

Article

The Natal Giant Cycad (*Encephalartos natalensis*) associated nutrient-cycling microbes and enzymes contribute to soil nutrient inputs and persistence in nutrient-poor disturbed savanna woodland ecosystems.

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Abstract: *Encephalartos* spp. establish symbioses with nitrogen (N)-fixing bacteria that contribute to soil nutrition and improve plant growth. Despite the *Encephalartos* mutualistic symbioses with N-fixing bacteria, the identity of other bacteria and their contribution to soil fertility and ecosystem functioning are not well understood. This limited information presents a challenge in developing comprehensive conservation and management strategies for these cycad species. Therefore, this study identified the nutrient cycling bacteria in *Encephalartos natalensis* coralloid roots, rhizosphere, and non-rhizosphere soils. Additionally, the soil characteristics and soil enzyme activities of the rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils were assayed. The coralloid roots, rhizosphere, and non-rhizosphere soils of *E. natalensis* were collected from a population of >500 *E. natalensis* in a disturbed savanna woodland at Edendale in KwaZulu-Natal (South Africa) for nutrient analysis, bacterial identification, and enzyme activity assays. Nutrient cycling bacteria such as *Lysinibacillus xylanilyticus*; *Paraburkholderia sabiae*, and *Novosphingobium barchaimii* were identified in the coralloid roots, rhizosphere, and non-rhizosphere soils of *E. natalensis*. Phosphorus (P) cycling (alkaline and acid phosphatase) and N cycling (β -(D)-Glucosaminidase and nitrate reductase) enzyme activities showed a positive correlation with the P and N concentrations in the rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils of *E. natalensis*. Nutrient cycling bacteria identified in *E. natalensis* coralloid roots, rhizosphere, and non-rhizosphere soils and associated enzymes assayed may contribute to soil nutrient inputs of *E. natalensis* plants growing in acidic and nutrient-poor savanna woodland ecosystems.

Keywords: *Encephalartos natalensis*, microbe-symbiosis, soil nutrition, enzyme activities, soil nutrient cycling

1. Introduction

Cycads are perennial dioecious gymnosperms regarded as “living fossils” as they possess intermediate morphological traits between angiosperms and gymnosperms [1]. Cycads originated (~265–290 Ma) in the late Palaeozoic period and were dominant during the Mesozoic era [2,3]. Cycad communities form significant vegetation in natural ecosystems as they provide critical ecosystem services such as biodiversity maintenance, carbon sequestration, and nutrient cycling [4,5,6]. Currently, cycads are distributed in the tropical and subtropical regions of America, Asia, Africa, and Oceania [7]. South Africa is classified as a centre of cycad diversity where thirty-seven of the sixty-six species of the African cycad *Encephalartos* occurs [8,9,10]. Cycads are regarded as the most threatened group of plants on earth, with over 60% of the 340 species threatened with a high risk of extinction [11]. Approximately 71% of South African cycad species are classified as threatened [12]. Cycads face many threats that cause a decline in their population, these threats include climate change, the presence of invasive species, and their illegal harvesting for medicinal purposes, overcollection, deforestation and habitat loss, disturbances like fires, floods, and droughts [13,14,15]. The observed decline in cycad populations is alarming as a decline in their abundance, and probable extinction would lead to the loss of the critical ecosystem services they provide.

Cycad species grow in grasslands, sand dunes, rocky outcrops, scarp and sclerophyll forests, and areas with recurrent fires [5], and their ability to grow and thrive in nutrient-poor and harsh environmental conditions is due to their ability to form symbioses with N-fixing, N cycling and P solubilizing bacteria [5,6]. Cycads establish mutualistic associations with various microorganisms such as fungi, bacteria, and cyanobacteria in their coralloid roots [16]. Cycads are the only gymnosperms known to establish a symbiotic relationship with N-fixing cyanobacteria (*Nostoc*, *Scytonema* and *Richelia*) and proteobacteria (*Bradyrhizobium* and *Burkholderia*) have been isolated in the coralloid roots of some cycad species [17,18,19,20]. The microbes that associate with cycads assist in plant growth by providing essential elements such as N compounds [21,22]. Additionally, soil

microorganisms produce extracellular enzymes that hydrolyse and transform polymeric compounds into readily available nutrients for plant and microbe assimilation [23]. These extracellular enzymes regulate the mineralisation and cycling of terrestrial nutrients such as N, phosphate (P,) and carbon (C), and these enzymes can be grouped according to their function. However, some play a role in more than one cycle [24]. Enzymes such as β -(D)-glucosaminidase and asparaginase hydrolyse chito-oligosaccharides and convert asparagine into ammonia (NH_3) and aspartic acid [25,26]. This influences N bioavailability increasing N assimilation by plants [27]. Phosphatases hydrolyse phosphoric acid monoester into a phosphate anion [28]. Carbon cycling enzymes include dehydrogenase, β -D-cellobiohydrolase, and β -D-glucosidase. They release saccharides from glycosides and catalyse the degradation of cellotetraose and cellulose into cellobiose that will further be transformed into glucose [29].

