

Chapter 4

Role of Root Nodule Bacteria in Improving Soil Fertility and Growth Attributes of Leguminous Plants Under Arid and Semiarid Environments

S.K. Singh, Rakesh Pathak, and Anjly Pancholy

4.1 Introduction

In the late seventeenth century, tools of modern science began to reveal the secrets of plant nutrition, and nitrogen, phosphorus, and potash were identified as essential nutrients for plant growth. The soil was assumed to be the source of phosphorus and potash, but it has been a matter of argument up to nineteenth century that either plants absorb nitrogen from the air or extract it from the soil. Schultz-Lupitz (1881) revealed that the plants required more nitrogen than any other soil nutrient and leguminous plants were able to accumulate large amounts of nitrogen. The nodules attached to the roots of leguminous plants were responsible for converting nitrogen gas of the atmosphere into soluble nitrogenous compounds (Hellriegel 1887; Hellriegel and Wilfarth 1888). Presently, this marvelous piece of natural chemistry is known as the symbiotic association between leguminous plants and a soil bacterium. Plant–bacteria interactions in the rhizosphere are the determinants of plant health and soil fertility (Hayat et al. 2010). It is now well established that the leguminous plants enhance soil fertility and non-leguminous plants deplete it.

The intensive use of chemical fertilizers has degraded soil fertility resulting in severe health and environmental hazards such as soil erosion, water contamination, pesticide poisoning, falling groundwater table, water logging, and depletion of biodiversity. The plant–microbe interactions in the rhizosphere play an essential role in transformation, mobilization, solubilization of nutrients, and uptake of essential nutrients by plants. The soil bacteria supply nutrients to crops, stimulate plant growth, control or inhibit the activity of plant pathogens, improve soil structure, bioaccumulation, or microbial leaching of inorganics, etc. (Ehrlich 1990), and have been used in crop production for decades (Davison 1988). It has

S.K. Singh (✉) • R. Pathak • A. Pancholy
Central Arid Zone Research Institute, Jodhpur, Rajasthan 342 003, India
e-mail: sksingh1111@hotmail.com

also been used in soil for the mineralization of organic pollutants known as bioremediation of polluted soils (Burd et al. 2000; Zhuang et al. 2007; Zaidi et al. 2008).

This biological approach is becoming more popular as an alternative to chemical fertilizers for improving crop yield, and the application of plant growth-promoting rhizobia (PGPR) has found a vital place in the sustainable agriculture system (Shoebitz et al. 2009). Suhag (2016) advocated replacement of chemical fertilizers by biofertilizers and suggested that the use of biofertilizers naturally activates microorganisms, restores soil natural fertility, and protects it against drought and soil-borne diseases and thereby stimulates plant growth. The PGPRs are also termed as plant health-promoting rhizobacteria or nodule-promoting rhizobacteria. PGPR can be either symbiotic bacteria or free-living rhizobacteria on the basis of their relationships with the plants (Khan 2005). They can be divided into two groups according to their residing sites, bacteria living inside the plant cell, producing nodules (iPGPR or symbiotic bacteria), and bacteria living outside the plant cell, which do not produce nodules (ePGPR or free-living rhizobacteria) promoting plant growth (Gray and Smith 2005).

Rhizobia are the best known iPGPR and produce nodules in leguminous plants. The bacteria that nodulate legumes mainly belong to Proteobacteria families: Rhizobiaceae (*Rhizobium*; *Ensifer* syn. *Sinorhizobium*), Bradyrhizobiaceae (*Bradyrhizobium*), Hyphomicrobiaceae (*Azorhizobium*; *Devosia*), Methylobacteriaceae (*Methylobacterium*), Brucellaceae (*Ochrobactrum*), Phyllobacteriaceae (*Mesorhizobium*; *Phyllobacterium*), and Burkholderiaceae (*Burkholderia*; *Cupriavidus*).

The PGPRs function in different ways (Glick 2001); they synthesize compounds (Zahir et al. 2004), enable the uptake of nutrients (Çakmakçi et al. 2007), and decrease or prevent the plant diseases (Saravanakumar et al. 2008). Rhizobia inoculation has been reported to activate host genes involved in the production of phenolic compounds/phytoalexins, and higher levels of these compounds benefit the plant by restricting disease development (El Hadrami et al. 2007). The antagonistic and plant growth promotion properties of *R. leguminosarum* b.v. *phaseoli* against root rot caused by *F. solani* f.s. *phaseoli* in bean (Buonassisi et al. 1986) and *R. japonicum* against root rot diseases caused by *F. solani* and *M. phaseolina* in soybean have been demonstrated (Al-Ani et al. 2012).

