

Manure application increased denitrifying gene abundance in a drip-irrigated cotton field

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Application of synthetic nitrogen (N) fertilizer and manure can increase nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions whereas the underlying microbial mechanisms remain unclear. In this study, a field experiment was conducted in a drip-irrigated cotton field in arid region of northwestern China to investigate how two years' heavy applications (240 kg N ha⁻¹) of urea and animal manure affected the abundance of the *amoA* gene involved in nitrification, and *narG*, *nirS*, *nirK* and *nosZ* genes involved in denitrification. Treatments included plots not amended (Control), and plots amended with urea (Urea), animal manure (Manure) and a 50/50 mix of urea and manure (U+M). Manure were broadcast-incorporated into soil before seeding while urea was split-applied with drip irrigation (fertigation) over the growing season. Results showed the addition treatments did not affect Operational Taxonomic Unit (OTU) richness or Shannon diversity index of soil microbial community but change soil microbial community structure. Nitrifying enzyme activities (NEA) were unaffected by the addition treatments, whereas denitrifying enzyme activities (DEA) were 39-59 times greater in manure (U+M and Manure) than non-manure amended (Control and Urea) treatments. Real-time quantitative PCR revealed that increased DEA with manure application was highly correlated ($r=0.70-0.84$, $P<0.01$) with increased abundance of nitrate reducer (*narG*), and denitrifiers of *nirK* and *nosZ*. Increase in abundance of these functional genes were further correlated with soil NO₃⁻, dissolved organic carbon, total C, total N and C:N ratio. In contrast with manure, urea application had no impact on abundances of nitrifier and denitrifier gene, DEA and NEA, likely due to a limitation of C availability. These results demonstrated a positive relationship between the abundances of denitrifying functional genes (*narG*, *nirK*, and *nosZ*) and denitrification potential in response to manure application, which could contribute to the increased N₂O

emissions.

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15 **ABSTRACT**

16 Application of synthetic nitrogen (N) fertilizer and manure can increase nitrous oxide (N₂O)
17 emissions whereas the underlying microbial mechanisms remain unclear. In this study, a field
18 experiment was conducted in a drip-irrigated cotton field in arid region of northwestern China to
19 investigate how two years' heavy applications (240 kg N ha⁻¹) of urea and animal manure affected
20 the abundance of the *amoA* gene involved in nitrification, and *narG*, *nirS*, *nirK* and *nosZ* genes
21 involved in denitrification. Treatments included plots not amended (Control), and plots amended
22 with urea (Urea), animal manure (Manure) and a 50/50 mix of urea and manure (U+M). Manure
23 were broadcast-incorporated into soil before seeding while urea was split-applied with drip
24 irrigation (fertigation) over the growing season. Results showed the addition treatments did not
25 affect Operational Taxonomic Unit (OTU) richness or Shannon diversity index of soil microbial
26 community but change soil microbial community structure. Nitrifying enzyme activities (NEA)
27 were unaffected by the addition treatments, whereas denitrifying enzyme activities (DEA) were
28 39-59 times greater in manure (U+M and Manure) than non-manure amended (Control and Urea)
29 treatments. Real-time quantitative PCR revealed that increased DEA with manure application was
30 highly correlated ($r=0.70-0.84$, $P<0.01$) with increased abundance of nitrate reducer (*narG*), and
31 denitrifies of *nirK* and *nosZ*. Increase in abundance of these functional genes were further
32 correlated with soil NO₃⁻, dissolved organic carbon, total C, total N and C:N ratio. In contrast with
33 manure, urea application had no impact on abundances of nitrifier and denitrifier gene, DEA and
34 NEA, likely due to a limitation of C availability. These results demonstrated a positive relationship
35 between the abundances of denitrifying functional genes (*narG*, *nirK*, and *nosZ*) and denitrification

36 potential in response to manure application, which could contribute to the increased N₂O

37 emissions.

38

39 **Keywords** Nitrifier, Denitrifier, Manure, Drip irrigation, Microbial community structure,

40 Denitrifying enzyme activitie

41 INTRODUCTION

42 Nitrous oxide (N₂O) accounts for nearly 8% of warming impact of anthropogenic activities and
43 cause the depletion of ozone in the stratosphere. N₂O concentration in the atmosphere has
44 increased at a rate of 0.26% per year, with more than 80% of the emissions associated with
45 agricultural activities where organic (e.g. animal manures) or inorganic (e.g. synthetic fertilizers)
46 sources of nitrogen (N) are added to soil (*IPCC, 2013*). Many studies have reported greater N₂O
47 emission with manure compared with inorganic (*Watanabe et al., 2014; Zhou et al., 2017*),
48 confirming our recent observations on a drip-irrigated cotton field with low soil organic carbon
49 (*Kuang et al., 2018*). However, it remains unclear whether the increased emissions are linked with
50 changes in microbial community, especially those involved in the processes of nitrification and
51 denitrification.

