

1 **Biofertilizing effects of *Anabaena cylindrica* biomass on the growth and nitrogen**
2 **uptake of wheat**

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20
21 **Abstract:**

22 There are a substantial number of studies on the biofertilization effects of
23 cyanobacteria in rice paddy fields, mainly attributed to biological fixation of N₂, but not
24 much attention has been given to their fertilizing capacity in aerobic soils. Few studies have
25 used solid media (i.e. a soil) when testing the plant-growth-promoting effects of microalgae
26 on plants, and particularly on wheat. The purpose of this study was to test the biofertilizing
27 effect of a filamentous cyanobacterium, previously isolated from an agricultural soil, in
28 order to evaluate the potential substitution of chemical fertilizers and to test its phyto-
29 stimulating capacity. Seedlings of *Triticum aestivum* were grown in pots with a peat-
30 vermiculite mixture (1:1 weight basis) in an experiment designed as a complete randomized
31 block, consisting of four treatments and with four replicates each: a pure culture of
32 *Anabaena cylindrica* concentrated by centrifugation to 2 g dry matter L⁻¹ (treatment B);
33 spent cyanobacteria growth medium filtered at 0.22 µm (treatment F); harvested
34 cyanobacterial mat re-suspended in distilled water (treatment WB); and distilled water as
35 a control (treatment W). Aboveground wheat plant mass was improved by 40% in both

36 treatments with cyanobacterial biomass (B and WB), as compared to the control (W) and
37 filtrate (F), demonstrating that the co-cultivation with living cyanobacterial biomass was
38 key to plant improvement. Chlorophyll contents were also increased by nearly 50% and
39 nitrogen by over 10% in the treatment WB, clearly indicating that nutrients in the filtrate
40 were irrelevant to the beneficial effects on plant growth.

41

42 **Keywords:** Bio-fertilizer; soil algae; *Anabaena cylindrica*; plant nitrogen,
43 cyanobacterial biomass

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46 Microalgae and cyanobacteria are photoautotrophic microorganisms, which are of
47 current interest as a new source of biomass to meet the increasing global demands for food,
48 feed, biofuels and chemical production that may complement agricultural crops (Giorgos
49 et al. 2014). The deployment of microalgae and cyanobacteria in agricultural soils has been
50 well documented in terms of their potential in enhancing plant growth, crop yields,
51 modulation of soil microbial activity and nutrient characteristics (Renuka et al. 2018).

52 This group of organisms can be found in widely varying habitats: in fresh and salt water
53 bodies, polluted waters of lakes, ponds, water tanks, soil, rocks and tree bark. In freshwater
54 benthic habitats, most microalgae and cyanobacteria, including *Anabaena* sp.
55 heterocystous genera, occur in consortia or communities, forming complex assemblages
56 with other organisms as periphyta (close association or attachment with submerged
57 substrates) or biofilms (Stevenson, 1996). When assemblages are applied in significant
58 quantities to an aerobic soil, the resulting community assembly may be best described as a
59 biofilm (Marks et al. 2017). Microalgae and cyanobacteria are also known to produce
60 variety of extracellular substances that have direct or indirect impact on plant growth and
61 subsequent yield such as plant growth regulators (Whitton 2000; Prasanna et al. 2010),
62 amino acids (Flynn and Gallon 1990), vitamins (Indira and Biswajit 2012), antimicrobial
63 products (Rizk 2006; Tassara et al. 2008), and polysaccharides (Maqubela 2009). Past
64 reports have suggested that cyanobacteria may be the most important nitrogen-fixing
65 agents in many agricultural soils (Nayak 2004; Asari 2008; Gavilanes et al. 2020). For this
66 reason, direct application of cyanobacterial biomass as biofertilizer may help to substitute
67 or complement the application of chemical fertilizers, just as has been practiced in rice
68 paddy systems for millennia. Keeping in mind that nitrous gas emissions resulting from
69 contemporary fertilizer use is responsible for multiple environmental problems including

70 greenhouse gas accumulation, water contamination with nitrate, and acidification of water
71 (Choudhury and Kennedy 2005; Rai 2006), reducing chemical inputs in exchange for
72 organic solutions helps ameliorate ecosystem stressors.

