

Recent Advancement in Microbial Biotechnology

Agricultural and Industrial Approach



Edited by
Surajit De Mandal
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Contents

Contributors

xiii

1. Microbial biofertilizers: Recent trends and future outlook

Debmalya Dasgupta, Kulbhushan Kumar, Rashi Miglani, Rojita Mishra, Amrita Kumari Panda, and Satpal Singh Bisht

1. Introduction	1
2. Categories of biofertilizers	3
2.1 Nitrogen-fixing biofertilizers	4
2.2 Phosphate-solubilizing biofertilizer	4
2.3 Phosphate mobilizing biofertilizers	5
2.4 Plant growth-promoting biofertilizer	5
2.5 Potassium-solubilizing biofertilizer	5
2.6 Potassium-mobilizing biofertilizer	6
2.7 Sulfur-oxidizing biofertilizer	6
3. Symbiotic nitrogen-fixing bacteria	6
3.1 Rhizobium	6
3.2 Free-living nitrogen-fixing bacteria	9
4. Phosphorus-solubilizing biofertilizers	10
4.1 <i>Bacillus</i>	10
4.2 <i>Pseudomonas</i>	11
5. Free-living nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria	12
6. Potassium-solubilizing microbes	12
7. Mycorrhiza	13
7.1 Ectomycorrhiza	13
7.2 Endomycorrhiza	14
8. Role of microbial fertilizers toward sustainable agriculture	14
9. Constraints and future outlook	17
References	19

2. Phosphate-solubilizing bacteria: Recent trends and applications in agriculture

Chanda Parulekar Berde, Prachiti Rawool, and Vikrant B. Berde

1. Introduction	27
2. Phosphorus in soil	28

3.	Phosphate solubilization by plant growth-promoting microorganisms in plant rhizosphere	29
4.	Phosphate-solubilizing bacteria as biofertilizers	30
5.	Mechanisms of phosphate solubilization	31
5.1	Inorganic P solubilization	32
5.2	Organic phosphate mineralization by PSM	32
6.	Effect of phosphate solubilizers on plant growth and crop yield	33
7.	PSB application methods in agriculture	37
8.	Recent developments	37
9.	Conclusions	39
	References	39
3.	<i>Trichoderma</i> spp.—Application and future prospects in agricultural industry	
	<i>Soma Barman, Pralay Shankar Gorai, and Narayan Chandra Mandal</i>	
1.	Introduction	49
2.	Competency in the rhizosphere and plant root colonization	50
3.	<i>Trichoderma</i> in bioremediation	54
4.	<i>Trichoderma</i> in organic agriculture	55
5.	<i>Trichoderma</i> formulations	59
6.	<i>Trichoderma</i> in biofuels	62
7.	Conclusion and future perspectives	62
	Acknowledgment	63
	References	63
4.	Current status and future prospects of entomopathogenic fungi: A potential source of biopesticides	
	<i>Julius Rajula, Sengodan Karthi, Sonia Mumba, Sarayut Pittarate, Malee Thungrabeab, and Patcharin Krutmuang</i>	
1.	Introduction	71
2.	Entomopathogenic fungi	72
3.	Some of the current commercialized entomopathogenic fungi-based biopesticides	73
4.	Entomopathogenic fungi on insect cadavers from the field and laboratory	73
5.	The most utilized entomopathogenic fungi as biopesticides	78
5.1	<i>Beauveria bassiana</i>	78
5.2	<i>Metarhizium anisopliae</i>	79

6.	The future of entomopathogenic fungi-based biopesticides	90
7.	Studies on the compatibility of entomopathogenic fungi with other insecticides for IPM	90
8.	Some of the newly described entomopathogenic fungi	91
9.	Mass production of entomopathogenic fungi-based biopesticides	92
10.	Application of molecular technology in EPF-based biopesticides	93
11.	Conclusion	93
	References	94
 5.	 Microbial fortification during vermicomposting: A brief review	
	<i>Linee Goswami, Pralay Shankar Gorai, and Narayan Chandra Mandal</i>	
1.	Introduction	99
2.	Influence of vermicomposting and aerobic composting processes on microbial dominance	101
2.1	Impact on bacterial profile	101
2.2	Impact on fungal growth	103
3.	Influence of earthworm ecological categories on microbial dominance and their relative abundance	105
4.	Influence of microbial structural change and temporal dominance on nutrient availability	109
4.1	Alteration of microbial respiration and biomass: Its impact on soil fertility	113
5.	Microbial gene expression as a functional biomarker of dominance under vermicomposting systems	115
6.	Effect on bioremediation	116
7.	Conclusion	117
	Conflict of interest	000
	Acknowledgment	117
	References	118
 6.	 Potential of compost for sustainable crop production and soil health	
	<i>Sharjeel Ahmad, Rabia Khalid, Saira Abbas, Rifat Hayat, and Iftikhar Ahmed</i>	
1.	Introduction	123
2.	Composting, types, and phases	125
2.1	Process of composting	125
2.2	Types of composting	126
2.3	Phases of composting	147
3.	Biochemistry of composting	149

