



---

*Research article*

## **Zeolite-amended peat carriers improve long-term survival of *Ensifer meliloti* and maintain alfalfa nodulation efficiency**

**Olivera Stajković-Srbinić<sup>1,\*</sup>, Mila Pešić<sup>1</sup>, Biljana Sikirić<sup>1</sup>, Vesna Mrvić<sup>1</sup>, Snežana Andjelković<sup>2</sup> and Dušica Delić<sup>1</sup>**

<sup>1</sup> Institute of Soil Science, Teodora Drajzera 7, 11000 Belgrade, Serbia

<sup>2</sup> Institute for Forage Crops Kruševac, Globoder, Kruševac, Serbia

\* **Correspondence:** Email: [oliverastajkovic@yahoo.com](mailto:oliverastajkovic@yahoo.com); Tel: +381698223532; Fax: +381112667123.

**Abstract:** Microbiological N fertilizers containing native highly effective and competitive rhizobial bacteria placed in a suitable carrier are the best choice for sustainable plant production. This study evaluated the ability of various peat-based formulations with different zeolite/CaCO<sub>3</sub> amendments to support the survival and preservation of symbiotic efficiency of alfalfa rhizobia. 15 different inoculants were tested, including five nitrogen-fixing efficient *Ensifer meliloti* strains (218, 225, 252, 4148ss and 4193cs) in three different carriers made of peat and perlite and supplemented with micro-zeolite (B1), nanozeolite (B2), and micro-zeolite + CaCO<sub>3</sub> (B3). The number of rhizobia after 90 days of storage at room temperature was above 10<sup>10</sup> CFU/g of inoculant in most of the combinations, after 180 days of storage was 10<sup>9</sup> CFU/g in all combinations, and in 330<sup>th</sup> day stayed above 10<sup>8</sup> CFU/g of inoculant for strains 218, 4148ss, and 252. Considering the whole period of storage, the most performant carriers were B3, with the addition of micro-zeolite + CaCO<sub>3</sub> and B2 with nanozeolite amendment. The efficiency of all inoculants, measured by the nodulation ability and shoot dry weight (SDW), was confirmed in inoculated alfalfa plants after six and eleven months of storage. The SDW of inoculated alfalfa plants increased from 2.5 up to 5 times compared to non-inoculated plants, while the nitrogen content (mg/plant) was also significantly increased. The SDW was influenced by strain, while the type of carrier and storage of inoculant did not have an effect. The inoculant formulations with zeolite and calcium carbonate showed good potential for rhizobia survival and effectiveness preservation during long-term storage, which should be further tested under field conditions.

**Keywords:** rhizobia; inoculant; peat; nanozeolite

---

## 1. Introduction

The mineral nitrogen (N) fertilizers are extensively used worldwide with questionable economic viability and environmental pollution effect since the N percentage used from mineral fertilizers by crops is 50%, while the rest N of applied fertilizer is lost by various processes, including leaching and volatilization [1].

Rhizobial inoculants (i.e., microbial N fertilizers) are an alternative [2] or supplement to mineral N fertilizers [3]. Rhizobial bacteria (the most common genera *Rhizobium*, *Ensifer* (*Sinorhizobium*), and *Bradyrhizobium*) are facultative microsymbionts that live independently in the soil, and they can establish a symbiosis with specific legumes by forming nodules on the leguminous root and perform symbiotic nitrogen fixation, which is of considerable environmental and agricultural importance being responsible for most of the atmospheric N fixed in terrestrial ecosystems [4].

Rhizobial inoculants contain selected highly effective and highly competitive rhizobial bacteria placed in suitable carrier. The role of carrier is to maintain the viability and efficiency of bacteria and to increase the shelf life of the inoculant. The formulation of the inoculant involves introducing of the rhizobial bacteria (active agent) into a suitable carrier [5–7]. The most widespread formulation consists of peat as the rhizobia carrier [8]. Peat has been used as the carrier in inoculants for decades, mainly because of low cost, easy access, simple production, suitability for many bacterial species, preserving the rhizobia effectiveness in nitrogen fixation [5,9–13]. Generally, peat maintains the viability of rhizobial strains for up to six months of storage, facilitating their manipulation and adhesion to seeds. Other formulation of inoculants compared to peat are sensitive to temperature increases, which reduces the microbial population, the shelf life of liquid inoculants is shorter, and the storage room temperature is less suitable [14,15]. Therefore, there are constant efforts to improve the peat formulations, particularly for the duration under uncontrolled conditions of storage, as well as the preservation of not only number but also the activity and effectiveness of inoculants.

The inoculant should secure a minimum of about 100 to 20,000 viable bacteria per inoculated seed, depending on the legume, or more to secure optimal nodulation under poor ecological conditions [5,9,16–18]. This number will be provided with optimal suspension of rhizobia of  $10^9$  CFU/g of peat inoculum/inoculant. According to the national regulation, this number has to be a minimum of  $10^8$  CFU/g (mL) for symbiotic N-fixers and  $10^7$  CFU/g (mL) for plant growth promoting rhizobacteria [19].

The enrichment of the peat carrier by different additives should help to retain moisture, keep a suitable inoculant pH and nutrient of the carrier in the inoculant before the inoculation, but also in the layer of the carrier and surrounding soil on the inoculated seeds, and protect the coated seeds from desiccation [11,20].

Among other carrier materials for bacterial inoculant, zeolites have been recognized for their potential as carriers or/and additives [21–28]. Zeolites have a high water-holding capacity, high cation-exchange capacity, and high adsorption capacity [29]. Moreover, zeolite is a successful carrier for plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) inoculation because it provides a favorable environment to the inoculated bacteria by providing protection and preservation of the bacterial communities, and by creating conditions for expression of their metabolic activities [29]. It is considered to be non-toxic to bacteria [29,30]. The most common natural form of zeolite is clinoptilolite, which can have the role of an additive because of its characteristics. The ratio Si/Al is greater than 4, which means that clinoptilolite is more hydrophobic than other zeolites, with a greater capacity to absorb materials from

aqueous solutions [31]. Zeolites' structures are consisted to have many "channels and cages" that make the crystal-line frameworks accessible to the external substances [32].

Peat and standard seed coats can become locally acidic, thereby inhibiting rhizobial viability so calcium carbonate acts as a stable buffering agent that maintains a neutral-to-mildly alkaline microenvironment optimal for rhizobia [10]. Calcium based additives may improve the inoculum structure, reduce substrate toxicity, and provide essential nutrients (calcium) to microorganisms. Therefore, calcium salts were used in seed priming and peat inoculants [33–36].

The recent trend in agriculture for the carrier is the application of an additive in nanogranulation to secure the bacterial environment and maintain bacterial number on seed surface [21,22]. In comparison with conventional surfaces, nanoparticles have higher surface tension, which has an influence on their potential for absorption and the slow release of the nutrients and moisture from and to the environment. Nanomaterials are characterized by their small size, high surface-to-volume ratio, and unique optical properties. The dimensions of nanoparticles are 100 nm or less. They have a higher reactivity in comparison to the particle size (micron or millimeter size) present in bulk [22,23]. Nanogranulation of the clinoptilolite by increasing its surface would enhance its water and nutrients retention efficiency in the layer of the inoculant on inoculated seeds. The carriers with smaller particle sizes have a higher surface area, thereby increasing the resistance of bacteria to desiccation by increasing the coverage of bacterial cells; hence, nano-carriers would have superiority over other carriers in this regard [37]. However, a very small substrate particle may result in substrate agglomeration, which can affect the respiration of microorganisms or aeration with a negative result to microbial life, while larger particles can provide a normal respiration efficiency (owing to increased interparticle space) [38]. However, there is still limited data about the interaction of nanozeolite with bacteria, its effects on the survival and functionality of bacteria, as well as the suitability of nanozeolite application in various biological environments.