The mechanism for enhancement of plant growth and yield by the PGPR may be due to the ability to produce an enzyme (1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate) (Li et al. 2000), hormones like indole acetic acid (Patten and Glick 2002), abscisic acid (Dobbelaere et al. 2003), gibberellic acid, and cytokinins (Dey et al. 2004); symbiotic nitrogen fixation (Kennedy et al. 2004); antagonism against phytopathogenic bacteria by producing siderophores, β -1,3-glucanase, chitinases, antibiotic, fluorescent pigment, and cyanide (Glick and Pasternak 2003); solubilization and mineralization of nutrients (Richardson 2001; Banerjee and Yasmin 2002); enhancing resistance to drought (Alvarez et al. 1996), salinity, waterlogging (Saleem et al. 2007), and oxidative stress (Stajner et al. 1997); and production of vitamin B,

niacin, pantothenic acid, thiamine, riboflavin, and biotin (Sierra et al. 1999; Revillas et al. 2000).

The root nodule bacteria are gram-negative bacteria and belong to a diverse group of soil-inhabiting bacteria (O'Hara 2001). Probably, all the agricultural soils contain some bacteria capable of nodulating some legumes. However, all these bacteria may not be able to nodulate legumes or if they can they may not form an effective symbiosis. It is very common situation when new legumes are introduced to new lands (O'Hara et al. 2002). Howieson et al. (2000b) suggested probable situations including more and less number of nodules on the uninoculated legume and an effective, competitive inoculant strain of root nodule bacteria adapted to the soil conditions when a new legume is introduced to new lands. The uninoculated legume may form effective nodules in good quantity due to the presence of a large population of effective root nodule bacteria. The formation of less number of nodules on uninoculated legumes indicates absence or little presence of population of root nodule bacteria in the soil that are able to nodulate the particular host legume. These two situations revealed that the competitive inoculant strain of root nodule bacteria should be selected that are adapted to the soil conditions (O'Hara et al. 2002).

The productivity of a legume crop depends on the effective *Rhizobium* population available in the soil and well-nodulated plants. At the early stage of seedling, generally higher nodules and nodulation are found. The large and pink color nodules are considered the effective and better nodules, whereas small and white nodules are indicative of a poor symbiosis (Duseja and Shrivastav 2015). This chapter covers the role of root nodule bacteria in improving soil fertility and growth attributes of leguminous plants under arid and semiarid environments via direct and indirect mechanisms.

4.2 Legumes

Arid and semiarid areas cover about 45% of the Earth's land surface (Schimel 2010). Since nodulation and N fixation use significant amounts of plant photosynthate, it may be inferred that nodulation is a useful attribute in a N-poor environment (Sprent and Gehlot 2010). The plant family Leguminosae (Fabaceae) is the third largest family in the Angiosperms dominating range of arid and extreme ecosystems. They are of ecological importance in sand dune stabilization, soil fixation, and revegetation of semiarid and arid ecosystems (Rodríguez-Echeverría et al. 2012). Over 100 agriculturally important legumes in symbiotic associations with rhizobia contribute nearly half of the annual quantity of biological nitrogen fixation (BNF) entering soil ecosystems and they provide an easy and inexpensive way to enhance soil fertility and agricultural productivity (Zahrán 2011).

Legumes bear seeds in pods and fix the atmospheric nitrogen with the help of bacteria in their root nodules (Vance 1997). They are rich in protein and more than 16,000 species of legumes including herbs, shrubs, and trees are known worldwide

out of which only about 200 are cultivated. The legumes improve soil quality through favorable effects on soil biological, chemical, and physical conditions (Howieson et al. 2000a). They have long been recognized and valued as soil-building crops. The properly managed legumes enhance the nitrogen supplying power of soils, increase the soil reserves of organic matter, stimulate the soil biological activity, improve soil structure, reduce soil erosion, increase soil aeration, improve soil water-holding capacity, and make the soil easier to till (Graham and Vance 2000).