52 Nitrification is a biological oxidation process in which ammonia are converted to nitrate via
53 nitrite (NH₃→NH₂OH/HNO→NO₂⁻→NO₃⁻). The steps of nitrification are conducted by nitrifier
54 functional genes, including (1) ammonia-oxidizing bacterial (*AOB*) and (2) archaea (*AOA*) genes,
55 and (3) nitrite-oxidizing bacterial genes. The first step in oxidation of ammonia to NH₂OH is
56 considered the usual rate-limiting step for the entire nitrification reaction (*Kowalchuk & Stephen,*
57 *2001*). Applications of manure or inorganic N can exert significant impact on nitrification through
58 their effect on soil properties. For example, *Tao et al. (2017)* reported fertilizer N was the key
59 driver for the abundance, community structure and activity of nitrifying bacteria. Long-term
60 application of manure and mineral fertilizers reduced the copy number of *AOA* but increased that
61 of *AOB* for agricultural soils in cold climate of China (*Fan et al., 2011*). For a desert topsoil in

62 Arizona of USA, long-term inorganic N addition did not affect the community structure of
63 ammonia-oxidizing microorganisms but increased the *amoA* gene abundance of both *AOA* and
64 *AOB* (Marusenko, Garcia-Pichel & Hall, 2015). In contrast, a recent study for fertilized forest
65 soils in China founded that soil factors such as NH_4^+ concentration and pH were main drivers of
66 nitrification and denitrification activities, rather than the abundance and community structure of
67 functional gene groups (Tang *et al.*, 2019). Overall, there is very few information about how
68 addition of N might affect the abundance of nitrifiers and nitrification activities for agricultural
69 soils under drip irrigation.

70 Denitrification is a multi-step reduction process of NO_3^- to N_2 ($\text{NO}_3^- \rightarrow \text{NO}_2^- \rightarrow \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{N}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{N}_2$)
71 mediated by nitrate reducers and a range of denitrifiers under oxygen (O_2) limited conditions. Each
72 step of the reaction is regulated by specific reductases encoded by functional genes, including,
73 nitrate reductase (e.g. *narG*, *napA*), nitrite reductase (e.g. *nirS*, *nirK*), nitric oxide reductase (e.g.
74 *cnorB*, *qnorB*) and nitrous oxide reductase (*nosZ*; Simon & Klotz, 2013). In addition to bacterial,
75 fungi also play important roles in N_2O emissions from agricultural systems. For example, a recent
76 field study reported N_2O emissions from an intensively managed vegetable field was dominant by
77 fungi (Ma, Shan & Yan, 2017). Previous studies suggested that the fertilizer effect on
78 denitrification activity was primarily attributed to the changes in the abundance and community of
79 denitrifiers (Yin *et al.*, 2015). In a 160-year-old field experiment, Clark *et al.* (2012) reported long-
80 term manure application increased denitrification compared to inorganic N fertilizer, which was
81 mainly attributed to an increased abundance of *nirK*- but not *nirS*- denitrifier. In contrast, several
82 other studies reported that soil properties including soil water content and total N, other than

83 denitrifier, were more important in determining rate of denitrification (*Attard et al., 2011;*
84 *Shrewsbury et al., 2016*). The inconsistent results indicated that further studies are required to
85 clarify the linkage between the environmental factors, denitrifying bacteria and N addition-induced
86 denitrification activity.

87 Nitrogen additions including synthetic fertilizer and animal manure can affect soil microbial
88 community directly by supplying substrates for microorganisms or indirectly by changing soil
89 properties. Animal manure is a primary source of soil organic matter and its application can
90 increase microbial biomass and diversity by providing carbon sources for microorganisms. In
91 contrast with manure, inorganic N application generally reduces soil microbial community and
92 diversity. For example, *Zhang et al. (2017)* recently reported that application of chemical fertilizers
93 to acidic and near-neutral soils in a maize-vegetable rotation in southwest China significantly
94 reduced bacterial Operational Taxonomic Unit (OTU) richness and Shannon diversity index. *Sun*
95 *et al. (2015)* also reported that soil bacterial richness and diversity were significantly decreased
96 following 30 years' application of mineral fertilizer to a wheat-soybean rotation in central China.
97 Application of inorganic fertilizer affected the soil microbial community mainly by a decreasing
98 soil pH (*Geisseler & Scow, 2014*).

