

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

3 Authors: Anna Edlund ¹, Gwyn A. Beattie², Joana Falcao Salles ^{3,4}, Jack A. Gilbert ^{5,6,7}, Janet K.
4 Jansson ⁸, Jay T. Lennon ⁹, Jennifer B.H. Martiny ¹⁰, Ian R. Sanders ¹¹, Christopher W. Schadt ¹²,
5 Carsten Suhr Jacobsen ¹³, Matthew Sullivan ^{14,15,16}

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7 Corresponding author: Anna Edlund, Oath Inc., 101 Montgomery Street, Suite 150, The Presidio
8 of San Francisco, San Francisco CA 94129, USA, email: anna@oathbiome.com

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11 assessment, release-based stewardship

12
13 **Abstract**

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

26 Together, this approach provides a scalable and scientifically grounded pathway to balance
27 innovation and safety, enabling microbial technologies to contribute to soil restoration and climate-
28 resilient agriculture.

29

30 **Sustainability Statement**

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

38

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

40 The degradation of global soil systems has reached a critical point. Conventional management
41 practices, characterized by heavy chemical fertilization and intensive tilling, have disrupted natural
42 microbial processes and degraded soil structure (Albright et al., 2022). Projections suggest that
43 without intervention, global topsoil may be largely lost by 2050 (Kaminsky et al., 2019). This
44 urgency is driving rapid interest in microbial inoculants as a tool that may contribute to soil
45 restoration efforts. Continued reliance on intensive chemical inputs carries well-documented
46 cumulative risks including, soil acidification, nutrient runoff and eutrophication, and suppression
47 of beneficial soil microbiota and meiofauna, that are difficult to reverse (Li et al., 2024). Microbial
48 inoculants offer an alternative strategy. By introducing living, soil-associated organisms (typically
49 not genetically modified), microbial inoculants have the potential to restore or reinforce core
50 biological functions such as nutrient cycling, root-microbe interactions, and soil aggregation
51 (Mawarda et al., 2020; Albright et al., 2022). However, the intentional release of living organisms

52 into complex ecosystems raises legitimate safety and stewardship questions. Past biological
53 introductions (intentional or not) have caused substantial ecological harm, e.g., the spread of the
54 chytrid fungus *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*, which decimated amphibian populations
55 worldwide, as well as numerous non-microbial examples where biocontrol measures have failed
56 (Schulz et al., 2019). These precedents underscore that microbial technologies cannot be
57 assumed to be risk-free and require rigorous, context-appropriate oversight. In 1975, the
58 landmark Asilomar Conference established a precedent for managing biological risk (Berg, 2008).
59 That framework was developed in response to the containment of recombinant DNA. Fifty years
60 later, the 2025 "Spirit of Asilomar" summit recognized that many emerging biological applications,
61 including microbial soil amendments (Beattie et al., 2025; Marken, 2025), are intended for open
62 environmental deployment and therefore require an expanded safety toolkit. While the more
63 recent summit continued to emphasize containment-based biosafety, it also addressed the
64 release pathogens or GMOs, with what we term release-based stewardship (Chemla et al., 2025).
65
66 Release-based stewardship treats environmental release of beneficial microorganisms as the
67 operational context for certain biological technologies and strives to ensure safety through strain-
68 resolved genomic screening, ecological testing, confined and traceable field evaluation, and post-
69 release monitoring. This is not a move away from containment-based biosafety, rather, it extends
70 traditional containment and pre-release controls with open-system stewardship practices, strain-
71 resolved screening, confined/traceable field evaluation, and post-release monitoring that is
72 appropriate for the environmental deployment of beneficial microorganisms. However,
73 implementing such a risk-proportional approach is complicated by the present regulatory
74 landscape. Oversight of microbial inoculants is fragmented across agricultural, environmental,
75 and public health authorities, resulting in widely varying requirements across jurisdictions and
76 countries. This fragmentation can lead to duplicate testing, limited data portability, and slower
77 evidence accumulation. We therefore propose a unified, genome-informed risk assessment and

78 monitoring framework designed to support rigorous yet scalable stewardship of microbial
79 inoculants for soil restoration. Achieving this in practice will also require policy alignment and
80 standards-setting to enable data portability, reduce redundant testing, and support cross-
81 jurisdiction reciprocity. While parallel discussions in the field are examining broader governance
82 models and policy gaps for environmental release of microbial technologies (Kaminsky et al.,
83 2019) this perspective takes a complementary approach. Rather than focusing primarily on
84 regulatory theory, we present a practical, implementation-oriented framework grounded in strain-
85 resolved genomics, ecological testing, and field-level stewardship. Our goal is to translate
86 ecological and regulatory principles into actionable guidance for developers, regulators, and
87 practitioners working at the interface of research and real-world deployment.

