

The responses of CO₂ emission to nitrogen application and earthworm addition in the soybean cropland

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The impacts of nitrogen application and earthworms on soil respiration and microbial communities in the Huang-Huai-Hai Plain in China have received increasing attention in the literature. However, research on the impact of earthworms and nitrogen application frequency on soil carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission and the microbial community is still limited. We conducted a field study in a farming ecosystem to investigate the effects of earthworm activity and nitrogen application frequency on soil respiration in the Huang-Huai-Hai Plain. Nitrogen application frequency had a significant effect on soil respiration, but neither earthworms nor their interaction with nitrogen application frequency were significant. Low-frequency nitrogen application (NL) significantly increased soil respiration by 25%, while high-frequency nitrogen application (NH), earthworm addition (E), earthworm and high-frequency nitrogen application (E*NH), and earthworm and low-frequency nitrogen application (E*NL) also increased soil respiration by 21%, 21%, 12%, and 11%, respectively. The main reason for the rise in soil respiration was alterations in the bacterial community. The soil pH and soil NO₃⁻-N were lower under the NL treatment than under the NH treatment, the bacterial richness was higher. The abundance of Corynebacteriales, Gammaproteobacteria, and keystone taxa (Myxococcales) were favorably connected with the CO₂ emissions, while Verrucomicrobia, Thermoleophilia, and Verrucomicrobia were negatively correlated. Our results demonstrate the ecological importance of the bacterial community in mediating carbon cycling in the Huang-Huai-Hai Plain and show that the enhanced CO₂ emissions were affected by the diverse soil bacterial community composition deriving from different frequency nitrogen application.

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15

16 Abstract

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20 soil carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission and the microbial community is still limited. We conducted a
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29 alterations in the bacterial community. The soil pH and soil NO₃⁻-N were lower under the NL
30 treatment than under the NH treatment, the bacterial richness was higher. The abundance of
31 Corynebacteriales, Gammaproteobacteria, and keystone taxa (Myxococcales) were favorably
32 connected with the CO₂ emissions, while Verrucomicrobia, Thermoleophilia, and
33 Verrucomicrobia were negatively correlated. Our results demonstrate the ecological importance
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36 composition deriving from different frequency nitrogen application.

37 Introduction

38 Large amounts of CO₂ are released into the environment by soil through respiration, which

39 raises atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and undermines ecological sustainability (Bond-Lamberty
40 et al., 2010). The carbon budget of terrestrial ecosystems can be seriously affected by even minor
41 changes in soil respiration (Heimann et al., 2008). As one of the most active parts of the
42 terrestrial ecosystem, the agricultural system is crucial to the global carbon cycle (Crippa et al.,
43 2021). Soil carbon emissions from farmland must be understood to predict and manage soil
44 carbon stores (Wu et al., 2019). The main components of soil respiration are microbial and plant
45 root respiration, both of which are regulated by biotic and abiotic factors (Chen et al., 2019; Lei
46 et al., 2021), such as root dynamics, microclimate, substrate availability, nutrition levels, and soil
47 microbial activity (Allison et al., 2010; Talmon et al., 2011; Wagai et al., 2013; Bolat et al.,
48 2016; Wang et al., 2019). These variables have been incorporated into parameterizing models
49 that forecast shifts in the global carbon cycle. However, there remains uncertainty in estimating
50 soil respiration, which limits our capacity to forecast carbon cycling under scenarios of climate
51 change (Liu et al., 2020b). Microbial ecology is one of the most promising fields in the hunt for
52 novel indicators of soil carbon cycling (Liu et al., 2020b). Soil microorganisms play significant
53 roles in predicting CO₂ emission through microbial processes (Liu et al., 2018). Both theoretical
54 and practical evidences point to the possibility of predicting soil carbon fluxes using the
55 functional and taxonomic characteristics of soil microbial communities (Liu et al., 2019; Allison
56 et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2018). For instance, changes in the soil microbial community
57 composition have an impact on soil carbon respiration and fixation (Monteux et al., 2018; Müller
58 et al., 2018). Previous studies have revealed that the compositions of these microbial
59 communities may play a role in regulating CO₂ emissions (Chen et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2019)
60 since copiotrophs have a faster respiration rate than oligotrophs and that proteobacteria and
61 actinobacteria are positively connected with CO₂ emissions (Liu et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2021;
62 Liu et al., 2020). So far, the extent to which the structure and the composition of the microbial
63 community altered CO₂ emission in farming systems has not yet been thoroughly determined.

64 Fertilization is typically thought to be the primary method for increasing crop yield, it also
65 has a significant impact on the carbon pool and carbon flux in the soil. The structure and function
66 of the world's ecosystems are significantly impacted by changes caused by anthropogenic
67 nitrogen application (Cao et al., 2021). The influence of nitrogen application is still being
68 debated despite many nitrogen addition experiments being carried out to examine how ecosystem
69 carbon exchange mechanisms respond to nitrogen application (Cao et al., 2020; Yang et al.,
70 2020). The frequency of nitrogen amendment is a key factor for simulating nitrogen application.
71 The frequency of nitrogen addition has many effects on the ecosystem. For example, under
72 different nitrogen addition frequencies, nitrogen accumulation, plant nitrogen concentration,
73 plant species loss, and plant biomass are significantly different (Ning et al. 2022). At present,
74 there are few reports on the effects of nitrogen application frequency on soil respiration,
75 particularly when it comes to microbial communities. Hence, nitrogen application frequency
76 experiments included plant, soil and microbial components of ecosystems are needed to fill this
77 gap in understanding (Cao et al., 2020).

78 In soil formation and function processes, earthworms play a crucial role as keystone
79 detritivores and ecosystem engineers (Fonte et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2019; Fahey et al., 2013).

80 They can affect soil carbon dynamics since they are ecosystem engineers living in the soil
81 (Jennings et al., 2016). Previous research has demonstrated that soil CO₂ emissions can rise as a
82 results of earthworm invasion (Lubbers et al., 2013). Through their interactions with microbes,
83 macro, and microfauna, earthworms greatly influence the decomposition process and increase
84 heterotrophic activity, which in turn affects soil carbon dioxide emissions (Fisk et al., 2004).
85 Earthworms directly or indirectly affect nitrogen cycle and have the potential to alter ecosystem
86 functions and services in relation to nitrogen cycle (Xue et al., 2022). However, there is still
87 limited research on the effects of nitrogen application frequency and earthworm addition on
88 ecosystem carbon emissions. Therefore, disentangling how nitrogen application frequency and
89 earthworm addition affect CO₂ emission and its relationship with the soil microbial community
90 is of great significance for mediating C cycling in farmland.