99 As a dominant cash crop in NW China, cotton production has received intensive inputs of
100 synthetic fertilizers and water recently as drip-irrigation due to its benefits in improving water and
101 nutrient use efficiency (*Dai & Dong, 2014*). Cattle and sheep manure are also often used as nutrient
102 sources due to the nearby livestock production. Our recent studies from this area clearly showed
103 manure application greatly increased N₂O emissions compared with conventional urea, although

104 emissions under drip irrigation were generally low (*Kuang et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2018*). Still, it
105 remains unclear how additions of organic manure or synthetic fertilizer affect the gene abundances
106 and activity of nitrifier and denitrifier communities under drip irrigated conditions.

107 The objective of this study was to determine the influence of mineral fertilizer and manure on
108 abundance and activities of nitrifying and denitrifying communities, as well as microbial
109 community structure in a drip-irrigated cotton field. We hypothesized that animal manure
110 application would increase the abundance of functional genes due to increased supply of substrate
111 carbon and N inputs, and thus result in greater activities of nitrification and denitrification than the
112 conventional urea.

113

114 **MATERIALS & METHODS**

115 **Site description and experimental design**

116 Plot based field experiment was conducted at the Cele Research Station (37°01'N, 80°43'E) of the
117 Chinese Academy of Sciences in the 2015-2016 growing seasons. The region has a typical arid
118 continental climate with an extremely low long-term average annual precipitation of only 42 mm,
119 mainly distributed between May and July. The long-term average mean annual air temperature is
120 12.7 °C. The soil is classified as Aridisols in the USDA soil taxonomy system. At the start of the
121 study, the surface soil (0-20 cm) was a fine sand texture (sand 90%, silt 4%, clay 6%) with bulk
122 density 1.46 Mg m⁻³, pH_{H2O} 8.0, electrical conductivity (EC) 144.4 μS cm⁻¹, total Kjeldahl N 0.31
123 g kg⁻¹, extractable NO₃⁻-N 25.7 mg kg⁻¹, 0.5 M NaHCO₃-extractable P 14.6 mg kg⁻¹, 1.0 M
124 ammonium acetate K 153 mg kg⁻¹, and organic matter 6.9 g kg⁻¹. Analysis of soil characteristics

125 were based on *Carter (1993)*.

126 The experimental design was previously described in *Kuang et al. (2018)* and only treatments
127 under drip irrigation was used in the current study. Briefly, the study used a randomized complete
128 block design of four treatments with four replicate plots, giving a total of 16 plots. Each plot was
129 10 m long \times 6 m wide. Treatments included (1) an unfertilized control, and application of 240 kg
130 of available N ha⁻¹ in the form of (2) granular urea (Urea), (3) mixture of sheep and cattle manure
131 (Manure), and (4) 50% urea with 50% manures (U+M). Such N application rate is commonly used
132 by local producers for high-yielding cotton fields. For urea, 20% N was banded in the plant row
133 before planting and the rest was applied with irrigation water as a schedule of 5% at 9 weeks, and
134 15% each at 11, 14, 15, 16 and 17 weeks after planting. The used manure was a compost mixture
135 from cattle and sheep and was all applied before planting by broadcast-incorporation at 10 cm
136 depth. The manure had a total N, P, K content of 15.6, 2.0, and 16.8 g kg⁻¹, respectively. Analysis
137 of manure was done on subsamples digested with a mixture of perchloric, sulfuric and hydrofluoric
138 acid. Total P and K in the acid digestion were measured using the Mo-Sb colorimetric method and
139 atomic absorption spectrometry (Thermo Fisher, USA), respectively. Total N was determined
140 colorimetrically after Kjeldahl digestion. In each year, cotton (c.v. Xinluzao 48) was planted in
141 early to middle April under the plastic-mulch and drip-irrigation system, which is common for
142 cotton production in the region. Details on the system was described by *Kuang et al. (2018)*. Before
143 seeding, all plots received broadcast-incorporated application of 120 kg P₂O₅ ha⁻¹ as calcium
144 phosphate and 60 kg K₂O ha⁻¹ as K₂SO₄.