73 In a previous study, cyanobacterium *A. cylindrica* showed high growth rates in culture
74 medium and soil, which was concomitant with an efficient production of extracellular
75 polymeric substances (Kholssi et al. 2017). Other's research have found *Anabaena* species
76 as biofertilizers in most of the paddy fields used for rice growth (Subash and Arka 2020).
77 However, no studies have been reported on the biostimulation of wheat after fertilization
78 with live *Anabaena* biomass or the culture medium using substrate. *Anabaena* has been
79 found to be a relevant member of the biofilms that are formed during certain climatic
80 conditions, but the particular contribution of *Anabaena* is not determine (Oliveira et al.
81 2015). Thus, we examine here how *Anabaena cylindrica* may contribute to the fertilization
82 effect of such biofilms. We hypothesized that adding cyanobacterial inoculation would
83 increase plant growth by improving nitrogen availability. The objective of this work was
84 to test the application of cyanobacteria biomass as bio-fertilizers and their potential to
85 replace or supplement the use of chemical fertilizers in agricultural production, reducing
86 the environmental impact associated with their use. In this way, the effects of the
87 application of this biomass on wheat growth (weight, height) in addition to the tissue
88 contents of carbon and nitrogen (C, N) and chlorophyll were evaluated, as well as on the
89 contents of total soil C and N.

90 **2. Materials and methods**

91 **2.1.Substrate characterization**

92 The substrate used in the study was prepared by mixing commercial vermiculite with
93 peat, (Pindstrup, Burgos Spain). This substrate was chosen as a neutral growth, suitable for
94 plant germination, with ability to hold microorganisms and store nutrients, adequate
95 texture, and chemically and biologically inert (Carlile et al. 2015), in order to avoid the
96 influence of factors exogenous to those set in the experimental conditions as it could
97 happen with factors regarding nutrients inherent to any solid media. And it had the
98 following basic physical and chemical properties of mixture of vermiculite and peat (1:1
99 v/v) were determined according standardized methods (TMECC, 2002). Particle size
100 distribution: 34.59 % (>2 mm), 23.83% (2 mm-0.05 mm), 37.75% (0.05 mm-2 μ m) and
101 3.81% (<2 μ m). Apparent density 80 mg cm⁻³, Total carbon 15.54% and Total nitrogen
102 0.40%, using C/N TruSpec combustion analyzer (LECO); electrical conductivity (water

103 1:10 w/v, 25°C) 1.6 dS m⁻¹ using a conductivimeter (Crison GLP32); pH (water 1:10 w/v)
104 6.1 using a pH-meter (Crison GLP21).

105

106 **2.2.Culture preparation and isolation of cyanobacterial biomass**

107 This cyanobacterium was chosen because it belongs to one of the groups of N₂-
108 fixing cyanobacteria and has been shown to promote plant growth (Saly and Gheda, 2015).
109 A strain of *Anabaena cylindrica*, heterocystous freshwater cyanobacteria, was isolated
110 from the Ap horizon of an irrigated field located at Losar de la Vera (Cáceres, Spain):
111 40°1'53'' N, 5°36'49'' W. For the isolation of the cyanobacterial strain, 1 g of soil was
112 suspended in 100 mL of BG-11 medium (pH 7.5) without NaNO₃ as nitrogen source
113 (BG11-N) and the content was stirred for 30 min in orbital shaking at 150 rpm until a good
114 dispersion of the soil was achieved. From this suspension, an aliquot of 100 µL was taken
115 and plated in a Petri dish with BG11-N and 2% agar. The aliquot was distributed
116 homogeneously, closing the plates to prevent drying. Purification of this strain was
117 performed by serial dilution and plating method. Strains were identified after
118 morphological examination in microscope (**Fig. 1**),

