Characterization of cellular, biochemical and genomic features of the diazotrophic plant growth-promoting bacterium *Azospirillum* sp. UENF 412522, a novel member of the *Azospirillum* genus

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24 ABSTRACT

25 Given their remarkable beneficial effects on plant growth, several Azospirillum isolates currently integrate the formulations of various commercial inoculants. Our research group isolated a new 26 27 strain, Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522, from passion fruit rhizoplane. This isolate uses carbon 28 sources that are partially distinct from closely-related Azospirillum isolates. Scanning electron 29 microscopy analysis and population counts demonstrate the ability of Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 to colonize the surface of passion fruit roots. In vitro assays demonstrate the ability of 30 31 Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 to fix atmospheric nitrogen, to solubilize phosphate and to 32 produce indole-acetic acid. Passion fruit plantlets inoculated with Azospirillum sp. UENF-41255 33 showed increased shoot and root fresh matter, as well as root dry matter, further highlighting 34 its biotechnological potential for agriculture. We sequenced the genome of Azospirillum sp. 35 UENF-412522 to investigate the genetic basis of its plant-growth promotion properties. We 36 identified the key nif genes for nitrogen fixation, the complete PQQ operon for phosphate 37 solubilization, the acdS gene that alleviates ethylene effects on plant growth, and the napCAB 38 operon, which produces nitrite under anoxic conditions. We also found several genes conferring 39 resistance to common soil antibiotics, which are critical for Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 40 survival in the rhizosphere. Finally, we also assessed the Azospirillum pangenome and highlighted key genes involved in plant growth promotion. A phylogenetic reconstruction of the 41 42 genus was also conducted. Our results support Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 as a good 43 candidate for bioinoculant formulations focused on plant growth promotion in sustainable 44 systems.

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46 INTRODUCTION

47 Modern agriculture production strongly relies on synthetic fertilizers and pesticides to achieve 48 high productivity levels, which are often a matter of environmental and health concerns [1]. The 49 development of bioinoculants has been considered an alternative to reduce the use of such 50 synthetic compounds [2]. These inoculants typically have one or more strains of plant growth-51 promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR), which compose a heterogeneous group of bacteria that exert 52 mutualistic interactions with plants [3], often playing key roles in the root microbiome [4]. The 53 rhizosphere is the fraction of soil directly influenced by roots exudates [5], which modulate 54 bacterial diversity across the endorhizosphere, rhizoplane and ectorhizhosphere (reviewed by 55 Ahkami et al. [6]). Several Azospirillum isolates have been reported as PGPR, typically as soil-56 borne bacteria that are competent rhizosphere colonizers [7, 8].

57 The genus Azospirillum belongs to the Rhodospirillaceae family, which is mainly constituted of aquatic genera. Nevertheless, Azospirilla are mostly soil bacteria that coevolved 58 59 with vascular plants [9]. Following its original description [10], multiple plant-associated 60 Azospirillum species have been shown to perform direct nitrogen fixation [11, 12], phosphate 61 solubilization [13], drought and salt stress alleviation [14, 15], root development promotion [16], 62 among other processes [17]. These desirable properties have led several Azospirillum strains to 63 be used as part of commercial soil inoculants [18]. Genes associated with these features have 64 been identified in several publicly available Azospirillum genomes, such as nif [19], ACC-65 deaminase (acds) [20, 21], pqq [22], and indole acetic acid biosynthesis genes (e.g., iaaH, iaaM 66 and ipdC) [23, 24].

67 Recently, our research group has isolated several plant growth-promoting bacterial 68 strains from vermicompost [25, 26] and from the rhizosphere of tropical fruit trees. Among these 69 strains, Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 was isolated from passion fruit rhizoplane. Here we report 70 in vitro and ex vitro plant growth promotion capabilities, biochemical tests, microscopy analysis 71 of root colonization, whole-genome sequencing, and comparative genomic analyses to 72 investigate the plant growth promotion properties of this isolate, as well as to uncover genes 73 involved in other ecophysiological processes. Together, our results support the potential of 74 Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 to be used in bioinoculant formulations.

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76 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

77 Identification of the isolate and assessment of plant growth promotion properties

78 The strain UENF-412522 was isolated from passion fruit rhizoplane and formed a pellicle typical 79 of diazotrophic bacteria on N-free semisolid NFb medium. It is a Gram negative, slightly curved 80 rod-shaped bacterium with apparently no polymorphic 1.2 x 0.7 μ m cells. In order to 81 characterize the isolated strain, a fragment of the 16S rDNA gene was amplified by polymerase 82 chain reaction (PCR); this sequence was deposited in Genbank under the accession KU836626.1. 83 The 16S rDNA maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenetic reconstruction (Figure S1) has not allowed us to classify the strain at the species level. Nevertheless, it is clear that it belongs to the 84 85 Azospirillum genus, leading us to name it Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522. 86 Given the evidence supporting Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 as a novel Azospirillum

Given the evidence supporting *Azospirillum* sp. UENF-412522 as a novel *Azospirillum* species, we used an API 50 CH system and found that it grows on 18 out of 49 tested carbon
 sources: glycerol, D-arabinose, L-arabinose, D-ribose, D-xylose, methyl-beta-D-xylopyranoside,
 D-galactose, D-glucose, D-fructose, D-mannose, L-sorbose, amygdalin, aesculin ferric citrate, D-

90 melibiose, glycogen, xylitol, D-xylose, D-fucose. On the other hand, this strain was unable to 91 grow on: erythritol, L-xylose, D-adonitol, L-rhamnose, dulcitol, inositol, D-mannitol, D-sorbitol, 92 Methyl-alpha-D-mannopyranoside, Methyl-alpha-D-glucopyranoside, N-acetylglucosamine, 93 arbutin, salicin, D-cellobiose, D-maltose, D-lactose (bovine origin), D-saccharose (sucrose), D-94 trehalose, inulin, D-melezitose, D-raffinose, amidon (starch), gentiobiose, D-turanose, D-95 tagatose, L-fucose, D-arabitol, L-arabitol, potassium gluconate, potassium 2-ketogluconate, 96 potassium 5-ketogluconate. Comparison of carbon utilization patterns of Azospirillum sp. UENF-97 412522 and those of the type strains of Azospirillum lipoferum ATCC 29707 [10], Azospirillum 98 doebereinerae DSM 13131 [27] and Azospirillum brasilense ATCC 29145 showed that four Csources (i.e. D-ribose, D-mannitol, D-sorbitol and N-acetylglucosamine) could be used to 99 100 discriminate these isolates (Table S1).