145

146 Soil sampling

147 Soil samples (0-20 cm depth) were collected with a hand auger (2.5 cm diameter) in September
148 2016 with cotton at boll opening stage. In each plot, four soil cores were collected next to the drip
149 tape and mixed thoroughly together for one composite sample per plot. Each sample was passed
150 through a 2 mm mesh screen and partitioned into three subsamples. One subsample was air-dried
151 at room temperature for chemical analysis. The second subsample for analysis of denitrifying
152 enzyme activity (DEA) and nitrifying enzyme activity (NEA) was stored at -20 °C. The third
153 subsample for microbial molecular analysis was stored at -80 °C.

154

155 Soil chemical properties

156 Soil NH_4^+ and NO_3^- was extracted using 0.01 M CaCl_2 and measured with a continuous flow
157 analyzer (SEAL Analytical, Norderstedt, Germany). Soil pH was measured at 1:2.5 soil:water
158 ratio. Soil total C was measured using by wet oxidation method with potassium dichromate. Total
159 N was analyzed by Kjeldahl acid-digestion method with a Kjeltec 1035 analyzer (Tecator AB,
160 Sweden). Available Fe and Cu were extracted with DPTA (0.005 M diethylenetriamine
161 penetaacetic acid + 0.1 M triethanolamine + 0.01M CaCl_2 set to pH 7.3) and analyzed using ICP-
162 OES (VARIAN, USA). Soil dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was extracted using deionized water
163 (1:5 soil:water ratio) and analyzed using a TOC analyzer (OI, USA). Soil C:N ratio was calculated
164 on the mass basis of total C and total N.

165

166 Determination of denitrifying and nitrifying enzyme activity

167 Soil DEA was expressed as the rate of N_2O production ($\mu\text{g N h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ soil) and determined using the
168 anaerobic slurry technique (*Beauchamp & Bergstrom, 1993*). Briefly, 25 g defrost soil samples
169 was placed into 125 ml plasma flasks with 25 ml solution including 10 mM KNO_3 , 10 mM glucose,
170 50 mM K_2HPO_4 and 0.1 g L^{-1} chloramphenicol to inhibit new protein production. The flasks were
171 evacuated and flushed with a 90:10 He- C_2H_2 gas mixture to create anaerobic conditions and
172 suppress N_2O -reductase activity. Flasks were then shaken for 60 min and gas samples taken 0, 15,
173 30, 45 and 60 min after onset of mixing using an orbital shake (180 rpm). Concentrations of N_2O
174 in gas samples were immediately analyzed using gas chromatography equipped with an electron
175 capture detector (Agilent 7890A, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA).

176 Soil NEA was expressed as $\mu\text{g NO}_3^- \text{-N h}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$ dry soil and determined according to *Hart et al.*
177 (*1994*). Briefly, a defrost soil sample (15 g dry soil equivalent) was placed into a 250 ml plasma
178 flask with 100 ml solution of 1.5 mM $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ and 1 mM phosphate buffer (pH = 7.2). The flask
179 was incubated at room temperature under constant agitation (180 rpm). Samples of the slurry were
180 taken at 2, 4, 8, 12, and 24 h during incubation. Concentrations of NO_2^- and NO_3^- in the samples
181 was then determined using the continuous flow analyzer. NEA rate was calculated from the linear
182 slope of the regression of NO_2^- plus NO_3^- concentrations with time.

183

184 **Soil DNA extraction and real time PCR**

185 Soil DNA was extracted using the Power Soil Total DNA Isolation Kit (QIAGEN, Inc., MD, USA)
186 according to the manufacturer's instructions. The quality and concentration of DNA were estimated
187 using a Nanodrop Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher, USA) and gel electrophoresis (1.0%

188 agarose). The DNA extracts were diluted at a ratio of 1:10 with double-distilled water (ddH₂O) to
189 reduce potential for PCR inhibition and then stored at -20 °C until use.

190 Real-time PCR was used to quantify Archaeal *amoA* and bacterial *amoA*, *narG*, *nirK*, *nirS* and
191 *nosZ* gene in triplicate. All reactions were carried out in a CFX96™ (BIO-RAD, CA, USA). Each
192 PCR reaction mixture contained 1 μl of 10-fold diluted soil DNA as template, 10 μl SYBR® Premix
193 Ex Taq™ II (TaKaRa, Japan), 0.8 μl of primer (10 μM) and 7.4 μl ddH₂O in a total volume of 20
194 μl. Primers and thermocycling conditions used in the real-time qPCR reactions are given in Table
195 1. Plasmids that containing respective sequences of the targeted genes were generated by cloning
196 the targeted gene fragments into plasmid pMD™ 19-T Vector (TaKaRa, Japan). Standard curves
197 for each gene were created from 10-fold serial dilutions (10⁸-10¹) of the known quantities of
198 linearized plasmid DNA harboring aim gene sequences. All qPCR reactions were conducted in
199 triplicate. The qPCR efficiency was 92% (R²=0.990) for archaeal *amoA*, 105% (R²=0.999) for
200 bacterial *amoA*, 90% (R²=0.999) for *narG*, 85% (R²=0.997) for *nirS*, 96% (R²=0.998) for *nirK*,
201 and 80% (R²=0.990) for *nosZ*, respectively.