91 Here, we aimed to explore how the microbial community regulates the response of CO₂
92 emission to different frequencies of nitrogen application and earthworm addition. In this study,
93 field experiment with six treatments was performed in the Huang-Huai-Hai Plain. The specific
94 questions of this study we tried to address are: (1) How does CO₂ emission respond to nitrogen
95 application frequency and earthworms? (2) What were the underlying mechanisms influencing
96 CO₂ emission response to nitrogen application frequency and earthworms?

97 **Materials and methods**

98 Study site

99 This research was performed at the farm of Jinming Campus of Henan University, Kaifeng
100 City, Henan Province, China (34°49'N, 114°18'E). The crop was soybean and the variety is
101 Kaidou 1104. A permanent 25 × 10 m² rainout shelters with steel frames and covered with clear
102 polyethylene roof was built in late summer 2021 to control precipitation inputs each year, to
103 avoid the death of soybean and earthworms caused by extreme rainfall. The appropriate rainfall
104 amounts were selected to simulate natural precipitation in the local area with the long-term
105 rainfall means. The region belongs to temperate continental monsoon climate with an annual
106 mean temperature of 14 °C and the annual mean precipitation is of 650 mm (80% occurring
107 between July and August). The soil texture is sandy loam.

108 Experimental design

109 The experiment used a randomized block design involving two factors of nitrogen and
110 earthworm, including six treatments: C (control), E (earthworm addition), NH (high-frequency
111 nitrogen application), NL (low-frequency nitrogen application), E*NH (earthworm and high-
112 frequency nitrogen application), and E*NL (earthworm and low-frequency nitrogen application).
113 Each treatment was replicated five times with an area of 1m × 1 m per plot. The total gram of
114 earthworms (*Metaphire guillelmi*) was controlled at 8.0-8.9g/m² (about 2-4 earthworms) (Li et
115 al., 2022). Each block was surrounded by glass to prevent earthworms from escaping. Nitrogen
116 (urea) was added by water dissolving and root topdressing. The total amount of nitrogen added
117 was the same as the conventional local field nitrogen application. The experiment included two
118 frequencies of N application (2 times vs. 12 times): High frequency nitrogen was applied once

119 every seven days from July 15th to September 30th, and low frequency nitrogen was applied
120 once every 30 days from July 15th to September 30th. From seedling stage (VE) to drum stage
121 (R6), high-frequency nitrogen was uniformly added 12 times with 29 N kg·hm⁻² each time and
122 low-frequency nitrogen was uniformly added twice with 174 N kg·hm⁻² each time. Earthworms
123 were added in July 15th and August 21st, 2022.

124 Measurement of soil respiration

125 Soil respiration and temperature were measured every seven days during the Soybean
126 growing season using a Li-8100 portable soil CO₂ flux system (Li-Cor, Inc. Lincoln, NE, USA)
127 and a thermocouple probe (Li-8100-201, Li-Cor, Inc. Lincoln, NE, USA) connected to the Li-
128 8100 in June 2022 to October 2022. Soil volumetric water content at 0-10cm soil depth was
129 determined adjacent to each collar using a soil detector (TR-6D). All measurements were
130 performed between 9 a.m. and 11:30 a.m. To avoid the respiration of aboveground parts of plants
131 and litter decomposition, all living plants and litter inside the collars were removed by hand two
132 days before soil respiration was measured. If it rains heavily, our measurement would be
133 postponed for two days.

134 Soil sampling and analysis and plant index measurements

135 In September 2022. Three soil cores were randomly collected from each plot at a depth of
136 0-10 cm using a soil corer (inner diameter 5 cm) and mixed into one, sieved through a 2 mm
137 mesh to separate gravel and roots, and divided into three parts. One subsample was stored at 4 °C
138 for the analysis of the chemical properties of soil i.e. the available ammonium and nitrate using a
139 colourimetric method (Smart Chem 200 Discrete Auto Analyser, Systea, Italy). Another
140 subsample was air-dried and ground for analysis of pH, total N (TN) and total carbon (TC). The
141 soil pH was measured with a soil pH meter (TR-6D). The soil TN and TC concentrations were
142 measured by a Vario ELIII Elementar (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Germany) elemental
143 analyzer. The third part was stored at -20 °C for the analysis of the microbial community
144 diversity composition spectrum (Wang et al., 2022).

145 After removing the whole plant from the soil, rinsed it slowly with running water to
146 separate the above and below-ground parts of the plant from the cotyledon nodes. The washed
147 roots were dried in an oven at 65°C to a constant weight, and the root biomass (RB) was
148 weighed. Aboveground biomass (AGB) was weighed after two weeks of natural air drying.
149 Grain yield (GRY) was measured by removing the mature pods from the plants, placing them in
150 paper bags, and leaving them in a ventilated place for drying to constant weight. The plant height
151 (PLH) was measured by selecting 3 plants from each plot and measuring them with a tape
152 measure. The number of pods per plant (NPP) and number of grains per plant (NGP) were also
153 artificially measured by choosing 3 plants from each plot (Ji et al., 2017). 100 grain weight
154 (W100) was chosen at random from the grain yield of each plot and weighed using a precision
155 scale (Ji et al., 2017).

156 DNA extraction, PCR amplification, and Illumina sequencing

157 Data were collected as previously described in Li et al. (2022). Specifically using E.Z.N.A

158 Soil DNA Kit (Omega Bio-tek, Norcross, Georgia, USA), soil DNA was extracted from each
159 sample in accordance with the manufacturer's protocol. The purity and concentration of the
160 extracted DNA were determined by a NanoDrop-2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher
161 Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) (Li et al., 2022). Purified soil DNA was fully pooled together
162 after quantitative determination and then for downstream manipulations (Wang et al., 2022). The
163 V3-V4 of bacterial 16S rRNA genes were amplified with the following universal primer set:
164 upstream primers 338F (5'-ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCA-3') and downstream primers 806R
165 (5'-GGACTA CHVGGGTWTCTAAT3'). For fungi, the primers ITS5 (5'-GGAAGTAAA
166 AGTCGTAACAAGG -3') and ITS2 (5'-GCTGCG TTC TTCATCGATGC-3') (Usyk et al.,
167 2017) were used to amplify the ITS_V1 region of the rDNA gene. PCR reactions were
168 performed in 25 μ L reaction mixtures containing 5 μ L 5 \times reaction buffer, 5 μ L 5 \times GC buffer, 2 μ L
169 2.5mM dNTPs, 1 μ L Forwardprimer (10uM), 1 μ L Reverseprimer (10uM), 2 μ L DNA Template,
170 8.75 μ L ddH₂O, 0.25 μ L Q5 DNA Polymerase. The reaction conditions were programmed of an
171 initial denaturing step at 98°C for 2 min, denaturation 98°C 15s, annealing 55°C 30s,
172 extension 72°C 30s, final extension 72°C 5min and 10°C hold 25-30cycles. Samples were
173 sequenced in an Illumina MiSeq High-Throughput Sequencing (HTS) platform (Illumina, San
174 Diego, CA, USA) at Personal Biotechnology Co. Ltd Shanghai, China to determine soil
175 microbial community composition.

