

Review: Can bioelectrochemical sensors be used to monitor soil microbiome activity and fertility?

Christina F. Webster¹ (christina.f.webster@wsu.edu) (0000-0003-4683-4433), Won-Jun Kim¹ (won-jun.kim@wsu.edu) (0000-0003-3948-7672), Gemma Reguera³ (reguera@msu.edu) (0000-0003-4317-7933), Maren Friesen² (m.friesen@wsu.edu) (0000-0002-4274-8928), Haluk Beyenal¹ (beyenal@wsu.edu) (0000-0003-3931-0244)

¹ School of Chemical Engineering and Bioengineering, Voiland College of Engineering and Architecture Washington State University, Pullman, WA, United States

² Department of Plant Pathology, Washington State University, Pullman, WA, United States

³Department of Microbiology, Genetics and Immunology, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, United States

Abstract

This review presents current knowledge on applying bioelectrochemical sensors to monitor soil fertility through microbial activity and discusses future perspectives. Soil microbial activity is considered an indicator of soil fertility due to the interconnected relationship between soil nutrient composition, microbiome, and plant productivity. Similarities between soils and bioelectrochemical reactors provide the foundation for the design of bioelectrochemical sensors driven by microorganisms enriched as electrochemically active biofilms on polarized electrodes. The biofilm can exchange electrons with electrodes and metabolites with the nearby microbiome to generate electrochemical signals that inform of microbiome functions and nutrient bioavailability. Such mechanisms can be used as a bioelectrochemical sensor for proxy monitoring of soil fertility to address the need for real-time monitoring of soils.

Keywords: Bioelectrochemical, soil, electrochemically active biofilm, electron transfer.

33 **Introduction: Can soil be a bioelectrochemical reactor?**

34 Soil is a spatially heterogeneous mixture of inorganic minerals, organic matter, and dissolved
35 compounds. Approximately 45% of total soil volume is composed of three primary inorganic
36 minerals: sand, silt, and clay [1], whose relative percentages determine soil texture and structure.
37 Soil porosity, the void space in soil which is filled with gases or water, constitutes approximately
38 50% of total soil volume [2]. Organic matter accounts for the remaining 5% of soil and includes
39 living and decaying plants and animals, microorganisms, and humic substances [2]. Collectively,
40 organic and inorganic materials provide nutrients to microorganisms, either as dissolved
41 compounds moving through the soils or immobilized on soil surfaces. Chemotactic and motile
42 behaviors allow microorganisms to migrate towards nutrient rich areas in soil, such as near plant
43 roots [3]. Soil microorganisms are critical to the cycling of nutrients essential for plant growth,
44 including nitrogen, carbon, phosphorus, and potassium [4]. Soil microbes improve bioavailability
45 of nutrients for plant uptake and plants roots secrete nutrients that symbiotically support microbial
46 growth and diversity [5]. The high density of microbes in the soil and near plant roots (the
47 rhizosphere) interact with one another to develop surface-attached communities known as biofilm.
48 By linking nutrient availability in soil to plant productivity, the soil microbiome activity becomes
49 a dynamic indicator of soil fertility [6]. For this reason, there is great interest in harnessing the
50 symbiotic activities of soil microbiomes to enhance crop health and resilience, and to improve
51 nutrient availability without the use of chemical fertilizers [7].

52
53 Like bioelectrochemical reactors, soil contains electrolytes, microorganisms, nutrients, and redox
54 active compounds which can generate electrical current through an electrochemical system. For
55 example, soil microbial fuel cells (SMFC) harness the electrochemical activities of the local soil
56 microbiome and are operated as bioelectrochemical reactors. SMFCs have been developed for
57 energy harvesting and bioremediation of soil contaminants through biofilm enrichment on buried
58 electrodes [8]. Whether viewed on a macro or micro scale, soils share the features of a
59 bioelectrochemical reactor; however, many of these features are dynamic in soil. Novel
60 applications are being developed to operate SMFCs under reduced moisture, an important
61 consideration for performance under dynamic hydration levels [8]. To monitor other dynamic
62 properties of soil, sensors have been developed to quantify specific nutrients, redox active
63 compounds, and physical properties of soil. A bioelectrochemical sensor is yet to be developed for
64 monitoring the collective activities of the soil microbiomes, both in terms of structure and
65 functionality.