Supplementing the peat with nanozeolite is a novel attempt in producing more effective peat biofertilizers for small seed legumes such as alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.). Therefore, we evaluated the peat and perlite combinations with micronized zeolite, nanozeolite, and  $\text{CaCO}_3$  as carriers for five different *Ensifer meliloti* strains effective in N fixation with alfalfa. The research aims to evaluate whether nano-carrier could enhance the longevity and the bacterial efficiency in N fixation, and to identify the best carrier formulation that could provide long term storage (up to one year) under common conditions of storage (room temperature) and retain the inoculant efficiency, that is, nodulation and plant growth promoting ability in alfalfa.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Inoculant preparation

Mineralized peat of pH 7.50 and organic matter content >50% was used in this study as the main carrier to produce the inoculant for alfalfa and was commercially obtained by local supplier. Before use, the peat was dried to 7%–8% moisture, ground, and sieved to a 0.02–0.04 mm particle size [39]. Prepared this way, it was mixed with other materials at different weight ratios. The following solid carrier formulations were examined:

$$\text{B1} = 90 \text{ g peat} + 2.5 \text{ g perlite} + 7.5 \text{ g micro-zeolite};$$

B2 = 90 g peat + 2.5 g perlite + 6.5 g nanozeolite; and

B3 = 90 g peat + 2.5 g perlite + 7.5 g micro-zeolite + 0.2 g CaCO<sub>3</sub>.

The formulation B1 was proven in research practice as a good carrier for alfalfa rhizobia (personal experience). The B2 and B3 are novel combinations evaluated in this study. Both types of zeolites were commercially provided: Zeolite Nanoparticles, High Purity Nano Clay Nanopowder, Nanoshel, APS <80 nm, NS6130-09-905 Purity >99% CAS No. 1318-02-1, pH 8–10; and Micronized zeolite powder particle size 0–200 µm (average 100 µm), 90%–95% clinoptilolite, pH 10.

The perlite was used to increase the porosity of inoculant and was purchased as a commercial product (Perlite P-10), with SiO<sub>2</sub> 68%–75%, pH 6.0–9.0. The peat supplemented with other materials was packed into polyethylene bags, 40–50 µm thick, and then sterilized with 25 kGy gamma radiation. The ratio of C/N in final inoculants for B1, B2, and B3 was 20/1, 21/1, and 20/1, respectively. The investigation included 5 strains of *Ensifer meliloti* (218, 225, 252, 4148ss, and 4193cs) all part of the Institute of Soil Science collection (Figure S1). All five strains used in this study were previously genetically characterized [40,41].

First, *E. meliloti* strains were grown in Erlenmeyer flasks in 20 mL yeast mannitol broth (YMB) [9] inoculated with one rhizobial colony from YMA plates on a rotary shaker (150 rpm) at 28 °C for 48 h to obtain exponential growth of rhizobia (~10<sup>9</sup> cells/mL, and OD600 = 1.00). Furthermore, the inoculum broths of the *E. meliloti* strains tested were obtained in 500 mL of sterile YMB by adding 20 mL of initial cultures and incubating further at 28 °C, aerated on shaker at 150 rpm for 72 h (~10<sup>9</sup> cells/mL, and OD600 = 1.00). The inoculation of polyethylene bags containing sterile carriers at a ratio of 50 mL of inoculant per 100 g of carrier was done aseptically so as to provide the ready-to-use inoculum. The initial moisture contents for B1, B2, and B3 were 55.76%, 55.53%, and 56.06%, respectively. Rhizobial inoculants in the bags were incubated for 2 weeks at 28 °C before storage. All treatments were stored at room temperature (22 ± 2 °C) for 330 days in the dark, with a humidity between 30% and 50%. The number of viable bacterial cells after the specific period of storage was determined by dilution plating. The initial point was 30 days after 2 weeks of incubation. Rhizobial number in the solid form of inoculants was determined according to the method of decimal solution from 10<sup>-3</sup> to 10<sup>-7</sup> on YMA with Congo red medium with 4 replicates, in the dilution where the colony count was between 30 to 120 colonies. The number of rhizobia was expressed as CFU per gram of inoculant at fresh weight base [9,42]. Additionally, pH values were measured in all treatments.

## 2.2. Nodulation test and nitrogen-fixing efficiency

The nodulation capability of different rhizobial inoculants was tested by planting inoculated alfalfa seeds with particular carrier formulations, axenically in test tubes containing 30 mL of nitrogen-free Jensen agar medium [9]. The seeds of *Medicago sativa* L. cultivar K-28 selected at the Institute for Fodder Crops Kruševac, Serbia, were used. Sterilized alfalfa seeds (10 g) [9] were thoroughly mixed with 0.14 g of particular carrier formulations and 0.3 mL of H<sub>2</sub>O, aseptically, and let to dry a bit in the dark. For each formulation, one inoculated seed was aseptically plated in one test tube with Jensen agar medium. There were 10 replication per treatment. Two groups of control plants were used: plants without inoculation (Ø) in N-free medium and plants without inoculation and with mineral N supplementation (0.05% KNO<sub>3</sub>) (NØ) [9].

Plants were grown for 6 weeks under uniform light with a 16/8 h photoperiod, and the number of

root nodules and plant height were recorded for each treatment. The plant material was dried in an oven at 70 °C and the shoot dry weights (SDW) were measured. The N percentage in the plant material was determined by a CNS analyzer, Vario model EL III.

Additionally, a germination test with inoculated seeds was performed with Jensen medium in Petri dishes. The percentage of germinated seeds were determined after 10 days of incubation in the dark.

