

# GLOBAL IMPACT OF SOYBEAN PRODUCTION: A REVIEW

## ABSTRACT

Soybean is among the most significant crops in the world. Vegetable oil and protein meal both benefit from the use of soybean seeds. Soybean output has increased at the greatest percentage rate of any major crop during the 1970s. The crop is projected to be cultivated on 6% of the world's arable land. The recent surge in output is in line with the rising demand for oil and meal. Since soybeans are one of the most significant crops in the world, more study is being done to learn more about how they are produced under various circumstances, including stress. Information on the pace of soybean production throughout the globe may be utilized to enhance soybean production and mitigate variables like stressors that have a negative impact on soybean yield. The productivity of soybeans is significantly impacted by the action of soil bacteria. Only a few nations, including the United States, Brazil, Argentina, China, and India, account for the majority of the world's soybean output. For managerial and ecological reasons, it is crucial to have a deeper grasp of the vast range of farming techniques used in soybean crops. We will also talk about the potential relationship between improved management of microbial inocula and soil conditions. Gaining a deeper comprehension of the vast range of plant interactions is crucial for both managing and comprehending the ecology of this crop. Due to our direct and indirect reliance on the soybean crop for food goods, significant yield reductions in soybeans beyond present levels may have an impact on food security. Additionally, the crop provides resources to solve global food concerns via present and future use techniques due to its high nutritional value and versatility. Whether used as a vegetable crop or processed into a variety of soybean food products, soybean production is predicted to rise in the future in direct proportion to rising demand. With the application of newer genomic technologies, the crop has enormous potential to improve dietary quality for people worldwide.

*Keyword:* comprehension, enormous potential, inocula, productivity of soybeans

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The history of soybeans is complex and fascinating, with many contrasting themes and stories the crop's origins in the Eastern Hemisphere and its introduction to the Western Hemisphere, large-scale and small-scale production, pesticides and organic farming, oil and protein, exports and imports, industrial goods and consumables, biofuels and food applications; whole beans and processed products, traditional and modern foods, whole food nutrition and isolated botanical nutraceuticals. With its wide range of applications, soybean has become one of the most traded commodities. In order to demonstrate the importance of the soybean crop to global food security, this article will first examine its history, present production levels, and broad range of applications[1]. It will then go over, for instance, the risks that a few specific viruses and pests offer to the crop. We highlight future concerns in our concluding remarks. There has been a rise in interest in how agriculture affects soil species composition or soil structure [2]. For instance, one of the main crops grown around the globe that has an impact on the ecology is soybean. Soil bacteria are among the ecosystem's most crucial elements. As a result, given the high level of soybean crop cultivation across the globe, some of the most crucial factors affecting soybean productivity are listed, with the soil biota, which includes rhizobia and mycorrhizal fungi, playing a major role[3]. Since soybeans are one of the most significant crops in the world, more study is being done to learn more about how they are produced under various circumstances, including stress. Information on the pace of soybean production throughout the globe may be utilized to enhance soybean production and mitigate variables like stressors that have a negative impact on soybean yield. The productivity of

soybeans is significantly impacted by the action of soil bacteria[4]. Only a few nations, including the United States, Brazil, Argentina, China, and India, account for the majority of the world's soybean output[5]. Specifically, it is assumed that the operation of the agro-ecosystems and the services they provide are unaffected by the soil biotas. The only leguminous crop that may be linked to rhizobia and arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi among the most widely grown crops (maize, rice, and wheat) is the soybean which has the potential to be further used. The benefits of AM fungi in agro-ecosystems were reviewed and also noted that the growing awareness of the negative effects of agrochemical use and agricultural intensification on soil quality has altered the quantity, variety, and activity of soil microbiota, including symbiotic fungal populations[6]. Therefore, further research that focuses on sustainability and increasing agricultural productivity is necessary and must be accomplished. The cultivation of soybeans may benefit greatly from mutualistic relationships like those involving AM fungi. The use of beneficial rhizospheric microbes as biofertilizers in agriculture is expanding, and more research is required to comprehend how different inocula affect the physiology and development of soybeans[7].