66
67 **Importance of microbial biofilms in soil and dissolved organic matter**

68 Biofilms in soils consist of multi-species microbial consortia attached to soil particles and biotic
69 surfaces including roots, fungal hyphae, and decomposing organic material [9]. Approximately
70 40-80% of the 3×10^{29} bacterial and archaeal cells present in the soil are estimated to reside in
71 biofilms [10]. Biofilms encase cells in a self-secreted matrix of extracellular polymeric substances
72 (EPS), which enhances biofilm resilience, extracellular electron transfer (e-transfer), and soil
73 stability [11,12]. Biofilms formed on soil particles and biotic surfaces (such as roots) are critical
74 for nutrient mobilization and provisioning, pathogen defense, and modulation of plant morphology
75 and physiology [13,14].

76
77 Nutrient availability in soil contributes to the formation and function of soil biofilms. For example,
78 dissolved organic matter (DOM) is a critical carbon source which soil biofilms convert into

79 intermediate chemicals or gases essential to other organisms in the soil ecosystem. Redox-active
80 components of DOM contribute to the local redox state of soil, thereby influencing redox-
81 controlled activities of soil microbiomes. The addition of DOM increases soil respiration rates, an
82 indicator of microbial activity, and alter local soil microbial community functions across several
83 soil types [15,16].

84

85 **Microbial electron transfer in soil**

86 Microbial metabolic interactions that drive nutrient cycling and biogeochemical processes in soil
87 are made of e-transfer processes between electron donors and acceptors [6]. Soil organic matter,
88 dissolved oxygen availability, soil moisture, and pH can modulate these redox activities [12].
89 Physical parameters of soil such as structure and texture control oxygen penetration, indirectly
90 influence local redox activities [13]. Some of the most abundant redox-active fractions of DOM,
91 humic substances, and other redox-active soil compounds can be detected using electrodes [17,18].
92 Through the detection of these redox-active compounds, electrodes indirectly measure shifts in the
93 metabolic activities of the local microbiomes and electrochemical gradients in soil. Thus, soil
94 microbiomes may serve as indicators of many physical, chemical, and biological soil parameters.
95

96 Soil microbes are also capable of changing macro-scale soil properties through e-transfer. For
97 example, cable bacteria (discovered in 2012) form cm-long filaments that conduct electrons
98 vertically across sediments [19-21]. A study published in 2020 showed inoculating cable bacteria
99 to rice fields reduces anthropogenic methane emission by 93% [22]. Similarly, in 2023, cable
100 bacteria were identified as an important microbe in the regulation of phosphorus release in
101 sediment by altering soil pH gradients [23]. Moreover, cable bacteria can interact with electrodes
102 [24,25], so their presence and activity can be monitored. Cable bacteria connected to oxygen
103 sources attract flocks of bacteria to the anoxic section when e-transport in cable bacteria is active,
104 but if the cable bacteria are cut (interrupting e-transport), these microbes disperse [26]. These
105 studies illustrate how modulation of e-transfer processes impacts microbiome composition and
106 influence soil properties.
107

108 **Harnessing the bioelectrochemical properties of soils**

109 The presence of redox-active compounds, e-transfer mediators (ETMs), and electrochemically
110 active biofilms (EABs) allows us to consider soils as a bioelectrochemical reactor and each
111 component can be electrochemically probed. DOM represents one of the most mobile and reactive
112 organic compounds in the ecosystem and plays an important role in the transport of soil organic
113 content and nutrient cycling [27-30]. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and chronoamperometry (CA)
114 demonstrate the e-transfer capability of some redox-active DOMs in soil [27]. Furthermore,
115 differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) and CV in combination with spectroscopic techniques (FT-
116 IR, UV-Vis and fluorescence spectroscopy), effectively determined the electrochemical and redox
117 properties of DOM in soil [28]. Since the discovery of e-transfer in soil, researchers have focused
118 on how to improve this process. For instance, pyrogenic carbon or other conductive carbon-based
119 materials have been proposed as soil amendments to improve e-transfer [31]. The addition of
120 pyrogenic carbon is expected to improve soil fertility by increasing the amount of ETMs, but this
121 relationship is yet to be validated. It is also unclear how other biological components of terrestrial
122 belowground systems, notably plant roots, modulate electrochemical signals or e-transfer of
123 associated biofilms.
124

