

**Investigating the role of mycorrhizal fungi and
associated bacteria in promoting growth of citrus
seedlings**

By

Phumeza Sitole (g11s4227)

Rhodes University

**Department of Biochemistry, Microbiology and
Biotechnology**

Supervisor: Dr J. Dames

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ABSTRACT

South Africa is the world's second largest exporter of fresh citrus and is ranked 14th in citrus production. Fungal pathogens such as *Phytophthora* and *Pythium* cause economic losses as a result of root rot and brown rot. Mycorrhizal fungi are specialized members of the fungal community forming a mutualistic relationship with plant roots. Mycorrhizal fungal structures are known to associate with other soil microorganisms and these may contribute to improved plant growth. A diverse group of bacteria that interact with the mycorrhizal fungi are known as Mycorrhizal Helper Bacteria (MHB). The aim of this study was to investigate the role of arbuscular mycorrhiza and associated bacteria isolated from spores and determine whether they had any plant growth promoting potential.

A total of 19 bacteria were isolated from arbuscular mycorrhizal spores and were molecularly identified as belonging to several *Bacillus*, *Micrococcus*, *Ochrobactrum* and *Staphylococcus* sp. All bacterial isolates were tested for plant growth promotion abilities. One *Bacillus* isolate was able to solubilise phosphate. Four isolates *Micrococcus* sp, *Micrococcus leteus*, *Ochrobacterum* sp and *Ochrobacterum antropi* were able to produce Indole Acetic Acid and three isolates showed potential to reduce growth of *Phytophthora nicotianae*, *P. citrocola* and *P. citrophthora* in *in vitro* plate cultures. Further tests using culture supernatants of the *Bacillus* sp, *Micrococcus* sp and *Bacillus cereus* confirmed their ability to inhibit or reduce growth of the three *Phytophthora* species in a 96 well bioassay. *Bacillus* sp and *Bacillus cereus* were able to inhibit *Phytophthora* spp by 95 to 100 % and *Micrococcus* spp was able decrease pathogen growth by 60 to 94 %. These bacterial isolates were further evaluated for plant growth promoting abilities on citrus rough lemon seedlings alone or in combination with arbuscular mycorrhizal inoculum. Bacterial and mycorrhizal inoculants influence the increase in shoot and root biomass. *Bacillus cereus* in combination with mycorrhizal inoculum significantly increased seedling shoot to root ratio while root biomass was significantly increased with mycorrhizal inoculation. Due to the short duration of the trial mycorrhizal colonisation could not be assessed. It is evident that selected combinations of bacteria and mycorrhizal fungi could promote citrus seedling growth and potentially improve seedling health. Further studies under nursery conditions are recommended.

This thesis is dedicated to my parents who have been there for me throughout my studies and
never giving up on me

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ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA analysis of variance

BLAST basic local alignment search tool

Bp base pairs

cm centimetre

dH₂O distilled and deionized water

DNA deoxyribose nucleic acid

dNTP deoxyribose nucleotide triphosphate

e.g. for example

EDTA ethylene diamine tetra acetic acid

g gram

hr(s) hour(s)

i.e. that is

IAA indole acetic acid

ITS internal transcribed spacer

l/L litre

mg milligram

mg/ml milligram/millilitre

MHB mycorrhizal helper bacteria

Min(s) minute(s)

N nitrogen

NCBI National Centre for Biotechnology Information

P phosphorus

PCR polymerase chain reaction

PGPR plant growth promoting bacteria

PSB phosphate solubilising bacteria

rDNA ribosomal deoxynucleic acid

rpm rotation per min

Sec seconds

sp. species (singular)

spp. species (plural)

TAE tris-acetic acid-EDTA

TE tris-HCl EDTA

V volts

vol/vol volume / volume

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Mycorrhizal fungi

The word mycorrhiza originated from the Greek *mycos*, meaning 'fungus' and *rhiza*, meaning 'root' and are the specialized members of the fungal population that colonise the rhizosphere (Smith and Read, 2008). Many soil microorganisms form relationships with plants that range from being parasitic, commensal or mutualistic. Among these, the most widespread mutualistic relationship is between mycorrhizal fungal hyphae and plant roots (Smith and Read, 2008). These fungi are known to carry out many critical ecosystem functions such as improvement of plant establishment, enhancement of plant nutrient uptake, plant protection against cultural and environmental stress and improvement of soil structure (Jeffries *et al.*, 2003; Read and Perez- Moreno, 2003; Sikes *et al.*, 2009). In return the fungus receives carbohydrates in the form of sugars and growth factors from the plant (Smith and Read, 2008). As a result of these nutrient uptake-enhancing properties, mycorrhizal fungi have been used to stimulate plant growth in agriculture, horticulture and forestry. Under plant nursery conditions, the addition of mycorrhizal fungi at an early stage of plant growth has been shown to yield larger plants in comparison with uninoculated plants (Camprubi *et al.*, 1993; Wu and Zou, 2009).

The fungi require carbon in the form of sugars to grow and complete their life cycles hence the symbiotic relationship with roots. The carbon is made available to the fungus by way of photosynthates (Bago *et al.*, 2003). Mycorrhizal fungi are different from other fungi as they have the ability to create an interface for nutrients exchange which occurs within living cells of the plant (Brundrett, 2004) and this is a characteristic of the symbiosis. The function of mycorrhizal fungi goes beyond nutrient acquirement, they also provide several benefits to the host plant which include access to less labile nutrients from organic sources, enhanced water uptake, resistance to pathogenic fungi and harmful bacteria as well as protection against heavy metal in the soil (Al-Karaki *et al.*, 2004; Filion *et al.*, 1999; Hildebrandt *et al.*, 1999; Marschner and Dell, 1994; Newsham *et al.*, 1995b).

Mycorrhizal fungi also interact with microorganisms colonising roots including, both symbiotic and free-living nitrogen fixing bacteria which develop activities involved in plant growth promotion and plant protection (Barea *et al.*, 2002; Dashti *et al.* 1998; Tilak *et al.*, 2006). The dependence on mycorrhizal fungi varies with plant species, particularly the root morphology, and conditions of soil and climate so plants with thick poorly branched roots and with few root hairs, are usually more dependent on mycorrhizal fungi for normal growth

and development (Smith and Read, 2008). Approximately 90% of all plant species are colonised by mycorrhizal fungi. The fungal network which exploits the soil environment and influences microbial populations is called the mycorrhizosphere and extends beyond the rhizosphere (Frey-Klett *et al.*, 2007; Schüßler *et al.*, 2001; Wang *et al.*, 2008)

1.2 Mycorrhizosphere

The mycorrhizosphere is defined as the zone which is influenced by mycorrhizal fungi and plant roots in the soil. Different microbial communities are found in the mycorrhizosphere consisting of bacteria, yeast and other fungi as compare to the bulk soil (Fitter and Garbaye, 1994). The rhizosphere is the thin layer of soil which surrounds the root and directly influences the root, root hairs and microorganisms on the surface of the root. The hyphosphere is influenced by mycorrhizal fungal hyphae (Azcon – Aguilar and Barea, 1996; Linderman, 1988). Different microbial interactions are found in the hyphosphere and the rhizosphere and these differences are due to the quantitative and qualitative differences in the nutrients derived from plant root and fungi (Andrade *et al.*, 1997; Andrade *et al.*, 1998).

Soil microorganisms found in the mycorrhizosphere can produce compounds such as plant hormones that increase root cell permeability increasing root exudation (Bowen and Rovira, 1991). This would stimulate mycorrhizal fungal mycelia in the rhizosphere or facilitate root penetration of the fungi (Azcon –Aguilar and Barea, 1996). The colonisation of plants by mycorrhizal fungi can influence bacterial communities (Azaizeh *et al.*, 1995) associated with the root both directly and indirectly. Direct interactions include provision of energy rich carbon compounds derived from host assimilates, which are transported to the mycorrhizosphere and released into the soil. These compounds include nutrients as well as other inhibitory or stimulatory compounds (Johansson *et al.*, 2004). Indirect interactions can also take place in the form of mycorrhizal mediated effects on the host plant growth, root exudation and soil structure which subsequently influence microbial communities. The mycorrhizosphere and the associated microorganisms in combination may lead to the improvement of plant nutrition, growth and disease resistance (Frey-Klett *et al.*, 2007; Hobbie, 1992; Söderström, 1992).

Andrade *et al.*, (1997) reported differences in the composition of the microflora in the rhizosphere and hyphosphere soils of different mycorrhizal fungi, suggesting preferential

associations between some bacteria and the conditions provided by their individual fungal partner. Mycorrhizal symbiotic status affects the chemical composition of root exudates while the development of a mycorrhizal hyphal network in the soil also introduces physical modification in the environment surrounding the root. These changes affect the rhizospheric microbial communities in the mycorrhizosphere (Linderman, 1988).

1.3 Types of mycorrhizal fungi

Mycorrhizal fungi are classified according to structural characteristics and their fungal associates. Different plant species associate with certain fungi in a unique manner which results in specific mycorrhizal associations (Johansson *et al*, 2004). There are seven different types of mycorrhizas broadly divided into endomycorrhizas and ectomycorrhizas based on whether the fungal hypha penetrates the root cortical cells (Smith and Read, 2008).

Ectomycorrhizal fungi have a significant proportion of their fungal partner's biomass external to the root. This comprises two parts, the sheath or mantle of fungal hyphae that wrap around the outside of the root and the extraradical hyphae and hyphal structures that extend into the surrounding soil. The association is characterized by a hyphal sheath covering the root tip and a 'Hartig' net of hyphae surrounding the plant cells within the root cortex. In some cases the hyphae may also penetrate the plant cell (Dighton, 2009). This type of mycorrhizal association is usually the dominant species in natural forest and woodlands and some produce mushrooms (e.g., *Russula*, *Hebeloma*, *Cortinarius*,) and truffles (e.g., *Tuber*). These fungi associate with a limited number of tree species in all biomes (Horton *et al*. 1999). Tree genera include most coniferous trees, larch, birch, beech, oak, and eucalypts (Wang and Qiu, 2006).

In endomycorrhizal associations the fungal component is usually found inside the roots. Several types of endomycorrhizal are found and this includes specialised ericoid and orchid mycorrhizal. In one such endomycorrhizal type the fungal hyphae penetrate the host cortical cell walls pushing the plasma membrane aside and branches into arbuscules. These arbuscules are finely branched tree like structures that maximize the area of contact between the fungus and the host cell content. Some species also produce vesicles which are sac-like structures emerging from hyphae which serve as storage of lipids (Smith and Read, 2008; Harrison, 2005). The increased contact area between fungus and plant cell enhances the rate

of nutrient and carbon exchange between the two partners (Smith and Read, 2008). This endomycorrhizal type called the arbuscular mycorrhizas is relevant in this study.

1.3.1 Arbuscular mycorrhiza

Arbuscular mycorrhizas are the most common mycorrhizal type and are associated with a wide variety of host plants. These fungi are obligately biotrophic meaning that they obtain their carbon solely from the host plant (Bago *et al.*, 2003; Douds *et al.*, 2000; Graham, 2001). They were reclassified on the basis of DNA sequences into a separate fungal phylum, the Glomeromycota and have subsequently undergone taxonomic revision (Krüger *et al.*, 2009; Morton and Msiska, 2010; Smith and Read, 2008).

The arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi exist in the soil as spores. Germination can be stimulated by favourable soil conditions such as moisture, this is termed the asymbiotic phase as it is independent of the host plant (Buee *et al.*, 2000) In the presence of root exudates from the host plant presymbiotic mycelia growth is accelerated and branching increases in order to ensure contact with the root (Paskowski, 2006). After germination and once contact between the symbionts is established the fungi forms an appressorium as a hyphal swelling on the root surface where pressure builds up. Penetration of the root epidermal cells follows due to the production of enzymes such as endoglucanases (Garcia-Romera *et al.*, 1991a; Garcia-Romera *et al.*, 1991b). Hyphal filaments run between cortical root cells and subsequently penetrate through cortical cell walls. The host plasma membrane is pushed aside and covers the fungal hyphae which branches into characteristic arbuscules, tree-like structures. This maximizes the area of contact between the fungus and host cell contents (Fig 1.1). During this symbiotic phase the large surface area facilitates nutrient and carbon exchange between the fungal and plant components of the symbiosis. Extraradical hyphae will extend out of the root and exploit the soil for nutrients and new spores will be formed to continue the life cycle. In the absence of a host the growth of these fungi is relatively short, lasting between 20 to 30 days. In the presences of roots mycelium develops and colonise 60 to 90% of the length of the root system under favourable conditions. About 80% of all terrestrial plant species form this type of symbiosis (Newman and Reddell, 1987, Smith and Read, 2008).

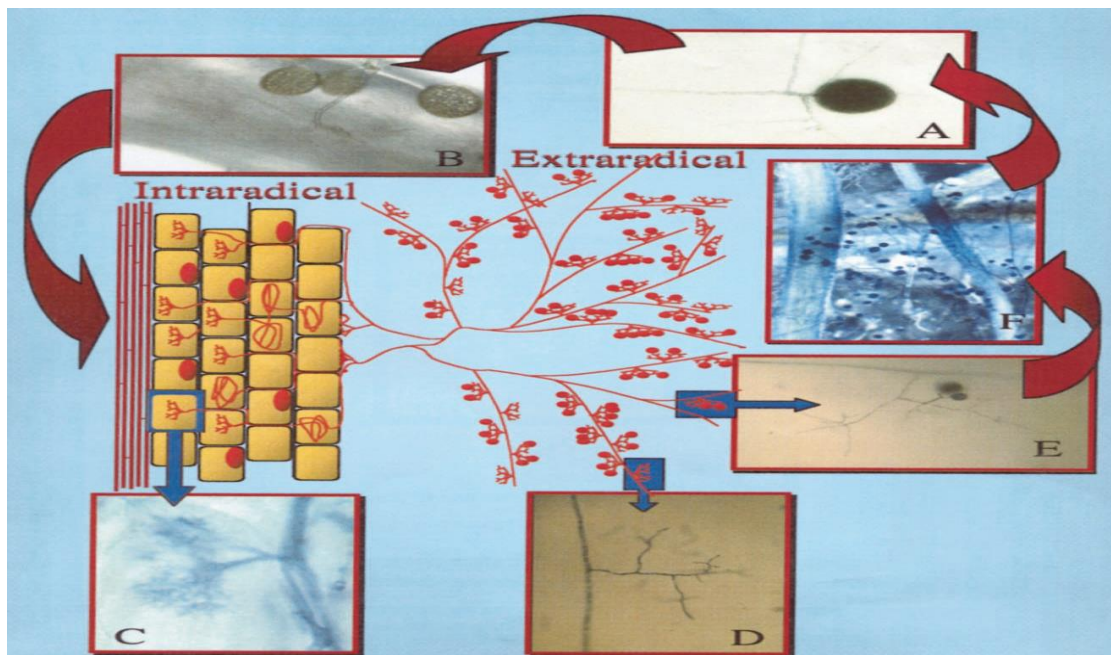


Figure 1.1: Life cycle of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi, A- spore germination in the presence of root host plant. B - Penetration of mycorrhizal fungus into root tissue. C- Formation of arbuscules within cortical cell. D – Extraradical hyphal network for absorption of nutrient. E – Formation of resting spores (Bago *et al.*, 2003).

Characteristic fungal structures develop within the roots resulting in changes in the rate of root growth and branching. These differences are discernible only by detailed comparison with non-mycorrhizal plants. The colonisation structures facilitate nutrients and carbon exchange between the plant and the fungus (Harrison, 2005).

Two types of colonisation structures have been recorded and are referred to as the *Arum* or *Paris* type. During the *Arum* type of colonisation the fungus spreads in the root cortex by intercellular hyphae which extend along the well-developed intercellular spaces. Short side branches penetrate the cortical cell wall and branch dichotomously in the cell lumen and produce a multi- branched arbuscules. The *Paris* type colonisation is characterised by the extensive development of intracellular coiled hyphae which spreads directly from cell to cell (Brundett and Kendrick 1990; Smith and Read, 2008) (Fig 1.2a and b).

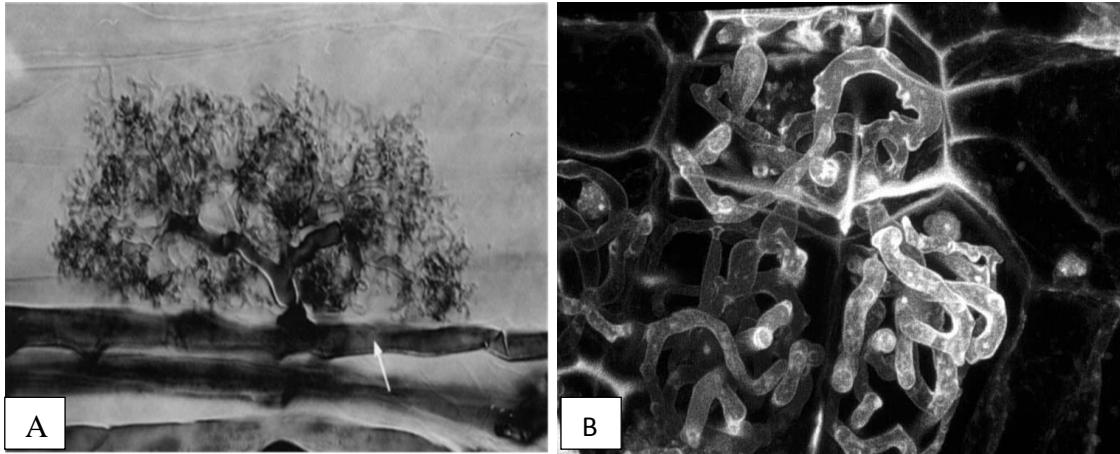


Figure 1.2: A) Light microscope of a *Arum* colonisation strategy arbuscule of *Glomus mosseae* within cortical cell of *Allium porrium* B) Scanning electron microscope of *Paris* type intracellular coils of *Glomus intraradices* in cortical cells of *Panax quinquefolius* (Smith and Read, 2008).

Colonisation of roots by AM fungi can arise from three main sources of inoculum in soil, spores, colonised root fragments and hyphae. These are collectively termed propagules (Smith and Read, 2008). The pattern of growth in the root varies depending on the partners involved. Regardless of the colonisation strategy the external mycorrhizal mycelium in association with other soil microorganism's forms water stable aggregates necessary for good soil quality and an increased capacity for nutrient acquisition thus resulting in stronger plants able to resist stress (Azcon-Aguilar and Barea, 1996).

1.4 Beneficial effects by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi

1.4.1 Nutrient acquisition

Mycorrhizal fungi play a significant role in mobilizing nutrients from organic substrates. The main effect of significance to host plants is the mobilization of nutrients such as N and P from structural and other polymers which are otherwise unavailable to plant roots (Marschner & Dell, 1994; Tian et al., 2009). Several studies have shown that plants grown in the presence of mycorrhizal fungi grow larger than those grown in their absence. Mostly this has been attributed to increased phosphorus uptake (Barea *et al.*, 2002; Dashti *et al.*, 1998).

Nutrients that are available in soil can be acquired by plants through two pathways, which are directly from the soil through a plant-specific pathway or through uptake and transport using the AM fungal symbiotic pathway (Smith and Read, 2008). Nutrients are required by plants in varying amounts (Nagy *et al.*, 2009).

The interaction between the symbionts creates a novel interface at the cellular level through which carbon and phosphorus as well as other nutrients are exchanged. In AM fungi phosphate acquisition is usually achieved through membrane integral proteins including phosphate transporters and the P-type H⁺-ATPase. Following uptake, transport within fungal tissues is in the form of polyphosphate granules (Dighton, 2009). Within the arbuscular mycorrhizas, specific M+PT4 protein production is closely associated with arbuscule formation and phosphate uptake.

1.4.1.1 Phosphorus

Phosphorus (P) is one of the important nutrients for plant development and growth. It is involved in processes such as energy generation and photosynthesis, and is an important component of cell membranes and nucleic acids (Vance *et al.*; 2003). Phosphorus in the environment exists as inorganic orthophosphate ions (H₂PO₄⁻) primarily involved in inert complexes with cations such as iron (FePO₄) and aluminium (AlPO₄), calcium (CaPO₄) phosphates and organic molecules such as lecithin which cannot be absorbed directly from the soil by the plant roots (Smith and Read, 2008; Ticconi and Abel 2004). Phosphorus is required by both symbionts in relatively large amounts, but it is poorly mobile in soil and it is only available in very low concentrations (Quilambo, 2003).

Plants have developed a number of different strategies to enhance phosphorus acquisition. One of these is increasing the root-soil interface through the development of root hairs which increases the general surface area and their growth is influenced by Pi availability (Ma *et al.*, 2001). The second strategy is usually achieved by roots secreting organic acids such as malate and citrate to solubilise phosphate trapped in complexes which compete with Pi for cation-binding partners (Johnson and Loeppert, 2006). The last strategy is the formation of a symbiotic association with mycorrhizal fungi. The hyphal network exploits the soil environmentally absorbing phosphate and translocating it to the roots (Javot *et al.*, 2007; Smith *et al.*, 2003). AM fungi can also facilitate the uptake of phosphorus by secreting

enzymes such as phosphatases to hydrolyse and release phosphorous from organic complexes (Schachtman *et al.*, 1998). After the phosphate has been acquired from the soil the fungi distributes it to the tissues throughout the plant using phosphate transporters (Javot *et al.*, 2007; Smith *et al.*, 2003).

Studies have shown that the extraradical mycelium is responsible for acquisition of phosphate by using active Pi transporters. The fungal hyphae phosphate is stored in the vacuoles of the extraradical hyphae in the form of polyphosphate granules (Ezawa *et al.*, 2002). The polyphosphate granules are then transferred to intraradical compartments by means of tubular vacuolar network (Bago *et al.*, 2003), which is later translocated to the intraradical hyphae and is released to the plant (Jakobsen *et al.*, 1992).

Phosphate transporters are usually specific genes that are found in the AM fungi such as GvPT isolated from *Glomus versiforme*, GiPT isolated from *Glomus intraradices* and GmosPT isolated from *Glomus mosseae* and all are expressed in extraradical hyphae. GmosPT has also been shown to be expressed in intraradical hyphae (Harrison and Buuren, 1995; Maldonado-Mendoza *et al.*, 2001). Benedetto *et al.*, 2005 identified and characterised the phosphate transporter gene GmosPT from *Glomus mosseae*. Using Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) with PT1 and PT2 primers they obtained a DNA sequence that showed high significant phylogenetic similarity with GiPT and GvPT. Reverse transcriptase PCR experiment were carried out to study GmosPT expression profiles in different AM fungal life stages when exposed to high and low Pi concentrations. GmosPT showed an expression pattern similar to GiPT where high expression was observed in the extraradical mycelium, concluding that GmosPT plays a role in Pi transfer during interactions with the host plant.

The effects of phosphate uptake by AM fungi are usually observed in an increase in root length and shoot dry matter and improvement of plant nutrition (Smith and Read, 2008). Stewart *et al.*, (2005) inoculated strawberry plants with different arbuscular mycorrhiza species using *Glomus intraradices*, *Glomus mosseae* and *Glomus etunicatum* under typical strawberry nursery conditions and in soil high in phosphate. They found that AM fungi were able to colonise the strawberry root and reported increased plant productivity compared to controls which were not inoculated with AM fungi concluding that the AM hyphal network, increased the surface area in the strawberry roots making it easier to absorb Pi whereas non-mycorrhizal roots systems may be unable to absorb P effectively resulting in poor growth (Javot *et al.*, 2007). Chen *et al* (2004) investigated whether AM fungal colonisation can

increase plant P-uptake of a plant community. Their results showed that the total P uptake of plants increased in the plot occupied by the plant mixtures. Hu *et al.*, (2010) investigated AM inoculation impacts on plant growth, crop yield, and P acquisition of wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) as well as mycorrhizal colonisation. A 45% increase in P acquisition was reported in wheat inoculated with AM fungi when compared to the uninoculated control plants. Guissou, (2009) investigated the effects of an AM fungus on the growth of tamarind and jujube seedlings in a P-deficient soil under nursery conditions by inoculating the tamarind and jujube seedlings with *Glomus aggregatum*. Their findings showed that tamarind and jujube seedlings grew very poorly in the absence of *G. aggregatum* and the inoculated seedlings had greater shoot height and total biomass production. The total dry weight of the fruit tree species was increased 3 and 4 fold by *G. aggregatum*, in both plant species compared to the controls. Jujube inoculated seedlings had the highest AM root colonisation and higher P concentrations (8.33 fold) in shoots and inoculated tamarind seedlings recorded a 1.62 fold increase in shoot P concentration, indicating greater mycorrhizal dependency in jujube seedlings. Mohammad *et al.*, (2003) evaluated the effect of AM fungi (*G. intraradices*) on plant growth of Barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L) and nutrient uptake in saline soils with different salt and phosphorus concentrations over a period of five weeks. An increase in the dry weight and the height of the plants was observed. Phosphorus concentration in the plants was higher in the mycorrhizal barley (8.84 mg plant⁻¹) compared to the non-inoculated plants which was about 4.96 mg plant⁻¹.

1.4.1.2 Nitrogen

Nitrogen (N) is one of the most important macronutrients which significantly increase plant growth and yield production. It is essential for protein synthesis. AM fungal associations have been shown to be able to alleviate the effects of different stresses on plant growth and yield production by significantly increasing the uptake of water and nutrients including N by the host plant (Daei *et al.* 2009; Feddermann *et al.*, 2010; Jaskson *et al.*, 2008; Miransari, 2011). Nitrogen is absorbed by plant roots as both nitrate (NO³⁻) and ammonium (NH⁺) compounds from the soil. The hyphal network is also involved in uptake and transfer of organic N although it is still not clear whether this always occur in amounts that are significant for whole plant nutrition (Jackson *et al.*, 1997; Smith *et al.*, 2003). Using labelled N, it has been shown that the hyphae of AM fungi are able to utilize inorganic N efficiently

(Ames *et al.*, 1983; Frey and Schüepp 1992; Johansen *et al.* 1993) and transfer it to the host plant. Nitrate is highly mobile and readily available in the soil solution whereas ammonium is comparatively immobile. The AM symbiosis is thought to influence the uptake and translocation of NH_4^+ rather than NO_3^- (Chambers *et al.*, 1980). Since NO_3^- ions are the main form of N in many agricultural soils they reduce the importance of mycorrhizal fungi in such soils. However NO_3^- mobility is severely limited by drought due to low concentrations and reduced diffusion rate (Azcon *et al.*, 1996). Under such conditions the role of AM fungi in NO_3^- transport to the root surface may be significant. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi also produce enzymes such as glutamine synthase that are required for the assimilation of NO_3^- into amino acids (Marschner 1995; Tian *et al.*, 2009).

Direct transport of N via the extraradical hyphae of AM fungi has been shown in systems where the mass flow and diffusion of N from a compartment containing root-distant hyphae to another compartment containing roots and root-near hyphae was reduced or prevented (Hawkins *et al.*, 2000; Johansen *et al.*, 1994). Johansen *et al.* (1994), in their experiment showed the external hyphae of *Glomus intraradices* were able to absorb NO_3^- and NH_4^+ and provide them to cucumber plants. The mobility of inorganic P is much lower than inorganic N including NO_3^- indicating that the role of AM fungi in absorbing N may be of less significance than P.

Haystead *et al.*, (1987) investigated whether AM fungal (*Glomus mosseae*) colonisation of perennial ryegrass (*Lolium preenne* L) and clover (*Trifolium repens*) roots can enhance the exchange of nitrogen between the root systems. Their experiment was to determine whether N applied to the clover plants was translocated to the grass plants growing in the same pot and whether this transfer was enhanced by mycorrhizal colonisation. Their findings showed that mycorrhizal colonisation had a significant effect as a source of nitrogen assimilated by the grass plant and the grass shoot nitrogen was derived from the labelled clover source. Feng *et al.*, (2002) investigated plants colonised by *Glomus mosseae* and their utilisation of certain pools of soil N, which are not available to non-mycorrhizal plants. The mycorrhizal inoculum consisted of spore, mycelium and root segments of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi propagated in *Trifolium repens* pot culture. Nitrogen concentration in shoots was not significantly affected by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi but the overall nitrogen content was significantly higher in mycorrhizal plants than in non-mycorrhizal plants. The investigators concluded that arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi may facilitate plant acquisition of nitrogen from sources which were not or less available to non-mycorrhizal plants. Tawaraya *et al.*, (2007) determine the

effects of AM colonisation of roots of *Aloe vera* on nitrogen uptake and growth in peat soil. The *Aloe vera* plants were inoculated with one of two AM fungi, *Glomus clarum* or *Gigaspora decipiens*. Roots in the treatments of both AM fungi were colonised up to 95%, 12 months after transplantation. The nitrogen content was higher in the plants inoculated with *G. clarum* (3.05 mg/g) and *G. decipiens* (3.35 mg/g) compared to the controls which had a concentration of 1.24 mg/g.

1.4.1.3 Water acquisition

Drought is one of the major factors affecting plant growth and yield in dry land areas and AM fungi have been suggested as a factor in increasing tolerance to drastic environmental condition such as drought (Smith and Read 2008; Sylvia *et al.*, 1993) resulting in improved water relations of the host plants. It has been suggested that this phenomenon could be due to improvement of hydraulic conductivity, increase transpiration rate, lowering stomatal resistance, reducing leaf elasticity and increasing effective rooting length and depth (Auge *et al.*, 1987; Bethlenfalvay *et al.*, 1988; Linderman, 1988).

Subramanian *et al.*, (1995) investigated maize (*Zea mays*) growth under drought conditions in a greenhouse experiment where they inoculated maize with the AM fungus *Glomus intraradices*. During the period of drought stress the investigators measured stomatal resistance, transpiration rate and leaf potential of the plant. The mycorrhizal plants had increased leaf water potential, reduced transpiration rate and increased green leaf area (27.5% higher) than the non mycorrhizal plants. Al-Karaki *et al.*, (2004) investigated the effects of AM inoculated wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) cultivars grown in the field under well watered and water-stressed conditions. Wheat seeds were planted with or without the AM fungi *Glomus mosseae* or *G. etunicatum*. Mycorrhizal colonisation was higher in well-watered plants than water-stressed plants and plants inoculated with *G. etunicatum* generally had higher colonisation than plants colonised with *G. mosseae* under both soil moisture conditions. Porcel and Ruiz Lozano (2004) investigated the increased tolerance of mycorrhizal soya beans to drought resulting from increased root length and depth. Ruiz-Lozano *et al.* (1995) evaluated the tolerance of lettuce plants (*Lactuca sativa* L) under drought stress conditions where they inoculated plants with different AM fungal isolates. Seven fungal species belonging to the genus *Glomus* behaved differently but *G. deserticola* had the most effect in improving water deficit tolerance and was associated with the lowest level of

growth reduction (9%) under stress conditions. The growth of plants colonised by *G. occultum* was reduced by 70% after a progressive drought stress period. Concluding that *G. deserticola* is more adapted to drought stress conditions and is a better source of inoculum under these conditions.