88

89 **2. Inoculant Impacts and Ecological Constraints**

90 Microbial inoculants can alter the composition and function of recipient soil communities,
91 sometimes beneficially, often transiently, and in some cases with effects that persist beyond the
92 intended window of application (Zhang et al., 2026; Mawarda et al., 2020; Li et al., 2024). At the
93 same time, many soils exhibit strong biotic resistance, where established microbial communities
94 limit invasion and constrain long-term establishment of introduced strains, particularly in healthy,
95 undisturbed systems, where high microbial diversity hinders potential impacts (Van Elsas et al.,
96 2012; Klümper et al., 2024).

97

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

103 2.1 Inoculants Reshape Microbial Community Composition and Genetic Diversity

104 The deliberate introduction of microbial inoculants frequently alters resident soil microbial
105 communities. In a meta-analysis of 108 studies (Mawarda et al., 2020), 86% showed that
106 inoculants modified the composition of resident microbial communities. Sometimes these shifts
107 appeared to be beneficial. For instance, application of a biofertilizer containing *Bacillus*
108 *amyloliquefaciens* W19 and *Trichoderma guizhouense* NJAU4742 increased the abundance of
109 taxa with potential antagonistic activity toward plant pathogens (Xiong et al., 2017). Other times,
110 potentially less desirable effects were noted. For instance, the release of *Sinorhizobium meliloti*
111 L33 into the rhizosphere reduced the diversity of beneficial *Pseudomonas* species (Schwieger &
112 Tebbe, 2000). Beyond compositional changes, inoculants can influence the genetic structure of
113 resident microbial populations through horizontal gene transfer (HGT). Because HGT is a well-
114 known route for the dissemination of antimicrobial resistance and other high-consequence traits,
115 it is appropriately viewed as a potential risk mechanism and warrants explicit, strain-resolved
116 scrutiny. For example, repeated large-scale inoculation of soybean with commercial
117 *Bradyrhizobium* strains in Brazil resulted in extensive horizontal transfer of symbiotic genes to
118 resident rhizobia (Barcellos et al., 2007; Batista et al., 2007). These observations show that
119 inoculants can act as vectors of functional trait movement, sometimes beneficial (e.g., spreading
120 symbiotic capacity), but potentially harmful if mobile elements carry antimicrobial resistance, toxin,
121 or virulence-associated loci. Accordingly, HGT risk should be treated as feature- and context-
122 dependent: prioritized for strains with mobility-associated machinery or flagged loci during
123 genome screening and verified through targeted field monitoring in pre-market trials.

124 In many cases, shifts in community composition translate into measurable changes in soil
125 functioning. Across multiple studies, inoculation was found to increase activities of phosphatase,
126 sulfatase, chitinase, esterase, urease, and other enzymes thus favorably impacting nutrient
127 cycling, fertilization, decomposition, and biocontrol (Vázquez et al., 2000; Wu et al., 2005). For
128 example, in one study, the introduction of *Paenibacillus mucilaginosus* 3016 was correlated with
129 increased soil phosphatase enzyme activity (Ma et al., 2018), which resulted in increased

130 phosphate mobility and availability for plant growth. In other studies, inoculation was associated
131 with the emergence of disease-suppressive soils (Shen et al., 2014; Xiong et al., 2017), even if
132 the inoculant does not survive or drops below levels of detection (Deng et al., 2021), underscoring
133 the potential for inoculants to steer functional outcomes by driving microbial community
134 reassembly through secondary succession.