South African *Encephalartos* spp. like other cycads develop coralloid roots, which host nitrogen-fixing bacteria [30] that improve soil fertility and enhance plant growth [31,32]. *Encephalartos natalensis* is widely distributed in KwaZulu-Natal savanna woodland nutrient-poor ecosystem soils, and it is near threatened in the wild^{33, 34}. Similar to other cycads, *E. natalensis* may thrive in the nutrient poor soils because of their symbiosis with N-fixing and other nutrient cycling bacteria. However, the identity of the *E. natalensis* associated symbionts with nutrient cycling functions and their contribution to soil fertility is not well understood. Additionally, the available literature is limited to the associations of cycads with N-fixing bacteria and does not look at the associations of cycads with N cycling and P solubilising bacteria. Furthermore, no studies have assayed enzyme activities in *E. natalensis* rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils. This limited information presents a challenge in developing comprehensive conservation and management strategies for this cycad species. Moreover, elucidating *E. natalensis* microbe-symbiosis aligns with the KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Management Act no. 9 of 1997 and the information generated from this study will feed into the knowledge of biodiversity and the enhancement of ecosystem services which aligns with South Africa's National Biodiversity Strategy and

Action Plan (NBSAP) 2015-2025. Thus, the present study identified the bacteria in *E. natalensis* coralloid roots, rhizosphere, and non-rhizosphere savanna woodland soils. The rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soil were assayed for nutrient characteristics and soil enzyme activities. The results from this study will increase our knowledge of *E. natalensis* cycad-microbe symbiosis and its contribution to soil fertility in savanna woodland nutrient-stressed ecosystem soils. Additionally, the results of this study will help in understanding the ecosystem services of endangered cycad species with evolutionary lineages that resemble *E. natalensis* but cannot be studied due to their critical conservational status. The scientific question was: is the survival of the South African *E. natalensis* cycad in nutrient-deficient ecosystem soils a result of its ability to form symbiotic associations with bacteria in its coralloid roots? We hypothesized that the bacteria in the coralloid roots, rhizosphere, and non-rhizosphere soils of the South African *E. natalensis* cycad contribute to soil nutrient inputs and *E. natalensis* persistence in nutrient-stressed and disturbed savanna woodland ecosystem soils.

2. Results

Soil characteristics

Soil nutrients

Rhizosphere soils had a higher concentration of primary nutrients, intermediate, and micronutrients compared to the non-rhizosphere soils. However, copper (Cu) and manganese (Mn) concentrations were higher in the non-rhizosphere soils than in the rhizosphere. Rhizosphere soils showed a higher P and Magnesium (Mg) concentration than the non-rhizosphere soils, although this was not significantly different statistically (Table 1). Nitrogen, Potassium (K), Calcium, (Ca) and Zinc (Zn) concentrations were significantly higher in the rhizosphere than in the non-rhizosphere soils (Table 1). Rhizosphere soil pH was 5.7 and significantly higher than the pH of the non-rhizosphere soils (5.14). Rhizosphere soils had a higher exchange acidity than non-rhizosphere soils, although this

difference was not significant statistically (Table 1). Total cation exchange and exchange acidity were significantly higher in the rhizosphere than in the non-rhizosphere soils (Table 1). Organic C was higher in the rhizosphere than in the non-rhizosphere soils (Table 1). However, the rhizosphere had a lower C:N ratio than the non-rhizosphere soils (Table 1).

Table 1: Soil characteristics of *Encephalartos natalensis* rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils collected in a disturbed savanna woodland ecosystem at Edendale, Pietermaritzburg in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province of South Africa. The results for: Primary nutrients, Intermediate nutrients, Micronutrients and Soil relative acidity are represented as mean \pm SE. Differing uppercase letters show significant differences (independent sample t-test, $p \leq 0.05$, $n=20$).

	Rhizosphere	Non-rhizosphere
Primary nutrients (mg/kg)		
Nitrogen	4187.01 \pm 567.76 ^a	3223.90 \pm 487.21 ^b
Phosphorus	11.83 \pm 3.66 ^a	9.24 \pm 0.94 ^a
Potassium	537.76 \pm 50.27 ^a	201.15 \pm 56.66 ^b
Intermediate nutrients (mg/kg)		
Magnesium	620.96 \pm 44.48 ^a	555.75 \pm 85.87 ^a
Calcium	4644.63 \pm 829.93 ^a	3542.67 \pm 1121.89 ^b
Micronutrients (mg/kg)		
Zinc	5.54 \pm 0.54 ^a	3.69 \pm 0.57 ^b
Manganese	50.84 \pm 4.72 ^a	75.94 \pm 7.82 ^a
Copper	74.83 \pm 37.36 ^a	89.77 \pm 27.50 ^b
Soil relative acidity		
Ph	5.75 \pm 0.71 ^a	5.14 \pm 0.42 ^b
Exchange acidity (cmolc/kg)	0.08 \pm 0.07 ^a	0.05 \pm 0.02 ^a
Total cation exchange (cmolc/kg)	29.61 \pm 4.62 ^a	22.62 \pm 6.37 ^b
Parameter		
Organic Carbon (%)	5.24	4.21
Organic Nitrogen (%)	0.445	0.297

Organic C:N ratio	12:1	14:1
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Bacterial identification

Bacterial identification of *E. natalensis* coralloid roots

A total of 10 bacterial species from *E. natalensis* coralloid roots were isolated and identified (Table 2). Two of the bacterial species (*Lysinibacillus xylanilyticus* and *Paenibacillus peoriae*) are phosphate solubilizing bacteria (Table 2). Additionally, the isolated N-fixing bacteria were *Bacillus thuringiensis*, *Bacillus pumilus*, *Bacillus safensis*, *P. peoriae*, *Paenibacillus taichungensis*, *Paenibacillus kribbensis*, *Paenibacillus taichungensis*, *Beijerinckia fluminensis*, *Lysinibacillus macrolides*, *Lysinibacillus pakistanensis*, and *Lysinibacillus xylanilyticus* (Table 2).