176 Statistical analyses

177 Data were collected as previously described in Wang et al. (2022). Specifically, the
178 sequenced data was performed using QIIME 2 2019.4 with slight modification. Raw sequence
179 data were demultiplexed using the demux plugin followed by primers cutting with cutadapt
180 plugin. Sequences were then merged, filtered and dereplicated using functions of
181 fastq_mergepairs, fastq_filter, and derep_fulllength in Vsearch. All the unique sequences were
182 then clustered at 98% (via cluster_size) followed by chimera removing. At last, the non-chimera
183 sequences were re-clustered at 97% to generate OTU representative sequences and OTU table.
184 Representative sequences were aligned with mafft and used to construct a phylogeny with
185 fasttree. Alpha-diversity metrics (Observed_species, Simpson) were estimated using the diversity
186 plugin with samples were rarefied. Meanwhile, principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) was
187 selected to illustrate the clustering of different samples. In this study, Pco1 and Pco2 were used
188 to represent the β diversity of microbial communities. ASVs were given a taxonomy using the
189 Silva v132 99% OTU reference sequences and the classify-sklearn nave Bayes taxonomy
190 classifier in the feature-classifier plugin (Liu et al., 2020).

191 Two-way ANOVAs ($p < 0.05$) was used to analyze the significant differences between
192 nitrogen application frequency and earthworms on CO₂ emission and soil properties. One-way
193 ANOVA with Duncan testing ($p < 0.05$) was used to evaluate the significant differences in soil
194 properties and CO₂ emission among the six treatments. Linear regression analysis was used to
195 study the relationship between soil respiration, soil property and soil microbial community under
196 six treatments. Spearman's correlation analyses were performed to assess the relationships
197 between soil properties, respiration, plant biomass and microbial community. Soil chemical

198 properties data were analyzed with SPSS software (version 26, IBM, Chicago, IL, USA). We
199 conducted a classification random forest analysis to identify the major statistically significant
200 microbial predictors of the composition (relative abundance: number of sequences of major
201 phyla/class/order level) of bacteria and fungi acting on soil respiration. The analysis was
202 conducted using the rfPermute package of the R (4.2.2) statistical software. The significant
203 predictors from random forest analysis were further selected for structural equation modeling
204 (SEM) analysis. SEM analysis was applied to determine the direct and indirect contributions of
205 soil properties and the bacterial community to CO₂ emission. SEM analysis was performed using
206 AMOS 22.0 software (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). The model fitness was evaluated by χ^2 ($p >$
207 0.05), comparative fit index, and root mean square error of approximation.

208 **Results**

209 Nitrogen and earthworm application effects on soil respiration

210 Soil respiration varied with Soybean growth period, showing obvious seasonal variation
211 (Fig. 1a). It was the lowest during the early vegetative stage (Jun.23 to Jul.14), reached
212 maximum at the reproductive stage (Jul.21 to Sep.7), and started declining during the maturity
213 period (Sep.7 to Sep.17). Total soil respiration varied during the study from 1.13 to 4.63 mmol
214 m⁻² s⁻¹, with an average of $2.55 \pm 0.12 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 1b). Compared with C, soil respiration
215 in the NL increased significantly by 25 %. E*NH, E*NL, NH, and E increased by 21%, 21%,
216 12%, and 11%, respectively. Overall, soil respiration was significantly affected by nitrogen
217 application, but not by earthworm addition or interaction between nitrogen and earthworm
218 addition. (Table 1).

219 Nitrogen and earthworm application effects on soil properties, plant biomass and agronomic 220 traits

221 Nitrogen application significantly influenced soil pH, TN, NO₃⁻-N, and NH₄⁺-N. No effects
222 of earthworm on soil properties were found. There was interactive effect between N application
223 and earthworm on grain yield was detected (Table 1). The E*NL treatment had the highest soil
224 TN, which was also significantly higher than the C and E treatments (Fig. 2). In comparison to
225 the control treatment (Fig. 2), the soil NO₃⁻-N was considerably greater in nitrogen application
226 treatments (NH, NL, E*NH, E*NL). Soil NH₄⁺-N was significantly higher in NH and E*NH than
227 in other treatments (Fig. 2). Soil pH of E*NL, NL, NH, E*NH decreased by 3.38%, 3.03%,
228 2.17%, 1.64%, and E increased 1.26% compared with C. The highest grain yield was observed in
229 E*NH, which was also significantly greater than NH (Fig. 2). However, neither the application
230 of nitrogen nor its interaction with earthworms had significant influence on soil temperature, TC,
231 plant biomass and agronomic traits (except grain yield).

232 Soil microbial community composition for predicting soil respiration

233 Using random forest modeling, we identified the major bacterial and fungal phyla, classes
234 and orders for predicting soil respiration. These taxa include several bacterial and fungal such as

235 Corynebacteriales, Myxococcales, Sordariomycetes, Verrucomicrobia, Thermoleophilia,
236 Agaricomycetes, Gammaproteobacteria, Blastocladiomycetes, and Proteobacteria (Fig. 3).

237 The Spearman's correlation coefficients between the microbial characteristics and the soil
238 respiration as well as soil properties were estimated (Table 2). Soil respiration rate was
239 correlated to bacterial simpson. Particularly, there were significant relationships between the
240 respiration and the relative abundance of major bacterial and fungal phyla. The findings
241 demonstrated a strong correlation between soil respiration and the abundances of
242 Blastocladiomycetes and Agaricomycetes in the fungal compositions as well as
243 Gammaproteobacteria, Verrucomicrobia, Thermoleophilia, and Myxococcales in the bacterial
244 compositions. (Fig. 3 and Table 2).

245 Relationships between soil respiration and abiotic and biotic factors

246 Soil respiration showed positive correlation with Nitrate N ($R^2 = 0.10$, $p < 0.05$, Fig. S1),
247 aboveground biomass ($R^2 = 0.16$, $p < 0.05$, Fig. S1), Plant height ($R^2 = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$, Fig. S1),
248 Grain yield ($R^2 = 0.12$, $p < 0.05$, Fig. S1), and negatively with soil pH ($R^2 = 0.18$, $p < 0.05$, Fig.
249 S1), but it was not correlated with root biomass (Fig. S1).