125 Soil bacteria have significant variations in metabolic capabilities, which is observed as variance in
126 electrochemical potentials, e-transfer mechanisms, and the electrical currents they generate
127 [17,22,32,33]. Microbial activities and nutrient availability can be monitored by the current (e-
128 transfer rate) of an electrode colonized by EAB, which can exchange electrons with the inert
129 electrode [34,35]. Polarized electrodes therefore can be used for *in situ* detection of microbial life
130 in soils [36]. Amending soils with electron donors enhances the biologically produced current and
131 allows for the stimulation and detection of dormant electrochemically active microbes
132 [29,30,37,38]. Polarized electrodes in soil provide a method to detect local metabolisms without
133 prior knowledge of the microbiome present and determine if signals are biological through
134 electrochemical measurements [37]. Photosynthetic metabolisms can also be monitored in this
135 manner in remote areas using custom electronics [39],[40,41]. Polarized electrodes have facilitated
136 the isolation of electrochemically active bacteria and soil microbes with extracellular e-transfer
137 ability [32].

138

139 Enriched electrochemically active microbial communities growing on polarized electrodes
140 respond to the local soil electrochemistry [21,42]. Previous research demonstrates biofilm grown
141 on electrodes can monitor microbe-environment interactions in sediment systems [34,35].
142 Through the selective enrichment of local electrochemically active species, the electrode-
143 associated biofilm alters the local microbiome structure and function and opens opportunities for
144 engineering soil activities [42-44]. With increasing interest in utilizing natural microbiomes in
145 place of chemical fertilizers, electrochemical enrichment may have applications in supporting
146 plant-growth-promoting microorganisms, stimulating nutrient cycling, and promoting the
147 bioremediation of contaminated soils [7,45]. Thus, studies to date demonstrate that soil is a
148 dynamic redox-active bioelectrochemical system, that can be probed using electrochemical
149 techniques.

150

151 An attractive property of
 152 measuring bioelectrochemical
 153 signals in soil and linking them
 154 to specific processes is that they
 155 can be precisely tuned in
 156 multiple dimensions. In this
 157 review, electrochemical signals
 158 are defined as a set of
 159 multidimensional e-transfer
 160 measurements: 1) CA measures
 161 anodic or cathodic current
 162 generation at a set potential to
 163 monitor EAB metabolism, 2) CV
 164 can inform metabolic/redox
 165 activity across a range of applied
 166 potentials, 3) square wave
 167 voltammetry signals can be
 168 related to the activity or
 169 concentration of redox
 170 mediators, 4) conductance shows
 171 e-transfer ability of soil, and 5)
 172 electrochemical impedance
 173 spectroscopy (EIS) identifies mass transport limitations or reaction kinetic limitations at the
 174 electrode surface. Some of these measurements are illustrated in **Figure 1**, which shows electrodes
 175 in soil selectively enriching EABs with a reductive (electron-accepting) or oxidative (electron-
 176 donating) metabolism on the cathode and anode, respectively. Linking the electrochemical signals
 177 to specific properties of the soil microbiome is critical to develop a new generation of
 178 bioelectrochemical sensors informing of soil microbiome metabolic activities and available
 179 metabolites.

180

181 **Electrochemically active biofilms as bioelectrochemical sensors**

182 Bioelectrochemical sensors provide real-time measurements of microbial activity through current
 183 measurements. EABs have been utilized to quantify microbial activity and available nutrients. For
 184 example, microbiosensors using the EAB, *Geobacter sulfurreducens*, effectively detected acetate
 185 (electron donor) and fumarate (electron acceptor) at concentrations as low as 79 μ M and 258 μ M,
 186 respectively [46,47]. EABs have also been used to monitor microbial activities in hot springs
 187 located in Yellowstone National Park [44] and in a hypersaline lake [41]. Biofilm-based sensors
 188 have also been used for measuring formaldehyde toxicity in water, dissolved oxygen, and volatile
 189 fatty acids [48,49]. Overall, these works of literature provide a strong foundation for harnessing
 190 EABs as bioelectrochemical sensors in soil.

