

1 Rhizosphere Microbiome Modulators: Contributions of Nitrogen Fixing 2 Bacteria towards Sustainable Agriculture

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9 Abstract

10 Rhizosphere microbiomes which have been implicated to enhance plant growth and yield are
11 modulated or influenced by a couple of environmental factors such as soil type, plant cultivar,
12 climate change and anthropogenic activities. In particular, anthropogenic activity such as the use
13 of nitrogen-based chemical fertilizers is associated with environmental destruction and this call
14 for a more ecofriendly strategy to increase nitrogen level of agricultural land. This feat is
15 attainable by harnessing nitrogen-fixing endophytic and free-living rhizobacteria. *Rhizobium*,
16 *Pseudomonas*, *Azospirillum* and *Bacillus* have been found to have positive impacts on crops by
17 enhancing both above and belowground biomass and could therefore play positive roles in
18 achieving sustainable agriculture. Thus, it is needful to study these rhizosphere microbiomes
19 with more sophisticated culture-independent technologies such as next generation sequencing
20 (NGS) with the prospect of discovering novel bacteria with plant growth promoting traits. This
21 review is therefore aimed at discussing factors that can modulate rhizosphere microbiomes with
22 focus on the contributions of nitrogen fixing bacteria towards sustainable agricultural
23 development and the techniques that can be used for their study.

24
25 **Keywords:** microbiomes; next generation sequencing, plant yield; rhizobacteria; rhizosphere;
26 sustainable agriculture

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29 **1.0 Introduction**

30 The rhizosphere is the zone of the soil environment that is endlessly regulated by
31 exudates, border cells and mucilages released by plant roots [1,2]. “Rhizodeposit nutrients,
32 border cells, mucilages, and exudates produced by plants attract and serve as food for
33 microorganisms (including bacteria, fungi, archaea, Oomycetes, and viruses) that are present in
34 the rhizosphere [3]”. It therefore means that plant’s root exudates can influence the diversity of
35 resident microorganisms and invertebrates in the rhizosphere and these organisms can as well
36 influence the plants by releasing regulatory substance. Hence, rhizosphere organisms are
37 considered as a well-developed external functional environment for plants [4-7] and they are
38 regarded as plant’s second genome [8]. Since plants are regarded as metaorganisms [9],
39 understanding the actual contributions of rhizosphere microbiomes towards plant health and
40 productivity is necessary.

41 Rhizosphere microbiomes can either positively or negatively influence host plant
42 development. The rhizosphere is impacted directly by beneficial symbiotic microorganisms or
43 disease-causing microorganisms and indirectly via organic matter decomposition and recycling.
44 The formation of plant and rhizospheric microbial interaction is a highly organized process
45 influenced by host plant and soil [10]. Indeed, plants’ root exudates influence rhizosphere
46 microbial community structure which further influences plants’ phenotypic traits as it has been
47 reported that different plant cultivars produce different root exudates involved in the
48 establishment of multi-trophic interactions in the rhizosphere [4]. Recent investigations have also
49 demonstrated that plant host and its developmental stage play a role in shaping rhizosphere
50 microbiome structure [11-13]. Moreover, factors such as soil and host type determine the
51 composition of both endophytic and free-living rhizosphere microorganisms [10,14-16] while

52 extrinsic factors like climate change and anthropogenic activities could also modulate the
53 microbial population dynamics in a specific plant host [17].

54 In particular, anthropogenic activity such as the use of nitrogen-based chemical fertilizer
55 is associated with environmental destruction [18]. This factor among other reasons has led to the
56 reduction in land mass that can be cultivated for agricultural purpose. Yet, there is increase in
57 food consumption as a result of the rising human population and this poses a great demand on
58 large hectares of viable land for agriculture. This challenge can be overcome by harnessing
59 rhizosphere microbiomes for different agronomic purposes especially as microbial inoculants.
60 The idea behind this agricultural practice is to expressly decrease the use of chemical fertilizers
61 which have a lot of negative impacts on the environment. Thus, the use of plant microbiomes has
62 the potential of minimizing environmental pollution, the occurrence of disease out-break,
63 enhancing plant development, health and productivity. These microorganisms which can be
64 applied to agronomic seeds singly or in consortium include endophytic and free-living root
65 microbiomes especially nitrogen-fixing bacteria that are known to fix atmospheric nitrogen (N)
66 for plant use. Nitrogen (N) is among the most important mineral nutrients needed for plant
67 growth and contemporary agriculture is heavily dependent on sufficient supply of N to enhance
68 crop yields [18] and as such a number of microbial inoculants are needed to sustain crop
69 development.

70 Researchers have consequently been giving attention to endophytic bacteria because of
71 their role in increasing N input to the soil [19]. These efforts have demonstrated that root nodules
72 of crops contain endophytic bacteria including species of *Rhizobium*, non-nodulating strain of
73 *Endobacter medicaginis*, *Micromonospora* species, *Microbacterium trichothecenolyticum* and
74 *Brevibacillus choshinensis* [20,21]. Taxonomic distinctions among bacteria associated with the

75 stem, leaves and nodules of legumes Alfalfa plant (*Medicago sativa* L.) have been unveiled using
76 culture independent technologies [22] nevertheless little is known about endophytic bacteria
77 associated some agricultural crops [23].

78 This review is therefore aimed at discussing factors that can modulate rhizosphere
79 microbiomes with focus on the contributions of nitrogen fixing bacteria towards sustainable
80 agricultural development and the techniques that can be used for their study [24-28].

81 **2.0 Modulators of rhizosphere microbiomes of agricultural crops**

82 Various factors such as biotic and abiotic parameters modulate or influence the microbial
83 diversity and composition in the region surrounding the root. The level to which microbial
84 communities are influenced by biotic and abiotic factors is not totally understood. Biotic factors
85 such as soil type, plant host genotype/cultivar, climate change and anthropogenic activity are
86 some of the abiotic factors that determine the rhizosphere microbiota composition [4,5,8,29-31].

