

31 **Abstract**

32 Phosphorus plays a fundamental role in plant growth, development, and defense against pathogens and
33 abiotic stress. However, most soil phosphorus is presented in forms unavailable to plants, thereby reducing
34 crop yield and threatening global food security. Phosphate-solubilizing bacteria (PSB) have emerged as a
35 promising strategy to improve the productivity and sustainability of agroecosystems, although many
36 reported isolates show limited solubilization efficiency, highlighting the need for new isolation approaches.
37 In this study, five isolates identified as *Pantoea cypripedii* and one isolate assigned to the genus *Klebsiella*
38 were obtained for waste compost samples through an enrichment process and evaluated for phosphate-
39 solubilization efficiency. All the isolates showed high solubilization index (SI) values, ranging from 4.06
40 to 5.38 in 12 days, and high soluble phosphorus production, ranging from 584.15 to 732.12 mg/L after 5
41 days of incubation. This approach enabled the rapid isolation of highly efficient PSB with potential for
42 biofertilizer development. However, the strong dominance of a single genus raises the possibility that the
43 enrichment process may have caused the underrepresentation of other functional taxa. In addition to
44 meeting the quality standards for their application in crop soils, the use of urban waste compost used in this
45 study underscores the importance of these waste management strategies in urban settings for minimizing
46 environmental impact.

47

48 **Keywords:** phosphorus, urban waste, compost, phosphate solubilizing bacteria, biofertilizer, waste
49 management.

50

51 **1. Introduction**

52 Phosphorus plays a fundamental role in molecular and cellular processes in plants such as DNA synthesis,
53 cell division, phospholipid biosynthesis [1]. It is also a component of energy-carrying molecules such as
54 ATP, ADP and other metabolic intermediates that support plant growth and development [2] as well as
55 protection against abiotic stresses [3] and defense against pathogens [4]. Therefore, it is not surprising that
56 phosphorus deficiency causes alterations on vegetative growth, root development, flowering, and fruit and
57 tuber formation, thereby reducing the quality and yield of major commercial crops and threatening global
58 food security [1, 5].

59 In soils, plants can take phosphorus as orthophosphate anions (PO_4^{3-}). However, most soil phosphorus (63-
60 72% of the total phosphorus present in soil) is presented in forms that are not available to plants [6]. This
61 non-labile phosphorus can be slowly released into the available pool and may sustain plant growth in natural
62 ecosystems, but not in cropping systems, which require high levels of available phosphorus and therefore
63 depend on the continuous input of this macroelement in the form of synthetic, mineral or organic fertilizer
64 [7]. However, these phosphorus inputs are also rapidly fixed in the soil, and producers must apply this
65 macroelement in quantities greater than those required by the crop [8]. This overapplication not only causes
66 economical losses to the farmers [9] but also affects the environment through the eutrophication of water
67 bodies, a process that leads to oxygen depletion, disruption of the food chain and restriction on drinking
68 water use [8, 10].

69 To counteract these negative impacts in environment and human health, phosphate solubilizing bacteria
70 (PSB) have emerged as a promising strategy for improving productivity and sustainability of
71 agroecosystems [11]. These microorganisms contribute to phosphorus mobilization in soils through two
72 principal mechanisms, solubilization and mineralization [12]. Solubilization usually occurs from inorganic
73 phosphorus present in secondary and primary minerals [13] through the production of siderophores,
74 hydroxyl ions, and organic acids. The latter release phosphorus by lowering pH or by acting as chelators of
75 Ca^{+2} , Fe^{+3} , and Al^{+3} cations that usually sequester phosphorus in soils [11]. Mineralization involves
76 dephosphorylation of organic phosphorus forms that are present in plant, animal debris and microbial cell
77 membranes [13]. This process involves the action of three principal enzymes: phosphatases, phytases, and
78 C-P cleavage enzymes [14]. Additionally, PSB are capable of stimulate the activation of phosphate
79 transporters and phosphatase activity in plants root systems [15], alter positively the microbial indigenous

80 community in crop soils [16], produce phytohormones that promote plant growth [17] and protect plants
81 against pathogens [18].