## 2. HISTORY

Although the oldest historical evidence establishes the usage of cultivated soybeans as a food crop in Northeastern China about 1700–1100 B.C., there are legends suggesting use as early as 2500–2300 B.C. Whole beans were used in a variety of cuisines after being cooked or fermented into a paste. Soybeans were grown and utilized in Burma, India, Indonesia, Korea, Japan, Malaysia, Nepal, the Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam by the sixteenth century A.D. The 1737 publication of Linnaeus' *Hortus Cliffortianus* contains the first known mention of soybeans in Europe. In 1739, soybeans were planted as decorative crops in France, and in 1790, in England[8]. Soybean plants were planted in Yugoslavia in 1804, and their seeds were used to enhance livestock feed. In the modern state of Georgia, soybean use was first recorded in the United States in 1765. To produce goods for export, such as margarine or shortening, which were becoming more and more popular in Europe and the USA, soybeans were farmed and processed. Even though many researchers promoted and evaluated soybeans as a commodity that may meet human dietary demands, soybeans were nevertheless employed in the western hemisphere for vegetable oil, mainly in the production of processed food items[9]. The discovery in 1917 that boiling soybean meal rendered it appropriate for use as animal feed sparked the development of the soybean processing industry and the modern soybean, which serves as both an oil crop and a source of protein. Following that, the USA increased its output to the point that it was supplying two thirds of the global soybean demand by the 1970s[10]. Brazil and Argentina are now the world's second and third-largest soybean-producing nations, respectively, as a consequence of the crop's spread to South America.

Today, the United States, Brazil, and Argentina lead the world in soybean production. In 2006, these three nations accounted for 81% of global output. Soybean has shown the largest percentage of annual gains in production area during the previous 40 years compared to other important food crops, going from 29 million hectares in 1968 to 97 million hectares in 2008[11]. Although this makes up over 6% of the world's arable land, it still falls short of the global production area of wheat, rice, and maize. Despite being the nation that domesticated soybeans and maintaining high consumption, China's significance as a global producer of soybeans has continuously declined. Nonetheless, a number of South American nations are growing quite quickly, and if this trend keeps up, Brazil may surpass the United States as the global leader in output. Soybeans are the third most traded crop overall, with about 75 MMT exchanged in 2007. Soybean production area and commerce are expected to grow faster than most other key crops as long as demand is high[12]. China is the main importer of soybeans, followed by the European Union; the majority of exports of soybeans come from South American nations, then the USA. The bulk of soybeans

farmed in South America are sold to China, whereas most soybeans grown in the USA (and almost all in China) are consumed locally[13].

### **3. OVERVIEW OF SOYBEAN PRODUCTION WORLDWIDE**

China is the birthplace of soybean which is used as premium animal feed and as a significant source of protein for people. Furthermore, increased demand for soybean production is a consequence of expanding consumption and the significant dietary supplements included in soybeans. With over 23,000 varieties throughout Asia, soybeans were first domesticated in China before being brought to the USA and Brazil. A concise chronicle of the global soybean distribution may be found. It's possible that the word "soybean" relates to the bean used to make soy sauce[14]. One of the main global suppliers of vegetable oil and animal protein feed is soybean. Among dietary legumes, it is second only to peanuts in terms of oil content (18–22%) and has the greatest protein content (40–42%) of any other crop [15]. Up until the 1980s, the USA generated more than half of the world's soybean crop. But these days, after the United States, Brazil and Argentina are also among the major producers of soybeans worldwide. With over 92% of global soybean output, the United States, Brazil, Argentina, China, and India are the world's leading soybean producers. Since the 20th century, Africa has also been producing it. Currently one of the traditional "big five" grain exporters (with the United States, Canada, Australia, Argentina, and the European Union), Brazil is one of the heavyweights of the tropical food industry[16].

