PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

FOURTH SYMPOSIUM

ON THE

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE BAHAMAS

Edited by W. Hardy Eshbaugh

Conference Organizer Donald T. Gerace

Bahamian Field Station, Ltd. San Salvador, Bahamas 1992

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Printed in USA by Don Heuer

ISBN 0-935909-41-9

PURE CULTURE STUDIES OF SEAGRASS RHIZOPLANE ISOLATES

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ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

Rhizosphere bacterial isolates from the Halodule wrightii, Syringodium filiforme and Thalassia testudinum were exposed to 95 different potential carbon sources on Biolog TM plates. Metabolic profiles of each isolate were determined and compared with a data base composed of 434 known species and groups. Metabolic community profiles were also compiled, based on the percentage of isolates utilizing each carbon source. Comparisons among the bacterial communities from each seagrass species were made and community similarity indices calculated. Eleven substrates could be used as a sole carbon source by over 90 percent of the overall population. These were: sucrose; methyl pyruvate; Lalanylglycine (96.4%); D-alanine (96.3%); dextrin; N-acetyl-p- glucosamine; cellobiose; Dmannose; D, L-lactic acid; L-alanine (92.9%); and L- proline (92.6%). Six substrates were used by less than ten percent of the overall population. were: D, L-carnitine (7.2%). phenylethylamine; 2, 3- butanediol (7.1%); itaconic acid, i-erythritol (3.6%) and alpha-cyclodextrin (0%). Community similarity indices indicated that the microbial populations from Thalassia and Syringodium were most similar (Jaccard coefficient = .904), followed by Halodule and Thalassia (JC=.903), then Halodule and Syringodium (JC = .892). These results indicate that community metabolic profiles may be useful as a sensitive tool for monitoring microbial populations, as well as yielding useful biochemical information about individual isolates.

The importance of bacteria associated with roots and rhizomes of seagrasses was reported by a number of studies (Smith, 1987). Many of these studies indicate a close nutritional interrelationship between the microflora and seagrasses. Nitrogen fixation was measured in the rhizosphere of a number of seagrass species (Capone, 1982; Capone, 1983; Patriquin & Knowles, 1972; Smith & Hayasaka, 1982a & b) and from seagrass rhizoplane isolates (Shieh, Simidu & Maruyama, 1987 & 1989). Other reported nitrogen transformations include nitrification (Boon, Moriarty & Saffigna, 1986a; Iizumi, Hattori & McRoy, 1980) and ammonium generation (Boon, Moriarty & Saffigna, 1986b; Iizumi, Hattori & McRoy, 1982; Smith, Hayasaka & Thayer, 1984). In addition, rhizoplane isolates were shown to be able to solubilise mineral phosphates (Craven Hayasaka, 1982). Despite the nutritional importance of the seagrass rhizosphere microflora, this population has not been well characterized. Microbial activity measurements, however, have indicated relatively high rates of replication (Moriarty & Pollard, 1981 & 1982) and overall metabolism (Smith & Hayasaka, 1986); and at least some of the rhizoplane isolates show a positive chemotactic response toward amino acids formed in seagrass root exudate (Wood & Hayasaka, 1981, Smith, et al. (1982) reported that rhizoplane isolates were either aerobic or facultatively anaerobic and exhibited heavy metal sensitivity patterns more similar to water column isolates than to sediment isolates.

Positive identification of these isolates, even to the level of genus, remains unknown with few exceptions. Smith and Hayasaka (1982b) reported the isolation of a nitrogen-fixing Klebsiella sp. from the endorhizosphere of Halodule wrighti which was confirmed by fluorescent antibody staining (Schmidt & Hayasaka (1985). Shieh, et al. (1987 & 1989) identified nitrogen-fixers in the Zostera marina rhizosphere as belonging to the genera Vibrio and Photobacterium.

