ORIGINAL PAPER

Plant growth promotion by *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* FZB45 depends on inoculum rate and P-related soil properties

Camilo A. Ramírez · Joseph W. Kloepper

Received: 11 March 2010/Revised: 10 July 2010/Accepted: 21 July 2010/Published online: 7 August 2010 © Springer-Verlag 2010

Abstract We have studied the effect of soil P-related properties and inoculum concentration on plant growth promotion by the phytase-producing strain Bacillus amylo*liquefaciens* FZB45. The response (shoot fresh weight/P_i) content) of a mycorrhizal-independent plant, Chinese cabbage, was evaluated in a soil with well-defined Prelated properties. Two inoculum concentrations were evaluated under four P regimes: no P addition, inorganic P, and two levels of phytate. Significant interaction between P regime and bacterial inoculation was found. FZB45 only promoted plant growth and P uptake at the higher rate of phytate, confirming that phytase activity is its major mechanism and that is limited by soil phytate availability. The effect caused by the lower inoculum concentration was superior than that by the higher, suggesting the simultaneous involvement of a direct effect. This effect was confirmed by a soilless test, which showed a hormonelike response. FZB45 produced IAA in vitro, but its role is to be determined. These results demonstrate that soil modulates the performance of plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria in a specific manner, consistent to the mechanisms of action involved. Determination of those mechanisms and their modulating factors helps predict conditions where plant growth promotion will result, an important step in increasing the consistency of PGPR.

C. A. Ramírez (⊠) · J. W. Kloepper
Department of Entomology and Plant Pathology,
Auburn University,
209 Life Sciences Building,
Auburn, AL 36849, USA
e-mail: camilorz@une.net.co

C. A. Ramírez Instituto de Biología, Universidad de Antioquia,

Calle 67 # 53-108 Medellín, Colombia

Keywords *Bacillus* · Plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria · Phytase · Phosphorus solubilization · Mechanisms of action · Biofertilizers

Introduction

A major limitation for using plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) in agriculture is inconsistent results when plants are grown in soil. Knowledge of mechanisms of action and how they interact with soil properties would help optimize results and predict outcomes, thereby reducing variability (Richardson 2001; Compant et al. 2005; Richardson et al. 2009). This is particularly important for inoculants based on strains of aerobic endosporeforming bacteria, which, because of their high feasibility to be formulated, represent most of the PGPR-based products that are commercially available (Mathre et al. 1999; Kloepper et al. 2004; Ongena and Jacques 2008).

Production of phytohormones and increased plant nutrient uptake are commonly referred to as putative PGPR-mechanisms in bacilli. Several plant hormones, such as auxins (Asghar et al. 2002), gibberellins (Joo et al. 2005), and cytokinins (García de Salamone et al. 2001) are thought to be related to growth promotion. However, evidence supporting the role of those hormones in plant growth promotion by PGPR under natural conditions is still scarce. Production of IAA is the most studied case and, although not yet tested in soil, analyses of mutants suggest its biological significance in plant growth promotion by bacilli (Idris et al. 2007) and non-bacilli PGPR (Dobbelaere et al. 1999; Patten and Glick 2002). IAA accumulation in the rhizosphere has also been linked to the inoculum density of the applied PGPR strain (Dobbelaere et al. 1999).

Regarding increased plant nutrient uptake, the vast majority of the PGPR research focuses on P solubilization (Rodriguez and Fraga 1999; Richardson 2001; Gyaneshwar et al. 2002; Goldstein and Krishnaraj 2007). One of the most abundant organic molecules containing unavailable P is phytate. Phytate can account for 20% to 50% of soil organic P (Richardson et al. 2007) and can contain an amount of P equivalent to two thirds of the P applied each year in fertilizer (Mullaney and Ullah 2007). Because plants depend on microorganisms to hydrolyze phytate (Richardson et al. 2007), phytases have been suggested to be useful for solubilizing P from phytate in soil and making this element available for plant uptake (Findenegg and Nelemans 1993; Tarafdar and Marschner 1995; Richardson 2001; Richardson et al. 2001; Idriss et al. 2002; Yip et al. 2003; George et al. 2005c; Unno et al. 2005).

Most of the experiments involved in this research have been conducted in the absence of soil, and when done in its presence, plant responses are less consistent and largely dependent on soil type (Richardson 2007; Richardson et al. 2009). A considerable body of information suggests that Prelated soil properties such as P and phytate content, phosphorus-fixation capacity, and pH have a major influence on plant responses (George et al. 2005a, 2005b, 2006; Richardson 2007). The details and extent of this influence are still poorly understood, especially in the case of phytase-producing PGPR, where most of these aspects remain to be explored (Richardson 2001; Richardson 2007). For instance, Idriss et al. (2002) provided evidence that phytase activity of Bacillus amyloliquefaciens FZB45, a trait that is also present in the closely related and commercialized strains FZB24 and FZB42, is important for plant growth stimulation under phosphate limitation. Experiments comparing culture filtrates of the wild-type strain to those of a phytase-deficient mutant clearly indicated that, in presence of phytate, phytase production by FZB45 promoted growth of corn seedlings. However, these experiments were conducted using a soilless gnotobiotic system, because of which those authors cautioned that this study should be considered as a starting point and called for verification under conditions that better mimic the natural environment.