87 Several studies have revealed that soil has a great effect on the structure of
88 microorganisms including mycorrhizal fungal communities in the rhizosphere [32-34]. The
89 physicochemical qualities of the soil influence plant health and type of root exudate release with
90 the consequential effect on the structure of the rhizosphere microbial community. Sequence
91 analysis of the bacterial community of the rhizosphere of different *Arabidopsis thaliana* cultivars
92 revealed that soil type greatly affects rhizosphere microbial diversity [14,15]. The differences
93 and resemblances observe in several studies could best be understood by viewing the microbial
94 structure of the rhizosphere as emanating from a cascade of events. Firstly, the soil can be
95 viewed as a seed bank of microorganisms [35] and secondly, the physicochemical characteristics
96 of the soil coupled with bio-geographical activities determine the microbial assembly of the soil
97 environment.

98 Soil can differ in structure, organic matter, pH, texture and nutrient status. These soil
99 properties can select specific microorganisms by creating conducive environments that favour
100 certain types of microorganisms and regulate the availability of roots exudates affecting selection
101 of microorganisms by plants. In particular, soil pH and availability of nutrient such as carbon
102 have been observed to affect the diversity of crop pathogenic nematodes, bacteria, fungi and
103 beneficial microorganisms [36-38]. In some cases, soil properties may lead to soil type-specific
104 composition of rhizosphere microbiome [39]. This was further confirmed by Gelsomino,
105 Keijzer-Wolters [40] who demonstrated that bacterial community structures were alike in soils of
106 the same type and Latour, Corberand [41] found that soil type affected the abundance and
107 composition of *Pseudomonas* species in flax and tomato rhizosphere. This suggests that soil
108 properties and soil type can determine the type of microorganisms that colonize the rhizosphere,
109 and that different soil type can contain different microbial species.

110 Plant cultivar/genotype influences the indigenous microorganisms present in the plant
111 rhizosphere [34,42,43]. While physicochemical characteristics of the soil can influence the
112 composition of soil microorganisms, plant root exudates are able to modify the rhizosphere
113 environment that slowly alters the soil microorganisms to support the establishment of a
114 rhizobiome [44]. These root exudates together with plant root immune system would further
115 select those microorganisms that have the ability to colonize root surface (rhizoplane) and inner
116 root tissue (endosphere). Microorganisms that colonize root tissues (endophytes) can have
117 harmful or positive effects on plant species which eventually have feedback effect on
118 rhizosphere microbiome [45]. Furthermore, certain metabolites liberated into the root region can
119 elicit several responses in various soil microorganisms. In particular, flavonoids release from
120 plants attract symbiotic microorganisms such as *Bradyrhizobium japonicum*, and disease-causing

121 microorganisms e.g. *Phytophthora sojae*. Naringenin flavonoid produced by legumes activates
122 germination of mycorrhizal spore and hyphal branching while catechin flavonoid produced by
123 *Combretum albiflorum* regulates quorum sensing [46,47]. Similarly, some defense metabolites
124 (e.g. pyrrolizidine alkaloids) can affect the rhizosphere microbial structure by enhancing the
125 growth of microorganisms that are able to break down these metabolites.

126 Recent study shows that variations between plant cultivar in a single gene could
127 significantly affect the rhizosphere microbiome. The release of a single exogenous glucosinolates
128 changed the microbial population on transgenic *Arabidopsis* roots [48] in which fungal and
129 alpha-proteobacteria were predominantly affected, as revealed by denaturing gradient gel
130 electrophoresis (DGGE). Report has also shown that the ABC transporter mutant of *Arabidopsis*,
131 *abcg30*, produce root exudates containing high amount of phenolic compounds and low quantity
132 of sugars, which also gave rise to unique rhizosphere microbiome [49].

133 Rhizosphere bacterial analysis using PhyloChip technique of three different cultivars of
134 potato grown at two separate sites revealed 2432 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) and 40%
135 of the OTUs abundance was site-specific [50]. However, the abundance of 9% of the OTUs was
136 cultivar-contingent in one or the other site, whereas only 4% of the OTUs had cultivar-
137 contingent abundance in both sites. These outcomes demonstrate not only the significance of the
138 soil in shaping rhizosphere microbial community structures, but also that certain microorganisms
139 have a special affinity for specific plant cultivars. Amazingly, variations in abundance on the
140 potato cultivars were observed for microorganisms belonging to the order Pseudomonales and
141 families Streptomycetaceae and Micromonosporaceae, which have been broadly studied for
142 their capacity to control plant pathogenic microorganisms. This result further suggests that plant
143 cultivar can influence the accumulation of bacteria that protect the plant against pathogens.

144 Similarly, reports have revealed differences in the ability of wheat genotypes to assemble
145 *Pseudomonas* species that produce antifungal metabolite 2, 4-diacetylphloroglucinol (DAPG),
146 bringing about differences in disease suppressiveness [51,52]. Additionally, the quantity of
147 antimicrobial substance produced on roots by certain biocontrol species differs between wheat
148 genotypes [53]. Certain wheat genotypes were also found to differentially support biocontrol
149 bacterial species indicating that there is a level of specificity in the association between plant
150 cultivar and the microbial species in the rhizosphere soil environment [51].

151 It has been suggested that the modern way of plant breeding has probably not taken into
152 cognizance traits that are important for plants to serve as hosts to mutualistic microorganisms
153 [4]. In an attempt to know the genetic components in plants responsible for establishing
154 symbiosis with rhizobacteria, three “quantitative trait loci” in the genome of a tomato plant
155 involved in suppressing disease caused by *Bacillus cereus* were detected. Furthermore, research
156 on microbial diversity in the rhizosphere of maize showed that host genetic factor influences the
157 composition of the rhizosphere microbiome [12,43].

158 In addition, microorganisms in the soil are a possible factor that influences the structure
159 of the rhizosphere microbiome. Several studies have examined microbial colonization of the
160 rhizosphere by intentionally coating crop seeds with certain microorganisms [4]. Previous
161 investigations revealed that bacterial community on cucumber seedlings roots are more similar to
162 the soil bacterial community than the seed coat bacterial biofilm, indicating that bacterial flora of
163 the seed surface have little or no effect on the rhizosphere microbial structure. This may not be
164 true for microorganisms present within the seeds, since study of endophytic bacteria of maize
165 seeds showed the presence of one of the groups of the endophytic bacteria in maize rhizosphere
166 [54]. Seed endophytic bacteria introduction into the rhizosphere suggests that plants could

167 transfer certain microorganisms from generation to generation. Such carry-over effect on the
168 structure of the rhizosphere microbiome has a significant effect on co-evolution of plant-
169 microbial interactions in the environment [4].