202

203 **High-throughput sequencing**

204 The 16S rRNA gene of the V3-V4 hypervariable region was analyzed by MiSeq sequencing on
205 the Illumina Miseq 2×300 bp platform at Shanghai Sangon Biotech Co., Ltd. with the universal
206 primers 515F (GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGG) and 907R (CCGTCAATTCMTTTRAGTTT) that
207 amplify both bacteria and archaea (*Li et al., 2014*). Both forward and reverse primers were added
208 with a barcode. The thermocycling program were set as: an initial denaturation at 94 °C for 3 min,

209 5 cycles at 94 °C for 30 s, 45 °C for 20 s, 65 °C for 30 s of extension, then 20 cycles of 94 °C for
210 20 s, 55 °C for 20 s, 72 °C for 30 s, with a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. The reactions were
211 set as: 15 µl 2×Taq master Mix (Thermo Scientific, USA), 2 µl of DNA template (about 20 ng),
212 1µl of each appropriate primer (10 µM), 11 µl of ddH₂O. The PCR products were purified and
213 quantified by Agencourt AMPure XP (Beckman Coulter, USA) and Qubit™ ssDNA Assay Kit
214 (Life Technologies, CA, USA), respectively. Finally, the purified PCR products of each sample
215 were equally combined based on their concentrations and produced a DNA pool which included
216 16S rRNA gene amplified fragments for sequencing.

217 Sequencing reads were allocated to each sample based on their unique barcodes. Raw sequences
218 were firstly processed using cutadapt software to trim the barcodes of primers. Two short Illumina
219 reads were then merged with PEAR (v 0.9.6) software, and finally PRINSEQ software was used
220 for the quality control of the merged reads. Chimeras were filtered by comparing the sequences
221 with those in the reference database using the UCHIME algorithm. After the above screening, the
222 remaining high-quality sequences were clustered into Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) at a
223 $\geq 97\%$ similarity identity threshold. The Ribosomal Database Project (RDP) classifier was used to
224 identify taxonomic information at the bootstrap cutoff of 80%. Based on the OTUs output, α -
225 diversity and β -diversity, and canonical correspondence analysis were performed. Species richness
226 and diversity indices including coverage, chao1, ACE, Simpson, and Shannon were calculated
227 using mothur to estimate α -diversity of each sample.

228

229 **Statistical analysis**

230 Treatment effects on soil properties, NEA, DEA, α -diversity indices, and bacterial abundance were
231 conducted using a one-way ANOVA. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to assess the
232 relationships between the functional gene abundances, NEA, DEA and selected soil properties.
233 ANOVA and Pearson correlation analysis were performed with SAS 9.3 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC)
234 and differences were considered significant at $P < 0.05$. Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) was
235 performed to determine the community β -diversity of bacteria using the Vegan package
236 implemented with the R language, which was based on bacterial weighted UniFrac metric matrix.
237 Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) was performed with the Vegan package Version 1.17-
238 7 (Oksanen *et al.*, 2011) implemented with the R language to determine the relationships between
239 soil physiochemical properties and microbial communities. Untransformed data were used for the
240 PCoA and CCA analyses. The differences phylum in the relative abundances of categories between
241 treatment were calculated using the Welch's t-test with STAMP (Statistical Analysis of
242 Metagenomic Profiles). Corrected p-values were calculated with FDR (False Discovery Rate)
243 Multiple test correction.

244

245 RESULTS

246 Soil chemical characteristics

247 Manure application increased soil total N content by half compared to the unfertilized control
248 (Table 2). Soil NO_3^- concentrations with Manure and U+M treatments were 120 and 103 mg kg^{-1} ,
249 respectively, being 2.4-4.8 times greater than Urea and Control treatments. In contrast, soil NH_4^+
250 concentrations were not affected by the treatments. Soil total C and DOC were also greater in

251 Manure and U+M compared to the Control and Urea treatments. As a result, soil C:N ratio were
252 37-100% greater in Manure and U+M than in Urea and Control treatments.