82 Phosphate-solubilizing bacteria have been isolated from a broad range of sources, including rhizosphere of
83 crops and wild plants, different plant hosts and plant tissues, different types of soils, climate conditions and
84 ecosystems, as well as freshwater, seawater and sediments [19, 20]. In recent years, composting has
85 emerged as a promising technology for managing solid waste in developing countries [21], and it also
86 represents a valuable organic fertilizer that provides nutrients, improves soil structure and fertility, and
87 enhances the structure and diversity of microbial communities in agricultural soils [22]. In compost
88 systems, it is possible to find a great abundance of microorganisms that secrete hydrolytic enzymes, such
89 as proteases, cellulases, and phosphatases, which decompose complex organic matter into simpler nutrients
90 that are readily available for plant nutrition [23].

91 Previous studies have established the high abundance and adaptability of PSB in composting systems
92 through direct bacteria culture and the use of gene markers [24, 25] especially during the initial and cooling
93 phases of composting [26]. However, PSB in compost piles derived from urban waste remains poorly
94 studied and characterized [27] and the few isolates described in literature have shown limited solubilization
95 rates [28]. This characterization is relevant in a context in which composting is no longer restricted to
96 agricultural and rural settings, but it has also expanded into urban areas, in order to reduce the proportion
97 of organic residues sent to landfills and to prevent adverse environmental impacts, principally the
98 uncontrolled release of greenhouse gases [29]. This is specifically noteworthy in urban centers in Ecuador,
99 such as Quito, where organic residues account for 53.18% of total solid wastes, according to official data
100 [30].

101 The isolation of potential biofertilizers candidates from urban compost piles could provide an alternative to
102 synthetic fertilization while also adding value to these systems and supporting their wider implementation
103 in cities, thereby ameliorating waste management issues [21]. The aim of the present study was to isolate
104 and *in vitro* characterize highly efficient PSB from composting systems containing different kinds of urban
105 residues from Quito, Ecuador, with biofertilizer potential to promote more sustainable agriculture practices.

106 **2. Material and methods**

107 **2.1. Chemicals and reagents**

108 **Compost piles locations:** Urban Compost samples were collected from three organic waste management
109 facilities in the Metropolitan District of Quito: (1) “*Agrovivas*” (0°14'57.26" S, 78°29'53.68" W), (2)

110 “*Anuna*” (0°11'10.43" S, 78°29'08.12" W), and (3) the Environmental Education and Waste Management
111 Center “*ECO-Centro CEGAM Quitumbe*” (0°17'22.58" S, 78°33'43.45" W).

112 **Microbiology Analysis:** D-Glucose (C₆H₁₂O₆, 99.0%), Nutrient Broth, Luria-Bertani Miller Broth and
113 Agar powder were purchased from TM Media. Magnesium sulfate heptahydrate (MgSO₄·7H₂O, ≥99.5%)
114 and sodium chloride (NaCl, ≥99.5%) were purchased from Isolabs Chemicals. Ammonium sulphate
115 ((NH₄)₂SO₄, 20.98 to 21.38%), potassium chloride (KCl, 99.0%), magnesium chloride hexahydrate
116 (MgCl₂·6H₂O, 99.0-102.0%), and ascorbic acid (C₆H₈O₆, 99.8 %) were purchased from Fischer Scientific.
117 Calcium phosphate (Ca₂PO₄, ≥96.0%) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Antimony potassium tartrate
118 (C₈H₄K₂O₁₂Sb₂·3H₂O, 100.6%), was purchased from Mallinckrodt. Ammonium molybdate tetrahydrate
119 ((NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄·H₂O, 99.0%) and sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄, 98.0%) were purchased from Sisco Research
120 Laboratories (SRL).

121 **Chemical analysis:** All reagents were of analytical grade or higher and used without further purification.
122 Deionized water (resistivity ≥ 18.2 MΩ·cm) was used throughout. Sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄, 95–97%) was
123 obtained from Scharlau. Nitric acid (HNO₃, 68%, trace metal grade) and sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃,
124 ≥95%) were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific. Hydrochloric acid (HCl, 37%, trace metal grade)
125 was acquired from Supelco. Sodium hydroxide (NaOH, ≥98%) and boric acid (H₃BO₃, ≥99.5%) were
126 supplied by Sigma-Aldrich. Kjeldahl catalyst titanium tablets (K₂SO₄/CuSO₄/TiO₂) were obtained from
127 BÜCHI. Multi-element standard solutions for ICP-OES calibration were obtained from Inorganic Ventures.