101 Next, we performed *in vitro* tests that would account for the ability of *Azospirillum* sp. 102 UENF-412522 to promote plant growth. The N₂-fixation was supported by positive growth on N-103 free semisolid medium and subsequently confirmed by the amplification of *nifH* (Figure 1A). We 104 also confirmed the nitrogenase activity by using the acetylene reduction assay, which showed a 105 rate of 28.3 \pm 5.1 nmol.h⁻¹ ethylene (Figure 1B).

106 Indole-acetic acid (IAA) production was investigated in DYGS medium, with and without 107 L- tryptophan, resulting in IAA concentrations of $51.34 \pm 1.1 \mu \text{g.mL}^{-1}$ and $37.35 \pm 3.5 \mu \text{g.mL}^{-1}$, 108 respectively (Figure 1C), supporting the capacity of *Azospirillum* sp. UENF-412522 to synthesize 109 this important plant hormone.

110 We also tested whether *Azospirillum* sp. UENF-412522 is able to solubilize Araxá P-rock 111 and calcium phosphate in solid medium. We found that this strain formed a halo with a 112 solubilization index (SI) of 3.33 ± 0.05 and 1.87 ± 0.11 for Araxá P-rock and calcium phosphate, 113 respectively (Figure 1D). We confirmed the P solubilization activity using a liquid medium assay, 114 which showed 147.5 \pm 3.9 mg.L⁻¹ and 52.2 \pm 8.6 mg.L⁻¹ solubilized P from Araxá P-rock and 115 calcium phosphate (Figure 1E), respectively. Conversely, zinc solubilization was not detected, 116 likely because of zinc sensitivity in this strain.

117 The plant growth-promoting effects of a given bacterial strain often result from several 118 concerted processes. Therefore, we inoculated passion fruit plantlets with *Azospirillum* sp. 119 UENF-412522 and found a clear growth increment in inoculated versus non-inoculated plantlets. 120 After 10 days, inoculated plantlets had a significant increase in height (54.5%), root fresh matter 121 (88.6%), root dry matter (61.4%), shoot fresh matter (13.8%) and root length (40%). No 122 significant difference was found for shoot dry matter (Figure S2).

123 Under gnotobiotic conditions, inoculated plantlets showed a larger diazotrophic 124 bacteria population associated with rhizosphere, rhizoplane, and roots (Figure S3). For 125 rhizosphere and rhizoplane compartments, the population density was significantly greater than 126 control plantlets (approximately 1.5 log₁₀ bacteria cell per g of soil or root). The bacterial 127 population inside the plantlets showed no difference between inoculated and non-inoculated 128 plantlets, further supporting that Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 preferentially colonizes the 129 rhizosphere/rhizoplane. In parallel, samples from seedlings inoculated with Azospirillum sp. 130 UENF-412522 at 1 and 7 days after germination (d.a.g.) were viewed under SEM (Figure 2), 131 confirming the root surface as the preferential colonization site. After radicle emergence, single 132 cells were noted at the bottom region of the radicle (Figure 2A), and bacteria aggregates can be 133 seen in the vicinity of the crack zone between the radicle and the tegument (Figure 2C-D). 134 Interestingly, sparse stomata-like structures were seen at the radicle, which seems to be an

infection point for the bacteria (Figure 2B). Bacteria cells interact with the root surface mainly
by apolar attachment and by fibrillar material anchoring the plant cell-wall, establishing an
aggregate network (Figure 2E). At seven d.a.g., bacteria successfully colonized the root hair zone
(Figure 2F) and the elongation/differentiation zone (Figure 2G) of the main developed root.

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140 Genome assembly and strain identification

The promising *in vitro* and *ex vitro* results prompted us to sequence the *Azospirillum sp.* UENF-412522 genome. We used an Illumina HiSeq 2500 instrument (paired-end mode, 2×100 bp reads). Sequencing reads were quality filtered and assembled with SPAdes (see methods for details). The assembly consists of 101 contigs (length \geq 500 bp), encompassing 7,360,543 bp, with a 67.92% GC content, N50 and L50 of 175,376 bp and 13 respectively. The genome harbors 6,508, 71 and 8 protein-coding, tRNA and rRNA genes, respectively.

147 Genome relatedness within the Azospirillum genus was computed using the average 148 nucleotide identity (ANI) and digital DNA-DNA hybridization (dDDH) of all Azospirillum spp. 149 genomes deposited in RefSeq (n = 48). ANI values were used to build a genome-to-genome 150 distance matrix and a neighbor-joining dendrogram (Figure 3A). This analysis clearly shows 151 distinct clusters comprising A. brasilense and A. tiophilum isolates. In contrast, none of the 152 remaining strains formed a consistent clade. Further, A. lipoferum RC and 4B isolates did not 153 cluster together, indicating that they do not belong to the same species. We found greater 154 genetic diversity in the isolates that do not belong to these clusters (Figure 3B). Among those is 155 Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522, which does not cluster with any other known strain, suggesting 156 that it represents a novel Azospirillum species.

157 Even though the Azospirillum genus has more than 15 described species, genomic data 158 are biased towards A. brasilense, which accounts for 37% (19 isolates) of the available genomes 159 (Figure 3). We also noticed that five isolates have similar names and share more than 99.9% and 160 70% in ANI and dDDH analyses, respectively. We removed these redundant genomes from the 161 downstream analyses and used GCF 001315015, GCF 003119195, GCF 003119115, and GCF 004923295 as representatives of A. brasilense Sp7, A. brasilense Sp245, Azospirillum sp. 162 163 TSH58 and Azospirillum sp. TSH100 respectively. Hence, the dataset used in the next sections 164 comprises 43 publicly available genomes and that of Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 genome.