253

254 **Denitrifying enzyme activity and nitrifying enzyme activity**

255 DEA values of Control, Urea, Manure and U+M treatments were 0.02, 0.01, 0.60 and 0.40 μg
256 $\text{N}_2\text{O-N g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ respectively, with values significantly ($P < 0.001$) greater in Manure and U+M than
257 Urea and Control treatments (Fig. 1). In contrast, NEA values were not affected by N addition
258 treatments in spite of a numerical increase for Manure and U+M over other treatments.

259

260 **Microbial community, and nitrifier and denitrifier gene response**

261 Richness and diversity of the soil microbial (prokaryote) community of treatments is presented in
262 Table 3. The sequence coverage index ranged between 0.93 and 0.94, suggesting that the
263 sequencing depth was sufficient to obtain the majority of genetic diversity of samples. The average
264 number of effective sequences were similar for treatments, being 27,131, 28,812, 26,413 and
265 30,405, for Control, Urea, Manure and U+M, respectively, with a mean read length of 376 bp. The
266 number of OTUs was not affected by N addition and ranged between 4,072 and 4,295. The indexes
267 of richness and diversity, Chao1, ACE, Simpson and Shannon were also not affected by the
268 treatments.

269 The PCoA plot revealed a clear clustering in β -diversity of the soil microbial community in
270 response to addition treatments (Fig. 2). The microbial communities under different fertilizer
271 treatments were separated into two groups with (Manure and U+M) and without (Control and

272 Urea) manure application along axis PCoA1, with a significant dissimilarity ($P < 0.001$). The
273 PCoA explained 73% of the total variation in the composition of microbial community, with
274 PCoA1 and PCoA2 explaining 61% and 12%, respectively. At bacterial phylum level,
275 *Planctomycetes*, *Bacteroidetes* and *Ignavibacteriae* increased with manure additions, whereas
276 *Latescibacteria*, *Acidobacteria*, *Armatimonadetes*, *Actinobacteria*, and *candidate* division WPS-2
277 decreased (Table 4). At archaeal phylum level, *Thaumarchaeota* and *Euryarchaeota* decreased
278 with manure application.

279 Real-time qPCR was further used to analyze changes in abundances of nitrifying and
280 denitrifying functional genes. The gene copy number of *AOA* varied from 5.90×10^8 to 2.69×10^9
281 copies g^{-1} dry soil, with values for manure addition treatments (U+M and Manure) being 1.4-3.6
282 times greater than non-manure addition (Urea and Control) treatments (Fig. 3A). Similarly, manure
283 application also significantly ($P < 0.001$) increased the copy number of the *AOB* gene in manure
284 than non-manure amended treatments. The copy number of *AOA* was generally one order of
285 magnitude greater than that of *AOB*. Further, *AOB* copy number responded more to treatment
286 additions than that of *AOA*. As a result, manure addition reduced the ratio of *AOA/AOB*, being
287 88.7, 27.6, 15.8, and 17.0 for Control, Urea, Manure and U+M, respectively.

288 Manure addition significantly ($P < 0.001$) increased the copy number of *narG*, *nirK* or *nosZ*
289 genes, but did not affect that of *nirS* (Fig. 3B-E). Copy number of *narG* was 27.5-39.0 times greater
290 with manure (U+M and Manure) than non-manure (Control and Urea) addition treatments. Copy
291 number of *nirK* was 3.4-3.7 times greater with manure than non-manure addition treatments.
292 Similarly, copy number of *nosZ* gene were 9.6-25.2 times greater in manure than non-manure

293 addition treatments.

294

295 **Relationships between DEA, NEA, soil properties and microbial abundance**

296 Copy number of nitrifier (*AOB* and *AOA*), nitrate reducer (*narG*), *nirK* and *nosZ*-type denitrifier
297 genes, but not *nirS*-type denitrifier gene, were positively correlated with NO_3^- , DOC, total N, total
298 C and C:N ratio (Table 5). In contrast, soil NH_4^+ and pH were not significantly correlated with
299 copy number of any of the functional genes. There were also significantly positive correlations
300 between DEA and abundance of *AOB*, *AOA*, *narG*, *nirK* and *nosZ* genes. NEA, however, was not
301 correlated with the abundance of any functional gene.