250 Additionally, soil respiration was significantly positively correlated with the relative
251 abundance of Gammaproteobacteria and Corynebacteriales, as well as bacteria Pco1, and
252 negatively correlated with the relative abundance of Myxococcales, Verrucomicrobia and
253 Thermoleophilia (Fig. S2). Notably, the relative abundance of Thermoleophilia, Myxococcales
254 and Verrucomicrobia was low in NL, while the relative abundance of Corynebacteriales and
255 Gammaproteobacteria was high. In general, NL treatment raised the relative abundance of
256 copiotrophs while decreasing the relative abundance of oligotrophs.

257 Structural equation modeling (SEM) further suggested that bacteria richness and microbial
258 composition (Proteobacteria, Myxococcales) had strong direct effects on soil respiration (Fig. 4).
259 However, nitrogen application mostly had indirect impacts on soil respiration through pH, NO_3^- -
260 N, Proteobacteria, Myxococcales, and bacteria richness, while earthworm addition had indirect
261 impacts on soil respiration through NO_3^- -N, aboveground biomass, grain yield and root biomass.
262 Overall, the most important microbial attributes controlling soil respiration rates were the
263 relative abundances of Proteobacteria and Myxococcales, and bacteria richness.

264 Discussion

265 Effects of nitrogen application frequency on soil respiration and microbial community

266 Order to increase crop output and soil quality, nitrogen fertilizer is frequently seen as a
267 usual method (He et al., 2022). But fertilization practices can significantly impact on soil CO_2
268 emissions (Wang et al., 2021). In the study, fertilizer treatments considerably improved soil CO_2
269 emission by 12-25% in comparison to the control treatment, which is consistence with previous
270 study findings (Yan et al., 2020; Lamptey et al., 2019). In addition, NL promoted soil respiration
271 more than NH, indicating that nitrogen inhibited soil respiration with the increase of nitrogen
272 frequency. Low-frequency nitrogen promotes CO_2 emission, which may be due to the high level
273 of NO_3^- -N and low level of pH increase the bacterial richness and change microbial community

274 composition, thus stimulating soil heterotrophic respiration and CO₂ emission. Similar findings
275 from earlier investigations have been noted, for example, at the 2-N frequency, the application of
276 N led to a lower, more acidic pH (Ning et al., 2015); When the same total N loading is applied in
277 a single pulse rather than repeatedly, soil acidification and mineral N toxicity are more likely to
278 be exacerbated (Ning et al., 2015). Plants mainly capture N from the abundant soil N form (Cao
279 et al., 2021), which can help to explain the NO₃⁻-N plays a critical role as the most abundant
280 available nitrogen in our study. Previous studies showed both soil microbial community and soil
281 pH value affect soil respiration (Whitaker et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2020a; Liu et al., 2020b). NO₃⁻-
282 N and pH were found to be important environmental factors in explaining changes in bacterial
283 community composition (Chen et al., 2021).

284 In this study, NL treatment obviously increased the bacterial richness compared to C, while
285 NH showed the opposite trend. The result was in accordance with previous researches. For
286 instance, soil respiration rises when nitrogen levels rise, which is compatible with increased
287 bacterial abundance and suggests that this reaction may be driven by an increased metabolic rate
288 (Hagerty et al., 2014). As far as we know, there is almost no research on the impact of nitrogen
289 application at different frequencies on bacterial richness. Much of the research has been on the
290 effects of adding different levels of nitrogen on microbial richness. For instance, research has
291 shown that adding nitrogen within a specific range might increase the amount of bacteria
292 quantity, but that adding nitrogen in excessive would have an opposite effect (Ma et al., 2007). In
293 our study, low-frequency nitrogen increased bacterial richness relative to high-frequency
294 nitrogen, which is consistent with other results in this study that low-frequency nitrogen played a
295 promoting role relative to high-frequency nitrogen. The increase in NO₃⁻-N and NH₄⁺-N and
296 decrease in pH after nitrogen application are directly correlated with the bacteria richness. Most
297 bacteria prefer a pH that is close to neutral, and they are sensitive to pH variations (Anil et al.,
298 2019). Nitrification may result in soil acidification, and the application of nitrogen enhances this
299 reaction and further lowers pH (Sun et al., 2019). In our study, acidification of alkaline soil
300 would make an ideal habitat for the soil microbial community to promote soil respiration. The
301 substrate (such NO₃⁻-N) that provides nutrients for microorganisms may be related to the rise in
302 soil bacterial community richness (Chen et al., 2021), which is consistent with our results. In the
303 6th and 7th years following nitrogen application, Cao et al. (2020) showed that high frequency
304 considerably reduced the detrimental effects of nitrogen application on plant and soil bacterial
305 diversity. In the present study, NH reduced the negative effect of nitrogen application on fungal
306 diversity than NL, while the trend of bacterial diversity was the opposite, which may be due to
307 the strong alkaline soil in our experimental site.

308 Effects of earthworm on soil respiration and microbial community

309 Earthworm activity can increase the contents of soil active organic carbon, soil inorganic
310 nitrogen, microbial biomass carbon, and microbial biomass nitrogen (Yu et al., 2007; Li et al.,
311 2002). Additionally, earthworm addition may also increase soil CO₂ emissions (Lubbers et al.,
312 2013). In this study, earthworm addition enhanced soil CO₂ emissions, which is consistent with
313 previous research results (Lubbers et al., 2013; Song et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2019). This could

314 be explained by change in the composition of the microbial community after the addition of
315 earthworms (Yu et al., 2010). In our study, earthworm addition had no direct effects on soil
316 respiration but indirectly affected the soil respiration through altering the relative abundance of
317 Myxococcales and Verrucomicrobia. Furthermore, our results demonstrated that the addition of
318 earthworms promoted soil respiration for a short period of time.

319 In the present study, the addition of earthworms increased bacterial richness and affected
320 the relative abundance of potential keystone taxa as well as the fungal community structure. It
321 has been shown that soluble carbon and other compounds released in the digestive tract of
322 earthworms contribute to bacterial proliferation (Barbosa et al., 2017). Changes in physical and
323 chemical properties such as pH and available nitrogen led to changes in microbial community
324 composition and fungal communities, after the application of earthworm feces (Zhao et al.,
325 2016). Some studies indicated that earthworm addition increased soil pH (Wang et al., 2013),
326 while others showed that earthworm addition decreased soil pH (Xu et al., 2021). This might be
327 because earthworm activity altered the soil's water vapor coordination and acid-base neutral
328 aggregate structure, encouraging soil acid-base balance (Yu et al., 2010).

