolates was successfully optimized, and the result of *in vivo* study which assessed the exogenous application of IAA produced in promoting plant growth particularly in soybean plant, indicated that has positive role in promoting soybean growth.

These two bacterial isolates, in particular, owe other plant growth traits including phosphate solubilization, atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> fixing, and antifungal activities. Therefore, these two isolates have potential to support plant growth and having superior IAA biosynthesis capability would certainly give an idea not only to use them for industrial production of IAA but also for the development of bio-based products to be used as biofertilizer in agriculture.

For industrial purposes of IAA production, we recommend the use of bacterial strain *Providencia* sp., due to its higher production of IAA, higher rate of production of IAA (2880±11µg/mL in 15h of incubation), and lower nutritional requirement, this is, requires lower concentrations of L-tryptophan (9mg/mL) and starch (24.17g/L) as well as yeast extract (1.68g/L). In addition, the production of IAA by *Providencia* sp. is influenced by a single variable (L-tryptophan), making the process of IAA production easy.



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