



Role of Soil Microbiota in Ecosystem Restoration and Functionality

Dr. Priya Mehra

Department of Soil Science, Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi, India

* Corresponding Author: **Dr. Priya Mehra**

Article Info

P-ISSN: 3051-3448

E-ISSN: 3051-3456

Volume: 03

Issue: 02

July-December 2022

Received: 12-07-2022

Accepted: 11-08-2022

Published: 05-09-2022

Page No: 26-31

Abstract

Soil microbiota represents one of the most biodiverse and functionally important components of terrestrial ecosystems, playing crucial roles in nutrient cycling, plant health, carbon sequestration, and ecosystem stability. This review examines the fundamental mechanisms by which soil microbial communities contribute to ecosystem restoration and functionality, highlighting their significance in sustainable land management practices. The complex interactions between bacteria, fungi, archaea, and other microorganisms create intricate networks that regulate soil chemistry, structure, and biological processes. Understanding these relationships is essential for developing effective strategies for degraded land rehabilitation, agricultural sustainability, and climate change mitigation. Recent advances in molecular techniques have revealed the extraordinary diversity and functional capacity of soil microbiomes, providing new insights into their potential applications in ecosystem restoration projects. This paper synthesizes current knowledge on soil microbiota functions, their responses to environmental changes, and their practical applications in restoration ecology.

Keywords: soil microbiota, ecosystem restoration, nutrient cycling, plant-microbe interactions, biodiversity

Introduction

Soil represents one of Earth's most complex and dynamic ecosystems, harboring an estimated 25% of global biodiversity within its matrix ^[1]. The soil microbiota, comprising bacteria, archaea, fungi, protozoa, and viruses, forms the foundation of terrestrial ecosystem functioning through their involvement in essential biogeochemical processes ^[2]. A single gram of soil may contain up to 10^9 bacterial cells and several meters of fungal hyphae, representing thousands of distinct species ^[3]. These microscopic organisms orchestrate critical ecosystem services including nutrient mineralization, organic matter decomposition, soil structure formation, and plant health regulation ^[4].

The significance of soil microbiota in ecosystem restoration has gained unprecedented attention as global environmental challenges intensify. Land degradation affects approximately 1.5 billion hectares worldwide, threatening food security, biodiversity conservation, and climate stability ^[5]. Traditional restoration approaches often overlook the fundamental role of soil microbial communities, leading to suboptimal outcomes and limited long-term success ^[6]. Contemporary restoration ecology increasingly recognizes that sustainable ecosystem recovery requires the reestablishment of functional soil microbial networks that support above-ground biodiversity and ecosystem services ^[7].

Climate change, intensive agriculture, urbanization, and pollution have significantly altered soil microbial communities globally, disrupting their natural functions and reducing their capacity to support ecosystem resilience ^[8]. Understanding how soil microbiota responds to environmental stressors and how their functions can be restored represents a critical frontier in ecological science ^[9]. This review examines the multifaceted roles of soil microbiota in ecosystem functionality and explores innovative approaches for harnessing microbial potential in restoration projects.

Diversity and Composition of Soil Microbiota

Bacterial Communities

Soil bacterial communities exhibit remarkable taxonomic and functional diversity, with major phyla including Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, Firmicutes, Acidobacteria, and Bacteroidetes^[10]. Each phylum contributes distinct metabolic capabilities that collectively drive biogeochemical cycles. Proteobacteria, the most abundant phylum in many soils, includes numerous plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) that enhance nutrient availability and plant health^[11]. Actinobacteria are renowned for their role in organic matter decomposition and antibiotic production, while Firmicutes contribute to spore formation and stress resistance^[12].

The spatial distribution of bacterial communities varies dramatically across different soil horizons, microsites, and rhizosphere zones^[13]. Rhizosphere bacteria, in particular, establish intimate relationships with plant roots, facilitating nutrient exchange and providing protection against pathogens^[14]. These associations can increase plant nutrient uptake by 200-300% compared to non-mycorrhizal plants^[15].