170 **2.1 Other rhizosphere microbiome modulators: climate change and anthropogenic activities**

171 Microorganisms play important functions in all environments and so it is significant to
172 understand how they respond to anthropogenic activity and climate change [55,56].

173 Climate change has different effects, ranging from local cooling to global warming,
174 shifting vegetation zone and augmented extreme weather events and all these effects have
175 indirect impacts on rhizosphere microbiome. Increase in carbon dioxide levels, a component that
176 is alleged to be the key driver of climate change, could also directly affect rhizosphere
177 interactions by changing root exudation patterns and soil food web structure and functioning [57-
178 59]. The structure of the soil food web can play a significant role in ameliorating the impacts of
179 extreme weather events [60]. Experimental modification of carbon dioxide, precipitation and
180 temperature has also indicated that climate changes have significant effects on microbial
181 composition and abundance in the soil [61,62]. Such transformations in microbial structure can
182 similarly change the biogeochemical cycles/processes mediated by these microorganisms.
183 Alterations in natural ecosystems caused by climate and anthropogenic changes can augment the
184 impact of previously trivial biogeochemical processes or introduce new processes to the
185 ecosystem [55].

186 An unraveled problem now is how microbial communities of the rhizosphere will
187 respond to different facets of climate change. Rhizosphere microorganisms may have a greater
188 ability to evolve than their host plants. In addition, as a result of their vast biodiversity,
189 rhizosphere microorganisms may comprise of taxa that are acclimatized to warmer

190 environmental conditions. The dispersal of soil microorganisms may also permits the
191 immigration of microbial species from warmer environments into relatively cooler soil
192 environments. Whether rhizosphere microbial composition under a particular climate change is
193 dependent on spread of microorganisms or on their genetic acclimatization is an important
194 question that needs to be addressed so as to know whether the microbial communities of the
195 rhizosphere can cope with changes caused by global climate change.

196 Since the inception of the industrial revolution, anthropogenic activities in natural
197 ecosystem have escalated as a result of the rising human population, pollution and ecosystem
198 degradation and these have greatly affected soil microbial community structures. For instance,
199 anthropogenic transformation of forest to farm lands resulted in the homogenization of the
200 indigenous soil bacterial structure [63]. Thus, during the last 4 decades, the increasing awareness
201 of the destructive impacts of human activities on the environments has triggered the enactment of
202 laws to checkmate human behavior towards the environment. Though, the emphasis of the
203 positive change in human behavior has been on the preservation of animals and plants while the
204 negative impact of anthropogenic activities on microbial community has been relegated. This is a
205 serious issue because microorganisms are the first responders to ecosystem disturbance and can
206 either improve or buffer ecosystem shift [64].

207 The level of chemical fertilizer application is also an important anthropogenic factor that
208 modulates rhizosphere bacterial diversity of plants in the field [65]. Sequence analysis of
209 bacterial communities of rice crops in fields amended with low and standard levels of nitrogen
210 fertilizer showed that the rhizosphere microbiomes were strongly affected by the level of
211 nitrogen fertilizer. The abundance of OTUs in the genera *Bradyrhizobium*, *Methylosinus*, and
212 *Burkholderia* were higher in the rhizosphere microbiomes from the field of the low level

213 nitrogen fertilizer than standard level nitrogen fertilizer. On the contrary, the relative abundance
214 of methanogenic archaea was higher in the field amended with standard level of fertilizer (SLF)
215 than low level nitrogen fertilizer (LNF) field [66]. The genes *pmo/mmo* and *acdS* responsible for
216 methane oxidation and plant interaction respectively were more abundant in rice rhizosphere
217 microbiomes grown in LNF field. Similarly, functional genes for the metabolism of sulphur (S),
218 iron (Fe), aromatic compounds and nitrogen (N) were significantly higher in the LNF
219 rhizosphere microbiomes [67]. But, ¹³C-labeled methane experiment and quantitative PCR
220 (qPCR) analyses for *mcrA* and *pmoA* genes coding for methyl coenzyme-M reductase and
221 methane monooxygenase respectively indicated that methane oxidation was more active in the
222 rice roots cultivated in LNF field than in those grown in SLF field [67]. These outcomes indicate
223 that low-nitrogen fertilizer management is a crucial factor that modulates rhizosphere
224 microbiome community structure and these coupled with other negative impacts of nitrogen
225 based fertilizers necessitate the need for a more ecofriendly means of enhancing nitrogen level of
226 agricultural land. This feat can be achieved by harnessing nitrogen-fixing endophytic and free
227 living rhizobacteria.

228 **3.0 Plant endophytes and their ability to fix atmospheric nitrogen**

229 Nodule formation which is a very efficient process of nitrogen uptake has been reviewed
230 extensively [68,69]. However, not all bacterial species can initiate nodulation because
231 nodulation of plants such as legumes requires a complicated plant-microbe interaction. Certain
232 bacteria penetrate roots via cracks initiated by “lateral root emergence” as well as wounds caused
233 by “movement through the soil” [70]. These bacteria enhance plant development and play roles
234 in nitrogen fixation [71]. Though there is no direct evidence that endophytes fix nitrogen in their
235 plant hosts, the possibility of the process is broadly accepted. For instance, mutant strain of

236 *Gluconacetobacter diazotrophicus* which lacks the capacity to fix nitrogen is not able to enhance
237 its host plant growth as much as the wild type. The most studied endophyte that has the ability to
238 fix nitrogen is *Pseudomonas stutzeri* A1501, which was first isolated in China. The bacterium
239 has possibly obtained genes coding for nitrogenase and enzyme that are adapted to different
240 environmental conditions. The bacterium was studied so as to understand how nitrogenase
241 activity and nitrogen fixation process are regulated and it was found that addition of ammonia to
242 culture media stops the process of nitrogen fixation by nitrogen fixing bacteria. This is because
243 the gene responsible for the expression of nitrogenase is down-regulated in that condition. For
244 instance, the transcription of *nif* genes which are needed by free living organisms is repressed in
245 the presence of ammonia. “Interestingly, *P. stutzeri* can switch between denitrification,
246 nitrification, and nitrogen fixation under anaerobic, aerobic, and micro-aerobic conditions,
247 respectively”. Transcriptomic study has also unveiled a formerly unknown gene that plays role in
248 nitrogen fixing process termed *pnfA*. *PnfA* is controlled by similar sigma factors as *nifHDK*
249 (which code for nitrogenase). The expression of *PnfA* genes is not directly affected by mutation;
250 however the mutant strain exhibits reduced nitrogenase activity particularly in micro-aerobic
251 environment.