3.1	Composting and microorganisms	149
3.2	parameters	151
3.3	Chemical reactions in the composting process	154
4.	Composting and sustainable environment	155
4.1	Composting and bioremediation	156
5.	Composting and sustainable soil health	157
6.	Compost and sustainable crop production	159
7.	Composting and biogas	160
8.	Conclusion	161
	References	162
7.	Fungal bioprocessing of lignocellulosic materials for biorefinery	
	<i>Oscar Fernando Vázquez-Vuelvas,</i>	
	<i>Jose Antonio Cervantes-Chávez, Francisco</i>	
	<i>Javier Delgado-Virgen, Laura Leticia Valdez-Velázquez,</i>	
	<i>and Rosa Jazmin Osuna-Cisneros</i>	
1.	Introduction	172
2.	Lignocellulosic biomass and its chain value	173
2.1	Economy of biomaterials	173
2.2	Knowledge-based bioeconomy for biorefineries	173
2.3	Circular bioeconomy	174
2.4	Valorization of lignocellulosic biomass	174
3.	Benefits of lignocellulosic materials for biorefineries	176
3.1	Availability of lignocellulose	176
3.2	Advantages of lignocellulosic feedstock for biorefineries	177
4.	Lignocellulosic materials, structure, and characteristics	178
4.1	Cellulose	178
4.2	Hemicellulose	179
4.3	Lignin	179
5.	Fungi and their lignocellulose degrading abilities	181
6.	Genetic engineering to clear fungi the way to use alternative feedstocks	184
6.1	Genetic manipulation of microorganisms	184
6.2	Novel adaptations of microorganisms in the biorefinery	185
6.3	A successful strategy to implement fungal plant pathogens as itaconic acid producers	186
7.	From recalcitrant biomass to a more accessible feedstock	187
8.	Agroindustrial fruit pulp-rich peel and fishery residual biomasses	191
8.1	Complementing the ability to degrade fruit peel pectin-rich residual biomass	191
8.2	Chitin, from a protective shell to a valued product	191

9. Fungal bioprocessing to produce metabolites on biorefineries	192
9.1 Biorefinery processing	192
9.2 Pretreatment of lignocellulosic biomass	193
9.3 Bioprocessing of lignocellulosic feedstock	194
9.4 Bioprocessing types of lignocellulose	195
9.5 Production of fungal bioprocessed metabolites	195
10. Conclusions	198
References	199
 8. Bioelectrochemical technologies: Current and potential applications in agriculture resource recovery	
<i>Hai The Pham</i>	
1. Introduction	210
2. BESs	211
3. BESs in recovering energy from agricultural wastes	214
3.1 Direct generation of electricity	214
3.2 Production of fuel gases	229
4. BESs in upgrading agricultural wastes to valuable products	243
4.1 Production of acetate	244
4.2 Production of products other than acetate	264
5. BES for the recovery of nutrients from agricultural wastes	272
5.1 Recovery of nitrogen	272
5.2 Recovery of phosphorus	289
5.3 Simultaneous recovery of different nutrients	293
6. General remarks	294
7. BESs and the prospect of a circular agricultural economy	296
8. Conclusions	297
References	298
 9. Purple nonsulfur bacteria: An important versatile tool in biotechnology	
<i>Azka Asif, Hareem Mohsin, and Yasir Rehman</i>	
1. Introduction	309
1.1 Systematics of Anoxygenic phototrophic purple Bacteria	310
1.2 Habitats of PNSB	311
1.3 Pigmentation of PNSB	311
2. Isolation and characterization methods of PNSB	311
3. Metabolic variety in PNSB	312
3.1 Photoheterotrophy	312
3.2 Photoautotrophy	312
3.3 Chemoheterotrophy	313
3.4 Nitrogen fixation	313

3.5	Oxygen requirements for PNSB	314
3.6	Model PNSB species and their metabolism	314
3.7	Interaction of PNSB with heavy metals	315
4.	Biotechnological application of PNSB	315
4.1	PNSB as biological control agent	315
4.2	PNSB in plant production	315
4.3	Protein source	316
4.4	Medically and industrially important compounds	317
4.5	Recycling of nitrogen in soil	317
4.6	Polyhydroxyalkonates production	318
4.7	Bio-fertilizers	318
4.8	Industrially important enzymes	319
4.9	Bio-hydrogen production	319
4.10	Metal resistance	320
4.11	Bioremediation	320
4.12	Wastewater treatment	321
4.13	Microbial fuel cells for energy generation	322
5.	Conclusion	323
	References	327
10.	Bacterial community response to pesticides polluted soil	
	<i>Raunak Dhanker, Shubham Goyal, Krishna Kumar, and Touseef Hussain</i>	
1.	Introduction	339
2.	Currents aspects of agrochemicals in India	341
3.	Role of agrochemicals in agriculture	341
4.	Crop protectors	342
5.	Effects of agrochemicals on microbial ecosystem	346
5.1	Herbicides	346
5.2	Fungicides	347
5.3	Insecticides	347
6.	Role of soil microbes in agrochemical degradation	348
7.	Conclusion and future prospects	349
	Conflict of interest	351
	References	351
11.	Potential role of heavy metal-resistant plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria in the bioremediation of contaminated fields and enhancement of plant growth essential for sustainable agriculture	
	<i>Krishnendu Pramanik, Tushar Kanti Maiti, and Narayan Chandra Mandal</i>	
1.	Introduction	358
2.	Definitions of heavy metals and metalloids	359
3.	Sources of heavy metals and metalloids	359

4. Effects of heavy metals on organisms and microorganisms	359
4.1 Effects of heavy metals/metalloids on animals	361
4.2 Effects of heavy metals/metalloids on plants	361
4.3 Effects of heavy metals/metalloids on microorganisms	361
5. Causes of heavy metal toxicity	362
6. Approaches of heavy metals/metalloids remediation	362
6.1 Conventional approaches	362
6.2 Phytoremediation	363
6.3 Bioremediation and rhizoremediation	363
7. Plant growth-promoting (PGP) traits and their role	363
7.1 Direct mechanism: Absence of pathogen	363
7.2 Indirect mechanism: Presence of pathogen	373
8. PGPR: The dual players	374
9. Mechanisms of metal resistance	374
9.1 Bioaccumulation	375
9.2 Metal-binding proteins and peptides	375
9.3 Valence transformation	376
9.4 Extracellular chemical precipitation by EPS production	376
9.5 Siderophore complexation	376
9.6 Biosurfactant complexation	376
10. Conclusion	377
Acknowledgments	377
References	377