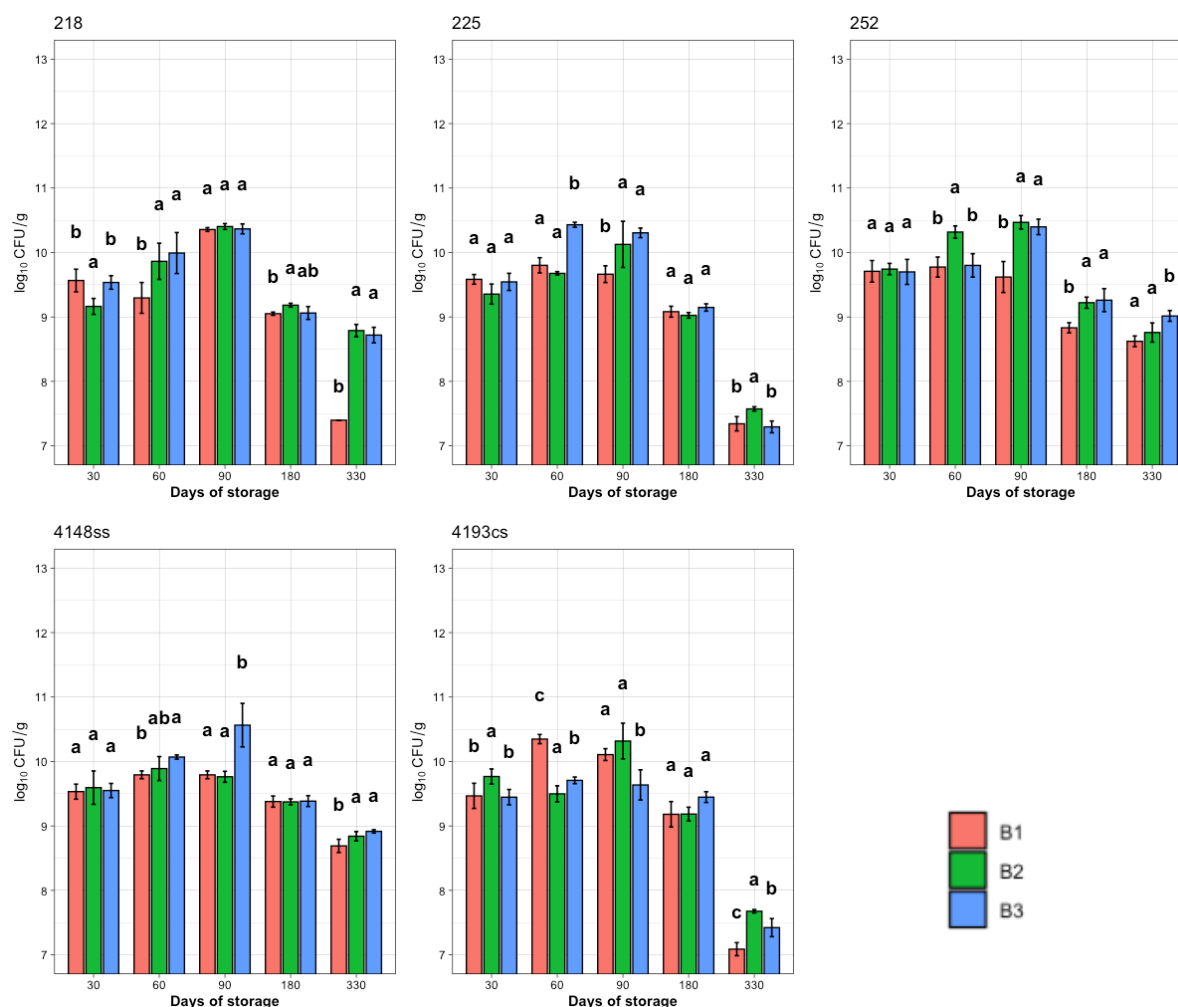
The data for CFU of rhizobia were transformed using a logarithmic transformation ( $\log_{10}$ ) to fit a normal distribution. The effect of the carrier and strain over storage time on rhizobial survival in inoculant (CFU/g) was evaluated by repeated measures using a mixed analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by post-hoc Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD). Due to a significant interaction between all factors, a one-way ANOVA was used to test each strain x carrier combination at each time point. The effects of the strain, carrier, and storage time on plant parameters were evaluated by a three-way ANOVA. The one-way ANOVA was used to test for significant differences among all strain x carrier combinations, as well as non-inoculated plants ( $\emptyset$ ) and N supplemented plants (N $\emptyset$ ). Data were processed by the IBM SPSS, 28.0 software version (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL), and R, version 4.2.3 (R Core Team, 2023).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Survival of rhizobia in different carriers

The results revealed that all *E. meliloti* strains could grow well in all peat-based formulations, and were capable of surviving during prolonged storage at room temperature (Figure 1). The initial number of rhizobia in the 30<sup>th</sup> day in all formulations was above  $10^9$  CFU/g, which is required in bioformulations according to the local legislation and generally accepted as good quality inoculant. Moreover, the increasing number of rhizobia was detected in most of the strains and carrier combinations until the 90<sup>th</sup> day when the highest number of rhizobia was detected in most of the combinations, that is, above  $10^{10}$  CFU/g. In the 6<sup>th</sup> month of storage (180 days), the decreasing number of rhizobia was detected, but was still very high, higher than  $10^9$  CFU/g, in all combinations (except for strain 252 in B1 (micro-zeolite amended)). In the 330<sup>th</sup> day, combinations with 218, 4148ss and 252 still had the number above  $10^8$  CFU/g. During the storage, the highest number of rhizobia was detected in B2 or B3 formulations as follows: in the 30<sup>th</sup> day in 4193cs-B2 (nanozeolite), in the 60<sup>th</sup> day in 225-B3 (micro-zeolite +  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ), in the 90<sup>th</sup> day in 4148ss in B3, in the 180<sup>th</sup> 4193cs in B3, and in the 330<sup>th</sup> for 252 in B3.

The ANOVA showed that the number of rhizobia is dependent on the strain, carrier and time of storage, as well as their interactions (Table 1). Therefore, an optimal carrier should be specifically selected for each individual bacterial strain, taking desirable shelf life into account (Figure 1). Among the carriers considering the whole storage period, the best carriers were B3 micro-zeolite +  $\text{CaCO}_3$  amended (mean value 9.47 log CFU/g) and B2 nanozeolite amended (mean value 9.42 log CFU/g), which were significantly better than B1 micro-zeolite amended (mean value 9.24 log CFU/g). For all combinations, the most performant strains for mean CFU/g were *E. meliloti* 252 and 4148ss (9.54 and 9.52 log CFU/g, respectively), which were significantly better than the other three strains.



**Figure 1.** Survival of *E. meliloti* strains (218, 225, 252, 4148ss, and 4193cs) in different peat-based formulations during the storage. B1 (peat + perlite + micro-zeolite); B2 (peat + perlite + nanozeolite); B3 (peat + perlite + micro-zeolite +  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ). The bars represent  $\log_{10}\text{CFU/g}$  (means of 4 replications)  $\pm$  SD. The bars designated by the same letter are not significantly different within each time point according to Tukey's HSD test.

**Table 1.** Repeated mixed ANOVA for  $\log_{10}\text{CFU/g}$  of inoculant for *E. meliloti* strains in different carrier and time of storage.

| Source of variation      | CFU/g |                |                |
|--------------------------|-------|----------------|----------------|
| Between-subjects effects | df    | <i>F-value</i> | <i>p-value</i> |
| Strain                   | 4     | 92.818         | 0.000          |
| Carrier                  | 2     | 76.930         | 0.000          |
| Strain x carrier         | 8     | 16.808         | 0.000          |
| Within-subjects effects  |       |                |                |
| Time                     | 4     | 1773.84        | 0.000          |
| Time x strain            | 16    | 62.44          | 0.000          |
| Time x carrier           | 8     | 14.07          | 0.000          |
| Time x Strain x Carrier  | 32    | 15.74          | 0.000          |

$p < 0.05$  significant,  $p < 0.01$  highly significant,  $p < 0.001$  very highly significant.

### 3.2. Efficiency of peat-based carrier with zeolite amendments in alfalfa

The growth parameters of alfalfa plants inoculated with different inoculants stored for 180 and 330 days are presented in Figure 2. The nodulation was 100% when inoculated with inoculant stored for 180 as well as stored for 330 days at room temperature, that is, in all inoculated plants nodules were formed.