128 **2.2. Sample process of urban compost piles**

129 Three compost piles at maturity phase, one from each facility, were selected on the basis that they were
130 primarily composed of organic waste from urban households, while also incorporating other types of urban
131 waste. In *Agrovivas*, discarded food from medium-and large-scale food processing and retail companies
132 such as restaurants, hotels and supermarkets is also incorporated. *Anuna* used waste from urban tree pruning
133 and green maintenance, whereas *Eco-CEGAM Quitumbe* incorporated ruminal residues from the municipal
134 slaughterhouse.

135 Composite sampling was performed following the methodology described by López-Gonzales [31] with
136 some modifications. Subsamples of 250 g were collected in nine different points in each compost pile: three
137 subsamples from the surface (1-10 cm depth), three from the middle (45 cm depth), and three from the
138 bottom (90 cm depth). The subsamples were thoroughly mixed and reduced via the quartile method.
139 Composite samples were collected in sterile resealable plastic bags and stored at 4 °C for the

140 physicochemical and microbiology analyses. For identification purposes, *Agrovivas* samples were coded as
141 “PAG”, *Anuna* samples as “PAN” and *ECO-CEGAM Quitumbe* as “PQT”.

142 **2.3. Chemical characterization of compost samples**

143 For all chemical analyses, compost samples were oven-dried at 60 °C for 24 h and subsequently sieved to
144 <500 µm using a No. 35 ASTM mesh. Compost pH and electrical conductivity (EC) were determined in a
145 1:5 (w/v) soil-to-deionized water suspension. Measurements were performed using a multiparameter meter
146 equipped with an Orion ROSS Ultra pH electrode and an Orion COND 4-electrode conductivity probe,
147 Thermo Scientific [32].

148 Total nitrogen was quantified using the Kjeldahl digestion method (BUCHI Labortechnik AG). Briefly, 0.5
149 g of compost was digested with concentrated sulfuric acid in the presence of a catalyst, followed by
150 distillation with sodium hydroxide and boric acid, and titration [33]. Urea was used as a quality control
151 standard, yielding a recovery of 103.6%. Total carbon was determined by catalytic combustion oxidation
152 according to Standard Method 5310B, using a TOC-L analyzer coupled with an SSM-5000A module,
153 Shimadzu [34]. Dextrose (C₆H₁₂O₆, ≥99.5%) was used as a control standard, with a recovery of 104.65%.

154 Total phosphorus was determined after acid digestion. Approximately 0.5 g of compost was mineralized
155 with 3 mL of concentrated nitric acid (HNO₃, trace metal grade) at 90 °C for 2 h, followed by the addition
156 of 6 mL of concentrated hydrochloric acid (HCl, trace metal grade) and further digestion at 90 °C for 2 h,
157 simulating aqua regia conditions. The digested samples were diluted to 50 mL with deionized water, filtered
158 through a 0.45 µm membrane, and analyzed by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy
159 (ICP-OES; iCAP P 7400, Thermo Scientific) [35]. Calibration curves were prepared using Inorganic
160 Ventures standards. The certified reference material San Joaquin Soil (NIST 2709) was used for quality
161 control, with an average recovery of 75%. Available phosphorus was extracted using the Olsen method.
162 Briefly, 1 g of compost was shaken with 0.5 M NaHCO₃ solution for 24 h [36, 37]. Calibration standards,
163 blanks, and quality controls were prepared in the same Olsen extractant matrix and analyzed by ICP-OES
164 under the same conditions described above.