Agricultural systems are complex and involve a high number of factors. Soil is recognized as a major factor affecting bacterial physiology (Vilain et al. 2006), phytase behavior (George et al. 2005b), and availability of phosphate and phytate (Fox 1981; Celi et al. 1999; Celi and Barberis 2007). Therefore, plant response to the inoculation with P-solubilizing PGPR, in general, and with phytase-producing PGPR, in particular, is expected to be modulated by soil properties, especially those related to P. In addition, soil-independent factors, e.g., bacterial production of phytohormones and concentration-dependent effects, may play a role simultaneously. Thus, understanding the effect of these factors on PGPR performance is a necessary step in the process of PGPR technology implementation. The aim of the present report was to study the effect of soil P-related properties and inoculum concentration on plant growth promotion by the phytaseproducing strain *B. amyloliquefaciens* FZB45. This was studied using an experimental system consisting of a mycorrhizal-independent plant, Chinese cabbage, and a soil with well-defined P-related properties. Plant growth and P_i content were evaluated under different regimes of soil P_i and phytate, both in relation to soil P-fixing capacity, and with different inoculum concentrations.

Materials and methods

Soil characterization

The B horizon of a never-fertilized ultisol from Alabama (USA) was selected because of its naturally low P content and low level of organic matter. Soil analysis was routinely done in the Soil Testing Laboratory at Auburn University. This was classified as belonging to soil group 2, which corresponds to a loamy soil with light clays. Chemical analysis, which was performed using Mehlich-1 extract and determination by inductively coupled argon plasma spectrophotometry, showed the following parameters: pH 6.1, organic matter 1.4%, and nutrient content (mg kg⁻¹): P, 3, K, 17, Mg, 55, and Ca, 440. Dolomitic lime (1 g kg^{-1}) was added to the soil in order to increase Ca and Mg contents and reaching pH 6.5. A mixture 1:1 (w/w) soil/sand was used for all the experiments. A P-sorption curve establishing the relationship between P applied and P in soil solution was prepared for this mixture (Fox and Kamprath 1970; Nair et al. 1984). For this purpose, both 1.5 g of 4 mmsieved air-dried soil and 1.5 g of sand (3 g soil mixture total) were put into 50 ml polypropylene tubes. Thirty milliliters of 0.01 M CaCl₂·2H₂O containing proper amounts of KH₂PO₄ were added into separate tubes in order to reach concentrations equivalent to 0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 40, and 50 mg P kg⁻¹ soil. Two drops of chloroform were added into each of the tubes which were then placed horizontally in an orbital shaker for 24 h at room temperature and 150 rpm. After incubation, samples were centrifuged for 5 min at 2,000 \times g and filtered through filter paper Whatman No. 1. P in solution was determined using molybdate-blue method (Murphy and Riley 1962).

Bacterial inoculum preparation

The strain *B. amyloliquefaciens* FZB45 (Idriss et al. 2002) was kindly provided by Dr. Rainer Borriss (Institut für

Biologie, Humboldt Universität, Berlin). A bacterial spore suspension was prepared by growing the strain on a modified medium to stimulate sporulation. One liter of medium contained proteose peptone (vegetable, Fluka), 3.3 g; beef extract powder, 1.0 g; D-lactose monohydrate, 5.0 g; NaCl, 5.0 g; K₂HPO₄, 2.0 g; KCl, 1.0 g; MgSO₄·7H₂O, 0.25 g; MnSO₄, 10 mg; and agar, 18 g. After incubation for 7 days at 28°C, spores were harvested from medium surface using 5 ml of sterile distilled water (SDW) per Petri dish. This suspension was centrifuged at $2,000 \times g$ for 10 min, the supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was resuspended in sterilized distilled water. This suspension was finally pasteurized for 15 min at 80°C and its concentration was determined by plate counting. The spore suspension was stored at 4°C until use, and the spore viability was confirmed at the moment of inoculation.

Soil-plant experiment

Two-day-old seedlings of Chinese cabbage (Brassica rapa L. Kaboko Hybrid, Park Seed Co., Greenwood, S.C. 29647) were used in all the experiments. Seeds were disinfected by soaking in 70% ethanol for 1 min, rinsing once with SDW, then soaking again in 0.5% sodium hypochlorite for 10 min, and finally rinsing 15 times with SDW. Disinfected seeds were transferred to Petri dishes with 2% water-agar and incubated for 2 days at 28°C in the dark, until germination occurred. Then, 2-day-old seedlings were planted individually in plant growth containers which consisted of 50 ml-plastic centrifuge tubes containing 70 g of a mixture 1:1 (w/w) soil-sand. The amount of soil (air-dried and sieved at <4 mm) and sand (35 g each) to be added into each container were weighed separately and then mixed in order to ensure homogeneity. Likewise, containers were fertilized individually with 5 ml of distilled water containing NH₄NO₃, Ca (NO₃)₂·4H₂O, MgSO₄·7H₂O, and KCl in equivalent amounts to add 100 mg N, 100 mg Ca, 60 mg Mg, and 85 mg K kg⁻¹ soil. The experiment was conducted following a 4×3 factorial arrangement. Four different P regimes were evaluated: no addition of P, 15 mg P kg⁻¹ soil, 74.57 mg phytate kg^{-1} soil (equivalent to 15 mg P kg^{-1} soil, 1×), and 447.43 mg phytate kg^{-1} soil (equivalent to 90 mg P kg⁻¹ soil, 6×). Phosphorus amendments were applied to each container using 5 ml of distilled water containing the respective amount of NaH₂PO₄ (source of P_i) or phytic acid dodecasodium salt hydrate from rice (Sigma P0109). Bacterial treatment was achieved at three levels: no inoculation (only SDW) and two rates of FZB45, 10⁶ and 10⁸ spores per seedling carried in 0.1 ml suspension. Five containers, each having a 2-day-old seedling, were used for each combination treatment, and the experiment was conducted twice. Soil moisture was kept between 40–60% of maximum water holding capacity, and plants were incubated at 25°C in a growth chamber with 16-h light and 8-h darkness for 14 days. Response variables were fresh shoot weight (FSW), shoot inorganic P content (shoot P_i content), inorganic P concentration (P_i concentration, based on fresh weight), and total P concentration (P_t concentration, based on dry weight).

