

Response of Sweet Potato to Application of Pgpr and N Fertilizer

Farzana Yasmin¹, Radziah Othman², Hemapriyaa Vijayan¹ and Nazmul MHM^{3*}

¹Faculty of Science, Lincoln University, 12-18, Jalan SS6/12 off Jalan Perbandaran, 47301 Petaling Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia.

²Faculty of Agriculture, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia.

³Graduate School of Medicine, Perdana University, 9.2, Wisma Chase Perdana, Damansara Heights, 50490 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

*Corresponding author : poorpiku@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to evaluate the response of sweet potato growth and yield to the application of PGPR and Nitrogen fertilizer. The field experiment was established under a design of Randomized Complete Block Design with 3 replications. The inoculation for this study was comprised of 4 treatments and a control (*Klebsiella* sp. UPMSP9, *Erwinia* sp. UPMSP10, *Azospirillum brasilense* SP7, *Bacillus sphaericus* UPMB10 and Uninoculated control) combinations with 3 levels of N fertilizer (0, 33, and 100 kg N ha⁻¹). The results indicated that the inoculation of the *Klebsiella* and supplied with 33 kg N ha⁻¹ increased sweet potato yield significantly compared to control. Similarly, the application of the bacterium *Klebsiella* and supplied with 33 kg N ha⁻¹ recorded higher uptake of N, P and K compared to control. Soil P, K, Ca and Mg Concentrations were higher with PGPR and N application of 33 kg N ha⁻¹ compared with the 100 kg N ha⁻¹. The concentrations of IAA in soils inoculated with rhizobacterial isolates were significantly higher than uninoculated control. Highest IAA was observed with *Klebsiella* inoculation at 33 kg N ha⁻¹ fertilization rate. These findings showed that PGPR could be a potential inoculant at a reduced rate of N fertilizer for sweet potato production.

Keywords: Sweet potato, Indole-acetic acid, *Klebsiella* sp., *Erwinia* sp., *Azospirillum brasilense*, *Bacillus sphaericus*, Nitrogen fertilizer,

INTRODUCTION

Sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas* L.) is an important root crop worldwide and is considered as a main source of food. It is the most promising food commodity around the world as it is ranked as the seventh most important food crop after rice and maize (FAO, 2009). Sweet potato is also considered to have a very high amount of carbohydrate which serves as a great source of energy. Besides being a wide range of food source, many developed countries have utilized sweet potato as raw material for various industries including fermentation, textiles and cosmetics (Vosawai *et al.*, 2015). In Malaysia, many areas in the states of Terengganu, Perak and Kelantan are involved in sweet potato production and it is known as the second highest tuber crop producer after cassava (Hanimet *et al.*, 2014).

Generally, sweet potato requires high amount of fertilizer for commercial cultivation which can lead to increased production cost and environmental pollution due to the over usage of chemical fertilizers. This indirectly contributes to the negative impact on the sustainability of the ecosystem. Biofertilizer is globally popular as an alternative source

of chemical fertilizer which improves plant growth through increased uptake of water and mineral nutrients (Saravanakumaret al., 2007, Umair et al., 2018). In the environment, plants and bacteria has a natural relationship existence that plays a vital role in the growth and the health of plants (Abdisa et al., 2012).

Plant growth promoting Rhizobacteria (PGPR) is used as biofertilizer and bioenhancer for different crops as an alternative source of chemical fertilizer. PGPR encompasses all microorganism that inhabit and colonize plant roots and exert positive effects on plant improvement by various mechanisms, ranging from direct growth promotion, such as increased solubilization and uptake of nutrients or production of plant growth regulators, to indirect growth promotion, such as pathogen suppression in biological control and production of phytohormones (Dey et al., 2004, Naser et al., 2013). *Azospirillum* and other groups of PGPR bacteria have been found to produce and release a broad spectrum of plant growth regulators, such as auxin, gibberellin and cytokinin. Among these indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) is considered as the most physiologically active auxin in plants and involved on diverse plant growth and IAA is well known to stimulate both rapid responses (e.g. increases in cell elongation) and long term (e.g. cell-division and differentiation) in plants (Kumar et al., 2002, Glick, 2012). Eighty percent of microorganisms isolated from the rhizosphere of various crops have the ability to produce auxins as secondary metabolites which help in stimulating plant growth (Adesemoye et al., 2008). Nutrients are required for plant growth similarly sweetpotato requires high amounts of nutrients especially nitrogen. Nitrogen is one of the most abundant elements in plants and animals, as it is a major component of proteins. it is also a highly demanding key element for sweetpotato and other root crop yield (Canbolat et al., 2006, Adeyeye et al., 2016).