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166 Pangenome analyses of the Azospirillum genus

167 The pangenome is the complete gene repertoire of a given clade (e.g., a species) [28]. We 168 employed a minimum identity threshold of 50% for gene family identification in Azospirillum. 169 The pangenome comprises 42,515 genes, including a core genome (i.e. genes present in all 170 isolates) of only 771 genes, likely because of the high diversity, prevalence of genomic 171 rearrangements, and low synteny of this genus [9]. We clustered the isolates based on their 172 gene presence/absence patterns and confirmed the high genomic heterogeneity across the 173 genus (Figure 4A). Our results also support an open pangenome, as it grows with the addition of 174 new genomes (Figure 4B). Similar results were previously shown in Alphaproteobacteria [29], 175 who found 220 core genes across 27 in *Novosphingobium* spp. genomes. The *Azospirillum* core 176 genome reported here is substantially greater than that, which could be at least partially 177 explained by the fact that the vast majority of the isolates studied here were obtained from soil and plant tissues. Azospirillum sp. RU37 (GCF_900188305) and Azospirillum sp. RU38E 178 179 (GCF 900188385) share the majority of accessory clusters. The same pattern is observed for Azospirillum sp. TSH20 (GCF_003115935) and Azospirillum sp. TSH7 (GCF_003115945). In both
 cases, the genomes with unusually high accessory genome similarity also exhibit 100% of ANI
 and dDDH, indicating that they belong to the same strain.

183 Next, we analyzed the unique gene complement of Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522. Out 184 of the 18,065 unique genes inferred by Roary, 405 belonged to this strain. Among these genes, 185 we identified creatinine amidohydrolase crnA (EI613 12750), an enzyme involved in the 186 degradation of creatinine [30], which has been reported as replication-impairing molecule in 187 bacteria [31]. The gene 3-alpha-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase hsdA (El613 09215), involved in 188 steroid catabolism, is also exclusive to this strain and might assist Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 189 to use steroids as a carbon source [32]. We also found the two component system prsDE 190 (EI613 31600-31605) as exclusive to this strain. PrsDE produces a low molecular weight 191 succinoglycan, which might assist in plant colonization by Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 [33].

192

193 Plant growth promotion genes

194 Plant growth modulation by bacteria is a complex process [34]. Several bacterial genes are often 195 associated with direct beneficial effects, such as those responsible for biological nitrogen fixation (BFN), root growth enhancement, phosphate solubilization, and deviation of the 196 197 ethylene biosynthesis pathway towards ammonia and α -ketobutyrate. We assessed the 198 presence of genes that are likely involved in direct plant growth promotion across Azospirillum 199 strains, with a particular focus in Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522. This procedure was guided by a 200 maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree built with the protein sequences encoded by the core-201 genome, which was combined with a gene presence/absence matrix (Figure 5). Below we 202 discuss these genes in light of the mechanisms by which they promote plant growth.

203 BNF is a major plant growth promotion mechanism present in several Azospirillum 204 strains [8, 35]. This process relies on the nitrogenase enzyme complex, which reduces 205 atmospheric nitrogen (N_2) to ammonium (NH_4) . The *nifHDK* genes encode, respectively, a 206 nitrogenase iron (Fe) protein, a nitrogenase molybdenum-iron (MoFe) protein alpha chain, and 207 a nitrogenase MoFe protein beta chain. The FeMo co-factor (FeMoCo) present in the MoFe 208 protein binds N_2 , while the Fe protein uses the energy from ATP hydrolysis to drive the reduction 209 of N₂ to NH₄ by FeMoCo [36]. We used the presence of the *nifHDK* genes to predict the nitrogen 210 fixation capacity across Azospirillum genomes. All the analyzed genomes have these genes, 211 except for Azospirillum sp. RU37A, Azospirillum sp. RU38E and Azospirillum sp. L-25-5w-1 (Figure 212 5). Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 possesses the nifHDK (EI613 05225-05215) operon and a 213 nifDK (EI613 05195-05200) operon, resembling the distribution found in most of the other 214 Azospirillum genomes containing nifHDK. Some exceptions to this structure are found in A. 215 brasilense Sp245, which possesses four *nifDK*, including vanadium nitrogenase variants [37]; 216 Azospirillum sp. B506 presents a single nifK, and; Azospirillum sp. RU37A and Azospirillum sp. 217 RU38E have two nifD. The presence of more than one nifHDK increase nitrogen fixation to the 218 bacteria and associated plants. However, given that BNF is energetically expensive, the selective 219 advantage of such increased activity remains unclear.

220 Most of the soil phosphate is insoluble and hence unavailable to direct plant 221 absorption [38]. Several PGPRs promote plant growth by releasing organic acids that chelate 222 divalent cations (e.g., Ca²⁺) in poorly soluble mineral forms (e.g., hydroxyapatite), increasing P 223 availability [39]. Gluconic acid secretion is the best-characterized mechanism of phosphate 224 solubilization, that is performed by pyrroloquinoline quinone (PQQ)-dependent glucose 225 dehydrogenase (GDH) [40]. We used the presence of the genes encoding the PQQ co-factor as 226 a proxy to understand P solubilization through GDH-PQQ in Azospirillum spp. The pgg genes 227 found in Azospirillum sp. were pgqABCDE (El613 19670-19690). While Azospirillum UENF-228 412522 and A. halopraeferens DSM3675 harbor the complete operon, all other strains lack pggA 229 (Figure 5). The pgg operon is absent in three strains (Azospirillum sp. RU37A, Azospirillum sp. 230 RU38E, Azospirillum sp. L-25-5w-1). A. brasilense FP2 lacks pggA and pggD. Interestingly, 231 phytase genes were only found in the pgg-lacking strains Azospirillum sp. RU37A and 232 Azospirillum sp. RU38E, indicating that the capacity to mobilize P from organic compounds 233 displaced PQQ-dependent P solubilization in these bacteria.

234 Although pqqA has been regarded as non-essential for PQQ biosynthesis [41], other 235 studies support its role as the backbone for PQQ biogenesis [42]. PqqA binds to PqqD, prior to 236 PqqAD interaction with PqqE [43]. The crucial role of pqqA and pqqB was also confirmed by 237 knockout mutants of Rahnella aquatilis HX2, which showed decreased biocontrol and mineral P 238 solubilization [44]. A direct correlation between pggB and pggF expression and PQQ production 239 has also been shown [45]. Further, the same authors also reported that *Pseudomonas putida* 240 KT2440 pqqF is controlled by an independent promoter and terminator, allowing this gene to 241 modulate PQQ levels [45]. The presence of incomplete pgg operons in many Azospirillum strains 242 allows one to speculate that these isolates have other genes to compensate for the absence of 243 pgqA, a hypothesis that warrants experimental validation. Further, upstream of pgqABCDE, we 244 found an alcohol dehydrogenase ADH IIB *qbdA* (EI613 19655) and its associated regulator *amqR* 245 (EI613 19660), which are possibly related to acetic acid production mediated by PQQ [46]. This 246 operon also has a gene encoding a hypothetical protein containing a CXXCW motif, present in 247 several soil bacteria, which might be associated with PQQ catabolism (TIGR03865). Hence, the 248 pagABCDE operon might be co-regulated with *adbA* in *Azospirillum* sp. UENF-412522.

