

1 **Microbial inoculants for soil restoration: A Practical Framework for Risk-Governed**  
2 **stewardship**

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10 assessment, release-based stewardship  
11

12 **Abstract**

13 Global soil degradation and increasing reliance on chemical inputs threaten agricultural  
14 sustainability, driving interest in microbial inoculants as tools for soil restoration. These biological  
15 products have the potential to enhance nutrient cycling, improve soil structure, and support plant  
16 resilience, but their environmental release raises important safety and stewardship  
17 considerations. Here, we propose a risk-proportional framework for the responsible deployment  
18 of microbial inoculants grounded in release-based stewardship. The framework integrates  
19 genome-resolved strain identification, exclusionary hazard screening, bioassay-based risk triage,  
20 ecological testing under realistic conditions, and monitored field deployment. Drawing on  
21 evidence from microbial ecology and invasion biology, we highlight how inoculants can alter  
22 resident microbial communities, influence ecosystem function, and, in some cases, facilitate gene  
23 flow, underscoring the need for context-dependent risk assessment. We further outline a  
24 federated, genome-informed data infrastructure to support traceability, cross-jurisdiction learning,  
25 and adaptive management. Together, this approach provides a scalable and scientifically  
26 grounded pathway to balance innovation and safety, enabling microbial technologies to contribute  
27 to soil restoration and climate-resilient agriculture.

## 28 **Sustainability Statement**

29 This work primarily supports SDG 15: Life on Land by advancing a risk-governed framework  
30 for the responsible use of microbial inoculants in soil restoration. The approach is designed  
31 to help recover degraded soils, protect ecosystem functions, and support biodiversity by  
32 integrating genomic screening, ecological testing, and post-release monitoring. By enabling  
33 safer adoption of biological alternatives to intensive chemical inputs, the framework may  
34 contribute to more sustainable land stewardship and regenerative agriculture. Additional  
35 relevant SDGs: SDG 2 (Zero Hunger) and SDG 13 (Climate Action).

36

### 37 **1. A New Paradigm for Risk Assessment in Soil Restoration**

38 The degradation of global soil systems has reached a critical point. Conventional management  
39 practices, characterized by heavy chemical fertilization and intensive tilling, have disrupted natural  
40 microbial processes and degraded soil structure (Albright et al., 2022). Projections suggest that  
41 without intervention, global topsoil may be largely lost by 2050 (Kaminsky et al., 2019). This  
42 urgency is driving rapid interest in microbial inoculants as a tool that may contribute to soil  
43 restoration efforts.

44

45 Continued reliance on intensive chemical inputs carries well-documented cumulative risks  
46 including, soil acidification, nutrient runoff and eutrophication, and suppression of beneficial soil  
47 microbiota and meiofauna, that are difficult to reverse (Li et al., 2024; Baquero et al., 2013).  
48 Microbial inoculants offer an alternative strategy. By introducing living, soil-associated organisms  
49 (typically not genetically modified), microbial inoculants have the potential to restore or reinforce  
50 core biological functions such as nutrient cycling, root-microbe interactions, and soil aggregation  
51 (Santos et al., 2019; Mawarda et al., 2020; Albright et al., 2022).

52

53 However, the intentional release of living organisms into complex ecosystems raises legitimate  
54 safety and stewardship questions. Past biological introductions (intentional or not) have caused  
55 substantial ecological harm, e.g., the spread of the chytrid fungus *Batrachochytrium*  
56 *dendrobatidis*, which decimated amphibian populations worldwide (Schulz et al., 2019), as well  
57 as numerous non-microbial examples where biocontrol measures have failed (Schulz et al.,  
58 2019). These precedents underscore that microbial technologies cannot be assumed to be risk-  
59 free and require rigorous, context-appropriate oversight. In 1975, the landmark Asilomar  
60 Conference established a precedent for managing biological risk (Berg, 2008). That framework  
61 was developed in response to the containment of recombinant DNA. Fifty years later, the 2025  
62 "Spirit of Asilomar" summit recognized that many emerging biological applications, including  
63 microbial soil amendments (Beattie et al., 2025; Marken, 2025), are intended for open  
64 environmental deployment and therefore require an expanded safety toolkit. While the more  
65 recent summit continued to emphasize containment-based biosafety, it also addressed the  
66 release pathogens or GMOs, with what we term release-based stewardship (Chemla et al., 2025).

67  
68 Release-based stewardship treats environmental release of beneficial microorganisms as the  
69 operational context for certain biological technologies and strives to ensure safety through strain-  
70 resolved genomic screening, ecological testing, confined and traceable field evaluation, and post-  
71 release monitoring. This is not a move away from containment-based biosafety, rather, it extends  
72 traditional containment and pre-release controls with open-system stewardship practices, strain-  
73 resolved screening, confined/traceable field evaluation, and post-release monitoring that is  
74 appropriate for the environmental deployment of beneficial microorganisms.

75  
76 However, implementing such a risk-proportional approach is complicated by the present  
77 regulatory landscape. Oversight of microbial inoculants is fragmented across agricultural,  
78 environmental, and public health authorities, resulting in widely varying requirements across

79 jurisdictions and countries. This fragmentation can lead to duplicate testing, limited data  
80 portability, and slower evidence accumulation. We therefore propose a unified, genome-informed  
81 risk assessment and monitoring framework designed to support rigorous yet scalable stewardship  
82 of microbial inoculants for soil restoration. Achieving this in practice will also require policy  
83 alignment and standards-setting to enable data portability, reduce redundant testing, and support  
84 cross-jurisdiction reciprocity.

85  
86 While parallel discussions in the field are examining broader governance models and policy gaps  
87 for environmental release of microbial technologies (Kaminsky et al., 2019) this perspective takes  
88 a complementary approach. Rather than focusing primarily on regulatory theory, we present a  
89 practical, implementation-oriented framework grounded in strain-resolved genomics, ecological  
90 testing, and field-level stewardship. Our goal is to translate ecological and regulatory principles  
91 into actionable guidance for developers, regulators, and practitioners working at the interface of  
92 research and real-world deployment.