252 *Azoarcus* species are nitrogen-fixing PGPR and the wild type of *Azoarcus* sp. BH72
253 which inhabits kallar grass roots was able to enhance the dry weight of the grass cultivated in an
254 environment deficient in nitrogen when compared with “*nifK* mutant strain of BH72”.
255 Surprisingly, the bacterium can transform irreversibly from free living to endophytic forms and
256 vice versa and as such it is not always feasible to re-isolate *Azoarcus* sp. BH72 endophytic
257 colonies from roots [72].

258 *Rhizobium* sp. IRBG74 as well as *Azorhizobium caulinodans* which colonize rice roots
259 have been isolated respectively from *Sesbania aculeata* and *Sesbania rostrata*. *Rhizobium* sp.
260 IRBG74 has similarly been recovered from *Sesbania cannabina*, but being an endophyte, it does
261 not have the potential to fix nitrogen since it lacks certain *nif* genes like *nifV*. *Rhizobium* sp.
262 IRBG74 has now been re-categorized from the genus *Agrobacterium* to *Rhizobium* since it does
263 not possess Ti plasmid, *fusA*, *rpoB* and 16S rRNA gene sequences. This bacterium possesses a
264 sym-plasmid having *nifH* together with *nodA* genes [73] and it colonizes a wide range of
265 *Sesbania* plants. Similarly, *Azorhizobium caulinodans* ORS57 is able to colonize rice and fix
266 nitrogen in endophytic form, however this bacterium should be tested with other plants species
267 for its endophytic infection and nitrogen fixing abilities so as to know if this potential is unique
268 to this plant sp. or is a common characteristic. “In order to determine whether it is the plant that
269 initiates the N₂-fixation in its bacterial symbiont (as regards nodulation), a common SYM
270 pathway rice mutant should be tested for its ability to form endophytic symbiosis with ORS571
271 [74,75]”. It is also essential to distinguish identified multitude of genes of *Azorhizobium*
272 responsible for plant infection, tolerance to stress and nodulation in order to ascertain those
273 involved in *Azorhizobium-Sesbania* mutualistic interaction and rhizobial-legume associations.

274 *Herbaspirillum seropedicae* is an additional endophyte of plant roots that have been
275 studied extensively and it infects the roots of rice, sugarcane and sorghum. It enhances the
276 growth of its host plant by fixing nitrogen even in soil deficient in nitrogen and oxygen content.
277 [76]. *H. seropedicae* perhaps acquired its nitrogen fixing capability via “horizontal gene transfer”
278 like other non-rhizobial strains. Like other disease-causing microorganisms of the genus
279 *Herbaspirillum*, it is fascinating to know that *H. seropedicae* which is non-pathogenic has the
280 entire genetic make up for type I, II, III, V, VI, and IV pili which it uses to facilitate

281 communication with its host plant [77]. The type III is now known to be involved in the “initial
282 signal communication” of *Bradyrhizobium elkani* and *Rhizobium* sp. NGR234 with their hosts
283 [78].

284 Scientists’ attention on endophytes and their contributions to plant health and
285 productivity should not only be theoretical and thus, these microorganisms can probably be
286 utilized to improve nutrient adsorption and plant diversity.

287 **4.0 Rhizobiomes as plant growth enhancers**

288 Rhizobiomes (which could be regarded as rhizobacteria) are a group of bacteria found in
289 the rhizosphere that help to enhance the growth of their host plants by producing bioactive
290 compounds and growth factors. The rhizosphere has abundant microbial diversity and nutrients
291 such as carbon substrates than the bulk soil. Microorganisms in the rhizosphere can be
292 manipulated by wide range of complicated and highly monitored cell to cell interaction and by
293 exploring signaling molecules to monitor their habitat and modify their activities. Rhizobacteria
294 can affect nutrients absorption by plant roots directly or indirectly through nutrient
295 mobilization/immobilization or alteration in root structure/physiology respectively. Many
296 microorganisms excellent at oxidizing manganese in the rhizosphere could therefore alleviate the
297 toxic level of manganese in plants cultivated in oxygen deficient and saturated soils or enhance
298 the manganese deficiency level in aerated soil containing high amount of calcium carbonate [2].

299 Rhizobacteria are a major component of plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR), a
300 terminology that was coined over 30 years ago. PGPR are non-pathogenic bacteria that colonize
301 plant roots and promote plant development and health by helping the plant to absorb more
302 nutrients and control the proliferation of pathogens that would have been detrimental to the host
303 plant [2]. Besides plant growth promotion, inoculation of rhizobacteria as a biofertilizer enhances

304 the soil structure without leaving any negative effects in the soil unlike the conventional
 305 chemical fertilizers that have been reported to contaminate agricultural land upon application
 306 [79,80]. For instance, nitrates from chemical fertilizer can contaminate underground water and
 307 increase the risk of blue baby syndrome in new borne babies as well as stomach cancer in adults.
 308 Chemical fertilizer and pesticides can also have adverse effects on other environmental
 309 components such as surface water and soil fauna and flora.

310 Moreover, siderophores as well as antibiotics produced by some species of rhizobacteria
 311 are pathogen-suppressing factors which could also be utilized for agricultural purpose. Both
 312 factors have microbial antagonizing properties and are able to stimulate systemic resistance [81].

313 However, some microorganisms such as arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) present in
 314 the rhizosphere have been reported to have pesticidal traits [4,82]; a potential that could also help
 315 to nullify the negative impacts of chemical pesticide application and indirectly improve above
 316 and belowground plants' biomass.