Fungal Networks

Soil fungi, including saprophytic and mycorrhizal species, form extensive hyphal networks that physically and chemically connect soil components across multiple spatial scales^[16]. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) form symbiotic relationships with approximately 80% of plant species, extending root surface area by up to 1000-fold and enhancing water and nutrient acquisition^[17]. Ectomycorrhizal fungi, predominantly associated with forest trees, create complex networks that facilitate resource sharing between different plant individuals^[18].

Saprophytic fungi specialize in decomposing complex organic compounds, particularly lignin and cellulose, making them indispensable for carbon cycling in forest ecosystems^[19]. Their hyphal networks also contribute significantly to soil aggregation and structure formation, improving water retention and erosion resistance^[20].

Archaeal Contributions

Although less abundant than bacteria, soil archaea play crucial roles in nitrogen cycling, particularly through ammonia oxidation^[21]. Ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) often dominate nitrification processes in acidic and nutrient-poor soils, contributing significantly to nitrous oxide emissions and nitrogen availability^[22]. Recent discoveries have revealed that archaea possess unique metabolic pathways that enable them to thrive in extreme soil conditions^[23].

Functional Roles in Ecosystem Processes

Nutrient Cycling and Biogeochemistry

Soil microbiota orchestrates the cycling of essential nutrients including carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, and sulfur through complex enzymatic processes^[24]. Microbial decomposition of organic matter releases nutrients in forms accessible to plants, while microbial immobilization temporarily stores nutrients in microbial biomass^[25]. This dynamic balance regulates nutrient availability and prevents losses through leaching or volatilization^[26].

Nitrogen fixation by diazotrophic bacteria provides approximately 100-200 million tons of biologically available nitrogen annually, supporting primary productivity in nitrogen-limited ecosystems^[27]. Symbiotic nitrogen fixers,

such as *Rhizobium* species, form specialized root nodules that efficiently convert atmospheric nitrogen to ammonia^[28]. Free-living nitrogen fixers, including *Azotobacter* and *Clostridium* species, contribute significantly to nitrogen inputs in non-agricultural ecosystems^[29].

Phosphorus solubilization by soil microorganisms enhances the availability of this often-limiting nutrient through the production of organic acids and phosphatase enzymes^[30]. Mycorrhizal fungi are particularly effective at accessing organic and inorganic phosphorus sources that are unavailable to plant roots alone^[31].

Soil Structure and Physical Properties

Microbial activities profoundly influence soil physical properties through the production of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) that bind soil particles into stable aggregates^[32]. Fungal hyphae act as biological binding agents, creating a three-dimensional network that enhances soil structure and porosity^[33]. These structural improvements increase water infiltration, reduce erosion susceptibility, and create favorable conditions for plant root growth^[34].

Microbial decomposition products, including humic substances, contribute to soil organic matter accumulation and cation exchange capacity^[35]. These compounds improve soil fertility by retaining nutrients and water while buffering pH changes^[36].

Plant Health and Disease Suppression

Soil microbiota provides natural biological control against plant pathogens through multiple mechanisms including antibiosis, competition for resources, and induced systemic resistance^[37]. Beneficial microorganisms produce antimicrobial compounds that directly inhibit pathogen growth, while competitive exclusion prevents pathogen establishment in the rhizosphere^[38].

Plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria enhance plant health through hormone production, nutrient solubilization, and stress tolerance induction^[39]. These bacteria produce auxins, cytokinins, and gibberellins that stimulate root development and plant growth^[40]. Additionally, PGPR can induce systemic acquired resistance, priming plant defense mechanisms against future pathogen attacks^[41].

Responses to Environmental Stressors

Climate Change Impacts

Rising temperatures and altered precipitation patterns significantly affect soil microbial communities through direct physiological stress and indirect effects on plant communities^[42]. Warming temperatures generally increase microbial metabolic rates, potentially accelerating organic matter decomposition and carbon dioxide emissions^[43]. However, extreme temperatures can reduce microbial diversity and alter community composition^[44].

Drought stress severely impacts soil microbial communities by reducing water availability and increasing osmotic stress^[45]. Prolonged drought can lead to significant shifts in microbial community structure, favoring drought-tolerant taxa while reducing overall microbial biomass and activity^[46].