93

## 94 **2. Inoculant Impacts and Ecological Constraints**

95 Microbial inoculants can alter the composition and function of recipient soil communities,  
96 sometimes beneficially, often transiently, and in some cases with effects that persist beyond the  
97 intended window of application (Zhang et al., 2026; Zhang et al., 2025; Mawarda et al., 2020; Li  
98 et al., 2024; Francioli et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2021; Papin et al., 2024; Baquero et al., 2013). At  
99 the same time, many soils exhibit strong biotic resistance, where established microbial  
100 communities limit invasion and constrain long-term establishment of introduced strains,  
101 particularly in healthy, undisturbed systems, where high microbial diversity hinders potential  
102 impacts (Van Elsas et al., 2012; Ye et al., 2025; Timmis et al., 2025; Klümper et al., 2024).

103 Together, these observations indicate that measurable shifts in the composition or function of soil  
104 microbial communities can occur even when inoculant persistence is limited. Recognizing this  
105 distinction is central to responsible stewardship because it underscores the need to evaluate both  
106 short-term functional outcomes and potential longer-term ecological effects when assessing  
107 inoculant performance and risk (Mallon et al., 2018).

## 108 2.1 Inoculants Reshape Microbial Community Composition and Genetic Diversity

109 The deliberate introduction of microbial inoculants frequently alters resident soil microbial  
110 communities. In a meta-analysis of 108 studies (Mawarda et al., 2020), 86% showed that  
111 inoculants modified the composition of resident microbial communities. Sometimes these shifts  
112 appeared to be beneficial. For instance, application of a biofertilizer containing *Bacillus*  
113 *amyloliquefaciens* W19 and *Trichoderma guizhouense* NJAU4742 increased the abundance of  
114 taxa with potential antagonistic activity toward plant pathogens (Xiong et al., 2017). Other times,  
115 potentially less desirable effects were noted. For instance, the release of *Sinorhizobium meliloti*  
116 L33 into the rhizosphere reduced the diversity of beneficial *Pseudomonas* species (Schwieger &  
117 Tebbe, 2000).

118 Beyond compositional changes, inoculants can influence the genetic structure of resident  
119 microbial populations through horizontal gene transfer (HGT). Because HGT is a well-known route  
120 for the dissemination of antimicrobial resistance and other high-consequence traits, it is  
121 appropriately viewed as a potential risk mechanism and warrants explicit, strain-resolved scrutiny.  
122 For example, repeated large-scale inoculation of soybean with commercial *Bradyrhizobium*  
123 strains in Brazil resulted in extensive horizontal transfer of symbiotic genes to resident rhizobia  
124 (Barcellos et al., 2007; Batista et al., 2007; Hungria & Mendes, 2015). These observations show  
125 that inoculants can act as vectors of functional trait movement, sometimes beneficial (e.g.,  
126 spreading symbiotic capacity), but potentially harmful if mobile elements carry antimicrobial  
127 resistance, toxin, or virulence-associated loci. Accordingly, HGT risk should be treated as feature-

128 and context-dependent: prioritized for strains with mobility-associated machinery or flagged loci  
129 during genome screening and verified through targeted field monitoring in pre-market trials.

130 In many cases, shifts in community composition translate into measurable changes in soil  
131 functioning. Across multiple studies, inoculation was found to increase activities of phosphatase,  
132 sulfatase, chitinase, esterase, urease, and other enzymes thus favorably impacting nutrient  
133 cycling, fertilization, decomposition, and biocontrol (Mar Vázquez et al., 2000; Wu et al., 2005).  
134 For example, in one study, the introduction of *Paenibacillus mucilaginosus* 3016 was correlated  
135 with increased soil phosphatase enzyme activity (Ma et al., 2018), which resulted in increased  
136 phosphate mobility and availability for plant growth. In other studies, inoculation was associated  
137 with the emergence of disease-suppressive soils (Shen et al., 2015; Xiong et al., 2017), even if  
138 the inoculant does not survive or drops below levels of detection (Deng et al., 2021), underscoring  
139 the potential for inoculants to steer functional outcomes by driving microbial community  
140 reassembly through secondary succession.

## 141 2.2 Constraints on Inoculant Persistence

142 While inoculants can initially reach elevated abundances following application, their relative  
143 abundance in soil microbial communities typically declines over time and often stabilizes at low  
144 levels (<1% of the total community) within weeks (Čaušević et al., 2024). Because most soil taxa  
145 naturally occur at low relative abundance, this pattern suggests that introduced strains may  
146 integrate into existing microbial communities rather than persist as dominant members capable  
147 of broadly restructuring community composition. Functional influence may still occur at low  
148 abundance through metabolic interactions, resource competition, or signaling. Under a release-  
149 based stewardship model, these ecological pressures are not merely hurdles to efficacy, but also  
150 inherent constraints that can limit long-term establishment. However, biotic resistance and post-  
151 application decline cannot be relied upon as safety controls on their own; they are context-  
152 dependent and must be verified empirically within the broader risk framework described below.

153

154 A variety of mechanisms appear to restrict inoculant persistence. Generally, inoculants are  
155 unlikely to be locally adapted to the soils into which they are introduced. Resident microbiota can  
156 produce antibiotics or toxic compounds that can inhibit newcomers (Berg, 2008). Inoculants may  
157 also be susceptible to predation, such as grazing by protists and nematodes and lysis by phages  
158 (Dong et al., 2024). Further, resident microorganisms will already occupy many of the available  
159 functional niches, making it difficult for newcomers to find a foothold (Dong et al., 2024; Marken,  
160 2025).