Generally, soils contain large *Rhizobium* populations which readily nodulate common leguminous plants and trees, but there are situations in which the production of well-nodulated plants is difficult. Some crops need different Rhizobial species which may not be present in all soils or the rhizobia present in the soil fix little nitrogen. Such problems can be overcome by mixing specially selected *Rhizobium* cultures before sowing. *Acacia senegal* and *Prosopis cineraria* are the most important dryland resources of Western Rajasthan desert ecosystem (Tewari et al. 1998; Jindal et al. 2000) among leguminous arid zone tree species. *A. senegal* is highly drought-tolerant multipurpose tree species and is an important forest resource of gum arabic, fuel wood, human food, and fodder for livestock (Aoki et al. 2007). Whereas *P. cineraria* grows very well in dryland agroforestry systems and plays an important role in controlling soil erosion, sand dune stabilization, improving soil fertility, providing fuel energy resources, supplying feed and forage for grazing animals, firewood, furnishing timber and furniture wood, and supplementing food for humans (Tewari et al. 1998; Manzano and Navar 2000; Zare et al. 2011). Clusterbean, cowpea, moth bean, and horse gram are important annual legumes grown in arid and semiarid region (Chhillar 2009).

4.3 Factor Affecting Nodulation

There are several factors including moisture stress, salinity, unfavorable soil pH, nutrient deficiency, mineral toxicity, temperature extremes, inadequate photosynthesis, plant diseases, trace element deficiencies, etc., which inhibit nodulation and impose limitations on the vigor of the host legume (Brockwell et al. 1995). The effects of salt stress on nodulation and nitrogen fixation of legumes have been examined in several crops including legumes (Delgado et al. 1994; Nithyakalyani et al. 2016; Rao et al. 2002). The water stress modifies the rhizobial cells and leads to a reduction in infection and nodulation of legumes, while high soil temperatures delay nodulation or restrict it to the subsurface parts (Graham 1992). Nodulation of soybean was markedly inhibited at higher temperatures (Chibeba et al. 2015). Piha and Munnus (1987) reported that bean nodules formed at 35 °C were small and had low specific nitrogenase activity. The soils of pH < 5 make some rhizobia unable to persist resulting in failure of nodulation in the legumes (Bayoumi et al. 1995). Taylor et al. (1991) reported that acidity had more severe effects on rhizobial multiplication. The low-medium pH (<4.5) affected the number of nodules, the nitrogenase

activity, the nodule ultrastructure, and the fresh and dry weights of nodules to a greater extent (Vassileva et al. 1997), while in the acidic soils with pH of >5.0 , where heavy metal activity is relevant, the presence of available aluminum inhibits nodulation (Bordeleau and Prevost 1994). Both pH (4.5) and aluminum (100 mM) caused delays in nodulation of *Vigna unguiculata*, particularly at low Ca^{2+} levels (0.3 mM), while at a high calcium concentration (3.0 mM), nodulation was improved (Hohenberg and Munns 1984).

Soares et al. (2014) assessed the symbiotic efficiency of symbiotic nitrogen-fixing bacteria with *V. unguiculata* and their tolerance to pH and aluminum. They contrarily reported that three strains (UFLA03-164, UFLA03-153, and UFLA03-154) yielded higher values for dry weight production of the aerial part. These strains grow at varied pH levels of 5, 6, and 6.8 and at high aluminum concentration levels. While strains UFLA03-84, UFLA03-153, and UFLA03-164 can tolerate up to $20 \text{ mmol}_c \text{ dm}^{-3}$ of Al^{+3} (Soares et al. 2014). The nodulation, growth, and shoot nitrogen in some grain legumes were adversely affected on addition of bicarbonate (Tang and Thomson 1996). Nodulation of *Arachis hypogaea* was also inhibited when plants grew in nutrient solution containing carbonate (Tang et al. 1998). Similarly, heavy metals had adverse effects on nodulation and nitrogen fixation of legumes (Klimek-Kopyra et al. 2015).

Nitrogen fertilization is needed as starter nitrogen to achieve a substantial yield of legumes at the stage when the symbiotic nitrogen fixation is unable to provide enough nitrogen (Buttery and Dirks 1987), but excess amounts of soluble nitrogen in the soil generally restrict or reduce nodulation and nitrogen fixation in the legumes (Afza et al. 1987). Thies et al. (1995) reported suppressed nodulation with the application of urea (90 kg of nitrogen ha^{-1}) in soybean plants. Similarly, the root system of *Cajanus cajan* was poorly developed after application of nitrogen fertilizer (up to 60 kg of N nitrogen ha^{-1}) and adversely affected the nodule number, nitrogenase activity, nodule dry weight, shoot weight, and root and shoot nitrogen (Kaushik et al. 1995). Herbicides have also been reported to affect the growth of *B. japonicum* under in vitro conditions (Mallik and Tesfai 1993) and reduced the nodulation of soybeans under greenhouse conditions (Mallik and Tesfai 1985). However, some of the herbicides including sethoxydim, alachlor, fluzafop butyl, and metolachlor did not have detrimental effects on nitrogen fixation or seed yields when added at the recommended rates for weed control in soybean (Kucey et al. 1988).