Brazil has contributed one-third of global soybean exports since 1990, second only to the United States, which uses only 6% of its arable land to produce 25% of the world's total soybean supply. Producing significant soybean yields requires a lot of nitrogen (N), which may be obtained by fertilizer or biofertilizers. An alternative, less costly source of nitrogen (N) for soybeans compared to chemical N fertilization is the process of biological nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) fixation by symbiotic soil bacteria, primarily Bradyrhizobium[17]. The effectiveness of biological N fixation is contingent upon several elements, including but not limited to the plant, rhizobia, symbiosis, and environmental pressures. As a result, particularly in light of the significance of soybeans as a strategic crop, several government agencies, academic institutions, and private citizens are investigating various facets of soybean cultivation around the globe. As a consequence of recent developments in soybean research, farmers are now using more effective inoculants, which have a high value for the environment and the sustainability of agroecosystems[18]. Strategies for managing and conserving soil microbes do not fully take into account their importance as key elements of soil biodiversity. The financial value of soybean N fixing in Africa and found that smallholder farmers benefited at a greater rate. As a result, the authors demonstrated the significant monetary worth of soybeans' ability to fix nitrogen in Africa[19]. They specifically mentioned the promiscuous cultivars and suggested alternatives that would improve smallholder farmers' chances of profiting from the N biological fixation process. This is particularly true in situations when there are insufficient amounts of inorganic fertilizers to boost soy output. They said that none of the 19 African nations that grow soybeans plant the promiscuous types. Nonetheless, the economic advantages derived from the N<sub>2</sub> fixing process by promiscuous soybeans may effectively demonstrate how soil microbial biodiversity can maintain human well-being[20]. Numerous scenarios support the advantages of biological N fixing; for example, it's important to note that some inoculated cultivars did not yield more than the promiscuous uninoculated kinds with the maximum production rate. In light of this, the authors suggested that, in the case of Africa, the selection and development of promiscuous soybean types be considered, since plant response to inoculation is complicated[21]. Legume crops, such as soybeans, may nodulate with a broad range of rhizobial strains in what are known as promiscuous soils[22].

### **4. PRODUCTION-RELATED OBSTACLES AND DANGERS**

- **ABIOTIC LIMITATIONS**

Drought may shorten the time it takes for plants to mature and expand vegetatively in more dry conditions. This results in fewer pods forming and fewer or smaller seeds per pod. Drought may be the main factor causing crop loss in several regions of the globe, notably the southern United States [23]. In years of drought, irrigation may stop these losses, but water availability and the cost of setting up and maintaining irrigation systems would be prohibitive. Flooding may also be an issue since totally submerged soybean roots cannot withstand the elements for several days [24]. If plants do make it through, there may be a reduction in development and seed generation. This might lead to a large loss of productivity when plants either die or use their energy repairing damaged root systems instead of growing vegetatively and generating pods. Although fields with adequate drainage are less likely to flood, most crops will sustain water damage if there is sufficient rain. Furthermore, soybeans are very vulnerable to frost and will suffer damage in below-freezing temperatures. In many temperate areas, a killing frost may happen either shortly after the plants emerge or before they reach full maturity at the conclusion of the growing season. Plants harmed by frost cannot be repaired, however early-season damage may be partially restored by sowing new seeds[25].The availability of nutrients in the soil is another abiotic limitation; for soybeans to develop to their maximum capacity, the soil must have an adequate supply of nutrients. When fields have low nutrient levels, fertilizers may be added. Other sustainable techniques, such as appropriate crop rotation, tillage treatments, and soil amendments, may also aid in the production of a healthy crop[26]. Due to their sensitivity to excessive soil salt, soybeans may be hindered in certain areas, which might lead to lower plant vigor and production as well as poor root growth and leaf chlorosis [27].Photoperiod controls soybean growth and blooming. For breeding operations, maturity is a crucial quality. There are thirteen recognized soybean maturity groups (MG) in the USA, numbered from 000 to X[28]. The remaining MGs are found in the range between MG 000, which are varieties that grow well in the northernmost growing zones (the northern USA), and MG X, which are varieties that attain optimal production closer to the equator. It is mostly photoperiodic response that divides cultivars into different MGs. A MG 000 variety's seeds would blossom extremely early while still tiny if they were planted in an area with a shorter photoperiod, which would reduce production[29]. On the other hand, if MG X variety seeds were planted in an area with a longer photoperiod, the resultant plants would continue to develop vegetatively, perhaps growing to be big plants that wouldn't blossom or set seed before being destroyed by cold. Agroecological zones will be impacted by changing weather patterns that cause temperature and rainfall changes, which will have a significant effect on agriculture due to global climate change. Certain changes, such as elevated CO<sub>2</sub> levels, may boost crops' photosynthetic output and in particular, they may lessen or magnify the significance of certain illnesses[30]. Less favorable changes include temperature and precipitation extremes, which will affect plant production both directly and indirectly. This has been shown for important food crops globally as well as for soybeans in China [31]. Reduced soil organic matter was seen in all plots during a three-year study of soybeans exposed to high CO<sub>2</sub> levels, and increased soil organic turnover may have long-term effects on soil production.