249 Ethylene is a plant hormone with a central role in senescence and growth of leaves, 250 flowers, and fruits [47]. Under stress conditions, ethylene can impair plant cell elongation [48]. 251 Ethylene is synthesized by the oxidation of 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate (ACC) by ACC 252 oxidase. ACC can be broken down into α -ketobutyrate and NH₃ by ACC deaminase [49], an 253 enzyme produced by several PGPR that induce plant growth by lowering ethylene levels under 254 stress conditions. We identified the ACC deaminase gene (acdS, EI613 03680) in Azospirillum 255 sp. UENF-412522 and other 11 Azospirillum sp. strains, supporting that their association with 256 plants can alleviate ethylene-mediated growth inhibition. Importantly, we have not found acdS 257 in A. brasilense strains.

258 Considering its gene complement, Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 has a significant 259 potential to promote root growth. Despite the strong experimental evidence supporting IAA 260 biosynthesis, we found none of the classic auxin biosynthesis genes (i.e., *ipdC*, *iaaH* and *iaaM*) 261 [50-52], which prompted us to investigate other IAA biosynthesis pathways [51] in this strain. 262 Interestingly, we found a gene encoding a nitrilase (nit, EI613 03300), which is 74% similar that 263 encoded by a nit that converts indole-3-acetonitrile (IAN) directly into IAA or into indol-3-264 acetamide (IAM) in the rhizobacterium Pseudomonas sp. UW4 [53, 54]. In the latter pathway, 265 the conversion of IAM into IAA requires the action of IAM-hydrolases, for which we found two 266 candidate genes, EI613_04545 e EI613_07015. These genesare similar to amide hydrolases from 267 Rhodococcus sp. (Q53116) [55, 56] and Agrobacterium fabacearum (ADY67766.1) [57], 268 respectively. The apparent absence of tryptophan monooxygenase genes, which catalyze the 269 conversion of Trp into IAM, indicates that Azospirillum sp. UENF 412522 produces IAA through an interplay between the IAN and IAM pathways, as reported in *Rhizobium* spp. and *Bradyrhizobium* spp. [53, 58]. Nevertheless, the initial steps in the production of IAN in *Azospirillum* sp. UENF 412522 are yet to be elucidated. In contrast, all *A. brasilense* strains possess the gene *ipdC* (Figure 5), supporting the ability of this species to synthesize IAA by the indole-3-pyruvate pathway, as experimentally demonstrated [59, 60]. Another eight *A. brasilense* strains possess nitrile hydratase (*nthB*) and *iaaH* genes, which contribute to IAA production by the conversion of IAN to IAM, and from IAM to IAA, respectively.

277 We also investigated Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 genes that might promote root 278 development through the emission of nitrite and nitric oxide. A. brasilense is known for secreting 279 nitrite as a product of nitrate respiration [61, 62]. Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 has a nitrate 280 reductase operon napCAB (EI613 10540-10550). napA encodes a periplasmic nitrate reductase, 281 while *napCB* encodes electron transfer subunits necessary for napA activity. This operon was 282 proposed as an alternative electron acceptor for oxygen in A. brasilense sp. 245 periplasm [63] 283 and is possibly responsible for nitrate respiration in Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522. The nitrite 284 generated by nitrate respiration can be exported to the environment, absorbed by the plant 285 root, and reduced to nitric oxide. Under acidic pH, nitrite can be reduced to nitric oxide without 286 enzymatic action [64] and absorbed by root cells [65]. The downside of nitrate respiration to 287 plant growth promotion is the reduction of available nitrogen in the system and the production 288 of greenhouse gases. Hence, we hypothesize that Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 nitrogen 289 fixation contributes to nitrate respiration and plant absortion.

290 Most known Azospirillum strains are diazotrophs. N₂-fixation requires a microaerophilic 291 or anoxic environment because nitrogenase metalloclusters are sensitive to oxygen. Previous 292 works in Azospirillum proposed that complete oxygen depletion inhibited nitrogenase activity 293 [66], while others suggest otherwise [67]. Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 was isolated from the 294 rhizoplane, where low oxygen conditions are rather common [68]. Given the genomic 295 investigations reported here, we hypothesize that P solubilization, root growth enhancement by 296 nitrate respiration, and N_2 fixation are dependent of an anoxic environment and might be 297 interconnected in the soil-root system (Figure 6). Under low oxygen availability, nitrate is used 298 as final electron acceptor in anaerobic respiration, producing nitrite, which is reduced to nitric 299 oxide under low pH in the periplasm. Such acidic environment can be harnessed by the gluconic 300 acid generated by the PQQ-dependent glucose dehydrogenase. Nitric oxide or nitrite would then 301 be exported to the rhizosphere, stimulating root growth. Finally, gluconic acid is also exported 302 to the rhizosphere, solubilizing phosphate for the root cells uptake.

303

304 Antibiotic resistance genes

305 Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 has several antibiotic resistance genes, such as those conferring 306 resistance to: fosmidomycin (fsr, EI613_04505) [69], bicyclomycin (bcr, EI613_29470, 307 EI613 14405) [70], bacitracin (uppP/BacA, EI613 27660) [71], tabtoxin (ttr, EI613 22745) [72], 308 phenazine (ehpR, El613 22490) [73], and tetracycline (tetA, El613 26440) [74]. We also found 309 multiple drug resistance genes (mdtABCE, EI613_19480-19470) [75], acrAB (EI613_25875-310 25880) [76], and norM (EI613 15640) [77]. Interestingly, most of these antibiotics, such as bicyclomycin [78], phenazine [79], bacitracin, and tetracycline [80], are commonly produced 311 312 Streptomyces, which is abundant in the soil, where it plays a key role in plant organic matter 313 decomposition [81, 82]. The presence of genes conferring resistance against Streptomyces antimicrobials is likely important to the survival of *Azospirillum sp.* UENF-412522 in the rhizosphere.