119 **2.3. HPLC-DAD measurements**

120 Photosynthetic pigments in the methanolic extract were analyzed by high
121 performance liquid chromatography with photodiode array detection (HPLC-DAD) using
122 the same chromatographic method as in Montero et al. (2016). A FINNIGAN SURVEYOR
123 PLUS chromatography system (Thermo Scientific) equipped with Quaternary LC Pump,
124 Autosampler and PDA detector was used for HPLC-DAD measurements. Pigments were
125 identified according to retention time and UV-Vis spectrum (350-700 nm). Purification and
126 sequencing of ribosomal *16S rRNA* of a sample of pure culture cyanobacteria was
127 conducted using the UltraClean kit (MO BIO Laboratories, Inc.) for identification of *A.*
128 *cylindrica*. PCR amplification of *16S rRNA* gene fragments was performed using
129 cyanobacteria-specific reverse primer CYA781R and the cyanobacteria-specific forward
130 primers CYA106F and CYA738F (Figueiredo et al., 2010). The amplification product was
131 purified by electrophoresis in agarose gel and its base sequence obtained in an ABI Prism
132 3100 Sequencer (Applied Biosystem). The similarity of the genetic sequence with respect
133 to those found in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database was
134 assessed using the BLAST analysis application.

135 Filaments of *A. cylindrica* were cultured in 250 mL BG11 medium without NaNO₃, in 1 L
136 photo-bioreactors, with a 16:8 photoperiod, photon density of 100 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹, 28-18° C

137 during light-dark periods, and aeration; they were considered as stock cultures.
138 Experimental cultures were obtained by transferring aliquots of the stock cultures to 500
139 mL Erlenmeyer flasks which were stored at room temperature no more than 2 days until
140 use, with regular microscopic examination in order to monitor the culture for purity. The
141 evolution of the stock cultures was monitored by measuring absorbance of a 1 mL aliquot
142 at 750 nm on a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (GENESIS 2, Milton Roy), as well as turbidity
143 (HI93703 Turbidity Meter, Hanna).

144

145 **2.4. Experimental design**

146 *Anabaena cylindrica* biomass was harvested by centrifugation at 2,000 g and re-
147 suspended in appropriate amount of spent growth medium, to reach 2 g dry weight (DW)
148 L⁻¹ of final biomass concentration (Treatment B). Other treatments were: spent growth
149 medium filtered through 0.22 µm (NALGENE, bottle top filter) (Treatment F); harvested
150 cyanobacterial cells re-suspended in appropriate amount of distilled water to obtain 2 g
151 DW L⁻¹ of final biomass concentration (Treatment WB), and distilled water as a control
152 (Treatment W). All of these suspensions were immediately and simultaneously applied to
153 plant pots.

154 Seeds of wheat (*Triticum aestivum* Var. CAMARGO) were sterilized by immersing
155 in 5% NaClO for 2 min, rinsed several times with distilled water, and then dried between
156 two layers of filter paper. A previous germination test was carried out in order to verify the
157 percentage of germination (GP) of our seed variety (>70%) according to Eq. (1):

158

$$159 \quad GP = \frac{\text{Seeds germinated}}{\text{Total seeds}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

160

161 For the pot experiment, 200 g of substrate (vermiculite and peat mixture, 1:1 v/v) was
162 introduced in 0.4 L plastic pots of dimensions 8×8×7cm (**Fig. 2**). Four pre-germinated
163 seeds of wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) were sown in each pot at equal distances and depth
164 with four replicate for each treatment and control (64 pots; 4 seeds x 4 pots x 4 treatments).
165 After the addition of 10 mL of Milli-Q water, 10 mL of the solutions of the different
166 treatments were applied on each experimental group of pots. The pots were thereafter
167 incubated in a climatic chamber for two weeks with a 16:8 photoperiod, photon density of
168 100 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and 28-18° C during light-dark periods, respectively, and plants were
169 irrigated every day with 15 mL of pure water to replace lost water. The arrangement of pots
170 in the climatic chamber was completely randomized.