302 Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) revealed clear relationships between microbial β -
303 diversity and soil environmental variables (Fig. 4). The variance in microbial community structure
304 was explained by the first and second axes to 38.6% and 13.9%, respectively. The microbial
305 community of manure addition treatments (Manure and U+M) were mainly associated with soil
306 concentrations of NO_3^- , DOC, total C, total N and C:N ratio. In contrast, the microbial community
307 of treatments without manure addition (Control and Urea) was mainly associated with soil pH.

308

309 **DISCUSSION**

310 This study assessed the effect of different N addition strategy on nitrification, denitrification and
311 associated functional gene abundance and soil microbial community from cotton field under drip
312 irrigation and clearly showed that manure application exerted significant effect on microbial
313 communication and greatly increased the DEA compared with conventional urea. We further

314 linked the increase of DEA by manure application with changes in denitrifier abundance. It was
315 found the increased denitrification activity with manure application was in accordance with the
316 increasing abundance of nitrate reducer (*narG*), and *nirK*- or *nosZ*-type denitrifiers. These results
317 demonstrate that the previously reported greater N₂O emissions with manure application at the
318 same experimental site by *Kuang et al. (2018)* were most likely associated with denitrification. It
319 should be noted, however, soil samplings were conducted for only one time over the growing
320 season for determination of soil microbial activities in the current study, which hinders the
321 investigations of temporal changes in soil microbes and could also cause uncertainties in
322 correlating with N₂O emissions.

323

324 **Impact of N addition strategy on denitrification and nitrification**

325 The increased activity of soil denitrifying enzymes with manure in the current study is in consistent
326 with our findings at the same field where we reported more N₂O emissions from manure compared
327 with urea application under drip irrigation conditions (*Kuang et al., 2018*). It is likely that the
328 increased NO₃⁻ and carbon supply with manure application could have provided primary substrate
329 for denitrification and increased the N₂O/(N₂O+N₂) ratio (*Francis et al., 2013*). *Chantigny et al.*
330 (*2010*) also suggested that manure can elevate soil respiration and deplete O₂ concentration to
331 create temporary anaerobic conditions, thereby further increasing the proportion of N₂O
332 production through denitrification. These studies highlight the importance of N addition source on
333 soil N transformation processes and suggest that manure induced N₂O emissions are likely
334 attributed to denitrification.

335 In contrast to DEA, NEA was not affected by manure application in the current study. Similarly,
336 *Shen et al. (2008)* also reported that organic manure did not affect potential nitrification rates of
337 an alkaline sandy loam soil in northern China. Several studies suggested that soil pH is the
338 dominant factor for nitrification as it determines the availability of NH_4^+ , which is the primary
339 substrate for ammonia oxidation, the initial and rate-limiting step of nitrification (*Fan et al., 2011*;
340 *Nicol et al., 2008*). In our study, both pH and the availability of NH_4^+ were not affected by N
341 addition strategy, confirming the insensitivity of NEA to N sources.

342 In contrast with manure, urea did not significantly affect DEA and NEA. Our results agree with
343 those of *Yin et al. (2015)* who reported that manure but not chemical fertilizer increased
344 denitrification. In contrast, several studies reported that application of chemical N fertilizers
345 increased the activity of nitrification (*Fang et al., 2018*; *Shi et al., 2016*) and denitrification (*Duan*
346 *et al., 2017*; *Wang et al., 2018*). The absence of the inorganic fertilizer effect in the current study
347 was associated with the minor to no effect by urea application on soil properties such as pH, DOC
348 and inorganic N (NO_3^- and NH_4^+) compared with Control. It is likely the buildup of C and N
349 substrates by urea application were not sufficient enough to affect the activities of functional genes.

350

351 **Impact of N addition strategy on abundance of functional genes and microbial community** 352 **structure**

353 In the current study, the positive relationships of the abundances of *narG*, *nirK* and *nosZ* with DEA
354 and further with soil DOC, total C and total N suggest that manure significantly increased gene
355 abundance by providing C and N substrate. This result is in line with the previous findings that the

356 denitrifiers abundance could be used as a predictor of DEA (*Morales, Cosart & Holben, 2010*).
357 Our findings also agree with previous studies which reported that organic manure increased
358 abundance of *nosZ*-type denitrifier compared to synthetic fertilizers (*Hallin et al., 2009; Tao et al.,*
359 *2018*). Also being consistent with previous studies (*Zhou et al., 2011*), abundance of *nirK* but not
360 *nirS* was increased by manure application in this study, suggesting that *nirK* was more susceptible
361 to fertilizer regimes than *nirS*-type denitrifier. *Hallin et al. (2009)* also reported that denitrification
362 rates were not correlated with the abundance of *nirS* genes in soils treated with different fertilizer
363 regimes for 50 years. A possible reason for the lack of correlation could be that the denitrifier
364 harbouring the *nirS* gene might play a minor functional role for DEA (*Attard et al., 2011*). In the
365 current study, the nitrate reducer (*narG*), and *nirK* and *nosZ*-type denitrifiers, which encodes the
366 main catalytic enzymes responsible for nitrate reduction, nitrite reduction and N₂O reduction
367 respectively, were more sensitive to manure application. This implies the increased DEA with
368 manure application were mainly associated with steps of nitrate, nitrite and N₂O reduction.