The climatic conditions of arid and semiarid regions are often characterized by hot, dry summers, subhumid monsoon, and cold dry winter. The climatic conditions in this region restrict the buildup of soil organic matter and soils are generally deficient in nitrogen (Kackar et al. 1990). The soil of region is sandy loam with pH > 8.1 and low nutrient levels, with 0.23% organic carbon, 0.03% nitrogen, and 0.02% phosphorus (Dhir 1984). The rhizobial population can survive under limited moisture levels of desert soils and can perform effective nodulation of legumes growing therein (Jenkins et al. 1987, 1989; Tate 1995), but their densities are lowest under the most desiccated conditions and it may increase as the moisture stress is relieved (Waldon et al. 1989).

The major problem is the increase in salinity levels of the soil that causes reduction in plant growth and yield in irrigated arid and semiarid regions (Parida and Das 2005). Symbiotic effectiveness depends on the specific combination of compatible legume and rhizobium under the saline conditions (Faghire et al. 2013). Therefore, identification and application of salinity-tolerant rhizobia in legume cropping area helps in the formation of effective nodules and efficient nitrogen fixation. Plant productivity is considerably reduced due to osmotic inhibition of water uptake by roots or specific ion effects (Mayak et al. 2004). To improve plant growth under stress conditions, it is important to improve salt stress tolerance in crops. Zohra et al. (2016) characterized slow-growing rhizobial strains isolated from *Retama monosperma* root nodules from Algeria resistant to alkaline pH up to 9 and salinity equal to 2% (w/v) NaCl. Younesi et al. (2013) reported positive response of *Pseudomonas fluorescence* and *Rhizobium meliloti* co-inoculation on nodulation and mineral nutrient contents in alfalfa under salinity stress conditions. Sobti et al. (2015) showed that the rhizobia isolated from the desert soils are able to survive, grow, and effectively nodulate their leguminous hosts even at high salt concentrations. The tolerance to high levels of salinity and the survival and persistence in severe and harsh desert conditions make these rhizobia highly valuable inocula to improve productivity of the leguminous plants cultivated under extreme environments.

4.4 Inoculation

There are two basic components in a good inoculant including dense *Rhizobium* population that can produce higher number of nodules and can fix appreciable amount of nitrogen and the inoculant should have good shelf-life so that can be easily packaged and distributed. It is essential that the inoculum should produce an economic response in the field. Several authors have shown that it is possible to improve the growth of leguminous trees by inoculation with effective rhizobia (Wolde-Meskel and Sinclair 1998; Bogino et al. 2006; Maia and Scotti 2010).

Singh et al. (2011) molecularly characterized the diverse groups of plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPRs) in the rhizosphere and root nodules of native *A. senegal* and *P. cineraria* of western Rajasthan by direct sequencing of *16S rRNA* gene to detect genetic diversity in field populations of PGPRs and reported that the treatments with *Bacillus licheniformis* or *S. kostiense*, either inoculated individually or as co-inoculants, had positive effect on phenotypic traits of germination. Chagas-Junior et al. (2012) carried out a greenhouse experiment to evaluate the effect of natural nodulation in the development of Pacara Earpod Tree (*Enterolobium contortisiliquum*) and *Leucaena* (*Leucaena leucocephala*) using soil samples of woods, cultivated areas, and degraded areas. They observed better nodulation occurring in soil cultivation, providing a higher accumulation of biomass in both species.

In spite of inoculation with certain rhizobial cultures, no nodulation was reported because the strains used for inoculation became exopolysaccharide deficient due to mutation or any unspecified reason (van Rhijn et al. 2001). The success and efficiency of inoculants for agricultural crops are affected by various factors, viz., ability of rhizobia to colonize plant roots, the exudation by plant roots, and the soil health. The root colonization efficiency of the rhizobia is closely associated with microbial competition and survival in the soil, as well as with the modulation of the expression of several genes and communication between cells (Meneses et al. 2011; Alquéres et al. 2013; Beauregard et al. 2013). Soil health is another important factor that affects the inoculation efficiency, due to several characteristics such as soil type, nutrient pool and toxic metal concentrations, soil moisture, microbial diversity, and soil disturbances caused by management practices. The roots of plant secrete a wide range of compounds that interfere with the plant–bacteria interaction and react to different environmental conditions. It is considered an important factor in the efficiency of the inoculants (Cai et al. 2012; Carvalhais et al. 2013).