329 Effects of nitrogen application frequency and earthworm on soil respiration

330 In the study, the addition of earthworms and the interaction between earthworms and
331 nitrogen had no significant effect on soil respiration, which may be because the reduction of
332 respiration rate caused by the absorption of sufficient nitrogen by plants and the increase of
333 respiration rate caused by earthworm addition offset each other. Another possible explanation is
334 that earthworm addition is not adapted to the habitat and cannot survive for a long time, so it has
335 only a short-term (1-2 weeks) effect on soil respiration. Nevertheless, the effect of earthworms
336 and nitrogen on soil respiration is additive, which has important practical significance. We offer
337 scientific references for research on how soil respiration in the Yellow River beach area is
338 impacted by soil animals and nitrogen addition, and we examine whether the short-term (3-4
339 month) effects of earthworms may be ignored.

340 Microbial community and soil properties regulated CO₂ emission

341 Important microbial classification and functional properties have been reported to
342 potentially predict changes in soil respiration. Based on the study of the random forest model, we
343 were able to pinpoint the primary microbial taxa that predict soil respiration. They have been
344 demonstrated to be a key factor in determining the rate of soil respiration. The
345 Corynebacteriaceae upregulation belonging to Actinobacteria was known to be oligotrophic,
346 which is better adapted to environments with insufficient nutrient and carbon resources. As a
347 result, it plays a part in the degradation of recalcitrant compounds (Fu et al., 2022). The
348 investigation's findings indicated that a major predictor of soil respiration was the unclassified
349 Myxococcales cluster1-27 (Liu et al., 2019). Proteobacteria have been found to prefer soils with
350 abundant carbon availability, hence this phylum might encourage increases in the SOC fractions
351 and respiration. Additionally, SOC fractions and respiration were substantially connected with
352 Gammaproteobacteria, Sordariomycetes, and Agaricomycetes (Wang et al., 2018). In our study,

353 Gammaproteobacteria and Corynebacteriales had a beneficial correlation with soil CO₂ emission,
354 but negatively correlated with Myxococcales, Verrucomicrobia, and Thermoleophilia. In line
355 with our findings, nitrogen application in the mixed conifer soil resulted in a decrease in the
356 absolute abundances of Thermoleophilia and Verrucomicrobia (Liu et al., 2021). This suggests
357 that nitrogen application may alleviate the cost of nutrient stress and increase microbial growth
358 (Hessen et al., 2004; Li et al., 2019). According to generally believed accounts, copiotrophs and
359 oligotrophs have ability to use C for respiration. In general, it has been suggested that
360 oligotrophs have slower respiration rates than copiotrophs (Liu et al., 2108; Chen et al., 2021;
361 Liu et al., 2020). Myxococcales and Gammaproteobacteria are considered potential copiotrophs,
362 but Verrucomicrobia, Thermoleophilia, and Corynebacteriales are classified as oligotrophs
363 (Chen et al., 2021). Thermoleophilia and Corynebacteriales, two crucial Actinobacterial groups
364 for forecasting soil respiration, exhibited the lowest sum of relative abundance in the NL
365 treatment compared to other treatments, although Gammaproteobacteria showed an increasing
366 trend. Consequently, the relationship between bacterial community structure and CO₂ emission
367 may be explained by the activity of bacterial communities in response to changes in the
368 oligotroph-to-copiotroph ratio within the community, which may also explain why NL has the
369 highest CO₂ emissions.

370 The SEM demonstrated a strong association of bacterial community richness and the
371 potential keystone taxa with the respiration rates, indicating that changes in the community
372 composition of soil bacteria could result in predictable variations in soil respiration. Meanwhile,
373 the important taxa may also alter the soil microbial community composition, which may have an
374 impact on the rates of soil carbon respiration. These findings are consistent with recent research
375 emphasizing the crucial function of key taxa and the microbial community composition in soil
376 respiration (Liu et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2022). Importantly, our SEM revealed
377 that soil properties like pH and NO₃⁻-N affected soil respiration rates indirectly by changing the
378 soil microbial community rather than directly (Liu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2022). Our results
379 highlight the importance of core species and community composition as predictors in the
380 development of the soil carbon model (Liu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2022;
381 Whitaker et al., 2014). Moreover, the bacterial communities control the major of ecological
382 activities in agricultural ecosystems (Van Der Heijden et al., 2007), which is consistence with
383 our study. This finding shows that more attention should be paid to the microbial community in
384 regulating carbon emissions. These results can predict how carbon emissions will respond to
385 climate change, providing inspiration for how to manage extensive and valuable agricultural soil
386 carbon storage in the future. (Liu et al., 2019).

387 **Conclusions**

388 Our results reveal that nitrogen application frequency has a significant impact on CO₂
389 emissions. The direct change of bacterial community composition and the indirect change of soil
390 pH and NO₃⁻-N are the reasons for the large increase of CO₂ emission in low-frequency nitrogen.
391 Earthworm addition briefly increased soil respiration and contributed in an additive way to the
392 reaction of CO₂ emissions to the frequency of nitrogen application, despite we did not see a

393 significant response of CO₂ emission to earthworm addition. Furthermore, our study advances
394 our understanding of soil carbon emissions from croplands by highlighting the significance of
395 microbial community composition and keystone species in forecasting soil CO₂ emissions.
396 Overall, this study provides data support and fills the knowledge gap for studying the effects of
397 nitrogen application frequency and soil animals on CO₂ emissions in the Huang-Huai-Hai Plain.
398 This study provided further evidence that ecosystem structure and functional traits are influenced
399 by the frequency of nitrogen application. More of the nitrogen application process will be
400 required in the future order to better understand the microbiological alterations and mechanisms
401 in ecosystems' carbon cycles.

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600 ADDITIONAL INFORMATION AND DECLARATIONS

601

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611 **Competing Interests**

612 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

613

614 **Author contribution**

615 • Meiguang Jiang conceived and designed the experiments, performed the experiments, analyzed
616 the data, prepared figures and/or tables, authored or reviewed drafts of the article, and approved
617 the final draft.

618 • Jingyuan Yang performed the experiments, authored or reviewed drafts of the article, and
619 approved the final draft.

620 • Qi Xu performed the experiments, authored or reviewed drafts of the article, and approved the
621 final draft.

622 • Linyu Qi performed the experiments, authored or reviewed drafts of the article, and approved the
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624 • Yue Gao performed the experiments, authored or reviewed drafts of the article, and approved the
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626 • Huijie Lu performed the experiments, authored or reviewed drafts of the article, and approved
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628 • Yuan Miao conceived and designed the experiments, authored or reviewed drafts of the article,
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630 • Cancan Zhao conceived and designed the experiments, authored or reviewed drafts of the article,
631 and approved the final draft

632 • Shijie Han conceived and designed the experiments, authored or reviewed drafts of the article,
633 and approved the final draft

634

635 **Data Availability**

636 The following information was supplied regarding data availability:

637 The raw data are available in the Supplemental Files.

638 Sequence Data, <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/?term=PRJNA1008076>

Figure 1

Seasonal dynamics and mean values of soil respiration under the six treatments in 2022 ($M \pm SE$, $n = 5$).