- **BIOTIC LIMITATIONS**

When information from the first Soybean Disease Compendium which covered 50 diseases, is compared to the most recent edition of this book which lists more than 300 diseases, it is clear that the importance and knowledge of soybean pathogens have increased. Recent reviews have examined a few of the most significant illnesses [32]. Intense production and expanding acreage in new parts of the globe are the causes of the rise in the number of illnesses and their spread. In producing locations where soybean is planted annually or even every other year, pathogen-produced propagules of different kinds have multiplied to densities that result in significant losses in output. Each year, parasitic microorganisms including viruses, nematodes, fungus, bacteria, and oomycetes inflict economic harm to soybeans. The

situation with soybean pests is similar as well, aphids, beetles, mites, and stinkbugs are only a few of the pests that seriously harm the soybean crop financially[33].

All plant sections, from the roots to the seeds, are affected by pathogens and pests. The kind of pathogen/pest, the plant tissue being attacked, the number of plants impacted, the intensity of the assault, the environmental factors, the host plant's sensitivity, the degree of plant stress, and the stage of plant development all influence how much economic plant damage occurs [34]. Losses from illnesses are estimated to be 11%; however, these figures could not be particularly accurate because to a lack of data comparing severe yield losses and a lack of global surveillance of disease and pest outbreaks. A variety of techniques, either alone or in combination, may be required to effectively decrease losses brought on by diseases and pests. These might include the use of pesticides, resistance development, and cultural and seed sanitation practices[35].

## **5. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF IMPROVED SOYBEAN MANAGEMENT**

### **• RHIZOBIAL INOCULANTS**

Most soybean fields include inoculated bradyrhizobia; nevertheless, more competitive and efficient strains that can provide the majority of the necessary N needed for soybeans must be chosen. Therefore, strains that have been modified have been chosen in order to have a better grain yield. Four strains with a high capacity for nitrogen fixation have been chosen and are widely exploited in commercial soybean production yet, farm owners continue to benefit from the selection procedures[36]. The strains that produced the maximum yield of soybean cultivar BR 133 and the highest nodulation rate in south Brazilian fields were the variants of SEMIA 566 and CB 1809. there was no discernible difference between the N fixing capacity of both strains and the fertilized control group (200 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>)[37]. Rhizobia decrease in quantity over time due to factors such as soil characteristics, bacterial strain, and environmental circumstances. Yet, other studies have shown that the inoculant remains in the soil for five to fifteen years. It is challenging to substitute existing Bradyrhizobium inoculants with new and more effective strains; this must be done on the basis of periodic reinoculation. For instance, reinoculation may be required annually to replace the CPAC 15 strain, thereby increasing expenditures[38]. For example, strains with a greater persistency must be identified using molecular approaches, along with associated variables that may influence such persistency. The quantity of bacteria may be limited if the rhizobia is incompatible with the application of pesticides to seeds, the usage of micronutrients, or the size of tiny seeds. As a result, they may be directly injected in the soil furrow as liquid, peat, or granules (and not combined with fertilizers) since this is the most successful way to use inoculants [39].