316

317 CONCLUSION

318 In the present study we described Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522, a new Azospirillum plant 319 growth-promoting species. We experimentally demonstrated that this bacterium is able to fix 320 nitrogen, produce IAA, solubilize mineral P, and recognize and colonize seed-root surfaces. This 321 strain is equipped with genes involved in BNF, P solubilization, ethylene catabolism, promotion of root development, and antibiotic resistance in the rhizosphere. Collectively, our results 322 323 support the biotechnological potential of Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 to be part of 324 bioinoculant formulations for sustainable agriculture. We also propose a system involved in the 325 partitioning of the fixed nitrogen between nitrate respiration and plant absorption, which is 326 likely critical in plant-growth promotion under microaerophilic or anoxic conditions. Finally, this study emphasizes the importance of comprehensive studies using genomic, microscopy, 327 328 microbiological, and biochemical approaches to characterize novel Azospirillum species outside 329 of the A. brasilense clade, which could reveal key unlock the genus diversity and open novel 330 possibilities agricultural applications.

331

332 METHODS

333 Bacterial isolation and DNA purification

334 Passion fruit (Passiflora edulis f. edulis) root samples were obtained at the Integrated 335 Agroecological Production System (SIPA), Embrapa Agrobiologia, Seropédica, Rio de Janeiro, 336 Brazil (coordinates 22.7635°S 43.6886°W) and taken to the laboratory in a sterilized plastic bag 337 kept in ice. Rhizoplane bacteria isolation was performed by an adapted version of Bramwell et 338 al. (1995)[83]. In summary, root axis segments (10 g fresh weight) were sealed from both tip 339 sides with paraffin, gently washed in tap water, and transferred to a 250 mL glass flask 340 containing 90 mL of saline solution (NaCl, 0.9%). Roots were kept under agitation for 5 min at a 341 rotatory shaker (200 rpm at 30 °C) to remove soil particles. After that, the same sealed root 342 segment was carefully transferred to another 250 mL glass flask containing 90 mL of sterile saline 343 (NaCl, 0.9%) solution plus 10 g of autoclaved sieved sand, where remained under agitation for 344 10 min at rotatory shaker (150 rpm at 30 °C) to detach bacteria cells from root surfaces 345 (rhizoplane bacteria fraction). After sand decantation, 10 mL of the suspension were transferred to 90 mL of sterile saline solution (10⁻¹ dilution), which were used to prepare successive dilutions 346 347 until 10⁻⁶. Three independent 20 μ L aliguots of all serial dilutions (10⁻² to 10⁻⁶) were inoculated 348 into glass vials (16 mL volume) containing 5 mL NFb nitrogen-free semisolid medium 349 (composition in g L⁻¹): malic acid, 5.0; K₂HPO₄, 0.5; MgSO₄.7H₂O, 0.2; NaCl, 0.1; CaCl₂. 2H₂O, 0.02; 350 micronutrient stock solution (CuSO₄.5H₂O, 0.04; ZnSO₄.7H₂O, 0.12; H₃BO₃, 1.40; Na₂MoO₄.2H₂O, 351 1.0; MnSO₄. H₂O, 1.175. Complete volume to 1,000 mL with distilled water), 2 mL; bromothymol 352 blue (5 g L⁻¹ in 0.2 N KOH), 2 mL; FeEDTA (solution 16.4 g L⁻¹), 4 mL; vitamin stock solution 353 (biotin, 10 mg; pyridoxal-HCl, 20 mg in 100 mL distilled water), 1 mL; KOH, 4.5 g; distilled water 354 to bring the final volume to 1,000 mL and adjust pH to 6.5. A quantity of 1.6 g agar L⁻¹ was added 355 to prepare the semisolid medium [84].

Inoculated NFb vials were incubated in a growth chamber at 30 °C for 5 to 7 days. The growth of diazotrophic bacteria was characterized by the formation of a subsurface white pellicle. Using a loopful, a sample of the pellicle from the last positive dilution was inoculated in

a fresh NFb N-free semisolid medium and incubated under the same conditions described above. This process was subsequently conducted for three times and the last new pellicle formed was streaked onto DYGS solid medium plates for colony purification. The DYGS composition (g L⁻¹): glucose, 2.0; malic acid 2.0; peptone, 1.5; yeast extract, 2.0; K₂HPO₄, 0,5; MgSO₄.7H₂O, 0.5; glutamic acid, 1.5, pH is 6.5. The purified isolate was stored in 10% glycerol at -80 °C, under the code UENF-412522, as a diazotrophic bacterium associated with the passion fruit rhizoplane.

For DNA extraction, 100 μ L of the stored bacteria were transferred to a glass tube containing 5 mL DYGS liquid medium and grown in an orbital shaker at 30 °C and 180 rpm for 48 hours. After that, 20 μ L were transferred to the same medium and grown at the same conditions for 24 h. An aliquot of 200 μ L was taken, and bacterial genomic DNA was extracted using the QIAamp kit (QIAGEN) following the manufacturer's instructions. DNA was quantified in a 3000 NanoDrop (Thermo Scientific USA). DNA quality was analyzed using a 0.8% agarose gel stained with gel red.

373 To obtain an initial taxonomic assignment, PCR was conducted with the primers 27F (5`-374 AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG 3`) and 1492R (5'-TACGGYTACCTTGTTACGACTT-3`). These 375 reactions were performed using 50 ng of genomic DNA in 25 µL final reaction volume, 376 containing: 2 μL of dNTPs (20 mM each) 2.5 μL of 10 x enzyme buffer, 0.75 μL 50 mM MgCl₂, 2.5 377 μ L of each primer (5 mM), 0.3 μ L Tag polymerase (5 U/ μ L). Amplification was performed in a 96-378 well thermocycler Veriti model (Applied Biosystems), programmed at 9°C for 3 min, 30 cycles of 379 amplification (94°C for 1 min, 55 °C for 30 s, 72 °C for 30 s) at 72 °C for 10 min. The sequencing 380 reactions were performed using the Big Dye Terminator Sequencing Kit-Cycle Sequencing Ready 381 ABI Prism version 3 (Life Technologies, USA), following manufacturer's recommendations. 382 Sequencing was performed on ABI Sequencer model 3130 (Applied Biosystems).