There are environmental factors under field conditions that can affect the activities of PGPR. The concentration of IAA in soil depends on bacterial population. The variations in bacterial population due to rapid wetting and drying of soil, rainfall distribution, temperature variations, pest and disease could affect the performance of PGPR (Beneduzi et al., 2012). However, the survival and performance of these bacteria in the presence of added fertilizers under normal agronomic cultural condition need to be evaluated. Therefore, the field studies were conducted to evaluate performance of the PGPR with different levels of nitrogen fertilizer on growth and yield of sweet potato.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The field experiment was conducted at UPM experimental plot. The experiment was comprised of 5 treatments (*Klebsiella* sp. UPMSP9, *Erwinia* sp. UPMSP10, *Azospirillum brasilense* SP7, *Bacillus sphaericus* UPMB10 and Uninoculated control) combinations with three levels of N fertilizer (0, 33, and 100 kg N ha⁻¹). The experiment was laid out in a Randomized Complete Block Design (RCBD) with three replications. The cuttings of sweetpotato shoot were inoculated with four rhizobacterial isolates as per treatment. The cuttings without inoculation were used as control. The cuttings were planted slanting with 1/3 buried in the soil. The soil was covered with plastic mulch to control weeds, combat insects, prevent soil loss during heavy rains and maintain soil moisture. The interspaces between planting rows were weeded manually

when necessary. The crop was irrigated regularly. Each plant was inoculated with the respective inoculum at planting and one month after planting with 20 mL inoculum per plant (approximately 10^9 CFU mL⁻¹). The plants were harvested after 4 months of planting. Dried shoot samples were digested with concentrated sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) according to micro-kjeldahl method (Thomas *et al.*, 1967). N, P, K concentrations were determined using autoanalyzer (Technicon II, Technicon Ltd.) and Ca, Mg by using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (Perkin-Elmer, 5100 PC, Perkin Elmer).

Leaf chlorophyll content was measured based on SPAD value of youngest fully expanded leaf using a chlorophyll meter. The chlorophyll content was determined using the acetone extraction method as described by Coombs *et al.*, (1985). Fresh soil samples were collected for soil pH and nutrient analysis (N, P, K, Ca, Mg, IAA). Soil pH was measured with a glass electrode pH meter (PHM 210, Metrolab) in a 1:2.5 soil-water suspension. The total nitrogen was determined following the micro-Kjeldahl method (Thomas *et al.*, 1967). The available phosphorus was measured by Bray-2 method (Bray and Kurtz, 1945). Total N and the available P were analyzed by autoanalyzer. Concentrations of exchangeable K, Ca and Mg were determined using the shaking method (Schollenberger and Simon, 1945) and their concentrations were measured using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer. A modified method of Sarwar *et al.*, (1992) was used to determine the concentrations of IAA in soil.

Data were analyzed by Statistical Analysis System (SAS, 1989). Differences among treatment means were determined using Tukey's Studentized Range test (HSD) comparison method at $p=0.05$.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Sweet potato growth parameters

There was a significant response of PGPR inoculation, N fertilization and interaction of both factors on sweet potato yield and shoot-storage root ratio (Table 1). Precisely sweet potato yield and shoot-storage root ratio increased with increasing N rates and inoculated plants showed higher sweet potato yield and shoot-storage root ratio compared to the uninoculated control. The action of PGPR has improved the plant growth and yield by altering the root architecture and converting nutrients from unavailable to available form through various biological processes (Radziah and Zulkifli, 2003). Nitrogen is known to be the most essential components for plant growth. Nitrogen is present in a high amount in the atmosphere, approximately 78% but it remains unavailable to plants as there is no plants which are available to convert atmospheric dinitrogen into ammonia and to be used directly for plant growth and development. Nitrogen starvation in plant resulted in loss of vegetative vigor and depletion of growth hormone. Growth hormone concentration varies with nitrogen supply and growth vigor (Koodi *et al.*, 2017). In general, low concentration of hormone is required for plant growth. Studies have found that application of higher N usually showed reduction in growth and yields of sweet potato. Thus, reduction of N by 1/3 normal N rate to inoculated plant gave

comparable yields with the full fertilizer application consequently presenting a 67% saving in N fertilizer (Vosawai *et al.*, 2015).

Only nitrogen fertilization rates significantly ($P < 0.05$) influenced the leaf chlorophyll content. The highest chlorophyll content was observed at plants applied with 33kg N ha⁻¹ (Table 1). Thus, application of N increased the available N for increased chlorophyll content of leaves which is important in photosynthesis. Kalamet *et al.*, 2017, had suggested inoculation of wheat plants with biofertilizers, *Bacillus polymyxa* or *Azospirillum brasilense* that produced auxin significantly increased the chlorophylls compared with uninoculated treatment. The rhizobacterial inoculation has been proven to directly and indirectly stimulate the plant growth. The indirect ways include triggering the systemic resistance in plants to combat broad spectrum plant pathogen (Khalid *et al.*, 2004, Vurukonda *et al.*, 2016).