135 2.2 Constraints on Inoculant Persistence

136 While inoculants may initially reach high abundance, they typically decline over time and stabilize
137 at low levels (<1%) within weeks (Čaušević et al., 2024). This suggests integration into existing
138 communities rather than long-term dominance, although functional effects can still occur at low
139 abundance through metabolic interactions or signaling. These ecological constraints can limit
140 persistence but should not be assumed as safety controls, as they are context-dependent and
141 require empirical validation.

142 Inoculant persistence is restricted by multiple factors, including lack of local adaptation,
143 competition with resident microbiota, antimicrobial interactions, predation, and niche saturation
144 (Berg, 2008; Dong et al., 2024; Marken, 2025). Establishment is therefore highly context-
145 dependent: disturbed or degraded soils may facilitate colonization, whereas intact systems often
146 exhibit stronger resistance (Hibbing et al., 2010; Klümper et al., 2024). These dynamics should
147 be evaluated within a structured monitoring framework.

148 2.3 Legacy Effects

149 Even when inoculant populations decline, their ecological effects can persist. Studies show lasting
150 shifts in community composition despite rapid decreases in inoculant abundance (Kozdrój et al.,
151 2004; Mallon et al., 2018). For example, *Sinorhizobium meliloti* L33 altered rhizosphere
152 communities and dispersed beyond treated plots (Schwieger & Tebbe, 2000). These findings
153 highlight that inoculants can reshape microbial communities and spread beyond target sites, with
154 both beneficial and unintended consequences, underscoring the need to assess community-level
155 responses in risk evaluation.

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

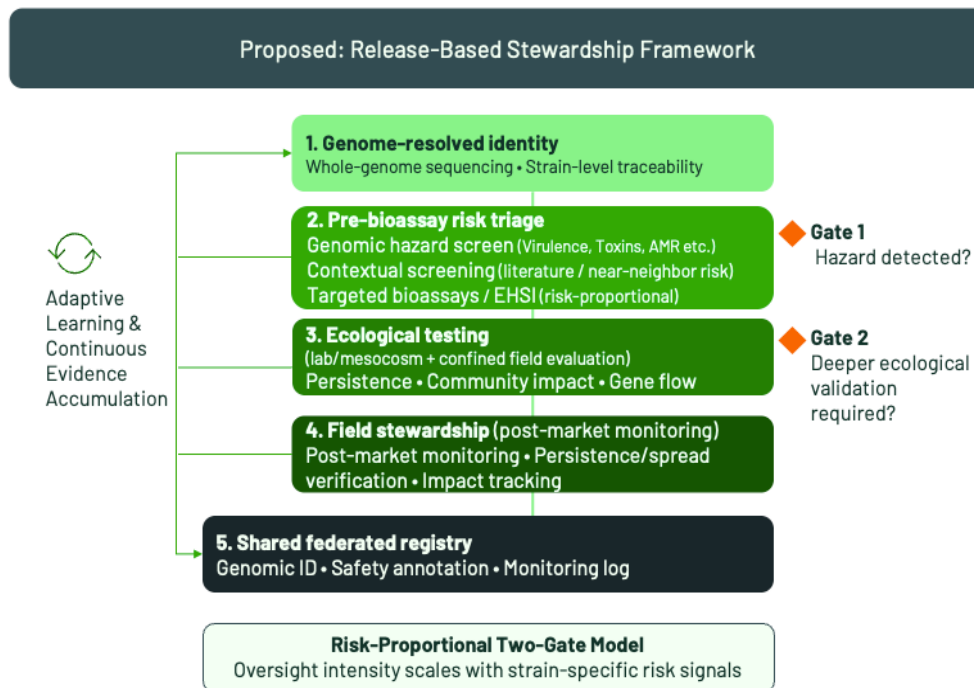
157 Figure 1 summarizes the proposed risk-proportional release-based stewardship framework as
158 two sequential phases: (I) pre-release risk screening, comprising genome-resolved strain
159 identification and hazard/bioassay triage, and (II) environmental stewardship, comprising
160 ecological testing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