Plant P extraction and determination

Whole plant P_i, which is considered to be a highly sensitive index for P nutrition, was extracted following the method by Huang et al. (2005). For this purpose, the shoot of each plant was washed in distilled water and put into 50 mlplastic centrifuge tubes containing 15 ml 0.1 M H₂SO₄. Samples were agitated in an orbital shaker for 16 h at 160 rpm and 25°C, then heated in a water bath at 85°C for 15 min, and cooled down for P_i determination. Inorganic P (P_i) in solution was determined in the extractant by the molybdate-blue method (Murphy and Riley 1962) using a P_i standard curve also prepared in 0.1 M H₂SO₄. Inorganic $P\left(P_{i}\right)$ was expressed as shoot P_{i} content (µg P_{i} per plant) and P_i concentration (mg P_i kg⁻¹, based on fresh weight). For Pt content, determination was done in leaf disks according to the method described by Aziz and Habte (1987). Briefly, a disk (0.6 cm) was taken from the upper half of the youngest fully opened leaf of each plant and transferred into a 1.5-ml microcentrifuge tube. Leaf disks were dried overnight at 70°C, weighed, and then ashed at 500°C for 3 h. These ashes were dissolved in 10 ml of distilled water and P in solution was determined by the molybdate-blue method (Murphy and Riley 1962). Total P content (P_t) content was expressed as P_t concentration (%) taking the disk dry weight as the base.

Gnotobiotic root elongation assay

The effect of two different *B. amyloliquefaciens* FZB45 inoculum sizes on root elongation of Chinese cabbage was tested under gnotobiotic conditions, following the method by Penrose and Glick (2003). Different from the mentioned method, seed disinfection and bacterial inoculation were performed as described above for the soil-plant experiment except that spores were applied on seeds instead of 2-day seedlings. Ten seed germination pouches (cyg, mega international, St. Paul, MN, USA) per treatment, with five seeds per pouch, were used. Pouches were maintained in covered transparent plastic boxes at 25°C in a growth chamber with 16-h light and 8-h darkness. Root lengths were measured 7 days after inoculation discarding those seeds that did not germinate by the second day. This experiment was conducted twice.

IAA determination

The capacity of B. amyloliquefaciens FZB45 to produce IAA was determined in vitro. The strain was grown for 24 h in TSB, and 20-ul aliquots were transferred into 50-ml flasks containing 10 ml of TSB supplemented to reach 0, 50, 100, 200, and 500 μ g ml⁻¹ of L-tryptophan (FisherBiotech, BP395). Tryptophan was added as a filteredsterilized (0.22 μ m) 2 mg ml⁻¹ stock solution prepared in warm water (Patten and Glick 2002). Flasks were incubated at room temperature and 150 rpm on an orbital shaker and samples were taken 24, 48, and 72 h after inoculation. O.D.630 was recorded as an indicator of growth and an aliquot of each flask was centrifuged $(5,000 \times g)$ to remove bacterial cells. One milliter of supernatant was mixed with 4 ml of Salkowski's reagent (150 ml of 18 M H₂SO₄, 250 ml distilled water, 7.5 ml of 0.5 M FeCl₃·6H₂O) and absorbance at 535 nm was measured after 20 min (Gordon and Weber 1951: Patten and Glick 2002). IAA concentration was estimated by comparison with a standard curve prepared with Indole-3-acetic acid (Sigma I-2886).

Statistical analysis

Response data from the two plant-soil experiments were analyzed jointly as a factorial with bacterial treatment and P regime as fixed effects. The effect for experiment was extracted from the residual error term for FSW and P_t concentration and was treated as a random effect. Normality and equal variances assumptions were first evaluated using the student panel graphs generated by SAS® GLIMMIX Procedure, which was also used for all the analyses. Normal distribution was only warranted for FSW, while all the response variables involving P determination followed a lognormal distribution. As the equal variance assumption was not fulfilled for FSW and Pt concentration, the variance structures for those two response variables were modeled (Rside of the covariance parameters of SAS) using the group option to create homogeneous variance groups. A smaller AIC value from the 'information criteria' output and a better graphical residual distribution were considered as indicators of a good fit for the model. The residual term was the pooled residual within bacterial inoculation×P regime combination variation, as the experimental design was a CRD. For those response variables with a statistically significant interaction, all pairwise simple effect comparisons among bacterial inoculation levels within each P regime were done using the simulate adjustment of GLIMMIX procedure. Significance classes are presented in the graphs. Root length data from the two gnotobiotic assays were analyzed jointly with bacterial inoculum sizes as the only fixed effect; the effect for pouch nested within treatment (bacterial inoculum size) was treated separately as a random effect. For these data,

normality and equal variance assumptions were fulfilled. Dunnett's test was used to assess the difference between each of the two bacterial rates and the untreated control.

Results

Effect of B. amyloliquefaciens FZB45 inoculation in soil

The P-sorption curve (Fig. 1) indicated that 15 mg P kg⁻¹ was the minimum amount of P_i needed to be applied in order to increase the concentration of P_i in soil solution above 0.04 mg l⁻¹, which is considered the minimum concentration required to support suitable growth of cabbage (*Brassica oleracea*) (Hue et al. 2000). Based on this information, the response of Chinese cabbage to P fertilization in the experimental soil used was tested (data not shown). This experiment showed that application of 15, 30, and 60 mg P_i kg⁻¹ soil stimulated plant growth by 57%, 77%, and 112%, respectively, compared with a non-fertilized control. Taking the previous information into account, application of 15 mg P_i kg⁻¹ soil was used as the full fertilized treatment for the following experiments.