4.5 Role of Root-Nodulating Bacteria in Soil Health and Plant Growth

The root-nodulating bacteria have the ability to inhibit certain soil-borne plant pathogens along with nitrogen fixation. Due to their dual role in plant growth promotion and disease control, they have become the valuable part of sustainable agriculture (Malleš 2008). The antagonistic and plant growth promotion properties of *R. leguminosarum* b.v. *phaseoli* against root rot caused by *F. solani* f.s. *phaseoli* in bean (Buonassisi et al. 1986) and *R. japonicum* against root rot diseases caused by *F. solani* and *M. phaseolina* in soybean have been demonstrated (Al-Ani et al. 2012).

Nitrogen is essential for the synthesis of enzymes, proteins, chlorophyll, DNA, and RNA in the cell; hence, it is very important for plant growth and production of food and feed. It is provided through rhizobial bacteroids for nodulating legumes. The BNF accounts for 65% of the total nitrogen utilized in agriculture (Matiru and Dakora 2004). The biochemical reactions of BNF take place mainly through symbiotic association of nitrogen-fixing microorganisms with legumes that converts atmospheric elemental nitrogen into ammonia (Shiferaw et al. 2004).

The nitrogen-fixing genes of Rhizobia and regulation of nitrogenase activity in the nodules depend on the genes of host plant genotype compatibility which determines symbiotic effectiveness. Cross talk between plant host and rhizobia from recognition of partners, through functional nodule formation and nitrogen reduction, determines effective symbiosis (Long and Ehrhardt 1989). The host plant responds chemotactically to flavonoid molecules and induces the expression of nodulation (nod) genes in Rhizobia that in turn respond to the lipochitoooligosaccharide signals and trigger mitotic cell division in roots, leading to

nodule formation (Dakora 2003; Lhuissier et al. 2001; Matiru and Dakora 2004). It is a molecular dialogue between the host plant and a compatible strain of *Rhizobium* which serves as an initiative for the development of nodules (Murray et al. 2007). Besides, there are a number of factors including host–microsymbiont compatibility, physicochemical conditions of the soil, and the presence of both known and unknown biomolecules such as flavonoids, polysaccharides, and hormones that affect the nodulation on legume roots (Zafar-ul-Hye et al. 2007).

The nitrogen fixed by Rhizobia in legumes also benefits the associated non-leguminous plants growing in intercrops through direct transfer of biologically fixed nitrogen (Snapp et al. 1998) or to subsequent crops grown in crop rotation (Hayat et al. 2008a, b). Besides nitrogen fixation, species of *Rhizobium* and *Bradyrhizobium* produce abscisic acids, auxins, cytokinins, lumichrome, riboflavin, lipo-chitooligosaccharides, and vitamins that enhance plant growth (Hayat and Ali 2004; Hayat et al. 2008a, b). In many low-input agriculture systems including grasses, crops depend on the nitrogen fixed by the legume counterparts for their nitrogen requirements and protein (Hayat and Ali 2010). Other plant growth-promoting traits of Rhizobia and *Bradyrhizobia* include phytohormone production (Arshad and Frankenberger 1998), siderophore release (Jadhav et al. 1994), solubilization of inorganic phosphorus (Chabot et al. 1996a), and antagonism against plant pathogenic microorganisms (Ehteshamul-Haque and Ghaffar 1993). Application of *B. japonicum* to the crop of radish increased about 15% plant dry matter (Antoun et al. 1998). Chabot et al. (1996b) applied bioluminescence from *Rhizobium leguminosarum* bv. *phaseoli* strain having lux genes to visualize in situ colonization of roots by Rhizobia in maize. Further, Yanni et al. (2001) also reported similar findings on maize root colonization and infection by Rhizobia.

The in vitro studies on Rhizobia-infected cereal roots revealed that Rhizobia are brought into closer contact with cereal roots during legume–cereal rotations and/or mixed intercropping and may result in non-legume root infection by native rhizobial populations in the soil. Various researchers have isolated natural endophyte *Rhizobium* from the roots of non-leguminous species including rice (Yanni et al. 1997), cotton, sweet corn (McInroy and Kloepper 1995), maize (Martinez-Romero et al. 2000), wheat (Biederbeck et al. 2000), and canola (Lupwayi et al. 2000) either grown in rotation with legumes or in a mixed cropping system involving symbiotic legumes. Wiehe and Holfich (1995) demonstrated that the strain R39 of *R. leguminosarum* bv. *trifolii* multiplied under field conditions in the rhizosphere of host legumes as well as non-legumes including corn, rape, and wheat.