161

162 Importantly for unintended spread risk, inoculant establishment is strongly context dependent.  
163 Consistent with invasion ecology, disturbed soils (e.g. tilled or otherwise degraded systems) may  
164 offer reduced biotic resistance and increased niche opportunity, facilitating establishment during  
165 restoration (Hibbing et al., 2010; Beattie et al., 2025). In a field setting, the fumigation of diseased  
166 soils prior to introduction of organic fertilizers enriched with *Bacillus* strains led to the development  
167 of disease suppressive soils (Deng et al., 2021). In contrast, intact, less disturbed soils may be  
168 more resistant due to habitat filtering and resident community constraints (Deng et al., 2021;  
169 Klümper et al., 2024; Cheng et al., 2024); these expectations should be verified empirically within  
170 the monitoring framework.

### 171 2.3 Legacy Effects

172 While inoculant persistence is often limited over the longer term, an important finding for risk  
173 assessment is that inoculation-induced effects on community composition often persist even after  
174 the strains decline to low abundance or become undetectable. Numerous studies have reported  
175 lasting shifts in resident communities despite rapid decreases in inoculant population size  
176 (Kozdrój et al., 2004; Mallon et al., 2018). In a field study using luciferase-tagged *Sinorhizobium*  
177 *miloti* L33, the inoculant was detected in adjacent non-inoculated plots following release, and

178 rhizosphere community composition shifted, with reductions in *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus* and  
179 *Pseudomonas* spp. and enrichment of rhizobia, interpreted as a replacement of generalist taxa  
180 by specialists (Schwieger & Tebbe, 2000). These findings showcases that microbial inoculants  
181 can disperse into other sites as well as reorganize resident soil microbiomes in ways that may  
182 underpin not only desired outcomes (e.g., improved nutrient cycling or disease suppression) but  
183 also unintended consequences (e.g., altered diversity or gene flow), underscoring the need to  
184 evaluate community-level responses in risk assessment.

185

### 186 **3. Risk Assessment: A Multi-Tiered Framework for Safety**

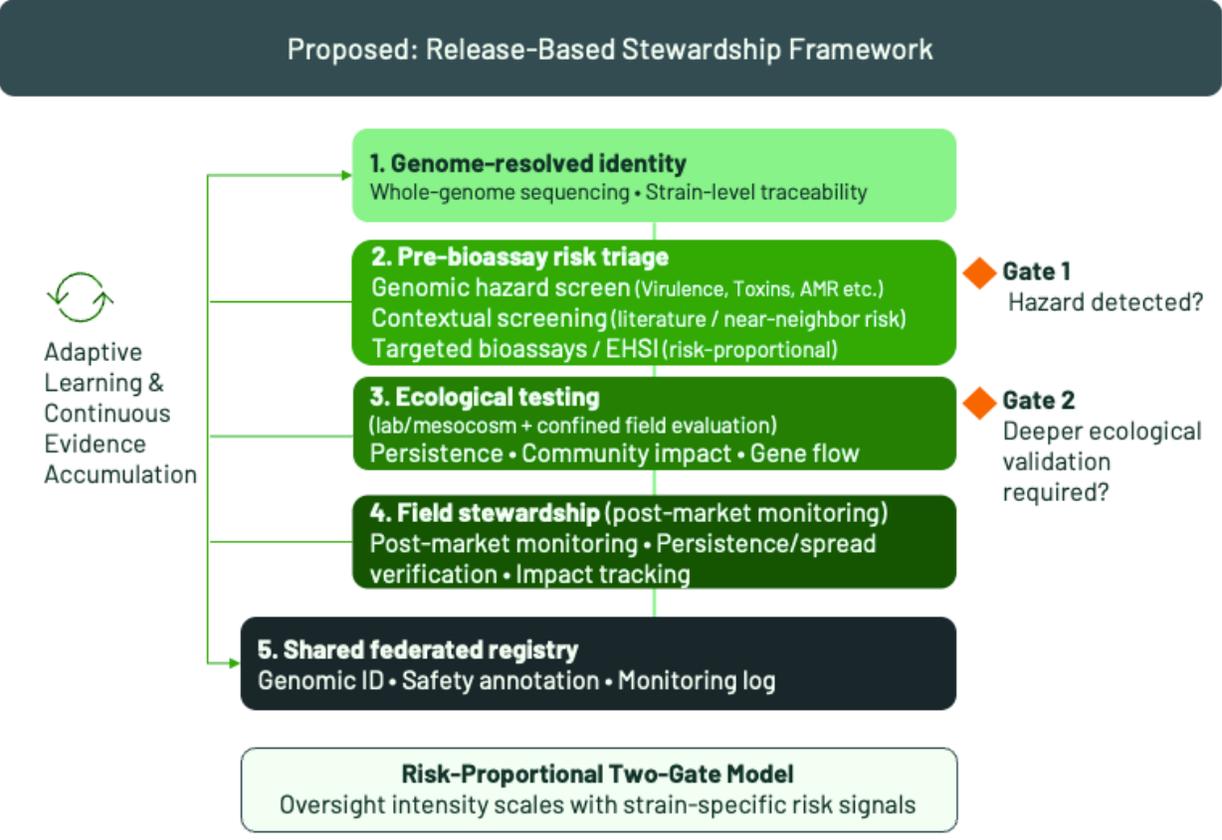
187 Figure 1 summarizes the proposed risk-proportional release-based stewardship framework as  
188 two sequential phases: (I) pre-release risk screening, comprising genome-resolved strain  
189 identification and hazard/bioassay triage, and (II) environmental stewardship, comprising  
190 ecological testing and monitored field deployment. The sections below follow this structure and  
191 outline how each component can be implemented in practice.