In plants inoculated with 180 days-stored inoculants, the parameters measured showed that the best for nodulation was the 252 strain (in B1 and B3 carriers), which formed the highest number of nodules, but not statistically significant from other numerous treatments. In addition, the highest values of the SDW were detected in strain 252 B3 and strains 4148ss and 4193cs in all carriers B1, B2, and B3. If we consider the different carriers with the same strain, there were no differences in the SDW among carriers except for strain 252 (Figure 2 and Table 2).

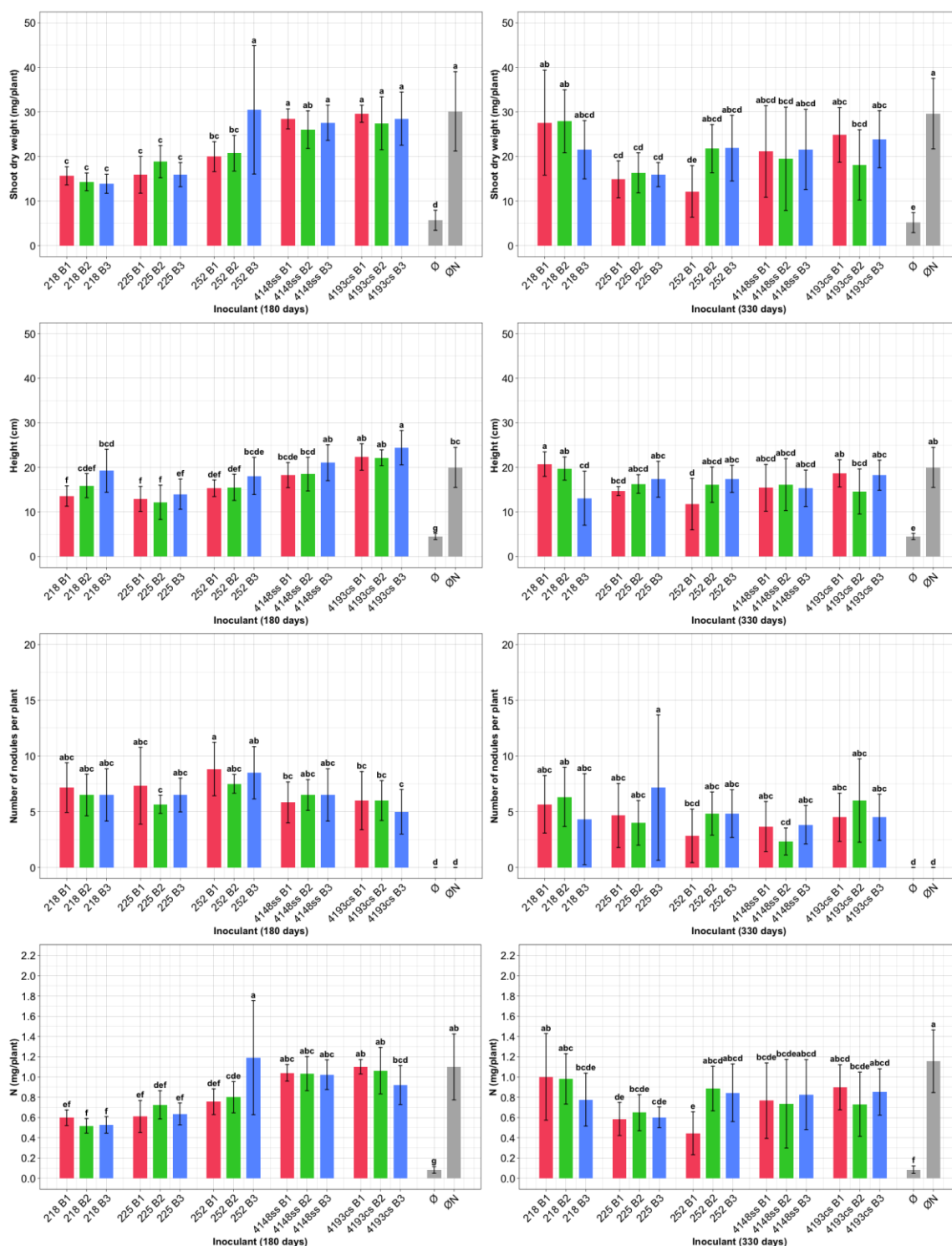
In the 330th day, the strains 218 (B1 and B2), 4148ss (B1 and B3), and 4193cs (B1 and B3), together for 225 (B2 and B3), were the most performant for the SDW (Figure S2). These SDW values were not significantly different from the control plants grown in the medium with optimal mineral N concentrations (NØ), indicating good N fixation capacity of the inoculants. The SDW increased in the inoculated plants from 2.3 to 5.3 times for 180 days-stored inoculants, compared to the non-inoculated plant (Ø), and 2.4 to 5.4 times in 330<sup>th</sup> day stored inoculants.

The N percentage in inoculated plants ranged between 3.23% to 4.07%, from 1.45%–1.65% in non-inoculated plants (Ø), and 3.6%–3.9% in N supplemented plants (NØ). The N content in all inoculated plants was significantly higher than in non-inoculated plants for both the storage period of the inoculants and similar to NØ supplemented plants for all strain and carrier combinations (except strain 225) (Figure 2). The total N content, in mg/plants, were highly correlated to the SDW of the plants (Table 3). The plants height was highly correlated to the SDW and N content, while there was no correlation between the nodule number and other parameters (Table 3).

**Table 2.** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of all studied parameters of alfalfa under the different rhizobial inoculant formulation.

| Source of variation        | SDW          |                |                | Nodule number    |                |
|----------------------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|
|                            | df           | <i>F-value</i> | <i>p-value</i> | <i>F-value</i>   | <i>p-value</i> |
| Strain                     | 4            | 8.529          | 0.000          | 1.960            | 0.104          |
| Carrier                    | 2            | 0.422          | 0.656          | 0.092            | 0.912          |
| Storage                    | 1            | 2.214          | 0.139          | 28.901           | 0.000          |
| Strain x Carrier           | 8            | 2.029          | 0.047          | 0.914            | 0.506          |
| Strain x Storage           | 4            | 9.244          | 0.000          | 2.854            | 0.026          |
| Storage x Carrier          | 2            | 0.176          | 0.839          | 0.867            | 0.422          |
| Strain x Carrier x Storage | 8            | 0.618          | 0.762          | 0.759            | 0.640          |
| Source of variation        | Plant height |                |                | Nitrogen content |                |
|                            | df           | <i>F-value</i> | <i>p-value</i> | <i>F-value</i>   | <i>p-value</i> |
| Strain                     | 4            | 11.047         | 0.000          | 8.938            | 0.000          |
| Carrier                    | 2            | 2.463          | 0.089          | 0.441            | 0.644          |
| Storage                    | 1            | 4.623          | 0.033          | 3.096            | 0.081          |
| Strain x Carrier           | 8            | 1.288          | 0.254          | 2.706            | 0.008          |
| Strain x Storage           | 4            | 8.584          | 0.000          | 9.888            | 0.000          |
| Storage x Carrier          | 2            | 2.832          | 0.062          | 0.201            | 0.818          |
| Strain x Carrier x Storage | 8            | 2.571          | 0.012          | 1.092            | 0.372          |

SDW—shoot dry weight;  $p < 0.05$  significant,  $p < 0.01$  highly significant,  $p < 0.001$  very highly significant.