Table 1: Rhizobacterial inoculation and N fertilization effects on chlorophyll content of shoot, sweet potato yield and shoot to storage root ratio

Treatments		mg Clp/mg LFW	Sweet potato yield (t ha ⁻¹)	Shoot/storage root ratio (S/R)
Bacterial Isolates	N Fertilizer (N ha ⁻¹)			
Control	0 kg	0.009d	4.41g	2.86c
	33kg	0.014ab	12.70b	3.10bc
	100kg	0.012bcd	8.32cde	3.90a
<i>Klebsiella</i> sp.	0 kg	0.010cd	8.97cd	3.70ab
	33kg	0.015a	17.69a	3.88a
	100kg	0.013ab	16.27a	3.79a
<i>Erwinia</i> sp.	0 kg	0.009d	7.97def	3.70ab
	33kg	0.014ab	14.13b	3.94a
	100kg	0.014ab	13.55b	3.43abc
<i>Azospirillum</i> sp.	0 kg	0.010cd	6.31f	3.38abc
	33kg	0.015a	13.68b	3.72 ab
	100kg	0.013ab	9.76c	3.86 a
<i>Bacillus</i> sp.	0 kg	0.010cd	7.09ef	3.60 ab
	33kg	0.015ab	13.34b	3.66 ab

	100kg	0.013ab	9.26cd	3.79 a
Significance due to PGPR.	NS	*	*	*
N Fert	*	*	*	*
PGPR * N Fert	NS	*	*	*

Note: *Significant ($P < 0.05$), Means in column followed with same letter (s) are not significantly different ($P > 0.05$). mg Clp/ mg LFW: mg chlorophyll / mg leaf fresh weight

Nutrient uptake in shoots

PGPR inoculation and N fertilization rate significantly ($P < 0.05$) influenced the shoot nutrient uptake (Table 2). Plants inoculated with *Klebsiella* and supplied with 33 kg N ha^{-1} recorded higher uptake of N, P and K compared to control. There were also significant interaction effects of PGPR inoculation and N fertilizer on N, P, K, Ca and Mg uptake. The increased plant growth could have increased the uptake of minerals and increased the content of nutrients in plant.

Researchers have found that the inoculation with PGPR can increase the yield and N, P and K uptake in non-leguminous crops (Baset et al., 2010, Souza et al., 2015). Combined inoculation of *Azospirillum brasilense* and the phosphate-solubilizing bacteria *Pseudomonas strica* or *Bacillus polymyxa* on field grown sorghum significantly increased grain and dry matter yields and N and P uptake as compared with single inoculation of individual organisms. Beneficial effects of PGPR can affect the mineral nutrition of plants by changing root uptake characteristics of different crop plants (Okon and Itzigsohn, 1995, Farzana et al., 2020). Inoculation of PGPR may improve sweet potato plant growth through production of growth promoting substances and enhanced mineral uptake by the roots (Umesh., 2014).

One of the important phytohormones synthesized by PGPR is indole acetic acid (IAA) which is considered to be the most physiologically active auxin in plants. IAA induce plant growth by stimulating cell division and differentiation and increases root hair for higher nutrient uptake (Richardson et al., 2009 and Farzana et al., 2017). The inoculation with PGPR can increase the yield and N, P, K content in plants by changing root uptake characteristics of different crop plants (Dinesh et al., 2015).

Vegetable crops like tomato, cucumber and pepper inoculated with various strains of PGPR having IAA producing ability showed significantly increased in growth parameter (Kidoglu et al., 2007). In case of rice crop IAA producing PGPR confirmed promising effects on plant growth and N, P, K uptake in plants (Ahmad and Kibret., 2014).

Table 2: The effect of Rhizobacterial inoculation and N fertilization on sweet potato shoot nutrient uptake