This communication reports results of the first in a series of studies designed to describe spatial and temporal variations in the seagrass rhizoplane microflora based on the ability of isolated strains to use 95 different compounds as sole carbon sources. These metabolic profiles were compared with a data base of known strains and community indices compared among the microflora of different seagrass species.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacteria were aseptically isolated from root-rhizome systems of seagrasses growing in Graham's Harbor, San Salvador Island, Bahamas (Smith, 1987). A glycerol artifitual sea water (GASW) medium was used for initial isolation and maintenance of the cultures (Smith & Hayasaka, 1982b). This medium had been previously found to be optimal for seagrass rhizoplane isolates by reciprocal plating. Isolates were then characterized for Gram's stain, motility in deep stabs, and colony morphology (Gerhardt, 1981). morphometrics were determined using microscopy and image analysis (Cue 3 System, Olympus Corp.). Only strains differing in one or more of these characteristics were used for biochemical screening on Biolog (TM) GN Plates. These plates contained 95 different carbon sources microwells (along with a water control) and a tetrazolium dye to indicate oxidative activity. Individual strain profiles were entered in a computer containing the Microlog (TM) 1, release 2.00, version DE software, and matched with the data base containing 434 species and groups of Gram-negative bacteria (Marello & Bochner, 1989). The percentage of the bacterial population from each seagrass species, able to use each carbon source was then calculated and community similarity indices determined using Ecological Analysis (TM) software (Oakleaf Systems).

Rates of glutamate deamination were determined for selected isolates, some of which could use glutamate as a sole carbon source and some which could not. Deamination rates were determined for washed cultures by the method described by Smith (1988) and reported as the difference in ammonium ion evolution between glutamate amended and unamended serum bottles. All determinations were performed in triplicate.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Most of the seagrass rhizoplane isolates did not match very well with the data base (Table 1-3). This was not surprising for two reasons. First, the isolates were obtained from a unique environment. There were no profiles of isolates from this environment in the data base, although there is a version of the software that is expandable. Second, the data base was "young". As more environmental isolates and particularly, seagrass rhizoplane isolates, are added to the data base, the more likely close profile matches will be made. Nevertheless, one excellent match was obtained (Pseudomonas diminuta from Thalassia) and two good matches observed (Klebsiella pneumoniae from Thalassia and Citrobacter freundii from Syringodium).

Among the carbon sources listed in Table 4, over 90 per cent of the overall population could utilize sucrose, D-mannose, cellobiose, N-acetyl-D-glucosamine and dextrin and less than 20 percent of the overall population could use psicose, L-fucose, xylitol and i-erythritol. The overall distribution was somewhat more characteristic of Halodule isolates than those from other seagrasses.

The most frequently metabolized organic acid was methylpyruvate followed by D, L-lactic acid, then succinic acid (Table 5). Less than 15 percent of the isolates could use D-glucosaminic acid or sebacic acid, and only Syringodium isolates (12 per cent) could use itaconic acid. Phosphylated substrates (Table 7) were only used by 25 percent of the Syringodium and Thalassia isolates, but about half of the Halodule isolates utilized these compounds. About 25 percent of the isolates used the nucleotides uridine and thymidine as carbon sources, which may lead to questions concerning their utility as indicators of replication. Among the

Table 1.Identification and Similarity Index of <u>Halodula</u>
Isolates.

		, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		
STRAIN	DATE	REST MATCH Klebsiella pneumoniae Pseudomonas glycinea Klingella kingae Xanthomonas maltophilia Klebsiella terrigena Yibrio palagius Vibrio parchariae Xanthomonas maltophilia Klebsiella terrigena Clayibacter michiganense Vibrio parchaemolyticus Enterobacter agglomerans Vibrio parahaemolyticus Xanthomonas maltophilia Vibrio harvayi Salmonella sp. Pseudomonas glycinea Sphingobacterium multivoru Vibrio yulnificus Haemophilus aphrophilus Vibrio harvayi Salmonella sp. Vibrio harvayi Vibrio harvayi Vibrio harvayi Vibrio harvayi Vibrio harvayi Haemophilus aphrophilus Vibrio minicus Vibrio minicus Vibrio minicus Vibrio anguillarum Vibrio splendidus	SIM	ID LEVEL
SSH2A1	7/90	Klebsiella pneumoniae	. 690	GOOD
8210	7/89	Pseudomonas glycinea	.492	POOR
SSHC151	6 12/89	Klingella kingae	.483	POOR
8233	7/89	Xanthomonas maltophilia	.424	POOR
8111	7/89	Klebsiella terrigena	.413	POOR
SSH11B3	7/90	Vibrio pelagius	.404	POOR
SSH12B3	7/90	Vibrio carchariae	. 199	POOR
8232	7/89	Xanthomonas maltophilia	.370	POOR
SSH1B4	7/90	Klebsiella terrigena	. 355	POOR
SSHC1	12/89	Clavibacter michiganense	.344	POOR
SSH21B2	7/90	Vibrio parahaemolyticus	.342	POOR
8411	7/89	Enterobacter agglomerans	. 128	POOR
SSHC7	12/89	Vibrio parahaemolyticus	. 126	POOR
8112	7/89	Xanthomonas maltophilia	- 286	POOR
SSHC9	12/89	Vibrio harvevi	. 283	POOR
SSHClO	12/89	Salmonella sp.	. 279	POOR
824	7/89	Pseudomonas glycinea	. 269	POOR
8231	7/89	Sphingobacterium multivor	ım .224	POOR
SSHC14	12/89	Vibrio vulnificus	.218	NONE
SSH3A1	7/90	Haemophilus aphrophilus	.211	NONE
SSH3B1	7/90	Vibrio harvevi	. 202	NONE
SSH4B2	7/90	Vibrio harveyi	.173	NONE
SSH13B1	7/90	Salmonella ap.	.171	NONE
SSHC5P	12/90	Vibrio vulnificus	.135	NONE
SSN12B2	7/90	Actinobacillus sp.	.130	NONE
SSH1B2	7/90	Vibrio harveyi	.104	NONE
SSHC2	12/90	Haemophilus haemolyticus	.100	NONE
SSHC4	12/89	Vibrio mimicus	. 098	NONE
8412	7/89	Yarsinia enterocolitica	.087	NONE
SSHCB	12/89	Vibrio vulnificus	.085	NONE
22MC12	12/89	Vibrio anguillarum	.075	NONE
SSHCO	12/89	Vibrio Vulnificus	.039	NONE
CCHARI	7/90	VIDETO AUGUITIATUM	.047	NONE
SSHORE	7/90	Vibrio ablendidus	.044	NONE
950202	7/90	Patenthe mimicus	.032	NONE
8221	7/90	PHILATOPACTAL CANTOLOG	.022	MONE.
SSHIORI	7/07	Providence treatents	.003	NONE
8222	7/90	Calacalla ca	.003	NONE
CCUINI	7/07	Salmungila ap.	.002	NUNE
SSELAC	7/90	ENCORCOACTOR ACCIONATANA	.001	KONE

Table 3. Identification and Index of Thalassia Isolates.

STRAIN	DATE	BEST MATCH	SIM	ID LEVEL
20621	7/89	Pseudomonas diminuta	.780	EXCELLENT
SST2A2	7/90	Klebsiella pneumoniae	.764	EXCELLENT
SSTIZA	7/90	Clavibacter michiganense		GOOD
SST1B2	7/90	Clavibacter michiganense	. 595	GOOD
SSTPB5	12/89	Aeromonas hydrophila	. 337	GOOD
2042	7/89	Klebsiella pneumoniae	. 509	GOOD
SSTFB3	12/89	Alcaligenes faecalis	.459	POOR
20632	7/89	Xanthomonas maltophilia	.457	POOR
SSTPB4	12/89	Alcaligones faecalis	.379	POOR
SSTFB8	12/89	Vibrio mediteranei	.371	POOR
SSTPB7	12/89	Vibrio harvevi	. 283	POOR
2043	7/89	Xanthomonas maltophilia	.279	POOR
SSTFB10	12/89	Vibrio alginolyticus	.273	POOR
2041	7/89	Enterobacter agglomerans	.219	NONE
SST3B1	7/90	Vibrio carchariae	.217	NONE
SST32B3	7/90	Vibrio carchariae	.193	NONE
SST1B1	7/90	Clavibactor michiganense	.187	NONE
SST11A4	7/90	Vibrio parahaemolyticus	.174	NONE
SST4A2	7/90	Enterobactor agglemerans	.136	NONE
SSTILAI	7/90	Aerononas hydrophila	.131	HONE
SST21B2	7/90	Vibrio minicus	.113	NONE
2021	7/89	Xanthomonas maltophilia	.096	NONE
SST2B2	7/90	Vibrio harveyi	.091	NONE
SST23B	7/90	Vibrio harvevi	.072	NONE
SST4B1	7/90	Vibrio parahaemolyticus	.069	NONE
SST4A1	7/90	Salmonella sp.	. 052	NONE
20631	7/89	Sphingobacterium multivor	um .0:	7 NONE
SST4B2	7/90	Vibrio metschnikovi	.007	HONE
SST1A2	7/90	Enterobacter aerogenes	. 002	NONE

Table 2. Identification and Similarity Index of <u>Syringodium</u> Isolates.