For the soil-plant experiment, factorial analysis revealed a highly significant interaction between P regime and bacterial inoculation on both FSW (P<0.001) and shoot P_i content (P=0.012; Table 1). Specifically, bacterial inoculation caused a significant increase of FSW and shoot P_i content only at the higher rate of phytate (6×, which corresponded to 447.43 mg phytate kg⁻¹ soil, equivalent to 90 mg P kg⁻¹ soil); whereas no effect was observed under the other three P regimes tested (Fig. 2). Although both rates of inoculums caused significant increases with respect to the non-inoculated control, the lower rate (10⁶ spores per seedling) was superior than the higher (10⁸ spores per seedling) for shoot fresh weight (P= 0.020) and plant P_i content (P=0.092).

Neither bacterial inoculation nor its interaction with P regime had a significant effect on P_i and P_t concentrations, even though plant growth and shoot P_i content were significantly increased (Table 1). In contrast, P regime had a significant effect on all the response variables evaluated (Table 1). However, when compared in the absence of bacteria, only the addition 15 mg P_i kg⁻¹ soil caused significant increases in FSW (P<0.05), shoot P_i content (P<0.001), and P_i concentration (P<0.01). The other two P regimes, which corresponded to the addition of two different rates of phytate, did not significantly affect any response variable (P>0.05).

Gnotobiotic root elongation assay and IAA production

In order to elucidate any direct effect of FZB45 on root development that could explain the higher increases



Fig. 1 Concentration of P in soil solution after application of different amounts of inorganic P to the mixture 1:1 (w/w) soil/sand used in all the experiments. Each point represents one single determination. *Dashed line* indicates the level of P in soil solution associated with 80–95% of maximum yield of cabbage (*Brassica oleracea*) (Hue et al.

observed with the lower inoculum concentration, a gnotobiotic assay was conducted in sterile seed germination pouches. In effect, only the lower bacterial rate (10^6 spores) per seed) significantly promoted root elongation of Chinese cabbage one week after inoculation (P=0.007), whereas the higher rate $(10^8 \text{ spores per seed})$ showed no difference compared with the non-inoculated control (P=0.486; Table 2). Such soil-independent root growth-promoting effect at low bacterial concentrations suggests the involvement of a hormone-like compound, probably auxin type. To further clarify this, we determined if *B. amyloliquefaciens* FZB45 was able to produce IAA, a widely known bacterially produced auxin. This strain was effectively able to produce this compound in vitro, which was additionally stimulated by the presence of tryptophan in the growth medium (Table 3). Even in absence of any tryptophan amendment, IAA was detected in the medium after 48 h; however, production of this compound was increased with addition of more than 200 μ g tryptophan ml⁻¹, being detected as soon as 24 h after inoculation of the medium. In

2000). In a separate experiment (data not shown), application of 15 mg $P_i kg^{-1}$ soil (diagonal cross point marker) caused a 57% increase in fresh shoot weight of Chinese cabbage (*Brassica rapa* Kaboko Hybrid) 2 weeks after planting. This level of P fertilization was used as the full fertilized treatment

general, at all the three reading times, the addition of tryptophan to the medium stimulated a higher production of IAA, reaching five- to sixfold increases for the highest level tested, 500 μ g tryptophan ml⁻¹.

Discussion

In our system, *B. amyloliquefaciens* FZB45 promoted plant growth and P nutrition in soil. These effects, however, only occurred under conditions conducive for phytase activity, supporting the conclusion that phytase activity is the major mechanism for plant growth promotion by this strain. Additionally, FZB45 exerts a direct mechanism on plant growth, probably by IAA production, which creates a concentration-dependent response to inoculation and interacts with phytase-mediated effects.

Unexpectedly, the experiments conducted by Idriss et al. (2002) using corn seedlings grown in nutrient solution and inoculated with FZB45 spores could not be reproduced in

Table 1 *P* values from the analysis of variance for the effect of *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* FZB45 inoculation, different P regimes, and their interaction on fresh shoot weight, inorganic (P_i), and total (P_t)

phosphorus content of Chinese cabbage grown in soil for 2 weeks under growth chamber conditions

Fresh shoot weight	Shoot P _i content	P _i concentration	P _t concentration	
0.011*	<0.001*	<0.001*	<0.001*	
<0.001*	0.109	0.716	0.752	
<0.001*	0.012*	0.782	0.222	
	Fresh shoot weight 0.011* <0.001* <0.001*	Fresh shoot weight Shoot P _i content 0.011* <0.001*	$\begin{array}{c c} Fresh \ shoot \ weight & Shoot \ P_i \ content & P_i \ concentration \\ \hline 0.011^* & <0.001^* & <0.001^* \\ <0.001^* & 0.109 & 0.716 \\ <0.001^* & 0.012^* & 0.782 \\ \hline \end{array}$	

Bacterial inoculation was done at two different rates (10^6 and 10^8 spores per seedling). P regimes included application of P_i and two rates of phytic acid. Data are from two separate experiments, each having five replicates per treatment combination. *P* values followed by an asterisk are considered to be statistically significant