317 In particular, studies have shown how several rhizobiomes influenced both above and
 318 below-ground biomass (Table 1) [83-85]. It is therefore desirable to harness a more ecofriendly,
 319 cost effective and natural biological entities such as rhizobacteria and mycorrhizal fungi with
 320 soil-enriching, pesticidal and antimicrobial potentials for sustainable agricultural development
 321 [4,11].

322 **Table 1.** Selected rhizobiomes and their contributions towards sustainable agriculture
 323 development.

Rhizobacteria species	Contributions towards sustainable agriculture	References
<i>Azospirillum</i>	Enhanced grain yield by increasing dry	[86]

<i>amazonense</i>	matter, panicle number and nitrogen content at maturation.
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Enhanced the remediation capacity of broad bean plants cultivated in soil environment containing oil contaminants. It also helps to control plant pathogens. [4,87,88]
<i>Serratia liquefaciens</i>	Enhanced the remediation capacity of broad bean plants cultivated in soil environment containing oil contaminants. [2]
<i>Bradyrhizobium</i> spp.	Improved nodulation in leguminous plants as well as shoot and root growth. They also enhance plants resistance to drought and production of indole-3-acetic acid [2,84,85,89]
<i>Azospirillum</i> spp.	Enhanced nitrogen content in <i>Vicia sativa</i> . [90]
<i>Rhizobium</i> spp.	Enhanced significantly the height, pod number and length as well as seed weight in <i>Vigna mungo</i> and <i>Vigna radiate</i> . [91]
<i>Bacillus</i> spp.	Help plants to develop resistance against pathogens and pest. [4,88]
<i>Sinorhizobium meliloti</i>	Improved biomass diversity in black madic plant that was subjected to copper stress. [84,92]
<i>Rhizobium</i> RL9	Increased lentil plant development, [83]

nitrogen content, seed protein content and
seed produced under heavy metal stressed
environment.

Rhizobium MRPI Promoted nodule formation, [93]
leghaemoglobin concentration, seed
protein and seed harvest in pea plant.

324

325 The effects of rhizosphere microorganisms on agronomic crops are highlighted below.

326 **5.0 The effects of rhizosphere microbiomes on sustainable agriculture and food security**

327 The global world requires novel ideas for farming so as to be able to generate farm
328 produce that can cater for world population of 6.9 billion. Actualizing food security which is the
329 process of producing sufficient food and enhancing its quality to sustain the ever increasing
330 population without undermining environmental protection is termed global green revolution [94].
331 Sustainable development in the area of agriculture is required to alleviate these issues.
332 Development of farming practices (that are environmentally friendly), natural resources and
333 energy conservative strategy that guarantee food security are the critical aims of sustainable
334 agriculture as reported by National Research Council [10]. It is the view of scientists that the
335 most likely approach to actualize this objective is to replace hazardous inorganic fertilizers and
336 pesticides with ecofriendly formulations of symbiotic microorganisms (such as *Bradyrhizobium*
337 spp.) that have the potential to improve crop growth while providing protection from biotic
338 stresses (such as plants pathogens and pests) and abiotic stresses (climate change and
339 environmental pollution).

340 Several studies on isolation, identification and application of microorganisms as an
341 alternative method for chemical fertilizer utilization have been reported [95,96]. Enhancing the
342 richness and abundance of soil microorganisms by this alternative method has also shown to
343 improve plants health and yield [97-99]. In this case, the microbial cultures are mixed with
344 chemical carriers using solid or liquid fermentation techniques. The microbial isolates are either
345 incorporated to the plant in pure or mixed culture either via seed application, seedling dip, bio-
346 priming or soil application. In addition to the use of individual microorganism, identifying
347 suitable and functionally different microbiomes and their usage for improving crop productivity
348 is another huge and fundamental task to embark on since the entire microbiome is important, as
349 it is described as the plant host second genome, “the metaorganisms” [10].

350 Hence, accomplishing food security is dependent on the enhancement of plant growth
351 and diversity including seed yield right from the field and one of the ways this feat can be
352 attained is through inoculation of agricultural crops (such as soybean) with rhizospheric
353 rhizobacteria (e.g. *Rhizobium* spp.) as briefly discussed below.

354 **5.1 Impact of *Rhizobium* inoculation on leguminous crops productivity**

355 *Rhizobium* species are bacteria with the potential to reduce atmospheric nitrogen to
356 ammonia for their host use through the formation of nodules on the roots or stems of leguminous
357 plants [90]. This group of bacteria has been greatly studied due to their significance in
358 agriculture and environment [100,101]. The amendment of seeds with *Rhizobium* species
359 enhances seed protein, nodules formation and nitrogen absorption. In a review reported by
360 Mfilinge, Mtei [90], soybean (*Glycine max* L.) inoculated with *Rhizobium* significantly increased
361 the crop growth and yield constituents such as number of branches bearing pod per plant, total
362 number of pod per plant and seed number per pod. Amendment of *Vicia sativa* L. (vetch) with

363 *Azospirillum* in greenhouse and field experiments increased significantly nitrogen fixation
364 activity, percentage nitrogen and nitrogen content. *Rhizobium leguminosarum* introduced into
365 pea and lentil seeds was able to enhance pea nodulation, shoot/root diversity and yield of pea
366 seed. Also, seedling height, nodule and shoot biomass of lentil were enhanced. There was also
367 enhancement on nodulation of peanut treated with *Rhizobium* species while chicken pea treated
368 with same species in greenhouse and field experiments resulted in significant increase in plant
369 growth, root dry weight and number of nodules. Ravikumar [91] discovered that there was
370 significant increase in the height, fresh weight, roots, nodules, leaves, shoots and pods number,
371 pods length and seed weight of *Vigna mungo* and *Vigna radiate* inoculated with *Rhizobium* when
372 compared to control experiments (Table 1). Height of soybean inoculated with *Rhizobium* in
373 field experiment significantly increased and stem girth was also increased in greenhouse cum
374 field house experiments [102]. Similarly in a study carried out by Nyoki and Ndakidemi [101],
375 cowpea treated with rhizobial inoculants significantly increase the height of the crop when
376 compared to the control counterparts.