However, since a larger rate of inocula is required, the inoculation of soil may be more expensive. For instance, in Brazil, a greater incidence of soybean nodulation may arise from inoculating seeds with broth inoculants in the furrow or 2.5 cm under the seed [40]. Rhizobial biodiversity is one of the most significant factors influencing the inoculant industry's efficiency, since it may lead to the selection of a greater number of acceptable strains. However, only 56 strains were used in Iran to identify soybean strains with great temperature tolerance. The genetic features of soybean rhizobia symbiosis that are most significant to agronomy, as well as the interactions between soil bacteria and soybeans. They did, however, note that further information is necessary in order to fully understand the molecular basis of the cultivar-strain specificity and the rhizobia competitors' occupation of nodules[41]. Therefore, these limitations need to be overcome in order to create more effective commercial inoculants and foster symbiotic relationships for the other significant agricultural crops.

In the USA, Brazil, and Argentina, soybean inoculation under field settings has proven effective. However, in certain places, the large populations of native soil rhizobia might negatively impact the efficacy of inoculants. The majority of Chinese soils have more than 105 soybean rhizobia per gram of soil, which prevents the inoculant from occupying nodules. The process of biological nitrogen fixation and rhizobial symbioses have received increased attention as a result of the need for the sustainable use of agricultural

methods. Numerous investigations have shown the genetic and phenotypic variety of Rhizobium species, which may be used to investigate the evolutionary relationships between individual species. Progress in the molecular genetics of rhizobia has facilitated a deeper understanding of these plant symbionts. Numerous studies on the use of mesorhizobia isolated from chickpea (*Cicer arietinum*), one of the most significant legumes and a nodule of Mesorhizobium species, have been carried out. Mesorhizobia has rapidly evolved. They said that the method of lateral transfer of chromosomal symbiosis islands in the field was used to carry out the first genetic transfer of *B. elkanii* and *Sinorhizobium fredii* by a strain of *B. japonicum* in symbiosis with soybean. However, the symbiosis genes in Mesorhizobium strains are often found in chromosomal symbiosis islands rather than plasmids. Three strains of Bacillus were obtained from the nodules of vigorously growing soybean plants planted in fields, and the effects of coinoculating these strains with *B. japonicum* on soybean growth were examined. The number and weight of soybean nodules, as well as the weight of the shoots and roots, total nitrogen, total biomass, and grain production, all rose when Bacillus strains and *B. japonicum* were coinoculated. Under the circumstances of suboptimal root zone temperatures, they suggested using a particular strain of *B. thuringiensis* NEB17 as plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) in soybean production systems. Short growing seasons have a detrimental impact on soybean development and N fixation, however PGPR may mitigate these impacts on plant growth [42].