The plant growth-promoting ability of Rhizobia inoculation varies with soil properties and crop rotation (Hilali et al. 2001), and the inoculation response mainly depends on the soil moisture, available nitrogen, yield potential, and the richness and effectiveness of native Rhizobia (Venkateswarlu et al. 1997). Rao (2001) reported 10–25% yield benefits with inoculation in the trials conducted on arid legumes like *Cyamopsis tetragonoloba*, *Vigna aconitifolia*, and *V. radiata*. The positive effects of chickpea field co-inoculation with *Mesorhizobium* sp. and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, which accounted for an increase of 32% in grain yield,

compared to the uninoculated control (Verma et al. 2013). Fenugreek bio-inoculated with *R. meliloti* strain FRS-7 resulted in 36.8 and 45.9% increased yields over control for two consecutive years under semiarid conditions saving about 20 kg ha⁻¹ nitrogen accompanied with better crop yield and soil health (Singh and Patel 2016). Rhizobia-inoculated plants produced significantly higher nodule number, nodule dry weight, grain yield, and yield components than non-inoculated non-fertilized plants. Inoculation of field-grown lentil with rhizobia strain Lt29 and Lt5 enhanced seed yield by 59% and 44%, respectively (Tena et al. 2016). Bhargava et al. (2016) studied the phenotypic, stress tolerance, and plant growth-promoting characteristics of rhizobial isolates from selected wild legumes of semiarid region and suggested that the functional diversity displayed by the isolates can be utilized for the legume crop production by cross inoculation.

4.5.1 Symbiotic Nitrogen Fixing Bacteria

The BNF is the most efficient process to supply the large amounts of nitrogen required by legumes to produce high-yielding crops. There are approximately 700 genera and ~13,000 species of legumes; only about 20% (Sprent and Sprent 1990) have been examined for nodulation and shown to have the ability to fix nitrogen. The legume plants enter into a symbiotic partnership with certain bacteria called rhizobia. The rhizobia present in the soil or added as seed inoculum enter into the root hairs and move through an infection thread toward the root of legume plants. It multiplies rapidly in the root, causing the swelling of root cells to form nodules (Limpens et al. 2003).

The plant transports carbohydrate to the nodules which is used as a source of energy by the rhizobia. Some of the carbohydrates are also used by the rhizobia as a source of hydrogen for the conversion of atmospheric nitrogen to ammonia (Gopalakrishnan et al. 2015). The symbiotic relationship between root nodule bacteria and legumes has high degree of specificity for effective nodulation. It operates at both levels of the symbiosis, i.e., the nodulation and nitrogen fixation by the exchange of specific chemical signals between the two partners (Perret et al. 2000). The symbiosis is controlled at a molecular level and is possible due to the presence of appropriate genes (Schlaman et al. 1998; Perret et al. 2000).

The volume of nitrogen fixed by various leguminous plants varies according to its species and varieties. It is directly related to the dry matter yield within a species. Some leguminous crops can fix up to 400 kg nitrogen ha⁻¹ during the best years. Clover can fix over 200 kg, while Lucerne can fix 300 kg nitrogen ha⁻¹. Most of the grain legumes obtain 50–80% of their total nitrogen requirements through biological fixation, while some legumes, viz., faba bean, fix up to 90%. Faba bean in association with rhizobia can fix up to 120 kg nitrogen ha⁻¹ (Danso 1992). The rate of rhizobia survival, the extent of effective nodulation, and plant growth factors are responsible for the potential nitrogen fixation. Similarly adverse soil condition or environmental stress restricts the nitrogen fixation process. High level of soil

nitrogen reduces nitrogen fixation as legumes specially use most of the available soil nitrogen before beginning of the nitrogen fixation, while lower nitrogen levels can also reduce plant growth. During the period of formation of nodules and beginning of nitrogen fixation, legume requires a minimum quantity of nitrogen (about 20–22 kg ha⁻¹), from other sources depending on growing conditions (Anglade et al. 2015). Symbiotic nitrogen fixation is carried out by selective species of bacteria specific to particular legume species (Chandrasekar et al. 2005; Qureshi et al. 2009).

The nitrogen fixation is a key factor in low-input agricultural systems to sustain long-term soil fertility. It has immense importance under the areas where there is high farm land pressure and the fallow system cannot be followed. Under such situations, biologically fixed nitrogen improves soil nitrogen content and increases the yield of subsequent crops in cropping systems (Habtegebrial and Singh 2006).