165 **2.4. Enrichment of samples and isolation of potential PSB**

166 For the isolation and characterization of phosphate-solubilizing bacteria (PSB), National Botanic Research
167 Institute phosphate (NBRIP) medium was used [38]. The composition of the medium was as follows:
168 glucose, 10 g; MgCl₂·H₂O, 5 g; NH₄SO₄, 0.1 g; MgSO₄·7H₂O, 0.25 g; KCl, 0.2 g; Ca₂PO₄, 5 g as the

169 insoluble phosphorus source, and agar powder, 12 g per liter. Cycloheximide (75 ug/mL) was added to
170 agarized media to inhibit fungal growth.

171 A prior enrichment step in NBRIP broth was performed for 21 days following the methodology described
172 by Alemneh et al [39] for isolation of more efficient PSB. Briefly, 500 mg of compost was inoculated in
173 100 mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 50 mL of fresh sterile NBRIP broth and incubated at 30 °C and 180
174 rpm. The enrichment process lasted three weeks, and every 7 days, 100 µL of inoculum was transferred into
175 50 mL of fresh sterile NBRIP broth and incubated under the same conditions. After 21 days, 100 µL of the
176 enriched inoculum was used for PSB detection according to the methodology of Janati et al. [40] with some
177 modifications. Serial dilution up to 10⁻⁷ was prepared in 0.9% p/v NaCl, and aliquots from the 10⁻⁵, 10⁻⁶ and
178 10⁻⁷ dilutions were inoculated onto NBRIP agar using the spread plate method and incubated for 7 days at
179 30 °C. Colonies showing halo formation were selected and purified on NBRIP agar by repeated streaking
180 until uniform colony morphology was observed and assuring that the halo-forming solubilization phenotype
181 was maintained [40, 41]. Finally, pure colonies were transferred to Nutrient Agar and stored at 4 °C [42]
182 and then transferred to Nutrient Broth, growth for 18 h, and preserved in 15% glycerol at –80 °C for further
183 analysis [43].

184 **2.5. Estimation of phosphate solubilization efficiency of bacterial isolates**

185 2.5.1. Qualitative estimation of phosphate solubilizing activity

186 The purified isolates were grown in Nutrient Broth until they reached ~10⁹ CFU/mL. A 7 µL aliquot of each
187 bacterial isolate was then spot inoculated on NBRIP agar. Colonies and halo diameters were measured on
188 days 4, 8, and 12 after inoculation, using a vernier caliper. The phosphate solubilization index (SI) was
189 calculated according to the formula proposed by Ibañez et. al [44]:

$$190 SI = \frac{\text{colony diameter (mm)} + \text{halozone diameter (mm)}}{\text{colony diameter (mm)}}$$

191 2.5.2. Quantitative estimation of phosphate solubilizing activity

192 A 1 mL aliquot of active liquid inoculum (~10⁹ CFU/mL) from each bacterial isolate was dispensed in 250
193 mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 100 mL of fresh sterile NBRIP broth. One milliliter of sterile fresh
194 Nutrient Broth was used as a negative control. The flasks were incubated at 30 °C and 180 rpm for 5 days.
195 On days 1, 3 and 5 after inoculation, 2 mL aliquots were taken and centrifuged at 10 000 rpm for 10 minutes
196 according to methodology proposed by Cumpa-Velásquez et al. [45] with slight modifications. An aliquot
197 of 168 uL was diluted with distilled water 1:1000 (v/v) and used for soluble phosphate determination using
198 the Ascorbic Acid Method with slight modifications [46] and determined by UV-Vis spectrophotometry (at

199 880 nm) (Optizen Pop Spectrophotometer, K LAB Co., Ltd., Korea). Phosphate concentration was
200 calculated using a calibration curve with KH_2PO_4 ranging from 0.075 to 1.5 mg/L. The rest of the volume
201 was used to measure supernatant pH values (Orion Lab Star PH111 pH/mV Bench Meter, ThermoFisher
202 Scientific).

203 **2.7. Molecular identification of bacterial isolates**

204 Genomic DNA extraction of each bacterial isolate was performed using the E.Z.N.A.® Bacterial DNA Kit
205 (Omega Bio Tek) according to manufacturer's protocol with some modifications. To increase the lysis
206 efficiency, incubation with lysozyme was performed for 45 min. DNA samples were quantified before PCR
207 amplification and Sanger sequencing (*Biosequence Services*). The 16S rRNA gene region was amplified
208 using primers 27F and 1492R according to [12] with slight modifications. Forward and reverse sequences
209 were assembled to generate a consensus sequence using *BioEdit* software, which was subsequently
210 analyzed using BLAST for genus and species assignment.