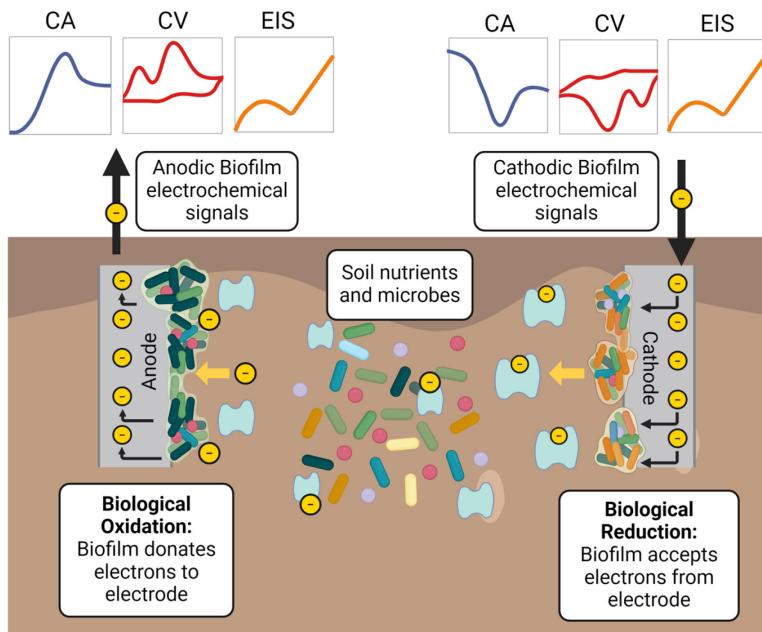


Figure 1. EABs are selectively enriched on polarized electrodes at positive (anode) or negative (cathode) potentials, producing electrochemical signals based on their interactions with the bulk soil microbes and nutrients.

192 A recent study determined
 193 electrochemical signals of EAB can
 194 be used to distinguish fertile and less
 195 fertile soils (determined by plant
 196 productivity) within two days by
 197 monitoring current generation and
 198 observing an increase in redox peaks
 199 in CV measurements [42]. Addition
 200 of glucose (carbon source and
 201 electron donor) to both soils
 202 increased anodic current, indicating
 203 nutrient availability may limit
 204 microbial activity, even in fertile
 205 systems [42]. Micrographs of the
 206 electrodes surface confirmed biofilm
 207 enrichment in more fertile soils.
 208 Similarly, another study in 2024,
 209 demonstrated high levels of DOM
 210 enriched more diverse, weakly
 211 electrochemically active bacteria
 212 from soil on polarized electrodes;
 213 while low DOM samples exhibited a
 214 higher relative abundance of strong
 215 electrochemically active bacteria such as *Geobacter* on
 216 polarized electrodes [50]. The availability of DOM influenced the microbial community structure
 217 and generated distinct electrochemical signals through CV and CA measurements, indicating a
 218 correlation between nutrient availability, microbial community, and electrochemical signals.

219 The electrochemical protocol of Mohamed et al. (2021) was followed to evaluate the difference
 220 in biotic and abiotic electrochemical signals generated by fertile soil and triple autoclaved fertile
 221 soil (**Figure 2**) [42]. Fertile soil with microbes generated significantly greater current and
 222 increased redox peaks in the CV than autoclaved soil. Abiotic redox active compounds in soil
 223 may explain the increased redox peak over time in autoclave soil at day 20 (**Figure 2 b**).
 224 Scanning electron micrographs (**Figure 2 c-e**) confirmed biofilm enrichment on the polarized
 225 electrode in fertile soil compared to the autoclaved soil. Biotic electrochemical signals from soil
 226 may be differentiated from abiotic electrochemical signals through a combination of
 227 electrochemical measurements. However, further research is required to 1) quantify distinctions
 228 between abiotic and biotic electrochemical signals in soil systems, and 2) characterize EAB.