Treatments		Nutrient Uptake (g plant ⁻¹)				
Bacterial Isolates	N Fertilizer (N ha ⁻¹)	N	P	K	Ca	Mg
Control	0 kg	1.83h	0.57f	3.88h	0.65h	0.30h
	33 kg	6.49c	1.38c	10.54e f	1.76d	0.88e
	100 kg	5.03def	1.10de	8.81ef g	1.40 def	0.51gh
<i>Klebsiellasp.</i>	0 kg	5.34de	1.08de	9.12ef	1.38ef	0.61efg
	33 kg	9.86a	2.63a	19.29a	2.63ab	1.99a
	100 kg	8.65b	2.19b	16.19b c	2.55abc	1.49bc
<i>Erwinia sp.</i>	0 kg	4.44ef	1.10de	8.64fg	0.95gh	0.59fgh
	33 kg	8.43b	2.18b	16.88b	2.80a	1.73ab
	100 kg	6.43c	1.47c	12.59d	2.25c	1.30cd
<i>Azospirillum sp.</i>	0 kg	3.40g	0.91e	6.87g	1.12fg	0.46gh
	33 kg	8.39b	2.11b	16.73b c	2.54abc	1.49bc
	100 kg	5.66cd	1.23cd	10.69d e	1.51de	0.81ef
<i>Bacillus sp.</i>	0 kg	4.19fg	0.91e	6.80g	1.09fg	0.58fgh
	33 kg	8.41b	2.00b	14.71c	2.35bc	1.28cd
	100 kg	5.58cd	1.39c	10.14e f	1.58de	1.18d
Significance due to PGPR		*	*	*	*	*
N Fert		*	*	*	*	*

PGPR * NFert

*

*

*

*

*

Note: NS: non significance, and *: significant difference at ($P < 0.05$). Means in column followed with same letter (s) are not significantly different ($P > 0.05$).

Soil pH and nutrient concentration

There was a significant effect of PGPR and nitrogen fertilizer on soil P, Ca and Mg, but not the soil pH, and N and K concentrations. The results showed that soil pH was almost neutral in all treatments. The interaction effect of PGPR and nitrogen fertilization significantly influenced the soil P, Ca and Mg. Plants inoculated with PGPR and 33 kg N ha⁻¹ showed higher N concentration compared to the control plants without N fertilizer (Table 3). Concentrations of P, K, Ca and Mg were higher with PGPR and N application of 33 kg N ha⁻¹ compared to the 100 kg N ha⁻¹ (Table 4).

The effects of PGPR applied alone or in combination with fertilizers on sensitive biochemical indices reflecting soil quality (Gravelet *et al.*, 2007 and Kavino *et al.*, 2010). The present study focuses chemical parameters that reflect the fertilizers and activity of Rhizobacterial processes. Chemical properties are more sensitive to environmental stress, degradation and provide soil quality. Soil nitrogen varied with the rate of N applied. The N in soil at harvest was low due to uptake by plants and some probably lost through leaching.

The biochemical parameters are different because it is related to microbial activity. The activities of enzymes are involved in the N and P cycles in soil. (Dinesh *et al.*, 2013). Similarly, the soil enzymes were activated to varying degrees by PGPR and NPK applied alone or in combination. The stronger effects of PGPR + NPK fertilization positively influenced soil enzymes might be due to the greater metabolism by soil microorganisms.

Most of the biofertilizers belongs to several groups such as nitrogen fixation, phosphate solubilization and cellulolysis. The phosphate solubilizing bacteria secrete various organic acids which enhances the phosphorus absorption by dissolving the rock phosphate and uptaking tricalcium phosphates in soil (Datoniya *et al.*, 2016). In Malaysia, biofertilizers are being utilized in a very large scale predominantly for the plant nutrient supply, reducing the toxic effect of the soil contaminants and thus improving soil fertility and moisture.

Table 3: Effect of Rhizobacterial inoculation and N fertilization on soil pH and nitrogen concentration

Treatments		Soil	N
Bacterial	N	pH	(%)
Fertilizer			

Isolates		(N ha⁻¹)	
Control	0 kg	6.72	0.07
	33 kg	6.53	0.09
	100 kg	6.66	0.08
<i>Klebsiella</i> sp.	0 kg	6.76	0.08
	33 kg	6.62	0.12
	100 kg	6.72	0.10
<i>Erwinia</i> sp.	0 kg	6.71	0.09
	33 kg	6.62	0.11
	100 kg	6.83	0.10
<i>Azospirillum</i> sp.	0 kg	6.54	0.09
	33 kg	6.46	0.12
	100 kg	6.56	0.10
<i>Bacillus</i> sp.	0 kg	6.64	0.07
	33 kg	6.40	0.11
	100 kg	6.66	0.08
Significance due to PGPR	NS	NS	
N Fert.	NS	*	
PGPR * N Fert.	NS	NS	

Note: NS: non significance, and *: significant difference at (P<0.05). Means in column followed with same letter (s) are not significantly different (P>0.05).