Fig. 2 Effect of the inoculation with two different rates of Bacillus amyloliquefaciens FZB45 under four different P regimes on fresh shoot weight and plant inorganic P content of Chinese cabbage grown in soil for 2 weeks under growth chamber conditions. Averages are expressed as the least squares means. Those with the same letter within the same P regime are not significantly different (P value>0.05) according to simulate adjustment of GLIM-MIX procedure. Interactions were significant for both response variables and P values for the F tests are shown in Table 1. Inoculations were performed as spore suspensions and are expressed as spores per seedling. Data are from two separate experiments, each having five replicates per treatment combination. Plant Pi content was analyzed as loge-transformed data and had 101 degrees of freedom, while fresh shoot weight had 97



our laboratory (data not shown). The addition of phytate to the nutrient solution resulted in chlorosis and severe calcium deficiency symptoms, which was consistent with the formation of a white precipitate of phytate and Ca

Table 2 Least squares means (LS mean), standard errors (SE), and probability of difference to the untreated control (Dunnett's test) for two concentrations of *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* FZB45 on root length of Chinese cabbage under gnotobiotic conditions 1 week after seed inoculation

Treatment	LS mean	SE	Dunnett's P value
Control	6.85	0.26	
FZB45 at 10E6	7.97	0.26	0.007
FZB45 at 10E8	7.23	0.25	0.486

Inoculations were performed as spore suspensions and are expressed as spores per seed. Data are from two separate experiments, each having five plants per pouch and ten pouches per treatment. F test had a P=0.011 and degrees of freedom for error=56 (NO₃)₂·4H₂O (a component of the nutrient solution). Inositol phosphates are strong chelators, which would explain the precipitate (Grynspan and Chervan 1983). Possibly the corn hybrid used in our tests was more sensitive to calcium deficiencies or to the components in the liquid medium than that used by Idriss et al. (2002). These observations, along with a low response to P fertilization in the soil used in our experiments, caused us to reject the use of corn as the model plant for our experimental system. Chinese cabbage proved to be an excellent choice because of its fast and homogeneous growth as well as its high suitability for P nutrition assays due to the small size of seeds and sensitive response to changes in soil P availability (Huang et al. 2005). Also, unlike tomato (which was also highly responsive to P addition) and corn, Chinese cabbage is independent of mycorrhizal associations (Habte 2000), thereby avoiding potential interference by plant uptake of soil P.

Our results support the conclusion that phytase activity is the major mechanism by which *B. amyloliquefaciens* Table 3 Production in vitro of Tryptophan concentration IAA production ($\mu g m l^{-1}$ per OD₆₃₀ unit) IAA by Bacillus amyloliquefa- $(\mu g m l^{-1})$ ciens FZB45 in the presence 24 h 48 h 72 h of various concentrations of tryptophan 0 0.0 ± 0.0 0.6 ± 0.0 0.8 ± 0.0 50 $0.0 {\pm} 0.0$ 0.9 ± 0.3 1.1 ± 0.2 100 $0.0{\pm}0.0$ 1.2 ± 0.1 1.7 ± 0.1 200 0.4 ± 0.2 1.6 ± 0.1 2.3 ± 0.1 Average \pm standard error from 500 0.5 ± 0.1 3.4 ± 0.4 4.2 ± 0.3 three replications

FZB45 promotes plant growth. No effect of inoculation was observed without phytate addition, neither under P-limited conditions nor full P fertilization (Fig. 2). Thus, under our experimental conditions, FZB45 only increased the growth of Chinese cabbage when phytate was available in soil. This, along with the fact that P was the only limiting nutrient in soil, strongly suggests that the beneficial effect of inoculation was due to P solubilization through the strain's phytase activity. This also indicates that any other beneficial trait of FZB45 was secondary and not biologically significant in the absence of phytate, whether P_i content in soil was high or low. It is important to mention that phytase activity could also increase the availability of phytate-chelated nutrients such as Ca⁺², Mg⁺², or Zn⁺², an effect that cannot be ruled out. However, this is an unlikely explanation for the observed growth response as soil fertilization was previously standardized to have sufficient elements (except P), and no deficiency symptoms were observed for any of those elements, even when phytate was added.

Phytase has been shown to solubilize sufficient P to increase plant growth (Richardson 2001). Our results suggest that FZB45's phytase activity solubilized enough P to significantly increase plant growth and shoot P_i content. This effect was significant on shoot fresh weight, even though fresh measurements commonly require more replications than dry weight to detect significant differences as observed in root determinations (Bashan and de Bashan 2005). Here, it is important to take into account that it would be expected more variation in fresh root samples than in shoots and that residual analysis of our experiments discarded any bias by showing a random distribution of the uncontrolled variation. The absence of treatment effects on P concentrations indicates that both plant growth and shoot P_i content increased at similar rates causing a dilution effect, which could be expected for early plant growth under very limited soil P content.

Studies relating phytase activity and plant growth promotion have included different approaches such as addition of purified microbial phytases (Findenegg and Nelemans 1993), inoculation with phytase-producing microorganisms (Tarafdar and Marschner 1995; Richardson et al. 2001; Idriss et al. 2002; Unno et al. 2005), and the use of transgenic plants expressing microbial phytases (Yip et al. 2003; George et al. 2005c). Among these reports, plant growth increases by inoculation with phytase-producing bacteria are the fewest so far. To our knowledge, besides the previously mentioned study with FZB45 on corn in nutrient solution (Idriss et al. 2002), only three other reports have linked plant growth promotion with bacterial production of phytase. Two of these reports tested bacterial strains with natural phytase production in soilless systems (Richardson and Hadobas 1997; Richardson et al. 2001; Unno et al. 2005), while the third report was conducted in soil and used a genetically modified strain expressing a phytase of fungal origin (Li et al. 2007).