162

163 We propose a framework that treats risk as strain- and context-dependent. A practical framework
164 must therefore distinguish (i) immediate biosafety risks (pathogenicity/toxicity) from (ii) long-term
165 ecological risks (establishment, spread, and impact), and it must do so with strain-resolved
166 genomics and standardized, scalable testing. A prerequisite to the Proposed Release-based
167 Stewardship Framework is that the bioinoculant actually contains the microbial species stated by
168 the manufacturer, and without the presence of other non-disclosed microorganisms or other plant
169 growth enhancing products such as fertilizers. For example, the arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal
170 (AMF) inoculum industry represents an almost annual 1 billion US\$ market. Of the AMF products
171 commercially available, many do not contain the fungal species stated by the manufacturer and
172 most are produced in non-sterile substrate that contains an undefined microbiome composed of
173 other diverse bacterial and fungal species (Boussageon et al., 2025). There is clearly a need for
174 strict product quality control of commercial products before further risk assessment steps are
175 undertaken.

176

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



181

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

183 Candidate strains undergo genome-based identity confirmation and hazard screening, followed
 184 by ecological testing and monitored field evaluation. Oversight is scaled to strain-specific risk
 185 signals, and a federated registry supports traceability, shared learning, and adaptive stewardship.

186 3.1 Pre-release risk screening: genome identity and hazard/bioassay triage (Steps 1–2, Figure 1)

187 The most serious failure for the field would be an inoculant linked to disease in crops, livestock,
 188 wildlife, or humans. Even rare events would undermine public trust and regulatory confidence, so
 189 risk assessment should begin with exclusionary screening that disqualifies strains with high-
 190 consequence hazard traits regardless of efficacy. Although consortia can in principle generate
 191 emergent behaviors through microbial interactions, hazards such as virulence, toxin production,
 192 and clinically relevant antimicrobial resistance are largely strain-encoded and can usually be
 193 identified through genome-resolved screening. Still, because interactions within consortia may
 194 affect persistence and ecological function, the framework includes consortia-level ecological

195 testing and monitored field evaluation to verify that no unintended risks emerge under realistic
196 conditions (Section 3.2).

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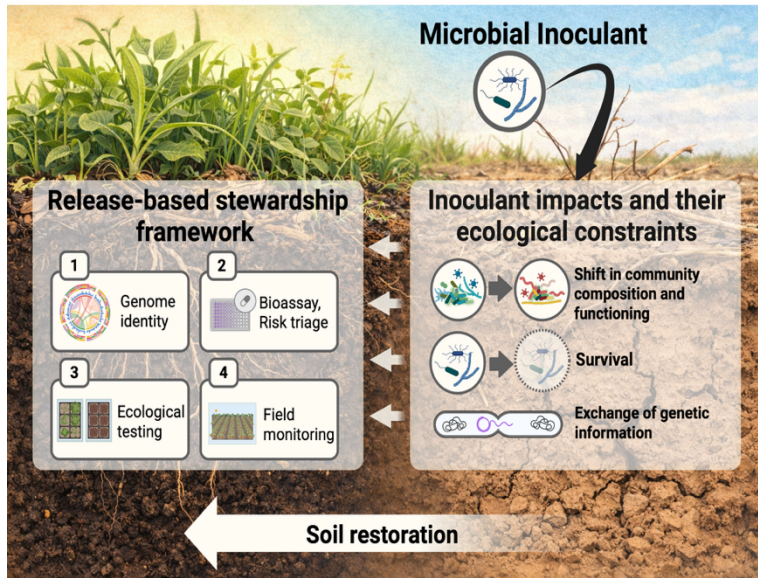


Figure 2. Release-based stewardship framework for microbial inoculants in soil restoration. Steps: (1) genome-resolved strain identification and hazard screening, (2) bioassay-based risk triage, (3) ecological testing under realistic conditions, and (4) monitored field deployment.

207 Step 1: Strain-resolved identity and placement relative to high-concern clades (beyond 16S, 18S
208 and ITS). Whole-genome sequencing (WGS) should be the baseline for commercial candidate
209 strains because marker genes such as 16S, 18S, and ITS often lack the resolution to distinguish
210 lineages with different hazard potential. WGS enables strain-level identification and placement
211 relative to known pathogenic or regulated clades using curated reference databases and genome-
212 to-genome comparisons such as Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) (Konstantinidis and Tiedje,
213 2005). Lineage-aware tools can further improve classification in high-concern groups (Zhang et
214 al., 2026). However, phylogenetic distance from known pathogens should not be taken as
215 evidence of safety, since distantly related strains may still carry virulence-, toxin-, resistance-, or
216 mobility-associated traits that require further screening.