Control (C), high-frequency nitrogen application (NH), low-frequency nitrogen application (NL), earthworm addition (E), earthworm and high-frequency nitrogen application (E*NH), earthworm and low-frequency nitrogen application (E*NL).

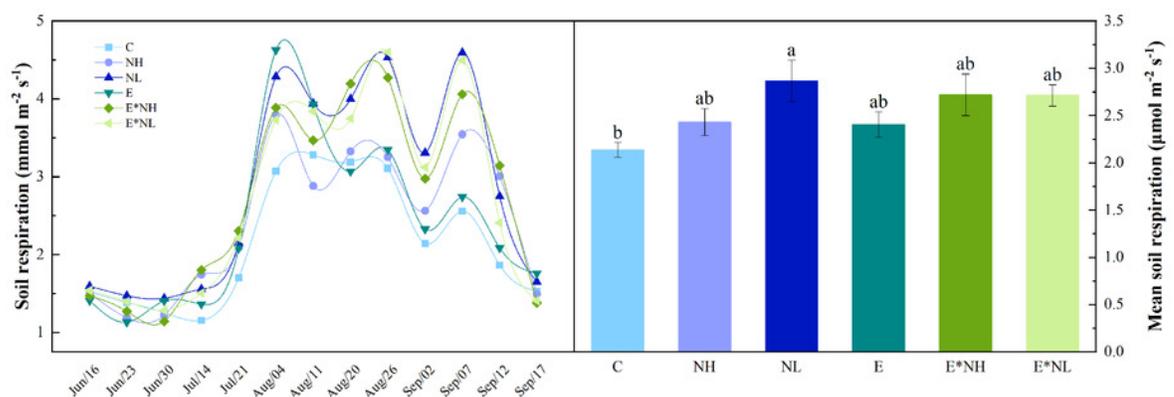


Figure 2

Effects of nitrogen addition (NH, NL) and earthworm addition (E) on Total N (TN), Grain yield (GRY), Nitrate N (NO_3^- -N) and Ammonium N (NH_4^+ -N) in 2022 ($M \pm SE$, $n = 5$).

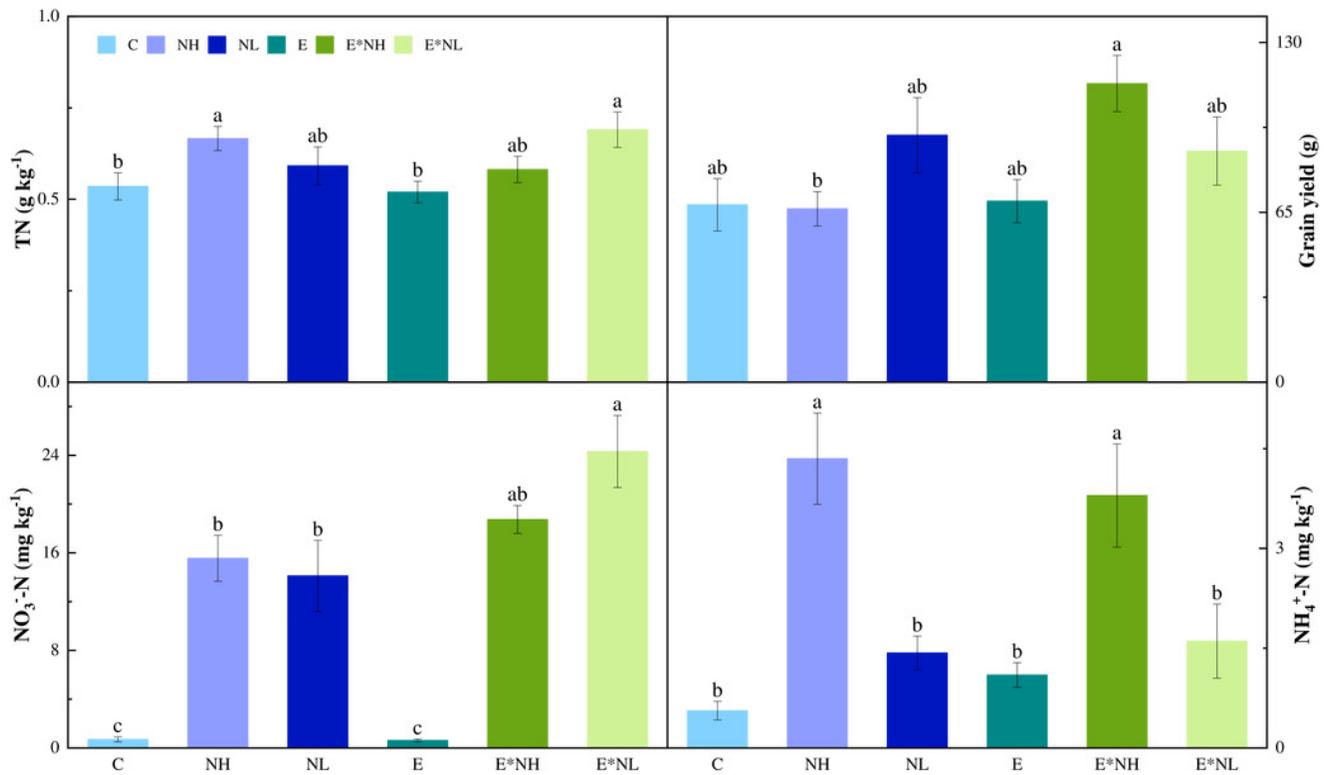


Figure 3

Predictor importance of major bacterial and fungal phyla/classes as drivers of soil respiration based on random forest model.