12. Nanotechnology: Recent trends in microbial nanotechnology

Hina Zain, Nazia Kanwal, Hareem Mohsin, Anum Ishaq, Unsa Bashir, and Syed Abdul Qadir Shah

1. Introduction	387
2. Biosynthesis of nanoparticles	389
2.1 Biosynthesis of MTNPs in bacteria and cyanobacteria	390
2.2 Mycosynthesis of MTNPs	390
2.3 Algae as nanofactories	390
2.4 Biosynthesis of nanoparticles using yeast	390
2.5 Biosynthesis of gold nanoparticles	391
2.6 Biosynthesis of silver nanoparticles	391
2.7 Oxide nanoparticles	392
2.8 Magnetic oxide nanoparticles	392
2.9 Nonmagnetic oxide nanoparticles	393
2.10 Platinum nanoparticle	393
2.11 Sulfide nanoparticles	394
2.12 Alloy nanoparticles	394
2.13 Other miscellaneous nanoparticles	394
2.14 Mechanistic approach of nanoparticles	394

3.	Applications of microbially synthesized nanoparticles	396
4.	Microbially synthesized nanoantibiotics	396
5.	Microbially synthesized nanoantifungals	398
6.	Microbially synthesized nanopesticides	400
7.	Factors affecting antimicrobial activities of microbially synthesized nanoparticles	400
8.	Microbially synthesized anticancer NPs	401
9.	Microbially synthesized antimalarial nanoparticles	402
10.	Microbially synthesized nanobiosensors	402
11.	Microbially synthesized nanoparticles in drug delivery	403
12.	Future perspective	404
	References	404
13.	<i>Nif</i> genes: Tools for sustainable agriculture	
	<i>Debmalya Dasgupta, Amrita Kumari Panda, Rojita Mishra, Arabinda Mahanty, Surajit De Mandal, and Satpal Singh Bisht</i>	
1.	Introduction	413
2.	Biological nitrogen fixation and agricultural sustainability	414
3.	The family of <i>nif</i> genes and their functions	416
4.	The evolution of <i>nif</i> gene in the different model organism	417
5.	Regulation of <i>nif</i> genes	424
6.	Conclusion	427
	Acknowledgements	428
	References	428
14.	Recent technological advancements in studying biodegradation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons through theoretical approaches	
	<i>Kunal Dutta, Monalisha Karmakar, Priyanka Raul, Debarati Jana, Amiya Kumar Panda, and Chandradipa Ghosh</i>	
1.	Introduction	435
2.	Biodegradation and microbial diversity	438
2.1	DNA metabarcoding	438
2.2	Metatranscriptomics	440
2.3	Cloud-scaled sequencing	441
2.4	Crowdsourcing of metagenomics	444
2.5	Metagenome microarray	445
2.6	Metagenomics species pan-genomics	446
3.	Conclusion	447
	Acknowledgment	448
	References	448
	Index	455

Contributors

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Chapter 2

Phosphate-solubilizing bacteria: Recent trends and applications in agriculture

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Chapter outline

1 Introduction	27	5.1 Inorganic P solubilization	32
2 Phosphorus in soil	28	5.2 Organic phosphate mineralization by PSM	32
3 Phosphate solubilization by plant growth-promoting microorganisms in plant rhizosphere	29	6 Effect of phosphate solubilizers on plant growth and crop yield	33
4 Phosphate-solubilizing bacteria as biofertilizers	30	7 PSB application methods in agriculture	37
5 Mechanisms of phosphate solubilization	31	8 Recent developments	37
		9 Conclusions	39
		Reference	39

1 Introduction

Organized agriculture involving the use of plants and animals was developed several years ago. With the advancement in time, agricultural practices saw improved methods such as irrigation, organic farming, use of chemical fertilizers, resistant crops, etc. However, the exponential increase in population demanded an increase in agricultural produce from the available land. To suffice the food demands from existing agricultural land, fertilizers are used in an unwarranted manner, in turn, leading to declining soil health and fertility (Tilak et al., 2005).

As the world's human population unceasingly increases, furnishing food to this growing population will be one of the utmost challenges. To face this challenge, we need to focus on the soil biotic system and the agro-ecosystem as a whole. We need to better understand the complex mechanisms and interactions

that control agricultural land stability. At present, there is a limitation on the timely distribution of food produced in sufficient amounts, due to the high-input of the green revolution in agriculture. However, a rise in population at high frequency has threatened global food security. To withstand the pressure of the increasing population, food production has to be increased significantly, which will require another green revolution (Leisinger, 1999; Vasil, 1998).

Fertilizers add nutrients to soil increasing soil fertility and plant growth. However, the food value of plants is reduced due to the use of chemical fertilizers. Using exorbitant amounts of chemical fertilizers not only affects the quality of food but also gives rise to many diseases such as stomach cancer, goiter, and several vector-borne diseases. It also leads to groundwater contamination (Savci, 2012). After harvesting the crops, the nutrient reservoirs in the soil reduces. To remedy this deficiency of nutrients, more chemical fertilizers are applied, and this cycle continues, further worsening the soil condition. Reduction in the usage of chemical fertilizers and the improvement of soil health are the problems requiring immediate handling. Biological control is considered as an alternative way of reducing the use of chemicals in agriculture.

Phosphorus (P), an important nutrient in terms of plant requirements and uptake, is found in two forms in the soil: organic and inorganic. Being available abundantly in insoluble forms, it is, however, inaccessible to the plants. Hence, to suffice the nutritional requirements of the crops, P is supplemented through chemical fertilizers containing nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium (NPK). A substitute for the use of chemical fertilizers is the use of biofertilizers, which include organisms that can convert inorganic phosphorus present in the soil to soluble forms that plants can assimilate. These are the phosphate-solubilizing microorganisms (PSMs).