Table 2: Molecular identification of the bacterial community isolated from the coralloid roots of *E. natalensis*’ growing in a disturbed savanna woodland ecosystem at Edendale, Pietermaritzburg in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province of South Africa.

Family	Scientific name	Accession number	Similarity (%)	Function
Bacillaceae	<i>Lysinibacillus xylanilyticus</i>	NR_116698.1	99.93	P solubilizing [82] N-fixing [82]
	<i>Lysinibacillus macrolides</i>	NR_114920.1	99.06	N-fixing [84]
	<i>Lysinibacillus pakistanensis</i>	NR_113166.1	99.02	N-fixing [85]
	<i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i>	MG470721.1	99.72	N-fixing [86]
	<i>Bacillus pumilus</i>	MN581190.1	99.93	N-fixing [87]
Paenibacillaceae	<i>Bacillus safensis</i>	CPO43404.1	99.58	N-fixing [88]
	<i>Paenibacillus peoriae</i>	NR_117742.1	100	P solubilizing [89] N-fixing [90]

	<i>Paenibacillus taichungensis</i>	NR_044428.1	96.70	N-fixing [91]
	<i>Paenibacillus kribbensis</i>	NR_025169.1	99.04	N-fixing [91]
Beijerinckiaceae	<i>Beijerinckia fluminensis</i>	NR_116306.1	99.76	N-fixing [92]

Bacterial identification of *E. natalensis* rhizosphere.

A total of 13 bacterial species from *E. natalensis* rhizosphere were isolated and identified (Table 3). Phosphate solubilizing bacteria such as *Caballeronia fortuita* and *Paraburkholderia steyni* were found in the rhizosphere of *E. natalensis* (Table 3). The identified N-fixing bacteria were *Bacillus fungorum*, *Paraburkholderia steyni*, *Paraburkholderia sabiae*, *Paraburkholderia tuberum*, *Massilia agilis*, and *Rhizobium mesosinicum* (Table 3). Furthermore, the N cycling bacteria identified were *Caballeronia fortuita*, *P. steyni*, *Gottfriedia luciferensis*, *Bacillus pocheonensis*, *Bacillus ginsengisoli*, *Variovorax guangxiensis*, *Chitinophaga ginsengihumi*, and *Phyllobacterium brassicacearum* (Table 3).

Table 3: Molecular identification of the bacterial community isolated from the *E. natalensis* rhizosphere soils growing in a disturbed savanna woodland ecosystem at Edendale, Pietermaritzburg in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province of South Africa.

Family	Scientific name	Accession number	Similarity (%)	Function
	<i>Caballeronia fortuita</i>	NR_145600.1	99.09	P solubilizing [93] N cycling [94]
	<i>Paraburkholderia steyni</i>	NR_164972.1	99.19	P solubilizing [95] N-fixing [96] N cycling [97]
Burkholderiales	<i>Paraburkholderia sabiae</i>	NR_115261.1	99.28	N-fixing [98]

	<i>Paraburkholderia tuberum</i>	NR_118081.1	99.83	N-fixing [99]
	<i>Gottfrieda luciferensis</i>	NR_025511.1	98.41	N cycling [99]
	<i>Bacillus pocheonensis</i>	NR_041377.1	99.62	N cycling [100]
Bacillaceae	<i>Bacillus ginsengisoli</i>	NR_109068.1	98.93	N cycling [101]
	<i>Bacillus fungorum</i>	NR_170494.1	90.10	N-fixing [102]
Comamonadaceae	<i>Variovorax guangxiensis</i>	NR_134828.1	99.30	N cycling [103]
Chitinophagaceae	<i>Chitinophaga ginsengihumi</i>	NR_134000.1	99.19	N cycling [104]
Phyllobacteriaceae	<i>Phyllobacterium brassicacearum</i>	NR_043190.1	91.3	N cycling [105]
Oxalobacteraceae	<i>Massilia agilis</i>	NR_157770.1	98.51	N-fixing [106]
Rhizobiaceae	<i>Rhizobium mesosinicum</i>	NR_043548.1	99.26	N-fixing [107]

Bacterial identification of *E. natalensis* non-rhizosphere soils.

A total of 10 bacterial species from *E. natalensis* non-rhizosphere soils were isolated and identified (Table 4). The P solubilizing bacteria included *P. steyni*, *Pseudomonas plecoglossicida*, *Novosphingobium barchaimii*, and *Methylobacterium dankookense* (Table 4). N-fixing bacteria included *P. steyni*, *M. dankookense*, and *Olivibacter oleidegradans* were (Table 4). Additionally, *P. steyni*, *P. plecoglossicida*, *Neobacillus bataviensis*, *B. ginsengisoli*, *Sphingomonas jatrophae*, *Olivibacter jiluni*, and *Phyllobacterium brassicacearum* were identified as N cycling bacteria (Table 4).