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

218 Step 2 is distinct from genomic feature screening (Steps 3–4): it is a targeted literature and
219 evidence review conducted after identity is established to determine what is already known about

220 the candidate taxon/strain group (and close relatives) with respect to disease associations,
221 opportunistic pathogenicity, toxin production, antimicrobial resistance history, or high-risk
222 ecological behaviors. This context is not sufficient alone to establish safety, but it informs how
223 Step 1 placement should be interpreted (e.g., whether a clade has documented pathogenic
224 members) and helps triage the depth of downstream genomic scrutiny and bioassays.

225 Step 3: Genome-informed virulence screening. Candidate genomes should be screened against
226 curated virulence databases such as the Virulence Factor Database (VFDB) (Zhang et al., 2023)
227 and secretion-system resources such as SecReT6 (Li et al., 2015) and against curated
228 antimicrobial-resistance gene databases (e.g., CARD, ResFinder, or AMRFinderPlus) (Jia et al.,
229 2017; Bortolaia et al., 2020). This step functions independently of phylogenetic proximity to known
230 pathogens: even strains that are distantly related to recognized pathogenic clades may still carry
231 virulence-associated, toxigenic, resistance, or mobility-linked features that justify flagging the
232 candidate as a strain of concern for deployment. In this way, genome-informed screening
233 complements taxonomic placement by ensuring that trait-based hazards are not overlooked
234 simply because a candidate falls outside a known high-risk lineage.

235 Step 4: Horizontal gene transfer (HGT) and mobility assessment. Because virulence and
236 antimicrobial resistance traits can spread through mobile genetic elements, candidate genomes
237 should be screened for mobility-linked hazard potential, not just evidence of past HGT (Partridge
238 et al., 2018). Screening should identify mobile elements such as plasmids, integrative elements,
239 transposons, integrons, and prophages, and determine whether they carry clinically or
240 agriculturally relevant resistance, virulence, or toxin genes. It should also assess evidence of
241 active mobility. Candidates carrying mobile elements with high-consequence traits should be
242 excluded or subjected to heightened scrutiny, whereas those lacking such traits may proceed with
243 documentation and monitoring.

244 Step 5: Environmental and Human Safety Index (EHSI). Genomics can identify hazard potential,
245 but bioassays are needed to evaluate organism-level effects under realistic exposure conditions.

246 A pragmatic approach is to integrate results from existing standardized ecotoxicology and
247 biosafety assays (e.g., impacts on representative soil fauna, beneficial insects, aquatic proxies,
248 non-target plants, and small mammals) into a composite interpretive framework such as the
249 Environmental and Human Safety Index (EHSI) (Vílchez et al., 2016). This does not propose a
250 new universal testing battery; rather, it provides a structured way to synthesize outcomes from
251 assays that are already widely used in microbial biopesticide and biostimulant evaluation (e.g.,
252 OECD/EPA guideline tests). Under a risk-proportional model, only the subset of assays relevant
253 to the candidate strain, use pattern, and exposure pathway would be required. The resulting index
254 provides an interpretable “go/no-go” gate aligned with emerging biostimulant regulatory
255 philosophies while remaining feasible for large-scale screening.