171

172 **2.5.Plant and substrate analysis**

173 20 days after transplanting, chlorophyll contents were measured on all plant stems
174 with a handheld chlorophyll content meter (CCM-200 plus, Opti-Sciences, Hudson, USA).
175 All plant parts were harvested and carefully washed over a sieve, separating each root mat,
176 and drying them in an oven at 60 °C for 48 h, Different physiological parameters were
177 measured including root and stem lengths and total dry biomass of aboveground and
178 belowground parts. A 5 g (oven dry basis) sample of the top 0-3 cm substrate was carefully
179 taken with a spoon. The pot was carefully turned upside down and a sample of the soil in
180 the bottom portion of the pot (3-7 cm) was taken.

181 For each treatment, the plants in each pot were ground. Also, the substrate in each pot
182 for each fraction (top layer 0-3 cm and downer 3-7 cm fractions), was dried at 60° C,
183 ground, and sieved to 0.1 mm. The total contents of C and N for each pot were analyzed
184 for each replicate on a combustion analyzer (TrueSpec CN, LECO, Saint Joseph, USA)

185 **2.6.Statistical analysis**

186 The obtained results for each parameter were analyzed for statistical differences
187 between treatments using SPSS v.18.0 (SPSS, 2009). After determining of distributional
188 adequacy of the data using the Shapiro-Wilk test, the data were subjected to the
189 (parametric) one-way ANOVA with significance defined at $P < 0.05$. Next, the Tukey *post*
190 *hoc* test was then used to compare treatments.

191

192 **3. Results**

193 Biofertilizing experimental treatments revealed visible differences in the growth of
194 *Triticum aestivum L.* plants; this was confirmed by the results of the statistical tests. For
195 plant biometric parameters, shoot weight and length did not show statistical differences.
196 Conversely, Tukey multiple contrasts revealed differences for every of the others
197 parameters. Root weight (**Fig. 3A**) was lower in the control treatment (W) which was 26.84
198 mg but without significant differences with the filtrate treatment (F). The highest
199 enhancement in root length (**Fig. 3B**) was recorded in the treatments (WB) and (B) with
200 values of 31.69 and 34.42 cm, respectively, but without significant differences between the
201 treatments (WB) and (F). Regarding shoot weight (**Fig. 3A**), only the treatment W showed
202 a value significantly lower than the other treatments (B, WB and F), whereas no significant
203 differences between treatments were found for shoot length (**Fig. 3B**).

204

205 The effect of cyanobacterial treatments on the chlorophyll content is shown in **figure 3C**.
206 Among the treatment variables analyzed, only a significant increase of 48% in chlorophyll
207 content was observed when biomass was removed from its filtrate (WB) compared to
208 control treatment.

209 In the cyanobacterial treatments (B and WB), biofilm growth was visible around
210 the pot edges, demonstrating that the liquid cyanobacterial fertilizer continued to live
211 throughout the experimental duration and release its nutrients for plant uptake. The
212 amounts of C and N in plants (**Table 1**) are quite appreciable, considering total amounts of
213 carbon in control that was significantly lower than all other treatments. However, plant N
214 contents showed a similar pattern to chlorophyll, with contents in (WB) plants being
215 significantly higher than in (W) plants, but without significant differences of these plants
216 with the plants of the other two treatments. Results of the correlation analysis revealed a
217 significant positive correlation between the plant N content and dry shoot weight
218 (Pearson's $r=0.65$, $t=3.2$, $p<0.01$).

219 Finally, according to the data in **Figure 4**, total N and C contents showed significant
220 differences ($p < 0.001$) only for filtrate treatment (F) in both the top and bottom soil
221 fractions with values of 0.73% and 28%, respectively.

222

223 4. Discussion

224 Overall, both cyanobacteria biomass treatments showed consistent improvements
225 for wheat growth over the water control. There are very few studies that have assayed the
226 effects of *Anabaena* on cereal growth in a solid medium such this substrate (vermiculate
227 and peat). Regarding this effect of biofertilizers, similar studies have revealed that wheat
228 plants obtained from grains of wheat grown in inoculated soil showed significant increase
229 in most morphological plant characters including grain yield, straw yield and weight of
230 1000 grains by *Anabaena oryzae* (Boghdady and Ali 2013). Similar to this result; the effect
231 of the application of cyanobacterial culture on rice, chickpea and wheat seeds germination
232 under low temperature conditions were investigated and the germination percentages, root-
233 stem length, number of leaves, chlorophyll amount found more than the control
234 (Khushwaha and Banerjee 2015)