192 A proactive safety framework is non-negotiable for the rapidly expanding bioinoculant sector (now  
193 estimated at ~1,000–1,200 companies globally). Moving beyond the "containment-based" limits  
194 of 1975, we propose a framework that treats risk not as inherent to the category, but as strain-  
195 and context-dependent. A practical framework must therefore distinguish (i) immediate biosafety  
196 risks (pathogenicity/toxicity) from (ii) long-term ecological risks (establishment, spread, and  
197 impact), and it must do so with strain-resolved genomics and standardized, scalable testing. A  
198 prerequisite to the Proposed Release-based Stewardship Framework is that the bioinoculant  
199 actually contains the microbial species stated by the manufacturer, and without the presence of  
200 other non-disclosed microorganisms or other plant growth enhancing products such as fertilizers.  
201 For example, the arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal (AMF) inoculum industry represents an almost  
202 annual 1 billion US\$ market. Of the AMF products commercially available, many do not contain  
203 the fungal species stated by the manufacturer and most are produced in non-sterile substrate that

204 contains an undefined microbiome composed of other diverse bacterial and fungal species  
 205 (Vahter et al., 2023; Koziol et al., 2025; Boussageon et al., 2025). There is clearly a need for strict  
 206 product quality control of commercial products before further risk assessment steps are  
 207 undertaken.

208  
 209 The stewardship framework presented in Figure 1 follows four sequential components: (1)  
 210 genome-resolved strain identification, (2) bioassay-based risk triage, (3) ecological testing under  
 211 realistic conditions, and (4) monitored field deployment. The sections below describe the  
 212 implementation of each component.

213



214

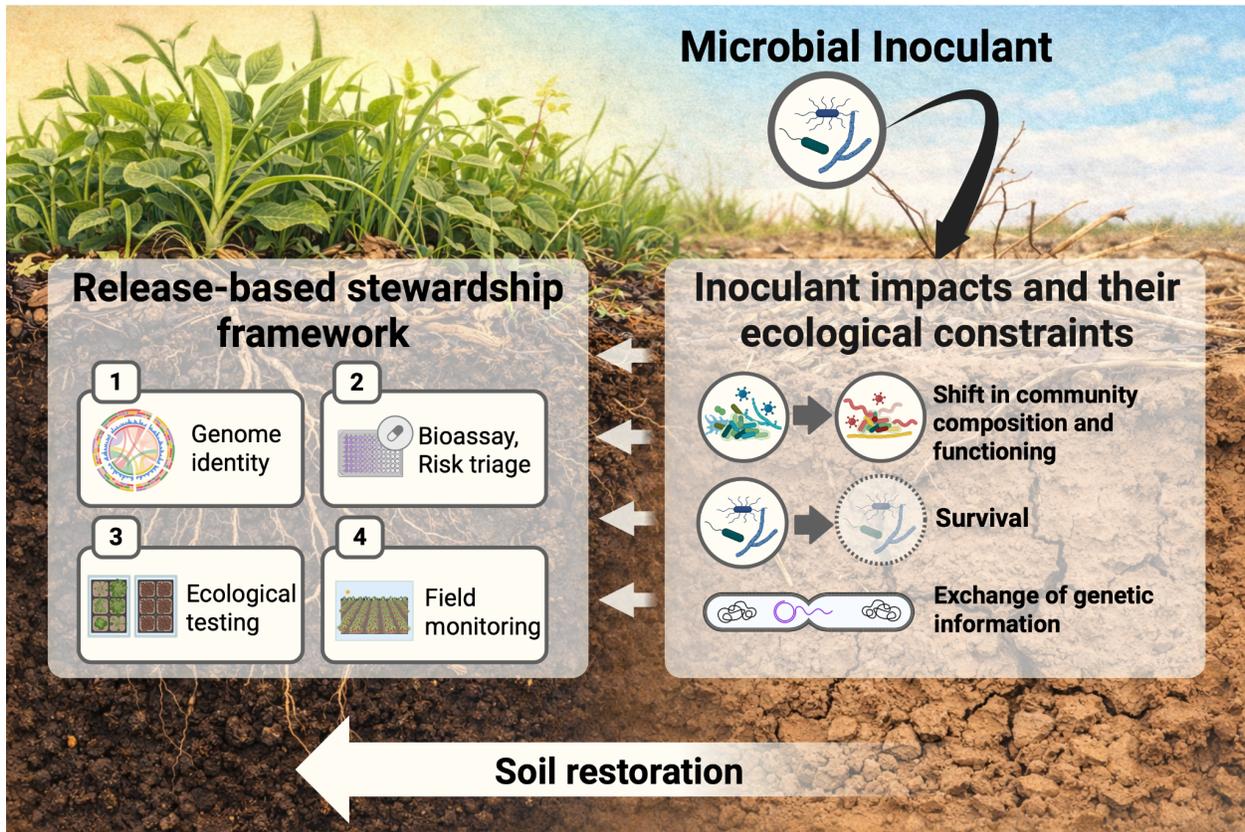
215 **Figure 1. Risk-proportional release-based stewardship framework for microbial inoculants.**

216 The proposed framework integrates genome-resolved strain identification, exclusionary hazard

217 screening, ecological testing, and monitored field stewardship within a structured, risk-  
218 proportional decision pathway. Candidate strains first undergo whole-genome–based identity  
219 confirmation and exclusionary screening for virulence factors, toxins, antimicrobial resistance  
220 (AMR), and mobility-associated elements (Gate 1). Strains that pass this stage proceed to  
221 contextual ecological evaluation and monitored field trials to assess establishment, community  
222 impacts, and gene-flow risk (Gate 2). Oversight intensity scales with strain-specific risk signals  
223 rather than taxonomic category alone. A federated global registry links genomic identifiers, safety  
224 annotations, ecological performance, and regulatory outcomes to enable traceability, cross-  
225 jurisdiction learning, and adaptive stewardship over time.

### 226 3.1 Pre-release risk screening: genome identity and hazard/bioassay triage (Steps 1–2, Figure 1)

227 The most consequential failure mode for the entire field would be an inoculant linked to disease  
228 in crops, livestock, wildlife, and humans. Even rare events would disproportionately damage  
229 public trust and regulatory confidence. Immediate-risk assessment should therefore begin with  
230 exclusionary screening - a set of criteria that, if triggered, disqualifies a candidate strain regardless  
231 of efficacy.