1.4.3.4 Plant defence

Pathogenic fungi affect plant health which can lead to economic loss by reducing the yield in the agricultural industry. These pathogens can be root-infecting fungi (Azcon-Aguilar and Barea, 1996). The role of AM fungi in the reduction of plant pathogens is relatively well known. The AM association can protect the host plant in a number of ways. The fungi may be provided a direct physical barrier to protect the root. Biochemical defence mechanisms in which secondary metabolites of fungi defend the mycorrhizal root against pathogen have also been suggested. AM fungal hyphae contain similar surface molecules as pathogenic fungi, including chitin, glucans and oligomers which act as general elicitors of plant defence responses (Azcon-Aguilar and Barea, 1996; Harrison, 2005; Whipps, 2004). AM fungi can reduce the effect of pathogenic fungi in roots by competing with the pathogen fungi in a host plant roots. Pathogenic fungi and AM fungi exploit common resources within the root, including infection sites, space and photosynthates within the root (Larsen and Bodker, 2001; Whipps 2004) and interference competition may also arise due to carbon availability within intercellular spaces and the rhizosphere (Graham 2001).

Another mechanism by which AM fungal colonisation can assist the plant against pathogens is that colonisation can influence the root structure of the host plant which would lead to morphological changes such as more branched root system, allowing for the rapid replacement of damaged or diseased roots (Alah *et al.*, 2005; Paszkowski *et al.*, 2002; Wehner *et al.*, 2009). Interactions between changes in the root system and protection of plant roots from pathogen attack have been demonstrated in several species of AM fungi such as *G. mosseae* and *G. etunicatum* (Matsubara *et al.*, 1995; Trotta *et al.*, 1996; Vigo *et al.*, 2000). Another protective mechanism may be due to the influence of AM fungi on mycorrhizospheric microbial communities, which in turn lead directly to the reduction of fungal pathogen populations in the soil (Larsen *et al.*, 2003).

Larsen *et al.*, (2011) evaluated the interaction of AM fungi and tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentu*) challenged with *Pythium aphanidermatum*. They used *G. intraradices*, *G. mosseae* and *G. clariodeum*. *Pythium* recovery from roots colonised by *G. intraradices* and *G. clariodeum* was 71% and 76% lower than from roots of non- inoculated plants, whereas the *Pythium* recovery from roots colonised by *G. mosseae* did not differ from that of the non-inoculated plants.

Watenarojanaporn *et al.*, (2011) investigated AM colonisation of citrus plants by AM fungi to determine whether it can reduce infection of *Phytophthora nicotianae* root rot in citrus. They isolated different AM fungi from the rhizosphere of a citrus orchard and used them to inoculate three commercial citrus cultivars, C-35 citrange (rootstock), Shogun and Tangerine to screen for effective AM fungi. AM colonisation in citrus roots differed for each isolate. *Acaulospora tuberculata* were the most effective AM species colonising all citrus cultivars, followed by *G. etunicatum*, *A. scrobiculata*, *G. caledonium*, *G. aggregatum* and *G. clarum*, while the lowest colonisation rates were found in roots colonised with *Sclerocystis sp.* and *G. calospora*. Shogun roots inoculated with *G. etunicatum* or *A. tuberculata* or *A. scrobiculata* showed the best colonisation rates of 60.13%, 62.36%, and 60.10%, respectively whereas *Sclerocystis sp.* revealed the least colonisation rate of 17.68%. Tangerine roots inoculated with *G. etunicatum* or *A. tuberculata* had significantly higher percentage colonisation (50.73% and 50.17%, respectively). C-35 citrange inoculated roots, showed the greatest colonisation rate produced by *A. tuberculata* at 70.89%, followed by *G. etunicatum*, *A. scrobiculata*, and *G. caledonium*. The rootstocks infected by both *P. nicotianae* and AM fungi showed reduced root injury and those inoculated with AM strain showed healthy roots which were more straight and longer than those of *P. nicotianae* treatment (Watenarojanaporn *et al.*,2011).

1.7 Mycorrhiza helper bacteria

Mycorrhizal interactions are not limited to the plant and fungus. It also involves interactions between other soil microorganisms. The interaction between mycorrhizal fungi and other microorganisms have been shown to contribute towards the symbiotic relationship and are able to promote mycorrhizal development (Garbaye, 1994). A diverse group of bacteria that

interact with the mycorrhizal fungi are known as Mycorrhizal Helper Bacteria (MHB) (Frey-Klett *et al.*, 2007).

MHB can be found from taxonomically diverse bacterial groups and these bacteria sometimes are closely associated with the mycorrhizal fungus because they are usually fungal-specific but not plant specific (Garbaye, 1994). Duponnois and Garbaye (1991) and Garbaye, (1994) proposed several possible mechanisms in which the MHB could be beneficial to mycorrhizal fungi, these included: MHB could soften the cell wall and the middle lamella between the cell root cortex by producing specific enzymes such as endoglucanases and hydrolases thereby making fungal penetration easier; the MHB interferes with the plant-fungus recognition mechanism where the attachment of bacteria to either the root or fungi or both can improve the cell wall properties or facilitate the establishment of the symbiosis; the MHB assist the fungus during asymbiotic stages in the soil and lastly the metabolic activity of the MHB in the soil can modify the physio-chemical properties in a way that could assist in mycorrhizal colonisation.

The process of recognition between the host plant and mycorrhizal fungus includes the reception of the plant signals by fungal mycelium, chemotrophic hyphal extension growth to the prospective colonisation sites and characteristic changes in mycelia and hyphal morphology which results in establishment in the root. MHB may stimulate fungal growth during the asymbiotic and presymbiotic phases such as spore germination and mycelia growth through soil and on the root surface. Root susceptibility to colonisation may also be enhanced by MHB resulting in increased colonisation (Bowen, 1993). Examples of MHB include strains of Gram-negative Proteobacteria (*Agrobacterium* and *Pseudomonas*), Gram-positive Firmicutes (*Bacillus*, *Brevibacillus*, *Paenibacillus*) and Gram-positive Actinomycetes (*Rhodococcus*, *Streptomyces*, *Arthrobacter*) (Frey-Klett *et al.*, 2007).

The presence of MHB may enhance spore germination by affecting the spore wall through production of stimulants such as CO₂ or by affecting the AM fungal capacity to absorb P and thus support fungal growth. *Pseudomonas* isolated from fungal spores has been shown to stimulate germination of *Glomus versiforme* (Mayo *et al.*, 1986). The presences of MHB can assist in stress alleviation, controlling of pathogens and increase nutrient availability (Barea *et al.*, 2002; Frey-Klett *et al.*, 2007). The presences of MHB can also stimulate the formation of mycorrhizal fungi and hence the term MHB. Budi *et al.*, (1999) showed *Paenibacillus* spp isolated from *Glomus masseae* spores were able to stimulate mycorrhizal formation in

sorghum. Xavier and Germid, (2003) showed that *Bacillus* spp isolated from *G. clarum* spores increased colonisation by 28 % in pea roots. Pivato *et al.*, (2009) tested if bacterial isolates isolated from mycorrhizal spores and showed they were able to promote mycorrhizal development in *Medicago truncatula*. *P.fluorescens* C7R12 promoted growth and root colonisation of *G mosseae* BEG12, indicating that *P. fluorescens* sp acted as MHB.

There is an increasing interest in agriculture for safe and environmentally friendly alternatives to control plant diseases to replace conventional pesticides. MHB could potentially be used in nurseries to promote mycorrhizal development in seedlings and prevent attack by phytopathogens (Frey-Klett and Garbaye 2005). Li *et al.*, (2007) found that *Paenibacillus* spp isolated from AM spores had biological control abilities against *Phythium* which caused damping off in cucumbers reducing disease by 78 %.

Bharadwaj *et al.*, (2008) in investigating the role of MHB on how they affect potato growth and colonisation of potato roots by *G mosseae* in a greenhouse and field experiment found that AM colonisation of potato roots was higher in the presences of *Pseudomonas* sp by over 50 % in the greenhouse and *Stenotrophomonas* and *Arthrobacter* isolates were highly effective in the field experiment by increasing the biomass by 15 %. *Pseudomonas* sp also showed an inhibitory effect against both bacterial and fungal pathogens such as *Erwina carotova*, *Phytophthora* and *Verticillium* sp. *Pseudomonas* sp are known to produce protease, siderophores and Indole Acetic Acid which are possible mechanisms that contributed to their positive response.

Alam *et al.*, (2011) reported synergetic effects of the plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) *Bacillus subtilis* and AM fungi which increased the total yield of *Pelargonium graveolens* (rose geranium). *Glomus aggregatum*, *G. intraradices* and *G. mosseae* were used alone and in combination with *Bacillus subtilis* to evaluate their capacity in increasing productivity of *Pelargonium graveolens* in this study. Inoculation with *G. mosseae* increased in total biomass and essential oil content. Freita and Vildoso (2004) performed three greenhouse trials with MHB to see whether they can promote citrus plant growth using fluorescent *Pseudomonas* and *Bacillus* spp, and seven other rhizospheric bacteria. There were tested in three rootstocks seedlings: Cleopatra mandarin (*Citrus reshni*), Rangpure lime (*Citrus limonia*) and Volkamerian lemon (*Citrus volkameriana*). Depending on the rootstock, seven *Pseudomonas*, one isolate of *Bacillus* and one of other rhizospheric bacteria

increased the root or shoot dry weight, indicating a high proportion of growth promoters among the fluorescent pseudomonads.

Although MHB have shown positive results in promoting plant growth and colonisation by AM fungi, the evidence is not always as clear cut. Pirlak and Kose, (2008) investigated the growth promoting effects of foliar and root application of *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas* strains on strawberry yield. Results indicated significant increase in plant growth compared to the controls although the bacterial effect did not influence the average fruit weight and yield.

1.8 Plant growth promoting rhizobacteria

Rhizobacteria are found at the root soil interface. Interactions between plant roots and rhizobacteria that increase plant growth have been termed plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) through any beneficial activity concerning plant growth improvement (Kennedy *et al.*, 1997; Kloepper *et al.*, 1991; Pattern and Glick, 2002).

A number of bacterial species have been shown to have plant growth activity and belong to the genera *Pseudomonas*, *Bacillus*, *Rhizobium*, *Burkholderia*, *Enterobacter*, *Arthrobacter*, *Flavobacterium* and *Azospirillum* spp (Kim *et al.*, 2010; Kohler *et al.*, 2009; Okon and Kapulnik 1986). PGPR have a positive effect on plant growth and their influence can be either direct or indirect (Rodriguez and Faga, 1999). Indirect growth promotion is due to the decrease or prevention of deleterious effects of pathogenic microorganisms due to the synthesis of antibiotics or siderophores by the rhizobacteria. Direct promotion mechanisms may be due to the production of phytohormones like Indole Acetic Acid (IAA) (Pattern and Glick, 2002), nitrogen fixation, synthesis of enzymes that modulate the level of plant hormones, production of amino- cyclopropane carboxylate (ACC) deaminase to reduce the level of ethylene in the roots of the developing plants thereby increasing the root length and growth, phosphate solubilisation and nutrient uptake and growth under water stress (Malekzadeh *et al.* 2011; Marschner and Dell 1994; Sarig *et al.*, 1988).

PGPR are able to assist plants in acquiring nutrients from soil and such as *Rhizobium* and *Azospirillum* sp are able to increase the AM fungal development by affecting root colonisation as well as by enhancing plant N and P uptake (Artursson *et al.*, 2005). The production of extracellular polysaccharides by *Azospirillum* and *Rhizobium* significantly

enhance attachment of the bacterial strains to mycorrhizal roots and AM fungal structures (Miransari, 2011). The growth promotion activities of these rhizobacteria have been related to root formation, nutrient cycling, seedling emergence and nodulation (Kloepper *et al.*, 1991). Figueiredo *et al.*, (2008) evaluated the effects of PGPR on nodulation and nitrogen fixation on growth of *Phaseolus vulgaris* (bean) in a greenhouse experiment for 40 days. Seeds were inoculated and/or co-inoculated with *Rhizobium tropici*, *Bacillus endophyticus*, *B. pumilus*, *B. subtilis*, *Paenibacillus lautus*, *P. macerans* and *P. polymyxa*. Five bean seeds were sown in each pot and inoculated with 5 ml pot⁻¹ of liquid culture containing *Rhizobium sp.* and *Bacillus sp.* and/or *Paenibacillus spp.* Beans co-inoculated with *Rhizobium tropici* and *Paenibacillus polymyxa* had higher leghaemoglobin concentrations, nitrogenase activity and N₂ fixation efficiency indicating that the dual inoculation stimulated nodulation as well as nitrogen fixation. Esitken *et al.*, (2006) investigated the growth promoting effects of *Pseudomonas* BA-8 and *Bacillus* OSU-142. Experimental plants were grown over a period of 2 years and after harvesting a significant increase in yield was obtained in the plants that were treated with *Pseudomonas* compared to control plants. Orhan *et al.*, (2006) evaluated plant growth effects of *Bacillus* OSU-142 and *Bacillus* M3 on raspberry fruit yield, and inoculated the plant roots with the bacterial suspensions using root dip. Results showed the yield was significantly increased by *Bacillus* M3 compared to the control but there was no increase in plants that were treated with *Bacillus* OSU-142. Alagawadi and Gaur (1988) inoculated chickpea with *Rhizobium sp* and *Pseudomonas sp* in trying to increase yield and the PGPR were able to increase the nodulation, dry matter content yield and nitrogen and phosphorus uptake significantly over un-inoculated plants.

PGPR have been shown to have the ability to solubilise phosphate contributing to nutrient acquisition (Richardson *et al.*, 2009). Kim *et al.*, (1997) evaluated the synergetic effects of AM fungi and phosphate solubilising bacteria (PSB) on P uptake and tomato growth. Tomato seedlings were inoculated with the *Glomus etunicatum* alone and in combination with *Enterobacter agglomerans*. Inoculation with *E. agglomerans* and *G. etunicatum* alone and *E. agglomerans* + *G. etunicatum* in combination increased plant growth by 40 % compared with the control. Significantly higher soluble phosphorus concentrations were observed in treatments of *E. agglomerans* and *E. agglomerans* + *G. etunicatum* compared to uninoculated seedling. There was no significant difference in soluble P concentration in the rhizosphere between treatments with time. De Ferreira *et al.*, (2008) investigated the role of phosphate

solubilising bacteria (PSB) in promoting rice growth in pot trails. Shoot height and root length increased but there was no significant increase in the shoot dry matter.

PGPR have been shown to alter several hormonal pathways which may lead to different morphological changes in plant roots, such as lateral root initiation, elongation and root hair development (Beneduzi *et al.*, 2008). Indole Acetic Acid (IAA) production is considered as the most important tool in screening for beneficial plant growth promoting bacteria as there have been several studies that showed IAA producing bacteria to have a positive effect on plant growth (Shahab *et al.*, 2009). IAA is produced from tryptophan via the intermediate indole acetic amide. PGPR synthesise IAA predominantly by alternate tryptophan dependent pathway through indole pyruvic acid (Pattern and Glick, 2002).

Ahmad *et al.*, (2003) evaluated *Pseudomonas* and *Azotobacter* isolates for IAA production and their effects on root elongation was evaluated in different concentrations of tryptophan, of 0, 1, 2, and 5 mg/ml. Without tryptophan, the root elongation of germinating seeds of *Sesbania aculeata* and *Vigna radiata* was highest with *Azotobacter* isolate Azs9, followed by Azs1 and Azs6, compared to the control, whereas the root length decreased in *Pseudomonas* isolates at 1 and 2 mg/ml tryptophan concentrations in *S. aculeata* and in *V. radiata*. In the case of *V. radiata* at 2 mg/ml of tryptophan only Azs9 showed significant root elongation. At a 5mg/ml tryptophan concentration in both *S. aculeata* and *V. radiata* the root elongation decreased in the presence of all isolates, which lead to the conclusion that tryptophan at a 5 mg/ml concentration was toxic in the presence of test bacteria.

Pattern and Glick, 2002 investigated if IAA was involved in the stimulation of root growth by *Pseudomonas putida* GR12-2. The *ipdc* gene encoding indolepyruvate decarboxylase, which catalyzes a key step in the indole pyruvic acid pathway for IAA synthesis, was isolated. An IAA-deficient mutant was constructed by insertional mutagenesis of *ipdc*. Mung beans were used as the test plant. Their results concluded that IAA produced by *P. putida* GR12-2 had a significant impact on the ability of this bacterium to stimulate the growth of the primary roots of mung beans. The roots from seeds treated with wild-type *P. putida* GR12-2 were on average 35% longer than the roots from uninoculated control seeds, the lengths of roots from seeds treated with the IAA deficient mutant were not different from the lengths of roots from uninoculated control seeds. IAA produced from the wild-type strain had no effect on shoot length. PGPR inoculation was also shown to promote cell division of wheat roots (Levanony

and Bashman 1986) and increased the diameter and length of lateral roots in maize and enhanced root hair production (Kapulnik and Okon 1983).

Some reports have shown that the PGPR have biological control activity (Field *et al.*, 2008). Some PGPR, especially if inoculated on the seed before planting, are able to establish themselves on the crop roots and use scarce resources which then lead to limiting or preventing the of pathogenic microorganisms (Khalid *et al.*, 2004, Kloepper 1991). Siderophore production is usually an important mechanism for biological activity of PGPR. Siderophores are synthesised by PGPR to compete with fungal pathogens for iron uptake as they are iron chelators that are usually produced by bacteria under conditions of iron deficiency (Saha *et al.*, 2012). Siderophores display a selectivity for iron that is reflected in the corresponding complex stability constant that is higher with Fe^{3+} than with Al^{3+} or with bivalent cations like Ca^{2+} , Cu^{2+} or Zn^{2+} (Wandersman and Delepelaire, 2004). PGPR excrete desferrisiderophores in order to scavenge iron from the environment (Robinson *et al.*, 2003).

Wahyudi *et al* (2011), using *Bacillus* sp as a plant growth promoter in a soybean greenhouse experiment, found that 12 *Bacillus* isolates had the ability to promote growth in plants due to the production of siderophores. In a study by Datta *et al.*, (2011) PGPR isolated from the rhizosphere of chilli that were evaluated for plant promoting characteristics in pot trails. Although the strains were not identified, C2 and C32 were able to increase growth and productivity in the experiment concluding that it could be due to the fact that C2 and C32 were able to produce siderophores. Strain C2 and C32 also showed some biological control activity against *Fusarium* sp.

1.9 Pathogens of Citrus

Citrus fruit are amongst the most important crops in terms of total yield worldwide and rank first in international fruit trade in terms of value. More than seven million hectares of citrus are planted throughout the world (Cacciola and Magnano di San Lio, 2008). South Africa is the world's second largest exporter of fresh citrus and is ranked the 14th in citrus production (Sibiya, 2010). According to the Citrus Growers Association of Southern Africa, South Africa produced 1.64 % of the world fresh citrus in 2010. The genera *Phytophthora* and *Pythium* cause the most serious soil borne diseases of plants. Both genera belong to the class oomycetes and the most prevalent *Phytophthora* sp that affect citrus plants are *Phytophthora*

citrophthora, *Phytophthora nicotianae* and *Phytophthora palmivora* and for *Pythium* sp, *Pythium ultimum* the one that is most harmful in citrus. These species can cause brown rot and gummosis on the trunk of the trees (Graham *et al.*, 1998). Root rot is most harmful when plants are grafted onto a susceptible rootstock resulting in a slow decline of the tree; the leaves turn light green and may drop depending on the level of infection. Root rot can be difficult to detect by visual inspection because it has symptoms similar to those caused by other factors such as reduced soil aeration and excessive salt content in irrigation water. The disease destroys the feeder roots of the susceptible rootstock and the pathogen infects the root cortex which turns soft and separates from the stele limiting nutrient uptake (Coccialia and Magnano Di San Lio, 2008). These species if not controlled can cause high yield losses, when the pathogens are present in high populations (Bowman *et al.*, 2007). The presence of *Phytophthora* sp is usually associated with periods of prolonged wetness exceeding 7 days and temperatures ranging from 23°C to 32°C (Graham and Timmer, 1992).

Outbreaks of *Phytophthora* have been reported in Florida. In trying to find clear explanation of the *Phytophthora* spp that was causing an outbreak of citrus brown rot in Florida during the period of 1994 to 1995 Graham *et al.*, (1998) characterised the isolates using morphological methods, pathogenicity and the symptoms on citrus fruit, mating behaviour and cellulose acetate electrophoresis for enzyme analysis. The cause of that outbreak was not caused by *P. nicotianae* as suspected but by the *P. palmivora*. Methods used to detect and identify *Phytophthora* species involved baiting from the soil or isolation by means of selective media from infected plant tissue or soil then followed by pure-culturing the organism and identifying based on their morphological characteristics (Timmer *et al.*, 1998) but these procedures are time and labour consuming, and have subsequently been replaced by molecular methods.

Molecular detection methods developed include PCR with species specific primers, nested PCR as well as real time PCR (Ippolito *et al.*, 2002; Ippolito *et al.*, 2004). These methods are more sensitive, highly specific and rapid. Ippolito *et al.*, (2004) described the development of PCR primers from the internal transcribed space ITS (internal transcribed spacer) regions and their use in a nested PCR assay to detect *Phytophthora* species in citrus roots and soil. Bowman *et al.*, (2007) investigated whether molecular methods based on the ITS–fingerprinting can be effectively used for the detection and identification of *Phytophthora* spp of citrus under controlled conditions of greenhouse. They found PCR amplification of ribosomal ITS regions is a valuable tool for detecting and identifying the *Phytophthora* spp.

1.10 Management for citrus pathogens

The common and wide spread occurrence of *Phytophthora* spp that are pathogenic to citrus continue to have a great influence on production and control can be achieved by adapting safer cultural practices and using preventative measures (Cacciola and Magnona di San Lio, 2008). *Phytophthora* diseases are mostly managed by fungicides, use of tolerant rootstocks and biological control agents which reduce infections and increase yield (Colburn and Graham, 2007). Control of root rot of citrus begins with the production of disease free seedlings since most *Phytophthora* associated with citrus root rot in the field probably originates from infested nursery stock (Ippolito *et al.*, 2002; Menge and Nemecek, 1997).

The most commonly used agrochemicals are metalaxyl and Al-ethyl-phosphite (fosetyl –Al). These fungicides are effective against both *P. citrophthora* and *P. nicotianae* but there are slight differences in the range of action, fosetyl-Al is more effective against *P. citrophthora* whereas metalaxyl is more effective against *P. nicotianae* (Cacciola and Magnona di San Lio, 2008). Afek and Szejnberg (1989) in their research of determining the mode of action of fosetyl-Al in citrus found that low concentrations of fosetyl-Al act against *P. citrophthora* by increasing the plant defence mechanisms against the pathogens and that higher concentration are fungistatic. There is an increasing concern about the use of chemicals in the environment and pathogens have acquired a degree of resistance to chemical fungicides (Levy *et al.*, 1983).

Resistance of metalaxyl has been detected in *Phytophthora* species like *P. nicotianae* as well as in *Pythium* species so the restriction on the use of soil fumigants and the emergence of metalaxyl- resistance populations have shifted the focus of *Phytophthora* disease control to alternative strategies including the use of biological control agents. Studies regarding the use of alternative methods have investigated the efficacy of various fungal and bacterial biological control agents against species of *Phytophthora* and *Pythium* causing root rot in citrus. *Chaetomium*, *Penicillium* and *Trichoderma* species are biological control agents that have shown promising results. Field trials have shown that *Chaetomium* formulated bioproducts have promising results as a broad spectrum mycofungicide to control many diseases and *Penicillium funiculosum* could inhibit the growth of *P. parasitica* and *P. citrophthora* (Soytong *et al.*, 2001; Fang and Tsao, 1995). Kean *et al.*, (2010) compared

chemical fungicides and biofungicide products against citrus root rot caused by *Pythium ultimum*, they tested biological fungicides from *Chaetomium* spp and *Trichoderma* spp and used metalaxyl as a chemical fungicide. Their results showed that fungicides from biological products can work as effectively as the chemical fungicides (Kean *et al.*, 2010).

MOTIVATION

Citrus is an economically important agricultural product in South Africa as it is the world's second largest exporter of fresh citrus and is ranked the 14th in citrus production (Sibiya, 2010). Production is heavily reliant on chemical inputs and as orchards are in production for several years, sustainability of soil and is environmentally of importance. This study investigates the role of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and their associated bacteria as an alternative form of growth promotion in seedlings and associated bacteria as a form of biological control against citrus pathogens. AM fungi are the most common mycorrhizal type and are associated with a wide variety of host plants. AM fungi are different from other fungi as they have the ability to create an interface for nutrients exchange which occurs within living cells of the plant (Brundrett, 2004), but the function of mycorrhizal fungi goes further than nutrient acquisition, they also provide several other benefits to the host plant which include access to less labile nutrients from organic and complexed inorganic sources, enhanced water uptake, resistance to pathogenic fungi and harmful bacteria as well as protection against heavy metal in the soil (Martino *et al.*, 2009). The use of AM fungi in agriculture is also of importance as the established mutualistic symbiosis acts as a living bridge between soil and plants. It has the potential to sustainably increase citrus production by providing alternative pathways of nutrient plant uptake due to the increased access to the soil environment. The AM fungi affect the physicochemical characteristics of the substrate and contribute to the formation and maintenance of soil structure, enmeshing soil particles by means of extraradical hyphae and their exudates and residues (Tisdall and Oades, 1982) and produce glomalin, a protein extracted from the soil as glomalin-related soil protein, which plays a key role in soil stability (Bedini *et al.*, 2009; Rillig *et al.*, 2002). Although there are many mycorrhizal benefits the promotion of plant growth in association with interacting bacteria was of interest in this study.

HYPOTHESIS

The combined use of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and associated bacteria can improve citrus growth and health.

OBJECTIVES

1. Isolation of bacteria from AM fungal spores
2. Assessment of antagonist activity of bacterial isolates against *Phytophthora*.
3. Evaluation of plant growth promoting properties of bacterial isolates
4. Identification of selected bacterial isolates
5. Investigating whether bacterial isolates associated with AM fungi are important for mycorrhizal establishment and plant growth.

CHAPTER 2
MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Isolation of arbuscular mycorrhizal spores and associated bacteria

Composite soil samples were collected from organically managed soils under citrus trees and spores were extracted using the wet sieving and decanting method (Smith and Dickson, 1997). Three hundred grams of soil was weighed and placed in a beaker. A soil solution was made by adding approximately 500 ml of water to the soil. The solution was stirred to free spores from particles and allowed to settle for 45 sec. The supernatant was decanted through a nest of sieves having mesh sizes of 425 µm, 250 µm, 125 µm and 45 µm. The sieves were then washed and the debris from the 425 µm discarded. The debris from the remainder of the sieves were washed into 50 ml centrifuge tubes and filled with water. The spores were then centrifuged using Megafuge 1.0R centrifuge for 5 min at 1900 rpm. The supernatant was discarded. The pellet was resuspended in 60% sucrose solution and centrifuged for a further 5 min. The supernatant was filtered through a Buchner funnel onto a grided filter paper disc and rinsed with distilled water. The filter paper was then transferred to the lid of a clean petri dish. The spores were examined under a Leica S 4E dissecting microscope and collected for bacterial isolations. Six extractions were done in order to obtain sufficient spores

2.1.1 Bacteria associated with AM spores

2.1.1.1 External bacterial isolation

Ten spores of the AM fungi were placed in a 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube with 0.2% sterile saline/Tween solution. The tube was vortexed and the spores were allowed to soak. A sample from the solution was then diluted to 10^{-3} with sterile distilled water and 0.1 ml aliquots were spread plated on Nutrient Agar (NA) Biolab (Catalogue No HG000C1.500) plates and incubated at 37°C for 72 hrs. Single distinct colonies were selected and discontinuously streaked onto NA plates to establish pure cultures. Colony morphology was recorded.

2.1.1.2 Internal bacterial isolation

Ten AM fungal spores isolated from the soil were selected and surfaced sterilised by soaking them in a solution of ampicillin (50µg/ml), chloramphenicol (50µg/ml) and rifampicin

(100µg/ml) for 30 min in a 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube. The tubes were centrifuged in a Hangzhou Allsheng Instrument Super Mini Centrifuge at 10 000 rpm for 15 min to pellet the spores and the antibiotic solution was removed. Thereafter chloramine T was added to the spores and left for soak for 30 min. Spores were subsequently rinsed 5 times after centrifugation in sterile 0.2% saline. After the last rinse spores were crushed using a sterile micropestle to release the internal bacteria into the sterile saline. The saline containing the crushed spores was serial diluted to 10^{-3} and 0.1 ml aliquots were spread plated onto NA plates. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 72 hours. Single distinct colonies were selected and discontinuously streaked onto NA plates to establish pure cultures. Colony morphology was recorded.

Pure cultures of the externally and internally isolated bacteria were inoculated in 0.5 ml of Nutrient Broth (NB) Biolab (Catalogue No HG000C24.500) and incubated overnight at 37°C. An equal quantity of sterile 50% glycerol solution was added to the culture and vortexed. Replicates of all the cultures were stored in a -20°C and -80°C freezer.

2.2 Morphological identification

2.2.1 Gram staining

Gram staining is a procedure used to distinguish between Gram positive and Gram negative bacteria resulting from their differences in the chemical and physical properties of the cell wall. Gram stains were performed on all isolates to ensure that the isolates were purified as well as to determine the shape and Gram reaction of the cells. For each isolate, a smear was prepared by transferring a drop of water on the slide and picking a colony from the pure isolate. The smear was heat fixed. The smear was flooded with crystal violet stain for 60 sec turning the bacteria a dark purple colour. The smear was gently rinsed to remove excess stain with a stream of water. The smear was flooded with iodine solution and left to stand for 30 sec. The iodine which fixed the crystal violet solution was poured off and rinsed with water. The excess water from the surface was gently shaken off. The smear was decolorized with 94 % ethanol for 5 sec. The ethanol dissolves the lipids in the cell wall. The smear was then counterstained with a safranin solution for 20 sec. After the smear was rinsed, it was allowed to dry. Bacterial isolates were examined under oil immersion on a Nikon YS100 compound microscope. Gram positive bacteria have a thicker peptidoglycan (dissacharrides and amino

acids) layer than the Gram negative bacteria (Black, 2008). During the crystal violet staining Gram positive cells retain the stain due to their peptidoglycan layer but in Gram negative the ethanol wash disrupt the outer lipopolysaccharide layer and the crystal violet- iodine complex is washed away through the thin layer of peptidoglycan. The Gram negative cells become colourless until counterstained with safranin in which they retain the pink colour (Black, 2008). Gram reaction as well as cell shape was recorded. Gram stain reaction was used to determine the morphology for identification purposes

2.3 Evaluation of bacteria properties

2.3.1 Phosphate solubilisation

The bacterial isolates were grown overnight in NB at 37°C in a 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube for 24 hrs. Their concentrations were measured at a wavelength of 660 nm in UV mini-120 UV-VIS spectrophotometer. The concentrations were adjusted to an OD reading of 0.5 by diluting with sterile 0.2% saline. Phosphate-solubilising potential of the bacterial isolates was tested using modified phosphate medium-NBRIP (National Botanical Research Institute's Phosphate growth medium, (Mehta and Nautiyal, 2001). The media contained 10 g glucose, 5 g $\text{CaHPO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 5 g $\text{MgCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 0.25 g $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 0.2 g KCL, 0.1 g $(\text{NH}_4)_2 \text{SO}_4$ and 15 g of agar in 1 L. The media was autoclaved and poured into Petri dishes. On each plate four wells were punched using a sterile glass puncher and 50 μl of the bacterial suspension was added to each well (Fig 2.1). The plates were incubated for 24 hrs at 37°C. Phosphate solubilisers produce clearing zones around the colonies in media containing insoluble $\text{CaHPO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Rodriguez and Fraga, 1999). Five replicates of each bacterial isolate were used and controls were inoculated with sterile saline.