235 Therefore, since the filtrate (F) treatment barely had no significant effect on plant
236 growth over the control, it seems that nutrients or bioactive compounds in that medium
237 were not at all effective in improving the growth of wheat as compared to actual algal

238 biomass. On the contrary, the average root: shoot ratio of filtrate treatments was 0.75, value
239 significantly higher than that of all other treatments (0.54; 0.51; and 0.55 for W; WB; and
240 W respectively; multiple Tukey contrasts with $p < 0.01$). This large deviation in the
241 root/shoot ratio of filtrate treatment (F) from the control (W) may indicate that the filtrate
242 treatments induced some sort of stress in the wheat plants (Fageria and Moreira, 2011). For
243 instance due to allelopathic chemicals in the filtrates which has been described for the
244 *Anabaena* genus as well as others (Leão et al. 2009; Dias et al. 2017), whereas water
245 contaminated with cyanotoxins is known to affect the physiology of higher plants
246 (Bittencourt-Oliveira et al. 2016; Jia et al. 2018). For plant growth, the positive effect of
247 the living cyanobacterial biomass might have outweighed any stressors in the filtrates since
248 the treatment (B) improved plant growth over the control (W) and filtrate (F).

249 Total N content was only improved when biomass was removed from its filtrate
250 (WB treatment; **Table 1**). Obreht et al. (1993) demonstrated significant enhancement in
251 plant nitrogen and root/shoot length in co-cultivation experiment for 15 days (using
252 *Nostoc/Anabaena*) in three different wheat varieties in glass vessels with aqueous media -
253 that is, exposed to “low levels” of incident light in glass bottles with liquid media. These
254 authors reported that their *Anabaena* strain had no nitrogenase activity in darkness, in
255 accordance with other studies (Gantar et al. 1995), and that this genus does not tend to be
256 capable of using C-containing exudates, though root elongation nevertheless occurred in
257 darkness. Apart from close association with roots, benefits, therefore, might be related to
258 plant growth regulation. Babu et al. (2014) also explored the effect of four *Anabaena* strains
259 on plant root metabolic products in assays conducted in a hydroponic experiment (liquid
260 medium). In this set-up, three of the four *Anabaena* strain treatments contributed to greater
261 plant N fixation (expressed as acetylene-reducing activity or ARA), as well as greater plant
262 dry weight. Gantar et al. (1995) reported a positive impact of *Anabaena* strain in nitrogen
263 economy on wheat plants assayed.

264 It is expected that soil inoculation with N₂-fixing cyanobacteria can also lead to
265 increases in soil organic carbon (SOC), total N, and available nutrients in the top substrate,
266 as demonstrated in other studies (Jeffries et al. 1992; Lange et al. 1994; Malam et al. 2001,
267 Mulat et al 2019). However, given the particular substrate utilized in this experiment with
268 high organic matter contents and therefore relatively rich in total nutrients compared to a
269 mineral soil, it is not surprising that no clear effects on soil C and N were seen for the short
270 length of this laboratory study. We are unable to offer a clear explanation for why the
271 filtrate (F) treatments had greater C and N in both the top and bottom fractions (**Fig. 4**).
272 One possible reason may be that those plants, stressed (see above), produced greater root

273 mass and turnover of fine root hairs, since the F treatment also exhibited the greatest
274 average root mass.

275 **Conclusion**

276 The results of our study show that cyanobacterial biomass improved the growth and
277 fitness of young wheat plants grown in a peat substrate - specifically, that *A. cylindrica*
278 biomass – not extracts, which, to the contrary, may have induced plant stress - was key for
279 increasing growth and N nutrition in an aerobic substrate. While as a first step the study
280 indicates that N nutrition did in fact increase, the specific mechanism was not studied, and
281 this should be addressed in the future. While the objective of this work was to study the
282 effects on N nutrition, future work should confirm the interesting dichotomy between
283 cyanobacterial filtrates and slurries with living algal cells.