2 Phosphorus in soil

Phosphate is an important element for plant growth, next to nitrogen and potassium. Plants require P for macromolecular biosynthesis, signal transduction, and respiration, photosynthesis, etc. (Khan, Zaidi, Ahemed, & Wani, 2010). Plants are unable to use phosphate directly as most, i.e., 95%–99% of phosphate in the soil is in an unavailable form, i.e., insoluble or precipitated form (Pandey & Maheshwari, 2007). This unavailable form of phosphate is converted to available form by phosphate-solubilizing bacteria.

According to Goldstein, Rogers, and Mead (1993), chemical phosphatic fertilizer production being a highly energy-intensive process for meeting the needs of the world, energy worth the US \$4 billion yearly is required. Fertilizers added to the soil get precipitated as metal complexes (Stevenson, 2005), further making it unavailable for plant uptake. This accumulated phosphate is sufficient to sustain maximum agricultural phosphorus requirements for another 10 decades (Goldstein et al., 1993).

Phosphorus is found in organic forms in soil surface layers, i.e., the topsoil. The most abundant component of this organic form is phytate (Richardson, 1994). While in the bulk soil, phosphorus being less abundant, its uptake by plants is limited. The most soluble minerals, such as potassium, travels through the soil via bulk flow and diffusion, but P moves mainly by diffusion. According to Daniel, Schachtman, and Ayling (1998), because of the low diffusion rate of P, increased P uptake rates of plants result in a P depletion zone around the roots. Plants obtain their P from the soil solution as H_2PO_4 and HPO_4^{2-} . The uptake of HPO_4^{2-} by the plant is slower than the uptake of H_2PO_4 (Fig. 1).

3 Phosphate solubilization by plant growth-promoting microorganisms in plant rhizosphere

According to Kloepper and Schroth (1981), plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) by the production of substances required for plant growth, influence the rhizosphere flora. There are two modes for promoting plant growth, namely, direct and indirect. In the direct mechanism, the PGPR aids in the supply of nutrients by making available nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, and essential minerals to the plants. While in the indirect mode, PGPR protects from pathogens by preventing their colonization, by acting as biocontrol agents. Microbes present in the soil are mainly encountered in nutrient-rich regions such as the topsoil layer and the rhizosphere, i.e., around the plant root. Some microbial strains can induce plant growth, augment soils, remove pollutants, and protect plants against pathogens (Tripathi, Nagarajan, & Verma, 2002). The PGPR are found in rhizosphere soil, but their count is not high enough to gain dominance over other microflora present in the rhizosphere. Therefore, the plant rhizosphere needs to be supplemented with high concentrations of

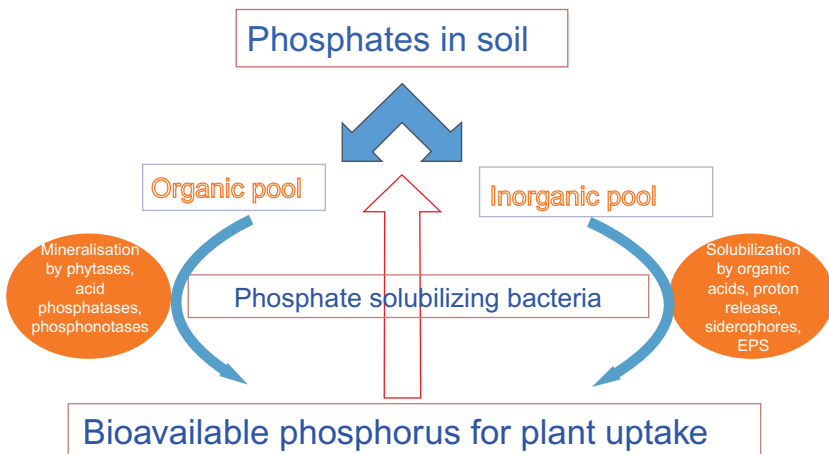


FIG. 1 Mechanisms for solubilization of phosphates in soil.

PGPR. Inoculation of PGPR in the soil is essential because it leads to increased nutrient availability as well as improves the physicochemical and biological properties of soil.

PGPR are categorized as extracellular PGPR (ePGPR) and intracellular PGPR (iPGPR) (Viveros, Jorquera, Crowley, Gajardo, & Mora, 2010). The ePGPR are found on the rhizoplane, in the rhizosphere, and in the intercellular spaces of root cortex cells. The iPGPR resides in nodule-like structures present in the root cells. Numerous bacterial species belonging to the genera *Agrobacterium*, *Arthrobacter*, *Azotobacter*, *Azospirillum*, *Bacillus*, *Burkholderia*, *Caulobacter*, *Chromobacterium*, *Erwinia*, *Flavobacterium*, *Micrococcus*, *Pseudomonas*, and *Serratia* are included in ePGPR category (Ahemad & Kibret, 2014).

The microbial flora that colonizes the rhizosphere is also actively engaged in phosphate solubilization and mobilization in soil. Soil microorganisms play a vital role in providing phosphate to plants by solubilizing inorganic P and mineralizing organic P present in the soil (Adhya et al., 2015). Richardson, Hadobas, and Hayes (2001) have documented the beneficial effects of P-solubilizing bacteria on agronomic crops. According to Villegas and Fortin (2002), some bacterial species in soil having good P-solubilizing activities belong to the genus *Mesorhizobium*, *Rhizobium*, *Klebsiella*, *Acinetobacter*, *Enterobacter*, *Erwinia*, *Achrobacter*, *Micrococcus*, *Pseudomonas*, and *Bacillus*. Along with the bacterial strains, fungi such as *Penicillium* and *Aspergillus* are also efficient P-solubilizers (Whitelaw, 2000).