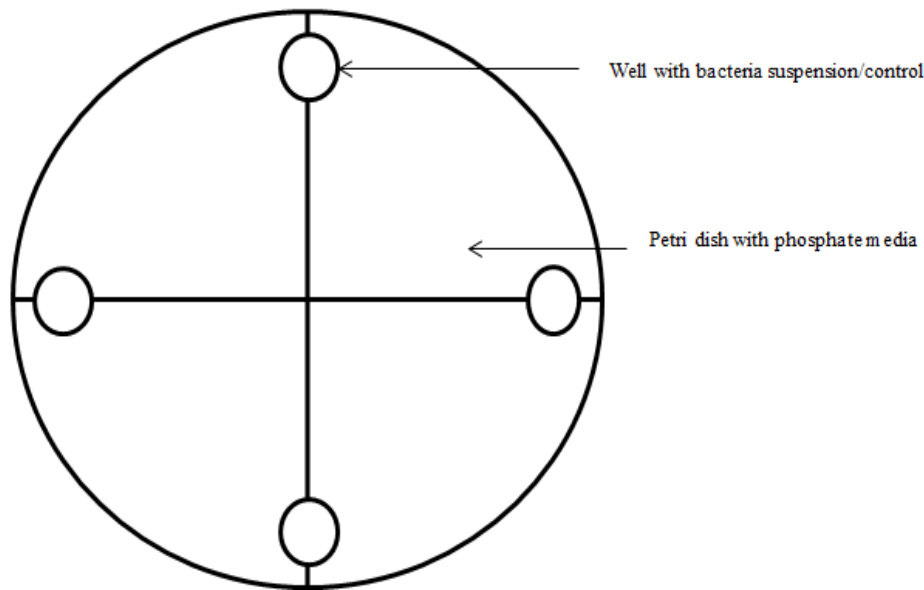


Figure 2.1: Experimental plate design used for testing phosphate solubilisation method

2.3.2 Indole acetic acid production

The bacterial isolates were grown in 1.5 ml DEV Tryptophan Broth (Merck Catalogue No: 1106940500) for 3 days at 37°C. This media contains L-tryptophan which is a precursor for the formation of Indole Acetic Acid (IAA). Cells were centrifuged at (4500 rpm for 20 min) and 500 µl of the supernatant was added to 600 µl, Kovacs Reagent (Merck Catalogue No: 1092930100). A colour change to red was indicative of IAA production (Cappuccino and Sherman, 2005). Five replicates for each bacterial isolate were performed. Un-inoculated broth was used as a control.

2.3.3 Fungal pathogen inhibition

Fungal pathogen inhibition experiments were conducted to determine if any of the bacterial isolates had an inhibitory effect against the citrus pathogens, *Phytophthora citrophthora* (PPRI 10961), *P. citrocola* (PPRI 10963), and *P. nicotianae* (PPRI 10962) obtained from National Collection of Fungi. *Phytophthora* isolates were grown on Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) (Bidab Catalogue No HG00C100.500) for 7 days at 25°C. Bacteria were grown in NB at 37°C for 24 hrs in 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube. The optical densities of the bacterial culture were measured at 660 nm in a spectrophotometer, and were adjusted to an OD reading with the lowest concentration value by diluting with sterile saline. The lowest OD for the isolates

was 0.5. A volume of 50 μ l of the bacterial isolates was inoculated into wells on PDA plates at four points along a perpendicular axis. A plug of the fungal pathogen (*Phytophthora*) was placed in the middle of the PDA plate (Fig 2.2). The fungal growth was measured (mm) along the two perpendicular axes for approximately 14 days. Five replicates of each bacterial isolate were used as well as five control plates which contain sterile saline instead of bacterial isolates. Growth curves were plotted to determine the effect of bacterial isolates.

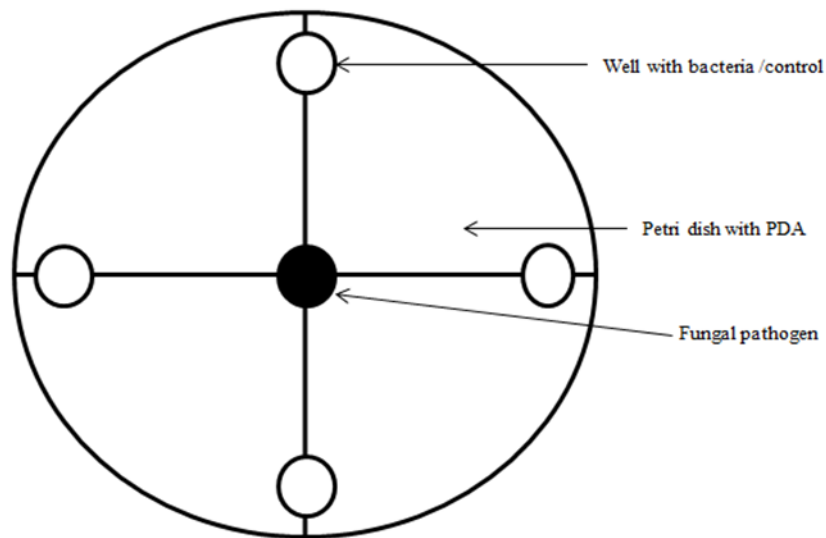


Figure 2.2 Experimental plate design used for fungal growth inhibition studies

2.3.4 Metabolite inhibition assay

From the initial fungal inhibition results three bacterial isolates were tested against *Phytophthora citrophthora*, *P.citrocola*, and *P.nicotianae*. These three bacterial isolates were tested for the presence of secreted compounds that could have any inhibitory effect on these pathogens. The bacterial isolates were grown overnight in NB at 37°C in 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube. The cells were centrifuged at 10.000 rpm for 5 min to pellet the cells and the supernatant was retained. The fungal pathogens were grown in 2.5% Malt Extract Broth (MEB) Bidab (Catalogue No HG00C10.500) and incubated at 28°C on a rotary shaker for 7 days. A blender was used to homogenise each isolate and their OD was measured at 600 nm and were adjusted to 0.5 OD by diluting with 2.5% MEB.

The fungal inhibition experiment was set up on a 96 well micro-titre plate. In column 1A to 1E the wells were filled with 100 µl of NB as a control, column 2A to 2E were filled with 100µl of MEB as a control, column 3A to 3E wells were filled with 100 µl of bacterial suspension 1, 4A to 4E wells were filled with 100 µl of bacterial suspension 2, 5A to 5E wells were filled with 100 µl of bacterial suspension 3, 6A to 6E wells were filled with 100 µl *Phytophthora citrophthora*, 7A to 7E wells were filled with 50 µl bacterial suspension 1 plus 50 µl *P. citrophthora*, 8A to 8E wells were filled with 50 µl bacteria 2 and 50 µl *P. citrophthora*, 9A to 9E wells were filled with 50 µl bacterial suspension 3 and 50 µl *P. citrophthora*, 10A to 10E wells were filled with sterile distilled water as an additional control and to maintain humidity. This experiment was repeated for, *P. citrocola*, and *P. nicotianae*. Five replicates (A - E) were made for each fungal isolates Table 2.1. The plates were incubated at 28°C and the optical density was measured for 5 days using a Bio-Tek Instruments Power Wave X at an absorbance of 600 nm.

Table 2.1: Metabolites inhibition assay. Experimental design of microtitre plates.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	NB	MEB	BS1	BS2	BS3	F	BS1+F	BS2+F	BS3+F	s.dH₂O
A-	NB	MEB				Fungal		Treatments		Additional
E	Control	Control	Supernatant			control				control

NB - Nutrient Broth, MEB - Malt Extract Broth, BS1- Bacterial suspension of isolate E5, BS2- Bacterial suspension of isolate E9, BS3- Bacterial suspension of isolate I19, F - Fungal pathogen, s.dH₂O - Sterile distilled water

Percentage inhibition of pathogen growth was calculated.

$$\% I = 100 (C-T)/C$$

Where I= inhibition of pathogen growth,

C= growth of pathogen and

T= treatment growth (Prasanna *et al.*, 2010)

2.4 Molecular identification of selected bacterial isolates`

2.4.1.DNA Extraction

The bacteria isolates were grown overnight in NB at 37°C in 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tubes. DNA was extracted using the ZR Fungal/Bacterial DNA Mini-Prep kit (Catalogue No D6005) according to the manufacturer's instructions. A 200 µl bacterial suspension was placed in a Bashing Bead lysis tube before the addition of 750 µl of lysis solution to the tube. The tube was centrifuged for 5 min at 10,000 rpm in-order to break the cell wall and remove the lipid membrane. The ZR BashingBead™ lysis tube was then centrifuged in a microcentrifuge at 10,000 rpm for 1 min.

The supernatant of volume (400µl) was transferred into a Zymo-Spin™ IV Spin Filter and centrifuged at 7,000 rpm for 1 min, after which 1200 µl of Binding Buffer was added to the filtrate in the collection tube to bind to the DNA while other molecules remain in the filtrate and 800 µl of the filtrate was transferred to a Zymo-Spin™ IIC Column and was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 1 min. The procedure was repeated with the remaining mixture before adding 200 µl DNA Pre-Wash Buffer to the Zymo- Spin IIC Column to wash away the impurities, prior to centrifuging at 10,000 rpm for 1 minute in a new collection tube. Thereafter 500 µl DNA Wash Buffer were added to the Zymo-Spin IIC Column which was centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for a min. The empty tube was centrifuged again to remove excess buffer. The Zymo- Spin Column was transferred into a clean 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube prior to adding 100 µl of DNA Elution Buffer directly to the column matrix and centrifuging at 10,000 rpm for 30 sec for final DNA elution. extracted DNA (10 µl) was evaluated using electrophoresis in a 0.5 µg/ml ethidium bromide stained 1% (w/v) agarose gel and a 100 bp DNA molecular marker (Promega Catalogue no G210A) was used to estimate the size of the DNA. The gel was run for 45 min at 100V. Visualization was carried out on a UV Fluorescence Uvitec Gel Doc System.

2.4.2 Polymerase Chain Reaction amplification

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) is a technique used for amplification of a double stranded DNA template by using short single stranded DNA fragments which are called primers in a

presence of an enzyme *Taq* polymerase (Black, 2008). Amplification of the 16S rDNA bacterial gene was carried out with a reaction volume of 50 µl with 5 µl template DNA, 2 µl of Fd1 and 2 µl of rP2 primers (Weisburg *et al.*, 1991), 25 µl of KAPA Biosystems (Catalogue KK1024) ready mix containing Kapa *Taq* DNA polymerase (0.05 U/ul 1.25 µl per 25 µl), reaction buffer, MgCl₂, 0.4 mM for each dNTP, loading dye and 16 µl of sterile distilled water.

Table 2.2: Oligonucleotides for 16S rDNA gene sequence analysis used in this study

Primer	Sequence	Reference
Fd1	5'AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG 3'	Weisburg <i>et al.</i> , 1991
rP2	5'ACGGCTACCTTGTTACGACTT 3'	Weisburg <i>et al.</i> , 1991

Amplification was carried out using a 2720 Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems) with the following thermal profile: Initial denaturation step at 95°C for 90 s, in this step the double stranded DNA separates into two strands followed by a 30 cycle denaturation step at 95°C for 45 s. Annealing at 50°C for 45 s with 30 cycles and in this step the primers bind to the desired known site on the single DNA strands. Extension at 72°C for 60 s with 30 cycles, this step is where the *Taq* polymerase synthesizing the DNA elongating the strand (Black 2008). The PCR conditions are presented in Table 2.3

Table 2.3: PCR cycling conditions used for amplification of bacterial 16s DNA

Conditions	Temperature (°C)	Time (seconds)	Cycles
Initial Denaturation	95	90	1
Denaturation	95	45	30
Annealing	50	45	30
Extension	72	60	30
Final Extension	72	120	1

2.4.3 Agarose gel electrophoresis

The evaluation of 16s DNA amplification after PCR was achieved by electrophoresis through 1% (w/v) agarose gel containing 1X Tris-Acetate-EDTA (TAE) buffer, 2 µl (concentration 0.5 µg/ml) ethidium bromide for 45 min at a current of 42 Amps and 100V and 5µl of DNA template was used. The size of the amplified DNA was determined using Promega Lambda/*EcoRI* + *HindIII* (Catalogue No G1731) marker. The gel was visualized under UV fluorescence on a Uvitec gel doc (Moore *et al.*, 1987). Expected number of base pairs was about 1500 bp

2.4.4 DNA purification

During PCR amplification residual reaction components such as dNTPs, primers and enzymes can interfere with the DNA sequencing process. The PCR products were purified using a Promega Wizard® SV PCR clean up kit (Catalogue A9281/2/5) following the manufacturer's instruction. The PCR product was transferred into a 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube and 2 times the volume of the membrane binding buffer was added to the PCR product. The mixture was then transferred to a SV micro-column with a collection tube and incubated at room temperature for 1 min. The samples were then centrifuged at 16,000 rpm for 1 min. The flow through was discarded and 700 µl of membrane wash solution was added to the column and centrifuged at 16,000 rpm for 1 min. Another 500 µl of the membrane wash solution was added and centrifuged as previously described. The empty column was centrifuged again for 1 min to remove the residual. The column was transferred to a new 1.5 ml microcentrifuge and 50 µl of nuclease free water was added, prior to incubation on the bench at room temperature for 1 min. The tubes were then centrifuged at 16,000 rpm for 1 min in order to elute the purified DNA. The purified DNA was then stored at -20°C. To evaluate the purity of the PCR product 5µl of the PCR product was electrophoresed through 1% (w/v) agarose gel containing 1X Tris-Acetate-EDTA (TAE) buffer, 2 µl (concentration 0.5 µg/ml) ethidium bromide for 45 min at a current of 42 Amps and 100V and 5µl of DNA template was used. The gel was visualized under UV fluorescence on a Uvitec gel doc (Moore *et al.*, 1987)

2.4.5 Sequencing

PCR products were sent for sequencing to Inqaba Biotechnology, Pretoria, South Africa sequencing facility. Big Dye V3.1 was used to sequence the sample using Sanger sequencing. The sequences were read using Finch TV software. Nucleotide sequences were identified using Basic Local Alignment Search (BLAST). BLAST is a searching program on the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) site <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>

2.5: Growth evaluation of citrus plants

2.5.1 Inoculation of the citrus seedlings with AM fungi and bacterial isolates

Three bacterial isolates showing potential plant growth promotion properties were selected for use in greenhouse trials. Bacterial isolates were grown overnight in Nutrient Broth at 37°C in 500 ml flasks and their concentrations were measured at 660 nm spectrophotometrically. Concentrations were adjusted to an OD reading of 0.5 using sterile saline

Citrus seedlings of rough lemon were obtained from the Citrus Foundation Block in Uitenhage, South Africa were inoculated in pots of pasteurized (1:1) sand: compost mixture. The bottoms of the pots were covered with stones rinsed in NaHOCl to aid drainage. Seedlings were inoculated with the selected bacterial isolate (15 ml per pot) after transplant. Mycorrhizal inoculum (10 ml) was obtained from Mycoroot (Pty) Ltd, South Africa (MPN 100 propagule in 1g) and applied at transplant; control pots were inoculated with water (Table 2.3.) Each treatment had five replicate pots. Experiments took place in a mycorrhizal tunnel at Rhodes University with temperature min/max temperature of 20 - 30°C. Pots were watered daily with UV sterilised water and placed under natural light.

Table 2.3: Growth evaluation experimental design

Treatment 1			Treatment 2		
Replicates	Isolate	Mycorroot	Replicates	Isolate	Mycorroot
5	I5	+	5	I5	-
5	E9	+	5	E9	-
5	I19	+	5	I19	-
5	I5 + E9 + I19	+	5	I5+ E9+I19	-
5	Control (s.dH ₂ O)	+	5	Control (s.dH ₂ O)	-

2.5.2 Shoot height- growth parameters

Initial shoot heights of the seedlings were measured (cm) after planting. Measurements were taken on a weekly basis for five weeks. At harvest, the plants were removed and the roots separated from the shoots. Shoots and roots were weighed on an Adam® Highland HCB 1002 balance for wet weight. The samples were oven dried at 60°C for 96 hrs in a Memmet oven and dry weights were recorded. A subsample of 1g of the fresh root material was removed for AM fungal colonisation assessment. The root dry weight was corrected for the subsample removed after moisture determinations by adding the removed weight back to the initial weight of the roots. Total biomass (shoots and roots) as well as shoot to root ratios was calculated.

2.5.3 AM fungal colonisation

The colonisation of the plant roots was evaluated by using a method described by Koske and Gemma, 1989 and Smith & Dickson, 1997. This method involves using 1-3 cm long sections of the root which are cleared with 5% KOH solution that remove the cytoplasm and all coloured material from the plant cells. The roots in the KOH were then heated in a water bath at just below boiling for 30 min. The KOH solution was discarded and the roots were rinsed

with distilled water. The roots were then bleached in an alkaline H₂O₂ solution for 15 min. When the roots were white, the bleach was poured off and the roots rinsed with water. The roots were acidified to ensure the binding of Sigma Trypan Blue (Catalogue 23850) to the mycorrhizal structures by using 0.1M HCl solution. The HCl was removed and the roots were covered with lactoglycerol solution containing 0.05% trypan blue and stained overnight at room temperature. The stain was poured off and destained with lactoglycerol without the Trypan Blue for 24 hrs. The roots were then viewed under the compound microscope at 100 x magnification. Colonisation was characterised by the formation of intercellular hyphae and intracellular arbuscules (McGonigle *et al.*, 1990). Percentage colonisation was calculated using the following equation.

$$\text{Percentage colonisation} = \frac{\text{colonised cells}}{50} \times 100$$

(Smith and Dickson, 1997)

2.6. Data Analyses

All experiment data was collected from the replicates, with N being equal to 3-5 depending on the experiment. Means and Standard deviations were calculated using Microsoft excel 2010. Data were recorded and statistically analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) by using SPSS software (Windows version 18). Duncan's multiple range tests were performed at $P < 0.05$ on each of the significant variables measured (Duncan 1955).

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1 Isolation of arbuscular mycorrhizal spores and associated bacteria

Arbuscular mycorrhizal spores were extracted from the soil using the wet sieving and decanting method (Smith and Dickson, 1997). Yellow brown spores were extracted from the soil samples obtained from the organically managed soils. From the isolated spores (Fig 3.1), the spores were mostly oval shaped, yellow in colour and had subtending hyphae (Fig 3.1A and B). Spore diameter ranged from 88.7 μm to 123.5 μm . These were tentatively placed in the *Glomus* genus.

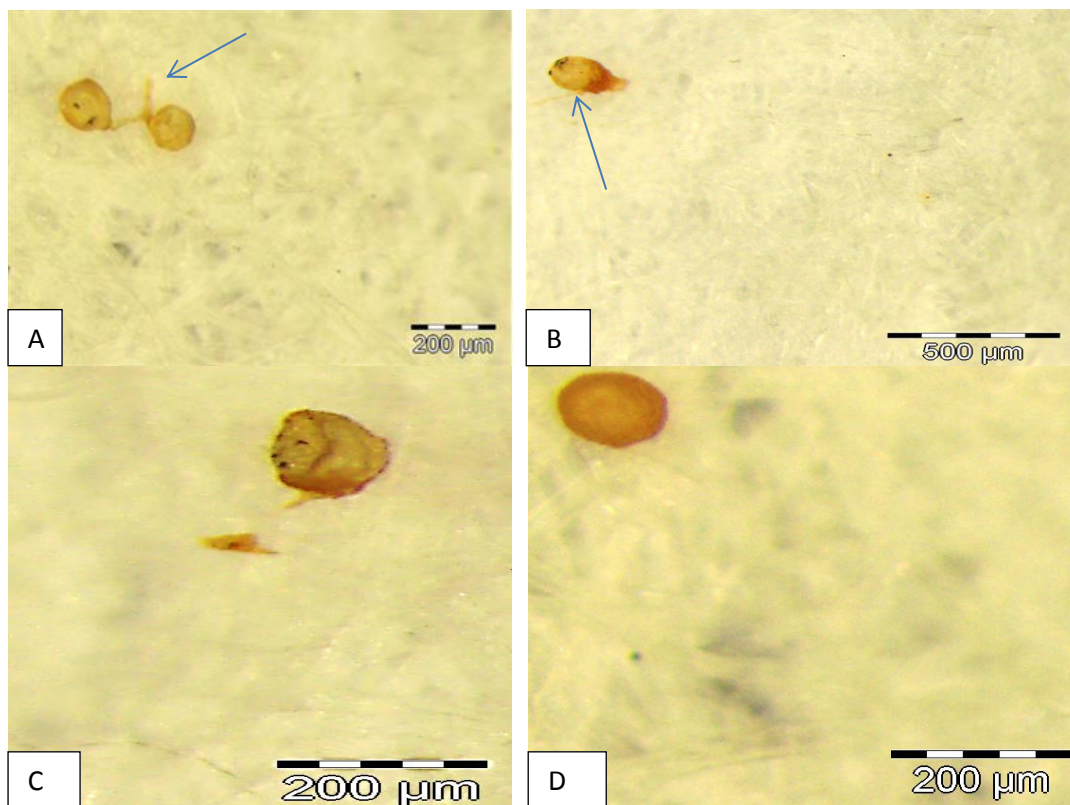


Figure 3.1: (A-D) Arbuscular mycorrhizal spores isolated from soil samples, arrows show subtended hyphae indicating characteristic features of the genus *Glomus* developing from the spores.

From the AM fungal spores 19 bacteria were isolated and purified, 12 isolates from the external spore surface and 7 from internally (Fig 3.2).

3.2 Identification of bacterial isolates.

3.2.1 Morphological

The bacterial isolates were separated and coded on base on whether isolated externally (E) or internally (I). The colony morphology was recorded as indicated in Fig 3.2 and Table 3.1. Bacterial identification is based on many factors such as colony shape, colour on nutrient agar and chemical composition of cell walls (Gram Staining). The Gram reaction distinguishes between Gram positive and negative bacteria. Gram positive bacteria have a thick peptidoglycan layer, which retains the crystal violet stain and remain dark purple colour. Gram negative bacteria have thin peptidoglycan layer and retain the pink colour as a result of safrin (Black, 2008). Gram reaction and cell phenology are shown in Table 3.1.

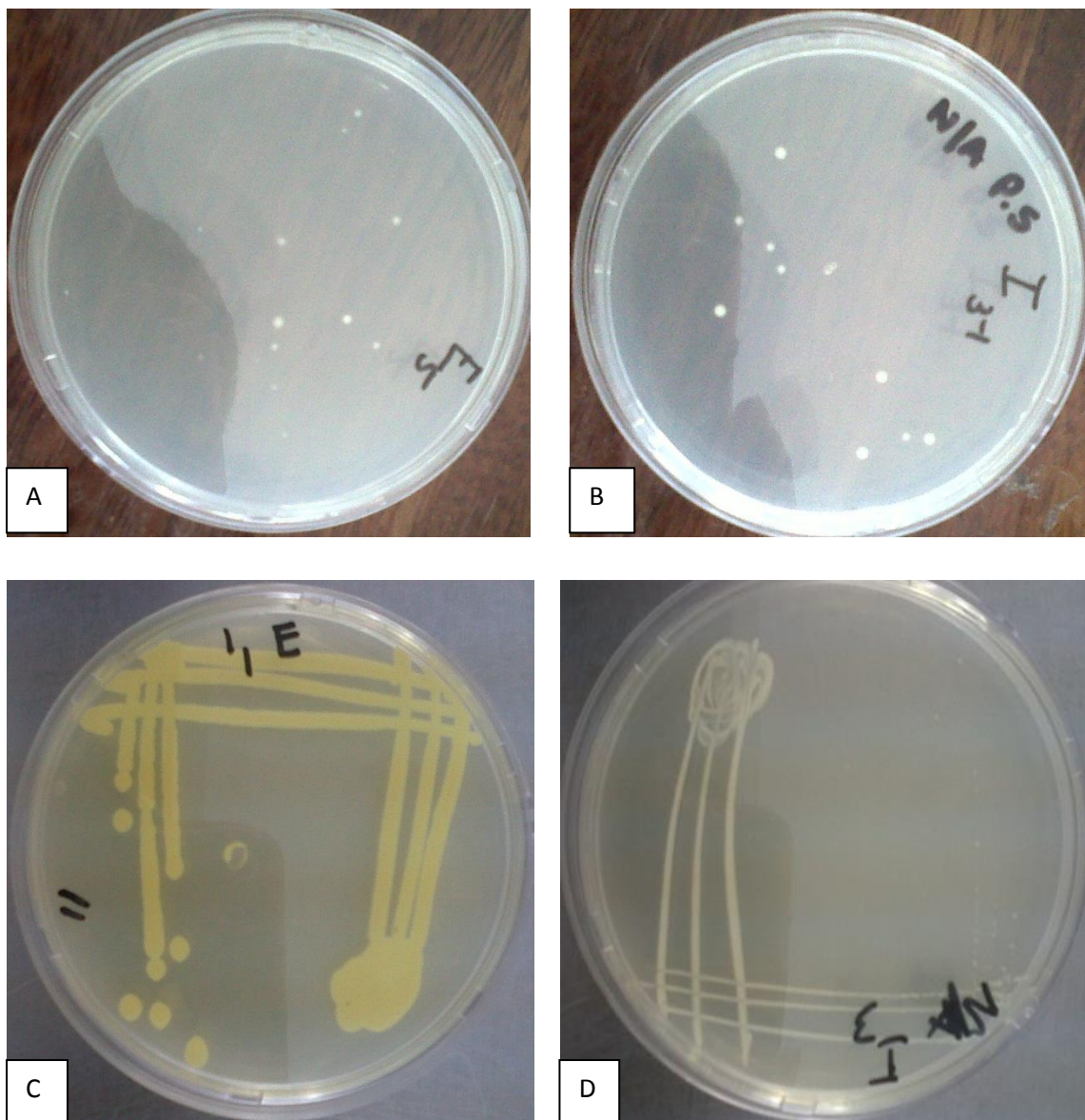


Figure 3.2: (A-D) A selection of bacterial isolates on a Nutrient Agar plates. The colour on the purified colony ranged from yellow to cream. The isolates were coded A isolate E1, B isolate E7, C isolate E9, D isolate I17

Table 3.1: Morphological identification of bacterial isolates by Gram reaction, cell phenology and colony appearance on Nutrient Agar plates

Isolate	Appearance on nutrient agar plate		Gram Reaction	
	Shape	Color	+/-	Cell phenology
E1	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
E2	Round	Yellowish	+	Cocci
E3	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
E4	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
I5	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
E6	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
I7	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
E8	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
E9	Round	Yellow	+	Rod
E10	Round	Whitish	-	Rod
E11	Round	Yellow	+	Cocci
I12	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
I13	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
E14	Round	Whitish	-	Rod
E15	Round	Yellowish	+	Cocci
E16	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
I17	Round	Yellowish	+	Cocci
I18	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod
I19	Irregular	Cream	+	Rod

Of the externally associated bacteria 7 were Gram positive rods, 2 were Gram negative cocci, 1 was a Gram negative cocci, 2 were Gram positive cocci. In the internally associated

bacteria 6 were Gram positive rods and 1 was Gram positive cocci, no Gram negative bacteria were isolated.

3.2.2 Molecular identification

For accurate results the isolates were further identified using molecular techniques. Extracted DNA was amplified by PCR using molecular probes (primers) that bind only the targeted DNA. The targeted gene was 16S rDNA. The sequencing of the 16S rDNA was done to identify bacterial isolate to genus and species. Fig 3.3a and 3.3b are agarose gels of amplified PCR after clean-up. The gel represents the selection of isolates isolated from the spores and all are approximately 1500 bp in size.

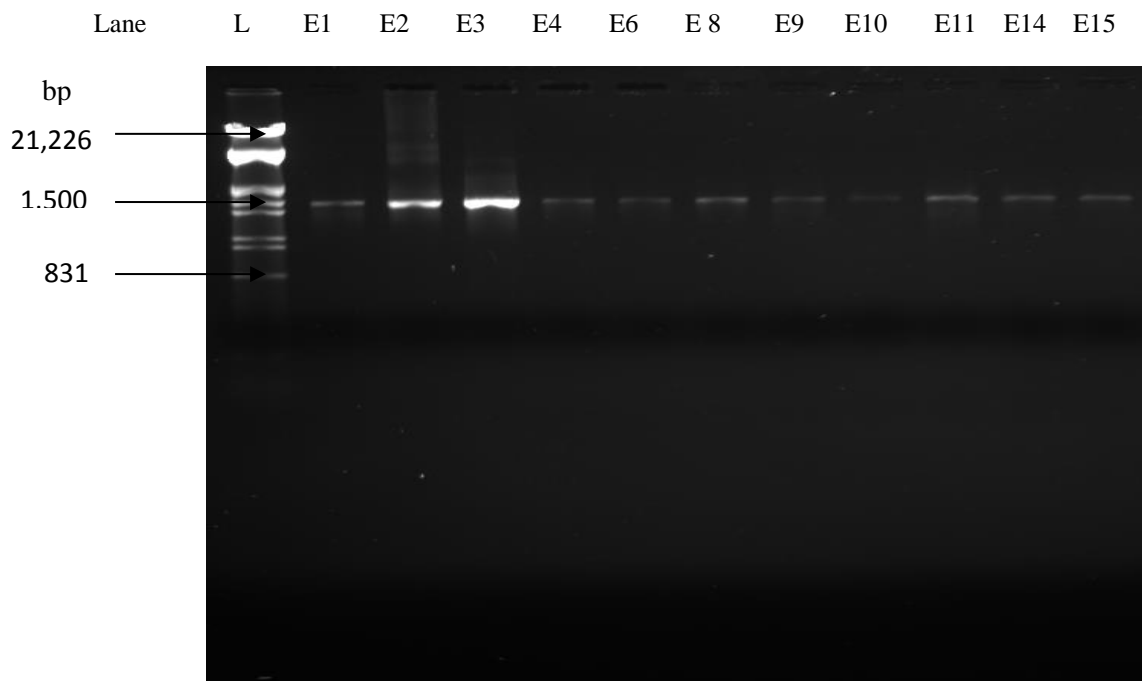


Figure 3.3a: PCR product of bacterial isolates as visualized in 1% agarose gel stained with (50mg/m) ethidium bromide. Lane 1 (L) is the marker and subsequent are isolates lanes, E1, E2, E3, E4, E6, E 8, E9, E10, E11 E14 and E15, indicating successful PCR. The estimate sizes for the bacterial isolates are approximately 1500 bp.

PCR amplification was also conducted using no DNA template (not shown in clean up gel) no band was observed indicating the success of the amplification and lack of contamination.