Table 4:Effect of Rhizobacterial inoculation and N fertilization on soil nutrient concentration

Treatments		Nutrient concentration			
Bacterial Isolates	N	P (mg)	K cmol (+)	Ca cmol(+)	Mg cmol(+)

	Fertilizer (N ha ⁻¹)	kg ⁻¹)	kg ⁻¹	kg ⁻¹	kg ⁻¹
Control	0 kg	19.27e	0.25	9.71fg	0.47b
	33 kg	38.62b _c	0.29	11.13def	0.59b
	100 kg	30.48c _d	0.27	12.00bcd _e	0.57b
<i>Klebsiella</i> sp.	0 kg	29.40d	0.26	10.65def _g	0.52b
	33 kg	48.31a	0.30	16.18a	0.73b
	100 kg	46.06a	0.29	15.65a	0.60b
<i>Erwiniasp.</i>	0 kg	33.15c _d	0.27	9.23g	0.60b
	33 kg	44.33a _b	0.28	15.49a	1.18a
	100 kg	41.61a _b	0.30	13.11bc	0.68b
<i>Azospirillum</i> sp.	0 kg	28.31d	0.27	10.40efg	0.56b
	33 kg	42.86a _b	0.28	12.05bcd	0.69b
	100 kg	32.59c _d	0.30	11.50cde	0.64b
<i>Bacillus</i> sp.	0 kg	27.11de	0.25	10.71def _g	0.57b
	33 kg	42.36a _b	0.29	13.36b	0.67b
	100 kg	30.96c _d	0.30	12.23bcd	0.64b
Significance due to PGPR	*	NS	*	*	
N Fert.	*	*	*	*	
PGPR * N Fert.	*	NS	*	*	

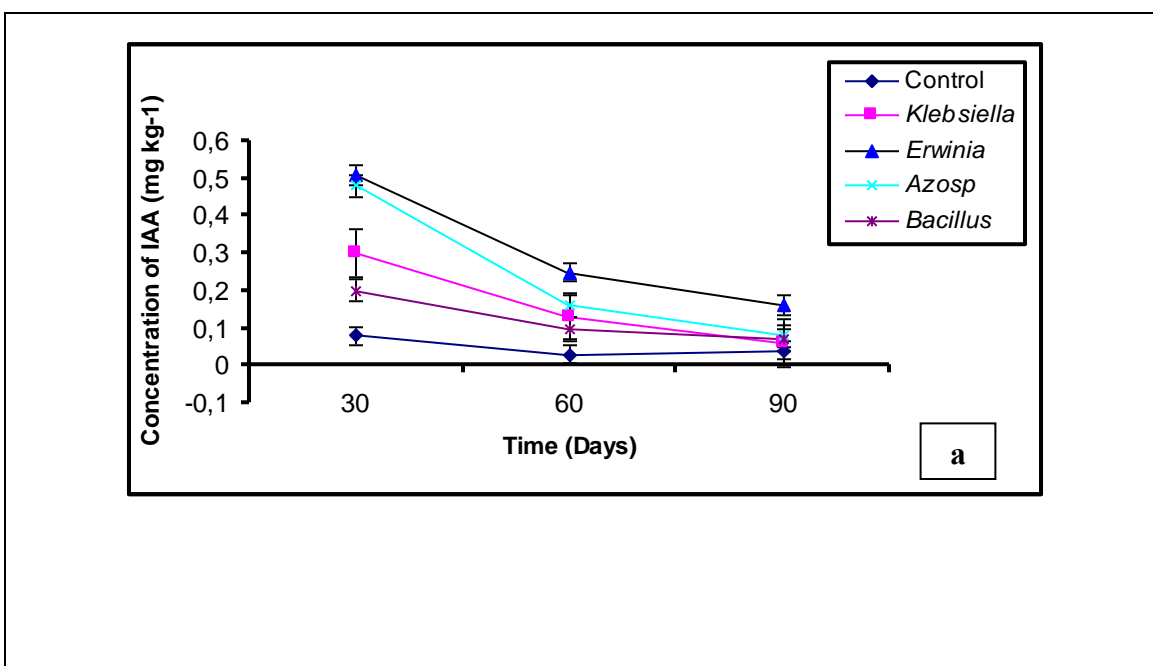
Note: NS: non significance, and *: significant difference at (P<0.05). Means in column followed with same letter (s) are not significantly different (P>0.05).

Concentrations of IAA in soil

PGPR inoculation and N fertilization influenced the concentration of IAA in soil (Fig.1a, b, c). There was significant ($P \leq 0.05$) interaction between PGPR and N fertilization on IAA concentration. In general, the concentration of IAA in soil decreased with increased in growth period. The concentrations of IAA in soils inoculated with rhizobacterial isolates were significantly higher than uninoculated control. Highest IAA was observed with *Klebsiella* inoculation at 33kg Nha⁻¹ fertilization rate.

PGPR inoculation and nitrogen fertilization significantly increased the IAA like compounds in soil. The increased IAA like compounds in soil could be due to IAA synthesized by the bacterial inoculant. The bacteria probably synthesized IAA through TRP pathways by utilizing L-TRP excreted from the root. It has been reported that up to 85% of Rhizobacteria are able to synthesize indole acetic acid (IAA) which colonize seed or root is able to induce the cell proliferation and enhancement of IAA in soil (Bashan *et al.*, 2014).