377 *Rhizobium* introduction in leguminous crops is known for growth stimulation and is used
378 as a substitute to the expensive conventional chemical fertilizers [90]. The use of suitable species
379 as an inoculant in nitrogen depleted environments might be a better means to enhance the
380 development and growth of legumes. Considering the relatively cheap rate of inoculation and the
381 possible agricultural benefits, farmers are admonished to take advantage of these inoculants as
382 bio-fertilizers on leguminous crops.

383 **5.2 Impact of *Rhizobium* inoculation on mineral nutrients absorption by leguminous crops**

384 The availability and absorption of mineral elements like phosphorus (P), magnesium
385 (Mg), sulphur (S), calcium (Ca) and potassium (K) are very essential for the growth of plants

386 especially in Africa where various cropping systems involving leguminous crops such as
387 soybeans are practiced. In particular, P absorption and mutualistic nitrogen fixation are important
388 for the development and proper functioning of plants. The uptake of these mineral nutrients
389 relies majorly on their concentrations, activities in the soil around the root region and their
390 replacement ability in the soil. In legumes, this challenge can be surmounted by introducing
391 *Rhizobium* species and essential mineral nutrients into the rhizospheric soil. Besides deficiencies
392 in major nutrients, micronutrients such as zinc (Zn), boron (B), molybdenum (Mo) and iron (Fe)
393 are also limiting nutrients that work against legumes productivity. It was reviewed by Mfilinge,
394 Mtei [90], that the statistical significant increase observed for K intake was linked to *Rhizobium*
395 inoculation into Pigeon pea (*Cajanus cajan* L. Millsp) and increase in the amount of nutrient in
396 the environment increased the chance of plants uptake. Study carried out by Makoi, Bambara
397 [103] on the impact of *Rhizobium* strains on mineral nutrient absorption by *Phaseolus vulgaris*
398 showed significant increase in the uptake of P, K, Mg, Ca and S in the entire plant parts. It was
399 reported by the author that even though the concentration of P and K skyrocketed in the root
400 region due to *Rhizobium* introduction, the increase was only significant in the greenhouse
401 experiment and not in the field condition. *Rhizobium* inoculation enhancement of micronutrient
402 (such as Mn, Fe, Cu, Zn, B and Mo) uptake in the shoots, roots, pods and the entire plant with
403 the exception of Mo intake in the roots has been reported. *Rhizobium* has also been shown to
404 cause significant increase in Ca and sodium (Na) content and the pH of the soil [104]. The
405 uptake of Zn, Fe, Mn and Cu by cowpea was significantly different between treatments amended
406 with *Bradyrhizobium japonicum* and phosphorus under greenhouse and field conditions [101]. *B.*
407 *japonicum* caused significant increase in the intake of Zn, Fe, Cu and Mn in soybean (*Glycine*
408 *max* L.) in greenhouse condition while uptake of Fe, Cu and Mn increased significantly and that

409 of Zn decreased under field condition [102]. There is however limited information on the roles of
410 different rhizobial species of legumes on the bioavailability of other mineral nutrients in bean
411 cultivars especially in Africa. Similarly, the impacts of *Rhizobium*, P and K interaction have not
412 been studied in detail and it is therefore important to study the potential role of *Rhizobium*,
413 phosphorus and potassium on the bioavailability of other mineral nutrients in leguminous crops
414 such as soybean grown in each ecological zone in Africa.

415 ***5.3 Impact of Rhizobium inoculation on chlorophyll concentration and photosynthetic*** 416 ***activities of leguminous crops***

417 The crucial regulating element for plant growth is nitrogen due to its limited availability
418 and also beans require this element more than other mineral nutrients. Nitrogen (N) is a
419 component of most organic compounds such as proteins, growth regulators and chlorophylls.
420 Nitrogen deficiency can lead to stunted growth, yellowing of leaves and reduced branching in
421 beans. Nitrogen is one of the monomeric units of proteins and is greatly required for the entire
422 enzymatic process in the cells of plants. It is also present in many vitamins and chlorophyll and
423 plays a role in photosynthetic process [102]. In a study carried out in greenhouse and field
424 environments, the chlorophyll content of the leaves of common beans significantly increased
425 upon inoculation with rhizobial species. There was also significant increase in the photosynthetic
426 activities of plant amended with rhizobial strains by 140 and 80% for greenhouse and field
427 experiments respectively compared to control experiments [90]. It has similarly been reported
428 that soybean amended with *Bradyrhizobium japonicum* showed increase in chlorophyll
429 concentration and growth factors such as height of plant, leaves number on a plant, stem width,
430 day's number to 50% flower and pod development as against the control counterparts [102].
431 [101] upon studying the impacts of *Bradyrhizobium japonicum* and phosphorus inoculation on

432 uptake of cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* L.), discovered that chlorophyll concentration of the leaf
433 of cowpea significantly skyrocketed for treatment inoculated with *B. japonicum* in the field.
434 There is however little information on the impacts of K, P and *Rhizobium* inoculation and their
435 interactions on formation of chlorophyll in *Phaseolus vulgaris* in Tanzania which is a gap that
436 needs to be covered research wise [90].

437 **6.0 Nexus of PGPR, Fe acquisition, plant productivity and pathogens eradication**

438 Besides inorganic P and N, Fe is an additional mineral nutrient that plants can obtain
439 through symbiotic interactions with soil rhizobacteria. Some PGPR are able to sequester the
440 insoluble form of Fe from the soil with the aid of siderophores making it available for the host
441 plant [105]. The sequestration or acquisition of Fe through PGPR siderophores decreases the
442 bioavailable iron in the rhizosphere and as such affecting the growth of fungi that might be
443 pathogenic to the plant [106,107]. In Fe deficient soil, plant is more productive in
444 microorganism-rich soil than in soil devoid of microorganisms, buttressing the fact that PGPR
445 help the host plants in acquiring this limited mineral nutrient [105].

446 **7.0 New PGPR that are related to human opportunistic pathogens**

447 Several PGPR are phylogenetically related to some of the human opportunistic
448 microorganisms and their potential to cause disease can easily be assessed by their ability to
449 survive at 37°C [108]. The distinctions between pathogens and PGPR can be unveiled via
450 comparative genomics. *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* and *S. rhizophila* DSM14405T (PGPR)
451 are genomically similar to *S. maltophilia* K279a (a human pathogen) but the former possess
452 genes involved in the breakdown of cell walls of bacteria and plants, iron sequestration, tolerance
453 to salinity and spermidine synthase production [108].