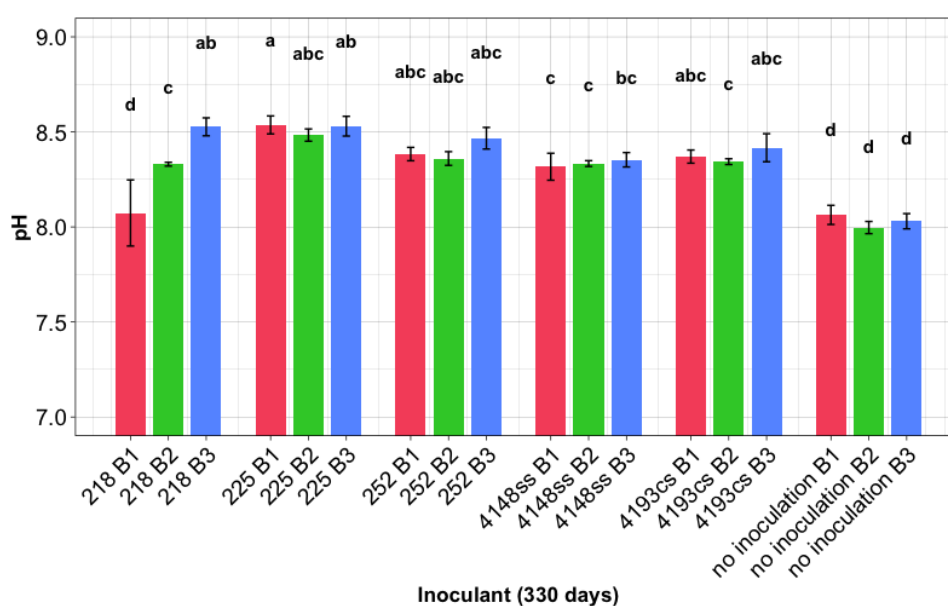
**Figure 2.** Plant growth parameters of alfalfa under the different rhizobial inoculant formulations stored for 180 and 330 days. *E. meliloti* strains (218, 225, 252, 4148ss, and 4193cs). Ø Non-inoculated control (no inoculation and no N supplementation). NØ Treatment with N supplementation and without inoculation. B1 (peat + perlite + micro-zeolite); B2 (peat + perlite + nanozeolite); B3 (peat + perlite + micro-zeolite +  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ). The bars represent means of 6 replications  $\pm$  SD. The bars designated with the same letter are not significantly different according to Tukey's HSD test.

**Table 3.** Correlation coefficients between alfalfa growth parameters.

|              | Height<br>180 | Nodule<br>180 | SDW<br>180 | Nitrogen<br>180 | Height<br>330 | Nodule<br>330 | SDW<br>330 | Nitrogen<br>330 |
|--------------|---------------|---------------|------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|------------|-----------------|
| Height 180   | 1             |               |            |                 |               |               |            |                 |
| Nodule180    | -0.435        | 1             |            |                 |               |               |            |                 |
| SDW 180      | 0.719**       | -0.188        | 1          |                 |               |               |            |                 |
| Nitrogen 180 | 0.630*        | -0.083        | 0.979**    | 1               |               |               |            |                 |
| Height 330   | -0.011        | -0.279        | 0.015      | -0.030          | 1             |               |            |                 |
| Nodule 330   | -0.154        | -0.115        | -0.358     | -0.358          | 0.497         | 1             |            |                 |
| SDW 330      | 0.331         | -0.285        | 0.100      | 0.029           | 0.761**       | 0.279         | 1          |                 |
| Nitrogen 330 | 0.314         | -0.254        | 0.147      | 0.097           | 0.749**       | 0.298         | 0.977**    | 1               |

\*significant at the 0.05; \*\*significant at the 0.01 probability level.

The pH of the peat used in this study was 7.50 and the additives additionally increased the pH of the carrier formulations (B1, B2, B3: pH 8.06, 7.99, and 8.03, respectively) (Figure 3), still being suitable for rhizobia growth, since *Ensifer* as a fast-growing bacterium tolerates between 5–10.5 pH.



**Figure 3.** Values of pH in different peat-based carrier formulations after 330 days of storage. *E. meliloti* strains (218, 225, 252, 4148ss, and 4193cs). B1 (peat + perlite + micro-zeolite); B2 (peat + perlite + nanozeolite); B3 (peat + perlite + micro-zeolite + CaCO<sub>3</sub>). The bars represent pH (means of 3 replications) ± SD. The bars designated by the same letter are not significantly different according to Tukey's HSD test.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Effect of different carriers on rhizobial inoculant survival

During the decades, peat has been proven as a proper carrier for rhizobial inoculants for different

leguminous species [21,39,43]. Additionally, perlite was applied as either a sole carrier or in the mixture with peat as well as other substrates to improve the aeration and to balance the water retention capacity of the inoculant [13,39,44]. Perlite has a much lower water holding capacity than most organic materials and is often added to soilless media to increase the drainage and porosity [45]. Zeolite, with its high cation-exchange capacity and porous structure, enhances nutrient retention and supports PGPR colonization [21]. In addition, calcium salts were used in seed priming and peat inoculants [33–36]. Recently, special attention was focused on the nanomaterials as a carrier, particularly nano-zeolites as a promising material in development of better soil conditioners, growth medium in nurseries, and nano-fertilizers [46], but their scalability remains limited [21].

In this research, the combination of peat and previously mentioned additives was tested as carrier for alfalfa rhizobia. The results of our research showed that the mixture of peat and perlite, supplemented with micro-zeolite+CaCO<sub>3</sub> (B3) and nanozeolite (B2), had better potential for preservation of rhizobia than micro-zeolite alone (B1), considering the whole storage period of 11 months.

The decreasing number of CFU was detected in 6<sup>th</sup> month of storage and decreased further in the 11<sup>th</sup> month. In the 6<sup>th</sup> month of storage, the CFU in all combinations (except one) exceeded 10<sup>9</sup> per gram of inoculant, which is considered as high-quality inoculum [11,43,47]. Peat-based inoculant supported cell survival of above 10<sup>7</sup> cells/g for fast-growing rhizobial strains after six months of storage [34]. Moreover, the survival of the rhizobia was higher in the solid carriers, particularly peat-based inoculant than in the liquid carriers, including strain of *Sinorhizobium* surviving better for 219% compared to other carrier formulations [47].

The good effects of zeolite as a carrier material are recognized. Zeolites act as strong cation exchangers: they are effective carriers of herbicides, fungicides, and pesticides, and capture cationic contaminants in environmental cleaning processes [30,48,49]. In combination with fertilizers, zeolites may help to buffer the soil pH levels [29,50]. Zeolite characterized as natural absorbent was used in N-fertilizers with the aim of controlled release of nutrients [30].