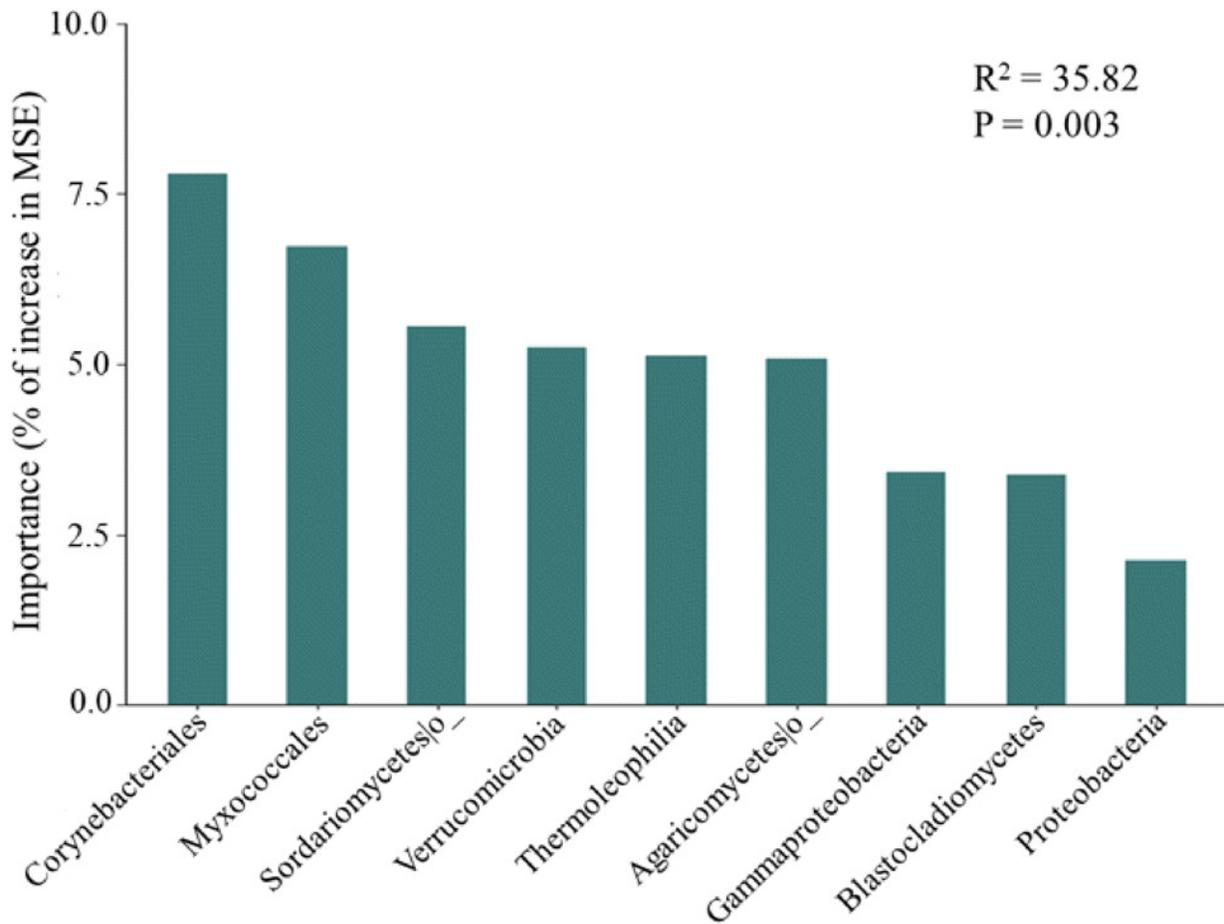


Figure 4

Structural equation modeling (SEM) showing effects of soil abiotic and biotic properties on soil respiration.

Blue and red lines indicate significant positive and negative relationships, respectively. *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$.

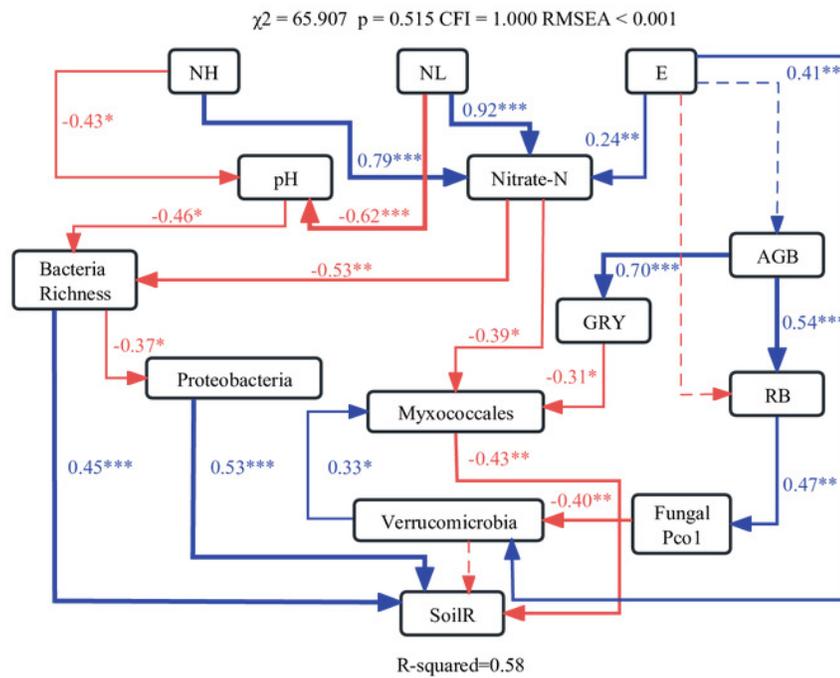


Table 1 (on next page)

Results (F and p values) of two-way ANOVAs on the effects of Nitrogen application (N), Earthworm addition (E), and their interactions on Soil respiration (SR), Soil temperature (ST), Soil moisture (SM), Soil pH, Total C (TC), Total N (TN), Nitrate N (NO₃-N)

Statistical differences are indicated as *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 and ***p < 0.001.

1

Variables	N	E	N × E
SR	5.322*	1.202	1.281
ST	0.210	0.034	0.581
SM	2.248	2.202	3.042
Soil pH	5.370*	0.186	0.241
TN	4.566*	0.031	3.157
TC	0.394	0.440	0.529
NO ₃ ⁻ -N	14.581***	0.417	1.600
NH ₄ ⁺ -N	6.207**	1.515	0.915
AGB	0.750	1.967	2.675
RB	0.301	0.121	1.516
PLH	2.137	0.723	1.563
NPP	0.270	0.002	2.326
NGP	0.355	0.002	2.897
GRY	2.838	2.650	3.651*
W100	0.893	2.929	0.907

2

3 **Table 1.** Results (F and p values) of two-way ANOVAs on the effects of Nitrogen application (N), Earthworm addition (E), and
4 their interactions on Soil respiration (SR), Soil temperature (ST), Soil moisture (SM), Soil pH, Total C (TC), Total N (TN), Nitrate
5 N (NO₃⁻-N), Ammonium N (NH₄⁺-N), Aboveground biomass (AGB), Root biomass (RB), Plant height (PLH), Number of pods
6 per plant (NPP), Number of grains per plant (NGP), Grain yield (GRY), 100-grain weight (W100). Statistical differences are
7 indicated as *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 and ***p < 0.001.

8

Table 2 (on next page)

Spearman's rank correlation coefficients (ρ) between the microbial (bacterial and fungal) characteristics soil properties, and plant biomass as well as soil respiration.