Different soils have been reported to vary in their native auxin content depending on the microbial population and other environmental factors such as substrate concentration, carbon source, temperature, aeration, pH (Khalid *et al.*, 2004, Gupta *et al.*, 2015). Besides IAA, PGPR is known to produce plant-growth substances such as ethylene and cytokinins which are also important in improving plant growth and causing some physiological events. The increase in storage root yield in this study could probably due to the production of IAA by the introduced isolates.



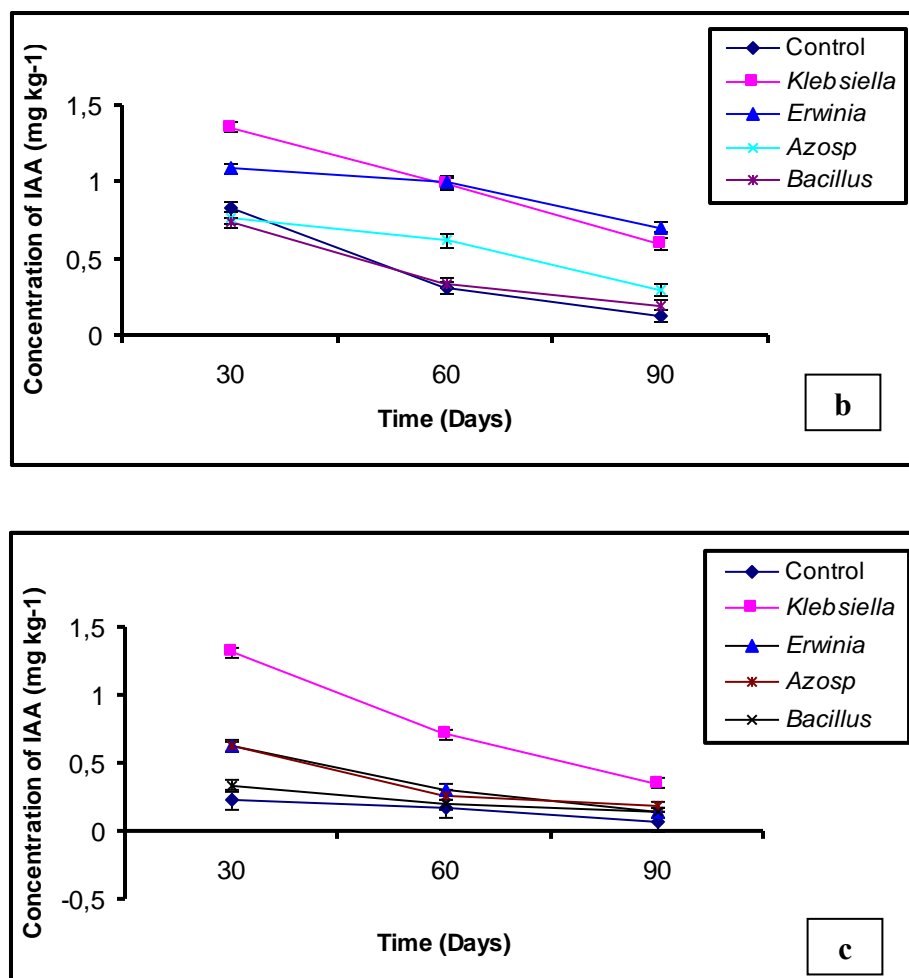


Figure 1: Effect of Rhizobacterial inoculation and nitrogen on concentration of IAA in soil at different sweet potato growth stages;(a)0 kg Nitrogen,(b) 33kg Nitrogenand (c)100 kg Nitrogen.

CONCLUSION

We can conclude that a considerable amount of nitrogen fertilizer could be saved by substituting it with *Klebsiella* inoculum, which may be equally effective as one-third of the recommended nitrogen fertilizer used. Application of 33 kg N ha⁻¹ generally increased yield but at higher application of 100 kg N ha⁻¹ yield was reduced. Field inoculation of *Klebsiella* with 33 kg N ha⁻¹ enhanced the nutrient uptake and produces IAA, thus, stimulate growth of sweet potato and improve soil chemical properties. There is a potential in developing bacterial inoculant for use in commercial sweet potato production. This can be incorporated into the agricultural sector for the promising growth and yield of sweet potato.