383

384 Plant growth promotion traits of UENF-412522 bacterial strain

385 nifH gene detection

The *nifH* presence were assessed by PCR, with the primers PolF (5'TGCGAYCCSAARGCBGACTC 3') and PolR (5'ATSGCCATCATYTCRGCCGA 3') [85]. In each reaction, we used 1 μ L dNTPs (200 mM each), 5 μ L of 10X buffer, 4 μ L of 25 mM MgCl₂, 0.5 μ L of each primer (10 mM), 0.25 μ L Taq polymerase (5 U/ μ L) and 50 ng DNA, in a final volume of 50 μ L. The amplification conditions were denaturation at 94 °C for 5 minutes, then 30 cycles (94 °C for 1 min, 55 °C for 1 min, 72 °C for 2 minutes) and a final extension step (72 °C for 5 min). PCR products were inspected on 1.5% agarose gels. Bp-100 DNA ladder (Invitrogen) was used as a molecular weight marker.

393

394 Acetylene reduction activity assay (ARA)

395 The in vitro nitrogen fixation ability of UENF-412522 was evaluated using the acetylene 396 reduction assay (ARA), as previously described by Baldani [84]. The strain was grown in 16 mL 397 glass vials containing 5 mL of N-free NFB semisolid medium, as described above. These flasks 398 were inoculated with 20 µL of the bacterial inoculum suspended in sterile water, adjusted to an 399 optical density (OD) of 1.0, and incubated at 30 °C for 48 h. After pellicle formation, the vials 400 were closed with a sterilized pierceable rubber stopper of the subseal type. Syringes were used 401 to remove 1 mL of air and to inject 1 mL of acetylene in each vial. The flasks were incubated at 402 30 °C for 1 h, and 1 mL of the gas phase was analyzed on a gas chromatograph with flame 403 ionization (Perkin Elmer), to determine the ethylene concentration in the sample.

404 Phosphorus and zinc solubilization

Phosphate solubilization was independently carried out using 1 g.L⁻¹ Araxá rock phosphate 405 $[Ca_{10}(PO_4)_6F_2]$ and tricalcium phosphate $[Ca_3(PO_4)_2]$. Bacterial cultures grown in DYGS liquid 406 407 medium adjusted to an optical density of 1.0 were inoculated (20 μ L) at the center of the petri 408 dish with agar containing Pikovskaya medium. After this procedure, they were incubated at 30 409 °C for 7 days. The ability of the isolates in solubilizing P was evaluated by measuring the 410 translucent halo, according to Kumar and Narula formula [86], in which S.I. (solubility index) = 411 halo Diameter (mm)/colony diameter (mm). We conducted three biological replicates of this 412 assay.

413 We also assessed P solubilization in Pikovskaya liquid medium supplemented with $1g.L^{-}$ 414 ¹ of the Araxá rock phosphate or $Ca_{10}(PO_4)_6F_2$ was used to quantify the soluble P. Aliquots of 100 415 µL of bacterial cultures grown in DYGS liquid medium were transferred to 50 mL tubes containing 416 Pikovskaya medium and kept for 7 days under constant agitation at 150 rpm in a rotatory shaker 417 at 30 °C. After this period, cultures were centrifuged at 3200 rpm for 15 minutes, and the 418 supernatant was used for pH determination and quantification of soluble P.

419 Zinc solubilization was carried out according to Intorne et al [87]. Aliquots of 20 μL of 420 bacterial strains cultivated for 24 h at 30 °C in DYGS liquid medium, adjusted to an optical density 421 of 1.0, were inoculated at the center of the petri dish containing Saravanan medium with agar 422 supplemented with 1g.L⁻¹ of ZnO and incubated at 30 °C for 7 days. After this period, the ability 423 to solubilize ZnO was also performed according to Kumar and Narula [86]. We conducted three 424 biological replicates of this assay.

425

426 Indole acetic acid (IAA) production

427 Bacterial isolates were cultured in liquid DYGS medium for 24 h at 30 °C and transferred (25 μ L) 428 to test tubes containing 5 mL of the same medium in the presence and absence of L-tryptophan 429 (100 mg.L⁻¹) before incubation in the dark for 72 h at 30 °C, shaking at 150 rpm. The cultures 430 were then transferred to 2 mL tubes and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 min, and the 431 supernatant transferred to a test tube with 2 mL of Salkowski reagent [88]. Tubes were 432 incubated for 30 min in the dark. The production of IAA was evaluated by the presence of pink 433 color in the tubes, and the color intensity was determined with a spectrophotometer at a 434 wavelength of 530 nm. IAA concentrations were measured using a calibration curve.

435

436 Biochemical API 50 CH/E test

437 For the metabolic characterization of bacterial isolates, we used the API 50 CH/E test kit 438 (bioMérieux SA Marcy- l'Etoile/France), which evaluates the ability of the isolates to conduct 439 fermentation of 49 carbohydrates and derivatives. To this end, the isolates were cultured in 440 DYGS medium for 24 h at 150 rpm. After this period, the isolates were suspended in autoclaved 441 water and adjusted to optical density 1.0; 2 mL of this suspension were added to the CHL 442 medium (bioMérieux) and transferred to galleries containing different substrates. Each dome 443 was sealed with a sterile drop of mineral oil and incubated in an environmental chamber at 37 444 °C. Reads were recorded after 24 h and 48 h after inoculation, and eventual production of 445 organic acids during incubation shifts the pH indicator from red to yellow.

446

447 Plant growth promotion assay under greenhouse conditions

448 A greenhouse assay was carried out to evaluate the effect of UENF-412522 inoculation in plants. 449 To perform it, passion fruit seeds of the cultivar Yellow master FB200 were disinfected in 1% 450 sodium hypochlorite solution for 20 minutes, followed by three rinses in autoclaved distilled 451 water and then transferred to germitest paper moistened with autoclaved water. Then, the 452 seeds were incubated in a growth chamber at 30 °C, for 16 h in the light and 8 h in the dark. 453 After germinating, these seeds were transferred to styrofoam trays containing autoclaved plant 454 substrate under greenhouse conditions. After 30 days of transplanting, seedlings of 455 approximately 6 cm were transferred to a 300 mL plastic bag containing the same autoclaved plant growth substrate. The inoculum of the UENF-412522 strain was prepared in liquid DYGS 456 457 medium after 40 h of growth in a rotatory shaker at 30 °C and 150 rpm. Bacterial suspensions containing approximately 10⁸ cells.mL⁻¹ (O.D. = 1.0 at 600 nm) were inoculated on the region of 458 459 the plant's neck, and plants were transferred to the greenhouse for 30 days. The assay was set 460 up in a randomized block design, two treatments (inoculated and non-inoculated plantlets) and six replications. The control plants received 1 mL of the liquid DYGS medium containing lysed 461 462 UENF-412522 cells.