454 Many other nitrogen fixing endophytes are also closely related to some human pathogens.
455 In particular, *Klebsiella pneumonia* Kp342 is an endophytic nitrogen-fixer of some agricultural
456 crops and has human pathogenic close relative (strain MGH78578). Strain Kp342 is different
457 from strain MGH78578 since it is able to fix nitrogen and lack the genes that encode “global
458 secondary messenger cdi-GMP” known for control of virulent components and biofilm
459 formation. “In total, 4205 proteins (putative orthologues with the average identity of 96%, based
460 on coding sequence prediction) were shared between these two strains, and 1107 proteins were
461 unique to the plant associated Kp342”. Surprisingly, none of the projected coding sequence of
462 Kp342 was similar to that of the already sequenced *Azoarcus* sp. BH72 (Tkacz and Poole 2015).

463 **8.0 Nexus of rhizobia, nodule formation and SYM pathway**

464 Some members of the Rhizobiales such as *Bradyrhizobium* species and Beta-
465 proteobacteria are capable of forming nodules on the roots of leguminous crops where they
466 transform atmospheric nitrogen to ammonia for plant use and gain carbon substrate from the
467 plant in exchange [68,109]. Actinobacteria such as species of *Frankia* form nodules in
468 interaction with plants like Casuarina and Alder. Several bacteria are free living in the
469 environment or may exist as endophytes in plant roots, and similarly have the capacity to fix
470 nitrogen [6]. Nodule formation in legumes was first observed approximately 100 million years
471 back [110] long after observing mycorrhizal colonization of plant, indicating that alteration in
472 mycorrhizal pathway gives rise to nodulation. The existence of symbiotic common pathway
473 (SYM pathway) in microbial association with plants raises the question of whether it serves as a
474 route for soil microbiome to gain access to plant root tissues. Oomycetes for instance use this
475 pathway to gain access to plant and cause havoc [111]. Although, mutant strains of rice lacking
476 SYM pathway reveal that certain endophytic microorganisms like *Rhizobium leguminosarum* are

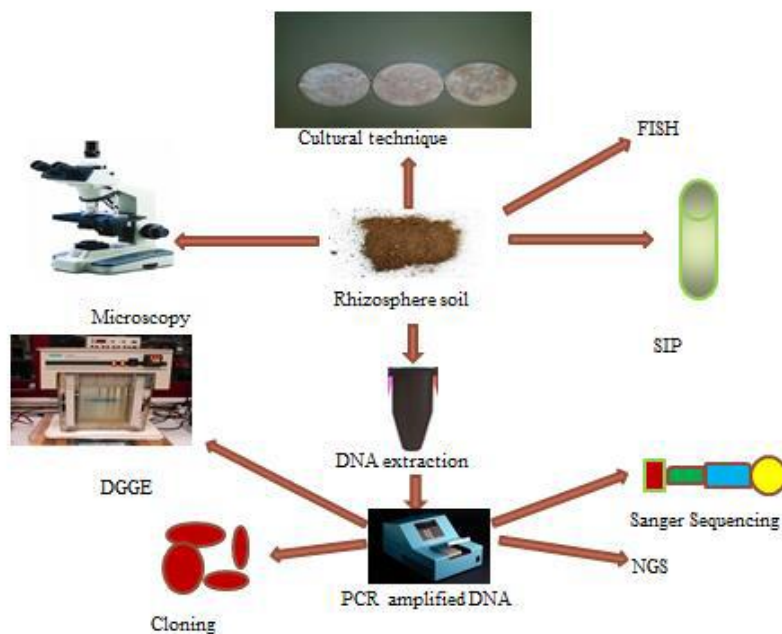
477 still able to infect plant roots [74] suggesting that this is not the only pathway available for
478 microorganisms to gain entry into plant tissues. However, plants might be able to detect certain
479 pathogens via the SYM pathway.

480 **10.0 Techniques use for investigation of rhizosphere microbial community structure**

481 Researchers can gain insights into the composition and abundance of microorganisms
482 present in the rhizosphere of plants in natural and agricultural ecosystem by using either what is
483 broadly classified as traditional [10] or molecular [4] technologies.

484 **10.1 Traditional techniques**

485 Plant microbiomes are rich and abundant and they composed of pathogens, endophytes and
486 mutualistic symbionts. In the soil environment, bacterial count could be up to 10^6 - 10^7 cells/cm²;
487 this count was obtained by culturing soil samples in nutrient media under different growth
488 conditions (Fig.1).



489

490 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of collective techniques describing culture and un-culture
 491 based methods for the study rhizosphere microbiomes. DNA-deoxyribonucleic acid, SIP-Stable
 492 isotope probing technique, PCR-polymerase chain reaction technique, DGGE-denaturing
 493 gradient gel electrophoresis, NGS-next generation sequencing

494 Plants obtain different nutrients from the soil with the aid of microorganisms in the
 495 rhizosphere. These nutrients include majorly nitrogen, iron and phosphorus. These elements have
 496 the potential to influence plant growth by activating the production of plant growth regulators.
 497 Hence, the traditional techniques or culture dependent technologies are routinely used to assay
 498 for bacteria responsible for plant growth enhancement [112]. These methods involve culturing
 499 microorganisms in culture plates or broth to isolate and study plant growth promoting traits of
 500 PGPR. Some of these plant growth promoting traits include siderophores, hydrogen cyanide,
 501 phosphate solubilization and exopolysaccharide test. The traditional techniques are also used to
 502 isolate and characterize the genetic materials associated with these microorganisms and

503 unfortunately the culture based techniques are not able to capture majority of the unculturable
504 microorganisms in the rhizosphere microbiome [10] as they can only isolate approximately 1%
505 of the entire microbiome in environmental soil samples while the remaining 99% can be studied
506 via molecular techniques or culture independent technologies.