The use of PGPR as inoculants helps to increase growth, yield, and uptake of nutrients by crop plants. The field and pot trials with PGPR have been reported to show increased yields as well as increased P uptake from marginal to a significant level (10%–27%) (Altomare, Norvell, Bjorkman, & Harman, 1999). Inoculation of *Pseudomonas striata* and *Bacillus polymyxa* in soil resulted in an increase in nodulation, nitrogenase activity, dry matter yield, P uptake, and grain yield of chickpea plants as compared to uninoculated controls. An increase in grain yield of maize and wheat crops, with increased P uptake, was observed under field conditions as reported by Himani and Reddy (2011).

4 Phosphate-solubilizing bacteria as biofertilizers

The application of phosphatic fertilizers can result in phosphate availability to the crops and subsequent increase in crop yields. However, the cost of chemical fertilizer being high and its aftereffects on the soil health makes chemical fertilizers undesirable and unaffordable. However, with the increasing population and increasing food demand, balancing the demand, cost-effectiveness, and environmental safety is a challenging task. Agronomists are therefore looking for an alternative source for the chemical fertilizers that will give higher yields, be environmentally safe, and cost-effective also. The application of PGPR in agricultural practices is an effective alternative. The application of PSM in-field practices has a number of advantages such as increased nutrient availability,

improvement in fertility of the soil, better plant growth and higher crop yield, protection against pathogens, environmental pollution-free, soil health, and conditioning, cost-effective technology (Saber, Nahla, & Chedly, 2005).

The naturally occurring population of P-solubilizing bacteria and fungi is present in almost all rhizospheres. Most of the P-containing inorganic compounds, for example, di- and tri-calcium phosphate, hydroxyapatite, etc., are insoluble and are solubilized by bacterial species present in the soil. Among the reported microbial strains having solubilizing ability include mycorrhizal fungi, *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium* (Khan & Bhatnagar, 1977), while among bacterial genera include *Agrobacterium*, *Bacillus*, *Rhizobium*, *Burkholderia*, *Achromobacter*, *Micrococcus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Aerobacter*, *Flavobacterium*, etc. (Igual, Valverde, Cervantes, & Velázquez, 2001; Kucey, Janzen, & Leggett, 1989; Subbarao, 1988; Whitelaw, 2000). Among the soil phosphate solubilizers, bacteria constitute 10%–50% and P-solubilizing fungi are a meagre 0.1%–0.5% (Chen, Rekha, Arunshen, Lai, & Young, 2006).

Most of the studies on P-solubilizers reported the isolation of phosphate solubilizers from the soil, their preliminary characterization, and evaluating the solubilizing efficiency of microorganisms under laboratory conditions and pot assays. Studies on P-solubilizing activity were carried out mostly using agar media assays showing zones of clearing indicating the solubilization, such as on Pikovaskaya's agar media and colorimetric assays for quantifying the solubilized phosphates. Some researchers, however, reported a lack of consistency and correlation between plate assays and phosphate estimations in liquid cultures (Sharma, Sayyed, Trivedi, & Gobi, 2013). Due to the low number of naturally occurring P-solubilizers in the soils, the P concentrations released in the soil by the activity of these solubilizers are not sufficient to support plant growth. Hence, a vital necessity has arisen for research involving isolation and efficiency checking of PSMs. Best field applicants can be used for P-solubilizing activity in the soil to take advantage of this property for plant yield enhancement (Bhattacharyya & Jha, 2012).

5 Mechanisms of phosphate solubilization

Soil microorganisms are capable of solubilizing available P sources to forms assimilated by the plants (Toro, 2007; Wani, Khan, & Zaidi, 2007). Bacteria capable of P-solubilization belong to the genera *Bacillus*, *Burkholderia*, *Rhizobium*, *Pseudomonas*, *Achromobacter*, *Agrobacterium*, *Micrococcus*, *Enterobacter*, *Flavobacterium*, and *Erwinia*. Some bacterial species are also able to carry out both the processes, i.e., mineralize organic P and solubilize inorganic P (Hilda & Fraga, 2000; Khiari & Parent, 2005). The number of P-solubilization mechanisms found in microorganisms is quite large. It has also been reported that many saprophytic bacteria and fungi perform phosphorus-solubilizing activity through chelation-mediated mechanisms (Whitelaw, 2000).

5.1 Inorganic P solubilization

Studies on the solubilization of phosphoric compounds such as dicalcium phosphate, tricalcium phosphate, rock phosphate, etc., containing an insoluble form of P, by bacteria have been described (Goldstein, 1986). PSMs produce substances such as organic acids, which are responsible for the solubilizing ability. Acidification of the medium leads to the release of organic acids by the P-solubilizing bacteria (Goldstein, 1995; Halvorson, Keynan, & Kornberg, 1990; Kim, Jordan, & Donald, 1998; Kim, Jordan, & Krishnan, 1997; Maliha, Samina, Najma, Sadia, & Farooq, 2004). Phosphate-bound cations are chelated by the action of organic acids, especially hydroxylic and carboxylic groups, converting the phosphate to soluble form (Kpombrekou & Tabatabai, 1994; Sagoe, Ando, Kouno, & Nagaoka, 1998). Cations associated with bound phosphate are Al, Fe, Ca, etc., and the release of these cations due to the lower pH of soil observed (Kpombrekou & Tabatabai, 1994; Stevenson, 2005). According to Zaidi, Khan, Ahemad, and Oves (2009), the solubilization takes place by direct oxidation pathway on the outer surface of the cytoplasmic membrane. The quality of the acids produced determines the degree of solubilization; the quantity is less important (Scervino et al., 2010).