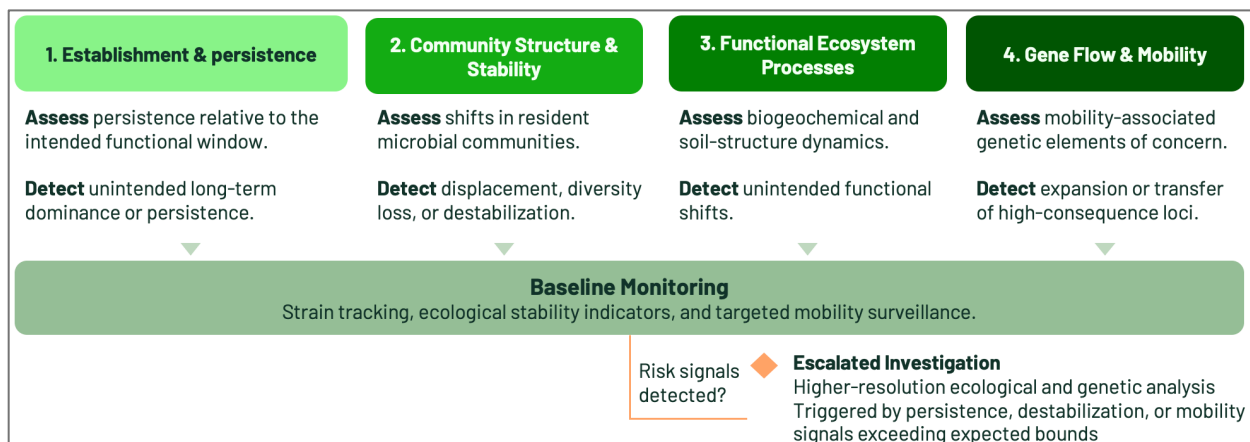
256 3.2 Environmental stewardship: ecological testing and monitored field deployment (Steps 3–4,
257 Figure 1)

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

261 Even when acute biosafety risks are excluded, microbial inoculants may still cause unintended
262 ecological effects, particularly in multi-strain consortia where interactions can alter persistence,
263 functional expression, or impact relative to single strains. We therefore apply an invasion-ecology
264 framework in which risk is evaluated as a progression from introduction to establishment, spread,
265 and impact (Mallon et al., 2015). Here, impact refers specifically to unintended ecological
266 disruption rather than intended agronomic or restoration benefits. Ecological stewardship should
267 therefore assess whether deployment leads to adverse outcomes such as displacement of native
268 beneficial taxa, unexpected persistence, altered nutrient-cycling trajectories, destabilization of
269 disease-suppressive communities, horizontal transfer of high-consequence traits, or off-site
270 movement into non-target habitats.

271 3.2.1 Ecological Testing (confined but realistic). Prior to commercial authorization or broad
 272 agricultural deployment, we recommend that pre-market field trials should be conducted under
 273 realistic conditions while remaining geographically and operationally bounded to allow traceability
 274 and monitoring. “Contained” in this context does not imply physical enclosure, but rather
 275 controlled deployment within defined spatial and management parameters, as well as the
 276 monitoring of non-target functions and microbiomes to infer potential undesired impacts. This
 277 includes plot-level application, spatial separation from sensitive habitats where appropriate,
 278 strain-resolved traceability, and a predefined monitoring window aligned with the intended
 279 functional duration of the inoculant.

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



282
 283 **Figure 3.** Conceptual framework for tiered environmental monitoring of microbial inoculants after
 284 field release.

285
 286 1. Establishment and Persistence.

287 Strain-resolved detection (e.g., qPCR or genome-resolved omics) should confirm establishment
 288 and track abundance over time. Monitoring should assess whether persistence aligns with the
 289 intended functional window and identify unexpected long-term dominance. This represents the

290 baseline for all monitored releases and provides insight into ecological integration within the
291 resident microbiome (McMullen & Lennon, 2023).

292 2. Community Structure and Stability.

293 Microbiome profiling should assess shifts in resident communities following inoculation. Changes
294 in diversity, stability, and taxa can indicate unintended ecological disruption, particularly under
295 repeated applications, in sensitive systems, or where products aim to restructure the microbiome.

296 3. Functional Ecosystem Processes.

297 Indicators such as soil respiration, nutrient cycling (e.g., nitrogen dynamics), soil structure, and
298 pathogen suppression should be evaluated to distinguish beneficial functional shifts from
299 unintended changes.

300 4. Gene Flow and Mobility

301 Gene-flow monitoring is most relevant for strains with mobility-associated elements or flagged
302 resistance, toxin, or virulence genes. Genome screening should identify such features, while field
303 monitoring verifies that they do not expand, mobilize, or transfer under agronomic conditions.