REFERENCES

1. Abdissa, T., Dechassa, N., Alemayehu, Y. (2012). Sweet Potato Growth Parameters as Affected by Farmyard Manure and Phosphorus Application at Adami Tulu, Central Rift Valley of Ethiopia. *Agricultural Science Research Journal*.; 2(1):1-12.
2. Adesemoye, A.O., Torbert, H.A., Kloepper, J.W. (2008). Enhanced plant nutrient use efficiency with PGPR and AMF in an integrated nutrient management system. *Can J Microbiol* 54:876–886.
3. Adeyeye, A.S., Akanbi, W.B., Sobola, O.O., Lamidi, W.A., Olalekan, K.K. (2016). Comparative Effect of Organic and Inorganic Fertilizer Treatment on the Growth and Tuber yield of Sweet Potato (*Ipomea Batatas* L.). *International Journal of Sustainable Agricultural Research*; 3(3): 54-57.
4. Ahemad, M., Kibret, M. (2014). Mechanisms and applications of plant growth promoting rhizobacteria: Current perspective. *Journal of King Saud University*, v.26, p.1-20.
5. Baset Mia, M. A., Shamsuddin, Z. H., Wahab, Z., Marziah, M. (2010). Rhizobacteria as bioenhancer and biofertilizer for growth and yield of banana (*Musa* spp. cv. 'Berangan'). *Scientia Horticulturae*, v.126, p.80-87.
6. Bashan, Y., L. E. de-Bashan, Prabhu, S.R., and Hernandez, J.P. (2014). "Advances in plant growth-promoting bacterial inoculant technology: formulations and practical perspectives (1998-2013)," *Plant and Soil*, vol. 378, no. 1-2, pp. 1–33.
7. Beneduzi, A., Ambrosini, A., Passaglia, L.M.P. (2012). Plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR): their potential as antagonists and biocontrol agents. *Genet Mol Biol*; 35: 1044–51.
8. Canbolat, M.Y., Bilen, S., Cakmakci, R., Sahin, F., Aydin, A. (2006). Effect of plant growth-promoting bacteria and soil compaction on barley seedling growth, nutrient uptake, soil properties and rhizosphere microflora. *Biol Fertil Soils* 42:350–357
9. Coombs, J., Hind, G., Leegood, R.C., Tieszen, L.L. and Vonshak, A. (1985). Analytical Techniques. In: Techniques in Bioproduction and photosynthesis 2nd edition. (Eds) J. Coombs, D.O. Hall, S.P. Long and J.M.O. Scurlock. pp. 219-220, Pergamon Press.
10. Dey, R., Pal, K. K., Bhatt, D. M., and Chauhan, S. M. (2004). Growth promotion and yield enhancement of peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L) by application of plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria. *Microbiological Research* 159 (4): 371
11. Dinesh, R., Anandaraj, M., Kumar, A., et al. (2013). Effects of Plant Growth-Promoting Rhizobacteria and NPK Fertilizers on Biochemical and Microbial Properties of Soils Under Ginger (*Zingiber officinale*) *Cultivation. Agric Res.* 2(4):346–353.
12. Dinesh, R., Anandaraj, M., Kumar, A., et al. (2015). Isolation, characterization, and evaluation of multi-trait plant growth promoting rhizobacteria for their growth promoting and disease suppressing effects on ginger. *Microbiological Research*. 173: 34-43
13. Dotaniya, M.L, Meena, V.D., Basak, B.B., Meena, R.S. (2016). Potassium uptake by crops as well as microorganisms. In: Meena VS, Maurya BR, Verma JP,