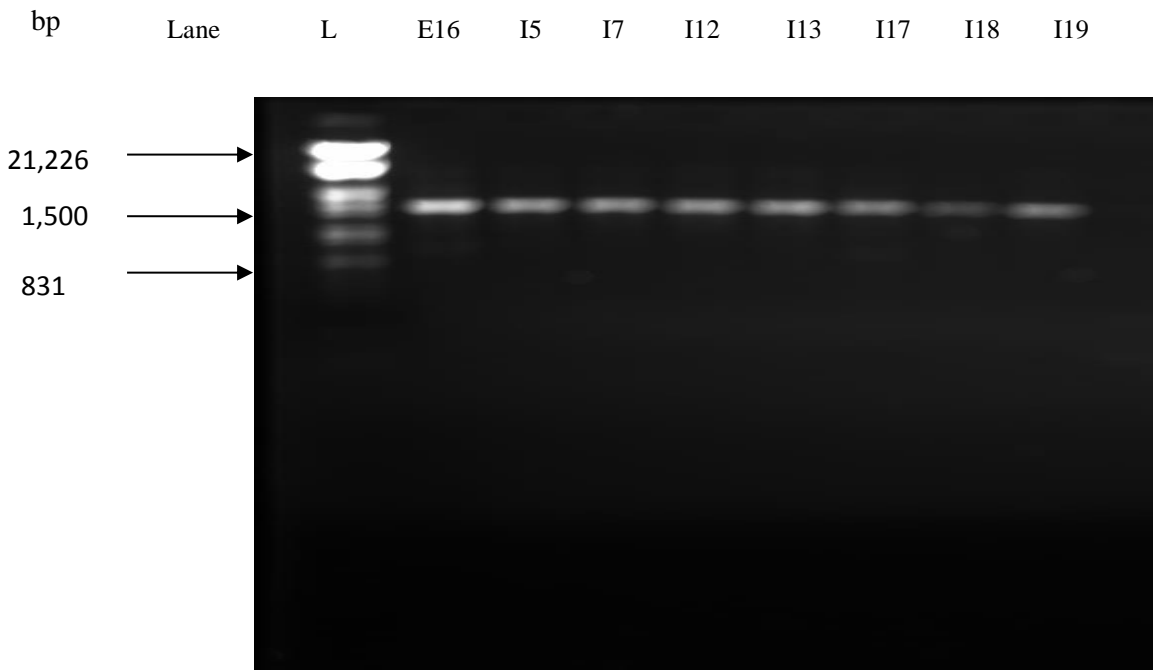


Figure 3.3b: PCR product of bacterial isolates as visualized in 1% agarose gel stained with (50mg/m) ethidium bromide. Lane 1 (L) is the marker and subsequent are isolates lanes, E16, I5, I7, I12, I13, I17, I18, and I19 indicating successful PCR. The estimate sizes for the bacterial isolates are approximately 1500 bp

PCR products were returned after sequencing and the sequences were read using Finch Tv software and submitted to GenBank. All 19 isolates were identified to at least genus level. 12 of the bacterial isolates were identified to be from the genus *Bacillus* (various species), 3 as *Staphylococcus* and 2 each as *Micrococcus* and *Ochrobactrum* (Table 3.2).

Table3.2: Molecular identification of bacterial isolates. Sequences were identified using BLAST from the NCBI.

Isolate	Accession No	Description	% Identity	E-Value	% Coverage
E1	HM566459.1	<i>Bacillus sp</i>	98	0.0	99
E2	JQ522980.1	<i>Staphylococcus sp</i>	98	0.0	99
E3	JN 700135.1	<i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i>	98	0.0	98
E4	EU621383.1	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	96	0.0	98
I5	HE660034.1	<i>Bacillus spp</i>	98	0.0	97
E6	JN700135.1	<i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i>	98	0.0	97
I7	JX010994.1	<i>Bacillus sp</i>	99	0.0	97
E8	JX010994.1	<i>Bacillus sp</i>	99	0.0	99
E9	JQ433937.1	<i>Micrococcus sp</i>	99	0.0	99
E10	EF587906.1	<i>Ochrobactrum sp</i>	95	0.0	96
E11	HQ220042.1	<i>Micrococcus leteus</i>	95	0.0	97
I12	HM566469.1	<i>Bacillus sp</i>	97	0.0	99
I13	HM567066	<i>Bacillus sp</i>	98	0.0	99
E14	FJ374126.1	<i>Ochrobactrum onthropi</i>	99	0.0	97
E15	EU071603.1	<i>Staphylococcus sp</i>	98	0.0	99
E16	GU826149.1	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	98	0.0	97
I17	EU939709.1	<i>Staphylococcus pasteurii</i>	99	0.0	95
I18	HQ857776.1	<i>Bacillus anthracis</i>	99	0.0	98
I19	HQ317144.1	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	97	0.0	98

3.3 Evaluation of plant growth promotion properties of bacterial isolates

3.3.1 Phosphate solubilisation

Of all the isolates tested only one isolate, E5 (Fig 3.4 B) produced a clear zone around the well in which the bacteria was inoculated, indicating the solubilisation of the insoluble phosphate source (Table 3.3).

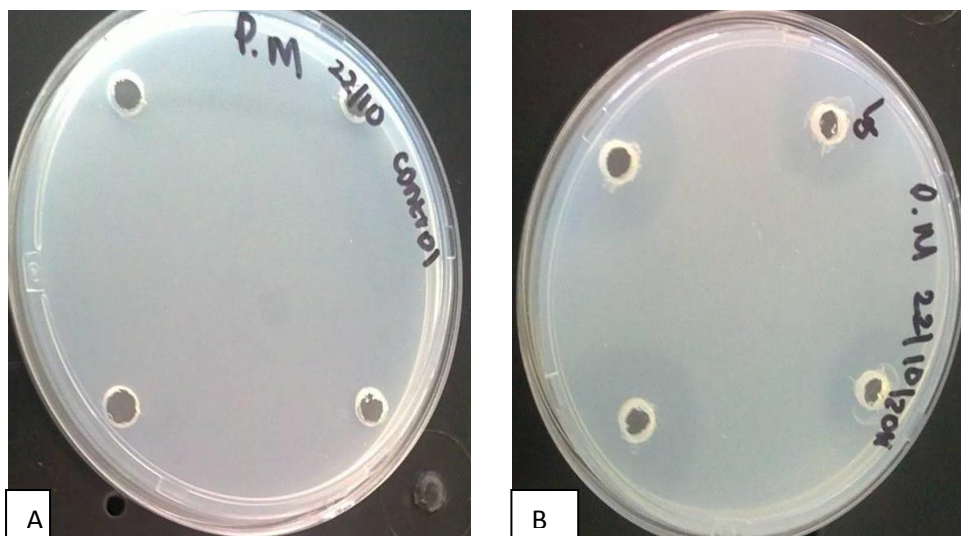


Figure 3.4: A- Control, B- Phosphate solubilisation as indicated by development of a clear zone around the wells. Isolate I5 after incubation for 24 hours at 37°C formed a clear zone around the colony in the media.

3.3.2 Indole acetic acid (IAA) production

All nineteen bacterial isolates were tested for IAA production by growing on media containing L-tryptophan which is a precursor for the formation of IAA. A colour change to red was indicative of IAA production. After introduction to Kovac reagent four isolates E9, E11, E14, E10 turned red as shown in (Fig 3.5 and table 3.3).

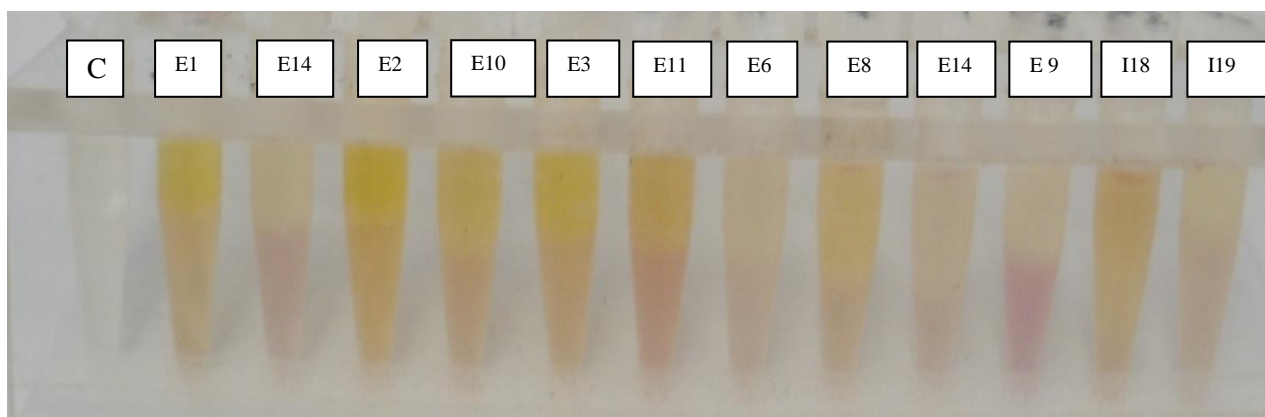


Figure 3.5: Test for the production of Indole Acetic Acid isolates E9, E11, E14, E10 were able to produce IAA as a colour change was observed after addition of Kovacs Reagent.

Table 3.3 Bacterial isolates shown to be phosphate solubilisers and Indole Acetic Acid producers

Isolate	Phosphate test	IAA test
E9	–	+
E11	–	+
E14	–	+
E10	–	+
I5	+	–

(- negative reaction, + positive reaction)

3.4 Fungal Pathogen Inhibition

The 19 bacterial isolates were tested for potential inhibitory effects against citrus pathogen, *Phytophthora citrophthora*, *P. citrocola* and *P. nicotianae*. There were significant differences observed in *P. citrophthora* (Fig 3.6) as P value was 0.026 but with *P. nicotianae* (Fig 3.9) and *P. citrocola* (Fig 3.12) there were no significant differences as the P value was greater than 0.05. Growth curves were done for three isolate, I5, E9 and I19 as they showed the potential to inhibiting all the fungal isolates. There were significant differences observed in *P. citrophthora* (Fig 3.8) and *P. nicotianae* (Fig 3.11) as P value was less than 0.005 but with *P. citrocola* (Fig 3.14) there were no significant differences as the P value was greater than 0.05. This experiment was done over a period of 10 days.

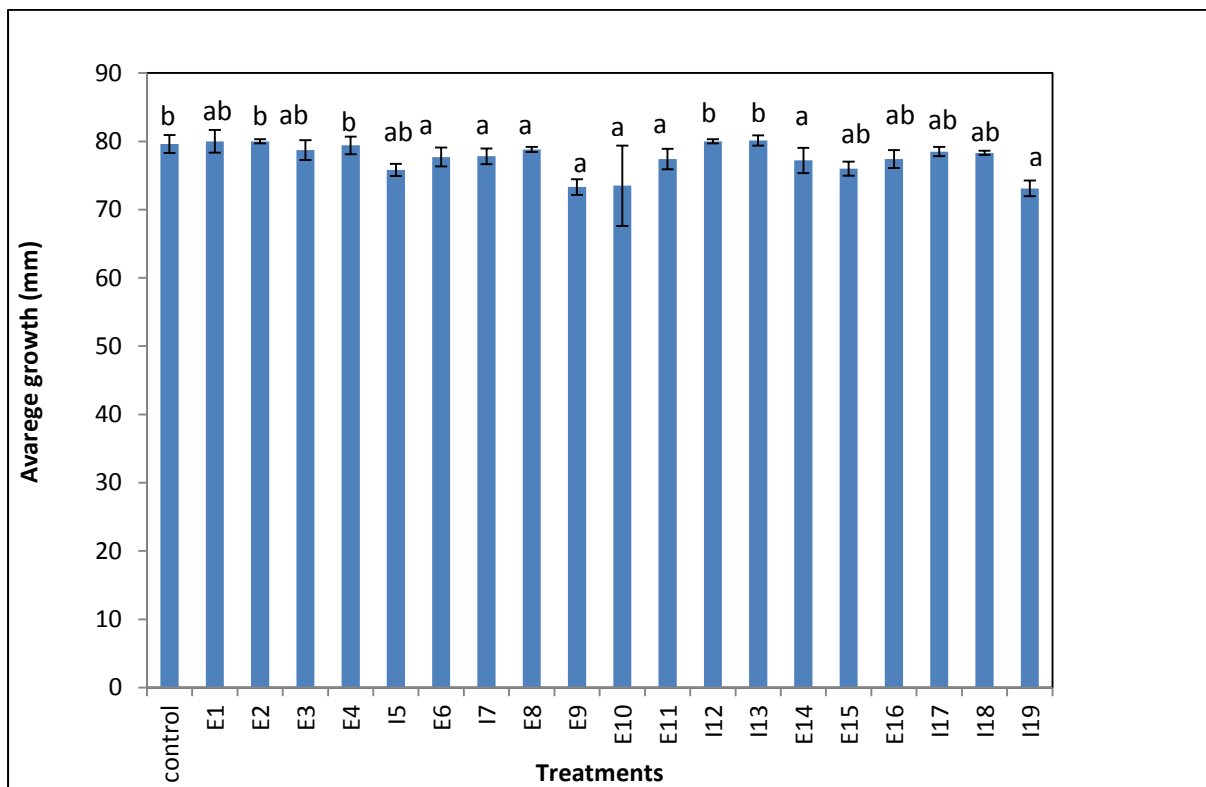


Figure 3.6: Effects of *Phytophthora citrophthora*, growth in dual culture of bacterial isolates after 10 days. The bacterial effect on pathogen $F_{(28,161)}=1.889$; $P = 0.026$. Bar represents treatment means \pm standard error. The letters represents the significant differences ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n=5$

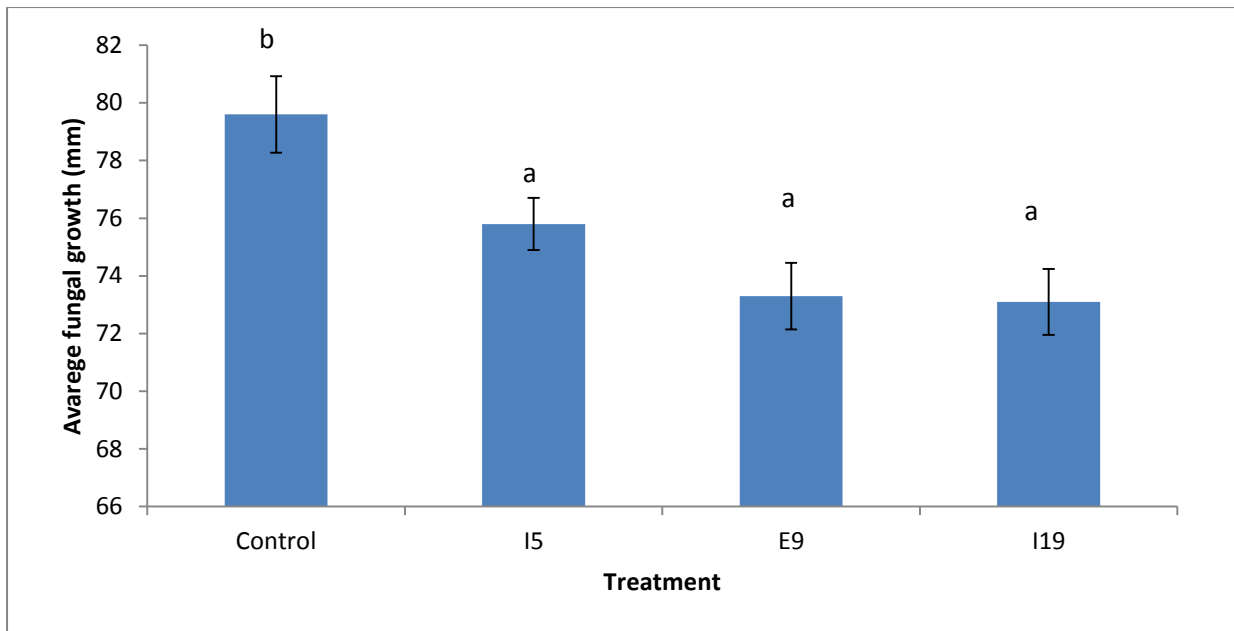


Figure 3.7: Bacteria I5, E9 and I19 shown to have some inhibitory effect on *in vitro* growth of *Phytophthora citrophthora* although it was not significant different, bars represent treatment means \pm standard error

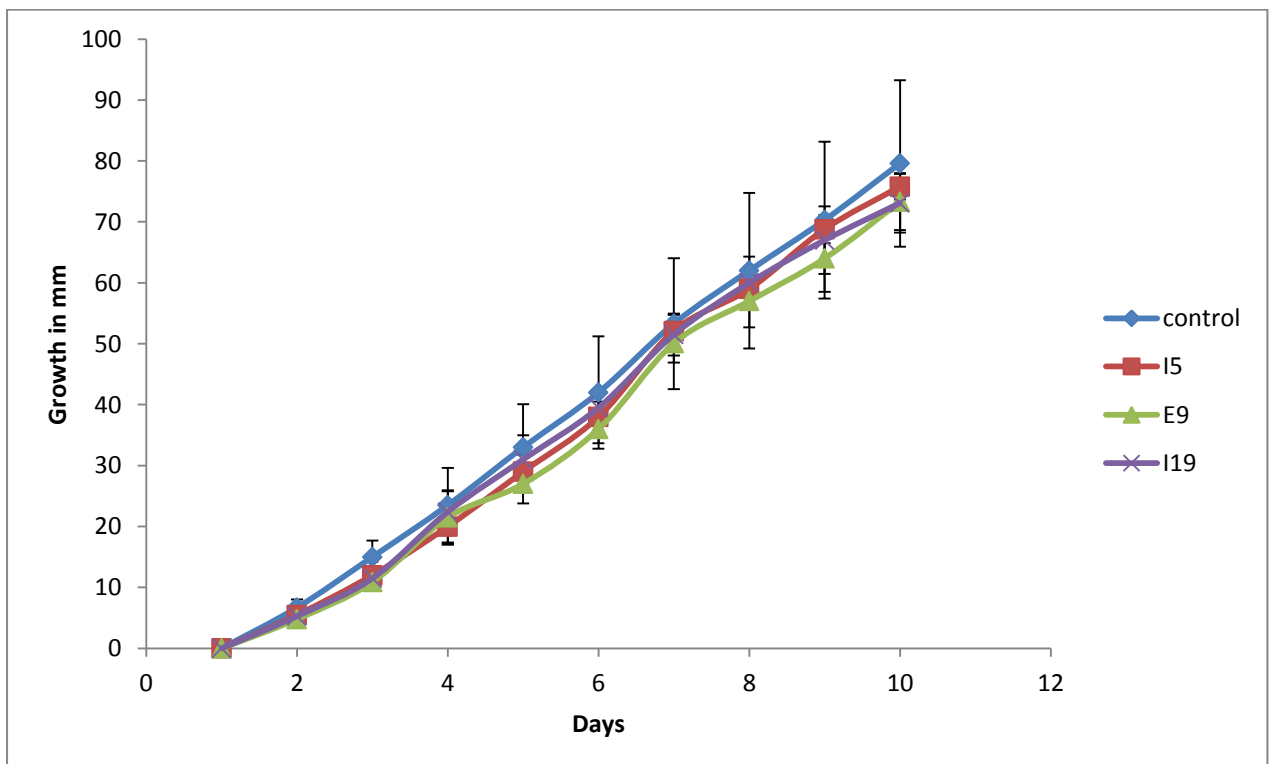


Figure 3.8 .Growth curves of *Phytophthora citrophthora* and bacterial isolates I5, E9, I19 effects on the citrus pathogen. The bacterial effect on fungi growth $F_{(45.817)} = 7.015, P = 0.003$

Bar represent treatment errors \pm standard deviation. Significantly differences ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n=5$

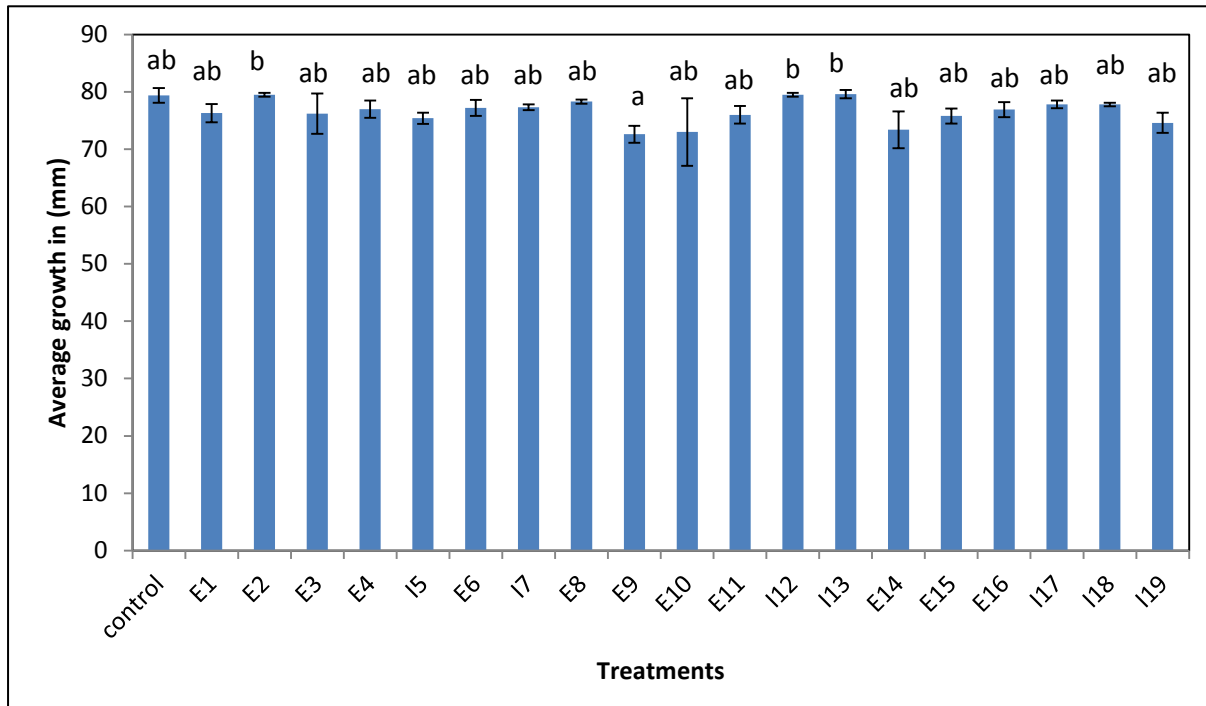


Figure 3.9: Effects of *Phytophthora nicotianae*, growth in dual culture of bacterial isolates after 10 days. The bacterial effect on pathogen $F_{(22,708)} = 1.143$; $P = 0.327$. Bar represent treatment means \pm standard error. The letters represents the significant differences ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n = 5$

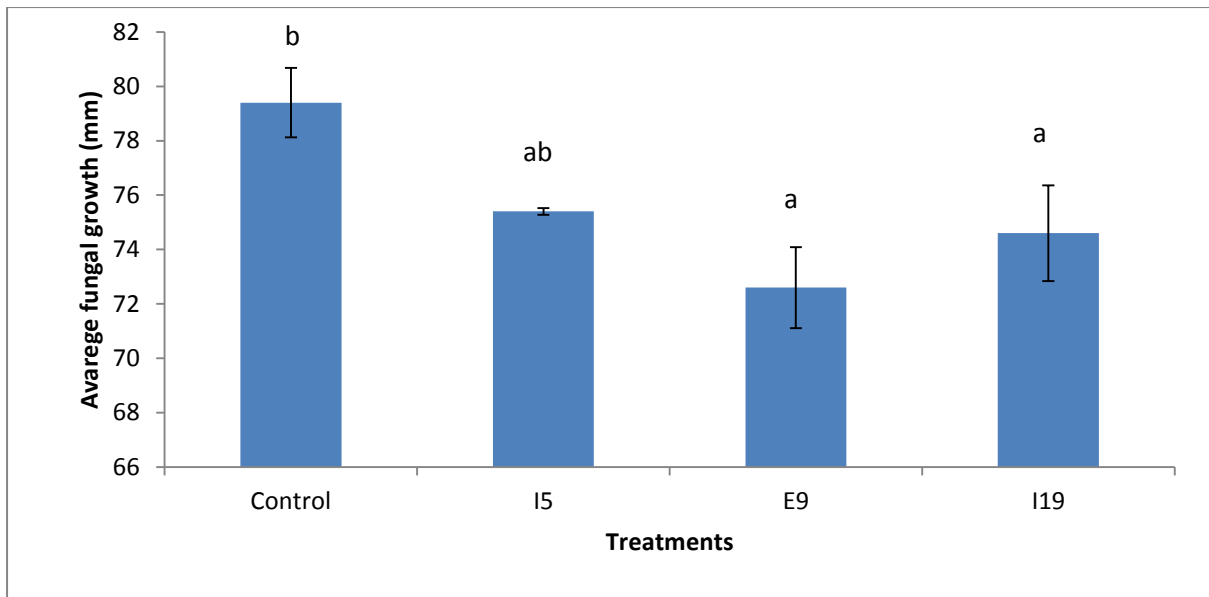


Figure 3.10: Bacteria I5, E9 and I19 showed to have some inhibitory effect on *in vitro* growth of *Phytophthora nicotianae* bars represent treatment means \pm standard error

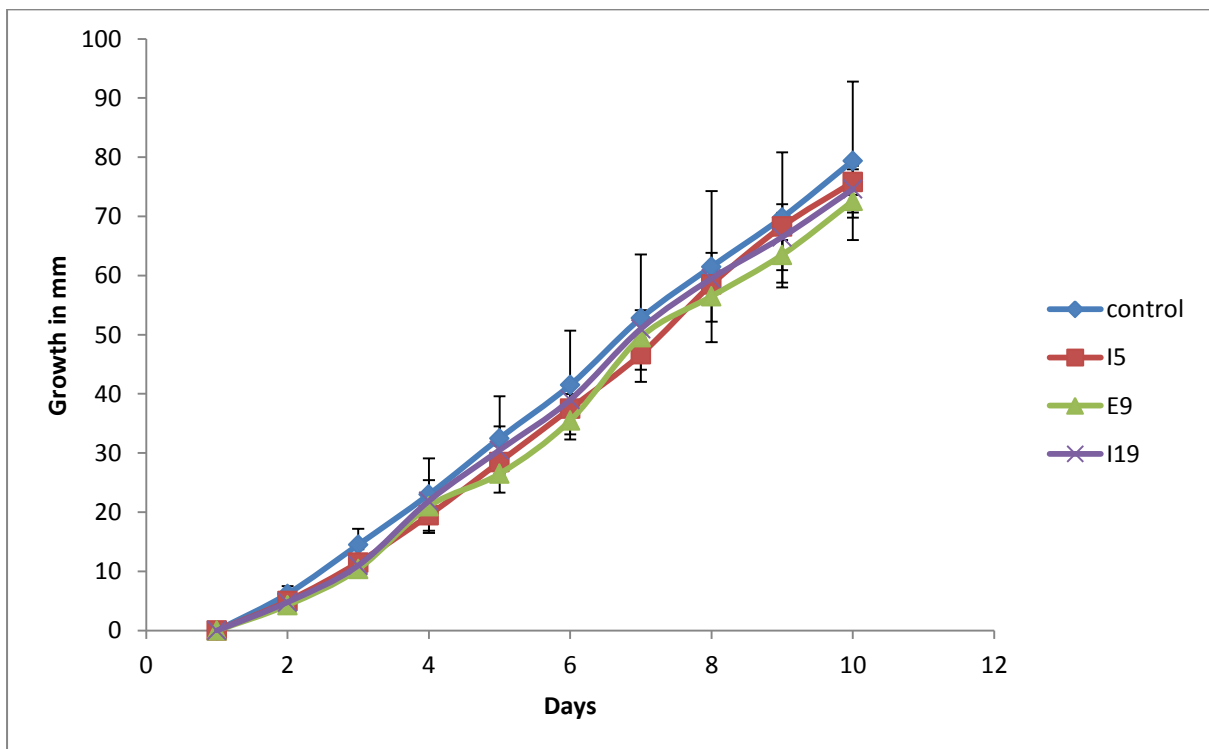


Figure 3.11 Growth curves of *Phytophthora nicotianae* and bacterial I5, E9, I19 effects on the citrus pathogen. The bacterial effect on fungi growth $F_{(40,733)} = 4.130$ $P = 0.024$. Bars represent treatment means \pm standard deviation. Significantly differences ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n=5$

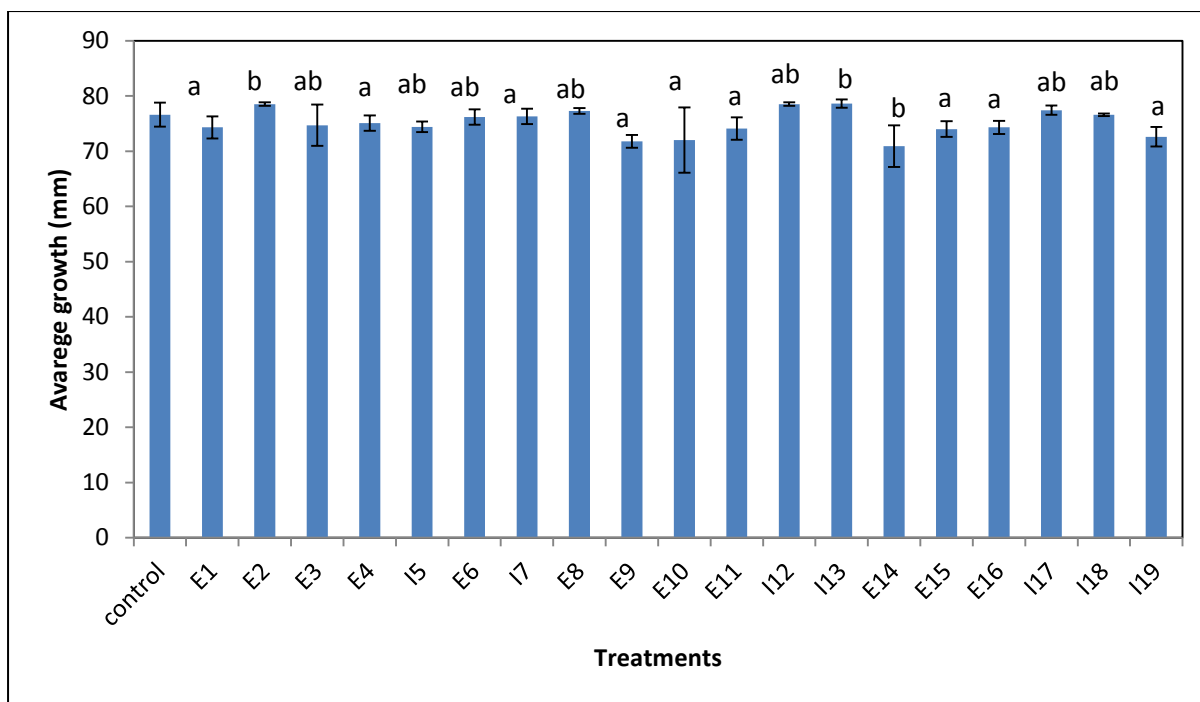


Figure 3.12: Effects of *Phytophthora citrocola*, growth in dual culture of bacterial isolates after 10 days bacterial effect on pathogen $F_{(26,563)}=1.153$; $P = 0.319$. Bar represents treatment means \pm standard error. The letters represents the significant differences ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n = 5$

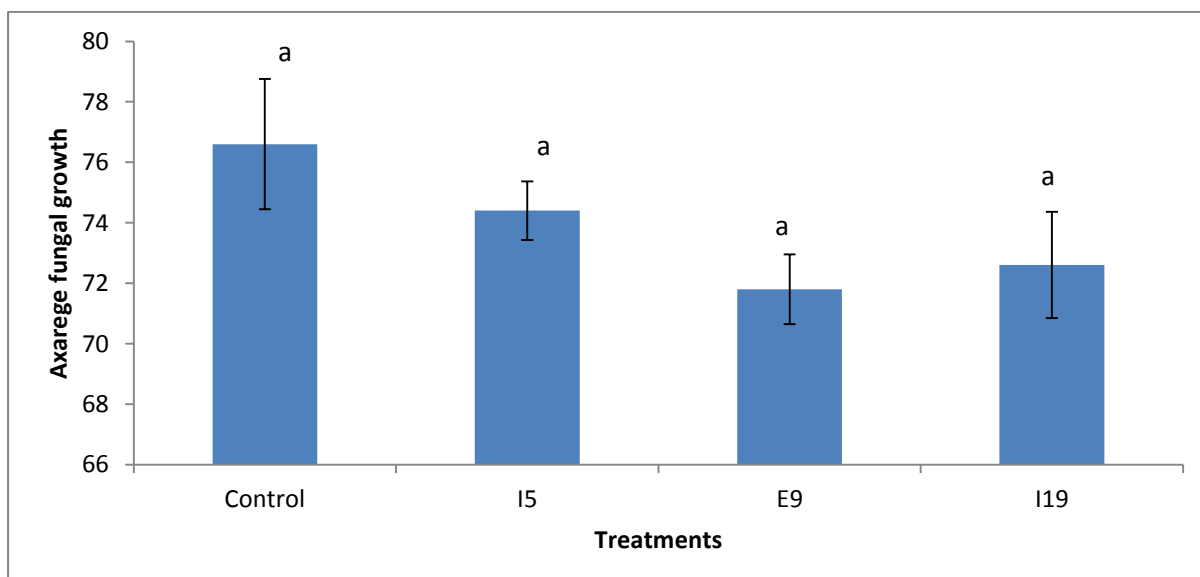


Figure 3.13: Bacteria I5, E9 and I19 showed no significant effect on *in vitro* growth of the *Phytophthora citrocola* bars represent treatment means \pm standard error.