304 Recognizing practical constraints, we propose a tiered, risk-proportional approach where baseline
305 monitoring is broadly applied and additional measures are triggered by genomic features,
306 deployment context, or claim requirements. At minimum, trials should include strain-resolved
307 tracking and a targeted mobility watchlist. Monitoring can escalate where elevated risk signals are
308 detected. All trials should include appropriate controls to distinguish inoculant effects from
309 background variability.

310 3.2.2 Post-market monitoring and adaptive stewardship. Because soils are spatially and
311 temporally dynamic, stewardship should extend beyond initial field validation. Post-market
312 monitoring should verify that inoculant abundance trajectories align with the intended use profile
313 of the product (e.g. transient vs. persistent), and that no adverse ecological signatures emerge and
314 that functional outcomes remain within expected bounds. Importantly, persistence is not

315 inherently undesirable: for some applications (e.g., symbiotic or soil-structural functions),
316 establishment may be necessary for efficacy, whereas for others a one-time application may be
317 sufficient. Monitoring should therefore evaluate persistence relative to product intent and
318 ecological context, rather than against a single universal expectation.

319 Similarly, while stewardship frameworks aim to minimize unintended spread, complete spatial
320 containment of microorganisms in open agricultural systems cannot be assumed. Microbial
321 movement via wind, water, biotic vectors, or soil transport is well established. The objective of
322 post-market monitoring is therefore not to presume immobility, but to verify that any dispersal
323 remains ecologically benign and consistent with upstream genomic and ecological risk
324 assessments. Monitoring frameworks should be harmonized across regions to enable cross-site
325 comparison and data sharing. However, standardized global ecological risk metrics for microbial
326 inoculants remain underdeveloped; establishing comparable indicators for establishment, spread,
327 and ecological impact therefore represents an important priority for the field.

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

329 Effective stewardship requires knowing exactly which strain is being released and what evidence
330 already exists about its safety and ecological behavior. Yet current oversight is fragmented across
331 jurisdictions, leaving safety and performance data siloed, duplicating studies, and slowing
332 responsible deployment. To address this, we propose a federated global registry that links strain-
333 resolved genomic identifiers with risk screening, ecological testing, field monitoring, and
334 regulatory outcomes (Table 1). Such a system would make safety data discoverable and portable
335 across projects and regions, reducing redundant testing and improving traceability. A federated
336 model, with shared standards but distributed data ownership, could support cross-jurisdiction
337 learning, adaptive stewardship, and more efficient scaling of microbial technologies.

338

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

Layer	Purpose	Core Components	Why It Matters
1. Genomic Identifier Layer (Anchor)	Establish strain-resolved identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • whole-genome sequencing (WGS) • reference genome / assembly version + QC metrics • ANI thresholds • versioned taxonomy alignment • deposit/location of sequences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • prevents misidentification • enables exclusionary hazard screening • ensures traceability across jurisdictions • prevents “same strain ID, different genome” problems
2. Stewardship & Provenance Metadata	Contextualize strain use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • strain origin • intended-use environment • intended functional duration • formulation • deployment geography • application method + dose • crop + soil type + management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • risk is context-dependent — ecological behavior cannot be interpreted without use metadata
3. Risk-Screening Repository	Archive exclusionary hazard screening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • virulence-factor screening • ARG database outputs • toxin genes • AMR loci • mobility-linked elements • bioassay outputs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides transparent “go/no-go” documentation • reduces redundant testing across regions
4. Ecological Testing & Performance Data	Evaluate establishment and impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • persistence/decline kinetics • baseline and controls definition • sampling design metadata • spread assessments • community composition shifts • nutrient-cycling indicators • non-target effects • functional outcomes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • distinguishes intended benefits from unintended ecological disruption • makes results comparable - avoids “apples vs oranges”
5. Regulatory & Monitoring Log	Enable reciprocity and adaptive governance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • prior regulatory decisions • approval conditions • post-market monitoring data • time-stamped updates • adverse event reporting / incident log (even if rare) • versioning of regulatory status 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • allows safety profile to travel with strain • supports cross-border harmonization and long-term oversight • provides adaptive stewardship system

340

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

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

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

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

352

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354

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356

357 **Data availability:** No other data source.

358

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