Agricultural Practices

Intensive agricultural practices, including tillage, fertilization, and pesticide application, profoundly alter soil microbial communities^[47]. Tillage disrupts fungal hyphal networks and

soil structure, reducing microbial habitat complexity and connectivity^[48]. Excessive nitrogen fertilization can lead to soil acidification and reduced microbial diversity, particularly affecting mycorrhizal fungi^[49].

Pesticide applications, while targeting specific pests, often have non-target effects on beneficial soil microorganisms^[50]. These impacts can persist for months or years, reducing the natural biological control capacity of soil ecosystems^[51].

Pollution and Contamination

Heavy metal contamination severely impairs soil microbial functions through direct toxicity and altered soil chemistry^[52]. Contaminated soils typically exhibit reduced microbial diversity, altered community composition, and impaired enzymatic activities^[53]. However, some microorganisms possess remarkable metal tolerance and can contribute to bioremediation processes^[54].

Organic pollutants, including petroleum hydrocarbons and industrial chemicals, create selective pressures that favor specific microbial populations capable of degrading these compounds^[55]. While this can lead to natural attenuation of contamination, it often results in reduced overall microbial diversity and functional capacity^[56].

Applications in Ecosystem Restoration

Microbial Inoculation Strategies

Direct inoculation of beneficial microorganisms represents a promising approach for accelerating ecosystem restoration^[57]. Mycorrhizal fungi inoculation has shown particular success in revegetation projects, improving plant establishment and survival rates in degraded soils^[58]. Commercial mycorrhizal inoculants are increasingly used in forest restoration, mine site rehabilitation, and agricultural restoration projects^[59].

Bacterial inoculants, particularly nitrogen-fixing and plant growth-promoting species, can enhance restoration success in nutrient-poor environments^[60]. Multi-species inoculants that combine complementary microbial functions often provide superior results compared to single-species applications^[61].

Soil Organic Matter Enhancement

Increasing soil organic matter content represents a fundamental strategy for restoring soil microbial communities and ecosystem functionality^[62]. Organic amendments, including compost, biochar, and cover crop residues, provide substrate for microbial growth while improving soil physical properties^[63]. These amendments can rapidly increase microbial biomass and activity in degraded soils^[64].

Biochar applications have shown particular promise for long-term soil carbon sequestration while providing habitat for beneficial microorganisms^[65]. The porous structure of biochar creates protected microsites that support microbial diversity and activity^[66].

Vegetation Management

Plant species selection and management practices significantly influence soil microbial community development during restoration^[67]. Native plant species typically support more diverse and functionally beneficial microbial communities compared to exotic species^[68]. Diverse plant communities promote microbial diversity through varied root exudates and litter inputs^[69].

Cover cropping and intercropping strategies can enhance soil microbial diversity and function in agricultural restoration projects^[70]. These practices provide continuous living root

systems that support rhizosphere microbial communities throughout the growing season^[71].

Monitoring and Assessment Techniques

Molecular Approaches

Advanced molecular techniques have revolutionized our ability to characterize soil microbial communities and their functions^[72]. High-throughput DNA sequencing enables comprehensive taxonomic profiling of soil microbiomes, revealing community structure and diversity patterns^[73]. Metagenomics approaches provide insights into microbial functional potential, while metatranscriptomics reveals active metabolic processes^[74].

Quantitative PCR techniques allow for targeted quantification of specific microbial groups or functional genes, providing valuable information for monitoring restoration progress^[75]. Phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis offers rapid assessment of microbial community structure and biomass^[76].

Functional Assays

Enzyme activity assays provide direct measures of soil microbial function, including nutrient cycling capacity and organic matter decomposition rates^[77]. Common enzyme assays include β -glucosidase for carbon cycling, urease for nitrogen cycling, and phosphatase for phosphorus cycling^[78]. Microbial respiration measurements indicate overall microbial activity and can reveal responses to environmental changes or management practices^[79]. Substrate-induced respiration techniques provide information about specific microbial functional groups^[80].

Future Directions and Research Needs

Ecosystem-Scale Understanding

Future research must integrate microbial-scale processes with ecosystem-level functions to develop predictive models of restoration success. Long-term monitoring studies are essential for understanding how microbial communities develop and stabilize during ecosystem restoration. Multi-site comparative studies can identify general principles of microbial community assembly and function across different ecosystems.