	TROTACOR.			
STRAIN	DATE	BEST MATCH	SIM	ID LEVEL
19222	7/89	Citrobacter froundii	.577	GOOD
SSSFB9	12/89	Vibrio carchariae	.544	GOOD
19212	7/89	Capnocytophaga gingivalia	.489	POOR
SSSPBO	12/89		.473	
SS4A2	7/90		.419	POOR
SSSP87		Vibrio alginolyticus	. 322	POOR
SSSPB5	12/89	Vibrio carcharias	.314	POOR
SSS4A1	7/90	Haemophilus parainfluenzae		POOR
SSS62A4	7/90		. 266	POOR
SSSPB8	12/89		. 265	POOR
SS21A2	7/90		. 254	NONE
1942	7/89		. 249	NONE
SSSSAl	7/90		. 235	MONE
SSSPB4	12/89		. 230	NONE
SSSZAJ	7/90		. 228	NONE
SSS21A3	7/90		218	
19612	7/89		.203	
SSSIBI	7/90		198	NONE
SSS62A3	7/90		181	NONE
SSSPB6	12/89	Vibrio vulnificus	162	NONE
19611	7/89		156	NONE
SSSSAI	7/90	Vibrio minicus	131	
SSS2B1	7/90	Klebsiella ozagnag	125	NONE
19411	7/89		114	NONE
SSS5A2	7/90		107	NONE
SSSPB2	12/89		060	NONE
5SS1B2	7/90		053	NONE
19211	7/89			
		Sphingobacterium multivorum		
SSSIAI	7/90		003	NONE
5552A2	7/90		002	NONE
SSS2B2	7/90		002	NONE
SSS6A3	7/90	Enterobacter agglomerans .	002	None

Table 4.Percentage of seagrass rhizoplane isolates using various carbohydrates, sugars and alcohols as sole carbon sources.

		Halodule			Syring	rodium	Thalassia			
CARBON SOURCE	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	3		
sucrose	100	83	88	100	78	94	88	50	94	
D-mannose	100	67	53	88	78	41	88	67	82	
cellobiose	100	83	59	88	78	47	88	50	71	
N-acetyl-D-glucosamine	100	75	77	88	100	59	88	67	65	
dextrin	100	67	82	88	78	71	88	67	82	
Tween 40	91	42	88	80	67	59	88	50	82	
D-fructose	91	92	94	88	100	82	8.0	100	82	
Tween 80	62	42	82	88	22	71	100	50	65	
D-trehalose	82	75	82	88	44	94	88	67	65	
maltose	82	83	65	88	89	76	88	67	76	
gentiobiose	82	33	71	88	56	59	88	17	71	
alpha-D-glucose	82	83	82	88	100	100	88	67	88	
beta-methyl glucoside	73	67	53	88	22	65	88	33	65	
lactulose	64	0	47	88	22	59	88	0	47	
alpha-lactose	73	83	47	88	22	77	75	0	47	
D-melibiose	73	17	29	88	0	35	75	0	82	
turanose	64	25	47	88	44	53	62	17	41	
N-acetyl-D-galactosami:		0	35	88	44	41	62	17	24	
D-galactose	45	50	65	62	56	71	38	33	82	
D-mannitol	27	75	88	38	100	77	62	67	94	
L-rhamose	18	17	41	62	22	35	38	17	41	
D-raffinose	27	17	35	38	22	29	38	0	29	
L-arabinose	27	33	18	50	22	18	25	0	29	
D-sorbitol n-inositol	18	58	77	62	33	12	25	17	65	
D-arabitol	9	50	53	25	33	47	38	17	29	
	9	0	18	25	11	12	38	0	18	
adonitol	9	0	41	25	11	24	38	0	29	
glycogen	9	67	82	50	89	82	12	67	94	
psicose	27	67	59	12	44	47	12	50	65	
L-fucose	9	0	53	38	22	18	0	0	24	
xylitol	0	8	29	12	22	47	25	0	41	
i-erythritol	0	8	6	0	0	18	12	0	10	
alpha-cyclodextrin	0	42	71	0	67	59	0	33	56	

sample times, 1-7/89, 2-12/89, 3-7/90.