Table 4: Molecular identification of the bacterial community isolated from the non-rhizo- sphere soils of *E. natalensis* growing in a disturbed savanna woodland ecosystem at Eden- dale, Pietermaritzburg in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province of South Africa.

Family	Scientific name	Accession num-ber	Similarity (%)	Function
Burkholderiales	<i>Paraburkholderia steyni</i>	NR_164972.1	98.41	P solubilizing [108] N-fixing [109] N cycling [110]
Pseudomona- daceae	<i>Pseudomonas plecoglossicida</i>	NR_114226.1	98.38	Psolubilizing [111] N cycling [112]
Erythrobacter- aceae	<i>Novosphingobium barchaimii</i>	NR_118314.1	99.65	P solubilizing [113]
Methylobacteri- aceae	<i>Methylobacterium dankookense</i>	NR_116545.1	99.77	P solubilizing [114] N-fixing [115]
Bacillaceae	<i>Neobacillus bata- viensis</i>	NR_114093.1	99.51	N cycling [116]
	<i>Bacillus ginsen- gisoli</i>	NR_109068.1	83.02	N cycling [117]
Sphingomona- daceae	<i>Sphingomonas jatrophae</i>	NR_159248.1	85.41	N cycling [117]
Sphingobacteri- aceae	<i>Olivibacter jilunii</i>	NR_109321.1	99.30	N cycling [118]
	<i>Olivibacter oleide- gradans</i>	NR_108900.1	98.41	N-fixing [118]

Phyllobacteri- aceae	<i>Phyllobacterium brassicacearum</i>	NR_043190.1	90.30	N cycling [119]
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Soil enzyme activities

Acid and alkaline phosphatase activities were higher in the non-rhizosphere soils than in the rhizosphere, although the difference was not significant statistically (Table 5). β -(D)-Glucosaminidase and nitrate reductase enzymes showed higher activity in the rhizosphere soils than in the non-rhizosphere soils, although the activity levels were not significantly different ($P > 0.05$) (Table 5).

Table 5: Soil enzyme activities in the rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils of *Encephalartos natalensis* growing in a disturbed savanna woodland ecosystem at Edendale, Pietermaritzburg in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province of South Africa. Results are represented as mean \pm SE. Differing uppercase letters show significant differences (independent sample t-test, $p \leq 0.05$, $n=20$).

Enzyme activity	Rhizosphere	Non-rhizosphere soils
β -(D)-Glucosaminidase (nmolh ⁻¹ g ⁻¹)	20.47 \pm 0.95 ^a	20.44 \pm 1.03 ^a
Nitrate reductase (μ molh ⁻¹ g ⁻¹)	4496 \pm 2116.6 ^a	3178.87 \pm 1408.48 ^a
Acid phosphatase (nmolh ⁻¹ g ⁻¹)	13.13 \pm 2.03 ^a	13.50 \pm 3.98 ^a
Alkaline phosphatase (nmolh ⁻¹ g ⁻¹)	15.88 \pm 4.10 ^a	19.47 \pm 6.81 ^a

Linear correlation coefficients for nitrogen and phosphorus and their associated enzyme activities in *E. natalensis* rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils.

Figure 1A-B show that N concentration increased with increasing nitrate reductase activity in *E. natalensis* rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils. Similar trend was observed with

N concentrations and β -(D)-Glucosaminidase activity in *E. natalensis* rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils (Figure 1C-D). Acid and alkaline phosphatase activities showed a positive correlation with P concentrations (Figure 1E-H).