4.5.2 Non-symbiotic Nitrogen-Fixing Bacteria

A number of PGPRs associate with various C3 and C4 plants including rice, wheat, maize, sugarcane, and cotton and increase their vegetative growth and grain yield (Kennedy et al. 2004). *Azotobacter* species are free-living heterotrophic and have been reported to increase the yield of rice (Yanni and El-Fattah 1999), cotton (Anjum et al. 2007), and wheat (Barassi et al. 2000). Similarly some obligatory anaerobic heterotrophs, viz., Clostridia, are able to fix atmospheric nitrogen under complete absence of oxygen (Kennedy et al. 2004). *Azospirillum* species are aerobic heterotrophs and have the ability to fix nitrogen under microaerobic conditions (Roper and Ladha 1995). They have been reported in the rhizosphere of gramineous plants (Kennedy and Tchan 1992; Kennedy et al. 2004). Their beneficial effects have been reported on the grain yield of wheat under both greenhouse and field conditions (Ganguly et al. 1999). The association of *Azospirillum* with plant leads to improved development and yield of host plants (Fallik et al. 1994) due to improved root development by increased water and mineral uptake and BNF (Okon and Itzigsohn 1995). *Azospirillum* influences the root respiration rate, metabolism, and root proliferation of the host by the synthesis of phytohormones (Okon and Itzigsohn 1995).

4.5.3 Phosphate Solubilization

Phosphorus is the structural component of nucleic acids, phospholipids, and adenosine triphosphate and is an essential and key nutrient for the metabolic and biochemical pathways for various reactions including BNF and photosynthesis (Ehrlich 1990; Richardson and Simpson 2011). It exists as organic and inorganic phosphates forms in the soil and is absorbed by the plant in both mono- and dibasic

forms (Glass 1989), but it remains in insoluble forms, hence not available for plant nutrition. The availability of this element depends on its solubility that may be enhanced by the root activity of plant and microorganisms available in the soil. Plant growth-promoting rhizobia have the capacity to convert both organic and inorganic insoluble phosphates compounds in a form accessible to the plant (Igual et al. 2001; Rodríguez et al. 2006). Phosphate-solubilizing bacteria constitute approximately 1–50% of the total population of cultivable microorganisms in the soil (Khan et al. 2009) and solubilize inorganic soil phosphates through the production of organic acids, siderophores, and hydroxyl ions (Rodríguez et al. 2006, Sharma et al. 2013). Several phosphate-solubilizing bacteria belonging to genera *Pseudomonas*, *Bacillus*, *Rhizobium*, *Burkholderia*, *Achromobacter*, *Agrobacterium*, *Micrococcus*, *Aerobacter*, *Flavobacterium*, and *Erwinia* have been isolated from the roots and rhizospheric soil of various plants (Rodríguez et al. 2006; Ambrosini et al. 2012; Farina et al. 2012; Costa et al. 2013; Souza et al. 2013, 2014) and have the ability to solubilize insoluble mineral phosphate, viz., tricalcium phosphate, dicalcium phosphate, hydroxyl apatite, and rock phosphate (Goldstein 1986; Rodríguez and Fraga 1999; Rodríguez et al. 2006).

4.5.4 Other Plant Growth Promotion Mechanisms

The bacteria present in the rhizosphere affect the plant growth directly or indirectly. They improve the uptake of nutrients, produce plant growth-promoting compounds, and protect plant root surfaces from colonization by pathogenic microbes (Mantelin and Touraine 2004). The symbiotic and non-symbiotic bacteria promote plant growth directly through production of hormones (Vivas et al. 2005), plant growth regulators, and other plant growth-promoting activities (Dobbelaere et al. 2003). PGPR has also been used to remediate contaminated soils (Zhuang et al. 2007; Huang et al. 2005) and mineralize organic compounds in association with plants (Saleh et al. 2004). Some of the important genera of bacteria used in bioremediation include *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Methanobacteria*, *Ralstonia*, and *Deinococcus*, etc. (Milton 2007). It has been observed that the application of certain rhizobacteria can increase the uptake of nickel from soils (Rai et al. 2006).

4.5.5 Soil Health

Soil is a heterogeneous mixture of different organisms in which different organic and mineral substances are present in solid, liquid, and gaseous phases (Kabata-Pendias 2004), and the soil structure including size of soil aggregates, their arrangement, and stability is the result of physical forces and natural grouping of particles (Lynch and Bragg 1985). The soil aggregation is influenced by several factors including soil mineralogy, cycles of wetting and drying, soil pH range, and

clay and organic material contents (Majumder and Kuzyakov 2010; Vogel et al. 2014). The fine spatial heterogeneity of soils results in a complex mosaic of gradients selecting for or against bacterial growth (Vos et al. 2013).