229

230 **Perspectives on the use of bioelectrochemical soil sensors as a new tool to monitor soil** 231 **microbiome activity and proxy for soil fertility**

232 Soil sensors provide quick, non-destructive measurements of individual soil parameters including
 233 water content, electrical conductivity, temperature, pH, and soil water potential [51]. However,
 234 measurements of multiple physical and chemical properties are often required to quantify soil
 235 fertility and do not measure biological properties of the soil. Current methods for characterizing
 236 soil biofilm communities and functions require meta-omic studies and advanced microscopy

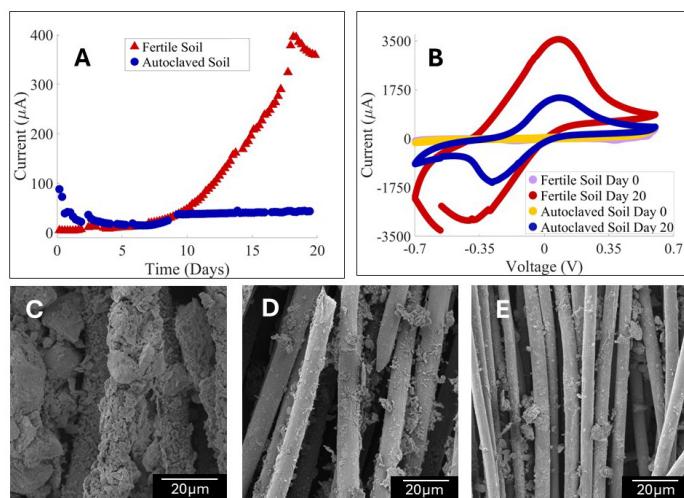


Figure 2. **A)** Current generated by biofilms enriched from fertile soil (red) in reference to autoclaved soil controls (blue). **B)** Cyclic voltammograms showing increased redox peaks in fertile soils compared to controls. Scanning electron micrographs of biofilms enriched on polarized electrodes with **C)** fertile soil and **D)** triple autoclaved soil, in reference to **E)** non-polarized electrode in fertile soil.

higher relative abundance of strong electrochemically active bacteria such as *Geobacter* on polarized electrodes [50]. The availability of DOM influenced the microbial community structure and generated distinct electrochemical signals through CV and CA measurements, indicating a correlation between nutrient availability, microbial community, and electrochemical signals.

237 techniques [14]. However, these approaches are limited in their ability to rapidly monitor
238 biological activities and their correlation to other soil parameters. Biodegradable sensors have been
239 developed to correlate measured electrical resistance to microbial decomposition ability [52].
240 These sensors provide information on biological activity but have limitations in monitoring
241 microbiome structure, selectivity for identification of beneficial microbes, and changes in the soil
242 microbiome. New sensory modalities are thus needed to monitor the microbial activities of soil.
243

244 Soil microorganisms respond rapidly to changes in their physical and chemical environment.
245 Bioelectrochemical sensors can provide continuous monitoring of biological activities in response
246 to physical and chemical fluctuation in space and time through CA measurements. However
247 multiple parameters, such as water content, temperature, pH, and available nutrients, will affect
248 the measured EAB signals, limiting our ability to distinguish the cause (**Figure 3**) [53]. Integration
249 of bioelectrochemical sensors with other sensors to measure the most influential parameters (e.g.,
250 water content or temperature) could overcome some of these challenges and enable integrative
251 approaches for the monitoring of soil fertility. Such capability would enable real-time monitoring
252 of microbial activities in soil, potentially allowing farmers to make faster decisions regarding soil
253 amendments for crop yield optimization.
254