Apart from the release of organic acid, which causes the release of bound phosphate, various microbial mechanisms, including proton extrusion, have been reported to be involved in the solubilization processes (Dutton & Evans, 1996; Nahas, 1996; Surange, Wollum, Kumar, & Nautiyal, 1995). Goldstein (1995) and Deubel and Merbach (2000) have reported the production of gluconic and keto-gluconic acids, which are low-molecular-weight acids, that acidify rhizosphere soil leading to the release of P. Lowering of rhizosphere pH is due to the biological production of proton/bicarbonate release that is responsible for the anionic-cationic balance and gaseous (O_2/CO_2) exchanges. It is observed that the P-solubilization by bacteria has a direct correlation with the pH of the medium. According to Hinsinger (2001), root exudates released in the soil also are responsible for altering the P levels.

The phosphate-solubilizing microflora produces organic acids in the process of solubilization of bound inorganic phosphate. The following changes occur as the result of the organic acid production (Halder, Mishra, Bhattacharyya, & Chakrabarty, 1990; Nahas, 1996) acting alone or in the presence of other solubilizing compounds. Reduction of soil pH, i.e., acidic pH, cation chelation, blockage of adsorption sites for binding of soil particles, the formation of metal complexes such as calcium phosphate that are soluble, and thereby releasing the P.

5.2 Organic phosphate mineralization by PSM

Organic phosphorus present in the soil constitutes 40%–90% of the total phosphorus found in the soil. Organic acids and phosphatase production are the basic

mechanisms in mineral phosphate solubilization and organic phosphorous mineralization in soil (Hilda & Fraga, 2000). Almost 50% of microflora found in rhizosphere soil harbor the potential to mineralize phosphates. This potential is because of the production of phosphatases (Cosgrove, 1967; Goldstein, 1994; Tarafdar, Rao, & Bala, 1988). The enzyme phosphatase or phosphohydrolases can mineralize insoluble phosphates. The phosphatases hydrolyze phosphodiester bonds present in phosphate complexes. The acid phosphatases have an optimal activity in the pH range between acidic to neutral, while the alkaline phosphatases have an optimal activity in the alkaline pH range. Phosphatases show substrate specificity and may be further classified as specific or nonspecific types. As reported by Rossolini et al. (1998), nonspecific phosphatases are produced in elevated amounts by some strains of bacteria.

Organic phosphate is the substrate for alkaline and acid phosphatases that convert it to inorganic insoluble phosphate (Beech, Paiva, Caus, & Coutinho, 2001). Rhizosphere microflora produces organic anions, siderophores, and acid phosphatases in the soil surrounding plant roots, as reported by Yadaf and Tarafdar (2001), while mineralization of organic phosphorus present in the soil is brought about by alkaline phosphatase enzymes as noted by Tarafdar and Claasen (1988). Kim et al. (1998) reported the process of phosphorus discharge from hydroxyapatite by *Enterobacter agglomerans*. While *Bacillus*, *Streptomyces*, *Pseudomonas*, etc., when used together as mixed cultures, are found to give the better activity of organic P-mineralization (Molla, Chowdhury, Islam, & Hoque, 1984). Strains from genera *Arthrobacter*, *Bacillus*, *Enterobacter*, *Flavobacterium*, *Pseudomonas*, *Rhizobium*, *Rhodococcus*, *Serratia*, etc., are included as the most efficient P-solubilizers among bacteria (Bhattacharyya & Jha, 2012). PGPR uses different approaches to make use of the unavailable form of phosphorous. Mechanism of phosphate solubilization employed by PGPR includes the production of compounds like organic acids, which will aid in the dissolution of inorganic P, production of enzymes like phytases and degradation of complexes holding the P (Sharma et al., 2013).

6 Effect of phosphate solubilizers on plant growth and crop yield

Most of the studies demonstrating the increased uptake of P and grain yield following inoculation of seedlings with PSM were worked on showing the actual effects of bioinoculants on plant growth (Gerretsen, 1948). An increase in the uptake of PO_4 from both soil and fertilizer sources was reported by Sundara Rao, Bajpai, Sharma, and Subbaiah (1963) in the case of seeds inoculated with *Bacillus megaterium*. The benefits of using PSMs in the soil, along with the application of insoluble forms of P sources such as rock phosphate, tricalcium phosphate, and bone meal was initially reported by some workers (Ahmed & Jha, 1977; Loheurete & Berthelin, 1988). Ahmed and Jha (1977), who reported hydroxylapatite and rock PSMs. They further reported that an increase in P

uptake and yield being observed due to the inoculation of soil with *Bacillus megaterium* and *Bacillus circulans*. Increased P uptake resulting in increased plant growth, has been reported in calcareous soil inoculated with PSMs (Khalafallah, Saber, Abel-El, & Maksound, 1982). The inoculation of rice seedlings with mixed cultures of *Azotobacter chroococcum*, *Pseudomonas striata*, and *Aspergillus awamori* resulted in increased N, P uptake, and also subsequent increase in the yield of grain and straw, as observed by Kundu and Gaur (1984).

In a greenhouse experiment, increased P uptake was observed along with increased plant height in finger millet. The soil was inoculated with *Bacillus circulans* and 32P-labeled superphosphate and tricalcium phosphate (Raj, Bagyaraj, & Manjunath, 1981). It is difficult to prove the effects of phosphate solubilization on greenhouse soil or field soil compared to studies carried out in the laboratory conditions. However, plant growth responses to PSM addition have been reported in many studies (Kucey et al., 1989).