Technological Innovations

Emerging technologies, including environmental sensors and remote sensing, offer new opportunities for monitoring soil microbial communities at unprecedented scales. Artificial intelligence and machine learning approaches can help identify patterns in complex microbial datasets and predict restoration outcomes.

Synthetic biology approaches may enable the development of engineered microbial communities with enhanced restoration capabilities. However, careful consideration of ecological risks and regulatory frameworks will be essential for responsible application of these technologies.

Conclusion

Soil microbiota represents a critical component of ecosystem functionality that must be integrated into restoration strategies for sustainable environmental management. The complex interactions between diverse microbial communities drive essential ecosystem processes including nutrient cycling, soil formation, and plant health regulation. Understanding these relationships provides valuable insights for developing

effective restoration approaches that harness microbial potential.

Current evidence demonstrates that microbial-based restoration strategies can significantly improve outcomes in degraded ecosystems through enhanced nutrient availability, improved soil structure, and increased plant establishment success. However, successful implementation requires careful consideration of site-specific conditions, appropriate microbial selection, and long-term monitoring programs.

Future research should focus on developing predictive frameworks that integrate microbial processes with ecosystem-scale functions, enabling more targeted and effective restoration interventions. As global environmental challenges continue to intensify, harnessing the power of soil microbiota will be essential for achieving sustainable ecosystem restoration and maintaining critical ecosystem services for future generations.