232

233 **Figure 2. Release-based stewardship framework for microbial inoculants in soil**

234 **restoration.** Microbial inoculants can influence soil ecosystems through shifts in community

235 composition and function, survival of introduced strains, and exchange of genetic information with

236 resident microbiota. We propose a risk-proportional release-based stewardship framework to

237 guide responsible environmental deployment, integrating four steps: (1) genome-resolved strain

238 identification and hazard screening, (2) bioassay-based risk triage, (3) ecological testing under

239 realistic conditions, and (4) monitored field deployment. Together, these components link

240 ecological risk assessment with practical oversight to support safe and effective use of microbial

241 inoculants in soil restoration.

242

243 An important consideration is whether risks that appear negligible when strains are evaluated

244 individually could emerge when multiple strains are combined in a consortium. In principle,

245 microbial interactions can generate emergent behaviors through metabolic cross-feeding,  
246 signaling interactions, or horizontal gene transfer. However, high-consequence hazard traits such  
247 as virulence factors, toxin production, and clinically relevant antimicrobial resistance are  
248 overwhelmingly strain-encoded and therefore detectable through genome-resolved screening. As  
249 a result, exclusionary genomic and bioassay gates substantially reduce the likelihood that  
250 hazardous phenotypes would arise de novo through strain combination alone.

251 Nevertheless, because ecological interactions can influence persistence, abundance, and  
252 functional expression, the framework explicitly incorporates consortia-level ecological testing and  
253 monitored field evaluation (Section 3.2) to verify that no unintended community-level or functional  
254 risks emerge under realistic conditions. Empirical evidence suggests that the coalescence of  
255 microbial communities follows similar patterns as those observed for individual strains, being  
256 constrained by competition with the native microbiome and limited survival (Liu and Salles, 2024a  
257 and b). Below we discuss the important steps to design stewardship framework for microbial  
258 inoculants.

259 Step 1: Strain-resolved identity and placement relative to high-concern clades (beyond 16S, 18S  
260 and ITS).

261 Whole-genome sequencing (WGS) should be treated as the baseline for commercial candidate  
262 strains because conserved marker sequencing (e.g., 16S or 18S rRNA and ITS) often cannot  
263 resolve within-species lineages that differ in hazard potential. WGS also provides the resolution  
264 needed to identify genetic features relevant to both beneficial function and potential risk. The  
265 purpose of Step 1 is to establish strain-resolved identity and near-neighbor placement relative to  
266 known pathogenic or regulated clades. Raw or assembled DNA sequence reads should be  
267 assigned to candidate taxa using curated genomic reference databases, and confirmed by  
268 genome-to-genome comparisons using Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI; e.g.,  $\geq 95\%$  as a  
269 common species-level benchmark) (Konstantinidis and Tiedje, 2005) with higher-resolution

270 thresholds or complementary analyses applied when close relatives or regulated taxa require finer  
271 discrimination. Lineage-aware tools (Zhang et al., 2026) can further support strain-group  
272 classification in clades containing known hazards. Importantly, phylogenetic distance from  
273 recognized pathogenic clades should not be interpreted as evidence of safety on its own, because  
274 strains that are distantly related to known pathogens may still encode virulence-associated,  
275 toxigenic, antimicrobial-resistance, or mobility-linked traits that warrant concern and are therefore  
276 evaluated explicitly in subsequent screening steps.

277 Step 2: Evidence-based contextual screening to interpret Step 1 and triage downstream testing.

278 Step 2 is distinct from genomic feature screening (Steps 3–4): it is a targeted literature and  
279 evidence review conducted after identity is established to determine what is already known about  
280 the candidate taxon/strain group (and close relatives) with respect to disease associations,  
281 opportunistic pathogenicity, toxin production, antimicrobial resistance history, or high-risk  
282 ecological behaviors. This context is not sufficient alone to establish safety, but it informs how  
283 Step 1 placement should be interpreted (e.g., whether a clade has documented pathogenic  
284 members) and helps triage the depth of downstream genomic scrutiny and bioassays.

285 Step 3: Genome-informed virulence screening.

286 Candidate genomes should be screened against curated virulence databases such as the  
287 Virulence Factor Database (VFDB) (Zhang et al., 2023) and secretion-system resources such as  
288 SecReT6 (Li et al., 2016) and against curated antimicrobial-resistance gene databases (e.g.,  
289 CARD, ResFinder, or AMRFinderPlus) (Jia et al., 2017; Bortolaia et al., 2020). This step functions  
290 independently of phylogenetic proximity to known pathogens: even strains that are distantly  
291 related to recognized pathogenic clades may still carry virulence-associated, toxigenic,  
292 resistance, or mobility-linked features that justify flagging the candidate as a strain of concern for  
293 deployment. In this way, genome-informed screening complements taxonomic placement by  
294 ensuring that trait-based hazards are not overlooked simply because a candidate falls outside a  
295 known high-risk lineage.

296 Step 4: Horizontal gene transfer (HGT) and mobility assessment.

297 Because virulence and antimicrobial resistance traits can be acquired and disseminated through  
298 mobile genetic elements, candidate genomes should be screened for mobility-linked hazard  
299 potential (not merely evidence of historical HGT) (Partridge et al., 2018) Specifically, screening  
300 should (i) identify plasmids, integrative conjugative elements, transposons, integrons, and  
301 prophages, (ii) assess whether these elements carry clinically or agriculturally relevant resistance  
302 genes, virulence factors, toxin genes, or secretion-system islands, and (iii) evaluate evidence for  
303 recent or active mobility (e.g., intact conjugation machinery, relaxases/oriT, transposition  
304 modules, or clustered resistance cassettes). Candidates with mobile elements carrying high-  
305 consequence traits should be excluded or subjected to heightened scrutiny, whereas genomes  
306 with mobile elements lacking such traits may proceed with documentation and appropriate  
307 monitoring. This step is especially important for taxa known to exchange pathogenicity islands or  
308 rapidly acquire resistance under selection.