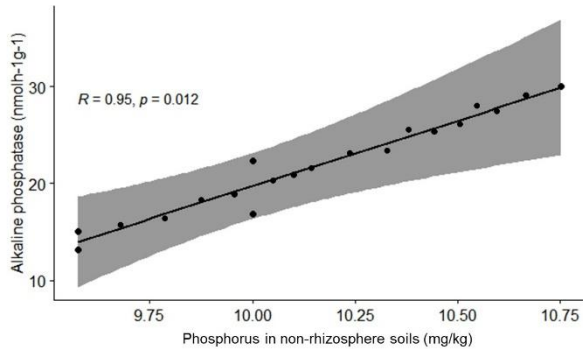
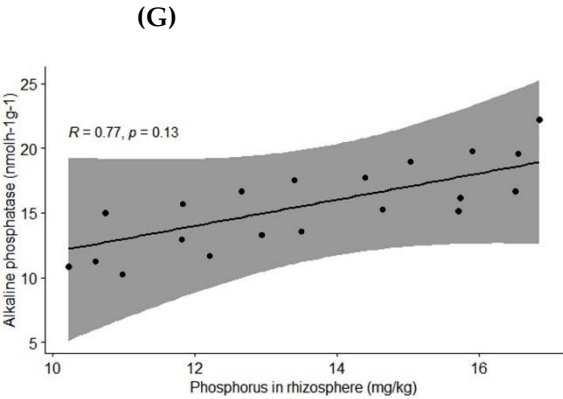
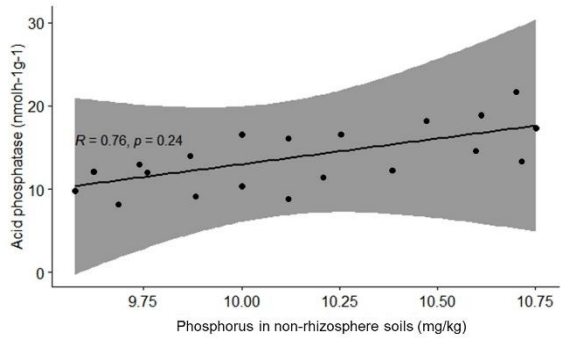
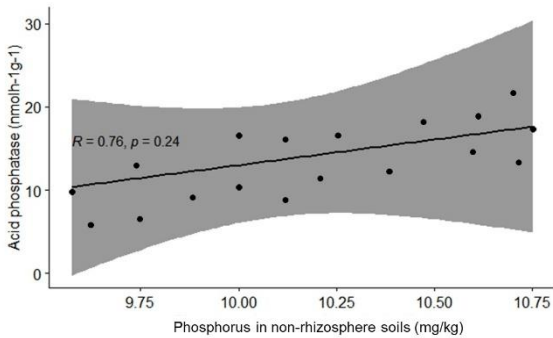
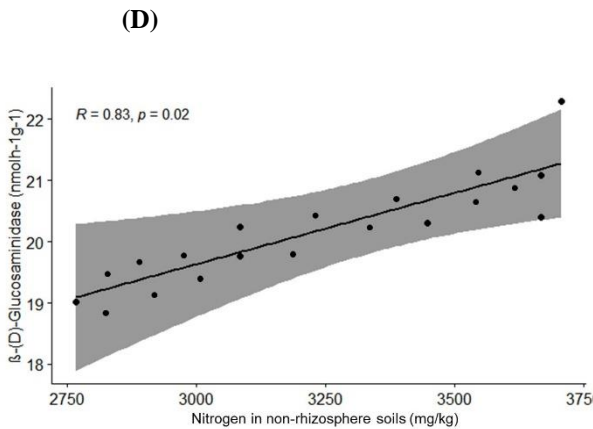
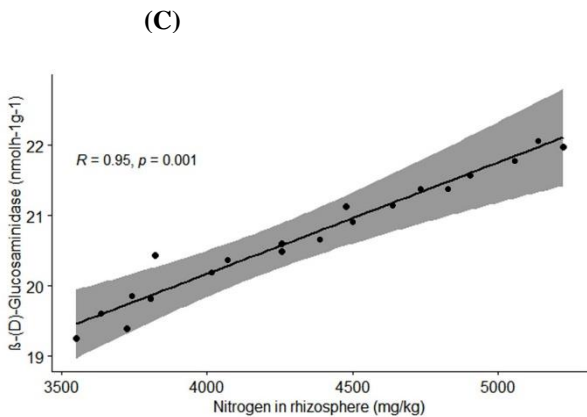
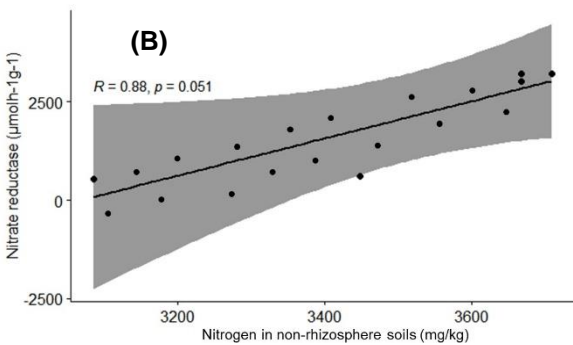
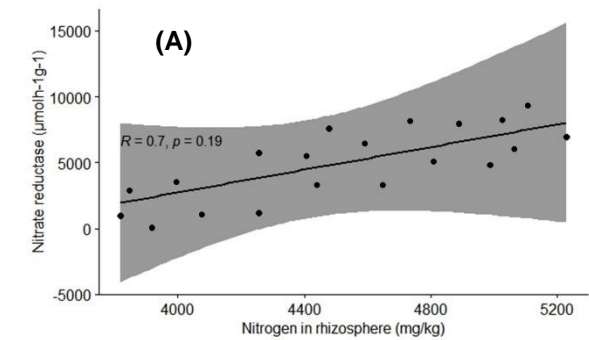


Figure 1: Linear correlation coefficient of nitrogen and phosphorus and their associated enzymes. A: nitrate reductase activity ($\mu\text{molh}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$) vs nitrogen concentrations (mg/kg) in *E. natalensis*'s rhizosphere. B: nitrate reductase activity ($\mu\text{molh}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$) vs nitrogen concentrations (mg/kg) in *E. natalensis*'s non-rhizosphere soils. C: β -(D)-Glucosaminidase activity ($\text{nmolh}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$) vs nitrogen concentrations (mg/kg) in *E. natalensis*'s rhizosphere. D: β -(D)-Glucosaminidase activity ($\text{nmolh}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$) vs nitrogen concentrations (mg/kg) in *E. natalensis*'s non-rhizosphere soils. E: acid phosphatase activity ($\text{nmolh}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$) activity vs phosphorus concentrations (mg/kg) in *E. natalensis*'s rhizosphere. F: acid phosphatase activity ($\text{nmolh}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$) vs phosphorus concentrations (mg/kg) in *E. natalensis*'s non-rhizosphere soils. G: alkaline phosphatase activity ($\text{nmolh}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$) activity vs phosphorus concentrations (mg/kg) in *E. natalensis*'s rhizosphere. H: alkaline phosphatase activity ($\text{nmolh}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1}$) vs phosphorus concentrations (mg/kg) in *E. natalensis*'s non-rhizosphere soils.