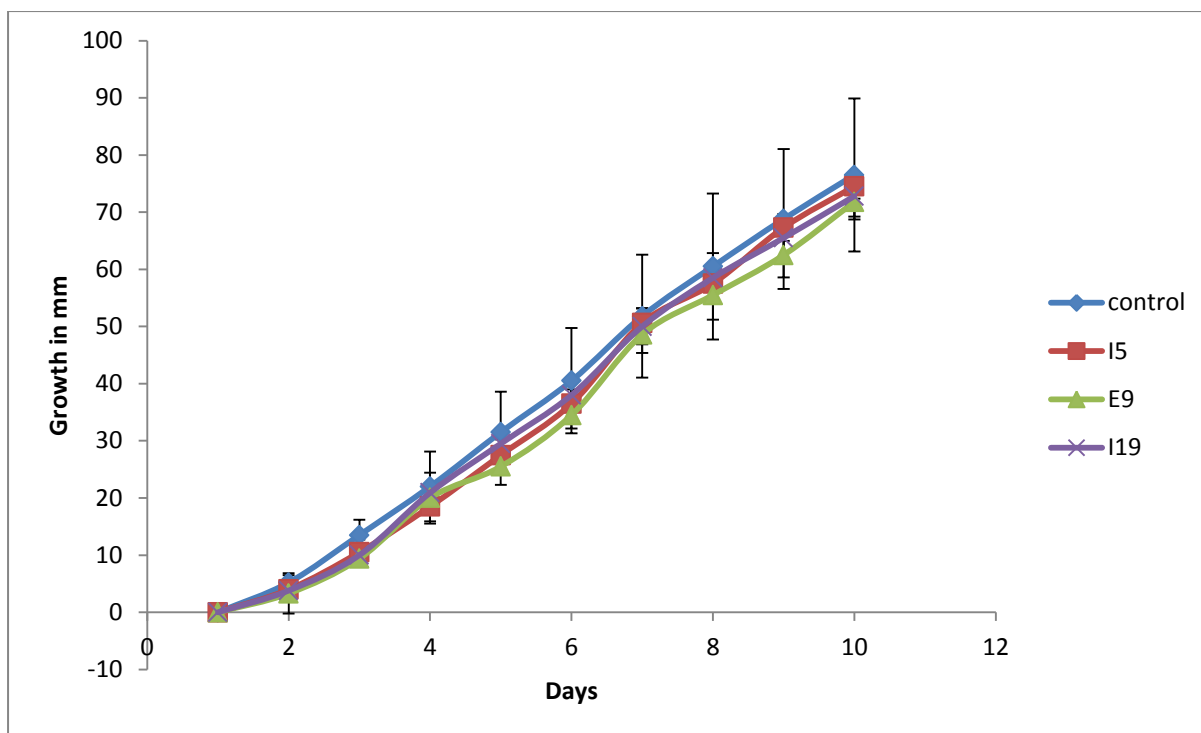


Figure 3.14 Growth curves of *Phytophthora citrocola* and bacterial I5, E9, I19 effects on the citrus pathogen. The bacterial effect on fungi growth $F_{(22,717)} = 1.814$, $P = 0.185$. Bar represent treatment means \pm standard deviation. Significantly differences ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n=5$

3.5: Metabolite inhibitory assay

From the initial fungal inhibition results three bacterial isolates I5, E9, I19 were shown to have some potential in inhibiting the fungal pathogens and were further tested against *Phytophthora citrophthora*, *P. citrocola*, and *P. nicotianae*. These three bacterial isolates were tested for the presence of secreted compounds that could have any inhibitory effect on these fungal pathogens. Supernatant from the two bacterial isolates, I5 and I19, significantly inhibited the growth of all three fungal pathogens (Fig 3.15, 3.16 and 3.17). The supernatant from the bacterial isolate E9 also reduced fungal growth but not completely inhibit growth.

3.5.1 Phytophthora citrophthora

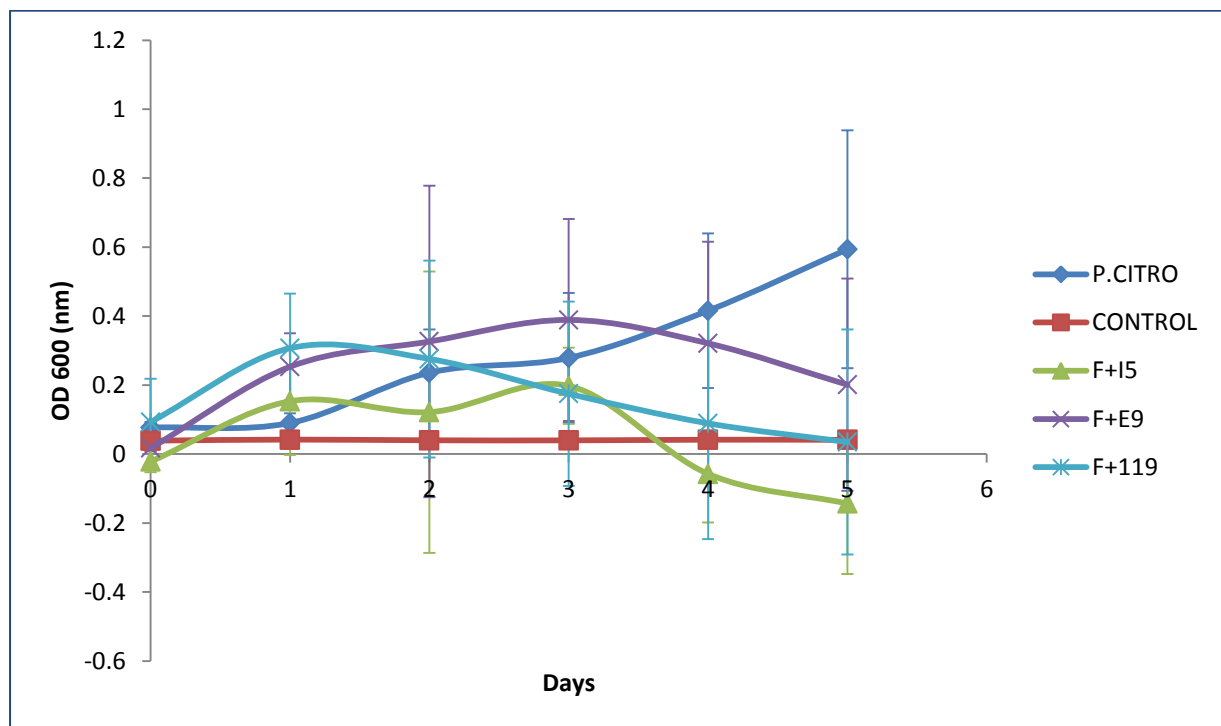


Figure 3.15 Growth curve of *Phytophthora citrophthora* interaction with Bacterial supernatant from isolates I5, E9 and I19. $F_{(4,25)} = 21.838$; $P = 0.001$, $n=5$. Daily means \pm standard deviations are represented.

Isolate I5 significantly inhibited the growth of *Phytophthora citrophthora* by 67% in day 3 but by day 5 the growth was inhibited by 100%, I19 inhibited the growth by 94.5% in day 5 and E9 reduced growth 94% by day 5.

3.5.2: *Phytophthora nicotianae*

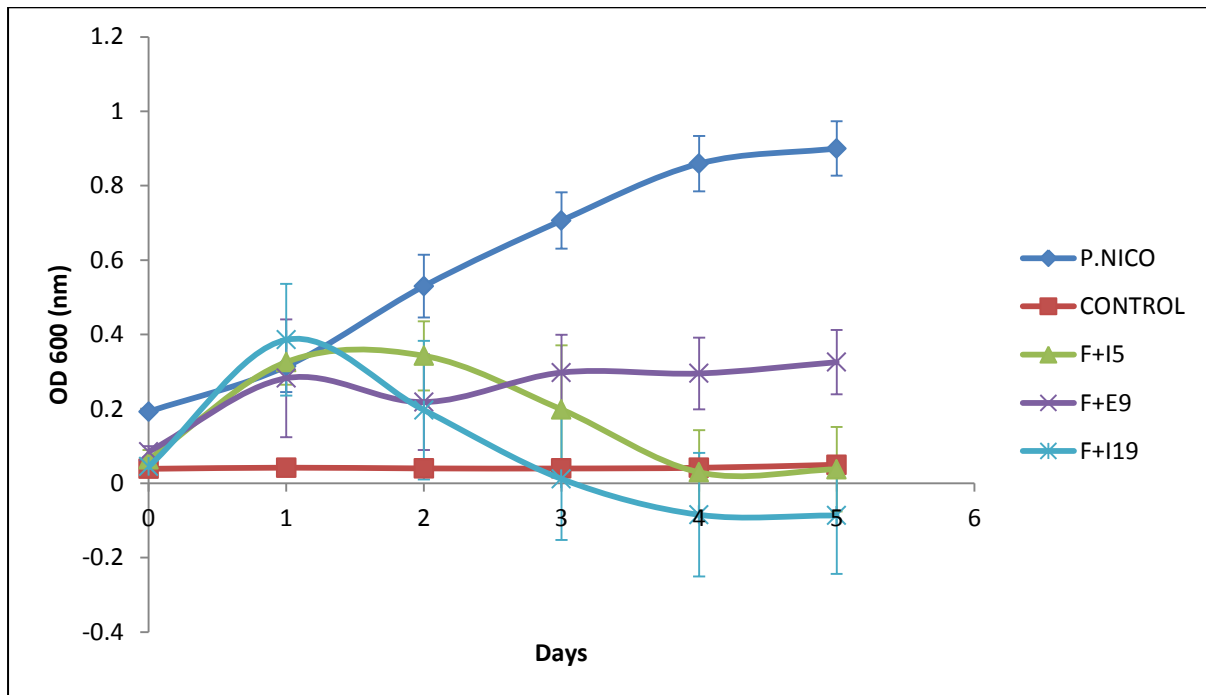


Figure 3.16: Growth curve of *Phytophthora nicotianae* interaction with Bacterial supernatant from isolates I5, E9, I19, $F_{(9,40)} = 4.866$; $P = 0.004$, $n = 5$. Daily means \pm standard deviations are represented.

Isolate I5 significantly inhibited the growth of *Phytophthora nicotianae* by 96.6% in day 3, I19 inhibited the growth by 98.6% in day 3 and E9 reduced growth by 65.7 % and the effect was mainly in day 4 and 5

3.5.3 *Phytophthora citrocola*

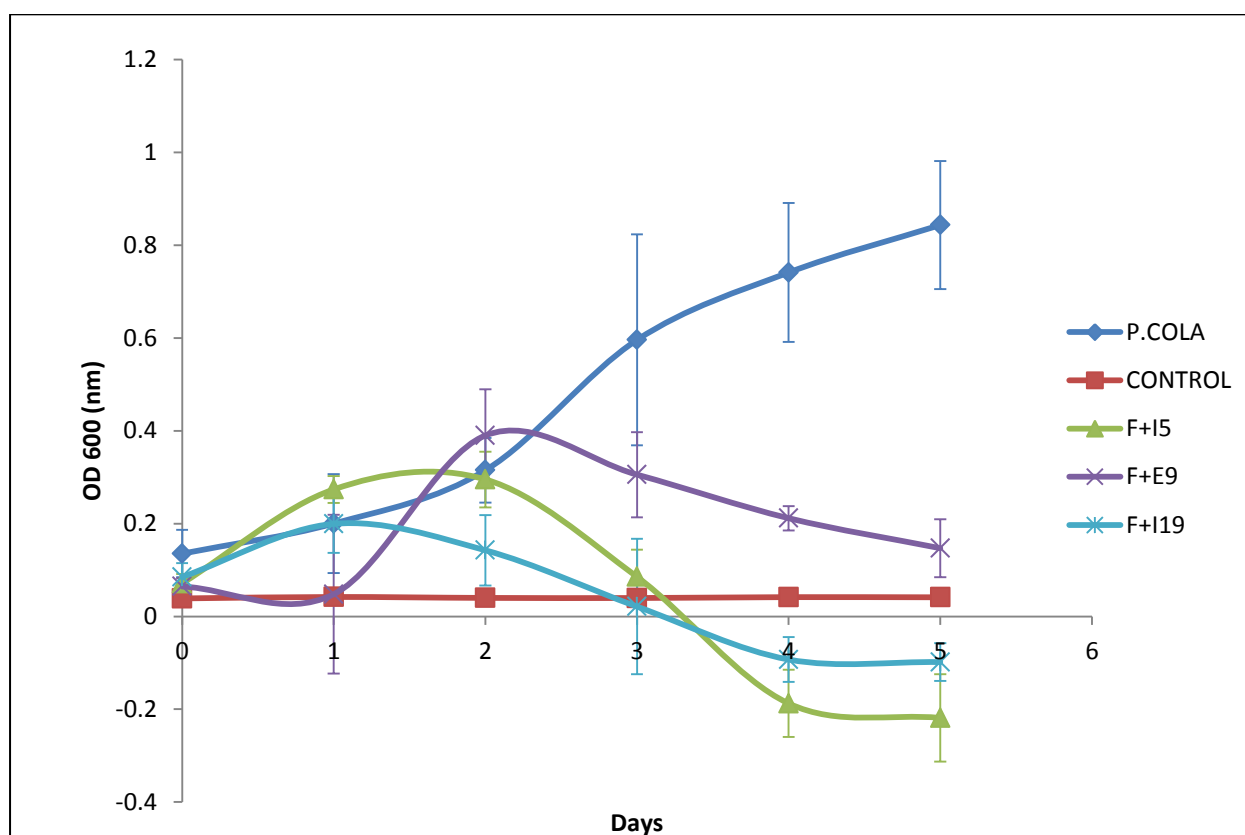


Figure 3.17: Growth curve of *Phytophthora citrocola* interaction with bacterial supernatant from isolate I5, E9 and I19. $F_{(4,25)} = 374.31$ $P = 0.001$, $n=5$. Daily means \pm standard deviations are represented.

Isolate I5 significantly inhibited the growth of *Phytophthora citrocola* by 96 % within 3 days, I19 also inhibited the growth by 98.6% within 3 days and E9 reduced growth by 65.7% in 5 days.

3.6 Growth evaluation of citrus growth

Bacterial isolates I5, E9, I19 were used for citrus growth evaluation trails as they showed some plant growth promoting properties. The effect of the treatment on plant growth was assessed by recording shoot heights measured (cm) weekly for five weeks. As seedlings were of variable sizes all initial height were subtracted from the weekly measure. The data

represents increase in shoot growth. Treatment BM4 and B4 consist of all three isolates I5, E9, I19.

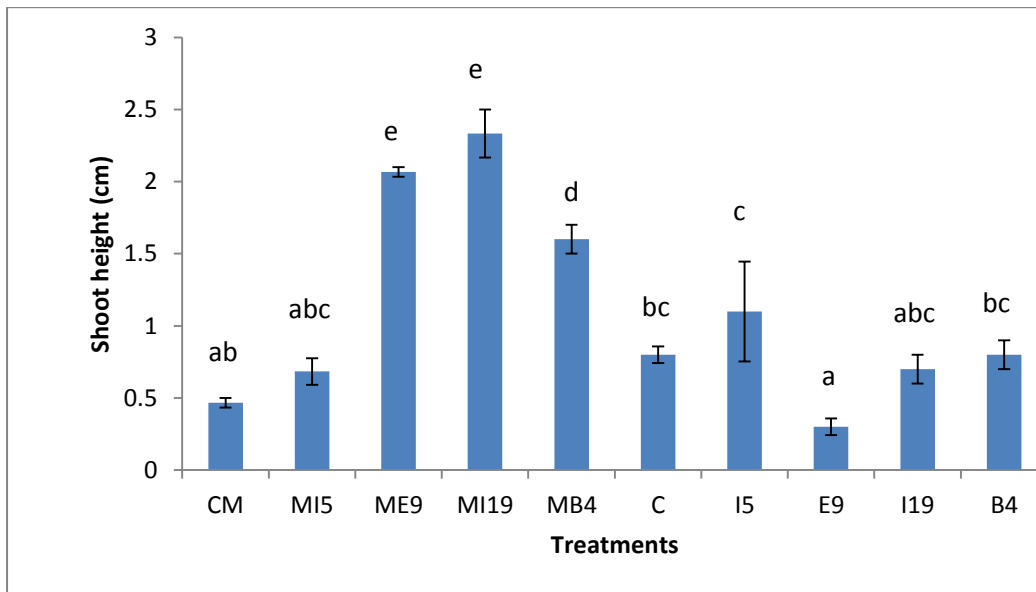


Figure 3.18: Citrus shoot height (cm) treated with bacterial isolates I5, E9 and I19 and in combination with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi after five weeks. The treatment effect on rough lemon plant growth $F_{(24,228)} = 1.419$; $P < 0.001$. Bar represents \pm standard error. Different letters are for significantly differences ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n=3$

In shoot height of the rough lemon plants significant differences were observed in isolates ME9, MI19 and MB4 in comparison with the control and I5. Although there was improvement in citrus plants isolate E9 was observed to be decreasing the growth of this plant. Significant differences in shoot height were recorded for the other treatments (Fig.3.18)

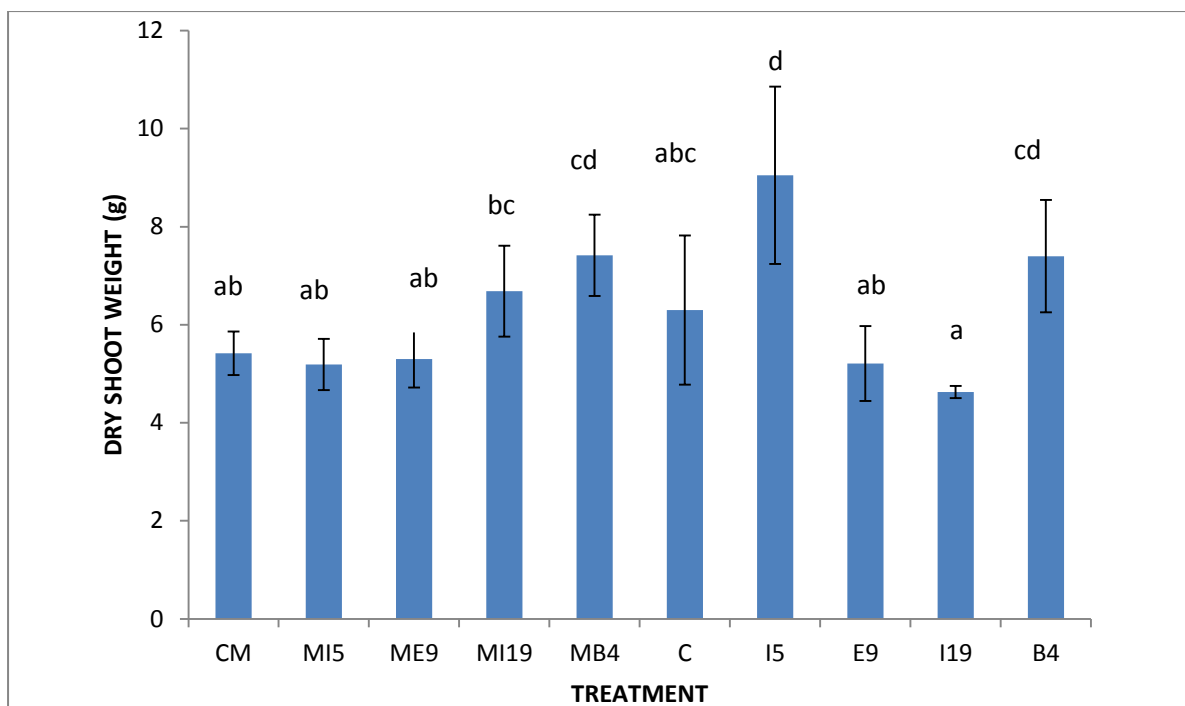


Figure 3.19: Citrus dry shoot weight (g) treated with bacterial isolates I5, E9 and I19 and in combination with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi after five weeks. The treatment effect on rough lemon plant growth $F_{(9, 40)} = 2.603$, $p = .0182$. Bar represents \pm standard errors. Different letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n = 3$

In shoot dry weight of the rough lemon plants significant differences were observed in isolates MI19, MB4, I5 and B4 in comparison with the control. Significant differences in shoot dry weight were recorded for the other treatments (Fig.3.19)

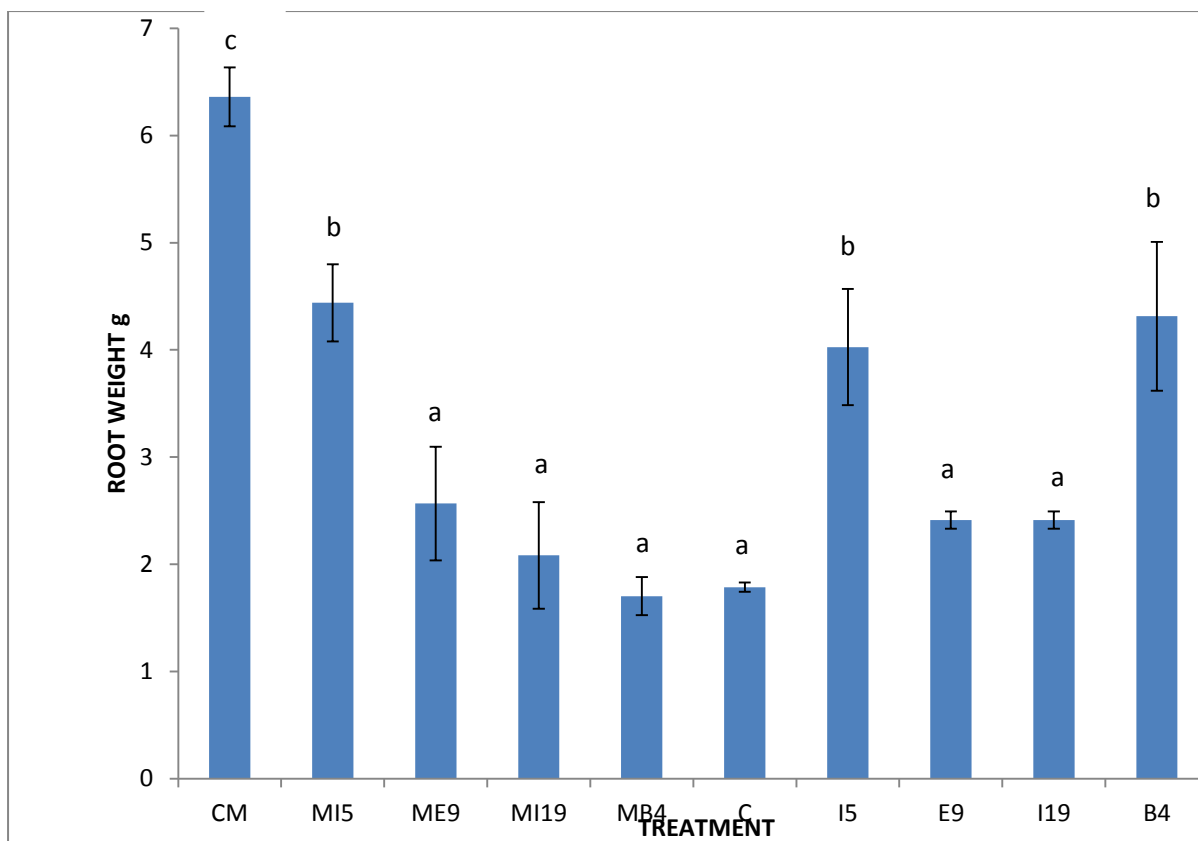


Figure 3.20: Citrus dry root weight treated with bacterial isolates I5, E9 and I19 and in combination with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi after five weeks. The treatment effect on rough lemon plant growth $F_{(14,654)} = 6.856$, $p = 0.0008$. Bar represents \pm standard errors. Different letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n = 3$

Significant differences in root dry weight were observed in the rough lemon inoculated with MI15, I5 and B4 plants. The root dry weight of the citrus plants improved as a result of inoculated with bacterial isolates and there was no improvement observed in those inoculated with AM fungi. Significant differences in root dry weight were recorded for the other treatments (Fig.3.20).

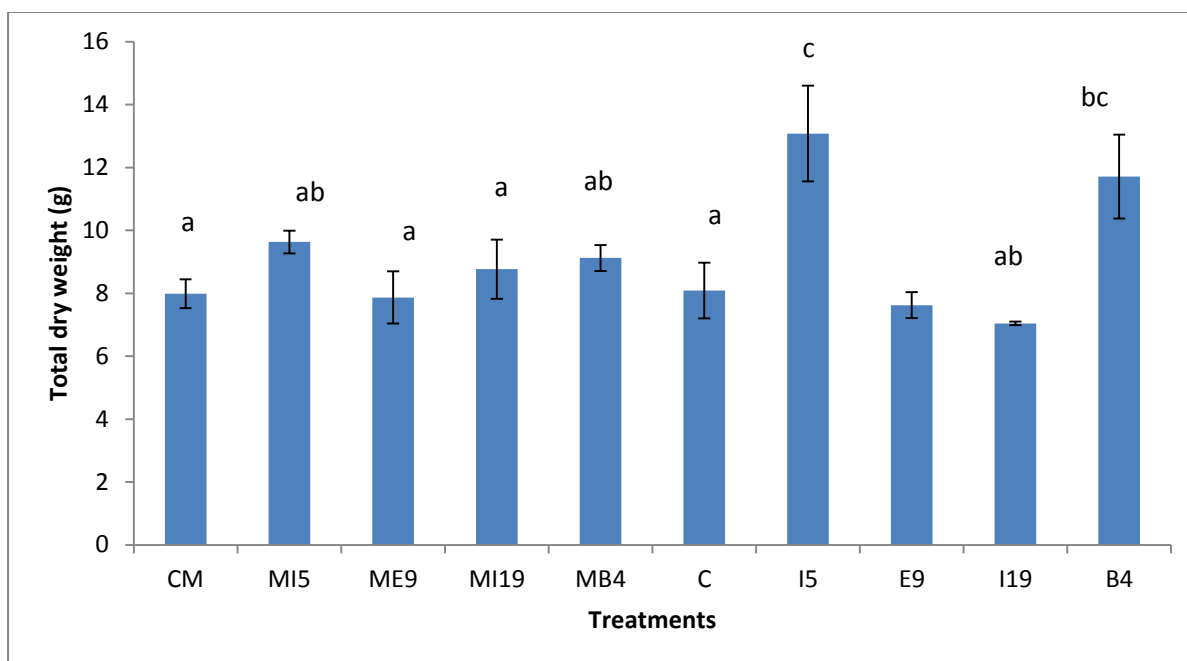


Figure 3.21: Citrus total dry weight treated with bacterial isolates I5, E9 and I19 and in combination with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi after five weeks. The treatment effect on rough lemon plant growth $F_{(11,078)} = 5.167$, $p = 0.001$. Bar represents \pm standard errors. Different letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n = 3$

3.7 Dry shoot and root analysis

Analysis of dry shoot and root weight were analysed using the ratio method where each plant dry shoots were divided by dry root weight (Figure 3.16). This was done to correct the plants initial weight as the plant varied in sizes.

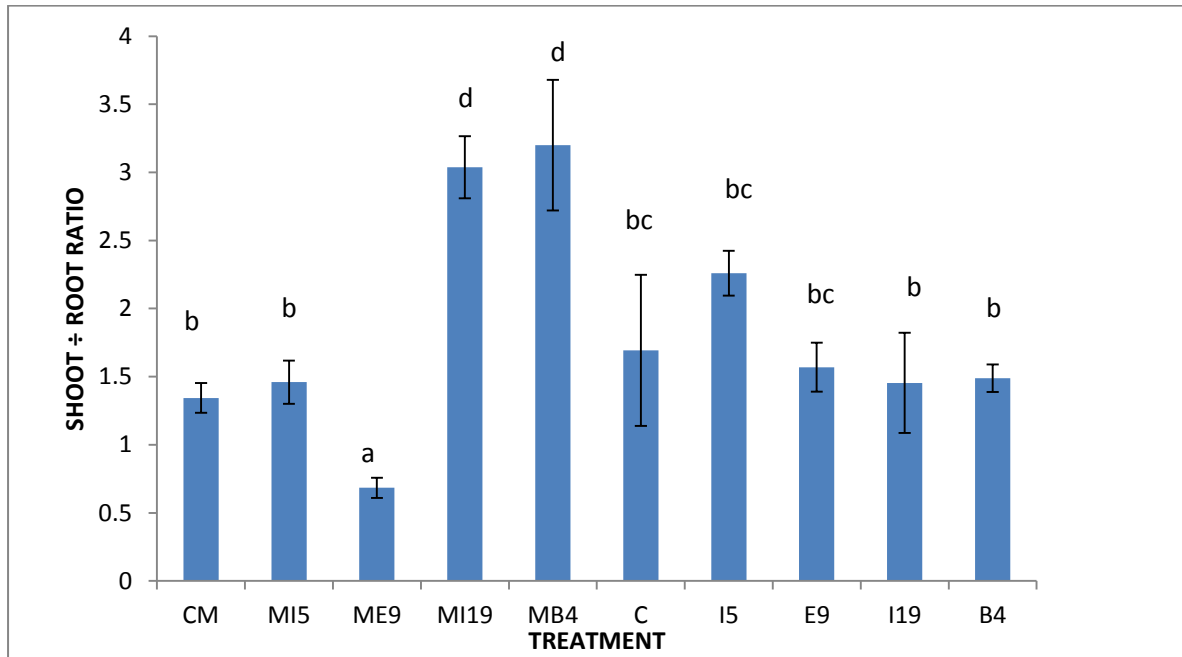


Figure 3.22: Citrus shoot height ratio (cm) treated with I5, E9 and I19 and arbuscular mycorrhizae after five weeks. The treatment effect on rough lemon plant growth (Mean, LS), current effect $F_{(11,440)} = 1.850$; $P 0.002$. Bar represents \pm standard errors. Different letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$) by Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $n=3$

CHAPTER 4
DISCUSSION

4.1 Isolation of arbuscular mycorrhizal spores and associated bacteria

This study shows the beneficial effect of mycorrhizal fungi and associate fungi in promoting growth of citrus, thus enhancing its productivity. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi exist in soil as spores (Harrison, 2005) and in this study these propagules were extracted in order to isolate and assess colonising bacteria. The spores isolated were tentatively identified as belonging to the genus *Glomus* (Fig 3.1). Mycorrhizal helper bacteria (MHB) in most cases have been found to colonise mainly the outer spore wall layer or extraradical hyphae and rarely penetrate into inner layer (Bonfante-Fasolo and Schubert., 1987; Maia and Kimbrough. 1998) but some investigators have reported bacteria occurring in the cytoplasm of AM fungal spores (Bianciotto *et al.*, 2000). Based on these reports bacteria were isolated from the external surface of the AM fungal spores and internally from the cytoplasm. For internal isolations spores were first surface sterilising with a series of antibiotics followed by crushing. During isolation of internal bacteria several attempts were made with little success perhaps indicating that sterilisation was too harsh or that spore walls were damaged allowing the antibiotics to enter the spore, several studies have found AM spores to have holes in their surface possibly due to predation Roessti *et al.*, (2005). Fillippi *et al.*, (1998) using a transmission electron microscopy found that bacterial formed holes in the outer layer of *G.mosseae* spores and suggested that these were due to lytic activity.. After several attempts a few isolates were successfully grown. However it must be mentioned that these isolates do not reflect the true population of internally residing bacteria as an unculturable component of the population, the endosymbiotic bacteria, have been previously mentioned (Bianciotto *et al.*, 2000).

