$_{\rm R} \stackrel{{\rm c}}{\underset{{}^{\cal A}}{\overset{{\rm c}}{\overset{{\rm lt}}{\overset{{\rm lt}}{\underset{{}^{\cal A}}{\overset{{\rm r}}{\overset{{\rm lt}}{\overset{{\rm r}}{\underset{{}^{\cal A}}{\overset{{\rm r}}{\overset{{\rm lt}}{\overset{{\rm r}}{\underset{{}^{\cal A}}{\overset{{\rm r}}{\underset{{}}}{\overset{{\rm r}}{\underset{{}^{\cal A}}{\overset{{\rm r}}{\underset{{}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}$

Received: 31 March 2024; Accepted: 1 July 2024; Published: 12 July 2024; Corrected and Typeset: 1 September 2024 © The Author(s) 2024. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of Nanjing Agricultural University. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. of siderophores, effectively cutting off iron supply to pathogens [19, 20]. FP6, a biocontrol strain inhibiting the fungal pathogen , lost almost all its inhibitory activity against . after FeCl₃ supplementation, highlighting the role of iron competition as the main mechanism for pathogen control [20]. Extensive literature documents the variety and functionality of siderophores produced by spp. [21, 22], as well as their contributions to disease prevention [23]. Pyoverdines, a diverse class of non-ribosomal peptides that possess the most complex chemical structures among siderophores, have been extensively studied, and

over 50 structurally distinct pyoverdines have been identified [24]. The structural complexity of siderophores is noteworthy for its diversity, exhibiting remarkable variation even within a single bacterial strain [24]. Here we focused on

spp. siderophores due to their great structural diversity and substantial potential for biological control applications [25, 26]. Furthermore, pyoverdines are highly specific. Their uptake requires very specific receptors, driving the same molecule to promote or inhibit bacterial strains depending on their ability to use it [27]. Thus, siderophore-mediated competition for iron shapes ecological interactions between microorganisms [28]. In the multispecies rhizosphere microbiome, these interactions may ultimately affect the performance and health of plant hosts [29, 30].

Although many studies have approached the importance of











the pathogen . . . Extensive research has illustrated the pivotal role of siderophores produced by biocontrol agents in the suppression of pathogenic bacteria, the level of suppression positively correlating with increased siderophore production [31, 46]. Consistent with these findings, we observed that the production of competitive siderophores by strains pathogen could stem from the constraints on growth antagonism induced by limited iron availability.

Iron deficiency dramatically affects the utilization of metabolic pathways related to iron, favoring iron-independent pathways while curtailing iron-dependent ones [59

Determining the siderophore production of consortium members and bacterial consortia

Siderophore production in bacterial strains and consortia was measured by chrome azurol S (CAS) assays, which gauge the intensity of siderophores chelating ferric ions based on the resulting color change in the reaction mixture [67]. All

strains and bacterial consortia were cultured (30°C, 48 h, 170 r.p.m.) in MKB medium and iron-rich MKB medium (MKB+Fe), respectively. Cell-free supernatants were obtained by centrifugation (6000 r.p.m. for 10 min) and subsequent filtration using a 0.22-µm filter and then assayed for siderophore production by a modified version of the universal CAS assay developed by Schwyn and Neilands [67]. Briefly, 100 μ l of each cell-free supernatant (three biological replicates for all 49 bacterial consortia) or fresh medium as a control, was combined with 100 μ l of the CAS assay solution (containing 1.5×10^{-3} mM FeCl₃·6H₂O, 6×10^{-1} mM adecyltrimethylammonium bromide, 4.307 g anhydrous piperazine, and 1.5×10^{-1} mM CAS) in a 96-well microplate. Following 1 h of static cultivation at room temperature, the optical density at $630 \text{ nm} (OD_{630})$ of cell-free supernatant (A) and the uninoculated medium control (Ar) were measured using a spectrophotometer (SpectraMax M5, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). Deferoxamine B siderophore was utilized as the standard to create standard curves for assessing siderophore production in both

strains and microbial communities. Employing the observable color change of the CAS solution upon siderophore presence, diverse dilutions of deferoxamine B siderophore, in combination with OD_{630} measurements, were pivotal in constructing these standard curves. Siderophore concentration was normalized as deferoxamine (DFO) equivalent and expressed as log_{10} DFO. To be noted, the siderophore concentration of the supernatant collected under iron-limited conditions required dilution with sterile water due to saturation in the assay.

Determining the phloroglucinol production and antibiotic gene expression of consortium members under different iron conditions

Phloroglucinol (PG), an intermediate product of DAPG [68, 69], was quantified in the supernatant using a method modified from a previous study [70]. Seven strains were cultured in iron-rich and iron-limited media for 48 h, with each treatment carried out in triplicate. Cell-free supernatants were collected as mentioned above. To each sample (75 μ l of supernatant), 25 μ l of HCl was added. Following this, 100 μ l of cinnamaldehyde–HCl reagent, comprising 0.2% 4-hydroxy-3-methoxy-cinnamaldehyde in HCl:ethanol (1:3, v/v), was introduced to the solution, resulting in a pink coloration in samples containing PG. The colorimetric reaction was allowed to proceed for 2 h, after which the absorbance was measured at 550 nm. The absolute concentration of PG was subsequently determined by referencing a standard curve constructed from varying concentrations of PG standards.

To determine the effect of iron deficiency on antibiotic gene expression, the expression of the D gene was assessed under different iron conditions by RT-qPCR. Seven strains were cultured in iron-rich and iron-limited MKB media for 48 h. The total RNA of the bacteria was extracted according to the protocol of the Bacterial RNA Kit (R6950, Omega, USA). The concentration and purity of RNA were determined using a NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), with A260/A280 and A260/230 ratio values of around 2 considered adequate for inclusion in the study. cDNA was synthesized with the HiScript[®] II Q RT SuperMix for qPCR (+gDNA wiper) Kit

(Vazyme, China). For RT-qPCR analysis, two primers specific to the \$D\$ gene were used: B2BF (5'-ACC CAC CGC AGC ATC GTT TAT GAGC-3'

supernatants from 49 consortia were collected as described above (Fig. 1A and B). The following three treatments were set up to distinguish siderophore-mediated effects from other metabolite-mediated effects [33]. (i) Iron-limited: 20 μ l of cell-free supernatant collected under iron-limited conditions was added to 178 μ l of MKB medium. This supernatant contained total metabolites pTf5.98629467.9(m).to 178

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sound relationships were considered. All data analyses were performed using R version 4.1.0.

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At T t

Z.W., Y.X., and Q.S.: conceptualization and project administration. Z.S., S.Gu, and Z.W.: methodology, software, formal analysis, visualization, and writing original draft. X.Z., J.X., T.Y., S.Guo, and Z.W.: resources, investigation, and data curation. T.P., A.J., Z.W., and T.Y.: writing – review and editing.

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The data for this article are available in the article or in its supplementary material.

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The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Supplementary data are available at H

online.

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