3. Discussion

Encephalartos natalensis-microbe symbionts and associated extracellular enzymes in soils are essential in enhancing soil nutrient inputs in savanna woodland disturbed ecosystem soils. Soil microbes are critical contributors to the mineralization and cycling of major soil nutrients and play an important role in promoting plant growth and development in natural ecosystems [40]. The most abundant group of microorganisms that occur in soils is bacteria and some of these culturable bacteria include the following genera: *Klebsiella*, *Paenibacillus*, *Lysinibacillus*, *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Bradyrhizobium*, *Rhizobium*, and *Enterobacter* [41]. Bacteria play an important role in soil nutrient recycling, soil structure maintenance, and plant growth promotion [42,43,44]. Studies have demonstrated that indigenous growth-promoting bacteria contribute to P solubilization and N fixation, thus making P and N bioavailable for plant uptake in nutrient-deprived ecosystem soils [45]. In the coralloid roots, rhizosphere, and non-rhizosphere soils of *E. natalensis* growing at Edendale disturbed savanna woodland ecosystem, N cycling, N-fixing, and P solubilizing culturable bacteria

strains were identified. The culturable bacteria strains identified included *Lysinibacillus*, *Bacillus*, *Paenibacillus*, *Beijerinckia*, *Caballeronia*, *Paraburkholderia*, *Gottfrieda*, *Variovorax*, *Chitinophaga*, *Phyllobacterium*, *Massilia*, *Rhizobium*, *Novosphingobium*, *Pseudomonas*, *Methylobacterium*, *Neobacillus*, and *Olivibacter* genera. [46] and [47] described bacteria in the *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Paenibacillus*, and *Lysinibacillus* genera as plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria. *Bacillus* spp. secrete phytohormones such as (Indole-3-acetic acid) IAA, (Gibberellic acid) GA3, and kinetin and upregulate chlorophyll synthesis [48]. *Lysinibacillus macrolides* are N-fixing bacteria that enhance the total N content of soils and decompose organic matter [49]. *Paenibacillus polymyxa* strain ZM27 have Zn solubilizing properties, produces exopolysaccharides, indoles acetic acid, solubilizes phosphate, produces siderophores, and 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate ACC-deaminase catalase activity [50]. *Beijerinckia fluminensis* is a multifarious plant growth-promoting bacteria that produces exopolysaccharides (EPS), hydrogen cyanide (HCN), extracellular enzymes, indole-3-acetic acid, ammonia, siderophore, ACC-deaminase and plays a role in P solubilization [51]. *Paraburkholderia* is a bacterial genus that usually occurs in low pH agricultural and forest soil environments and contributes to several ecological processes, which include N₂ fixation, mineral weathering, and decomposition of plant litter (both lignin and cellulose) [52,53,54,55]. The *Massilia* bacteria are known to synthesize enzymes and various secondary metabolites and play a role in P dissolution [56]. *Paraburkholderia*, *Pseudomonas*, *Novosphingobium*, and *Methylobacterium* species play a role in P solubilization [56,57], producing phosphatase enzymes [57], and producing hormones promoting plant growth [58,59,60]. *Encephalartos natalensis* occurs in savannah and grassland ecosystems which are characterized by nutrient-poor and acidic soils [61,62]. The *E. natalensis* rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils richness in plant growth-promoting bacteria maybe linked to the species wide distribution in nutrient-deficient soils. The presence of these different bacterial species in *E. natalensis* rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils indicate that *E. natalensis* can form symbioses with a wide range of N-fixing, N cycling, and P solubilizing bacterial species. It is an indication that these bacteria play a crucial role in nutrient cycling, increasing the bioavailability of soil nutrition for *E. natalensis* and surrounding plants growing in savanna woodland ecosystems.

Soil extracellular enzymes are important bioindicators of soil microflora metabolism and they provide information about soil quality, soil fertility, and the productivity status of soils [63]. Soil extracellular enzymes play a significant role in the conservation and recycling of key nutrients in nutrient-limited ecosystem soils [64]. Soil extracellular enzymes mineralize and recycle nutrients such as N, P, and C in soil increasing the bioavailability of the nutrients for uptake by plants [65]. Acetylglucosaminase, urease, and β -D-Glucosaminidase are enzymes involved in N cycling [66,67,68]. However, β -D-Glucosaminidase has also been reported to play a role in C-cycling and plays a significant role in the biological control of plant pathogens [69,70]. Phosphatases are responsible for P mineralization and cycling in soils [71]. Additionally, phosphatases produce P by hydrolysing phosphoric acid monoester to phosphate anions [72]. Acid and alkaline phosphatase enzymes are some examples of enzymes that have been studied extensively and their activity is strongly influenced by P availability and soil pH [73]. [74] observed increased β -Glucosaminidase, acid, and alkaline phosphatases activity in P deficient soils compared with P rich soils. These enzymes are linked to the bioavailability of nutrients in these nutrient-limited ecosystems through cycling N and P^{75, 76}. Additionally, [77] and [78] suggested that increased enzyme activities in soils are regulated by soil P and N deficiency. Alkaline and acid phosphatase activities were positively correlated to the P concentrations in the rhizosphere and the non-rhizosphere soils of *E. natalensis* widely distributed in disturbed savanna woodland ecosystem at Edendale. [77] and [78] found that the P concentration of soils is directly proportional to phosphatase activities. This positive correlation between acid/alkaline phosphatase and total soil P concentration highlights that the bioavailability of soil P is positively correlated to the production of phosphatases in soils and that phosphatases contribute to soil P nutrition in this cycad's savanna woodland ecosystem soils. A study conducted by [79] showed that soil phosphatase activities were negatively correlated with the pool size of soil organic P fractions, suggesting that the bioavailability of P determines the activity of phosphatases. Furthermore, [79] reported that soil microbes increase phosphatases exudation in response to the chronic shortage of soil P, highlighting the functional role of microbes and associated enzymes in the efficient solubilization of P [79]. There was a positive correlation between β -(D)-Glucosaminidase activities and N concentration in the rhizosphere and the non-rhizosphere soils of