Studies on the effect of P-solubilizing *Penicillium* sp., on the P composition of soil as well as the growth and yield in maize, were described by Praveen, Kuligod, Hebsur, Patil, and Kulkarni (2012). According to this report, a 20%–23% increase in yield, over the control, was seen in maize crop after dual inoculation of P-solubilizers. The successful application of PSMs for different crops is summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1 Phosphate-solubilizing microorganisms used as growth promoters for different agricultural crops/plants.		
Phosphate-solubilizing microorganism	Crop/plant	Reference
<i>Azospirillum</i> sp.	Maize, sorghum, wheat	Kapulnik, Gafny, and Okon, 1985, Baldani, Baldani, and Döbereiner (1987), and Sarig, Okon, and Blum (1990)
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	Wheat	Xiao, Zhang, Fang, and Chi (2013)
<i>Aspergillus awamori</i> S29	Mung bean	Jain, Saxena, and Sharma (2012)
<i>Azotobacter chroococcum</i>	Wheat	Islam et al. (2007)
<i>Azotobacter chroococcum</i> and <i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Wheat	Kumar, Bauddh, Barman, and Singh (2014)
<i>Azotobacter</i> ; <i>Bacillus</i>	Wheat	Kloepper, Lifshitz, and Zablotowicz (1989)

TABLE 1 Phosphate-solubilizing microorganisms used as growth promoters for different agricultural crops/plants—cont'd

Phosphate-solubilizing microorganism	Crop/plant	Reference
<i>Azotobacter chroococcum</i> , <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> , and <i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	<i>Moringa oleifera</i>	Zayed (2012)
<i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Penicillium aculeatum</i>	Chinese cabbage	Wang et al. (2015)
<i>Bacillus circulans</i> and <i>Cladosporium herbarum</i>	Wheat	Islam et al. (2007) and Singh and Kapoor (1999)
<i>Bacillus megaterium</i> and <i>Azotobacter chroococcum</i>	Wheat	Rodríguez and Fraga (1999)
<i>Bacillus</i> sp. and <i>Pseudomonas</i> sp.	Sesame	Jahan, Mahallati, Amiri, and Ehyayi (2013)
<i>Bacillus megaterium</i> and <i>Azotobacter chroococcum</i>	Wheat	Brown (1974)
<i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i>	Rice	David, Raj, Linda, and Rhema (2014)
<i>Bacillus</i> spp.	Peanut, potato, sorghum, wheat	Broadbent, Baker, Franks, and Holland (1977), Burr, Schroth, and Suslow (1978), and Capper and Campbell (1986)
<i>Bradyrhizobium</i> + <i>Glomus fasciculatum</i> + <i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Green gram	Zaidi and Khan (2006)
<i>Burkholderia cepacia</i>	Maize	Zhao et al. (2014)
<i>Burkholderia gladioli</i>	Oil palm	Istina, Widiastuti, Joy, and Antralina (2015)
<i>Burkholderia gladioli</i>	Sweet leaf	Mamta et al. (2010)
<i>Mesorhizobium mediterraneum</i>	Chickpea and barley	Peix et al. (2001)
Mycorrhiza + <i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	Barley	Mehrvarz, Chaichi, and Alikhani (2008)

Continued

TABLE 1 Phosphate-solubilizing microorganisms used as growth promoters for different agricultural crops/plants—cont'd

Phosphate-solubilizing microorganism	Crop/plant	Reference
<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp.	Soybean crop	Son, Diep, and Giang (2006)
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i> and <i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	Canola, lettuce, and tomato	Hall, Pierson, Ghosh, and Glick (1996) and Glick, Changping, Sibdas, and Dumbroff (1997)
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i> and <i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	Potato, radishes, rice, sugar beet, tomato, lettuce, apple, citrus, beans, ornamental plants, and wheat	Suslov (1982), Lemanceau (1992), Kloepper (1994), and Kloepper, Lifshitz, and Schroth (1988)
<i>Pseudomonas</i>	<i>Zea mays</i> L	Walpola and Yoon (2012) and Bano and Fatima (2009)
<i>Pseudomonas</i>	Soybean	Walpola and Yoon (2012) and Son et al. (2006)
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	Moss	Tani, Akita, Murase, and Kimbara (2011)
<i>Pseudomonas chlororaphis</i> and <i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	Soybean	Islam et al. (2007) and Singh and Kapoor (1999)
<i>Pseudomonas fluorescent</i>	Peanut	Dey, Pal, Bhatt, and Chauhan (2004)
<i>Pseudomonas striata</i> and <i>Glomus fasciculatum</i>	Soybean, wheat	Mahanta et al. (2014)
<i>Paenibacillus favisporus</i> TG1R2	Soybeans	Fernández Bidondo et al. (2011)
<i>Pantoea agglomerans</i> (PSB-1) and <i>Burkholderia anthina</i> (PSB-2)	Mung bean	Walpola and Yoon (2013)
<i>Rhizobium tropici</i> CIAT899	Beans	Tajini, Trabelsi, and Drevon (2012)
<i>Serratia</i> sp.	Wheat	Swarnalakshmi et al. (2013)

7 PSB application methods in agriculture

The commonly used method for the application of P-solubilizing microbial inoculants is seed surface application. Traditionally, this method is used before the sowing of seeds and is one of the easiest methods to follow. Application of PSMs in a proper systematic way such that each seed is coated with the micro-organism is very important. A sticker solution helps to adhere the bacteria to the seeds and may be added during the application process. Gum arabic is an example of a sticker that is used for adherence to the phosphate-solubilizers on the seed (Khan, Zaidi, & Wani, 2007). PSM may be added to the soil instead of applying to the seeds. This mode of application is used when the seeds are pre-treated with pesticides, which may interfere with the PSMs if applied together.

The PSM may be applied alone or maybe co-inoculated together with other bioinoculants. Application of PSM to the soil will increase the PSM count per unit area, thus making soluble phosphates available to the plants. However, there are a number of disadvantages of the application process, such as the availability of enough bioinoculant quantity for total seed surface, contact with chemicals, bacterial movement away from plant roots, or seeds after planting.