463

464 Plant root colonization assay

465 We evaluated plant-bacteria interaction by determining the population size and root 466 colonization by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). For this, passion fruit seeds of the Yellow cultivar master FB200 were disinfected and placed to germinate as described above. After 467 468 germination, the seedlings were transferred to a test tube containing autoclaved vermiculite. 469 Then, 1 ml of bacterial suspension containing approximately 10⁸ cells mL⁻¹ was inoculated on the seedling neck. Seedlings were kept for seven days after inoculation (d.a.i) in a culture room 470 471 under a temperature of 30°C (16 h in the light and 8 hours in the dark). For SEM, root samples 472 were collected at 1 and 7 days after the inoculation of the bacterial suspension. Samples for SEM 473 were prepared according to Baldotto et al. [89] and viewed at Zeiss DSEM 962 at 15 Kv voltage 474 in secondary electron detector mode. The bacteria count at rhizosphere, rhizoplane, and roots 475 was performed at seven d.a.i., as described above. The control consisted of seedlings inoculated 476 with the DYGS medium.

477

478 Genome sequencing and assembly

479 The sequencing procedures and basic data processing were performed, as previously described 480 [25]. In summary, paired-end libraries were prepared using the TruSeq Nano DNA LT Library Prep 481 (Illumina) and sequenced on a HiSeq 2500 instrument at the Life Sciences Core Facility (LaCTAD; 482 UNICAMP, Campinas, Brazil). Sequencing reads (2 × 100 bp) had their quality checked with 483 FastQC 0.11.5 (https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). Quality filtering 484 was performed with Trimmomatic 0.35 [90], and reads with average quality below 30 were 485 discarded. The genome assembly was performed using SPAdes 3.8 [91] and assembly metrics 486 evaluated by QUAST 3.0 [92].

487

488 Genome annotation and phylogenetic analysis

The assembled genome was annotated with the NCBI Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline [93]. The *Azospirillum* sp. UENF-412522 genome was deposited on Genbank under the BioProject PRJNA508400. *Azospirillum* spp. genomes available in RefSeq [94, 95] were downloaded (n = 48, as of June 03 2019) and protein sequences were predicted using PROKKA

1.13.3 [96]. We searched for proteins encoded by genes potentially involved in plant growth
promotion using a blastp [97] search on the SwissProt database, with minimum coverage and
similarity thresholds of 70% and 60%, respectively. All-against-all average nucleotide identity
(ANI) was computed using pyani 0.28 [98]. Pan-genome analysis was performed with Roary
3.12.0, with a minimum identity threshold of 50% [99]. Multiple sequence alignments were
performed using Muscle 3.8.30 [100] and phylogenetic reconstructions performed with RAxML
8.2.10 [101].

500

501 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

502 Conceived the study: FLO, TMV; Funding and resources: FLO, TMV; Data analysis: GLR, FPM, RKG,
503 FP-S, DC-A, IP-O; Performed experiments: PSLG, STS, AFA; Interpretation of the results: GLR,
504 FPM, FLO, TMV; Wrote the manuscript: GLR, FPM, FLO, TMV.

505

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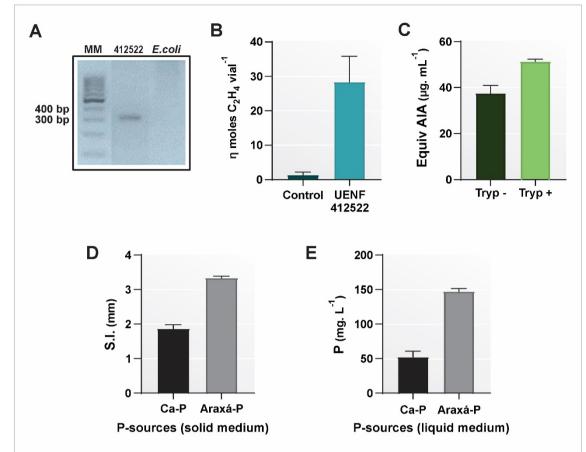
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Figure 1: Plant growth promotion *in vitro* traits of *Azospirillum* sp. UENF-412522. (A)
Amplification of *nifH* using *E. coli* as negative control; molecular weight marker (MM). (B)
Nitrogenase activity by the acetylene reduction assay. (C) Indole acetic acid (IAA) production
with and without L- tryptophan. Araxá P-rock and calcium phosphate solubilization in solid (D)
and liquid (E) medium.

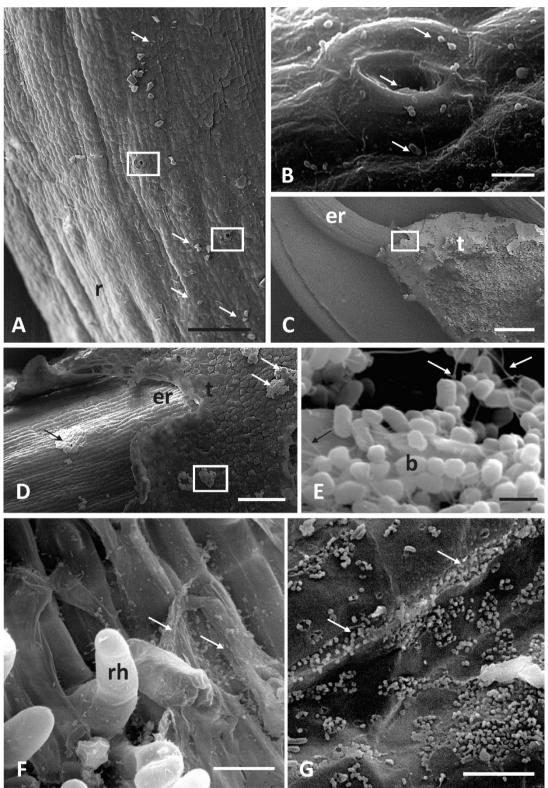




Figure 2: Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of passion fruit (*Passiflora edulis* subsp. *edulis*) seed to seedlings phase inoculated with *Azospirillum* sp. UENF-412522 in an axenic cultivation system at one day (A-E) and seven days after germination (F-G). (A) General view of the emerged radicle surface (r) with single bacteria cells attached (arrows). Note the sparse rudimentary stomata (rectangle magnified in B), bar = 100 μ m; (B) Bacteria cells in the vicinity and into the stomata pore (arrows), bar = 5 μ m; (C) General view of the emerged radicle (er) breaking the seed tegument (t), rectangle magnified in D, bar = 1000 μ m; (D) Transition zone between broken