309 Step 5: Environmental and Human Safety Index (EHSI).

310 Genomics can identify hazard potential, but bioassays are needed to evaluate organism-level  
311 effects under realistic exposure conditions. A pragmatic approach is to integrate results from  
312 existing standardized ecotoxicology and biosafety assays (e.g., impacts on representative soil  
313 fauna, beneficial insects, aquatic proxies, non-target plants, and small mammals) into a composite  
314 interpretive framework such as the Environmental and Human Safety Index (EHSI) (Zhang et al.,  
315 2023; Mawarda et al., 2020). Importantly, this does not propose a new universal testing battery;  
316 rather, it provides a structured way to synthesize outcomes from assays that are already widely  
317 used in microbial biopesticide and biostimulant evaluation (e.g., OECD/EPA guideline tests).  
318 Under a risk-proportional model, only the subset of assays relevant to the candidate strain, use  
319 pattern, and exposure pathway would be required. The resulting index provides an interpretable  
320 “go/no-go” gate aligned with emerging biostimulant regulatory philosophies while remaining  
321 feasible for large-scale screening.

322 3.2 Environmental stewardship: ecological testing and monitored field deployment (Steps 3–4,  
323 Figure 1)

324 *Decision rule:* Candidate strains must pass both exclusionary genomic/bioassay  
325 screening (Section 3.1) and structured ecological field evaluation before commercial  
326 release.

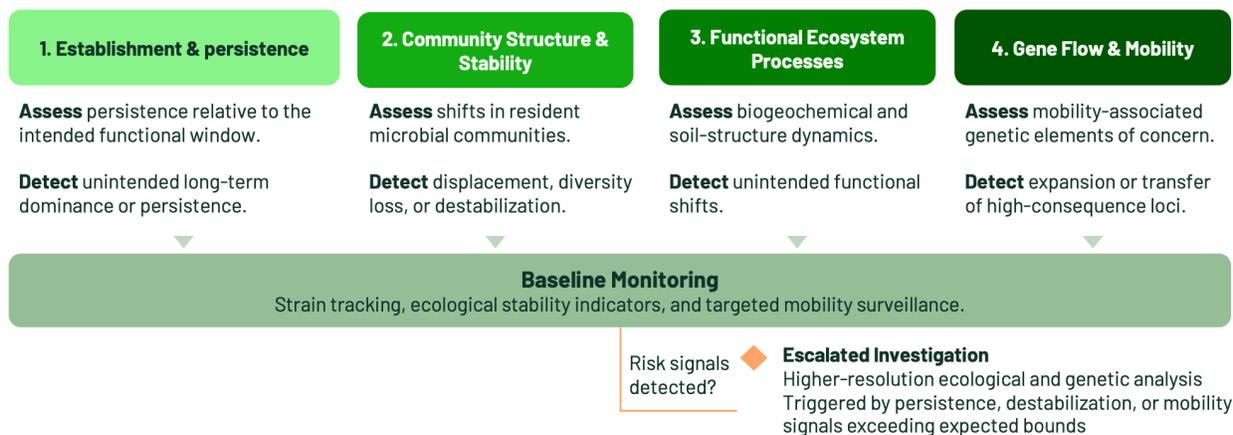
327 Even when acute biosafety risks are excluded, there is still a potential for undesirable ecological  
328 consequences. This includes the possibility that interaction effects within multi-strain consortia  
329 could alter persistence, functional expression, or ecological impact relative to single-strain  
330 behavior, and therefore warrants explicit evaluation under field-realistic conditions. One would  
331 adopt an invasion-ecology framework in which risk is conceptualized as a progression:  
332 introduction → establishment → spread → impact (Mallon et al., 2015). Field stewardship must  
333 therefore critically evaluate each stage empirically.

334 In this context, impact refers specifically to unintended ecological disruption, not intended  
335 agronomic or restoration benefits. While beneficial impacts (e.g., yield increase, improved soil  
336 aggregation, enhanced nutrient use efficiency) are often desired outcomes, ecological risk  
337 assessment focuses on detecting adverse consequences such as displacement or suppression  
338 of native beneficial taxa, persistent dominance beyond expected functional windows, altered  
339 nutrient-cycling trajectories (e.g., excess N mineralization or immobilization), destabilization of  
340 disease-suppressive communities, horizontal transfer of high-consequence traits, off-site  
341 movement into non-target habitats. Distinguishing intended functional outcomes from unintended  
342 ecological disruption is central to responsible deployment. This includes the possibility that  
343 interaction effects within multi-strain consortia could alter persistence, functional expression, or  
344 ecological impact relative to single-strain behavior, and therefore warrants explicit evaluation  
345 under field-realistic conditions.

346 **3.2.1 Ecological Testing (confined but realistic)**

347 Prior to commercial authorization or broad agricultural deployment, we recommend that pre-  
348 market field trials should be conducted under realistic agronomic conditions while remaining  
349 geographically and operationally bounded to allow traceability and monitoring. “Contained” in this  
350 context does not imply physical enclosure, but rather controlled deployment within defined spatial  
351 and management parameters, as well as the monitoring of non-target functions and microbiomes  
352 to infer potential undesired impacts. This includes plot-level application, spatial separation from  
353 sensitive habitats where appropriate, strain-resolved traceability, and a predefined monitoring  
354 window aligned with the intended functional duration of the inoculant.

355 These trials should evaluate both intended agronomic performance and potential ecological risk  
356 indicators. Monitoring should be structured around four core domains as follows (Figure 3):



357

358 **Figure 3. Conceptual framework for tiered environmental monitoring of microbial**  
359 **inoculants after field release.** Monitoring is organized into four domains: establishment and  
360 persistence of inoculant strains, community structure and stability of resident microbiomes,  
361 functional ecosystem processes, and gene flow and mobility. Baseline monitoring includes strain  
362 tracking, ecological stability indicators, and targeted surveillance of mobility-associated loci.  
363 Detection of persistence, destabilization, or mobility signals beyond expected bounds triggers

364 escalated investigation using higher-resolution ecological and genetic analyses. This risk-  
365 proportional approach is designed to provide scientifically defensible and operationally feasible  
366 monitoring aligned with genomic features, deployment context, and product claims.