In our study, better performances of the B2 carrier with nanozeolite as an additive was detected. Nanoparticles have a higher surface tension, which influences their potential to absorb and slow release the nutrients and moisture to and from the environment. They have a higher reactivity in comparison to the particle size (micron or millimeter size) present in bulk [22,23]. The application of nano-zeolite had a positive impact on the bacterial growth and protein expression [24]. Additionally, nano-zeolite also enhanced protein expression and supported the growth of PGPR in nutrient broth [24]. It is considered that nanozeolite can be used to support the growth of PGPR for a longer time due to the slow release of nutrients and offers an environmentally sustainable approach to increase crop production, which is easily degradable and does not affect the microbial activity in the soil [24,26].

In our study, rhizobia survived better in the presence of micro-zeolite and CaCO<sub>3</sub> than micro-zeolite alone. The pH of the medium or CaCO<sub>3</sub> structure can be responsible for the survival of rhizobia in carrier with CaCO<sub>3</sub>. Calcium salts were often used in seed priming and peat inoculants as well as for the pH adjustment of different basic carriers [33,34,36,51]. The pH is the factor that commonly affects the survival of rhizobial strains in carriers [47]. *Sinorhizobium* (*Ensifer*) is a fast-growing rhizobium and usually tolerates between 5–10.5 pH [42], which is also confirmed for our tested strains [40]. Adding CaCO<sub>3</sub> provides a stable, residual buffer that maintains a neutral-to-alkaline pH over extended periods. In general, fast-growing rhizobia strains produce acids when grown on sugars (such as yeast extract-mannitol media), while growth on organic acids or amino acids results in alkalinization, but this can vary depending on the strain and the composition of the medium [9,52,53]. This can be

the case for the further increase in pH over time, rather than decrease. Additionally, the change in pH depends upon organic matter and clay content as well as the buffering capacity of the carrier [42].

Although nanozeolites are generally considered safe, they are still undergoing testing due to the toxicity of some nanomaterials [46]. In the short-term study, four sizes, namely 10–100 nm, 200–400 nm, 500–1000 nm and 1–2  $\mu\text{m}$ , at 100, 1000, and 2000 ppm were tested, and all zeolites positively influenced the growth dynamics of all four bacterial genera tested, including *Rhizobium* [46]. In the same study, a lactose dehydrogenase assay showed that 2000 ppm nanozeolite exhibited cytotoxic effects on the microorganisms tested, while a comet assay demonstrated no quantifiable DNA damage in the nanozeolite-treated cells, thus indicating the necessity for further nanozeolite toxicity testing [46]. In our research, much higher concentrations (about 6%) of nanozeolite apparently did not show negative effects on rhizobial survival nor for N efficiency of rhizobial strains almost for almost one year of storage.

In our study, the rhizobia inoculants were kept at room temperature, which is the most common way for practical storage of inoculants. Generally, the growth and survival of different rhizobia in peat and perlite-based inoculants showed similar trends for all strains in both carriers, but better survival was observed at 4 °C compared to 28 °C [54]. The survivals of rhizobial strains on zeolites kept at 25 °C for 90 days indicated a capacity of zeolite to maintain an adequate survival rate for the rhizobial strains, although, during the time, the number of rhizobia decreased [25]. In another study, after 240 days at 25 °C, the survival of the rhizobia (*Sinorhizobium*) remained at  $2 \times 10^9$  cells/g, which is the suggested number for biofertilizers [47].

#### 4.2. Plant growth and nodulation of alfalfa inoculated with different inoculant after storage

Besides providing the increased microbial number and prolonged survival, the effectiveness of inoculant should be retained during storage [55,56]. However, despite nanomaterial potential as carriers for PGPR, their efficiency still remains underexplored [21]. Some research indicates the efficiency of combined treatment of nanozeolite and bioinoculants for promoted maize plant growth [57], and a higher efficiency of nano inoculant over regular ones after six months of storage [37]. Nano-clay (Montmorillonite) and NCNPs (natural char nanoparticles) were the best carriers for *Pseudomonas* strains (phosphate solubilizing bacteria) in the alginate beads, thereby maintaining viability and efficacy in phosphate solubilization after six months of storage at both tested temperatures of 4 °C and 28 °C [37]. Nanogypsum (50 mg/L) also supported the growth and protein contents of plant growth-promoting *Pseudomonas taiwanensis* and *Pantoea agglomerans* in liquid media [57]. Subsequently, the inoculants are expected to have good nodulation properties during the first six months of storage period, and we tested their effectiveness at this point and after 11 months of storage.

In our research, all strains kept on the different carriers significantly increased alfalfa growth after 180 and 330 days of inoculant storage, thereby providing SDW up to 5 times higher compared to control non-inoculated plants. The SDW depended on the strain applied (Table 2), being the highest for 4193cs and 4148ss (both storage time). In contrast to better survival of strains in B2 and B3 carrier formulations, the influence of the carrier was not detected in alfalfa plants testing. We assume that the sufficiently high number of rhizobia for symbiotic effectiveness was present in all formulations even after 330 days of storage. Moreover, all combinations of rhizobial strains and carriers effectively nodulated alfalfa plants after 180 and 330 days of inoculant storage. The nodule number did not depend on the strain and the carrier formulation only on the time (being lower in 330<sup>th</sup> day). Consequently, no

correlation (Table 3) was detected between nodule formation in the host plant and symbiotic capacity. The N percentage, and consequently the N content (mg/plant) were significantly higher in inoculated plants, which also confirmed the efficiency of inoculants. The peat-based inoculants were confirmed for rhizobial efficiency preservation during the storage for soybean, common bean rhizobia, being tested in the controlled and field conditions [47,56]. It was noted that for the *Sinorhizobium fredii* strain, the most promising carrier was peat, thus providing the best survival for this rhizobium after prolonged storage of 7 months [34].

#### 4.3. Study limitations and future research

However, according to our previous research experience, it was expected that perlite and zeolite improve peat carriers, and one of the limitations of our study was the absence of a peat-only control (without any other additives). In addition, the testing of biosafety of nanozeolite was not included in the study. All experiments with plants in this research were performed under axenic plant testing, so further research of carrier formulations under semi-controlled and the field conditions would provide more data regarding the efficiency of nanozeolite and other formulations. It might even be expected to achieve better results in the field, under environmental conditions, where numerous factors can affect the inoculant efficiency, so the protective effect of the additive could be more pronounced.

### 5. Conclusions

The results of the study demonstrated that the carriers B3, combination of peat + perlite amended with micro-zeolite +  $\text{CaCO}_3$ , and B2 amended with nanozeolite, exhibited superior characteristics over peat + perlite and micro-zeolite in prolonged storage under room temperature for all tested *E. meliloti* strains. The developed carrier formulations exceeded  $>10^9$  CFU/g after six months of storage, and  $>10^8$  CFU/g after eleven months of storage. The symbiotic efficiency of inoculant formulations with alfalfa was high after 180 and 330 days of inoculant storage and depended on the strain. This research combined highly efficient rhizobial strains in an optimized carrier for inoculant development for prolonged storage up to one year, and further confirmation of results should be done under environmental conditions.

#### Use of AI tools declaration

The authors declare they have not used Artificial Intelligence (AI) tools in the creation of this article.

#### Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the Science Fund of the Republic of Serbia, Grant No. 7015, Utilizing rhizobia to reduce the risk of heavy metal accumulation in alfalfa: Nickel (Ni) case study—RhizoDETOX and by the Ministry of Science, Technological Development and Innovations of the Republic of Serbia, contract No. 451-03-33/2026-03/200011 and 451-03-33/2026-03/200217.

## Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## Author contributions

Conceptualization, O.S.-S. and D.D.; methodology, O.S.-S., M.P. and V.M.; investigation, O.S.-S., M.P., B.S., V.M., S.A.; resources, O.S.-S.; data curation, O.S.-S. and M.P.; writing, O.S.-S. and M.P.; visualization, O.S.-S. and M.P.; project administration, O.S.-S.; funding acquisition, O.S.-S. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

## References

1. Govindasamy P, Muthusamy SK, Bagavathiannan M, et al. (2023) Nitrogen use efficiency—A key to enhance crop productivity under a changing climate. *Front Plant Sci* 14: 1121073. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2023.1121073>
2. Hungria M, Franchini JC, Campo RJ, et al. (2006) Nitrogen nutrition of soybean in Brazil: Contributions of biological N<sub>2</sub> fixation and N fertilizer to grain yield. *Can J Plant Sci* 86: 927–939. <https://doi.org/10.4141/P05-098>
3. Genetu G, Yli-Halla M, Asrat M, et al. (2021) Rhizobium inoculation and chemical fertilisation improve faba bean yield and yield components in Northwestern Ethiopia. *Agriculture* 11: 678. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agriculture11070678>
4. Rahimlou S, Bahram M, Tedersoo L (2021) Phylogenomics reveals the evolution of root nodulating alpha- and beta-Proteobacteria (rhizobia). *Microbiol Res* 250: 126788. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micres.2021.126788>
5. DeliĆ D, Stajković-Srbinić O, Knežević-Vukčević J (2016) Alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) and *Sinorhizobium meliloti*: Perspective for rhizobial inoculants in Serbia. *Bot Serb* 40: 13. <https://www.sci-hub.vg/10.5281/zenodo.48852>
6. Sahai P, Sinha VB, Dutta R (2019) Bioformulation and nanotechnology in pesticide and fertilizer delivery system for eco-friendly agriculture: A review. *Acta Sci Agric* 3: 2–10. <https://doi.org/10.31080/ASAG.2019.03.0675>
7. Vassilev N, Vassileva M, Martos V, et al. (2020) Formulation of microbial inoculants by encapsulation in natural polysaccharides: Focus on beneficial properties of carrier additives and derivatives. *Front Plant Sci* 11: 270. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2020.00270>
8. Pastor-Bueis R, Sánchez-Cañizares C, James EK, et al. (2019) Formulation of a highly effective inoculant for common bean based on an autochthonous elite strain of *Rhizobium leguminosarum* bv. *phaseoli*, and genomic-based insights into its agronomic performance. *Front Microbiol* 10: 2724. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.02724>
9. Vincent JM (1970) *A Manual for the Practical Study of the Root Nodule Bacteria*, Oxford: Blackwell Scientific Publications.
10. Somasegaran P, Hoben HJ (1994) *Handbook for Rhizobia: Methods in Legume-Rhizobium Technology*, New York: Springer Science and Business Media.
11. Bashan Y, de-Bashan LE, Prabhu SR (2016) Superior polymeric formulations and emerging innovative products of bacterial inoculants for sustainable agriculture and the environment, In: *Agriculturally Important Microorganisms: Commercialization and Regulatory Requirements in Asia*, Singapore: Springer, 15–46. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-2576-1\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-2576-1_2)

12. Xavier IJ, Holloway G, Leggett M (2004) Development of rhizobial inoculant formulations. *Crop Manage* 3: 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1094/CM-2004-0301-06-RV>
13. Temprano F, Albareda M, Camacho M, et al. (2002) Survival of several *Rhizobium/Bradyrhizobium* strains on different inoculant formulations and inoculated seeds. *Int Microbiol* 5: 81–86. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10123-002-0067-y>
14. Alvarez GS, Pieckenstain FL, Desimone MF, et al. (2010) Evaluation of sol-gel silica matrices as inoculant carriers for *Mesorhizobium* spp. cells, In: *Current Research, Technology and Education Topics in Applied Microbiology and Microbial Biotechnology*, Norristown, PA, USA: Formatex Research Center, 160–167.
15. Almeida JC, Favero VO, Rouws JRC, et al. (2025) Inoculant formulation for *Bradyrhizobium* spp.: Optimizing CMC/starch blends for improved performance. *Agriculture* 15: 1010. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agriculture15091010>
16. Patrick HN, Lowther WL (1995) Influence of the number of rhizobia on the nodulation and establishment of *Trifolium ambiguum*. *Soil Biol Biochem* 27: 717–720. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0038-0717\(95\)98654-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0038-0717(95)98654-7)
17. Lupwayi NZ, Olsen PE, Sande ES, et al. (2000) Inoculant quality and its evaluation. *Field Crops Res* 65: 259–270. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-4290\(99\)00091-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-4290(99)00091-X)
18. Herridge D, Gemell G, Hartley E (2002) Legume inoculants and quality control, in *Inoculants and nitrogen fixation of legumes in Vietnam*, Aciar Proceedings, Canberra, 105–115.
19. Official Gazette RS (2018) Regulation on the conditions for classification and identifying of the quality of plant nutrition products, deviations regarding the content of nutrients and the minimum and maximum values of tolerance of nutrient content and on the declaration and labelling of plant nutrition products (in Serbian). Available from: <https://pravno-informacioni-sistem.rs/eli/rep/sgrs/ministarstva/pravilnik/2017/30/3/reg>.
20. Chaudhary T, Dixit M, Gera R, et al. (2020) Techniques for improving formulations of bioinoculants. *3 Biotech* 10: 199. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13205-020-02182-9>
21. Shabir R, Li Y, Rashti MR, et al. (2026) Alternative carrier materials for plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria: progress and perspectives. *J Soils Sediments* 26: 39. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11368-026-04232-w>
22. Duhan JS, Kumar R, Kumar N, et al. (2017) Nanotechnology: The new perspective in precision agriculture. *Biotechnol Rep* 15: 11–23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.btre.2017.03.002>
23. Thirumurugan NK, Velu G, Murugaiyan S, et al. (2025) Nano-biofertilizers: Utilizing Nanopolymers as coating matrix—A comprehensive review. *Biofabrication* 17: 012007. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1758-5090>
24. Khati P, Chaudhary P, Gangola S, et al. (2019) Influence of nanozeolite on plant growth promotory bacterial isolates recovered from nanocompound infested agriculture field. *Environ Ecol* 37: 521–527.
25. Abd El-Zaher FH, Lashein A, Abou-Baker NH (2018) Application of zeolite as a rhizobial carrier under saline conditions. *Biosci Res* 15: 1319–1333.
26. Chaudhary P, Khati P, Chaudhary A, et al. (2021) Bioinoculation using indigenous *Bacillus* spp. improves growth and yield of *Zea mays* under the influence of nanozeolite. *3 Biotech* 11: 11. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13205-020-02561-2>
27. Sohaib M, Zahir ZA, Khan MY, et al. (2020) Comparative evaluation of different carrier-based multi-strain bacterial formulations to mitigate the salt stress in wheat. *Saudi J Biol Sci* 27: 777–787. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sjbs.2019.12.034>