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290

291 **Compliance with ethical standards**

292 Conflict of interest: The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest

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409 **Table 1.** Total carbon and nitrogen contents for the above-ground matter of *Triticum*
 410 *aestivum* L. plants grown in the study.

	Treatments			
	W	B	F	WB
C (%)	39.50 ± 0.30 b	37.83 ± 0.20 a	38.30 ± 0.23 a	38.50 ± 0.20 a
N (%)	4.54 ± 0.10 a	4.84 ± 0.11 ab	4.80 ± 0.07 ab	5.07 ± 0.05 b

411 Treatments: culture of *Anabaena cylindrica* (B); spent cyanobacteria growth medium
 412 filtered through 0.22 µm (F); harvested cyanobacterial mat re-suspended in distilled water
 413 (WB); distilled water as a control (W). Statistically significant differences between
 414 treatments are indicated by different letters.

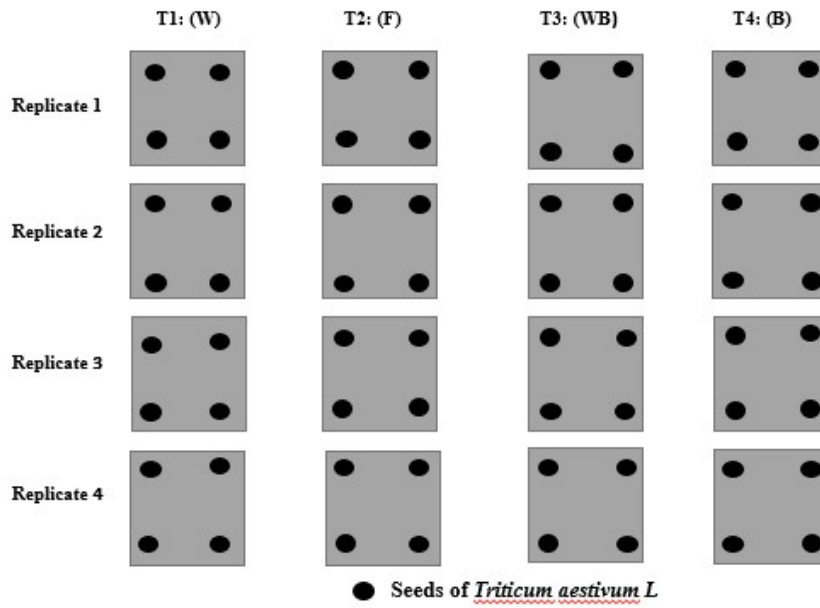
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417 **Fig. 1** Filaments of the cultured strain of *Anabaena cylindrica* seen under a microscope at
 418 40x. Cyanobacterial culture. Turbidity was 380 FTU.

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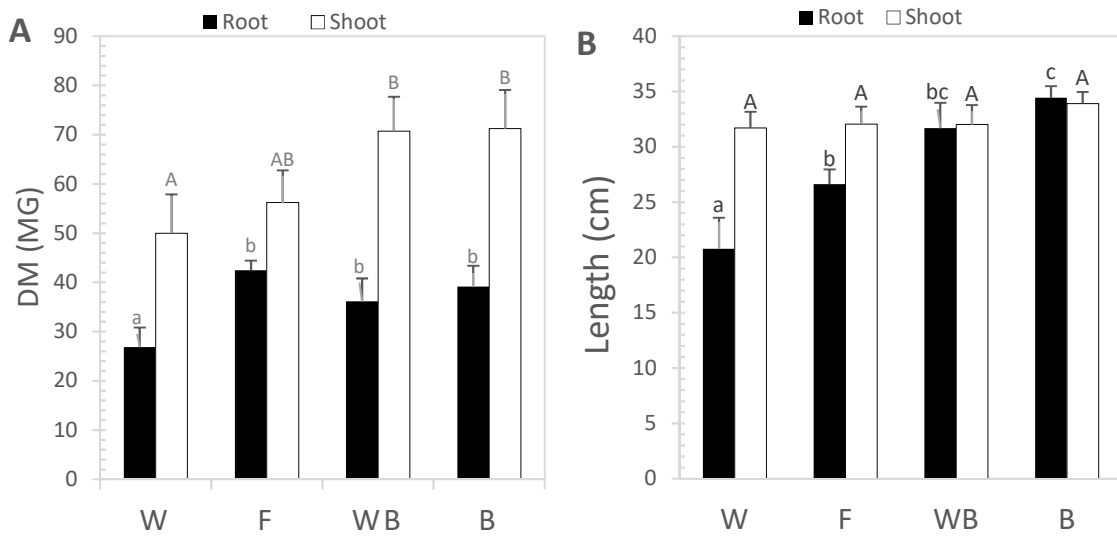