211 **2.8. Statistical analysis**

212 A two-way ANOVA was performed to evaluate the solubilization index (SI) of the isolates in the qualitative
213 phosphate solubilization assay, as well as soluble phosphorus concentrations obtained in the quantitative
214 assay. These assays were carried out in triplicate. Data obtained was analyzed using R Studio. Post hoc
215 comparisons were conducted using Tukey's test, and differences were considered statistically significant at
216 $p < 0.05$.

217 **3. Results and discussion**

218 **3.1. Chemical characterization of compost samples**

219 Compost piles evaluated in the present study showed different chemical compositions (Table 1). pH values
220 were strongly alkaline, ranging from 8.95 to 9.70 across the piles evaluated. Similarly, Oviedo-Ocaña et al
221 (2019) reported alkaline pH values ranging from 8.00 to 9.00 during the co-composting of green waste and
222 household organic waste. According to Gaspar et al. [47], increased pH values may result from the
223 mineralization and degradation of organic acids produced by the microbial activity during the initial phases
224 of food waste composting, and due to the complete degradation of amino acids and release of ammonia.
225 Alkaline pH values are generally indicative of compost stability and maturity. However, the very high pH
226 values reported in the present studio could also be attributed to ammonium accumulation in the piles and
227 may lead to ammonia volatilization into the atmosphere [48], which could reduce the quality of the final
228 product [49].

229 Electrical conductivity values ranged from 1.13 to 1.62 mS/cm in the compost piles evaluated, all below
 230 the maximum recommended threshold of 3.5 mS/cm [50]. These values indicate a low salt concentration
 231 and suggest a low risk of phytotoxicity effects. Likewise, C/N ratios ranged from 9.86 and 11.83, which,
 232 according to Ji et al. [51], are consistent with compost maturity and suitability for application to crop soils.
 233 Finally, phosphorus fractions in the compost piles ranged from 3.37 to 4.22 g/kg for total phosphorus (TP)
 234 and from 0.81 to 1.36 g/kg for plant-available phosphorus. These values were consistent with those reported
 235 by Wei et al. [52], who found similar concentrations of total and available phosphorus in composts derived
 236 from kitchen waste, fruit and vegetable waste, and green waste, with total P ranging from 3.29 to 4.62 g/kg
 237 and Olsen P ranging from 0.78 to 1.86 g/Kg. In the PQT pile, available P values were considerably higher
 238 than those observed in the other compost piles. This may be attributed to the addition of ruminal residue as
 239 a raw material during pile preparation. Previous studies have reported that co-composting fruit and
 240 vegetables waste with animal manure can increase the concentration of available phosphorus in compost to
 241 levels as high as 3.70 g/kg [53].

242

243 Table 1. Physicochemical characterization of the urban compost piles analyzed.

Compost Pile	pH	EC (mS/cm)	Total C (%)	Total N (%)	C/N ratio	Total P (g/kg)	Available P (g/kg)
PAG	9.23	1.62	11.94	1.21	9.86	4.22	0.86
PAN	8.95	1.13	13.92	1.34	10.35	3.37	0.81
PQT	9.70	1.51	14.10	1.19	11.83	3.46	1.36