### 367 1. Establishment and Persistence.

368 Inoculant strain-resolved detection (e.g., strain-specific qPCR or genome-resolved omics) should  
369 be used to confirm establishment and track abundance over time. Monitoring should assess  
370 whether persistence aligns with the intended functional window and whether unexpected long-  
371 term dominance occurs. This domain represents the recommended baseline for all monitored  
372 releases. Conceptually, introduced inoculants can be viewed as ecological invaders entering an  
373 established microbial community, where success depends on overcoming sequential filters such  
374 as colonization, competition with resident taxa, and environmental constraints. Tracking  
375 population trajectories of introduced strains over time therefore provides critical information on  
376 invasion success, persistence dynamics, and ecological integration within the resident  
377 microbiome (McMullen & Lennon, 2023).

### 378 2. Community Structure and Stability.

379 Community profiling using marker-gene sequencing or other microbiome-resolved methods  
380 should be used to assess shifts in resident microbial communities, including potential changes in  
381 the relative abundance or occurrence of native taxa following inoculant application?”. Diversity  
382 metrics, indicators of community stability, and evidence for changes in the presence or relative  
383 abundance of taxa with putative key ecological roles can provide early signals of unintended  
384 ecological disruption. This domain is particularly informative when the risk of community  
385 perturbation is plausible, such as under repeated applications, in sensitive ecosystems, or when  
386 novel taxa are introduced, and in cases where product claims depend on microbiome  
387 restructuring.

### 388 3. Functional Ecosystem Processes.

389 Trials should evaluate key biogeochemical and soil-structure indicators, such as soil respiration  
390 and carbon flux, nitrogen cycling dynamics (e.g., nitrification or denitrification potential), soil  
391 aggregate stability, and pathogen suppression capacity. These measurements help distinguish  
392 beneficial functional shifts from unintended trajectory changes. This domain is most relevant  
393 where claims depend on biogeochemical outcomes or where functional assurance is required by  
394 regulators or stakeholders.

#### 395 4. Gene Flow and Mobility

396 Gene-flow surveillance is most relevant for candidate strains that (i) encode plasmids, integrative  
397 elements, or other mobility-associated machinery; (ii) contain resistance-, toxin-, or virulence-  
398 associated loci of regulatory concern; (iii) belong to taxa with documented horizontal gene transfer  
399 activity; or (iv) are intended for repeated or large-scale environmental deployment. Candidate  
400 strains should first undergo genome-level screening for mobile genetic elements, resistance loci,  
401 virulence factors, and associated transfer machinery (Section 3.1). Field surveillance then verifies  
402 that these elements do not expand, mobilize, or appear in new hosts under agronomic conditions.

403 Recognizing the practical constraints of field-based monitoring, implementing all domains at high  
404 resolution for every strain and deployment would rarely be proportionate in agronomic settings.  
405 We therefore emphasize a tiered, risk-proportional approach in which a minimum baseline is  
406 applied broadly and additional monitoring components are triggered by genomic features,  
407 deployment context, or claim requirements. The goal is not exhaustive environmental  
408 characterization, but decision-relevant monitoring that is scientifically defensible and operationally  
409 feasible.

410 At minimum, trials should include strain-resolved tracking of the inoculant (e.g., strain-specific  
411 qPCR/ddPCR or metagenomic read-mapping) together with a targeted mobility watchlist (e.g.,  
412 integron markers such as *int1*, mobility-associated loci, and any resistance or virulence genes  
413 flagged during genome screening). If genomic features or field signals indicate elevated concern,

414 such as mobile elements carrying high-consequence loci, unexpected persistence, or sustained  
415 increases in watchlist markers, monitoring can escalate to higher-resolution approaches capable  
416 of linking loci to mobile elements and hosts (e.g., targeted metagenomics or isolate-based  
417 confirmation where warranted).

418 To ensure interpretability, trials should include untreated and standard-management controls.  
419 This enables detection of deviations specifically attributable to inoculant deployment rather than  
420 background variability.

421 **3.2.2 Post-market monitoring and adaptive stewardship** Because soils are spatially and  
422 temporally dynamic, stewardship should extend beyond initial field validation. Post-market  
423 monitoring should verify that inoculant abundance trajectories align with the intended use profile  
424 of the product (e.g. transient vs. persistent), d, that no adverse ecological signatures emerge and  
425 that functional outcomes remain within expected bounds. Importantly, persistence is not  
426 inherently undesirable: for some applications (e.g., symbiotic or soil-structural functions),  
427 establishment may be necessary for efficacy, whereas for others a one-time application may be  
428 sufficient. Monitoring should therefore evaluate persistence relative to product intent and  
429 ecological context, rather than against a single universal expectation.

430 Similarly, while stewardship frameworks aim to minimize unintended spread, complete spatial  
431 containment of microorganisms in open agricultural systems cannot be assumed. Microbial  
432 movement via wind, water, biotic vectors, or soil transport is well established. The objective of  
433 post-market monitoring is therefore not to presume immobility, but to verify that any dispersal  
434 remains ecologically benign and consistent with upstream genomic and ecological risk  
435 assessments. Monitoring frameworks should be harmonized across regions to enable cross-site  
436 comparison and data sharing. However, standardized global ecological risk metrics for microbial

437 inoculants remain underdeveloped; establishing comparable indicators for establishment, spread,  
438 and ecological impact therefore represents an important priority for the field.

#### 439 **4. A Shared Database for Inoculant Stewardship (federated global registry)**

440 If inoculant risk is contingent on strain identity and ecological context, then effective stewardship  
441 depends on two basic capabilities: (i) knowing precisely which strain is being released, and (ii)  
442 knowing what evidence already exists about its safety and ecological behavior. Achieving this at  
443 scale will require a shift from today's fragmented oversight, spread across agricultural,  
444 environmental, and public-health authorities, to a more harmonized, evidence-accumulating  
445 system that can share knowledge across companies, agencies, and countries.