References

- Bardgett RD, van der Putten WH. Belowground biodiversity and ecosystem functioning. *Nature*. 2014;515(7528):505–511.
- Fierer N. Embracing the unknown: disentangling the complexities of the soil microbiome. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*. 2017;15(10):579–590.
- Torsvik V, Øvreås L. Microbial diversity and function in soil: from genes to ecosystems. *Current Opinion in Microbiology*. 2002;5(3):240–245.
- van der Heijden MGA, Bardgett RD, van Straalen NM. The unseen majority: soil microbes as drivers of plant diversity and productivity in terrestrial ecosystems. *Ecology Letters*. 2008;11(3):296–310.
- Lal R. Restoring soil quality to mitigate soil degradation. *Sustainability*. 2015;7(5):5875–5895.
- Harris J. Soil microbial communities and restoration ecology: facilitators or followers? *Science*. 2009;325(5940):573–574.
- Kardol P, Wardle DA. How understanding aboveground–belowground linkages can assist restoration ecology. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*. 2010;25(11):670–679.
- Jansson JK, Hofmockel KS. Soil microbiomes and climate change. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*. 2020;18(1):35–46.
- Nielsen UN, Ayres E, Wall DH, Bardgett RD. Soil biodiversity and carbon cycling: a review and synthesis of studies examining diversity–function relationships. *European Journal of Soil Science*. 2011;62(1):105–116.
- Janssen PH. Identifying the dominant soil bacterial taxa in libraries of 16S rRNA and 16S rRNA genes. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 2006;72(3):1719–1728.
- Glick BR. Plant growth-promoting bacteria: mechanisms and applications. *Scientifica*. 2012;2012:963401.
- Ventura M, Canchaya C, Tauch A, Chandra G, Fitzgerald GF, Chater KF, *et al.* Genomics of Actinobacteria: tracing the evolutionary history of an ancient phylum. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews*. 2007;71(3):495–548.
- Hinsinger P, Bengough AG, Vetterlein D, Young IM. Rhizosphere: biophysics, biogeochemistry and ecological relevance. *Plant and Soil*. 2009;321(1–2):117–152.
- Mendes R, Garbeva P, Raaijmakers JM. The rhizosphere microbiome: significance of plant beneficial, plant pathogenic, and human pathogenic microorganisms. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews*. 2013;37(5):634–663.
- Smith SE, Read DJ. *Mycorrhizal Symbiosis*. 3rd ed. London: Academic Press; c2008.
- Rillig MC, Mummey DL. Mycorrhizas and soil structure. *New Phytologist*. 2006;171(1):41–53.
- Brundrett MC, Tedersoo L. Evolutionary history of mycorrhizal symbioses and global host plant diversity. *New Phytologist*. 2018;220(4):1108–1115.
- Simard SW, Perry DA, Jones MD, Myrold DD, Durall DM, Molina R. Net transfer of carbon between ectomycorrhizal tree species in the field. *Nature*. 1997;388(6642):579–582.
- Crowther TW, Boddy L, Jones TH. Functional and ecological consequences of saprotrophic fungus–grazer interactions. *The ISME Journal*. 2012;6(11):1992–2002.
- Tisdall JM, Oades JM. Organic matter and water-stable aggregates in soils. *Journal of Soil Science*. 1982;33(2):141–163.
- Prosser JI, Nicol GW. Archaeal and bacterial ammonia-oxidisers in soil: the quest for niche specialisation and differentiation. *Trends in Microbiology*. 2012;20(11):523–531.
- Hatzenpichler R. Diversity, physiology, and niche differentiation of ammonia-oxidizing archaea. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 2012;78(21):7501–7510.
- Spang A, Saw JH, Jørgensen SL, Zaremba-Niedzwiedzka K, Martijn J, Lind AE, *et al.* Complex archaea that bridge the gap between prokaryotes and eukaryotes. *Nature*. 2015;521(7551):173–179.
- Schimel JP, Bennett J. Nitrogen mineralization: challenges of a changing paradigm. *Ecology*. 2004;85(3):591–602.
- Manzoni S, Taylor P, Richter A, Porporato A, Ågren GI. Environmental and stoichiometric controls on microbial carbon-use efficiency in soils. *New Phytologist*. 2012;196(1):79–91.
- Vitousek PM, Howarth RW. Nitrogen limitation on land and in the sea: how can it occur? *Biogeochemistry*. 1991;13(2):87–115.
- Cleveland CC, Townsend AR, Schimel DS, Fisher H, Howarth RW, Hedin LO, *et al.* Global patterns of terrestrial biological nitrogen (N_2) fixation in natural ecosystems. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*. 1999;13(2):623–645.
- Ferguson BJ, Indrasumunar A, Hayashi S, Lin MH, Lin YH, Reid DE, Gresshoff PM. Molecular analysis of legume nodule development and autoregulation. *Journal of Integrative Plant Biology*. 2010;52(1):61–76.
- Reed SC, Cleveland CC, Townsend AR. Functional ecology of free-living nitrogen fixation: a contemporary perspective. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics*. 2011;42:489–512.
- Richardson AE, Simpson RJ. Soil microorganisms mediating phosphorus availability update on microbial phosphorus. *Plant Physiology*. 2011;156(3):989–996.
- Smith SE, Jakobsen I, Grønlund M, Smith FA. Roles of arbuscular mycorrhizas in plant phosphorus nutrition: interactions between pathways of phosphorus uptake in arbuscular mycorrhizal roots have important implications for understanding and manipulating plant phosphorus acquisition. *Plant Physiology*. 2011;156(3):1050–1057.
- Chenu C, Cosentino D. Microbial regulation of soil