28. Berninger T, Mitter B, Preininger C (2017) Zeolite-based, dry formulations for conservation and practical application of *Paraburkholderia phytofirmans* PsJN. *J Appl Microbiol* 122: 974–986. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jam.13360>
29. Cataldo E, Salvi L, Paoli F, et al. (2021) Application of zeolites in agriculture and other potential uses: A review. *Agronomy* 11: 1547. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy11081547>
30. Mihok F, Macko J, Oriňak A, et al. (2020) Controlled nitrogen release fertilizer based on zeolite clinoptilolite: Study of preparation process and release properties using molecular dynamics. *Curr Res Green Sustain Chem* 3: 100030. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crgsc.2020.100030>
31. Grifasi N, Ziantoni B, Fino D, et al. (2025) Fundamental properties and sustainable applications of the natural zeolite clinoptilolite. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 32: 27805–27840. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-024-33656-5>
32. Mintova S, Grand J, Valtchev V (2016) Nanosized zeolites: Quo Vadis? *Comptes Rendus Chimie* 19: 183–191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crci.2015.11.005>
33. Murata MR, Zharare GE, Hammes PS (2008) Pelleting or priming seed with calcium improves groundnut seedling survival in acid soils. *J Plant Nutr* 31: 1736–1745. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01904160802324787>
34. Tittabutr P, Payakapong W, Teaumroong N, et al. (2007) Growth, survival and field performance of bradyrhizobial liquid inoculant formulations with polymeric additives. *Sci Asia* 33: 69–77. <https://doi.org/10.2306/scienceasia1513-1874.2007.33.069>
35. Thilakarathna MS, Chapagain T, Ghimire B, et al. (2019) Evaluating the effectiveness of rhizobium inoculants and micronutrients as technologies for Nepalese common bean smallholder farmers in the real-world context of highly variable hillside environments and indigenous farming practices. *Agriculture* 9: 20. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agriculture9010020>
36. Prasad AA, Babu S (2017) Compatibility of *Azospirillum brasilense* and *Pseudomonas fluorescens* in growth promotion of groundnut (*Arachis hypogea* L.). *An Acad Bras Cienc* 89: 1027–1040. <https://doi.org/10.1590/0001-3765201720160617>
37. Safari M, Motamedi E, Dolatabad HK (2020) Nano-carriers effects on the viability and efficiency of *Pseudomonas* strains as phosphate solubilizing bacteria. *Heliyon* 6: e05076. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2020.e05076>
38. Pandey A, Larroche C, Soccol CR (2008) General considerations about solid-state fermentation processes, In: *Current Developments in Solid-State Fermentation*, New York: Springer, 13–25. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-75213-6\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-75213-6_2)
39. Miličić B, Kuzmanović Đ, Jošić D, et al. (2006) Carrier formulations and their effect on rhizobial growth. *Rom Biotechnol Lett* 11: 2713–2721.
40. Stajković-Srbinović O, De Meyer SE, Miličić B, et al. (2012) Genetic diversity of rhizobia associated with alfalfa in Serbian soils. *Biol Fertil Soils* 48: 531–545. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00374-011-0646-1>
41. Pešić M, Tošić Jojević S, Sikirić B, et al. (2025) The plant growth-promoting ability of alfalfa rhizobial strains under nickel stress. *Microorganisms* 13: 340. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms13020340>
42. Howieson JG, Dilworth MJ (2016) *Working with Rhizobia*, Canberra: Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research.
43. Nehra V, Choudhary M (2015) A review on plant growth promoting rhizobacteria acting as bioinoculants and their biological approach towards the production of sustainable agriculture. *J Appl Nat Sci* 7: 540–556. <https://doi.org/10.31018/jans.v7i1.642>

44. Liffourrena AS, Lucchesi GI (2018) Alginate-perlite encapsulated *Pseudomonas putida* A (ATCC 12633) cells: Preparation, characterization and potential use as plant inoculants. *J Biotechnol* 278: 28–33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiotec.2018.04.019>
45. Kingston PH, Scagel CF, Bryla DR, et al. (2020) Influence of perlite in peat-and coir-based media on vegetative growth and mineral nutrition of highbush blueberry. *HortScience* 55: 658–663. <https://doi.org/10.21273/HORTSCI14640-19>
46. Sivashankari L, Rajkishore SK, Lakshmanan A, et al. (2021) Biosafety assessment of nanozeolites of varying size and dose on soil beneficial microorganisms. *J Environ Biol* 42: 1181–1190. [http://doi.org/10.22438/jeb/42/4\(SI\)/MRN-1561a](http://doi.org/10.22438/jeb/42/4(SI)/MRN-1561a)
47. Ruíz-Valdiviezo VM, Canseco LM, Suárez LA, et al. (2015) Symbiotic potential and survival of native rhizobia kept on different carriers. *Braz J Microbiol* 46: 735–742. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1517-838246320140541>
48. De Smedt C, Someus E, Spanoghe P (2015) Potential and actual uses of zeolites in crop protection. *Pest Manag Sci* 71: 1355–1367. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.3999>
49. Kumar P, Jadhav PD, Rayalu SS, et al. (2007) Surface modified zeolite—A for sequestration of arsenic and chromium anions. *Curr Sci* 92: 512–517. Available from: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/24097566>.
50. Kumar S, Kaur R, Kaushik R, et al. (2025) Exploring the potential of zeolites as a soil amendment: A review. *Int J Res Agron* 8: 237–244. <https://doi.org/10.33545/2618060X.2025.v8.i2d.2558>
51. Khavazi K, Rejali F, Seguin P, et al. (2007) Effects of carrier, sterilisation method, and incubation on survival of *Bradyrhizobium japonicum* in soybean (*Glycine max* L.) inoculants. *Enzyme Microb Technol* 41: 780–784. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enzmictec.2007.06.011>
52. Stowers MD, Eaglesham ARJ (1984) Physiological and symbiotic characteristics of fast-growing *Rhizobium japonicum*. *Plant Soil* 77: 3–14. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02182807>
53. Videira LB, Pastor MD, Lorda G, et al. (2002) *Sinorhizobium fredii* cultured in media supplemented with *Amaranthus cruentus* L. seed meal and bacterial cell survival in liquid and peat based inoculum. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol* 18: 193–199. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1014970829665>
54. Daza A, Santamaría C, Rodríguez-Navarro DN, et al. (2000) Perlite as a carrier for bacterial inoculants. *Soil Biol Biochem* 32: 567–572. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0038-0717\(99\)00185-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0038-0717(99)00185-6)
55. Berninger T, González López Ó, Bejarano A, et al. (2018) Maintenance and assessment of cell viability in formulation of non-sporulating bacterial inoculants. *Microb Biotechnol* 11: 277–301. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1751-7915.12880>
56. Ling H, Xu F, Shabbir I, et al. (2025) Efficacy of peat-based bioformulation of microbial coinoculants with silicon for growth promotion of rubber plants. *PLoS One* 20: e0331899. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0331899>
57. Chaudhary P, Sharma A (2019) Response of nanogypsum on the performance of plant growth promotory bacteria recovered from nanocompound infested agriculture field. *Environ Ecol* 37: 363–372.



AIMS Press

© 2026 the Author(s), licensee AIMS Press. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>)