Studies of P solubilization in general, including phytase activity, should take into account fundamental principles of soil fertility. For example if plant growth is to be promoted through increases in P uptake, native soil P content should be low enough for the plant to respond to its increase. Additionally, the content of this element must be the only limiting factor for plant growth. Some of the failures in promotion of plant P uptake by P-solubilizing PGPR are found to be associated with soil P contents sufficiently high to support satisfactory plant growth (de Freitas et al. 1997) or with the presence of an additional limiting factor which hinders the response to soil P increases (Fernández et al. 2007). Our study met these criteria, thereby confirming the role of in-plant growth promotion by FZB45.

Another essential consideration in these kinds of studies is that soil will affect all the components of the system, producing a very different behavior from that seen in vitro. First of all, soil will influence the global physiology of the bacterium (Vilain et al. 2006), which, in FZB45, conditions the phytase gene expression (Makarewicz et al. 2008). In addition, individual factors that will vary from soil to soil such as C (Jorquera et al. 2008) and P (Makarewicz et al. 2006) availability also determine the production of bacterial phytases. Likewise, soil properties will interact with phytate (substrate) (Celi and Barberis 2007), phytase (enzyme) (George et al. 2007a), and phosphate (product) (Fox 1981). In our experiment, response was obtained only with addition of 447 mg phytate kg⁻¹ soil, which is in the range reported for naturally occurring phytate concentrations in soils (0.3–987 mg kg⁻¹ soil) (Turner et al. 2002). However, the absence of response under the lower phytate content suggests that adsorption and precipitation limited phytate availability in soil. Phytate, like phosphate, is adsorbed to soil colloids (Celi et al. 1999), and this was previously shown to limit the response of plants to inoculation with phytase-producing rhizobacteria (Richardson et al. 2001). On the other hand, it is known that the efficiency of phytases of fungal origin is affected by adsorption to soil colloids (George et al. 2005b). This depends on the phytase's physicochemical properties (George et al. 2007b), and thus, specific information for *Bacillus* phytases is required. These phytases possess a low sequence homology with other phytases (Fu et al. 2008) and a unique requirement of Ca²⁺ for stabilization and activity (Oh et al. 2001), which could confer on them a particular behavior.

In addition to producing phytase, FZB45 also displayed a direct, soil-independent mechanism for growth promotion of Chinese cabbage. This was suggested by the concentration-dependent effect of inoculation in the plantsoil experiment (Fig. 2) and confirmed by the root pouch assay (Table 2). Production of IAA is a highly likely candidate to explain these observations because it affects root elongation and is involved in the concentrationdependent plant response to inoculation with rhizobacteria (Dobbelaere et al. 1999). Also, in this study FZB45 produced IAA in vitro (Table 3), and previously, its culture filtrates caused an IAA-like effect on corn coleoptiles (Krebs et al. 1998). However, to test the biological significance of this IAA production, creation of defective mutants will be required. Results such as no response to inoculation when phytate was not added and the better response to the lower inoculum rate when phytate was present suggest an interaction between the direct and the phytase-mediated effect. A hypothesis explaining this interaction is that FZB45's direct effect promotes root elongation, which allows a greater exploration of soil and increased nutrient uptake when soil P is limiting and its concentration is increased via phytase activity. Promotion of root growth by PGPR is extensively reported (Glick et al. 1999, 2007). However, root response to soil P content and PGPR inoculation simultaneously has not yet been explored.

An ongoing challenge for the widespread use of PGPRbased biofertilizers in agriculture is to increase their consistency of performance. Achieving this goal requires not only to understand the plant bacterial-interaction, but also to determine the environmental factors affecting that interaction. The results of this study demonstrate that soil modulates plant response to inoculation with PGPR in a specific manner, consistent to the mechanisms of action involved. In addition, this study shows that soil-mediated and soil-independent bacterial effects can interact and affect plant growth simultaneously. Field evaluations during longer periods of plant growth are still required to determine the results under agronomic conditions. Since field trials make control of some variables difficult, experiments can be designed according to the results obtained here, taking into account the actual levels of P and phytate in soil and evaluating the inoculum survival. Clear determination of the mechanisms of action and their modulating factors helps predict conditions where plant growth promotion will result. Hence, such knowledge will be an important step to increasing the consistency of growth promotion by PGPR.

Acknowledgements We thank Dr. Rainer Borriss, Institut für Biologie, Humboldt Universität, Berlin for providing the bacterial strain and Dr. Edzard van Santen, Department of Agronomy and Soils, Auburn University for his valuable advising on statistical analysis. We also acknowledge William D. Fowler for review of the manuscript.

References

- Asghar H, Zahir Z, Arshad M, Khaliq A (2002) Relationship between in vitro production of auxins by rhizobacteria and their growthpromoting activities in *Brassica juncea* L. Biol Fertility Soils 35:231–237
- Aziz T, Habte M (1987) Determining vesicular—arbuscular mycorrhizal effectiveness by monitoring P status of leaf disks. Can J Microbiol 33:1097–1101
- Bashan Y, de Bashan LE (2005) Fresh-weight measurements of roots provide inaccurate estimates of the effects of plant growthpromoting bacteria on root growth: a critical examination. Soil Biol Biochem 37:1795–1804
- Celi L, Barberis E (2007) Abiotic reactions of inositol phosphates in soil. In: Turner BL, Richardson AE, Mullaney EJ (eds) Inositol phosphates: linking agriculture and the environment. CAB International, Oxfordshire, pp 207–220
- Celi L, Lamacchia S, Marsan FA, Barberis E (1999) Interaction of inositol hexaphosphate on clays: adsorption and charging phenomena. Soil Sci 164:574–585
- Compant S, Duffy B, Nowak J, Clément C, Barka EA (2005) Use of plant growth-promoting bacteria for biocontrol of plant diseases: principles, mechanisms of action, and future prospects. Appl Environ Microbiol 71:4951–4959
- de Freitas JR, Banerjee MR, Germida JJ (1997) Phosphatesolubilizing rhizobacteria enhance the growth and yield but not phosphorus uptake of canola (*Brassica napus* L.). Biol Fertil Soils 24:358–364
- Dobbelaere S, Croonenborghs A, Thys A, Vande Broek A, Vanderleyden J (1999) Phytostimulatory effect of *Azospirillum brasilense* wild type and mutant strains altered in IAA production on wheat. Plant Soil 212:155–164
- Fernández L, Zalba P, Gómez M, Sagardoy M (2007) Phosphatesolubilization activity of bacterial strains in soil and their effect on soybean growth under greenhouse conditions. Biol Fertil Soils 43:805–809
- Findenegg GR, Nelemans JA (1993) The effect of phytase on the availability of P from *myo*-inositol hexaphosphate (phytate) for maize roots. Plant Soil 154:189–196
- Fox RL (1981) External phosphorus requirements of crops. In: Dowdy RH (ed) Chemistry in the soil environment. American Society of