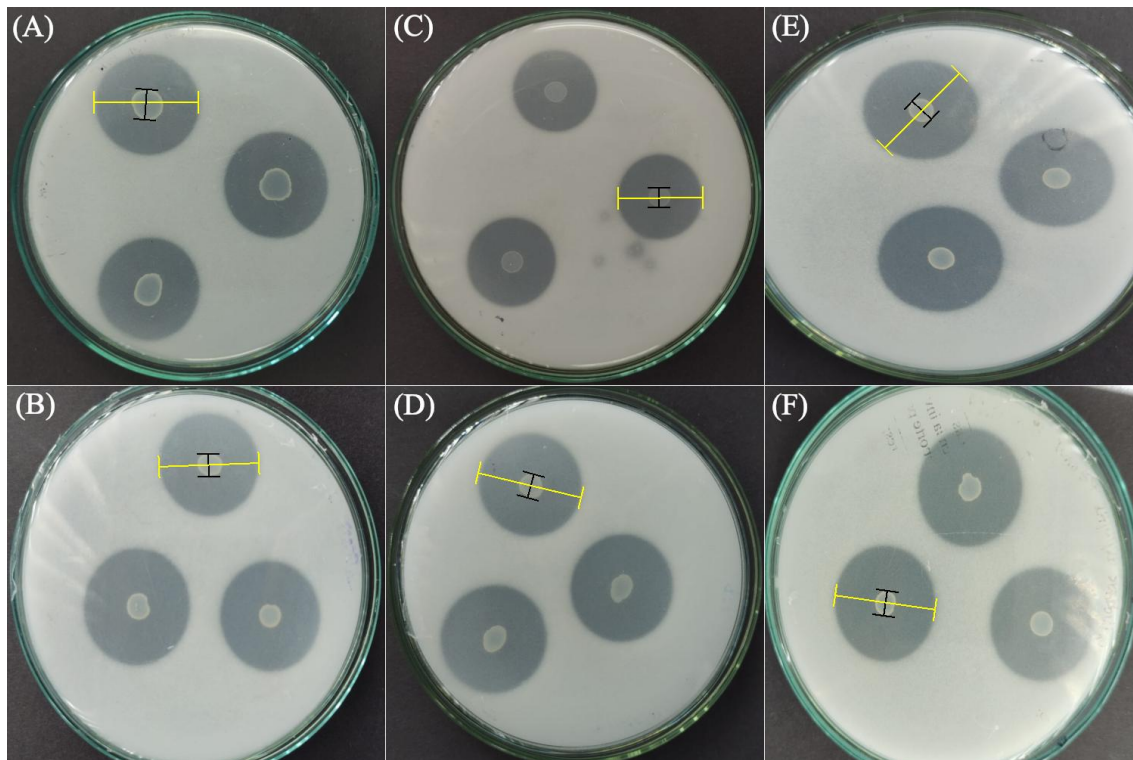
244 PAG, Agrovivas; PAN, Anuna; PQT, ECO-CEGAM Quitumbe. EC, electrical conductivity; C/N, carbon-
 245 to-nitrogen ratio; Total P, total phosphorus; Available P, plant-available phosphorus.

246

247 3.2. Estimation of phosphate solubilization efficiency of bacterial isolates

248 From the three compost piles sampled, the enrichment process allowed the isolation of two representative
 249 strains per pile. Selection was based on colony morphology and halo formation. The isolates obtained were
 250 P1A and P1C from PAG (Fig. 1A-B), P2A4 and P2B from PAN (Fig. 1C-D), and P3B and P3E from PQT
 251 (Fig. 1E-F). All isolates produced a visible halo on NBRIP agar and showed high solubilization index (SI)
 252 values (Table 2). In the qualitative phosphate-solubilization assay, SI tended to increase over time, reaching

253 its highest values on day 12 (4.06 to 5.38). On that day, no statistically significant differences were detected
254 among the isolates, except for P1A, which showed the lowest SI in this study (4.06 ± 0.07).



255
256 Figure 1. Representative phosphate-solubilizing bacterial isolates from the three urban compost piles on
257 NBRIP agar: A) P1A, B) PIC, C) P24A, P2B, D), P3B, and E) P3E. The yellow bar indicates the
258 solubilization halo diameter, and the black bar indicates the colony diameter.