E. natalensis. Studies conducted by [80] and [81] suggested that β -(D)-Glucosaminidase activities are positively related to soil N concentrations. Also, we observed a positive correlation between the nitrate reductase enzyme activity and soil N concentration in *E. natalensis* rhizosphere and the non-rhizosphere soils. [82] found that soil nitrate reductase was positively correlated with soil N concentration, highlighting the contribution of the enzyme nitrate reductase to soil N nutrition. Therefore, β -(D)-Glucosaminidase and nitrate reductase play a significant role in N mineralization in disturbed savanna woodland ecosystem at Edendale.

4. Materials and Methods

4.1.1. Study sites and target species:

This study was conducted in a disturbed savanna woodland ecosystem at Edendale, Pietermaritzburg in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province of South Africa where the target species *E. natalensis* is widely distributed. *Encephalartos natalensis* rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils were collected from one large population ($n > 500$) at Edendale (sampled plant co-ordinates not provided due to its red data listing²⁰ and conservation concerns as stated by sample collection permits issued by EzeMvelo KZN wildlife guided by The National Environmental Management Act (NEMA), Act 107 of 1998 and its amendments: National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act (NEMBA), Act 10 of 2004, its amendments and regulations including the Threatened or Protected Species (TOPS) regulations of 2007). The Edendale savanna woodland is prone to overharvesting of *E. natalensis* bark for muthi/ traditional medicine, overgrazing by cattle and is dominated by invasive plants, such as, *Lantana camara* and *Isoglossa woodii*. Also, some *E. natalensis* plants are strangled by strangler figs.

4.1.2. Soil sampling and soil nutrition analysis

The sampled plants were between 15-30 meters apart from each other. From one savanna habitat 20 mature individuals of *E. natalensis* were randomly selected for the study. Soil samples were collected from 0-10 and 10-20 cm depths underneath the canopy of the cycad trees. The rhizosphere soils were collected at the four cardinal points at distances of about 30 cm from the stem and at the leaf canopy drip line. Similarly, the non-rhizosphere soils (similar depths) were collected from non-

target sites defined by a radius of five meters from the base of each target plant as control. The direction of the control site was randomly selected using cardinal points of North, East, South, and West of the target plant. At each target plant, four soil samples for each depth were bulked to form a composite sample. For the control sample, 3-subsamples were collected within 1-m of each other. For any soil sample collected, the GPS coordinates were recorded as these serve as a reference for further investigations and can be utilized by other research projects of similar nature carried out within the area of study. Soil samples were sent to the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Agriculture and Rural Development's Agricultural Services Unit at Cedara College of Agriculture, South Africa for analysis of the following: total soil nutrition (primary, intermediate, and micronutrients) and cation concentrations; cation exchange acidity and pH.

4.1.3. Soil serial dilutions and bacterial DNA extraction

For bacterial extraction in the soil, serial dilutions were conducted for each soil sample, a spread plate technique was used. Once extracted, the bacteria were grown in sterile Petri dishes. Phosphate solubilizing bacteria were isolated and grown on Pikovskaya's agar plates which contained tricalcium phosphate (TCP) as the P source. The N cycling bacteria were grown on Simmons citrate agar plates which contained citrate as a carbon (C) source and inorganic ammonium salts as the only source of N and the N-fixing bacteria were grown on the Jensen's media agar (N-free media). Each selective media plate was replicated three times and incubated for 5 days at 30 °C. Pure colonies were obtained by repeated streaking.

4.1.4. Coralloid roots surface sterilization and bacterial DNA extraction

The coralloid roots were collected from randomly selected adult plants of *E. natalensis* in the Edendale population (n>500). The coralloid roots were rinsed with distilled water and stored in ice. At the laboratory, 70% (v/v) ethanol was used to sterilize the coralloid roots for 30 seconds, the coralloid roots were then treated with 3.5% (v/v) sodium hypochlorite solution for 3 minutes. Thereafter, using distilled water, the coralloid roots were rinsed 10 times and stored in airtight vials that contained cotton wool and silica gel, then placed in the fridge at a temperature of 4 °C. Protocols as per [35] and [36] were used to conduct the bacterial isolation. For the bacterial extraction, the

coralloid roots were subjected to 15% glycerol thereafter they were crushed using sterile tips. Once extracted, the bacteria were grown in sterile Petri dishes. Phosphate solubilizing bacteria were isolated and grown on Pikovskaya's agar plates which contained tricalcium phosphate (TCP) as the P source. The N cycling bacteria were grown on Simmons citrate agar plates which contained citrate as a C source and inorganic ammonium salts as the only source of N; and the N-fixing bacteria were grown on the Jensen's media agar (N-free media). Each selective media plate was replicated three times and incubated for 5 days at 30 °C. Pure colonies were obtained by repeated streaking.