- **MYCORRHIZAL FUNGAL INOCULANTS**

The relationship between soybeans and rhizobia is more studied than the relationship with mycorrhizal fungi. In general, soybeans respond well to *Glomus* inoculation; nevertheless, they have not responded well to inoculations with other genera. This is because plant P transporters are inhibited as a consequence of the fungus's absorption of P. AM fungal invasion may be linked to an increase in micronutrient content in plant tissues. For instance, compared to plants fertilized with P, colonized soybeans may absorb zinc at a faster rate [43]. In both fungal species, the total and active exterior mycelium as well as root colonization were reduced by increasing P rates. *G. intraradices* outgrew *G. margarita* in terms of development rate, which allowed it to inoculate soybean roots more effectively and create more active external mycelium. The generation of the active external mycelium and the inoculation of soybeans with *G. intraradices* both rose with time and decreased when P rates increased. Other researchers have also looked on mycorrhizal fungus-mediated soybean inoculation, including. *Glomus macrocarpum* root colonization gradually declined as P fertilization levels increased. In a sandy soil, no variations at 90 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of P, likewise found an inverse relationship between P availability and root colonization. Additionally, inoculation with AM fungus might delay the stress-induced premature senescence of nodules and mitigate the adverse effects of drought on soybean development. Proper combination of rhizobia and mycorrhizal fungi increases nodulation and nitrogen fixation as well as plant development and disease resistance. Mycorrhizal fungus inocula will play a more significant role in sustainable agriculture in the future.

- **PLANT - SOIL MANAGEMENT**

Globally, there has been a surge in interest in sustainable farming and soil management. Moreover, even though monocropping soybean output has recently increased, more efficient plowing techniques have helped to achieve successful crop yields. Even if no-tillage techniques may enhance these impacts, such an approach in present agricultural practices might result in a deterioration in soil quality. Soil quality may be negatively impacted by the removal of pasture from agricultural cultivations, the increasing frequency of soybean cultivation, and the conversion of natural vegetation into cropland. Several approaches to deal with the issue of employing large amounts of maize residues for soybean production in a no-till system. Promoting environmental advantages such decreased fuel use, carbon emissions, and soil erosion is standard procedure. Plant leftovers from the previous crop have the ability to increase overall

microbial activity, which in turn suppresses pathogen activity. While the debris stimulates microbial activity, it may also boost the activity of pathogens, such as *Macrophomina phaseolina*, which causes soybean charcoal rot, by preventing a drop in the inoculum density. The quantity of residues is greatly increased by high maize production, which is also a consequence of cropping system modifications that affect the breakdown of maize residues. These factors may also lessen the impact of no-till and conventional tillage on soybean cultivation.

The Brazilian soybean's reaction to the no-tillage method. They used slag or limestone, which are calcium and magnesium silicates, to change the pH of the soil. Slag is a reliable and efficient source for adjusting the acidity of soil, according to an assessment of the chemical characteristics of the soil conducted six, twelve, and eighteen months after the chemical compounds were applied. This was due to the fact that slag, applied without the use of chemicals, increased the soybean grain yield in the treated plots in comparison to the control treatment[44].

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

The significance of soybean output was discussed in relation to the variables that may have an impact on it. Using rhizobial inocula is the most crucial of these criteria. Further research is necessary to fully understand the relevance of using mycorrhizal fungus. It may be vital to protect agro-ecosystem services in order to mitigate the adverse consequences of climate change. The biotic relationships of soybean have been highlighted throughout the chapter. Although rhizobia and mycorrhizal fungi have more promise as biofertilizers, further research is needed to fully understand the function of soil microorganisms in relation to soybeans. Few rhizobia are thought to be able to survive under poor soil conditions, according to literature. Rhizobial strain bioinoculants effectively increase soybean production and growth. In conclusion, this chapter shows that, while more study is required, soybean management may have a significant impact on soybean productivity in the future.