255 Bioelectrochemical sensors have the
256 potential to correlate EAB with
257 nutrient content in soil. Monitoring
258 microbial activity and nutrient
259 availability requires both nutrients
260 and microbes to be present to produce
261 a sensor response. These sensors are
262 currently unable to distinguish
263 between the absence of nutrients or
264 microbes. Bioelectrochemical
265 sensors also face reproducibility
266 challenges due to the heterogeneity
267 of soil, as electrochemical responses
268 are likely to vary spatially. Many soil
269 types of multiple fertility standards
270 need to be evaluated and correlated
271 with relative crop yield to verify the range of soil fertility a bioelectrochemical sensor can measure.
272 Optimization of a sturdy sensor design, polarization potential for different soil types, and analytical
273 methods are required for development of a field-deployable bioelectrochemical sensor. These
274 challenges highlight that research on bioelectrochemical sensors to monitor soil fertility is in the
275 early stages of development and the need for continued advancement. Overcoming these
276 challenges could lead to improved understanding of soil microbiome functions and the
277 development of sensors that provide farmers with valuable, real-time information of soil properties
278 needed for strategic management.
279

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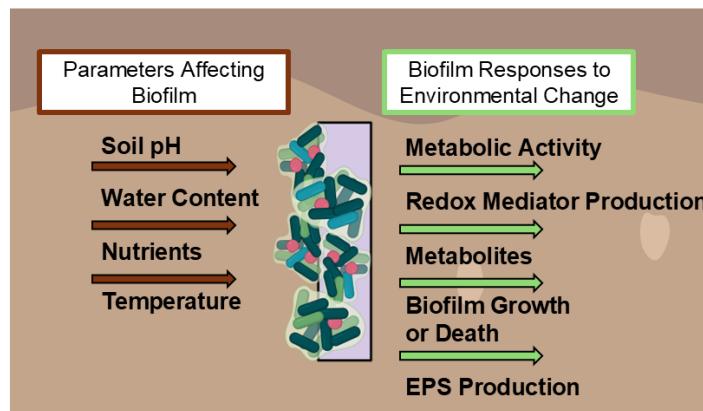


Figure 3. Bioelectrochemical sensors measure EAB activity, which can be affected by many environmental factors including soil pH, water content, availability of local nutrients, and temperature.

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286

287 **Author contributions**

288 Conceptualization (Webster, Won-Jun, Friesen, Beyenal); Data curation (Won-Jun); Formal
289 analysis (Webster, Won-Jun); Funding acquisition (Friesen, Beyenal, Reguera); Investigation
290 (Webster); Methodology (Webster, Won-Jun); Project administration (Friesen, Beyenal);
291 Resources (Friesen, Beyenal); Software; Supervision (Friesen, Beyenal); Validation (Beyenal);;
292 Roles/Writing - original draft (Beyenal, Won-Jun, Webster); and Writing - review & editing (All
293 authors).

294

295 **References and recommended reading**

296 Papers of particular interest, published within the period of review, have
297 been highlighted as:

- 298 • of special interest
- 299 •• of outstanding interest

300

301 **Annotated references**

302 •• **Qin2024:** Authors demonstrated weak electrochemically active bacteria are more prominent in soils
303 rich in DOM and increased total biological current generation. Electroactive microbial communities in
304 soil are influenced by DOM abundance in soils.

305 • **Atreya2023:** Biodegradable soil sensor measures resistive signals that correlates with microbial
306 decomposition activity, which is critical to maintaining soil fertility through carbon cycling.

307 •• **Mattila2024:** Redox processes in soil which drive microbial community functions are controlled by
308 several factors including soil structure. Redox measurements of soil can be utilized as an additional
309 measurement in soil mapping because of correlation with soil structure and biological activity.

310 • **Miele2023:** Soil column experiments demonstrate the relationship between redox potential in soil and
311 the soil saturation dynamics and authors identified saturation velocity as a major driver in redox potential
312 changes.

313 •• **Bjerg2023:** Diverse bacteria move towards the anoxic part of cable bacteria and disperse rapidly when
314 it is cut off from oxygen, suggesting cable bacteria's electron transfer chain may influence surrounding
315 microbial community and act as an electron donor.

316 • **Xu2023:** Cable bacteria activity can influence phosphorus (P) mobility in freshwater by acidification of
317 the suboxic zone, releasing dissolved Fe^{2+} and Mn^{2+} . The formation of a metal oxide layer in the sediment
318 traps dissolved P in sediment which may counteract eutrophication in freshwater.

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