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level; * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Richness (number of OTUs), Simpson (alpha diversity), Pco1, Pco2 (beta diversity), Soil respiration (SR), Soil temperature (ST), Soil moisture (SM), Soil pH, Total C (TC), Total N (TN), Nitrate N (NO_3^- -N), Ammonium N (NH_4^+ -N), Aboveground biomass (AGB), Root biomass (RB).

1

Microbial community	SR	ST	SM	SWC	Soil pH	TN	TC	NO ₃ ⁻ -N	NH ₄ ⁺ -N	AGB	RB
Bacterial Richness	-0.022	-0.226	-0.341	-0.192	-0.044	0.153	-0.265	-0.390*	-0.113	-0.078	-0.154
Bacterial Simpson	-0.459*	-0.109	-0.023	-0.001	0.096	0.061	0.096	-0.183	-0.254	-0.346	-0.486**
Bacterial Pco1	0.281	-0.658**	0.037	0.239	-0.320	0.325	0.640**	0.080	-0.093	0.380*	0.285
Bacterial Pco2	0.204	0.393*	0.386*	0.051	-0.411*	0.091	-0.083	0.706**	0.172	0.167	-0.193
Fungal Richness	-0.146	0.020	-0.155	-0.357	0.383*	-0.161	-0.324	-0.340	-0.048	-0.087	-0.010
Fungal Simpson	-0.315	-0.104	0.197	0.013	0.024	0.189	0.256	-0.019	-0.010	-0.214	-0.402*
Fungal Pco1	0.250	-0.232	-0.294	-0.066	-0.081	0.022	-0.096	-0.212	0.061	0.293	0.503**
Fungal Pco2	0.145	-0.303	0.350	0.063	-0.326	0.206	0.434*	0.051	-0.003	0.129	-0.064
Proteobacteria	0.276	0.016	0.184	0.304	-0.176	0.123	0.254	0.373*	0.135	0.142	-0.119
Verrucomicrobia	-0.439*	0.078	0.004	-0.133	0.134	-0.001	-0.063	-0.196	0.136	-0.217	-0.208
Gammaproteobacteria	0.380*	0.148	0.315	0.044	-0.221	0.165	0.087	0.479**	0.199	0.156	-0.076
Thermoleophilia	-0.399*	0.530**	-0.050	-0.562**	0.500**	-0.362*	-0.565**	-0.306	0.016	-0.402*	-0.194
Myxococcales	-0.483**	-0.020	-0.285	0.202	0.366*	-0.184	0.033	-0.380*	-0.277	-0.413*	-0.330
Corynebacteriales	0.304	-0.252	-0.087	0.177	-0.044	0.011	0.167	-0.131	0.041	0.077	0.421*
Blastocladiomycetes	0.421*	-0.056	0.263	0.165	-0.297	0.466**	0.067	0.481**	0.274	0.234	0.013
Sordariomycetes_o_	-0.047	0.075	0.012	-0.237	-0.135	0.089	-0.090	-0.133	-0.007	0.162	-0.120
Agaricomycetes_o_	-0.427*	-0.017	-0.113	0.272	0.101	0.048	0.009	0.019	0.003	-0.462*	-0.225

2 **Table 2.** Spearman's rank correlation coefficients (ρ) between the microbial (bacterial and fungal) characteristics soil properties,
3 and plant biomass as well as soil respiration. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level; *. Correlation is significant at the
4 0.05 level. Richness (number of OTUs), Simpson (alpha diversity), Pco1, Pco2 (beta diversity), Soil respiration (SR), Soil
5 temperature (ST), Soil moisture (SM), Soil pH, Total C (TC), Total N (TN), Nitrate N (NO₃⁻-N), Ammonium N (NH₄⁺-N),
6 Aboveground biomass (AGB), Root biomass (RB).

7

8

Figure 5

Relationships of soil respiration with soil pH (a), Nitrate N (NO_3^- -N), Aboveground biomass (AGB), Root biomass (RB), Plant height (PLH), Grain yield (GRY) .

FS1

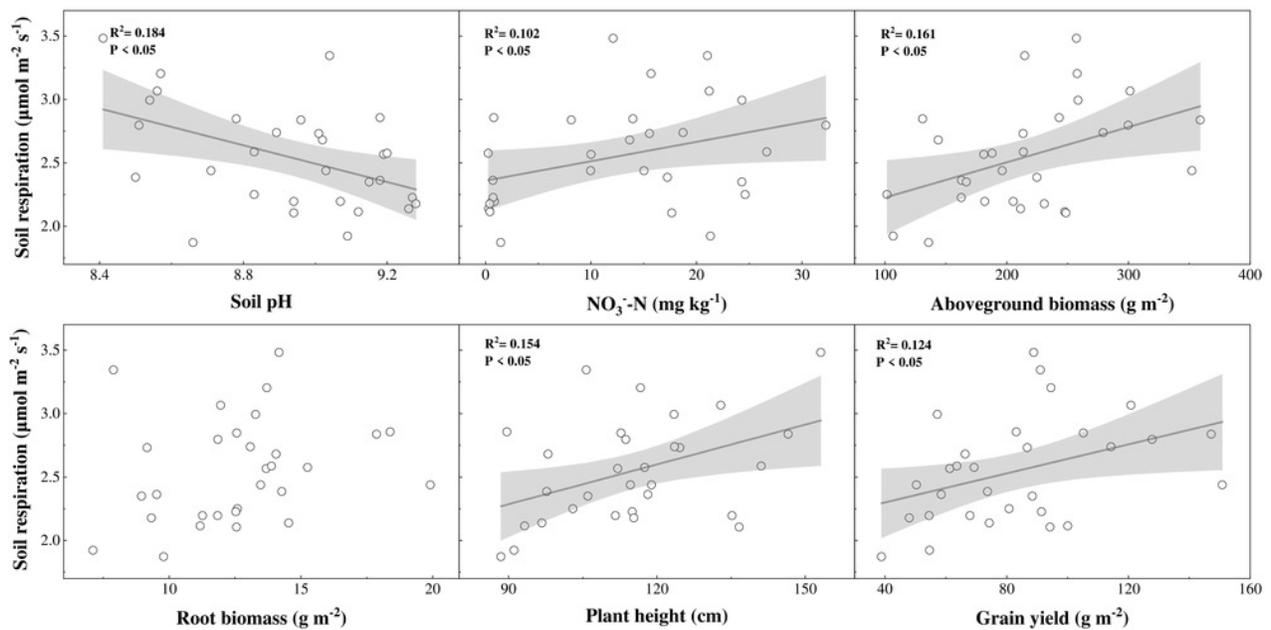


Figure 6

Relationships of soil respiration with Bacterial Pco1(a), Myxococcales (b), Corynebacteriales (c), Gammaproteobacteria (d), Verrucomicrobia (e), Thermoleophilia (f).

FS2