Table 5.Percentage of rhizoplane isolates using various organic acids as sole carbon sources.

CARBON SOURCE		Halodule 1 2 3		Sy 1	ringe 2	dius C	Thalassia 1 2 3		
methyl pyruvate	100	25	41	88	67	59	100	67	65
D.L-lactic acid	100	50	82	88	67	94	88	33	88
succinic acid	91	92	59	88	89	47	88	33	88
citric acid	91	83	71	88	100	59	75	83	71
mono-methyl succinate	73	17	18	88	0	18	100	33	24
cis-aconitic acid	82	83	77	88	100	29	75	67	71
alpha-ketobutyric acid	45	8	41	100	11	59	75	33	29
alpha-hydroxybutyric acid	64	8	18	88	22	18	50	33	29
propionic acid	64	50	59	75	56	29	62	50	47
bromosuccinic acid	55	50	77	38	100	59	88	83	71
formic acid	45	8	18	88	11	82	38	17	18
beta-hydroxybutyric acid	36	ō	12	62	0	24	50	33	24
D-gluconic acid	55	67	82	38	78	88	38	83	82
D-saccharic acid	45	0	24	62	11	29	25	17	29
D-galacturonic acid	45	59	41	38	44	59	25	17	35
succinamic acid	36	33	24	25	0	47	50	33	24
D-glucuronic acid	45	75	65	25	44	53	25	17	41
malonic acid	27	33	29	38	11	35	25	33	24
alpha-ketoglutaric acid	45	33	71	88	56	53	38	67	69
alpha-ketovaleric acid	9	Õ	12	62	11	. 6	25	0	12
acetic acid	27	56	82	0	44	65	38	67	82
D-galactonic acid lactone	36		24	12	0	16	12	17	24
gama-hydroxybutyric acid	و	ō	12	38	0	12	12	0	35
p-hydroxyphenylacetic acid	1 36	ō	12	0	0	0	12	0	6
D-qlucosaminic acid	9	8	41	25	22	41	12	0	41
quinic acid	9	ō	29	25	22	24	12	0	24
sebacic acid	Ö	0	0	25	0	0	13	0	.0
itaconic acid	0	8	12	12	11	18	o	83	12

sample times, 1=7/89, 2=12/89, 3=7/90.

Table 6.Percentage of seagrass isolates using nitrogenous organic compounds as sole carbon sources.

COMPOUNDS 45 505										
	Halo	dule		SVE	ngod	iun	Thalassia			
CARBON SOURCE	ī	3	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	
L-alanylglycine	100	42	82	88	67	77	100	83	77	
	91	25	88	100	89	47	100	83	77	
D-alanine	100	67	77	88	100	71	88	100	77	
L-alanine	100	58	77	75	89	71	100	83	71	
L-proline			77	88	67	41	75	50	77	
glycyl-L-glutamic acid	82	33			89	82	62	67	71	
L-serine	91	83	82	88			75	ő	18	
alaninamide	64	0	18	88	0	29	75 75	83	65	
L-threonine	73	58	77	75	67	77			65	
L-glutamic acid	36	58	59	75	100	77	50	100		
glycyl-L-aspartic acid	36	42	53	75	56	41	50	50	59	
L-asparagine	36	75	65	62	89	82	62	83	71	
L-leucine	27	0	6	88	0	29	38	33	29	
L-aspartic acid	27	58	77	62	78	65	50	67	53	
L-histidine	36	42	41	50	22	65	38	33	41	
D-serine	55	8	53	38	44	71	12	17	59	
glucuronamide	55	42	47	0	33	47	25	33	65	
L-ornithine	9	8	41	50	11	53	25	50	35	
P-oturental	9	17	65	25	67	71	25	33	71	
hydroxy-L-proline	ś	ö	12	38	0	29	12	17	12	
L-phenylalanine	ś	17	12	38	22	18	12		12	
gamma-aminobutyric acid	3	17	18	38	11	35	12	33	12	
L-pyroglutamic acid	9	Ť	18	- 0	-0	6	12	0	6	
D, L-carnitine	,									

sample times, 1=7/89, 2=12/89, 3=7/90.