8 Recent developments

The application of phosphate solubilizers has yielded good results in a number of crops. Wheat crop showed an increase in grain yield by 17%–18% (Suleman et al., 2018), while a 10%–20% increase in yield was reported for maize, sorghum, and wheat, using a combination of bio-inoculants (Rodríguez & Fraga, 1999). An improved sugarcane yield has been recorded by Sundara, Natarajan, and Hari (2002). The field applications of a number of P-solubilizers such as *Azotobacter* sp., *Bacillus megaterium*, *Bacillus circulans*, *Bacillus subtilis*, and *Pseudomonas striata*, have been carried out with satisfactory results (Bano & Fatima, 2009; Pandey, Trivedi, Kumar, & Palni, 2006; Rodríguez & Fraga, 1999; Satyaprakash, Nikitha, Reddi, Sadhana, & Vani, 2017; Vikram & Hamzehzarghani, 2008). *Penicillium bilaii*, a P-solubilizer, is commercially available as JumpStart (Satyaprakash et al., 2017). N- and P-deficient agrosystems can be treated P-solubilizers in combination with nitrogen-fixing bacteria as an integrated treatment system (Bargaz, Lyamlouli, Chtouki, Zeroual, & Dhiba, 2018). Similar studies by Afzal and Bano (2008) and Yousefi, Khavazi, Moezi, Rejali, and Nadian (2011) showed increased yields in the wheat crop when PSM was used in combination with nitrogen fixers and arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi. Some studies have also been focused on the application of P-solubilizers for soil reclamation, mostly for the degraded minefields (Chen & Liu, 2019; Liang, Liu, Jia, et al., 2020), which could be used for agricultural practices.

A lot of research on the genetic and molecular aspects of phosphate solubilization has been carried out in recent years. These studies were focused on

understanding the mechanisms of the solubilization process. Sashidhar and Podile (2010) have reported studies on proton transport and involvement of the enzyme glucose dehydrogenase in the solubilization process by direct oxidation pathway. Liang et al. (2020) have used the metagenomic approach for studying the effects of P-solubilizer application and the changes occurring in the course of the process during the reclamation of mining soils. During the study, the predominance of genes involved in phosphate solubilization and mineralization, such as *gcd* gene, was observed. In another study carried out by Zeng, Wu, Wang, and Ding (2017), the molecular mechanisms of P-solubilization, gene expression, and effects of P-solubilization on the growth of *Burkholderia multivorans* WS-FJ9, were investigated and reported. Similar studies were carried out by using molecular tools to understand the ecology, presence, abundance, survival, and interactions of P-solubilizers in different environments that have been carried out (Jorquera, Crowley, Marschner, et al., 2011; Oliveira et al., 2009; Richardson & Simpson, 2011).

Several phosphatase-encoding genes involved in the solubilization of P, both inorganic and organic, were cloned and studied for their efficiency (Rodríguez, Fraga, Gonzalez, & Bashan, 2006). Goldstein and Liu (1987) first reported the cloning of P-solubilization genes in Gram-negative bacteria *Erwinia herbicola*. Fraga, Rodriguez, and Gonzalez (2001) reported the genetic manipulation of a bioinoculant *Burkholderia cepacia* IS-16. The *napA* phosphatase gene from *Morganella morganii* was inserted in this bioinoculant strain, using the vector pRK293. Thus, the rhizobacteria occurring in nature can be made more efficient by inserting genes for P-solubilization in their genome.

The PSMs can be genetically manipulated and expressed in rhizobacterial strains, thus increasing their efficiency to solubilize P and making them more effective agricultural inoculants. Cloning and expression of genes for phosphate solubilization in rhizobacterial strains, such as using appropriate promoters, has been used as a successful technology. By applying the techniques of gene manipulation, P-solubilizers can further improve their plant growth-promoting ability.

Rossolini et al. (1998) reported the isolation of genes responsible for encoding acid phosphatases from different bacterial species. Thaller and group have worked on the sequence analysis of phosphatase genes, which were cloned and classified into three families, namely, class A, class B, and class C phosphatases (Thaller, Berlutti, Schippa, Lombardi, & Rossolini, 1994; Thaller, Giovanna, Serena, & Rossolini, 1995; Thaller, Schippa, Bonci, Cresti, & Rossolini, 1997). Several genes have been isolated from *Escherichia coli*, responsible for encoding enzymes involved in phosphate solubilization, such as *ushA*, which encodes for 5'-nucleotidase (Burns & Beacham, 1986), *agp*, which encodes enzyme, acid glucose-1-phosphatase (Pradel & Boquet, 1990) and *cpdB*, encoding the 2'-3' cyclic phosphodiesterase (Beacham & Garrett, 1980).

Several authors have well documented some recent relevant research on P-solubilization (Buch, Archana, & Naresh Kumar, 2008; Ghosh, Barman,

Mukherjee, & Mandal, 2016; Jha, Dafale, & Purohit, 2019; Li, Wu, Ye, & Yang, 2018; Liu et al., 2020; Park, Lee, Jung, et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2016; Zeng, Wu, & Wen, 2016). With the genetic manipulation of rhizosphere bacteria and the development of technologies for the application of these bacteria in the field, sustainable agricultural practices promise a rise in productivity.

9 Conclusions

The use of biological agents is the only alternative to avoid use of chemical fertilizers and their harmful effects. Biofertilizers can completely replace the chemical fertilizers leading to sustainable agricultural practices. Crop production can be boosted using biofertilizers, including the P-solubilizers, thus contributing to sustainable agriculture. The effectiveness of PSM in the plant rhizosphere will depend on its ability to colonize, compete, survive, and proliferate, in the presence of other microflora. The application and successful colonization of PSM in the soil are essential for plant growth and, ultimately, for sustainable agriculture. Application of PSMs to soils deficient in plant-available phosphate can mobilize the bound phosphates for plant uptake. They should be efficient enough and should survive and thrive in the rhizosphere, postapplication. Field trials should be undertaken adequately for maximum exploitation of the effective strains. The genetic manipulation of the PSM with phosphate-solubilizing genes can help in developing the desirable bioinoculants.

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