- Meena RS (eds) Potassium solubilizing microorganisms for sustainable agriculture. *Springer, New Delhi*, pp 267-280.
14. FAO. (2009). Agricultural data FAOSTAT. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Rome, Italy.
 15. Farzana, Y., Radziah, O. and Nazmul MHM (2017). Colonization of Sweet Potato Roots by Rhizobacterial Isolates Pakistan Journal of Medical and Health Science Vol. 11(4):1647-1652.
 16. Farzana, Yasmin, Radziah, Othman and Nazmul Hasan (2020). Yield and Nutrient content of sweet potato in response of PGPR inoculation and N fertilization. *Jordan Journal of Biological Sciences* Vol. 13 (1) :117 -122.
 17. Glick, B. R. (2012). Plant growth-promoting bacteria: Mechanisms and applications. *Scientifica*, v.2012, p.1-15.
 18. Gravel, V., Antoun, H., Twedell, R.J. (2007). Growth stimulation and fruit yield improvement of greenhouse tomato plants by inoculation with *Pseudomonas putida* or *Trichoderma atroviride*: Possible role of indole acetic acid (IAA). *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 39(8):1968–1977
 19. Gupta, G., Parihar, S.S., Ahirwar, N.K., Snehi, S.K., Singh V. (2015). Plant Growth Promoting Rhizobacteria (PGPR): Current and Future Prospects for Development of Sustainable Agriculture. *Journal of Microbial & Biochemical Technology* 7(2):96-102
 20. Hanim, A. M., Chin, N. L., &Yusof, Y. A. (2014). Physico-chemical and flowability characteristics of a new variety of Malaysian sweet potato, VitAto Flour. *International Food Research Journal*, 21(5), 2099.
 21. Kalam, S., Das, S.N, Basu, A., Podile, A.R. (2017). Population densities of indigenous Acidobacteria change in the presence of plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) in rhizosphere. *J Basic Microbiol.*;9999:1–10.
 22. Kavino, M., Sankarasubramaniam, H., Nishesh, K., et al. (2010). Effect of chitinolytic PGPR on growth, yield and physiological attributes of banana (*Musa spp.*) under field conditions. *Applied Soil Ecology* 45(2):71-77
 23. Khalid, A., Tahir, S., Arshad, M. and Zahir, Z. A. (2004). Relative efficiency of rhizobacteria for auxin biosynthesis in rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soil. *Australian Journal of Soil Research* 42:921-926.
 24. Kidoglu, F., Gul, A., Tuzel, Y., Ozaktan, H. (2008). Effect of rhizobacteria on plant growth of different vegetables. *Acta Horticulturae*. 801(801):1471-1477
 25. Koodi, S., Singh, S.P., Rolaniya, M.K., Raj, P. (2017) The growth, yield and quality of sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas* Lam.) Influenced by different plant densities *International Journal of Chemical Studies*; 5(4):359-361.
 26. Kumar, N. R., Arsu, V. T. and Gunasekaran, P. (2002). Genotyping of antifungal compounds producing plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria, *Pseudomonas fluorescens*. *Current Science* 82 (12): 1463-1466.
 27. Naseri, R., Maleki, A., Naserirad, H., Shebibi, S., and Omidian A. (2013). Effect of Plant Growth Promoting Rhizobacteria (PGPR) on Reduction Nitrogen Fertilizer Application in Rapeseed (*Brassica napus* L.). *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research* 14 (2): 213-220.

28. Okon., Y. and Itzigsohn, R. (1995). The development of *Azospirillum* as a commercial inoculant for improving crop yields. *Biotechnology Advances*8: 415-424.
29. Radziah, O. and. Zulkifli, H. S. (2003). Utilization of Rhizobacteria for Increased Growth of Sweetpotato. *In Investing Innovation, vol.1: Agriculture, Food and Forestry*.,255-258.
30. Richardson, A., Barea J-M, McNeill, A., Prigent-Combaret, C. (2009). Acquisition of phosphorus and nitrogen in the rhizosphere and plant growth promotion by microorganisms. *Plant Soil*;321:305–39.
31. Saravanakumar, D., Harish, S., Loganathan, M., Vivekananthan, R., Rajendran, L., Raguchander, T., *et al.* (2007).Rhizobacterialbioformulation for the effective management of Macrophomina root rot in mung bean. *Arch Phytopathol Plant Prot*; 40:323–37.
32. Sarwar, M., Arshad, M., Martens, D. A. and Frankenberger,,Jr.W.T. (1992). Tryptophan-dependent biosynthesis of auxins in soil. *Plant and Soil* 147: 207-215.
33. SAS Version 6.12. (1989). SAS/ STAT. Guide to Personal Computers. SAS Institute Inc., Cary, North Carolina
34. Schollenberger, C.J. and R.J. Simon, (1945). Determination of exchange capacity and exchangeable base in soil ammonium acetate method. *Soil Science*, 59: 13-23.
35. Souza, R., Ambrosini, A., Passaglia, M. P. (2015). Plant growth-promoting bacteria as inoculants in agricultural soils. *Genetics and Molecular Biology*, v.38, p.401-419.
36. Thomas, R. L., Sheard, R. W. and Moyer, J. R. (1967). Comparison of conventional and automated procedures for nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium analysis of plant material using a single digestion. *Agronomy J.*, 59: 240-243.
37. Umair, M., Muhammad, I.U.H., Muhammad, S., Adeela, A., Farooq, A. (2018). A brief review on plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (pgpr): A key role in plant growth promotion. *Plant Protection* 02(02): 77-82.
38. Umesh Prasad Shrivastava. (2014). Plant Growth Promotion Assessment in Rice Plant Enhanced by Inoculation of Rhizobacteria. *Academic Voices: A Multidisciplinary Journal*. (4)1-73-84
39. Vosawai,P, Halim, R.A., Shukor, A.R. (2015).Yield and Nutritive Quality of Five Sweet Potato Varieties in Response to Nitrogen Levels. *Adv Plants Agric Res* 2(5):1-12
40. Vurukonda, S. S. K. P., Vardharajula, S., Shrivastava, M.,Skz, A. (2016) Enhancement of drought stress tolerance in crops by plant growth promoting rhizobacteria. *Microbiological Research*, v.184, p.13-24.