## REFERENCES

1. Agarwal, D.K., et al., *Soybean: introduction, improvement, and utilization in India—problems and prospects*. Agricultural Research, 2013. **2**(4): p. 293-300.
2. Agomoh, I.V., et al., *Crop rotation enhances soybean yields and soil health indicators*. Soil Science Society of America Journal, 2021. **85**(4): p. 1185-1195.
3. Alharbi, K., et al., *Potassium humate and plant growth-promoting microbes jointly mitigate water deficit stress in soybean cultivated in salt-affected soil*. Plants, 2022. **11**(22): p. 3016.
4. Ali, E. and N.E. Awade, *Credit constraints and soybean farmers' welfare in subsistence agriculture in Togo*. Heliyon, 2019. **5**(4).
5. Aulia, R., et al., *Protein and lipid content estimation in soybeans using Raman hyperspectral imaging*. Frontiers in Plant Science, 2023. **14**.
6. Board, J.E. and C.S. Kahlon, *Soybean yield formation: what controls it and how it can be improved*. Soybean physiology and biochemistry, 2011: p. 1-36.
7. Boufleur, T.R., et al., *Soybean anthracnose caused by *Colletotrichum* species: Current status and future prospects*. Molecular Plant Pathology, 2021. **22**(4): p. 393-409.
8. Campobenedetto, C., et al., *Transcriptome analyses and antioxidant activity profiling reveal the role of a lignin-derived biostimulant seed treatment in enhancing heat stress tolerance in soybean*. Plants, 2020. **9**(10): p. 1308.
9. Carciochi, W.D., et al., *Soybean yield, biological N<sub>2</sub> fixation and seed composition responses to additional inoculation in the United States*. Scientific reports, 2019. **9**(1): p. 19908.
10. Cardarelli, M., et al., *Seed treatments with microorganisms can have a biostimulant effect by influencing germination and seedling growth of crops*. Plants, 2022. **11**(3): p. 259.

11. Castaldi, S., et al., *Plant growth promotion function of Bacillus sp. strains isolated from salt-pan rhizosphere and their biocontrol potential against Macrophomina phaseolina*. International journal of molecular sciences, 2021. **22**(7): p. 3324.
12. Chandel, A., et al., *Implications of seed vault storage strategies for conservation of seed bacterial microbiomes*. Frontiers in Microbiology, 2021. **12**: p. 784796.
13. Chang, W.-S., H.-I. Lee, and M. Hungria, *Soybean production in the Americas*. Principles of plant-microbe interactions: microbes for sustainable agriculture, 2015: p. 393-400.
14. Fagodiya, R., A. Trivedi, and B. Fagodia, *Impact of weather parameters on Alternaria leaf spot of soybean incited by Alternaria alternata*. Scientific Reports, 2022. **12**(1): p. 6131.
15. Foyer, C.H., et al., *Modelling predicts that soybean is poised to dominate crop production across Africa*. Plant, Cell & Environment, 2019. **42**(1): p. 373-385.
16. Grassini, P., et al., *Soybean*, in *Crop physiology case histories for major crops*. 2021, Elsevier. p. 282-319.
17. Guriqbal Singh, G.S., *The soybean: botany, production and uses*. 2010: CABI.
18. Hartman, G.L., et al., *Organically grown soybean production in the USA: Constraints and management of pathogens and insect pests*. Agronomy, 2016. **6**(1): p. 16.
19. Hartman, G.L., E.D. West, and T.K. Herman, *Crops that feed the World 2. Soybean—worldwide production, use, and constraints caused by pathogens and pests*. Food Security, 2011. **3**: p. 5-17.
20. Igiehon, N.O. and O.O. Babalola, *Below-ground-above-ground plant-microbial interactions: focusing on soybean, rhizobacteria and mycorrhizal fungi*. The open microbiology journal, 2018. **12**: p. 261.
21. Karges, K., et al., *Agro-economic prospects for expanding soybean production beyond its current northerly limit in Europe*. European Journal of Agronomy, 2022. **133**: p. 126415.
22. Khojely, D.M., et al., *History, current status, and prospects of soybean production and research in sub-Saharan Africa*. The Crop Journal, 2018. **6**(3): p. 226-235.
23. Li, S., et al., *SPM-IS: An auto-algorithm to acquire a mature soybean phenotype based on instance segmentation*. The Crop Journal, 2022. **10**(5): p. 1412-1423.
24. Linh, T.M., et al., *Metal-based nanoparticles enhance drought tolerance in soybean*. Journal of Nanomaterials, 2020. **2020**: p. 1-13.
25. Liu, M., et al., *Effects of biochar with inorganic and organic fertilizers on agronomic traits and nutrient absorption of soybean and fertility and microbes in purple soil*. Frontiers in Plant Science, 2022. **13**: p. 871021.
26. Marro, N., et al., *Soybean yield, protein content and oil quality in response to interaction of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and native microbial populations from mono-and rotation-cropped soils*. Applied Soil Ecology, 2020. **152**: p. 103575.
27. Masi, M., et al., *Truncatenolide, a bioactive disubstituted nonenolide produced by Colletotrichum truncatum, the causal agent of anthracnose of soybean in Argentina: Fungal antagonism and SAR Studies*. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 2022. **70**(32): p. 9834-9844.
28. Matthews, M.L., et al., *Soybean-BioCro: a semi-mechanistic model of soybean growth*. in silico Plants, 2022. **4**(1): p. diab032.
29. Meena, R.S., et al., *Response and interaction of Bradyrhizobium japonicum and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in the soybean rhizosphere*. Plant Growth Regulation, 2018. **84**: p. 207-223.
30. Miransari, M., *Abiotic and Biotic Stresses in Soybean Production: Soybean Production Volume 1*. Vol. 1. 2015: Academic press.
31. Osman, H.S., et al., *Interactive impacts of beneficial microbes and Si-Zn nanocomposite on growth and productivity of soybean subjected to water deficit under salt-affected soil conditions*. Plants, 2021. **10**(7): p. 1396.
32. Pagano, M.C. and M. Miransari, *The importance of soybean production worldwide*, in *Abiotic and biotic stresses in soybean production*. 2016, Elsevier. p. 1-26.
33. Preisler, A.C., et al., *Atrazine nanoencapsulation improves pre-emergence herbicidal activity against Bidens pilosa without enhancing long-term residual effect on Glycine max*. Pest management science, 2020. **76**(1): p. 141-149.
34. Radočaj, D., et al., *Optimal soybean (Glycine max L.) land suitability using gis-based multicriteria analysis and sentinel-2 multitemporal images*. Remote Sensing, 2020. **12**(9): p. 1463.
35. Rodríguez-Navarro, D., et al., *Soybean interactions with soil microbes, agronomical and molecular aspects*. Agronomy for Sustainable Development, 2011. **31**: p. 173-190.