Although identifying the AM fungi for this study was not an objective there has been some studies that suggested that the associated bacteria are AM spores specific. Toljander *et al.*, (2006) was able to isolate *Paenibacillus brasiliensis* and *Pseudomonas fluorescens* bacteria associated with extraradical hyphae of *Glomus intraradices*. Mayo *et al.*, (1986) found *Bacillus* and *Pseudomonas* spp to be associated with spores from *Glomus verisiforme*. Roesti *et al.*, (2005) assessed bacterial community associated with spores of *Glomus geosporum* and *Glomus constrictum*. The bacteria isolated included *Chondondromyces*, *Flexibacter*, *Lysobacteria* and *Pseudomonas*. However in order to determine the specific nature of these associations, studies comparing AM fungal species isolated from the same soils and under the same conditions would need to be compared. There is little evidence to suggest that the

associated bacteria are not influenced by the resident soil microbial populations. Root exudation is another factor that influences bacterial communities stimulating their growth in the rhizosphere. AM fungal spore germination and presymbiotic growth towards the host root is also influenced by root exudates (Mayo *et al.*, 1986). The quality and composition of exudates differ from one plant to another and different bacterial communities could be stimulated depending on preference for distinct plant exudates. These differences could dictate the composition of bacterial communities on AM spore surface and require further investigation. The majority of plant–microbe interactions in the soil rely on the release of various compounds from roots that can affect the growth and activity of microbes (Hartmann *et al.*, 2009). Root exudates of mycorrhizal plants also contain hyphal exudates and deposition of AM fungal mycelial products that could serve as substrates for bacterial growth and impose a direct influence on bacterial communities in the mycorrhizosphere. These exudates could also influence the bacterial communities growing within the fungal network as well as on fungal surfaces. Studies comparing bacterial populations around mycorrhizal plant roots and un-inoculated plant roots have indicated changes in the bacterial populations (Harrison, 2005)

The purpose of the spore extraction was to isolate bacteria that were associated on or found in the spores (Garbaye, 1994). A total of 19 bacterial isolates were isolated from the external and internal spore surfaces. This is comparable to a study by Bharadwaj *et al.*, (2012) where they isolated 10 bacterial isolates from AM spores. Lecomte *et al.*, (2011) isolated 29 bacterial isolates from AM spores indicated that our numbers may have been low.

4.2 Identification of bacterial isolates

Identification and characterisation of bacteria is an important requirement in understanding the functional abilities of the bacteria and hence determine the possible mechanisms that could be contributing to the association with mycorrhizal fungi. The isolates were initially morphologically identified based on the colony appearance in nutrient agar plant, looking at colour, shape (Fig 3.2 and Table 3.1) and Gram reaction. This provides only a crude initial characterisation and generic identifications cannot be made with any certainty. Gram staining was performed to ensure that the isolates were purified and not mixed as well as to determine the shape and Gram reaction of the cells. The results (Table 3.1) confirmed that a selection

of different bacteria were isolated being a combination of Gram positive rods, cocci and Gram negative rods. Xavier and Germinda, (2003) isolated both Gram positive and Gram negative rods which were naturally associated with *G. clarum* spores and Mayo *et al.*, (1986) in their studies reported that Gram positive and Gram negative bacteria were found in colonising *G. verisiforme* spores.

Phenotypic identifications have some limitations as it is difficult to identify the isolate with any certainty. For accurate identification of the 19 bacterial isolates Polymerase Chain Reactions on extracted DNA were performed to amplify the double stranded DNA template (Black, 2008). In this study the 16S rDNA bacterial primers, Fd1 and rP2 were used. Fd1 and rP2 sequencing primers are useful for conserved regions within the 16S rDNA and are capable of amplifying a variety of bacterial taxa and a maximum number of nucleotides in the 16S rDNA (Weisburg *et al.*, 1991). Using the 16s rDNA sequencing can assist in the identification of isolates to generic and species levels. BLAST nucleotide searches of the 16s rDNA gene showed sequences homologies of 95 to 99 % maximum identification (Table 3.2). Sequence homologies of 95 to 96 % were indicative of genera matches while a 98 to 100 % sequence homologies is regarded suitable enough for the species determination (Lecomte *et al.*, 2011).

Isolates were shown after comparison to the GenBank database to belong to the genera *Bacillus*, *Micrococcus*, *Staphylococcus* and *Ochrobacterum* (Table 3.2). *Bacillus* and *Micrococcus* were dominant genera in this study. The Gram reactions of the isolates provided confirmation of the molecular identities. *Bacillus* has been reported to be associated with AM spores (Xavier and Germida, 2003; Cruz *et al.*, 2008). *Bacillus*, *Micrococcus* and *Ochrobacterum* sp have been previously reported as plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (Chakraborty *et al.*, 2009; Tsavkelova *et al.*, 2005) and little is documented about *Staphylococcus* being either associated with mycorrhizal spores or as a PGPR.

Zhao *et al.*, (2012) isolated and characterized a plant rhizosphere bacterial strain, *Ochrobactrum* sp to evaluate its plant growth promotion capabilities by inoculating the isolate on cucumber in pot experiments. *Ochrobactrum* sp was able to increase the growth of cucumber in natural garden soil. Leaf and root lengths were significantly increased by 27% and 58%, respectively compared with the uninoculated control. Safa and Ali, (2011) inoculated mung bean with *Bacillus* sp in pot trails under natural environmental conditions and recorded maximum increase for shoot length (57%), shoot fresh weight (85%), shoot dry

weight (96%), and seeds weight (19%). Dastager *et al.*, (2010) isolated and identified *Micrococcus* sp from a forest soil and determined the plant growth promotion potential. It was observed that the cow pea seedlings which were inoculated with *Micrococcus* sp had a 100% and 39.2% increase in root and shoot lengths, respectively compared to uninoculated control. Increase in dry biomass, as well as number of roots were also observed. Kumar *et al.*, (2012) isolated various plant growth promoting strains from the rhizosphere soils of French bean plants and identified that bacteria as *Bacillus* sp, *Micrococcus* sp, and *Pseudomonas* sp.

The isolates from this study were further tested for plant growth promoting abilities such as the phosphate solubilisation and Indole Acetic Acid production and tested for their ability to inhibit pathogenic fungal growth.

4.3 Phosphate solubilisation

Phosphate is a major nutrient for plants and microbes (Khan *et al.*, 2010), but is mainly bound or complexed into inaccessible forms resulting in phosphate deficiencies. Soil bacteria are key solubilisers of phosphate in the soil. There are three factors that bacteria depend on in order to solubilise phosphate, these include nutritional, physiological and growth condition of the medium. In this study bacterial isolates were tested for phosphate solubilisation potential on a modified phosphate medium-NBRIP which is media supplemented with insoluble phosphate as the sole source of P (Mehta and Nautiyal, 2001). The solubilisation activity by the bacteria is related to its organic acid production and it has been reported to be affected by the carbon source (Fasim *et al.*, 2002). Reports show that P solubilising bacteria produce organic acids such as oxalic acid, gluconic acid, malic, lactic and citric acid which lead to acidification of the microbial cells and their surroundings, this releases P ions from the P mineral by H⁺ substitution for Ca²⁺ (Singal *et al.*, 1994; Vyas and Gulati, 2009; Bolan *et al.*, 1996; Hue *et al.*, 1986) and the zone of clearance or halo on the plate is due to the production of organic acids in the surrounding medium which lead to decrease of pH (Rodriguez *et al.*, 2006; Puente *et al.*, 2004). Of the 19 isolates that were tested only one isolate was able to solubilise phosphate (Fig 3.4). During identification that isolate was identified as a *Bacillus* species. This phosphate solubilising *Bacillus* was isolated internally from crushed spores; this is of interest as one of the key and most studied benefits of mycorrhizal fungi is enhance P

uptake and acquisition (Smith and Read, 2008). Bacteria within AM spores could be contributing significantly to this mycorrhizal benefit by assisting with the release of organic acids to solubilise external complexed sources of P. Several studies have reported *Bacillus* species as a phosphate solubiliser (Khan *et al.*, 2010; Maheswar and Sathiyavani, 2012; Sultan *et al.*, 2010; Veline and Brahmaaprakashi, 2011). Some *Bacillus* strains have been found to produce mixtures of lactic, isovaleric and isobutyric acids (Rodriguez *et al.*, 1999).

Not all *Bacillus* species are able to solubilise phosphate, Saidi *et al.*, (2009), isolated and tested 20 species of *Bacillus* for phosphate solubilisation and only 5 was able to solubilise phosphate. Of the 11 *Bacillus* isolates identified in this study only one was positive for solubilisation. The ability of bacterial isolates to solubilise phosphate has been linked to enhanced plant growth. Gai and Gaur (1991) experimenting on mung bean that were grown in a P-deficient field soil amended with insoluble rock phosphate and inoculated with *B. subtilis* showed significantly increased biomass, grain yield, and P uptake. Similarly, De Freitas, *et al.*, (1997) found a number of P solubilising *Bacillus* isolates and a *Xanthomonas maltophilia* isolate from *Brassica napus L.* rhizosphere which had positive effects on plant growth. A study by Datta *et al.*, (1982) showed an increase in grain yield and P uptake in rice when inoculated with P-solubilizing strain of *B. firmus* in a P-deficient soil with rock phosphate.

Interestingly the isolate *Micrococcus luteus* did not solubilise phosphate contrary to several studies that have shown this species to be a phosphate solubiliser. Chibuogwa and Nmesoma (2011), isolated *Micrococcus luteus* from rhizosphere soil that was able to solubilise phosphate and their study were supported by the findings of Tsavkelova *et al.*, (2004). Either the isolate from this study is a different strain or the methodology for screening is not adequate. The halo is difficult to distinguish and bromophenol blue can be added to the medium to indicate the change in pH (Mehta and Nautiyal, 2001) lengthening of the incubation time may also be required for some isolates. Isolates in the study were incubated at 30°C for 72 hrs.

Acid phosphatase production by bacteria also plays a major role in mineralisation of organically bound phosphorus in soil (Rodriguez and Fraga, 1999). Enzyme production was not tested in this study. However these isolates may have contributed to P acquisition in other way not included in this study.

4.4 Indole Acetic Acid

The 19 bacterial isolates were tested for IAA production (Cappuccino and Sherman, 2005). Only 4 isolates (E9, E10, E11 and E14 Figure 3.5, Table 3.3) gave positive results. These bacterial species were identified to be *Micrococcus* sp, *Micrococcus luteus*, *Ochrobacterum* sp and *Ochrobacterum antropi*. IAA is considered to be an important phytohormone and functions in regulation of plant development (Sahab *et al.*, 2009). It has been reported that IAA production by PGPR can vary among different species and strains, and is also influenced by culture conditions, growth stage and substrate availability (Mirza *et al.*, 2001). Chakraborty *et al.*, (2009) isolated *Ochrobacterum anthropi* TRS-2, from the rhizosphere of tea which tested positive for IAA production. Dastager *et al.*, (2010) isolated and identified a *Micrococcus* sp from forest soils for evaluation of their effectiveness as a plant growth promoter. The isolate was able to produce IAA, it was further used in a pot trial of cow pea plant and IAA was positively shown to influence root growth and development, thereby enhancing nutrient uptake of the plant. The bacteria able to produce IAA were all isolated from the external AM spore surfaces, as IAA was detected in the supernatant it is probably that the release of IAA into the soil environment stimulates root development in order to increase the probability of contact between germinating AM spores and the host plant (Zafar *et al.*, 2012). Whether IAA stimulates AM spore germination and hyphal proliferation it not known, but could be further investigated in future studies. Kumar *et al.*, (2012) isolated a total of 30 bacteria we from French bean and *in vitro* screened for different plant growth promotion activities such as phosphate solubilisation, IAA production, ammonia production, ACC deaminase activity, HCN production and catalase. These isolates were identified as *Bacillus* sp, *Micrococcus* sp, and *Pseudomonas* sp which had plant promoting qualities as 5 could solubilise phosphate and 5 could produce Indole acetic acid.

4.5 Fungal inhibition

Phytophthora causes the most serious soil borne diseases in citrus plants (Martin and Lopez, 1999). Biological control offers an environmentally safe alternative to chemical use and is an attractive model for plant protection against plant diseases. Many biological agents are found by screening large number of microorganisms against plant pathogen *in vitro* (Anith *et al.*,

2003; Berg *et al.*, 2005). Antagonistic microorganisms have been selected through screening methods with *Bacillus* often showing antimicrobial activity (Kloepper, 1991; Xiao *et al.*, 2002). *Bacillus* spp. has enormous potential as biological control agents because they produce active antagonistic metabolites and also form endospores that survive under adverse environmental conditions (Handelsman *et al.*, 1990; Silo-Suh *et al.*, 1994). *Bacillus* spp. have been shown to produce antibiotics such as Zwittermicin A or Kanosamine which are active against *Phytophthora* spp (Milner *et al.*, 1995; Silo-suh *et al.*, 1994; Yu *et al.*, 2002) and these traits appear to contribute to establishment and persistence of the antagonist in the plant rhizosphere (Krebs *et al.*, 1998).

In this study 3 *Phytophthora* spp were tested against 19 bacterial isolates to evaluate if they had potential in inhibiting fungal growth. The chosen citrus pathogen species were *P. citrophthora*, *P. citrocola*, and *P. nicotianae*. An *in vitro* dual culture experiment was done where each bacterial isolate was tested against each fungal pathogen and results obtained showed that there were significant differences observed in *P. citrophthora* (Fig 3.6) as P value was 0.026 but with *P. nicotianae* (Fig 3.9) and *P. citrocola* (Fig 3.12) there were no significant differences as the P value was greater than 0.05. Isolate I5, E9, I19 did show some inhibition potential when compared with the control and a growth curve was done for three isolate, I5, E9 and there were significant differences observed in *P. citrophthora* (Fig 3.8) and *P. nicotianae* (Fig 3.11) as P value was less than 0.005 but with *P. citrocola* (Fig 3.14) there were no significant differences as the P value was greater than 0.05. Isolate I5 identified as a *Bacillus* E9 identified as *Micrococcus* spp. and I19 as *Bacillus cereus*, respectively, showed some inhibition. Some *Bacillus* spp. and *Micrococcus* spp. produce antifungal inhibitors but a differential effect was observed in this study.

Bharadwaj *et al.* (2008a, 2008b) isolated *Bacillus* from the surface of *G. mosseae* and *G. intraradices* and these were found to inhibit the growth of *Rhizoctonia solani* and *Verticillium dahlia* which are fungal pathogens of potato. Ahmed *et al.*, (2003) reported some inhibition of *Phytophthora* spp by *Bacillus* in a greenhouse experiment on pepper plants. This effect was only slightly evident in this study. Interesting isolates I5 and I19 were both identified as *Bacillus* spp. Although both isolates were from internal AM spores it is clear that they are different strains or possibly different species due to their differential effect on the fungal pathogens. Isolate I5 showed no inhibition to *P. nicotianae* while I19 had some inhibitory effect against both *P. citrophthora* and *P. nicotianae*. Isolate I5 was also a phosphate solubiliser while I19 was not (Figure 3.4). This antifungal plate experiment was

conducted under conditions suitable for fungal growth (28°C on PDA medium). These conditions may not have been favourable for the production of secondary antagonistic metabolites by the bacterial isolates. PDA has a high carbohydrate level compared to standard bacteriological medium such as Nutrient Agar. The bacteria were inoculated into wells a distance away from the centrally inoculated fungal plug, apart from conditions perhaps not being favourable for secondary metabolite, metabolites if produced, may not have been able to diffuse through the agar.

Three bacterial isolates I5 identified as *Bacillus* spp, E9 as *Micrococcus* spp and I19 as *Bacillus* sp were selected for their potential antifungal abilities by testing the effects of their metabolites released into the medium or supernatant. Many studies have implicated antifungal secondary metabolites produced by *Bacillus* in the control of plant diseases such as brown rot caused by pathogenic fungi like *Fusarium* sp (Kotan *et al.*, 2009, Lucas-García *et al.*, 2004; Sadfi *et al.*, 2002).

4.6 Metabolite inhibition assay

Isolates I5, E9, I19 were grown in nutrient broth and supernatant was collected and used in a 96 well plate assay. Metabolite secretions were tested against the three *Phytophthora* spp. The plate assay ensured that compounds in the supernatant were in constant contact with the fungal mycelium. These isolates were identified as *Bacillus* spp, *Micrococcus* and *Bacillus cereus* spp. and all supernatants showed some inhibitory effect against the fungal pathogens, *Phytophthora citrophthora*, *P.citrocola*, and *P.nicotianae* (Figs 3.15; 3.16; 3.17). Negative absorbance values recorded were a result of cell debris and precipitate accumulation in the wells.

Interaction between *P. citrophthora* and the supernatant of the three bacterial isolates is shown in figure 3.12. Supernatant from both *Bacillus* sp and *Bacillus cereus* inhibited fungal growth within 3 days. *Micrococcus* sp metabolites also reduced fungal growth although the pathogen was not inhibited completely. *Bacillus* (Isolate I5) metabolite, initially reduced growth during the first 2 days, but the effect was subsequently overcome. However after day 3, growth was again reduced and inhibited by day 4 and 5 (Fig 3.15). The growth curve observed was a form of diauxic growth curve which is when a species in this case the fungal pathogen has two growth peaks. *Bacillus* spp. are known to produce enzymes such as

cellulose that have degrading properties against some pathogenic fungal cell wall components (Aktugano *et al.*, 2003; Jarnagin and Ferrari, 1992). Isolate I19 metabolites initially stimulated fungal growth, possibly a nutritional effect, but thereafter growth was reduced and later inhibited. Isolate E9 metabolites decreased fungal growth. The bioassay was run for 5 days; longer incubation time may have resulted in the eventual inhibition of growth by all isolates (Fig 3.15).

In the *P. nicotianae* inhibition assay interactions with the bacterial metabolites from isolates I5, E9 and I19 presented different results as seen in *P. citrophthora*. In combination with isolate I19 metabolite there was initial growth followed by reduced growth by day 3 with inhibition occurring by day 4. Isolate I5 metabolites stimulated initial growth followed by a gradual decrease in growth with inhibition occurring by day 4. Isolate E9 metabolites reduced fungal growth but did not show inhibition (Figure 3.16). Growth of *P. citrocicola* was completely inhibited by isolate I5 metabolites, while isolate I19 metabolites showed initial growth followed by a reduction after day 2 and inhibition by day 4. Only slight reduction in fungal growth was recorded for metabolites from E9 no growth was observed between the initial day and day 1 and from day 1 to day 2 there was an increase in growth. Although fungal growth was reduced, it was not completely inhibited (Figure 3.17). From these results it is interesting to note that the two internally isolated bacterial supernatants from *Bacillus* sp and *Bacillus cereus* were more antagonistically activity against *Phytophthora*.

Biological control is an important alternative in managing soil borne plant disease as the use of naturally occurring organisms is safer for the environment than chemicals (Guo *et al.*, 2004; Whipps and Van, 1999). Many potential biological control agents have been found by screening (Berg *et al.*, 2005). Inhibition of growth in *Phytophthora* by *Bacillus* could be explained as due to the production of antibiotics or production of enzymes such as cellulases as previously mentioned. *Phytophthora* belongs to the fungal phylum Oomycota which is characterised by having cellulose as a major component of their cell walls, unlike of other fungi which have chitin (Bharadwaj *et al.* 2008a). *Bacillus* spp are used as biological control agents because they produce active antagonistic metabolites and are well known to be antibiotic producers with antagonistic activity against fungi pathogens (Kloepper *et al.*, 2004; Krebs *et al.*, 1998; Yu *et al.*, 2002).

Bacillus spp can also enhance their antagonistic effects against fungal pathogens by competition in a form of direct parasitism (Muninbazi and Bullerman, 1998; Walker *et al.*, 1998). This mechanism was not investigated in this study.

Some species of *Bacillus cereus* have been shown to produce a novel aminopolyol antibiotic Zwittermicin A that has a potential to suppress *Phytophthora spp* (He *et al.*, 1994). Handelsman *et al.*, (1991) used *Bacillus spp* to inhibit the growth of *Phytophthora nicotianae* in tobacco seedlings and as seen in our study *Bacillus cereus* was also able to inhibit the growth of *Phytophthora nicotianae*. Budi *et al.*, (2000) isolated *Paenibacillus spp.* strain B2 that produced hydrolytic enzymes with antagonistic effect on two pathogenic fungi, *P. parasitica* and *Fusarium oxysporum*. Their results showed that the presence of *Paenibacillus sp.* strain B2 resulted in disorganisation of cell walls of *P. parasitica* and *F. oxysporum* and concluded that the inhibitory effect of *Paenibacillus sp.* strain B2 on the growth of soil-borne fungal pathogens was probably derived from production of enzymes or the cellulolytic activity of *Paenibacillus* and possibly chitin degrading potential as *Fusarium* has chitin as a major component in their cell walls.

Although there are not many studies reporting on *Bacillus* and *Phytophthora* interaction, antagonistic activity against pathogenic fungi by *Bacillus* have been reported in several studies, Saidi *et al.*, (2009) reported some inhibition effect on *Fusarium spp* by *Bacillus* in tomato plants.

4.7 Growth evaluation of citrus growth

Citrus roots have been known to form symbiotic associations with arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi (Rayner 1935). In this study citrus seedlings were inoculated with mycorrhizal inoculum (MycorootTM) and bacterial isolates I5, E9 and I19 in order to evaluate their effect on plant growth promotion abilities as it is well documented that arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi colonisation of roots can enhance plant growth. Masri *et al.*, (1998) reported *Glomus mosseae* colonisation was able to enhanced growth, leaf transpiration and conductance of *Garcinia mangostana L.* and also caused a 67–88% improvement in P uptake efficiency compared to un-inoculated control plants. Yano-Melo *et al.* (1999) in their studies reported that *Glomus clarum* and *Glomus etunicatum* enhanced growth, photosynthesis and transpiration rates of *Citrus jambhiri* Lush. AM fungi increased root length of *Citrus jambhiri*

and increased whole plant transpiration when soil was moist. Camprubi *et al.*, (1995) inoculated *Glomus intraradices* onto citrus rootstock, *Citrus reshni* and observed the growth was stimulated as the dry weight of the plant increased from 1.2 g to 1.4 g compared with control and the AM fungi was able to colonise the roots by 51 %.

The citrus seedlings in this study were removed after 5 weeks in order to reduce the spread of a pathogen that was picked up in the roots of plants. Although this pathogen was not identified it caused wilting, so it was possibly a *Fusarium* and was initially thought to have been introduced in the compost growth medium mixture even though the medium was pasteurised. However, surplus seedlings which were not planted out into pots and left in the seedling tray also shown similar symptoms without coming into contact with the compost mixture. This suggested that the infection came in with the seedlings and was already established, limiting the ability of the mycorrhizal fungi to colonise the plant roots.

Despite the reduced experimental time significant growth difference were recorded. Unfortunately mycorrhizal colonisation was difficult to assess microscopical, experiments usually run for a minimum of 8-12 weeks. Increased mycorrhizal percentage colonisation would have indicated whether any of the bacterial isolates had mycorrhizal helper abilities. This could not be claimed, however, plant growth promotion effects were recorded. *Bacillus* sp had the most significant growth effect compared to the control when assessing shoot height.

The bacterial treatments alone did not significantly increase shoot growth as measure by difference in shoot height from planting. The combination of mycorrhizal and *Micrococcus* (isolate E9) inoculation, and mycorrhizal and *Bacillus* (isolate I19) inoculation significantly increased shoot height by approximately 3 fold. Inoculation with mycorrhizal fungi and the three bacterial isolates combined (treatment MB4) significantly increased shoot height but growth was depressed when compared to the other two treatments. Indicating that the treatment combination with the other *Bacillus* sp (isolate I5) had a negative influence on shoot height, this is interesting as treatment with isolate I5 alone was significantly better than treatment with isolate E9. This suggests that competition between potential plant growth promoting isolates needs to be consider when selecting isolates for future commercial application.

The dry shoot weight of treatments with mycorrhiza and combined bacterial isolates (MB4), *Bacillus* sp (isolate I5) and combined bacterial isolates (B4) showed a significant increase

(Figure 3.19). This is contradictory to the shoot height data which indicates that although shoot growth may have been depressed the plants energy was channelled to increasing mass. At this early stage of growth it is difficult to determine whether this would have a positive or a negative influence as the sapling mature and eventually bear fruit. There are several studies that report *Bacillus* sp as a plant growth promoter and a biocontrol agent (Wahyudi *et al.*, 2011). In this study, roots were observed to be infected with a pathogenic fungus, but plants were able to survive despite this challenge. It is tempting to assume that that the bacterial treatment could be aiding growth due to some biocontrol activity, however there is no evidence to support this.

Root dry weight was significantly increased by the mycorrhizal treatment (CM) showing approximately a 3 fold increase in weight compared to the uninoculated control (C) treatment. This suggests that initial mycorrhizal effect was on stimulating root growth rather than shoot growth. Treatments MI5 - mycorrhiza and *Bacillus* sp, *Bacillus* sp alone (isolate I5) and combined bacteria (B4) also significantly increased root weight but not as much as the mycorrhizal treatment alone (Figure 3.20). Stimulation of root growth is usually associated with the production of IAA, however only isolate E9 was shown to produce IAA, although this may have contributed increase in root weight of the combined bacterial treatment (B4) the other bacterial isolates were not shown to produce IAA (Figure 3.5). This suggests that other mechanisms or other hormones may be responsible.

Total biomass (shoot plus root dry weights) was significantly increased by inoculations with treatment I5 (*Bacillus* sp) and combined bacterial treatment (Fig 3.21), indicating overall the benefits of using multi-agent based inoculum. As shoot and root weight could not be corrected for initial weight of the seedling at planting the shoot to root ratio was also analysed, results indicated a significant increase with the mycorrhizal treatment in combination with *Bacillus* sp (isolate I19) and mycorrhizal treatment combined with all three bacterial isolates (MB4) (Figure 3.22), this indicates a strong contribution of shoot biomass. Mycorrhizal treatment with *Bacillus* sp (isolate E9) had a significantly lower shoot to root ration indicating the emphasis of the root biomass (Figure 3.22).

4.8 AM fungal colonisation

4.8.1 Period of inoculation

AM fungal colonisation was not confirmed, although some contribution to growth promotion was attributed to the presence of mycorrhizal inoculation. There are several factors such as the period of trial, size of the plant as the plants were mostly well established, and lastly the bacteria interaction with the AM fungi, which may have affected colonisation. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi colonising a host plant roots involves a series of complex morphogenic changes in the fungus such as spore germination, hyphal differentiation, root penetration, development within the plant and arbuscule formation and that usually take about 8 to 10 weeks depending of the roots of the plants (Harrison, 1995, Smith and Read, 2008). Other studies on AM inoculated plants have reported run pot trials for a period of at least 3 or more months depending on plant (Wu and Xia, 2006). Wu *et al.*, (2008) Inoculated citrus plant (*Poncirus trifoliata*) with *G.mosseae*, *G. veriformme* and *G. diaphanum* for 4 months. They observed citrus seedlings were infected by AM fungi and the average root colonisation varied from 13.64% to 67.21%. *G. mosseae*- inoculation showed the highest AM fungus colonisation and hyphal density and *G. diaphanum*-inoculation the lowest AM fungus colonisation. Enhanced growth due to mycorrhizal fungi is a result of the successful establishment of colonisation and arbuscules which are involved in bidirectional nutrient transfer as well as the development of extraradical hyphal which are involved in nutrient uptake (Smith and Read, 2008). The subsample of roots selected for staining was a small portion of the root system and the initial mycorrhizal fungal contact with roots and appressorium development may have gone unobserved. The remaining roots had already been oven dried for biomass determination eliminating any further microscopic observations. The influence of unidentified fungal pathogen could have also delayed mycorrhizal establishment. Competition for space within root cells has been recorded in interactions between AM fungi and *Phytophthora*. Early establishment of AM fungi and formation of arbuscules excluded the growth of pathogenic fungi in colonised cells and adjacent cells, this has been attributed to both competition for space as well as priming of the plants own defence mechanisms through the production of phenolic compounds and pathogenesis related proteins (Mandel *et al.*, 2010). It is not unlikely that should a fungal pathogen be the first to become established in root cells, they could exclude the formation of mycorrhizal colonisation. This is particularly relevant when considering timing of application of mycorrhizal inoculum, the earlier the mycorrhizal fungi become established the better. Under nursery conditions the

inoculum should be applied at the time of seeding so that developing roots quickly become colonised and the growing seedling are able to fully benefit from the association. This is particularly important for fruit trees such as citrus which are grown for several years in orchards.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY

5.1 Isolation of AM spores and associated bacteria

Different bacterial species were successfully isolated from AM fungal spores extracted from soils obtained from under citrus trees. This however does not represent the complete bacterial population that associates with AM spores as many bacterial species are unculturable or may not have been isolated under the growth conditions provided. AM fungal spore identification and density was not of importance in this study as the focus was on the bacteria that were associated with the AM fungal spores. Different bacterial species were obtained from the nutrient agar plate but the bacterial isolates lacked diversity. The same bacteria were isolated from nutrient agar plates even though spore extractions were done several times. However this lack of diversity could be attributed to the surrounding soil microbial populations and it would be of interest to compare bacterial populations from the rhizosphere and AM fungal surfaces. Only a small fraction (1 to 10%) of the total bacterial community associated with AM spores is culturable. Further investigations would need to consider other methods for microbial diversity studies these could include direct molecular approaches that avoid a cultivation step to give a broader picture of the bacterial communities. The use of PCR analysis for the 16S rDNA gene permits fingerprinting of the dominant bacteria of a given sample. Suggested molecular approaches could include 454 Pyrosequencing which is able to provide not only an indication of diversity but also identify dominant species (Tedersoo *et al.*, 2010).

5.2 Morphological and Molecular identification

Although microscopic examination after Gram staining provided some morphological information of the isolated bacteria, molecular techniques using PCR and sequencing was more useful in identification. The main genera identified were *Bacillus*, *Micrococcus*, *Staphylococcus* and *Ochrobacterum*, with *Bacillus* species being the most dominant. The dominance of *Bacillus* was interesting as these bacteria produce endospores which ensure survival under adverse conditions (Mobberley *et al.*, 2010).