Soil health is the capacity of soil to function as a vital living system, within ecosystem. It sustains plant and animal productivity and maintains or improves water and air quality simultaneously promoting the plant health (Doran and Zeiss 2000). The soil type, climate, cropping patterns, use of pesticides and fertilizers, availability of carbon substrates and nutrients, toxic material concentrations, and the presence or absence of specific assemblages and types of organisms are major factor affecting the soil health (Doran and Zeiss 2000; Kibblewhite et al. 2008). The microbial communities provide many potentially indicators for sustainable management of soils (Pulleman et al. 2012), and the flexibility of soil functional is governed by the effects of the physicochemical structure on the composition and physiology of microbial community (Griffiths and Philippot 2012).

4.5.6 Biofertilizer

The soluble nitrogen is one of the most important soil nutrients and its supply to the plants is always a matter of concern and is mainly fulfilled by the chemical fertilizer. Although the atmospheric air contains enormous nitrogen gas, it cannot be used by the plants directly. It must be converted into nitrogenous compounds for the use of plants. Microbes have the ability to perform this action naturally, and *Rhizobium* is the most important microorganism of choice that enters into the roots of legumes and stimulates the plant to form nodules. The plant and the bacteria live in symbiotic coordination. The bacteria get carbohydrates from the host and in return it gives soluble nitrogen to the plant. The plant switches genes in the *Rhizobium* present in the nodule that enables it to convert nitrogen gas into nitrogenous compounds, and this process is known as nitrogen fixation. This was the most important source of nitrogen for agriculture until the early years of this century until the discovery of chemical process for ammonia synthesis in 1909. Gradually farming was mechanized and traditional legume cereal rotations were abandoned as relatively cheap nitrogen fertilizers became commonly available and they appeared more efficient than legumes in increasing grain yields. However, legumes are able to supply more nitrogen for most systems if they were called upon to do so. The worldwide population growth, economic growth, and agricultural productions are the major issues that demanded the use of chemical fertilizers in agriculture (Morel et al. 2012).

The chemical fertilizers have become essential components of modern agriculture, and the current agricultural production depends on the large-scale use of these fertilizers for nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium (Wartiainen et al. 2008; Adesemoye et al. 2009). However, the higher use of chemical fertilizers can cause unanticipated environmental impacts (Adesemoye et al. 2009). The plant growth-promoting bacteria-based inoculation method may be utilized as an

alternative to the chemical fertilizers. The inoculants containing plant growth-promoting bacteria is getting interest worldwide due to expensive nitrogen fertilizers and its adverse effect on the environment, water contamination, acidification of soils, and greenhouse effects (Hungria et al. 2013).

Drawbacks of intensive farming practices and environmental costs of nitrogen and phosphorus fertilizers have renewed interest in biofertilizers. Rhizobia species have been well studied due to their symbiotic relationship with leguminous plants and their agronomical application as inoculants in the cultivation of economic crops (Alves et al. 2004; Torres et al. 2012). The results of in vitro and in vivo efficacy of *S. saheli* strains suggest that their co-inoculation with PGPRs can not only reduce the use of chemical fertilizers but also can significantly enhance yields by increasing plant growth and suppressing soil-borne plant pathogenic fungi (Gautam et al. 2015). The soybean *Bradyrhizobium* association is a good example of the efficiency of BNF, and *B. elkanii* and *B. japonicum* are species commonly used to inoculate this leguminous plant (Alves et al. 2004). PGPRs with ACC deaminase trait usually improve yield and plant growth and thus are good candidates for biofertilizer formulation (Shaharouna et al. 2006a, b). The nitrogen provided by the root-nodulating bacteria is less prone to leaching, volatilization, and denitrification and is therefore considered an important biological process that contributes to sustainable agriculture (Dixon and Kahn 2004).

4.6 Conclusions

Intensive use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides has led to soil fertility degradation and severe health and environmental hazards. By contrast, researches have demonstrated that biofertilizers naturally activate the microorganisms found in the soil being cheaper, effective, and environmental friendly. They are gaining importance for use in crop production, restore the soil's natural fertility, and protect it against drought and soil diseases and therefore stimulate plant growth. Further exploitation of functional diversity, legume–rhizobia gene interactions, and tolerance of efficient rhizobial isolates to the adversities of arid and semiarid regions environments in combination with compatible PGPRs can improve soil health and legume crop production. Concurrently, a better understanding of the interactions of leguminous plants vis-à-vis soil fertility, pest, and diseases shall create opportunities for better, low-cost biological management of soil fertility in arid and semiarid regions environments to make agriculture practices more sustainable and economical. It is right time to generate more supplementary investigations to develop biofertilizer technology to introduce superior strains to produce industrial and commercial biological fertilizers.

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