259
260 In the quantitative assay, all isolates showed high concentration of soluble phosphate in the supernatant,
261 ranging from 584.15 to 732.12 mg/L after 5 days of incubation. These values were considerably higher than
262 those reported for isolates obtained from the co-composting of food waste and sawdust [28], which ranged
263 from 82.8 to 126.8 mg/L after 9 days of incubation. The elevated soluble P levels observed in the present
264 study may be attributed to the enrichment process applied prior to the isolation of PSB. Previous studies
265 have indicated that the most efficient PSB may be less abundant in plant rhizosphere [39]; therefore, an
266 enrichment step may favor the proliferation of these less abundant but more effective strains. For example,
267 isolates belonging to the genus *Burkholderia* showed a SI value of 3.29 when obtained without enrichment
268 process, whereas strains from the same genus showed an average SI of 4.08 after enrichment. Similar results
269 were observed in NBRIP broth, where *Burkholderia spp* showed a 1.2-to-4.2-fold greater P solubilization
270 than isolates obtained without enrichment.

271 In the present study, no statistically significant differences were detected among the isolates in the
272 quantitative assay, except for isolate PIC, which showed a differed pattern that observed in the qualitative
273 test. This discrepancy highlights that halo formation and SI values do not always reflect the actual
274 solubilization potential of PSB. Previous studies have also shown that some isolates that did not produce
275 visible solubilization halos on solid media were still able to release soluble P in liquid culture and even in
276 the soil. Therefore, the qualitative assay alone may not be sufficient for PSB screening [54]. Regarding pH
277 dynamics, all isolates showed a marked decrease during the first 24 hours of incubation, from initial values
278 of approximately 6.8 before inoculation to ranging from 4.09 to 4.20 by day 5 (Table 2). This pattern may
279 be attributed to the production of organics acids by PSB, such as oxalic, formic, and citric acid, which have
280 been reported in previous studies [12, 55]. Additionally, no statically significant differences in soluble
281 phosphorus concentrations were detected among days 1, 3 and 5, indicating a rapid onset of solubilization
282 followed by a stable release of phosphorus in liquid medium.
283

284 **Table 2.** Solubilization index (SI) and soluble phosphorous concentration of bacterial strains isolated from three compost samples.

Compost Pile	Isolate	Solubilization Index			Soluble P concentration			
		(SI)			(mg/L)			
		Day 4	Day 8	Day 12	Day 1	Day 3	Day 5	pH final values
PAG	P1A	3.29±0.03 f	3.75±0.02 ^{ef}	4.06±0.07 ^{de}	690.92±80.28 ^a	651.28±40.67 ^{ab}	732.12±108.28 ^a	4.11±0.01
	P1C	3.78±0.16 ^{ef}	4.50±0.1 ^{bcd}	4.78±0.11 ^{abc}	420.21±48.98 ^b	579.29±43.31 ^{ab}	593.96±72.34 ^{ab}	4.20±0.04
PAN	P2A4	4.14±0.14 ^{cde}	4.55±0.2 ^{bcd}	4.82±0.29 ^{abc}	644.52±91.77 ^{ab}	590.06±48.57 ^{ab}	584.15±51.06 ^{ab}	4.15±0.01
	P2B	4.08±0.28 ^{b^{cde}}	4.36±0.17 ^{ab}	4.98±0.53 ^{ab}	617.77±42.22 ^{ab}	697.12±150.55 ^a	631.82±9.16 ^{ab}	4.13±0.02
PQT	P3B	4.23±0.11 ^{cde}	4.82±0.24 ^{abc}	5.38±0.11 ^a	646.66±48.41 ^{ab}	711.37±178.66 ^a	651.53±45.25 ^{ab}	4.10±0.01
	P3E	4.22±0.20 ^{cde}	4.78±0.26 ^{abc}	4.37±0.33 ^{abc}	661.96±27.51 ^a	650.39±19.83 ^{ab}	629.21±46.56 ^{ab}	4.09±0.00

285 Data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test. Statistically significant differences are indicated by different lowercase letters

286 **3.3. Molecular identification of bacterial isolates**

287 The six phosphate-solubilizing bacterial isolates obtained from the compost enrichment process were
 288 identified by 16S rRNA gene sequencing and BLAST analysis (Table 3). All sequences showed high
 289 similarity values (98.33–98.94%) and E-values of 0.0, supporting robust taxonomic assignment at the genus
 290 level.

291 **Table 3.** Bacterial strains isolated from compost samples and their identity percentages ($\geq 98\%$) based on
 292 GenBank accession sequences obtained by BLAST analysis.