4.1.5. Coralloid roots, rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils bacterial amplification, sequencing, and identification.

Small portions of the 16S rDNA genes of pure bacterial colonies extracted from the coralloid roots, rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils were amplified using polymerase chain reaction (PCR). The specific primers used were 63F (5'- CAG GCCTAACACATGCAAGTC -3') and 1387R (5'- GGGCGGTGTGTACAA GGC -3') as per [37]. The PCR conditions were as follows: Initial denaturation: carried out at 94 °C for 5 minutes, 30 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 30 seconds; Annealing: carried out at 55 °C for 30 seconds; Final elongation: carried out at 72 °C for 10 minutes. Each 25 µl PCR reaction included the following: 11 µl sterile distilled water, 1 µl bacterial colony, 0.25 µl of the forward primer, 0.25 µl of the reverse primer and 12.5 µl Emerald AMP master mix (Takara Bio supplied by Separations, South Africa). Thereafter, the results were viewed using gel electrophoresis (1% agarose gel prepared using TAE buffer). The PCR products were sent for sequencing at Inqaba Biotechnical Industries (Pty) Ltd, South Africa. The resulting sequences were edited and subjected to BLASTN searches for bacterial identification (National Centre for Biotechnology Information, NCBI). [https://: www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov).

4.1.6. Soil enzymatic studies

Nitrogen cycling and P cycling enzyme activities (beta- glucosaminidase, acid phosphatase, and alkaline phosphatase) were conducted using the florescence-based method adapted from [38] and this was expressed in nmolh⁻¹g⁻¹. Five grams of each soil sample was homogenized at low speed in 50 mL ultrapure H₂O at 4 °C for 2 hours. The resulting supernatants were transferred into 96-well

microplates, thereafter the 4-MUB-phosphate substrate was added for P cycling enzymes and 4-MUB-N-acetyl- β -D-glucosaminide was added for the N cycling enzymes. Sample runs consisted of the following: 200 μ l of soil samples of soil aliquots plus 50 μ l of the substrate, these were incubated besides reference standards (200 μ l buffer + 50 μ l standard), quench standards (200 μ l soil aliquots + 50 μ l substrate), and blanks (250 μ l buffer). After 2 hours of incubation at 30 °C, 0.5 M of NaOH was used to stop the reaction. The fluorescent absorbance was measured at 450 nm using an Apex Scientific microplate reader (Durban, South Africa). It is important to note that before determining acid phosphate activity both the standards and buffer must have a pH of 5.

Nitrate reductase activities were conducted with an adapted method of [39]. Five grams of each soil sample was transferred in a solution that contained 4 mL of 0.9 mM 2,4-dinitrophenol, 1 mL of 25 mM KNO₃, and 5 mL of ultrapure H₂O in a sealed centrifuge tube (50 mL). The mixture was vigorously mixed before being incubated in the dark for 24-hours at a temperature of 30 °C. After incubation, 10 mL of 4 M KCl solution was added to each sample and briefly mixed. Thereafter they were passed through Whatman number 1 filter paper. The enzymatic reaction was initiated by adding 2 ml of the filtrate to 1.2 ml of 0.19 M ammonium chloride buffer (pH 8.5) and 800 μ l of the colour reagent (1% sulphanilamide in 1 N HCl and 0.2% N-(1-naphthyl) ethylenediamine dihydrochloride (NEDD) before incubation for 30 mins in the dark at 30 °C. The absorbance was measured at 520 nm using an Agilent Cary 60 UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Agilent, USA). The amount of nitrite (NO₂) released into the medium was expressed as 0.1 μ molh⁻¹g⁻¹.

4.1.7. Statistical analysis

R studio (R version 4.1.2) was used for all analyses. An independent sample t-test was used to determine whether there is a significant difference between the soil characteristics and soil enzymatic activity of *Encephalartos natalensis* rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils. The assumption of normal distribution of data was tested using a 1-Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested using a Levene's test. Where these assumptions were not met a non-parametric (Wilcoxon signed-rank test) alternative was used. The independent sample t-test procedure was performed using R (4.1.2) using statistical package car, function Levene Test.

5. Conclusions

Encephalartos natalensis species wide distribution in nutrient-poor and disturbed ecosystems such as acidic and nutrient-poor savanna woodland ecosystems may be linked to their established symbioses with nutrient-mineralizing microbes and associated extracellular enzymes in these ecosystems. Microbes identified in coralloid roots, rhizosphere, and non-rhizosphere soils and associated extracellular enzymes may contribute to soil nutrient inputs in savanna-woodland ecosystems.

Author Contributions: T.S. and S.N. were involved in field soil sample and data collection. S.N. conducted the study, analyzed results, and wrote the manuscript. A.M. is the study leader, planned and funded the experiments and analysis of this study as well as the manuscript write-up. M.P. was involved in writing and editing the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final copy of the submitted paper.

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Data Availability Statement: All raw data and R scripts will be available upon request from Anathi Magadlela, email: MagadlelaA@ukzn.ac.za

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