507 **10.2 Molecular techniques**

508 Attempt to profile whole microbiota commenced with the identification and application
509 of 16S RNA gene and the use of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) for characterization of
510 microorganisms. This had metamorphosed into advanced techniques such as metagenomics use
511 to explore entire microbial community. The drawbacks of these culture independent technologies
512 were recently reviewed [26,113,114] and these technologies involve metagenome sampling,
513 purification, separation, sequencing, analysis of data and interpretations. The sequencing method
514 is rapidly advancing and currently there is next generation sequencing (NGS) or high throughput
515 sequencing (HTS). The HTS technologies comprises of Roche 454 Genome Sequencer, HiSeq
516 2000, and AB SOLiDTM System [12,14,26,28].

517 Other molecular techniques involving DNA/RNA stable isotope probing (SIP) and DNA
518 arrays are also used in microbial analysis of environmental samples [26,115]. Indeed, SIP
519 technique (Fig. 1.) revealed that the root exudates emanating from maize and wheat play a role in
520 shaping microbial community of the soil surrounding the root regions [10]. The microorganisms
521 of the rhizosphere utilizing root exudates were done by analyzing only the denaturing gradient
522 gel electrophoresis (DGGE) profile of ^{13}C DNA fixed by plants amended with $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ soil while
523 microorganisms using organic matter from the soil were evaluated using ^{12}C DNA. This
524 investigation demonstrated that some classes of bacteria e.g. Sphingobacteriales and

525 Myxococcus could use root exudates emanating from all plants while microorganisms from the
526 order Sphingomonadales can utilize carbon substrates of root exudates and soil organic matter.

527 There is presently transition from the metagenomics approaches to metatranscriptomics
528 techniques. Metatranscriptomics give information about the diversity and functional molecules
529 of the microbial community unlike the metagenomics that only show diversity. It was recently
530 noted that functional diversity of the microbiomes is probably more dominant in ecological
531 niches than genomic diversity [29,30,116]. Metatranscriptomics methods such as RNA SIP,
532 reverse transcription quantity PCR (qPCR), cDNA analysis and pyrosequencing help to give
533 information about the functional state of microbiomes in the rhizosphere [115]. However, culture
534 independent technologies have a lot of challenges even though the general difficulty of qPCR
535 and microarray techniques use for detecting gene expression of microbial community has been
536 surmounted. The challenges entail detecting either ribosomal RNA (rRNA) or messenger RNA
537 (mRNA), accomplishing broader analysis of an environmental RNA pool, designing effective
538 probe and enhancing the performance of sequencing.

539 Metaproteomics on the other hand, deals with the analysis of protein which involves the
540 extraction of metaproteome from environmental samples and carrying out protein fingerprinting
541 of the extract using mass spectrometry [117,118]. Metatranscriptomics and metaproteomics
542 which are somewhat nascent are confronted with the challenge of sampling and data
543 procurement [117].

544 Recently, researchers have done little study on the rhizosphere microbial community of
545 soybean (*Glycine max* L.) in soil ecosystem in USA [119]. Yet, much is not known about
546 microbiomes associated with the root of most agricultural crops and more research on soil
547 rhizospheric microbiomes of crops is therefore needed [54,105,120]. For example, no study has

548 investigated rhizosphere associated microbiota of soybean in field conditions employing HTS,
549 even though this is the 4th most produced crops in the globe [121]. Between 2015 and 2016, 320
550 million tons of soybeans were estimated to be produced.

551 Nowadays, virtually all investigations involve molecular analyses which are necessary
552 for detailed characterization of species and investigation of microbial interactions with host
553 plants in the rhizosphere. “Though there are many technical innovations in HTS that lead to
554 insightful and better understanding of the microbiome phylotypes and functions; Dini-Andreote
555 and van Elsas [114] have emphasized its hindrance on testing ecological hypotheses and the
556 current need of a ‘paradigm shift’ from HTS to studies on fundamental questions about yet
557 unexplored plant soil microbiota systems, especially towards phenotypic diversity of
558 rhizospheric microbiome on a spatial and temporal level”

559 **11.0 Future direction**

560 “The future trend needs to be in developing genetically modified PGPR over transgenic
561 plants for boosting plant performance, as it is simpler to modify a bacterium than complex higher
562 organisms. Moreover, instead of engineering individual crops, a single, engineered inoculant can
563 be employed for several crops, especially when using a nonspecific genus like *Azospirillum*.
564 PGPR strains development is hampered mainly by the fact that these organisms are sometimes
565 unable to survive harsh environmental conditions, including high concentrations of
566 environmental contaminants, salts, extremities of pH and temperature. Genetic
567 engineering can be used to develop PGPR strains that are effective at low inoculum doses and
568 under a variety of environmental conditions. It is urgent to develop more effective PGPR strains
569 with longer shelf lives to achieve sustainable crop production in dry land production. Recent
570 advances in the fields of microbiology, biotechnology, molecular biology and bioinformatics

571 have opened up the way to identify novel genes involved in drought tolerance. Concepts of micro
572 biotechnology application in agriculture should be employed to isolate indigenous PGPR from
573 the stress affected soils, and screening on the basis of their stress may be useful in rapid selection
574 of efficient strains that could be used as bio-inoculants for crops grown in dry lands [122]”.

575 **12.0 Conclusions**

576 There are myriads of microorganisms including rhizobacteria found in the ecosystem of
577 the rhizosphere and these bacterial interactions with the plants root have been declared beneficial
578 to sustainable agricultural development. This group of bacteria, among other merits can enhance
579 plant development and diminish the occurrence of plant disease. New as well as uncultured
580 microbial candidates in the rhizosphere can better be captured and studied using culture
581 independent techniques which have the potential to analyze broad spectrum of microbial species
582 unlike the culture based techniques. The mechanism by which these microorganisms achieve the
583 mutual benefits on their hosts is not completely comprehended; however it has been observed
584 that virtually all of their traits enable them to accomplish these benefits. To add to this,
585 rhizospheric microorganisms must be competent in the sense that they should be able to thrive in
586 the rhizospheric soil that is being influenced by a several factor including soil type, plant cultivar
587 and agricultural practices. It is advisable to match properly the suitable PGPR with the
588 compatible host plant cum environmental condition so as to accomplish better benefits on the
589 plant. This feat will help to reduce the usage of conventional chemical fertilizers as well as
590 pesticides most especially if these microbial inoculants are delivered effectively to the target
591 plant and environment.

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599 Competing interests

600 There is no competing interest between the authors

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