Table 7.Percentage of seagrass rhizoplane isolates using various substrates as sole carbon sources.

		alod	ule	Sy	odium	<u>Thalassia</u>			
CARBON SOURCE	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
glycerol	45	58	77	62	67	88	38	83	71
lucose-1-phosphate	55	42	65	25	56	50	25	67	71
inosine	36	42	94	50	67	94	25	67	88
rocanic acid	36	17	29	38	33	53	25	17	35
),L-alpha-glycerol-P	45	25	71	25	67	77	25	33	65
lucose-6-phosphate	45	42	77	25	56	71	25	67	77
ridine	18	42	82	25	67	65	38	50	82
hymidine	18	25	65	12	67	88	38	33	77
-aminoethanol	- 9	-0	12	38	0	24	0	0	12
putrescine	27	17	12	12	11	24	٥	17	6
phenylethylamine	ä	Ö	12	12	0	12	12	0	12
, 3-butanediol	ō	ŏ	18	12	0	18	12	0	29

sample times, 1=7/89, 2=12/89, 3=7/90.

carbon sources listed in Table 7, the least used were; 2-aminoethanol, putrescine, phenylethylamine and 2, 3-butanediol (less than 20 percent).

The uptake of labeled amino acids has often been used as a measure of overall microbial metabolic activity. In addition, deamination has been proposed as an activity measurement for natural microbial populations (Smith, 1988). Table 6 shows the percentage of isolates which used various amino acids and nitrogenous compounds as sole carbon sources. The most frequently used was L-alanylglycine (96.4 percent), D-alanine (76.3). L-alanine (92.9) and L-proline (92.6), but the specific frequencies varied among seagrass sources. Glutamic acid was used as a sole carbon source by about half the overall population, as was the deamination product, alpha-ketoglutaric acid (Table 6), but not necessarily by the same strains. The ability of selected strains to use glutamate and alpha-ketoglutarate as a sole carbon source and the deamination rate of glutamate associated with these strains was shown by Morgan and Smith (this volume). Strains that could use glutamate as a sole carbon source had relatively low deamination rates. The highest deamination rates were observed with strains that could not use glutamate but could use alpha-ketoglutarate (strains 8210 and 1942). One strain (8231) could use neither glutamate nor alpha-ketoglutarate as a sole carbon source, but had a relatively high deamination rate (402 umoles indicating that with some isolates, deamination may only be one step in a pathway for taking up glutamate from the environment.

Community metabolic profiles, calculated on the basis of percentage of the microbial population utilizing each carbon source, were most similar between *Thalassia* and *Syringodium* (Jaccard Coefficient=.904) and *Thalassia* and *Halodule* (JC=.903). The greatest difference was between *Syringodium* and *Halodule* (JC=.892), which was not a large difference at all.

In summary, obtaining metabolic profiles of environmental isolates from techniques described in this paper can yield a number of interesting results. First, the identity of isolates can be obtained by extending the data base of tested isolates from a particular environment. It is likely that new species will be discovered, as indicated by the "no identification" matches from Table 1-3.

Also, metabolic pathways (some probably novel pathways) may be indicated as with strain 8231. These pathways may play a major role in carbon cycling in the environment. Finally, community metabolic profiles can be determined, saved in a data base, and compared with other microbial communities. It is possible that changes profiles may indicate changes in the overall environment (for example, pollution, sedimentation or other factors which may require monitoring).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the National Science Foundation through the University of South Carolina at Aiken's Ruth Patrick Science Education Center. The author would like to thank Dr. Donald and Kathy Gerace at the Bahamian Field Station, Dr. Jeff Priest, Director of the Young Scholars Program, Dr. James Yates and Dr. Bill Pirkle for support. This is Contribution No. 867 of the belle W. Baruch Institute of Marine Biology and Coastal Research.

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