Agronomy and Soil Science Society of America, Madison, pp 223-239

- Fox RL, Kamprath EJ (1970) Phosphate sorption isotherms for evaluating the phosphate requirements of soils. Soil Sci Soc Am J 34:902–907
- Fu S, Sun J, Qian L, Li Z (2008) Bacillus phytases: present scenario and future perspectives. Appl Biochem Biotechnol 151:1–8
- García de Salamone IE, Hynes RK, Nelson LM (2001) Cytokinin production by plant growth promoting rhizobacteria and selected mutants. Can J Microbiol 47:404–411
- George TS, Richardson A, Smith J, Hadobas P, Simpson R (2005a) Limitations to the potential of transgenic *Trifolium subterraneum* L. plants that exude phytase when grown in soils with a range of organic P content. Plant Soil 278:263–274
- George TS, Richardson AE, Simpson RJ (2005b) Behaviour of plantderived extracellular phytase upon addition to soil. Soil Biol Biochem 37:977–988
- George TS, Simpson RJ, Hadobas PA, Richardson AE (2005c) Expression of a fungal phytase gene in *Nicotiana tabacum* improves phosphorus nutrition of plants grown in amended soils. Plant Biotechnol J 3:129–140
- George TS, Turner BL, Gregory PJ, Cade-Menun BJ, Richardson AE (2006) Depletion of organic phosphorus from Oxisols in relation to phosphatase activities in the rhizosphere. Eur J Soil Sci 57:47– 57
- George TS, Quiquampoix H, Simpson RJ, Richardson AE (2007a) Interactions between phytases and soil constituents: implications for the hydrolisis of inositol phosphates. In: Turner BL, Richardson AE, Mullaney EJ (eds) Inositol phosphates: linking agriculture and the environment. CAB International, Oxfordshire, pp 221–241
- George TS, Simpson RJ, Gregory PJ, Richardson AE (2007b) Differential interaction of Aspergillus niger and Peniophora lycii phytases with soil particles affects the hydrolysis of inositol phosphates. Soil Biol Biochem 39:793–803
- Glick BR, Patten CL, Holguin G, Penrose DM (1999) Biochemical and genetic mechanisms used by plant growth promoting bacteria. Imperial College Press, London
- Glick BR, Todorovic B, Czarny J, Cheng Z, Duan J, McConkey B (2007) Promotion of plant growth by bacterial ACC deaminase. Crit Rev Plant Sci 26:227–242
- Goldstein A, Krishnaraj P (2007) Phosphate solubilizing microorganisms vs. phosphate mobilizing microorganisms: what separates a phenotype from a trait? In: First International Meeting on Microbial Phosphate Solubilization, pp. 203–213
- Gordon SA, Weber RP (1951) Colorimetric estimation of indoleacetic acid. Plant Physiol 26:192–195
- Grynspan F, Cheryan M (1983) Calcium phytate: effect of pH and molar ratio on in vitro solubility. J Am Oil Chem Soc 60:1761– 1764
- Gyaneshwar P, Naresh Kumar G, Parekh LJ, Poole PS (2002) Role of soil microorganisms in improving P nutrition of plants. Plant Soil 245:83–93
- Habte M (2000) Mycorrhizal fungi and plant nutrition. In: Silva JA, Uchida R (eds) Plant nutrient management in Hawaii's soils, approaches for tropical and subtropical agriculture. College of Tropical Agriculture and Human Resources, University of Hawaii at Manoa, Manoa, Hawaii. pp. 127–131
- Huang X-L, Chen Y, Shenker M (2005) Rapid whole-plant bioassay for phosphorus phytoavailability in soils. Plant Soil 271:365–376
- Hue NV, Ikawa H, Huang X (2000) Predicting soil phosphorus requirements. In: Silva JA, Uchida R (eds) Plant nutrient management in Hawaii's soils, approaches for tropical and subtropical agriculture. College of Tropical Agriculture and Human Resources, University of Hawaii at Manoa, Manoa. pp. 95–99