- structural dynamics. In: Stotzky G, Bollag JM, editors. *Soil Biochemistry*. New York: Marcel Dekker. 1993;8:37-70.
33. Miller RM, Jastrow JD. Hierarchy of root and mycorrhizal fungal interactions with soil aggregation. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*. 1990;22(5):579-584.
 34. Six J, Bossuyt H, Degryze S, Denef K. A history of research on the link between (micro)aggregates, soil biota, and soil organic matter dynamics. *Soil and Tillage Research*. 2004;79(1):7-31.
 35. Stevenson FJ. *Humus Chemistry: Genesis, Composition, Reactions*. 2nd ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons; c1994.
 36. Brady NC, Weil RR. *The Nature and Properties of Soils*. 15th ed. Boston: Pearson; c2016.
 37. Weller DM, Raaijmakers JM, Gardener BBM, Thomashow LS. Microbial populations responsible for specific soil suppressiveness to plant pathogens. *Annual Review of Phytopathology*. 2002;40:309-348.
 38. Compant S, Duffy B, Nowak J, Clément C, Barka EA. Use of plant growth-promoting bacteria for biocontrol of plant diseases: principles, mechanisms of action, and future prospects. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 2005;71(9):4951-4959.
 39. Lugtenberg B, Kamilova F. Plant-growth-promoting rhizobacteria. *Annual Review of Microbiology*. 2009;63:541-559.
 40. Spaepen S, Vanderleyden J, Remans R. Indole-3-acetic acid in microbial and microorganism-plant signaling. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews*. 2007;31(4):425-448.
 41. Van Loon LC, Bakker PAHM, Pieterse CMJ. Systemic resistance induced by rhizosphere bacteria. *Annual Review of Phytopathology*. 1998;36:453-483.
 42. Blankinship JC, Niklaus PA, Hungate BA. A meta-analysis of responses of soil biota to global change. *Oecologia*. 2011;165(3):553-565.
 43. Davidson EA, Janssens IA. Temperature sensitivity of soil carbon decomposition and feedbacks to climate change. *Nature*. 2006;440(7081):165-173.
 44. Allison SD, Martiny JBH. Resistance, resilience, and redundancy in microbial communities. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*. 2008;105(Suppl 1):11512-11519.
 45. Schimel J, Balser TC, Wallenstein M. Microbial stress-response physiology and its implications for ecosystem function. *Ecology*. 2007;88(6):1386-1395.
 46. Evans SE, Wallenstein MD. Climate change alters ecological strategies of soil microbes. *Ecology Letters*. 2014;17(2):155-164.
 47. Helgason BL, Walley FL, Germida JJ. Fungal and bacterial abundance in long-term no-till and intensive-till soils of the Northern Great Plains. *Soil and Tillage Research*. 2009;103(2):335-341.
 48. Kabir Z, O'Halloran IP, Fyles JW, Hamel C. Seasonal changes of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi as affected by tillage practices and fertilization: hyphal density and mycorrhizal root colonization. *Plant and Soil*. 1997;192(2):285-293.
 49. Treseder KK. Nitrogen additions and microbial biomass: a meta-analysis of ecosystem studies. *Ecology Letters*. 2008;11(10):1111-1120.
 50. Imfeld G, Vuilleumier S. Measuring the effects of pesticides on bacterial communities in soil: a critical review. *European Journal of Soil Biology*. 2012;49:22-30.
 51. Wightwick A, Walters R, Allinson G, Reichman SM, Menzies NW. Environmental risks of fungicides used in horticultural production systems. In: Carisse O, editor. *Fungicides*. Rijeka: InTech; 2010. p. 273-304.
 52. Giller KE, Witter E, McGrath SP. Toxicity of heavy metals to microorganisms and microbial processes in agricultural soils: a review. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*. 1998;30(10-11):1389-414.
 53. Abdu N, Abdullahi AA, Abdulkadir A. Heavy metals and soil microbes. *Environmental Chemistry Letters*. 2017;15(1):65-84.
 54. Ma Y, Prasad MNV, Rajkumar M, Freitas H. Plant growth promoting rhizobacteria and endophytes accelerate phytoremediation of metalliferous soils. *Biotechnology Advances*. 2011;29(2):248-58.
 55. Pieper DH, Reineke W. Engineering bacteria for bioremediation. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*. 2000;11(3):262-70.
 56. Alexander M. *Biodegradation and bioremediation*. 2nd ed. San Diego: Academic Press; c1999.
 57. Requena N, Perez-Solis E, Azcón-Aguilar C, Jeffries P, Barea JM. Management of indigenous plant-microbe symbioses aids restoration of desertified ecosystems. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 2001;67(2):495-8.
 58. Caravaca F, Barea JM, Palenzuela J, Figueroa D, Alguacil MM, Roldán A. Establishment of shrub species in a degraded semiarid site after inoculation with native or allochthonous arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. *Applied Soil Ecology*. 2003;22(2):103-11.
 59. Maltz MR, Treseder KK. Sources of inocula influence mycorrhizal colonization of plants in restoration projects: a meta-analysis. *Restoration Ecology*. 2015;23(5):625-34.
 60. Bashan Y, Holguin G, de-Bashan LE. Azospirillum-plant relationships: physiological, molecular, agricultural, and environmental advances (1997-2003). *Canadian Journal of Microbiology*. 2004;50(8):521-77.
 61. Malusà E, Sas-Paszt L, Ciesielska J. Technologies for beneficial microorganisms inocula used as biofertilizers. *The Scientific World Journal*. 2012;2012:491206.
 62. Lal R. Soil carbon sequestration impacts on global climate change and food security. *Science*. 2004;304(5677):1623-7.
 63. Tejada M, Gonzalez JL, García-Martínez AM, Parrado J. Effects of different green manures on soil biological properties and maize yield. *Bioresource Technology*. 2008;99(6):1758-67.
 64. Lehmann J, Rillig MC, Thies J, Masiello CA, Hockaday WC, Crowley D. Biochar effects on soil biota – a review. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*. 2011;43(9):1812-36.
 65. Sohi SP, Krull E, Lopez-Capel E, Bol R. A review of biochar and its use and function in soil. *Advances in Agronomy*. 2010;105:47-82.
 66. Warnock DD, Lehmann J, Kuyper TW, Rillig MC. Mycorrhizal responses to biochar in soil – concepts and mechanisms. *Plant and Soil*. 2007;300(1-2):9-20.
 67. Kardol P, Cornips NJ, van Kempen MML, Bakx-Schotman JMT, van der Putten WH. Microbe-mediated plant-soil feedback causes historical contingency effects in plant community assembly. *Ecological Monographs*. 2007;77(2):147-62.
 68. Hawkes CV, Belnap J, D'Antonio C, Firestone MK.