36. Saleem, A., et al., *A genome-wide genetic diversity scan reveals multiple signatures of selection in a European soybean collection compared to Chinese collections of wild and cultivated soybean accessions*. *Frontiers in plant science*, 2021. **12**: p. 631767.
37. Siamabele, B., *The significance of soybean production in the face of changing climates in Africa*. *Cogent Food & Agriculture*, 2021. **7**(1): p. 1933745.
38. Sinclair, T.R., et al., *Soybean production potential in Africa*. *Global Food Security*, 2014. **3**(1): p. 31-40.
39. Singh, G. and B. Shivakumar, *The role of soybean in agriculture*. *The soybean: Botany, production and uses*. CAB International, Oxfordshire, UK, 2010: p. 24-47.
40. Sugiyama, A., *The soybean rhizosphere: Metabolites, microbes, and beyond—A review*. *Journal of advanced research*, 2019. **19**: p. 67-73.
41. Widyasari, K., M. Alazem, and K.-H. Kim, *Soybean resistance to soybean mosaic virus*. *Plants*, 2020. **9**(2): p. 219.
42. Xu, H., et al., *Progress in soybean genetic transformation over the last decade*. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 2022. **13**: p. 900318.
43. Yang, Q., et al., *Extraction of soybean planting area based on feature fusion technology of multi-source low altitude unmanned aerial vehicle images*. *Ecological Informatics*, 2022. **70**: p. 101715.
44. Zhang, X., et al., *Genome-wide identification and characterization of caffeic acid o-methyltransferase gene family in soybean*. *Plants*, 2021. **10**(12): p. 2816.