- Idris EE, Iglesias DJ, Talon M, Borriss R (2007) Tryptophandependent production of indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) affects level of plant growth promotion by *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* FZB42. Mol Plant-Microb Interact 20:619–626
- Idriss EE, Makarewicz O, Farouk A, Rosner K, Greiner R, Bochow H, Richter T, Borriss R (2002) Extracellular phytase activity of *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* FZB45 contributes to its plantgrowth-promoting effect. Microbiology 148:2097–2109
- Joo G-J, Kim Y-M, Kim J-T, Rhee I-K, Kim J-H, Lee I-J (2005) Gibberellins-producing rhizobacteria increase endogenous gibberellins content and promote growth of red peppers. J Microbiol 43:510–515
- Jorquera M, Hernández M, Rengel Z, Marschner P, de la Luz MM (2008) Isolation of culturable phosphobacteria with both phytatemineralization and phosphate-solubilization activity from the rhizosphere of plants grown in a volcanic soil. Biol Fertil Soils 44:1025–1034
- Kloepper JW, Ryu C-M, Zhang S (2004) Induced systemic resistance and promotion of plant growth by *Bacillus* spp. Phytopathology 94:1259–1266
- Krebs B, Höding B, Kübart S, Workie MA, Junge H, Schmiedeknecht G, Grosch R, Bochow H, Hevesi M (1998) Use of *Bacillus subtilis* as biocontrol agent. I. Activities and characterization of Bacillus subtilis strains. J Plant Dis Protect 105:181–197
- Li X, Wu Z, Li W, Yan R, Li L, Li J, Li Y, Li M (2007) Growth promoting effect of a transgenic *Bacillus mucilaginosus* on tobacco planting. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 74:1120–1125
- Makarewicz O, Dubrac S, Msadek T, Borriss R (2006) Dual role of the PhoP P response regulator: Bacillus amyloliquefaciens FZB45 phytase gene transcription is directed by positive and negative interactions with the phyC promoter. J Bacteriol 188:6953–6965
- Makarewicz O, Neubauer S, Preusse C, Borriss R (2008) Transition state regulator AbrB inhibits transcription of *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* FZB45 phytase through binding at two distinct sites located within the extended *phyC* promoter region. J Bacteriol 190:6467–6474
- Mathre DE, Cook RJ, Callan NW (1999) From discovery to use: traversing the world of commercializing biocontrol agents for plant disease control. Plant Dis 83:972–983
- Mullaney EJ, Ullah AHJ (2007) Phytases: attributes, catalytic mechanisms and applications. In: Turner BL, Richardson AE, Mullaney EJ (eds) Inositol phosphates: linking agriculture and the environment. CAB International, Wallingford, UK, pp 97–110
- Murphy J, Riley JP (1962) A modified single solution method for the determination of phosphate in natural waters. Anal Chim Acta 27:31–36
- Nair PS, Logan TJ, Sharpley AN, Sommers LE, Tabatabai MA, Yuan TL (1984) Interlaboratory comparison of a standardized phosphorus adsorption procedure. J Environ Qual 13:591–595
- Oh B-C, Chang BS, Park K-H, Ha N-C, Kim H-K, Oh B-H, Oh T-K (2001) Calcium-dependent catalytic activity of a novel phytase from *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* DS11. Biochemistry 40:9669– 9676
- Ongena M, Jacques P (2008) *Bacillus* lipopeptides: versatile weapons for plant disease biocontrol. Trends Microbiol 16:115–125
- Patten CL, Glick BR (2002) Role of *Pseudomonas putida* indoleacetic acid in development of the host plant root system. Appl Environ Microbiol 68:3795–3801
- Penrose DM, Glick BR (2003) Methods for isolating and characterizing ACC deaminase-containing plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria. Physiol Plant 118:10–15
- Richardson AE (2001) Prospects for using soil microorganisms to improve the acquisition of phosphorus by plants. Aust J Plant Physiol 28:897–906

- Richardson A (2007) Making microorganisms mobilize soil phosphorus. In: First International Meeting on Microbial Phosphate Solubilization. pp. 85–90
- Richardson AE, Hadobas PA (1997) Soil isolates of *Pseudomonas* spp. that utilize inositol phosphates. Can J Microbiol 43:509–516
- Richardson AE, Hadobas PA, Hayes JE, O'Hara CP, Simpson RJ (2001) Utilization of phosphorus by pasture plants supplied with *myo*-inositol hexaphosphate is enhanced by the presence of soil micro-organisms. Plant Soil 229:47–56
- Richardson AE, George TS, Jakobsen I, Simpson RJ (2007) Plant utilization of inositol phosphates. In: Turner BL, Richardson AE, Mullaney EJ (eds) Inositol phosphates: linking agriculture and the environment. CAB International, Wallingford, UK, pp 242–260
- Richardson A, Barea J-M, McNeill A, Prigent-Combaret C (2009) Acquisition of phosphorus and nitrogen in the rhizosphere and plant growth promotion by microorganisms. Plant Soil 321:305–339
- Rodriguez H, Fraga R (1999) Phosphate solubilizing bacteria and their role in plant growth promotion. Biotechnol Adv 17:319–339

- Tarafdar JC, Marschner H (1995) Dual inoculation with Aspergillus fumigatus and Glomus mosseae enhances biomass production and nutrient uptake in wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) supplied with organic phosphorus as Na-phytate. Plant Soil 173:97–102
- Turner BL, Papházy MJ, Haygarth PM, McKelvie ID (2002) Inositol phosphates in the environment. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci 357:449–469
- Unno Y, Okubo K, Wasaki J, Shinano T, Osaki M (2005) Plant growth promotion abilities and microscale bacterial dynamics in the rhizosphere of Lupin analysed by phytate utilization ability. Environ Microbiol 7:396–404
- Vilain S, Luo Y, Hildreth MB, Brozel VS (2006) Analysis of the life cycle of the soil saprophyte *Bacillus cereus* in liquid soil extract and in soil. Appl Environ Microbiol 72:4970–4977
- Yip W, Wang L, Cheng C, Wu W, Lung S, Lim B-L (2003) The introduction of a phytase gene from *Bacillus subtilis* improved the growth performance of transgenic tobacco. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 310:1148–1154