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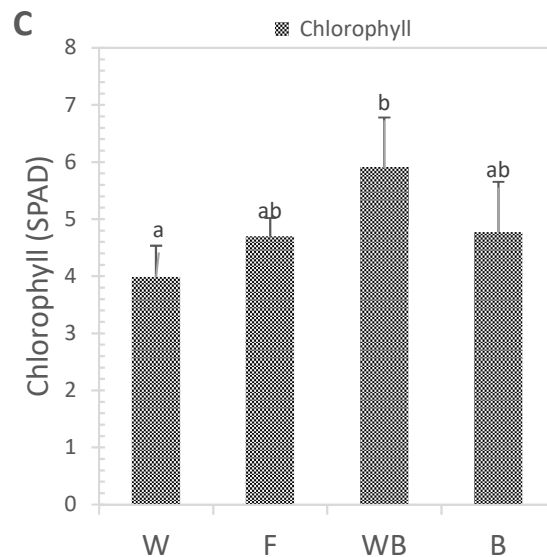
421 **Fig. 2** Pot experimental design. All four treatments were repeated four times (four seeds
 422 per replicate).

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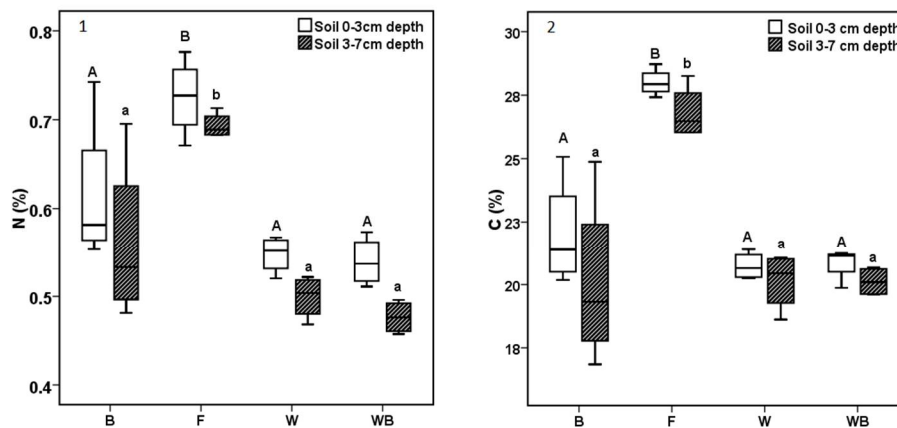
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428 **Fig.3** Biometric properties of harvested wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) plants under the
 429 different experimental algal treatments. Error bars display 95% of confidence interval of
 430 four replicates. Panel (1) is above plant dry matter (DM); panel (2) is length; and panel (3)
 431 is chlorophyll concentration of both roots and shoots. Treatment codes, in the X axis as in
 432 Table 1. Statistically significant differences between treatments are indicated by different
 433 letters, lower-case or capitals for roots and shoots, respectively.



434

435 **Fig.4** Total C (panel 1) and N (panel 2) in the two soil depth fractions at the end of the
 436 experiment. Treatment codes in the X axis as in Table 2. Error bars display 95% confidence
 437 interval of four replicates. Statistically significant differences between treatments are
 438 indicated by different letters, capitals or lower-case for soil depths 0-3 cm and 3-7 cm,
 439 respectively.

440