446 The current fragmented landscape is not merely an administrative hurdle; it is a barrier to  
447 responsible scaling. Safety and performance data are often held in silos, and similar studies are  
448 repeated across jurisdictions because prior results cannot be easily discovered, compared, or  
449 trusted. The result is an efficiency trap in which developers and regulators repeatedly re-establish  
450 that a well-characterized strain lacks pathogenicity or toxin potential, slowing deployment of tools  
451 that could support soil restoration and climate resilience.

452 To address this, we propose a living, federated global registry for inoculant stewardship that links  
453 strain-resolved genomic identifiers to standardized risk screening, ecological testing, field  
454 monitoring, and regulatory outcomes. If a strain has already undergone whole-genome  
455 sequencing and rigorous exclusionary screening, those results should be discoverable and  
456 portable, so that the strain's safety profile can travel with it across projects and jurisdictions,  
457 subject to context-specific constraints and monitoring requirements. By enabling responsible  
458 knowledge transfer, the registry would reduce redundant testing, accelerate high-integrity  
459 deployment, and create a feedback loop in which academic research informs industrial standards  
460 and real-world monitoring improves scientific understanding.

461 A registry of this scope will require durable governance, resourcing, and incentives. We therefore  
 462 envision a federated model in which the core strain identifier layer and minimum metadata  
 463 standards are curated by a neutral steward (for example, a consortium involving regulators,  
 464 standards bodies, and academic centers), while detailed datasets remain distributed across  
 465 institutional or company repositories with controlled access where needed (Table 1). Maintenance  
 466 could be supported through a mixed model of public funding (treating the registry as enabling  
 467 infrastructure), membership fees from participating companies, and journal/funder requirements  
 468 for deposition of standardized safety and monitoring outputs. Adoption would be accelerated by  
 469 aligning the registry with regulatory submissions, so participation reduces duplicate testing and  
 470 speeds cross-jurisdiction reciprocity, while offering clear value to contributors: faster review,  
 471 clearer traceability, and a shared evidence base for responsible deployment.

472 **Table 1. Proposed Federated Registry Architecture for Inoculant Stewardship**

Layer	Purpose	Core Components	Why It Matters
<b>1. Genomic Identifier Layer (Anchor)</b>	Establish strain-resolved identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• whole-genome sequencing (WGS)</li> <li>• stable strain IDs</li> <li>• reference genome / assembly version + QC metrics (coverage, contamination/completeness)</li> <li>• ANI thresholds</li> <li>• versioned taxonomy alignment (e.g., GTDB updates)</li> <li>• deposit/location of sequences (e.g., controlled-access link, accession IDs)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• prevents misidentification</li> <li>• enables exclusionary hazard screening</li> <li>• ensures traceability across jurisdictions</li> <li>• prevents “same strain ID, different genome” problems and makes the identifier portable</li> </ul>
<b>2. Stewardship &amp; Provenance Metadata</b>	Contextualize strain use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• strain origin</li> <li>• intended-use environment</li> <li>• intended functional duration (transient vs persistent)</li> <li>• formulation</li> <li>• deployment geography</li> <li>• prior use history</li> <li>• application method + dose + frequency</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• risk is context-dependent — ecological behavior cannot be interpreted without use metadata</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• crop/host + soil type + management context (tillage, irrigation, etc.)</li> </ul>	
<b>3. Risk-Screening Repository</b>	Archive exclusionary hazard screening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• virulence-factor screening (e.g., VFDB)</li> <li>• ARG database outputs (CARD/ResFinder/AMRFinderPlus)</li> <li>• toxin genes</li> <li>• AMR loci</li> <li>• mobility-linked elements (plasmids, ICEs, prophages)</li> <li>• bioassay outputs</li> <li>• decision rule / thresholds used (what triggers exclude vs monitor)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• provides transparent “go/no-go” documentation</li> <li>• reduces redundant testing across regions</li> </ul>
<b>4. Ecological Testing &amp; Performance Data</b>	Evaluate establishment and impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• persistence/decline kinetics</li> <li>• baseline and controls definition (untreated, standard practice)</li> <li>• sampling design metadata (timepoints, replicates)</li> <li>• spread assessments;</li> <li>• community composition shifts;</li> <li>• nutrient-cycling indicators;</li> <li>• non-target effects;</li> <li>• functional outcomes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• distinguishes intended benefits from unintended ecological disruption</li> <li>• supports adaptive stewardship</li> <li>• makes results comparable across jurisdictions and avoids “apples vs oranges</li> </ul>
<b>5. Regulatory &amp; Monitoring Log</b>	Enable reciprocity and adaptive governance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• prior regulatory decisions;</li> <li>• approval conditions;</li> <li>• post-market monitoring data;</li> <li>• time-stamped updates</li> <li>• adverse event reporting / incident log (even if rare)</li> <li>• versioning of regulatory status (approved/conditional / withdrawn + dates)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• allows safety profile to travel with strain;</li> <li>• supports cross-border harmonization and long-term oversight</li> <li>• provides an adaptive stewardship system rather than a static archive</li> </ul>

473

474 Soil restoration cannot wait. Microbial inoculants offer real potential to improve crop resilience

475 and accelerate ecosystem recovery, but that potential will only be realized through a more

476 coherent, strain-resolved stewardship model. We call for a shift from fragmented regulation

477 toward a release-based, risk-proportional framework that combines genome-resolved identity,  
478 exclusionary safety screening, contextual ecological evaluation, and monitored field deployment.  
479 Safety data and field outcomes should be captured in shared infrastructure so knowledge can  
480 accumulate across projects and jurisdictions rather than restart each time. Microbial inoculants  
481 should be governed neither as inherently safe nor inherently suspect, but as context-dependent  
482 restoration tools whose responsible use depends on strain identity, ecological setting, and long-  
483 term stewardship. The urgent task now is to operationalize this framework so biological innovation  
484 can scale with rigor, reciprocity, and continuous learning.

485

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487

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489

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491

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