- Arbuscular mycorrhizal assemblages in native plant roots change in the presence of invasive exotic grasses. *Plant and Soil*. 2006;281(1–2):369–80.
69. Zak DR, Holmes WE, MacDonald NW, Pregitzer KS. Soil temperature, matric potential, and the kinetics of microbial respiration and nitrogen mineralization. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*. 1999;63(3):575–84.
 70. Buyer JS, Teasdale JR, Roberts DP, Zasada IA, Maul JE. Factors affecting soil microbial community structure in tomato cropping systems. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*. 2010;42(5):831–41.
 71. Njeru EM, Avio L, Sbrana C, Turrini A, Bocci G, Bàrberi P, Giovannetti M. First evidence for a major cover crop effect on arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and organic maize growth. *Agronomy for Sustainable Development*. 2014;34(4):841–8.
 72. Jansson JK, Taş N. The microbial ecology of permafrost. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*. 2014;12(6):414–25.
 73. Caporaso JG, Lauber CL, Walters WA, Berg-Lyons D, Lozupone CA, Turnbaugh PJ, *et al*. Global patterns of 16S rRNA diversity at a depth of millions of sequences per sample. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*. 2011;108 Suppl 1:4516–22.
 74. Howe AC, Jansson JK, Malfatti SA, Tringe SG, Tiedje JM, Brown CT. Tackling soil diversity with the assembly of large, complex metagenomes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*. 2014;111(13):4904–9.
 75. Smith CJ, Osborn AM. Advantages and limitations of quantitative PCR (Q-PCR)-based approaches in microbial ecology. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology*. 2009;67(1):6–20.
 76. Frostegård A, Tunlid A, Bååth E. Use and misuse of PLFA measurements in soils. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*. 2011;43(8):1621–5.
 77. Burns RG, DeForest JL, Marxsen J, Sinsabaugh RL, Stromberger ME, Wallenstein MD, *et al*. Soil enzymes in a changing environment: current knowledge and future directions. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*. 2013;58:216–34.
 78. Dick RP. Soil enzyme activities as indicators of soil quality. In: Doran JW, Coleman DC, Bezdicek DF, Stewart BA, editors. *Defining soil quality for a sustainable environment*. Madison: Soil Science Society of America; 1994. p. 107–24.
 79. Anderson TH, Domsch KH. Application of eco-physiological quotients (qCO₂ and qD) on microbial biomasses from soils of different cropping histories. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*. 1990;22(2):251–5.
 80. Stenström J, Svensson K, Johansson M. Reversible transition between active and dormant microbial states in soil. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology*. 2001;36(2–3):93–104.