5.3 Evaluation of bacteria growth properties

One *Bacillus* species isolated from crushed AM spores was a phosphate solubiliser and this interaction may of particular relevance to ability of mycorrhizal fungi to access complexed sources of P. The isolate has the potential to be a plant growth promoter due to the nutrient uptake-enhancing property given that phosphate is an essential nutrient required for plant growth. However it must not be forgotten that the bacteria themselves as well the mycorrhizal fungi also require phosphate for growth as it is an important component as membranes, nuclei acids and provides energy for metabolic processes (Rodriguez *et al.*, 2006). *Micrococcus* and *Ochrobacterum* sp were found to be indole acetic acid producers. IAA is one of the most important phytohormone and function as important signal molecule in the regulation of plant development by playing a key role in both root and shoot development of a plant (Rodriguez and Fraga, 1999).

5.4 Fungal pathogen inhibition

Two methods of assessing fungal pathogen inhibition were used in this study. The plate method showed variable inhibition result but not complete inhibition, while the metabolite bioassay using the 96 well plates showed increased inhibition possibly due to the direct contact between the inhibitory compounds and the fungal mycelium. Inhibition was not attributed to nutrient competition or starvation as control treatments showed expected fungal growth curves. *Bacillus* species were more noticeable to have inhibition effect on fungal growth of *P. citrophthora* and *P. nicotianae*. The assays confirmed that *Bacillus* sp could be potential biological control agents against these citrus pathogens *Bacillus* sp have enormous potential as biological control agents because they produce active antagonistic metabolites and also form endospores that survive under adverse environmental conditions (Handelsman *et al.*, 1990; Silo-Suh *et al.*, 1994). *Bacillus* sp have shown to produce antibiotics which have antagonistic activity against fungal growth (Yu *et al.*, 2002) and these traits appear to contribute to establishment and persistence of the antagonist in the plant (Krebs *et al.*, 1998). Development of commercial biological control products is also able to make use of the endospores in their formulation, resulting in products with a longer shelf life.

5.5 Growth evaluation of citrus plants

Although this trial was conducted for only a short period mycorrhizal inoculation did significantly affect root development and in combination with the bacterial isolates particularly the *Bacillus* sp showed plant growth promoting abilities. Selection of bacterial isolates and their combination with mycorrhizal fungi needs to be further investigated. Future pot trials should consider the timing of inoculation of both mycorrhizal fungi and bacteria as this could affect not only the establishment of the mycorrhizal association but also improve the health of seedlings. For longer term trials multiple applications of the bacterial isolates may also be considered in order to ensure population establishment.

5.6 Conclusion

All the objectives for this study have been met to some extent this included isolation of bacteria from AM fungal spores, assessment of antagonist activity of bacterial isolates against *Phytophthora*, evaluation of plant growth promoting properties of bacterial isolates, identification of selected bacterial isolates and investigating whether bacterial isolates associated with AM fungi are important for mycorrhizal establishment and plant growth. Although further investigations are required particularly in the nursery the combined use of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and associated bacteria have the potential to improve citrus growth and health.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Modified phosphate medium-NBRIP (Mehta and Nautiyal, 2001).

Preparation in 1L

10 g glucose,

5 g $\text{CaHPO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$,

5 g $\text{MgCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$,

0.25 g $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$,

0.2 g KCL,

0.1 g $(\text{NH}_4)_2 \text{SO}_4$

15 g of agar

APPENDIX B

1% agarose gel

1g agarose powder

100 ml distilled water

TE (Tris/ EDTA) Buffer pH 8

Tris/ HCl pH 8 10mM

EDTA pH 8 10mM

Preparation in 1 liter

5X TBE (Tris-EDTA) Buffer, mix following:

- ❖ 5.3g of Tris base
- ❖ 27.5g of boric acid

- ❖ 20 ml 500 mM EDTA pH 8.0
- ❖ 1000 ml distilled water

To make make 1X TBE Buffer working solution

Add 200ml of 5X TBE in 800ml distilled water

Storage is at room temperature.

APPENDIX C

Roots staining solutions (Smith and Dickson, 1997)

5% KOH

100 g KOH

2 L distilled water

Alkaline Peroxide H₂O₂

3 ml NH₄OH (Ammonia)

30 ml 10% H₂O₂

576 ml distilled water

0.1 M HCl (MW36.46)

22.79 ml HCl

2 L distilled water

Lactoglycerol trypan blue stain

Lactic acid: Glycerol: Water (13:12:16)

520 ml lactic acid

480 ml Glycerol

640 ml distilled water

APPENDIX D

Alignment of isolated bacterial species with species from NCBI Genbank where the query is the isolated species and the subject is the species aligned with in the GenBank

E1 species alignment with Genbank *Bacillus* sp

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Query 4      CGCGNCTATACATGCAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTNAGAGCTTGCTCTYANGAAGTTAGCGGC 63
          ||||| |
Sbjct 2      CGCGTCTATACATGCAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTGAGAGCTTGCTCTCAAGAAGTTAGCGGC 61

Query 64     GGACNGNTGAGTAACACGTGGGTAACCTGCCATAAGACTGGGATAACTCCGGGAAACCG 123
          ||||| |
Sbjct 62     GGACGGGTGAGTAACACGTGGGTAACCTGCCATAAGACTGGGATAACTCCGGGAAACCG 121

Query 124    GGGCTAATACNGGATAACATTTTGAAGTGCATGGTTCGAAATTGAAAGGCGGCTTCGGCT 183
          ||||| |
Sbjct 122    GGGCTAATACCGGATAACATTTTGAAGTGCATGGTTCGAAATTGAAAGGCGGCTTCGGCT 181

Query 184    GTCACTTATGGATGGACCCGCGTCGCATTAGCTAGTTGGTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCAAGG 243
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Sbjct 182    GTCACTTATGGATGGACCCGCGTCGCATTAGCTAGTTGGTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCAAGG 241

Query 244    CAACGATGCGTAGCCGACCTGAGAGGGTGATCGGCCACACTGGGACTGAGACACGGCCCA 303
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Sbjct 242    CAACGATGCGTAGCCGACCTGAGAGGGTGATCGGCCACACTGGGACTGAGACACGGCCCA 301

Query 304    GACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTTCCGCAATGGACGAAAGTCTGACGGAGCA 363
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Sbjct 302    GACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTTCCGCAATGGACGAAAGTCTGACGGAGCA 361

Query 364    ACGCCGCGTGAGTGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTCGTAAACTCTGTTGTTAGGGAAGAACAAG 423
          ||||| |
Sbjct 362    ACGCCGCGTGAGTGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTCGTAAACTCTGTTGTTAGGGAAGAACAAG 421

Query 424    TGCTAGTTGAATAAGCTGGCACCTTGACGGTACCTAACCAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACTACG 483
          ||||| |
Sbjct 422    TGCTAGTTGAATAAGCTGGCACCTTGACGGTACCTAACCAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACTACG 481

Query 484    TGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTAAAG 543
          ||||| |
Sbjct 482    TGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTAAAG 541

Query 544    CGCGCGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGGTCA 603
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|||||
Sbjct 542 CGCGCGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGGTCA 601

Query 604 TTGGAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCATGTGTAGCGGTGAA 663
|||||
Sbjct 602 TTGGAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCATGTGTAGCGGTGAA 661

Query 664 ATGCGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCACTGGCGAAGGCGACTTCTGGTCTGTAAGTACA 723
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Sbjct 662 ATGCGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCACTGGCGAAGGCGACTTCTGGTCTGTAAGTACA 721

Query 724 CTGAGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCGTAA 783
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Sbjct 722 CTGAGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCGTAA 781

Query 784 ACGATGAGTGCTAAGTGTTAGAGGGTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGTGAAGTTAACGCATTAAG 843
|||||
Sbjct 782 ACGATGAGTGCTAAGTGTTAGAGGGTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGTGAAGTTAACGCATTAAG 841

Query 844 CACTCCGCCTGGGGAGTACGGCCGCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCCCGC 903
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Sbjct 842 CACTCCGCCTGGGGAGTACGGCCGCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCCCGC 901

Query 904 ACAAGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTAATTCAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTCTTGA 963
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Sbjct 902 ACAAGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTAATTCAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTCTTGA 961

Query 964 CATCCTCTGAAAACCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTGGTGC 1023
|||||
Sbjct 962 CATCCTCTGAAAACCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTGGTGC 1021

Query 1024 ATGGGTTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTGAGATGTTGGGTTA-GTCCCGCAACGAGCGCACCC 1082
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Sbjct 1022 ATGG-TTGTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCAACC 1080

Query 1083 CTTGATCTTAGTTGCCATCATTAAAGTTGGGCMCTCTACG-TGACTGCCGGTGAACAACCG 1141
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Sbjct 1081 CTTGATCTTAGTTGCCATCATTAAAGTTGGGCACTCTAAGGTGACTGCCGGTGAACAACCG 1140

Query 1142 -AG-A-G-TGGG-ATGACGTCAA-TCATCCATGGCCCCTT 1175
|| |
Sbjct 1141 GAGGAAGGTGGGGATGACGTCAAATCATC-ATG-CCCCTT 1178

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E3 species alignment with Genbank *Bacillus thuringiensis*

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Query 4      CGGCGT-CTATACATGCAAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTTRAGAGCTTGCTCTYANGAAGTTAGC 62
          ||||||| ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||| ||||||||| | |||||||||
Sbjct 9      CGGCGTGCTATACATGCAAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTGAGAGCTTGCTCTTATGAAGTTAGC 68

Query 63     GCGGACGGNTGAGTAACACGTGGGTAACCTGCCATAAGACTGGGATAACTCCGGGAAA 122
          ||||||||| ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||| |||||||||
Sbjct 69     GCGGACGGGTGAGTAACACGTGGGTAACCTGCCATAAGACTGGGATAACTCCGGGAAA 128

Query 123    CCGGGGCTAATACCGGATAACATTTTGAAGTGCATGGTTCGAAATTGAAAGGCGGCTTCG 182
          ||||||||||| ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||| |||||||||
Sbjct 129    CCGGGGCTAATACCGGATAACATTTTGAAGTGCATGGTTCGAAATTGAAAGGCGGCTTCG 188

Query 183    GCTGTCACTTATGGATGGACCCGCGTCGCATTAGCTAGTTGGTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCA 242
          ||||||||||| ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||| |||||||||
Sbjct 189    GCTGTCACTTATGGATGGACCCGCGTCGCATTAGCTAGTTGGTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCA 248

Query 243    AGGCAACGATGCGTAGCCGACCTGAGAGGGTGATCGGCCACACTGGGACTGAGACACGGC 302
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Sbjct 249    AGGCAACGATGCGTAGCCGACCTGAGAGGGTGATCGGCCACACTGGGACTGAGACACGGC 308

Query 303    CCAGACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTTCCGCAATGGACGAAAGTCTGACGGA 362
          ||||||||||| ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||| |||||||||
Sbjct 309    CCAGACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTTCCGCAATGGACGAAAGTCTGACGGA 368

Query 363    GCAACGCCGCGTGAGTGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTCGTAAAACCTCTGTTGTTAGGGAAGAAC 422
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Sbjct 369    GCAACGCCGCGTGAGTGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTCGTAAAACCTCTGTTGTTAGGGAAGAAC 428

Query 423    AAGTGCTAGTTGAATAAGCTGGCACCTTGACGGTACCTAACCAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACT 482
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Sbjct 429    AAGTGCTAGTTGAATAAGCTGGCACCTTGACGGTACCTAACCAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACT 488

Query 483    ACGTGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTA 542
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Sbjct 489    ACGTGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTA 548

Query 543    AAGCGCGCGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGG 602
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Sbjct 549    AAGCGCGCGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGG 608

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E4 species alignment with Genbank *Bacillus cereus*

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Query 10 CTATACATGC-AGTCGAGCGAATGGATTNAGAGCTTGCTCTYANGAAGTTAGCGGCGGAC 68
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Sbjct 14 CTATACATGCAAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTAAGAGCTTGCTCTTATGAAGTTAGCGGCGGAC 73

Query 69 GGGTGAGTAACACGTGGGTAACCTGCCATAAGACTGGGATAACTCCGGGAAACCGGGGC 128
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Sbjct 314 CCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTCCGCAATGGACGAAAGTCTGACGGAGCAACGC 373

Query 369 CGCGTGAGTGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTCGTAAACTCTGTTGTTAGGGAAGAACAAGTGCT 428
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Sbjct 374 CGCGTGAGTGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTCGTAAACTCTGTTGTTAGGGAAGAACAAGTGCT 433

Query 429 AGTTGAATAAGCTGGCACCTTGACGGTACCTAACCAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACTACGTGCC 488
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Query 489 AGCAGCCGCGGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTAAAGCGCG 548
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Sbjct 554 CGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGGTCATTGG 613

Query 609 AACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCANAANAGGAAAGTGGAAATCCATGTGTAGCGGTGAAATGC 668

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|||||
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Query 965 CCTCTGA-AACC-TAGAGATAGG-C-TCTC-TTCGG-AGCAGAGTGACAGGTGGTGCATG 1018
|||||
Sbjct 973 CCTCTGACAACCCTAGAGATAGGGCCTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTGGTGCATG 1032

Query 1019 GTTGTCTGTCAGCTCGTGTCTGAGATGTGGGTTA-GTCC-GCA-CGAGCGCACC-T-GAT 1073
|||||
Sbjct 1033 GTTGTCTGTCAGCTCGTGTCTGAGATGTGGGTTAAGTCCCAGCACGAGCGCACCCTTGAT 1092

Query 1074 CTAGTGCCATCATTAAGTGG-CACTCTACGTGACTGCCGNACAC-CGAGAGGTGGTATN- 1130
|||||
Sbjct 1093 CTAGTGCCATCAT-AGTTGGGCACTCTA-GTGACTGCGTGACAAACGAGAGGTGGGATGA 1150

Query 1131 CGTCATCAN-ATGCNCT-ATGACCTGGCTTACA 1161
|||||
Sbjct 1151 CGTCATCATCATGCCCTTATGACTGGGCTTACA 1183

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|||||
Sbjct 638  GAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCCATGTGTAGCGGTGAAATG 697

Query 671  CGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTTCTGGTCTGTAAGTACTGACTG 730
|||||
Sbjct 698  CGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTTCTGGTCTGTAAGTACTGACTG 757

Query 731  AGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCGTAAACG 790
|||||
Sbjct 758  AGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCGTAAACG 817

Query 791  ATGAGTGCTAAGTGTAGAGGGTTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCATTAAGCAC 850
|||||
Sbjct 818  ATGAGTGCTAAGTGTAGAGGGTTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCATTAAGCAC 877

Query 851  TCCGCCTGGGGAGTACGGCCGCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGCCCGCACA 910
|||||
Sbjct 878  TCCGCCTGGGGAGTACGGCCGCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGCCCGCACA 937

Query 911  AGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTCTTGACAT 970
|||||
Sbjct 938  AGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTCTTGACAT 997

Query 971  CCTCTGAAA-CCCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTGGTGCATG 1029
|||||
Sbjct 998  CCTCTGAAAACCTTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTGGTGCATG 1057

Query 1030  GTTGTCTGTCAGCTCGTGTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCA-CCCTTG 1088
|||||
Sbjct 1058  GTTGTCTGTCAGCTCGTGTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCAACCCTTG 1117

Query 1089  ATCTTAGTTGCCATCATTA-GTTGGGCACTCTAAGGTGACTGCCGGTGACAA-CCGGGAG 1146
|||||
Sbjct 1118  ATCTTAGTTGCCATCATTAAGTTGGGCACTCTAAGGTGACTGCCGGTGACAAACCCGGAG 1177

Query 1147  -A-GGTGGGGGATGACGTTCAAATCATCATGCC--TNATGAACCTGGGCCTAC 1195
| |||||
Sbjct 1178  GAAGGTGGGGGATGACGT-CAAATCATCATGCCCTTATGA-CCTGGGC-TAC 1227

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E6 species alignment with Genbank *Bacillus thuringiensis*

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Query 4      CGGCGT-CTATACATGCAAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTTRAGAGCTTGCTCTNANGAAGTTAGC 62
          |||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||
Sbjct 9      CGGCGTGCTATACATGCAAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTGAGAGCTTGCTCTTATGAAGTTAGC 68

Query 63     GCGGACGGGTGAGTAACACGTGGGTAACCTGCCATAAAGACTGGGATAACTCCGGGAAA 122
          |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||
Sbjct 69     GCGGACGGGTGAGTAACACGTGGGTAACCTGCCATAAAGACTGGGATAACTCCGGGAAA 128

Query 123    CCGGGGCTAATACCGGATAACATTTTGAAGTGCATGGTTCGAAATGAAAGGCGGCTTCG 182
          |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||
Sbjct 129    CCGGGGCTAATACCGGATAACATTTTGAAGTGCATGGTTCGAAATGAAAGGCGGCTTCG 188

Query 183    GCTGTCACCTTATGGATGGACCCGCGTCGCATTAGCTAGTTGGTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCA 242
          |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||
Sbjct 189    GCTGTCACCTTATGGATGGACCCGCGTCGCATTAGCTAGTTGGTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCA 248

Query 243    AGGCAACGATGCGTAGCCGACCTGAGAGGGTGATCGGCCACACTGGGACTGAGACACGGC 302
          |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||
Sbjct 249    AGGCAACGATGCGTAGCCGACCTGAGAGGGTGATCGGCCACACTGGGACTGAGACACGGC 308

Query 303    CCAGACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTCCGCAATGGACGAAAGTCTGACGGA 362
          |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||
Sbjct 309    CCAGACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTCCGCAATGGACGAAAGTCTGACGGA 368

Query 363    GCAACGCCGCGTGAGTGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTCGTAAAACCTCTGTTGTTAGGGAAGAAC 422
          |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||
Sbjct 369    GCAACGCCGCGTGAGTGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTCGTAAAACCTCTGTTGTTAGGGAAGAAC 428

Query 423    AAGTGCTAGTTGAATAAGCTGGCACCTTGACGGTACCTAACCCAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACT 482
          |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||
Sbjct 429    AAGTGCTAGTTGAATAAGCTGGCACCTTGACGGTACCTAACCCAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACT 488

Query 483    ACGTGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTA 542
          |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||
Sbjct 489    ACGTGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTA 548

Query 543    AAGCGCGCGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGG 602
          |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||  |||||||
Sbjct 549    AAGCGCGCGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGG 608

Query 603    TCATTGGAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCATGTGTAGCGGT 662

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|||||
Sbjct 609 TCATTGGAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCATGTGTAGCGGT 668

Query 663 GAAATGCGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTTCTGGTCTGTAACTG 722
|||||
Sbjct 669 GAAATGCGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTTCTGGTCTGTAACTG 728

Query 723 ACACTGAGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCG 782
|||||
Sbjct 729 ACACTGAGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCG 788

Query 783 TAAACGATGAGTGCTAAGTGTTAGAGGGTTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCATT 842
|||||
Sbjct 789 TAAACGATGAGTGCTAAGTGTTAGAGGGTTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCATT 848

Query 843 AAGCACTCCGCCTGGGGAGTACGGCCCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCC 902
|||||
Sbjct 849 AAGCACTCCGCCTGGGGAGTACGGCCCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCC 908

Query 903 CGCACAAGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTCT 962
|||||
Sbjct 909 CGCACAAGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTCT 968

Query 963 TGACATCCTCTGAAAACCTTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAG-TGG 1021
|||||
Sbjct 969 TGACATCCTCTGAAAACCTTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTGG 1028

Query 1022 TGCATGGTTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTGTCGTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCAA 1081
|||||
Sbjct 1029 TGCATGGTTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTGTCGTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCAA 1088

Query 1082 CC-TTGATCTTAGTTGCCATCATTA-GT-GG-CNCTCTAAGK-GACTGCCGGTGACAA-C 1135
|| |||||
Sbjct 1089 CCCTTGATCTTAGTTGCCATCATTAAGTTGGGCACTCTAAGGTGACTGCCGGTGACAAAC 1148

Query 1136 -G-AG-A-G-TGG--ATGACGTCA--TCATCANGCCCGT-ATGCACCTGG 1175
| || | ||| ||||| |||| | ||| |||||
Sbjct 1149 CGGAGGAAGGTGGGGATGACGTCAAATCATCATGCCCTTATG-ACCTGG 1197

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17 species alignment with Genbank *Bacillus* sp

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Query 11 CCTATAGGCGGCTGGCTCCAAAAGGTTACCCACCGACTTCGGGTGTTACAAACTCTCGT 70
      ||| |
Sbjct 1445 CCT-TAGGCGGCTGGCTCCAAAAGGTTACCCACCGACTTCGGGTGTTACAAACTCTCGT 1387

Query 71 GGTGTGACGGNNGGTGTGTACAAGGCCGGGAACGTATTCACCGCGGCATGCTGATCCGC 130
      |||||
Sbjct 1386 GGTGTGACGGGCGGTGTGTACAAGGCCGGGAACGTATTCACCGCGGCATGCTGATCCGC 1327

Query 131 GATTACTAGCGATTCCAGCTTCATGTAGGCGAGTTGCAGCCTACAATCCGAACTGAGAAC 190
      |||||
Sbjct 1326 GATTACTAGCGATTCCAGCTTCATGTAGGCGAGTTGCAGCCTACAATCCGAACTGAGAAC 1267

Query 191 GGTTTATGAGATTAGCTCCACCTCGCGGTCTTGCAGCTCTTTGTACCGTCCATTGTAGC 250
      |||||
Sbjct 1266 GGTTTATGAGATTAGCTCCACCTCGCGGTCTTGCAGCTCTTTGTACCGTCCATTGTAGC 1207

Query 251 ACGTGTGTAGCCCAGGTCATAAGGGGCATGATGATTTGACGTCATCCCCACCTTCCTCCG 310
      |||||
Sbjct 1206 ACGTGTGTAGCCCAGGTCATAAGGGGCATGATGATTTGACGTCATCCCCACCTTCCTCCG 1147

Query 311 GTTTGTACCCGGCAGTCACCTTAGAGTGCCCAACTTAATGATGGCAACTAAGATCAAGGG 370
      |||||
Sbjct 1146 GTTTGTACCCGGCAGTCACCTTAGAGTGCCCAACTTAATGATGGCAACTAAGATCAAGGG 1087

Query 371 TTGCGCTCGTTGCGGGACTTAACCCAACATCTCACGACACGAGCTGACGACAACCATGCA 430
      |||||
Sbjct 1086 TTGCGCTCGTTGCGGGACTTAACCCAACATCTCACGACACGAGCTGACGACAACCATGCA 1027

Query 431 CCACCTGTCACTCTGCTCCCGAAGGAGAAGCCCTATCTCTAGGGTTTTCAGAGGATGTCA 490
      |||||
Sbjct 1026 CCACCTGTCACTCTGCTCCCGAAGGAGAAGCCCTATCTCTAGGGTTTTCAGAGGATGTCA 967

Query 491 AGACCTGGTAAGGTTCTTCGCGTTGCTTCGAATTAACCACATGCTCCACCGCTTGTGCG 550
      |||||
Sbjct 966 AGACCTGGTAAGGTTCTTCGCGTTGCTTCGAATTAACCACATGCTCCACCGCTTGTGCG 907

Query 551 GGCCCCGTCAATTCCTTTGAGTTTCAGCCTTTCGGCCGTA TCCCCAGGCGGAGTGCTT 610
      |||||
Sbjct 906 GGCCCCGTCAATTCCTTTGAGTTTCAGCCTTTCGGCCGTA TCCCCAGGCGGAGTGCTT 847

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Query 611 AATGCGTAACTTCAGCACTAAAGGGCGGAAACCCTCTAACACTTAGCACTCATCGTTTA 670
          |||
Sbjct 846 AATGCGTAACTTCAGCACTAAAGGGCGGAAACCCTCTAACACTTAGCACTCATCGTTTA 787

Query 671 CGGCGTGGACTACCAGGGTATCTAATCCTGTTTGCTCCCCACGCTTTCGCGCCTCAGTGT 730
          |||
Sbjct 786 CGGCGTGGACTACCAGGGTATCTAATCCTGTTTGCTCCCCACGCTTTCGCGCCTCAGTGT 727

Query 731 CAGTTACAGACCAGAAAAGTCGCCTTCGCCACTGGTGTTCCTCCATATCTCTACGCATTTC 790
          |||
Sbjct 726 CAGTTACAGACCAGAAAAGTCGCCTTCGCCACTGGTGTTCCTCCATATCTCTACGCATTTC 667

Query 791 ACCGCTACACATGGAATTCCACTTTCCTCTTCTGCACTCAAGTCTCCAGTTTCCAATGA 850
          |||
Sbjct 666 ACCGCTACACATGGAATTCCACTTTCCTCTTCTGCACTCAAGTCTCCAGTTTCCAATGA 607

Query 851 CCCTCCACGGTTGAGCCGTGGGCTTTCACATCAGACTTAAGAAACCACCTGCGCGCGCTT 910
          |||
Sbjct 606 CCCTCCACGGTTGAGCCGTGGGCTTTCACATCAGACTTAAGAAACCACCTGCGCGCGCTT 547

Query 911 TACGCCCAATAATTCGGATAACGCTTGCCACCTACGTATTACCGCGGCTGCTGGCACGT 970
          |||
Sbjct 546 TACGCCCAATAATTCGGATAACGCTTGCCACCTACGTATTACCGCGGCTGCTGGCACGT 487

Query 971 AGTTAGCCGTGGCCTTCTGGTTAGGTACCGTCAAGGTGCCAGCTTATTCAACTAGCACT 1030
          |||
Sbjct 486 AGTTAGCCGTGGC-TTTCTGGTTAGGTACCGTCAAGGTGCCAGCTTATTCAACTAGCACT 428

Query 1031 TGTTCCTCCCTAACAAACAGAGTTT-ACGACCCGAAAGCCTTCATCCACTCACGCGACGAT 1089
          |||
Sbjct 427 TGTTCCTCCCTAACAAACAGAGTTTTACGACCCGAAAGCCTTCATC-ACTCACGCGGCGTT 369

Query 1090 GCCTCCGGTCAGACTT-CGTCAAT-GCGGAAGATTCC-TACTGACTGCCTCC 1138
          ||
Sbjct 368 GC-TCCG-TCAGACTTTCGTCCATTGCGGAAGATTCCCTACTG-CTGCCTCC 320

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E8 species alignment with Genbank *Bacillus sp*

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Query 8 ACCNTTAGGCGGCTGGCTCCAAAAGGTTACCCACCGACTTCGGGTGTTACAAACTCTCG 67
      ||| |
Sbjct 1446 ACC-TTAGGCGGCTGGCTCCAAAAGGTTACCCACCGACTTCGGGTGTTACAAACTCTCG 1388

Query 68 TGGTGTGACGGGCGGTGTGTACAAGGCCCGGAACGTATTCACCGGGCATGCTGATCCG 127
      ||| |
Sbjct 1387 TGGTGTGACGGGCGGTGTGTACAAGGCCCGGAACGTATTCACCGGGCATGCTGATCCG 1328

Query 128 CGATTACTAGCGATTCCAGCTTCATGTAGGCGAGTTGCAGCCTACAATCCGAAGTGAAG 187
      ||| |
Sbjct 1327 CGATTACTAGCGATTCCAGCTTCATGTAGGCGAGTTGCAGCCTACAATCCGAAGTGAAG 1268

Query 188 CGGTTTTATGAGATTAGCTCCACCTCGCGGTCTTGCAGCTCTTTGTACCGTCCATTGTAG 247
      ||| |
Sbjct 1267 CGGTTTTATGAGATTAGCTCCACCTCGCGGTCTTGCAGCTCTTTGTACCGTCCATTGTAG 1208

Query 248 CACGTGTGTAGCCAGGTCATAAGGGGCATGATGATTTGACGTCATCCCCACCTTCCTCC 307
      ||| |
Sbjct 1207 CACGTGTGTAGCCAGGTCATAAGGGGCATGATGATTTGACGTCATCCCCACCTTCCTCC 1148

Query 308 GGTTTGTACCGGCAGTCACCTTAGAGTGCCCAACTTAATGATGGCAACTAAGATCAAGG 367
      ||| |
Sbjct 1147 GGTTTGTACCGGCAGTCACCTTAGAGTGCCCAACTTAATGATGGCAACTAAGATCAAGG 1088

Query 368 GTTGCCTCGTTGCGGGACTTAACCCAACATCTCACGACACGAGCTGACGACAACCATGC 427
      ||| |
Sbjct 1087 GTTGCCTCGTTGCGGGACTTAACCCAACATCTCACGACACGAGCTGACGACAACCATGC 1028

Query 428 ACCACCTGTCACTCTGCTCCCGAAGGAGAAGCCCTATCTCTAGGGTTTTCAGAGGATGTC 487
      ||| |
Sbjct 1027 ACCACCTGTCACTCTGCTCCCGAAGGAGAAGCCCTATCTCTAGGGTTTTCAGAGGATGTC 968

Query 488 AAGACCTGGTAAGGTTCTTCGCGTTGCTTCAATTAACCACATGCTCCACCGCTTGTGC 547
      ||| |
Sbjct 967 AAGACCTGGTAAGGTTCTTCGCGTTGCTTCAATTAACCACATGCTCCACCGCTTGTGC 908

Query 548 GGGCCCCGTCAATTCCTTTGAGTTTCAGCCTTGCGGCCGTACTCCCAGGCGGAGTGCT 607
      ||| |
Sbjct 907 GGGCCCCGTCAATTCCTTTGAGTTTCAGCCTTGCGGCCGTACTCCCAGGCGGAGTGCT 848

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Query 608 TAATGCGTAACTTCAGCACTAAAGGGCGGAAACCCTCTAACACTTAGCACTCATCGTTT 667
          |||
Sbjct 847 TAATGCGTAACTTCAGCACTAAAGGGCGGAAACCCTCTAACACTTAGCACTCATCGTTT 788

Query 668 ACGGCGTGGACTACCAGGGTATCTAATCCTGTTTGCTCCCCACGCTTTCGCGCCTCAGTG 727
          |||
Sbjct 787 ACGGCGTGGACTACCAGGGTATCTAATCCTGTTTGCTCCCCACGCTTTCGCGCCTCAGTG 728

Query 728 TCAGTTACAGACCAGAAAGTCGCCCTTCGCCACTGGTGTTCCTCCATATCTCTACGCATTT 787
          |||
Sbjct 727 TCAGTTACAGACCAGAAAGTCGCCCTTCGCCACTGGTGTTCCTCCATATCTCTACGCATTT 668

Query 788 CACCGCTACACATGGAATTCCACTTTCCTCTTCTGCACTCAAGTCTCCAGTTTCCAATG 847
          |||
Sbjct 667 CACCGCTACACATGGAATTCCACTTTCCTCTTCTGCACTCAAGTCTCCAGTTTCCAATG 608

Query 848 ACCCTCCACGGTTGAGCCGTGGGCTTTCACATCAGACTTAAGAAACCACCTGCGCGCGCT 907
          |||
Sbjct 607 ACCCTCCACGGTTGAGCCGTGGGCTTTCACATCAGACTTAAGAAACCACCTGCGCGCGCT 548

Query 908 TTACGCCCAATAATTCCGGATAACGCTTGCCACCTACGTATTACCGGGCTGCTGGCAGC 967
          |||
Sbjct 547 TTACGCCCAATAATTCCGGATAACGCTTGCCACCTACGTATTACCGGGCTGCTGGCAGC 488