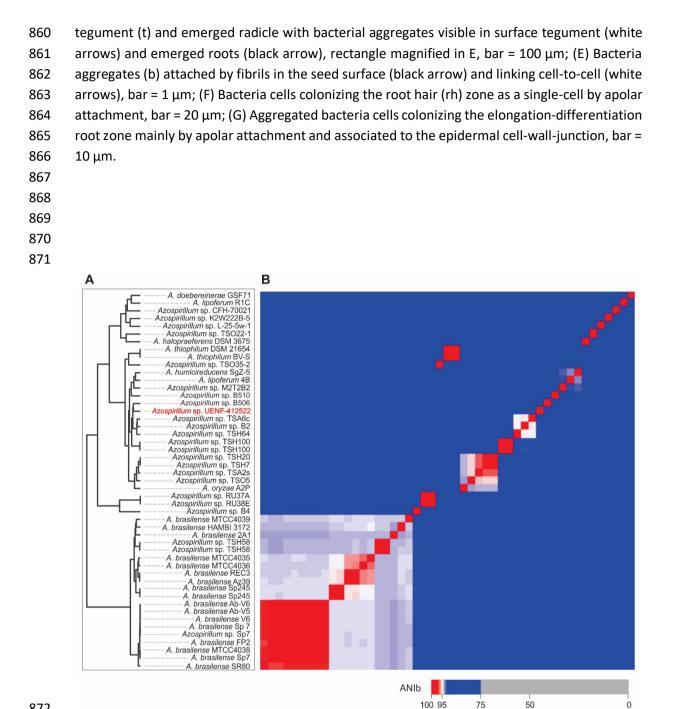
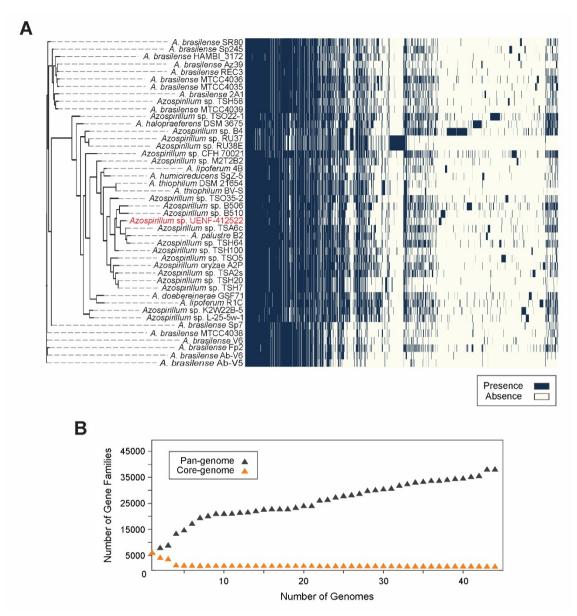


Figure 3: Average nucleotide identity (ANI). (A) Neighbor-joining cladogram. (B) Genome-to-

genome distance matrix.



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882 **Figure 4:** *Azospirillum* spp. pan-genome. (A) Gene presence/absence matrix, with gene presence

depicted with solid blue boxes. (B) Pan- and core-genome sizes versus new genomes additionsto the pan-genome dataset.

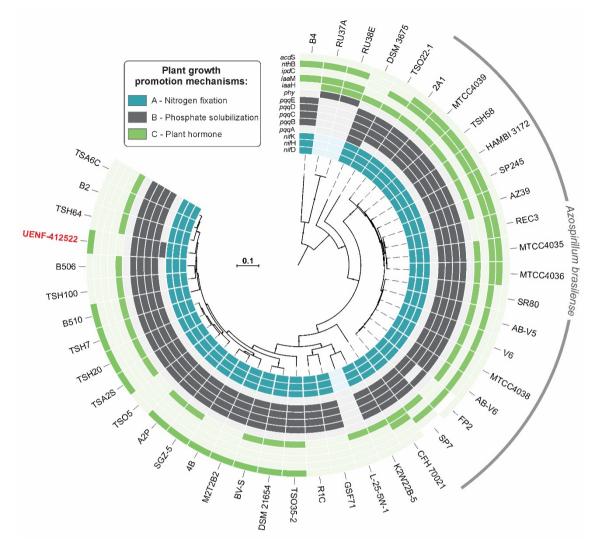
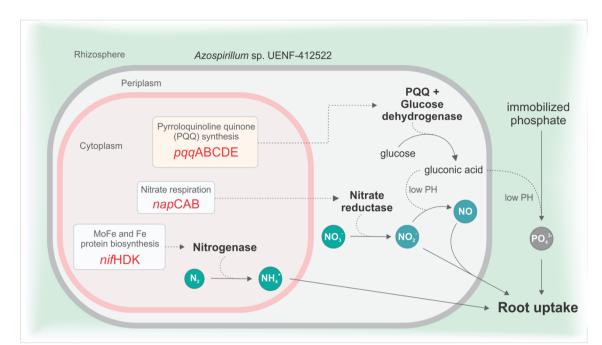


Figure 5: Core maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree. Plant growth-promoting genes were
searched, grouped according to the mechanism of growth modulation, and mapped onto the
tree.

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895 Figure 6: Schematic representation of nitrogen fixation, phosphate solubilization, and 896 nitrite/nitric oxide emission by Azospirillum sp. UENF-412522 in the rhizosphere. The identified 897 genes responsible for nitrogen fixation (*nifHDK*), root enhancement (*napCAB*), and phosphate 898 solubilization (pgqABCDE) are represented within boxes. Nitrogen fixation occurs in the 899 cytoplasm, while gluconic acid production and nitrate respiration take place at the periplasm. 900 Ammonium generated by the nitrogenase can undergo anaerobic nitrification to nitrite, which 901 can be exported to the periplasm. In the periplasm, glucose dehydrogenase, along with the PQQ 902 co-factor, produces gluconic acid from glucose, lowering the pH. Nitrate is reduced to nitrite by 903 a periplasmatic nitrate reductase napCAB. At low pH, nitrite can be reduced to nitric oxide. 904 Acetic acid, nitrite, and nitric oxide can be exported to the rhizosphere. Acetic acid can reduce 905 the pH in the rhizosphere and solubilize phosphate. The solubilized phosphate, nitrite, and nitric 906 oxide can be captured by root cells.