Isolate	Microorganism Name	Gen Bank Accession Code	Identity percentage	E value
P1A	<i>Pantoea cyripedii</i> strain DFJ-4	PQ836518.1	98.88%	0.0
P1C	<i>Klebsiella sp.</i> Strain H7	MH588303.1	98.54%	0.0
P2A4	<i>Pantoea cyripedii</i> strain Ghg22-3	MH001548.1	98.73%	0.0
P2B	<i>Pantoea cyripedii</i> strain P11	OP810910.1	98.33%	0.0
P3B	<i>Pantoea cyripedii</i> ATCC 29267	NR_118857.1	98.66%	0.0
P3E	<i>Pantoea cyripedii</i> ATCC 29267	NR_118857.1	98.94%	0.0

293
 294 Five out of six isolates were assigned to the genus *Pantoea*, showing highest similarity to *Pantoea*
 295 *cyripedii*, while one isolate (P1C) was affiliated with *Klebsiella sp.* This marked predominance of *Pantoea*
 296 suggests a strong selection for this genus under the composting conditions and/or the isolation strategy
 297 employed. Although compost is typically considered a microbiologically diverse environment [56] the low
 298 taxonomic diversity observed here may reflect enrichment of specific functional groups with phosphate-
 299 solubilizing capacity.

300 Members of the genus *Pantoea* have been increasingly reported as plant-associated bacteria with multiple
 301 plant growth-promoting traits, including inorganic phosphate solubilization, organic acid production,
 302 phytohormone synthesis as wells as biocontrol agents of fungal and bacterial diseases in commercially
 303 relevant crops [54, 57, 58]. Their dominance in the present study is therefore consistent with their ecological
 304 versatility, adaptability to different environments, robust competition mechanisms and biodegradative
 305 capabilities [57, 59] that allows them to thrive in nutrient-rich but competitive environments such as
 306 compost. In contrast, the detection of a single *Klebsiella sp.* isolate indicates the presence of less abundant
 307 but potentially relevant taxa contributing to phosphorus mobilization, as it has been previously reported for

308 *Klebsiella* strains [60]. Despite the high sequence identity values (>98%), species-level assignment based
309 solely on 16S rRNA gene sequences should be interpreted with caution, particularly within genera such as
310 *Pantoea*, where closely related species often exhibit limited resolution using this marker [61]. Therefore,
311 the identification of isolates as *Pantoea cypripedii* should be considered provisional, pending further
312 phenotypic or genotypic characterization with other housekeep genes as described in other studies [62].

313

314 **4. Conclusions**

315 The results obtained in this study indicate that urban waste compost can serve as an effective source of
316 phosphate-solubilizing bacteria, specifically when an enrichment methodology is applied prior to isolation.
317 The isolates described in this study can decrease pH and release soluble phosphorus rapidly after
318 inoculation in NBRIP medium with Ca_2PO_4 and maintaining this activity over time. Future studies should
319 focus on characterization of acid organic profiles produced by these isolates as well as other plant growth
320 promoting traits such as IAA and siderophore production, nitrogen fixation, and pathogen antagonism.

321 Most of the isolates were assigned to the genus *Pantoea*, suggesting that members of this group are well
322 adapted to compost environments and may play a relevant role in phosphorus mobilization. The detection
323 of a *Klebsiella* isolate, although less frequent, also points to the contribution of other taxa that might be
324 overlooked under the applied isolation conditions. In this sense, it is likely that the diversity of phosphate-
325 solubilizing bacteria present in the original material was underestimated however it allowed the isolation
326 of highly efficient PSB that represent promising candidates for further evaluation as bioinoculants.
327 Additional studies addressing their functional performance, stability, and interaction with plants under
328 controlled and field conditions are required to validate their biotechnological potential. Additionally, it was
329 demonstrated that compost samples from three different urban organic waste management facilities not
330 only met quality standards for their application in crop soils as an organic fertilizer but were shown to be a
331 great source of plant growth promoting bacteria, specifically PSB with a biofertilizer potential. These
332 findings also highlight the importance of implementing and expanding composting as an organic waste
333 management strategy in urban settings.

334 **References**

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