Query 968 TAGTTAGCCGTGGCTTCTGGGTAGGGTACCGTCAAGGTGCCAGCTTATTCAACTAGCA 1027
          |||
Sbjct 487 TAGTTAGCCGTGGCTTCTGGG-TTAGG-TACCGTCAAGGTGCCAGCTTATTCAACTAGCA 430

Query 1028 CTTGTTCTTCCCTAACA-CAGAGTTTACGACYCGAAAGCCTTCATCACTCACGGGCGG 1086
          |||
Sbjct 429 CTTGTTCTTCCCTAACAACAGAGTTTACGACCCGAAAGCCTTCATCACTCACGGGCGT 370

Query 1087 TGCTNCGTCAGACTT-CGTC-AT-GCCGA-GATGCC-TACTGCTGC-TCC-GTAGGGAGT 1139
          |||
Sbjct 369 TGCTCCGTCAGACTTTCGTCCATTGCGGAAGATTCCCTACTGCTGCCTCCCGTAGG-AGT 311

Query 1140 CTGGG 1144
          |||
Sbjct 310 CTGGG 306

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E9 species alignment with Genbank *Micrococcus* sp

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Query 2 CACCGGCTTCGGGTGTTACCGACTTTCGTGACTTGANGGGNGGTGTGTACAAGGCCCGGG 61
      |||
Sbjct 1401 CACCGGCTTCGGGTGTTACCGACTTTCGTGACTTGACGGGCGGTGTGTACAAGGCCCGGG 1342

Query 62 AACGTATTCACCGCAGCGTTGCTGATCTGCGATTACTAGCGACTCCGACTTCATGGGGTC 121
      |||
Sbjct 1341 AACGTATTCACCGCAGCGTTGCTGATCTGCGATTACTAGCGACTCCGACTTCATGGGGTC 1282

Query 122 GAGTTGCAGACCCCAATCCGAACTGAGACCGGCTTTTGGGATTAGCTCCACCTCACAGT 181
      |||
Sbjct 1281 GAGTTGCAGACCCCAATCCGAACTGAGACCGGCTTTTGGGATTAGCTCCACCTCACAGT 1222

Query 182 ATCGCAACCCATTGTACCGGCCATTGTAGCATGCGTGAAGCCCAAGACATAAGGGGCATG 241
      |||
Sbjct 1221 ATCGCAACCCATTGTACCGGCCATTGTAGCATGCGTGAAGCCCAAGACATAAGGGGCATG 1162

Query 242 ATGATTTGACGTCGTCCTCACCTTCCTCCGAGTTGACCCCGGCAGTCTCCCATGAGTCCC 301
      |||
Sbjct 1161 ATGATTTGACGTCGTCCTCACCTTCCTCCGAGTTGACCCCGGCAGTCTCCCATGAGTCCC 1102

Query 302 CACCACGACGTGCTGGCAACATGGAACGAGGGTTGCGCTCGTTGCGGGACTTAACCCAAC 361
      |||
Sbjct 1101 CACCACGACGTGCTGGCAACATGGAACGAGGGTTGCGCTCGTTGCGGGACTTAACCCAAC 1042

Query 362 ATCTCAGCACGAGCTGACGACAACCATGCACCACCTGTGAACCCGCCCAAGGGGAA 421
      |||
Sbjct 1041 ATCTCAGCACGAGCTGACGACAACCATGCACCACCTGTGAACCCGCCCAAGGGGAA 982

Query 422 ACCGTATCTCTACGGCGATCGAGAACATGTCAAGCCTTGGTAAGGTTCTTCGCGTTGCAT 481
      |||
Sbjct 981 ACCGTATCTCTACGGCGATCGAGAACATGTCAAGCCTTGGTAAGGTTCTTCGCGTTGCAT 922

Query 482 CGAATTAATCCGCATGCTCCGCCGCTTGTGCGGGCCCCGTCAATTCCTTTGAGTTT TAG 541
      |||
Sbjct 921 CGAATTAATCCGCATGCTCCGCCGCTTGTGCGGGCCCCGTCAATTCCTTTGAGTTT TAG 862

Query 542 CCTTGC GGCCGTACTCCCAGGCGGGGCACTTAATGCGTTAGCTGCGGCGGAAACCGT 601
      |||
Sbjct 861 CCTTGC GGCCGTACTCCCAGGCGGGGCACTTAATGCGTTAGCTGCGGCGGAAACCGT 802
```

Query 602 GGAATGGTCCCCACACCTAGTGCCCAACGTTTACGGCATGGACTACCAGGGTATCTAATC 661
 |||
 Sbjct 801 GGAATGGTCCCCACACCTAGTGCCCAACGTTTACGGCATGGACTACCAGGGTATCTAATC 742

Query 662 CTGTTCGCTCCCCATGCTTTCGCTCCTCAGCGTCAGTTACAGCCCAGAGACCTGCCTTCG 721
 |||
 Sbjct 741 CTGTTCGCTCCCCATGCTTTCGCTCCTCAGCGTCAGTTACAGCCCAGAGACCTGCCTTCG 682

Query 722 CCATCGGTGTTCTCCTGATATCTGCGCATTCCACCGCTACACCAGGAATTCCAGTCTCC 781
 |||
 Sbjct 681 CCATCGGTGTTCTCCTGATATCTGCGCATTCCACCGCTACACCAGGAATTCCAGTCTCC 622

Query 782 CCTACTGCACTCTAGTCTGCCCGTACCCACCGCAGATCCGGGGTTAAGCCCCGGACTTTC 841
 |||
 Sbjct 621 CCTACTGCACTCTAGTCTGCCCGTACCCACCGCAGATCCGGGGTTAAGCCCCGGACTTTC 562

Query 842 ACGACAGACGCGACAAACCGCCTACGAGCTCTTTACGCCNATAANTCCGGATAACGCT 901
 |||
 Sbjct 561 ACGACAGACGCGACAAACCGCCTACGAGCTCTTTACGCCAATAA-TTCCGGATAACGCT 503

Query 902 CGCACCCCTACGTATTACCGCGGCTGCTGGCACGTAGTTAGCCG 945
 |||
 Sbjct 502 CGCACCC-TACGTATTACCGCGGCTGCTGGCACGTAGTTAGCCG 460

E10 species alignment with Genbank *Ochrobactrum* sp

Query 19 CCTGCCTCCTTGCGGTTAGCANAGCGCCTTCGGGTAACCAACTCCCATGGTGTGACGG 78
 |||
 Sbjct 1397 CCTGCCTCCTTGCGGTTAGCACAGCGCCTTCGGGTAACCAACTCCCATGGTGTGACGG 1338

Query 79 GCGGTGTGTACAAGGCCCGGAACGTATTCACCGCGGCATGCTGATCCGCGATTACTAGC 138
 |||
 Sbjct 1337 GCGGTGTGTACAAGGCCCGGAACGTATTCACCGCGGCATGCTGATCCGCGATTACTAGC 1278

Query 139 GATTCCAACCTTCATGCACTCGAGTTGCAGAGTGCAATCCGAACTGAGATGGCTTTTGGAG 198
 |||
 Sbjct 1277 GATTCCAACCTTCATGCACTCGAGTTGCAGAGTGCAATCCGAACTGAGATGGCTTTTGGAG 1218

Query 199 ATTAGCTCACACTCGCGTGCTCGCTGCCCACTGTCACCACCATTGTAGCACGTGTGTAGC 258
 |||
 Sbjct 1217 ATTAGCTCACACTCGCGTGCTCGCTGCCCACTGTCACCACCATTGTAGCACGTGTGTAGC 1158


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          |||||||
Sbjct  1119  CCCCAGCAGTCTCCCATGAGTCCCCACCACGACGTGCTGGCAACATGGAACGAGGGTTGC 1060

Query  384  GCTCGTTGCGGGACTTAACCCAACATCTCACGACACGAGCTGACGACAACCATGCACCAC 443
          |||||||
Sbjct  1059  GCTCGTTGCGGGACTTAACCCAACATCTCACGACACGAGCTGACGACAACCATGCACCAC 1000

Query  444  CTGTGAACCCGCCCAAAGGGGAAACCGTATCTCTACGGCGATCGAGAACATGTCAAGCC 503
          |||||||
Sbjct  999  CTGTGAACCCGCCCAAAGGGGAAACCGTATCTCTACGGCGATCGAGAACATGTCAAGCC 940

Query  504  TTGGTAAGGTTCTTCGCGTTGCATCGAATTAATCCGCATGCTCCGCCGCTTGTGCGGGCC 563
          |||||||
Sbjct  939  TTGGTAAGGTTCTTCGCGTTGCATCGAATTAATCCGCATGCTCCGCCGCTTGTGCGGGCC 880

Query  564  CCCGTCAATTCCTTTGAGTTTTAGCCTTGCGGCCGTA TCCCCAGGCGGGGCACTTAATG 623
          |||||||
Sbjct  879  CCCGTCAATTCCTTTGAGTTTTAGCCTTGCGGCCGTA TCCCCAGGCGGGGCACTTAATG 820

Query  624  CGTTAGCTGCGGCGCGGAAACCGTGRAATGGTCCCCACACCTAGTGCCCAACGTTTACGG 683
          |||||||
Sbjct  819  CGTTAGCTGCGGCGCGGAAACCGTGGAATGGTCCCCACACCTAGTGCCCAACGTTTACGG 760

Query  684  CATGGACTACCAGGTATCTAATCCTGTTGCTCCCCATGCTTTCGCTCCTCAGCGTCAG 743
          |||||||
Sbjct  759  CATGGACTACCAGGTATCTAATCCTGTTGCTCCCCATGCTTTCGCTCCTCAGCGTCAG 700

Query  744  TTACAGCCCAGAGACCTGCCTTCGCCATCGGTGTTCTCCTGATATCTGCGCATTCCACC 803
          |||||||
Sbjct  699  TTACAGCCCAGAGACCTGCCTTCGCCATCGGTGTTCTCCTGATATCTGCGCATTCCACC 640

Query  804  GCTACACCAGGAATTCAGTCTCCCCTACTGCACTCTAGTCTGCCCGTACCCACCGCAGA 863
          |||||||
Sbjct  639  GCTACACCAGGAATTCAGTCTCCCCTACTGCACTCTAGTCTGCCCGTACCCACCGCAGA 580

Query  864  ATCCGGGGTTAAGCCCCGGACTTTCACGACAGACGCGACAACCSGCCTACGAGCTCTTT 923
          |||||||
Sbjct  579  -TCCGGGGTTAAGCCCC-GGACTTTCACGACAGACGCGACAACCSGCCTACGAGCTCTTT 522

Query  924  ACRCCAATAATTCGGGATAACGCTCGCACCTACGTATTACCGSSGCTGCTGGCMCGT 983
          || |||||
Sbjct  521  ACGCCAATAATTCGGG-ATAACGCTCGCACCTACGTATTACCGCGGCTGCTGGCACGT 463

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Sbjct 1088 CTTGATCTTAGTTGCCATCATTAAAGTTGGGCACTCTAAGGTGACTGCCGGTGACAAACCG 1147

Query 1131 GAG-A-GGTGGGAATGACGTCAA-TCATCATGCCC-TTATGACCTGG-CTAC-CACGTGC 1184
 ||| | ||||| ||||||||| ||||||||| ||||||||| ||||| |||||||

Sbjct 1148 GAGGAAGGTGGGGATGACGTCAAATCATCATGCCCTTATGACCTGGGCTACACACGTGC 1207

Query 1185 TACAATG-ACGCTAACAAAGANGCTNGCNANGAACCGCG 1222
 ||||||| ||| || ||||||| ||| || | || |||||

Sbjct 1208 TACAATGGACGGTA-CAAAGA-GCT-GCAA-GA-CCGCG 1241

I13 species alignment with Genbank *Bacillus* sp

Query 3 GCGGCG-NCTATACATGCAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTNAGAGCTTGCTCTNANGAAGTTAGC 61
 ||||| | ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||| | |||||||||

Sbjct 7 GCGGCGTGCTATACATGCAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTGAGAGCTTGCTCTCAAGAAGTTAGC 66

Query 62 GCGGACGGNTGAGTAACACGTGGGTAACCTGCCATAAGACTGGGATAACTCCGGGAAA 121
 ||||||||| |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||

Sbjct 67 GCGGACGGGTGAGTAACACGTGGGTAACCTGCCATAAGACTGGGATAACTCCGGGAAA 126

Query 122 CCGGGGCTAATACCGGATAACATTTTGAAGTGCATGGTTCGAAATTGAAAGGCGGCTTCG 181
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||

Sbjct 127 CCGGGGCTAATACCGGATAACATTTTGAAGTGCATGGTTCGAAATTGAAAGGCGGCTTCG 186

Query 182 GCTGTCACTTATGGATGGACCCGCGTCGCATTAGCTAGTTGGTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCA 241
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||

Sbjct 187 GCTGTCACTTATGGATGGACCCGCGTCGCATTAGCTAGTTGGTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCA 246

Query 242 AGGCAACGATGCGTAGCCGACCTGAGAGGGTGATCGGCCACACTGGGACTGAGACACGGC 301
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||

Sbjct 247 AGGCAACGATGCGTAGCCGACCTGAGAGGGTGATCGGCCACACTGGGACTGAGACACGGC 306

Query 302 CCAGACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTCCGCAATGGACGAAAGTCTGACGGA 361
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||

Sbjct 307 CCAGACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTCCGCAATGGACGAAAGTCTGACGGA 366

Query 362 GCAACGCCGCGTGAGTGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTCGTAAAACCTCTGTTGTTAGGGAAGAAC 421
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||

Sbjct 367 GCAACGCCGCGTGAGTGATGAAGGCTTTCGGGTCGTAAAACCTCTGTTGTTAGGGAAGAAC 426

Query 422 AAGTGCTAGTTGAATAAGCTGGCACCTTGACGGTACCTAACAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACT 481

Sbjct	427	AAGTGCTAGTTGAATAAGCTGGCACCTTGACGGTACCTAACCCAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACT	486
Query	482	ACGTGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTA	541
Sbjct	487	ACGTGCCAGCAGCCGCGGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTA	546
Query	542	AAGCGCGCGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGG	601
Sbjct	547	AAGCGCGCGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGG	606
Query	602	TCATTGGAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCATGTGTAGCGGT	661
Sbjct	607	TCATTGGAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCATGTGTAGCGGT	666
Query	662	GAAATGCGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTCTGGTCTGTAAGT	721
Sbjct	667	GAAATGCGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTCTGGTCTGTAAGT	726
Query	722	ACACTGAGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCG	781
Sbjct	727	ACACTGAGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCG	786
Query	782	TAAACGATGAGTGCTAAGTGTTAGAGGGTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCATT	841
Sbjct	787	TAAACGATGAGTGCTAAGTGTTAGAGGGTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCATT	846
Query	842	AAGCACTCCGCCTGGGGAGTACGGCCCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCC	901
Sbjct	847	AAGCACTCCGCCTGGGGAGTACGGCCCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCC	906
Query	902	CGCACAAGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCCTTACCAGGTCT	961
Sbjct	907	CGCACAAGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCCTTACCAGGTCT	966
Query	962	TGACATCCTCTGAAAACYCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTGG	1021
Sbjct	967	TGACATCCTCTGAAAACCCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTGG	1026
Query	1022	TGCATGGTTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTCTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCA-	1080
Sbjct	1027	TGCATGGTTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTCTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCAA	1086

Query 492 ACTTTTAAGTCAGGGGTGAAATCCCGGGGCTCAACCCCGAACTGCCTTTGATACTGGAA 551
 |||
 Sbjct 483 ACTTTTAAGTCAGGGGTGAAATCCCGGGGCTCAACCCCGAACTGCCTTTGATACTGGAA 542

Query 552 GTCTTGAGTATGGTAGAGGTGAGTGAATTCCGAGTGTAGAGGTGAAATTCGTAGATATT 611
 |||
 Sbjct 543 GTCTTGAGTATGGTAGAGGTGAGTGAATTCCGAGTGTAGAGGTGAAATTCGTAGATATT 602

Query 612 CGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGGCTCACTGGACCATTACTGACGCTGAGGTGCGAAA 671
 |||
 Sbjct 603 CGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGGCTCACTGGACCATTACTGACGCTGAGGTGCGAAA 662

Query 672 GCGTGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCGTAAACGATGAATGTTA 731
 |||
 Sbjct 663 GCGTGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCGTAAACGATGAATGTTA 722

Query 732 GCCGTTGGGAGTTTACTCTTCGGTGGCGCAGCTAACGCATTAACATTCGCCTGGGGA 791
 |||
 Sbjct 723 GCCGTTGGGAGTTTACTCTTCGGTGGCGCAGCTAACGCATTAACATTCGCCTGGGGA 782

Query 792 GTACGGTCGCAAGATTAAAACCTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCCCGCACAAAGCGGTGGAGCA 851
 |||
 Sbjct 783 GTACGGTCGCAAGATTAAAACCTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCCCGCACAAAGCGGTGGAGCA 842

Query 852 TGTGGTTAATTTCGAAGCAACGCGCAGAACCTTACCAGCCCTTGACATACCGGTGCGGGA 911
 |||
 Sbjct 843 TGTGGTTAATTTCGAAGCAACGCGCAGAACCTTACCAGCCCTTGACATACCGGTGCGGGA 902

Query 912 CACAGAGATGTGTCTTTCAGTTCGGCTGGACCGGATACAGGTGCTGCATGGCTGTCGTCA 971
 |||
 Sbjct 903 CACAGAGATGTGTCTTTCAGTTCGGCTGGACCGGATACAGGTGCTGCATGGCTGTCGTCA 962

Query 972 GCTCGTGTCGTGAGATGTTGGGTAAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCAACCCTCGCCTTTAGTTG 1031
 |||
 Sbjct 963 GCTCGTGTCGTGAGATGTTGGGTAAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCAACCCTCGCCTTTAGTTG 1022

Query 1032 CCAGCATTTAGTTGGGCACTCTAAGGG-ACTGCCGGTGATA-GCCGAGAG-AAGGTGGGG 1088
 |||
 Sbjct 1023 CCAGCATTTAGTTGGGCACTCTAAGGGGACTGCCGGTGATAAGCCGAGAGGAAGGTGGGG 1082

Query 1089 ATGACGTCAAGTC-TCATGGTCCTTANGG-CTGG-CTACNCACGTGCTACAATG-TG-TG 1143
 |||
 Sbjct 1083 ATGACGTCAAGTCCTCATGGCCCTTACGGGCTGGGCTACACACGTGCTACAATGGTGGTG 1142


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|||||
Sbjct 932 AAGGTTCTTCGCGTTGCTTCGAATTAACCACATGCTCCACCGCTTGTGCGGGTCCCCGT 873

Query 553 CAATTCCTTTGAGTTTCAACCTTGC GGTCGTACTCCCCAGGCGGAGTGCTTAATGCGTTA 612
|||||
Sbjct 872 CAATTCCTTTGAGTTTCAACCTTGC GGTCGTACTCCCCAGGCGGAGTGCTTAATGCGTTA 813

Query 613 GCTGCAGCACTAAGGGGCGGAAACCCCTAACACTTAGCACTCATCGTTTACGGCGTGGA 672
|||||
Sbjct 812 GCTGCAGCACTAAGGGGCGGAAACCCCTAACACTTAGCACTCATCGTTTACGGCGTGGA 753

Query 673 CTACCAGGGTATCTAATCCTGTTTGATCCCCACCGCTTTTCGCACATCAGCGTCAGTTA 732
|||||
Sbjct 752 CTACCAGGGTATCTAATCCTGTTTGATCCCC-AC-GCTTT-CGCACATCAGCGTCAGTTA 696

Query 733 CAGACCAGAAAGTCGCCTTCGCCACTGGTGTTCCTCCATATCTCTGCGCATTTACCGCT 792
|||||
Sbjct 695 CAGACCAGAAAGTCGCCTTCGCCACTGGTGTTCCTCCATATCTCTGCGCATTTACCGCT 636

Query 793 ACACATGGAAATTCCACTTTCCTCTTCTGCACTCRAGTTTCCAGTTTCCCAATGAMCC 852
|||||
Sbjct 635 ACACATGGAA-TTCCACTTTCCTCTT-CTGCACTCAAGTTTCCAGTTTCC-AATGA-CC 580

Query 853 CTCCACGGTTGAGCCGTGGGCTTTCACATCANACTTnaaaaaaCCGCCTACGCNCGCTTT 912
|||||
Sbjct 579 CTCCACGGTTGAGCCGTGGGCTTTCACATCAGACTT-AAAAAACCGCCTACGCGCGCTTT 521

Query 913 ACGCC-AATNATTTCCGGATAACGCTTGCCACCTACGTATTACCGCGGCTGCTGGCACNN 971
|||||
Sbjct 520 ACGCCCAATAATT-CCGGATAACGCTTGCCACCTACGTATTACCGCGGCTGCTGGCACGT 462

Query 972 AGTTANCCCGTGGNCTTCTGAATTNAGTACCGGTCAAGACGT 1014
|||||
Sbjct 461 AGTTAGCC-GTGG-CTTTCTGA-TTAGGTACCG-TCAAGACGT 423

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E16 species alignment with Genbank *Bacillus cereus*

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Query 9 CCTATACATGCAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTNAGAGCTTGCTCTNANGAAGTTAGCGGCGGAC 68
|||||
Sbjct 21 CCTATACATGCAGTCGAGCGAATGGATTAAGAGCTTGCTCTTATGAAGTTAGCGGCGGAC 80

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Sbjct 681 GTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTTCTGGTCTGTAAGTACACTGA 740

Query 729 GGC GCGAAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCGTAAACGA 788
 |||

Sbjct 741 GGC GCGAAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCGTAAACGA 800

Query 789 TGAGTGCTAAGTGTTAGAGGGTTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCATTAAGCACT 848
 |||

Sbjct 801 TGAGTGCTAAGTGTTAGAGGGTTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCATTAAGCACT 860

Query 849 CCGCCTGGGGAGTACGGCCGCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCCGCACAA 908
 |||

Sbjct 861 CCGCCTGGGGAGTACGGCCGCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCCGCACAA 920

Query 909 GCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTCTTGACATC 968
 |||

Sbjct 921 GCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTCTTGACATC 980

Query 969 CTCTGAAAACCCCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAG-TG-TGCATGG 1026
 |||

Sbjct 981 CTCTGAAAACCCCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTGGTGCATGG 1040

Query 1027 GTTGTTCGTCAGCTCGTGTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCA-CC-TTG 1084
 |||

Sbjct 1041 -TTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCAACCCTTG 1099

Query 1085 ATCTTAGT-GCCATCAT-A-GT-GG-CMCTCTAAGGTGACTGCCGGTGACAA-C-GGAG- 1136
 |||

Sbjct 1100 ATCTTAGTTGCCATCATTAAGTTGGGCACTCTAAGGTGACTGCCGGTGACAAACCGGAGG 1159

Query 1137 A-GGTGGG-ATGACGTCA--TCATCATGCCCGTATGAC-TGGGC 1176
 | |||

Sbjct 1160 AAGGTGGGGATGACGTCAAATCATCATGCCCTTATGACCTGGGC 1204

I17 species alignment with Genbank *Staphylococcus pasteurii*

Query 17 TATAMTGAAGTCGAGCGACAGATAAGGAGCTTGCTCCTTTGACGTTAGCGGCGGACGGG 76
 |||

Sbjct 15 TATAGTGAAGTCGAGCGACAGATAAGGAGCTTGCTCCTTTGACGTTAGCGGCGGACGGG 74

Query 77 TGARNAACACGTGGATAACCTACCTATAAGACTGGGATAACTTCGGGAAACCGGAGCTAA 136
 ||| |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
 Sbjct 75 TGAGTAACACGTGGATAACCTACCTATAAGACTGGGATAACTTCGGGAAACCGGAGCTAA 134

Query 137 TACCGGATAACATATTGAACCGCATGGTTCAATAGTGAAAGGCGGCTTTGTYGTCACTTA 196
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
 Sbjct 135 TACCGGATAACATATTGAACCGCATGGTTCAATAGTGAAAGGCGGCTTTGCTGTCACTTA 194

Query 197 TAGATGGATCCGCGCCGTATTAGCTAGTTGGTAAGGTAACGGCTTACCAAGGCAACGATA 256
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
 Sbjct 195 TAGATGGATCCGCGCCGTATTAGCTAGTTGGTAAGGTAACGGCTTACCAAGGCAACGATA 254

Query 257 CGTAGCCGACCTGAGAGGGTGATCGGCCACACTGGAAGTGAACACGGTCCAGACTCCTA 316
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
 Sbjct 255 CGTAGCCGACCTGAGAGGGTGATCGGCCACACTGGAAGTGAACACGGTCCAGACTCCTA 314

Query 317 CGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTTCCGCAATGGGCGAAAGCCTGACGGAGCAACGCCGCG 376
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
 Sbjct 315 CGGGAGGCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTTCCGCAATGGGCGAAAGCCTGACGGAGCAACGCCGCG 374

Query 377 TGAGTGATGAAGGTCTTCGGATCGTAAACTCTGTTATCAGGGAAGAACAATGTGTAAG 436
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
 Sbjct 375 TGAGTGATGAAGGTCTTCGGATCGTAAACTCTGTTATCAGGGAAGAACAATGTGTAAG 434

Query 437 TAACTGTGCACATCTTGACGGTACCTGATCAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACTACGTGCCAGCAG 496
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
 Sbjct 435 TAACTGTGCACATCTTGACGGTACCTGATCAGAAAGCCACGGCTAACTACGTGCCAGCAG 494

Query 497 CCGCGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTAAAGCGCGCGTAG 556
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
 Sbjct 495 CCGCGTAATACGTAGGTGGCAAGCGTTATCCGGAATTATTGGGCGTAAAGCGCGCGTAG 554

Query 557 GCGGTTTTTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGGTCATTGGAAACT 616
 |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
 Sbjct 555 GCGGTTTTTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGGGTCATTGGAAACT 614

Query 617 GGAAAACNTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCATGTGTAGCNGNGAAATGCGCR- 675
 ||||| |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
 Sbjct 615 GGAAAAC-TTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCATGTGTAGCGGTGAAATGCGCAG 673

Query 676 AGATATGGGAGGACCTCCNGTGYCGAA 702
 ||||| ||| | || ||| |||
 Sbjct 674 AGATATGG-AGGAACACCAGTGGCGAA 699


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Query 605 TTGAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCCATGTGTAGCGGTGAA 664
          |||
Sbjct 605 TTGAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCCATGTGTAGCGGTGAA 664

Query 665 ATGCGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTTCTGGTCTGTAACGACA 724
          |||
Sbjct 665 ATGCGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTTCTGGTCTGTAACGACA 724

Query 725 CTGAGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCGTAA 784
          |||
Sbjct 725 CTGAGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCCGTAA 784

Query 785 ACGATGAGTGCTAAGTGTAGAGGGTTCCGCCCTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCATTAAG 844
          |||
Sbjct 785 ACGATGAGTGCTAAGTGTAGAGGGTTCCGCCCTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCATTAAG 844

Query 845 CACTCCGCTGGGGAGTACGGCCGCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCCCGC 904
          |||
Sbjct 845 CACTCCGCTGGGGAGTACGGCCGCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGCCCGC 904

Query 905 ACAAGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTCTTGA 964
          |||
Sbjct 905 ACAAGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTCTTGA 964

Query 965 CATCCTCTGAAAACCCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAG-TGGTGC 1023
          |||
Sbjct 965 CATCCTCTGAAAACCCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTGGTGC 1024

Query 1024 ATGGTTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTCTGAGATGT-GGGT-AAGTCCCAGCAACGAGCGCA-CNC 1080
          |||
Sbjct 1025 ATGGTTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTCTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCAGCAACGAGCGCAACCC 1084

Query 1081 TTGATCT-AGT-GCCATCATTAAGT-GGGCNCTCTA-G-TGACTGCCG-TGACAA-CCGG 1133
          |||
Sbjct 1085 TTGATCTTAGTTGCCATCATTAAGTTGGGCACTCTAAGGTGACTGCCGGTGACAAACCGG 1144

Query 1134 AGGA-G-TGGG-ATGACGTCAA-TCATCATGCC-T-ATGACTTGGCTTACACACCGTGC 1187
          |||
Sbjct 1145 AGGAAGGTGGGGATGACGTCAAATCATCATGCCCTTATGACCTGGGCTACACAC-GTGC 1203

Query 1188 CTACAATGGACCGGT 1202
          |||

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Query 544 AAAGCGCGCGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGG 603
 |||
 Sbjct 546 AAAGCGCGCGCAGGTGGTTTCTTAAGTCTGATGTGAAAGCCCACGGCTCAACCGTGGAGG 605

Query 604 GTCATTGGAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCCATGTGTAGCGG 663
 |||
 Sbjct 606 GTCATTGGAAACTGGGAGACTTGAGTGCAGAAGAGGAAAGTGAATTCCATGTGTAGCGG 665

Query 664 TGAAATGCGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTTCTGGTCTGTAAC 723
 |||
 Sbjct 666 TGAAATGCGTAGAGATATGGAGGAACACCAGTGGCGAAGGCGACTTTCTGGTCTGTAAC 725

Query 724 GACACTGAGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCC 783
 |||
 Sbjct 726 GACACTGAGGCGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAAACAGGATTAGATACCCTGGTAGTCCACGCC 785

Query 784 GTAAACGATGAGTGCTAAGTGTAGAGGGTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCAT 843
 |||
 Sbjct 786 GTAAACGATGAGTGCTAAGTGTAGAGGGTTCCGCCCTTTAGTGCTGAAGTTAACGCAT 845

Query 844 TAAGCACTCCGCCGAGTACGGCCGCAAGGCTGAAACTCAA-GGAATTGACGGGGGC 902
 |||
 Sbjct 846 TAAGCACTCCGCCGAGTACGGCCGCAAGGCTGAAACTCAAAGGAATTGACGGGGGC 905

Query 903 CCGCACAAGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTAATTCGAAGCA-CGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTC 961
 |||
 Sbjct 906 CCGCACAAGCGGTGGAGCATGTGGTTAATTCGAAGCAACGCGAAGAACCTTACCAGGTC 965

Query 962 TTGACATCCTCTGAAAACCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTG 1021
 |||
 Sbjct 966 TTGACATCCTCTGAAAACCTAGAGATAGGGCTTCTCCTTCGGGAGCAGAGTGACAGGTG 1025

Query 1022 GTGCATGGTTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTGCGTGTGAGATGT-GGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCA 1080
 |||
 Sbjct 1026 GTGCATGGTTGTCGTCAGCTCGTGTGCGTGTGAGATGTTGGGTTAAGTCCCGCAACGAGCGCA 1085

Query 1081 ACCCTTGATCT-AGTTGC-ATCATTAAAGT-GGGCACTCTACG-TGACTGCCG-TGACAAA 1135
 |||
 Sbjct 1086 ACCCTTGATCTTAGTTGCCATCATTAAGTTGGGCACTCTAAGGTGACTGCCGGTGACAAA 1145

Query 1136 CCG-AGGA-G-TGG--ATGACGTCAA-TCATCATGCC-T-ATGACCTGGGCTTAC-CAC 1186
 |||
 Sbjct 1146 CCGGAGGAAGGTGGGGATGACGTCAAATCATCATGCCCTTATGACCTGGGCT-ACACAC 1204

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Query 1187 GGTGCTACA-TGGACCGTAACAGAGAG 1212
          | ||||| | ||| | | | | |
Sbjct 1205 G-TGCTACAATGGACGGTA-CAAAGAG 1229
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