369 It is interesting to note that manure application increased *AOA* and *AOB* whereas had no effect
370 on *NEA* in this study, suggesting the abundances of ammonia-oxidizers are not necessarily
371 associated with nitrification potential. *Nicol et al. (2008)* reported the activity of ammonia-
372 oxidizers was more associated with the relationships among transcription, translation and enzyme
373 function rather than abundance of functional genes. It is also likely that the complicated subsequent
374 hierarchical regulation of enzyme expression resulted in an uncouple effect between *NEA* and
375 *amoA* gene abundance (*Röling, 2010*). Consistent with previous studies (*Fan et al., 2011; Tian et*
376 *al., 2014*), N addition reduced the *AOA/AOB* ratio in this study, suggesting that *AOA* and *AOB*

377 may occupy different soil niches due to the differences in physiological and metabolic pathways.
378 Previously, *AOA* has been shown to prefer low NH_3 substrate conditions for growth whereas *AOB*
379 prefers higher NH_3 levels (*Di et al., 2010*), thus potentially resulting in a lower *AOA/AOB* ratio
380 following N addition.

381 Agreement with previous studies (*Ji et al., 2018; Kumar et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019*), manure
382 application showed significant impact on soil microbial community in the current study. Clearly,
383 the increased N and C substrates with manure application have increased the growth and
384 reproduction of some specific microbial groups and suppress others and thus changed the
385 composition of soil microbial community. It is also likely that manure application had caused high
386 loads of exogenous microbes and thus resulted in the community disturbance (*Durso et al., 2011*).
387 The absence of urea treatment on microbial community was not unexpected as the soil was low in
388 organic matter of only 6.6 g kg^{-1} , suggesting C other than N was limiting microbial activities under
389 the conditions in this study. In addition, manure or urea applications did not influence soil
390 microbial diversity. *Fierer & Jackson (2006)* reported that soil pH is the main driver for
391 determining microbial diversity. In the current study, no treatment effect on soil pH was detected.

392 In the current study, the changes of soil microbial community structure in response to manure
393 application were attributed to increasing abundance of *Planctomycetes*, *Bacteroidetes*,
394 *Ignavibacteriae* and decreasing abundance of *Actinobacteria*, *Acidobacteria*, *Latescibacteria*,
395 *Armatimonadetes* and candidate division WPS-2. These results highlight the change of eutrophic
396 and oligotrophic bacteria. For example, *Fierer et al. (2007)* found that *Bacteroidetes* were typically
397 copiotrophic bacteria and could thrive in soil with high available organic carbon. *Planctomycetes*

398 are involved in the turnover of soil organic carbon and nutrient availability and the reproduction
399 of this microbial group may increase intensively in response to the application of manure (*Lupatini*
400 *et al.*, 2016). The phyla which were negatively influenced by manure application were considered
401 as slow-growing oligotrophs accustomed to nutrient-limited environments. For example, several
402 studies had shown that *Acidobacteria* strains grew slowly with their growth being limited with
403 substrate additions (*Goldfarb et al.*, 2011). Further studies are needed to examine how the changes
404 of the soil microbial community affect soil N transformation processes.

405

406 CONCLUSIONS

407 This study investigated the effect of N addition strategy on the abundances of denitrifiers, nitrifiers
408 and their relative contribution to soil denitrification and nitrification under drip-irrigated
409 conditions. We found that manure application significantly elevated the abundances of nitrate
410 reducer (*narG*), and *nirK*- and *nosZ*-type denitrifiers, in accordance with a substantial increase of
411 denitrifying enzyme activity. Additionally, Soil DOC, total C and total N contents were highly
412 correlated with the abundance of *narG*, *nirK* and *nosZ* genes, suggesting manure stimulated the
413 functional genes via providing C and N substrates. In contrast, urea application did not exert
414 significant impacts on the abundances of nitrifier and denitrifiers. High throughout pyrosequencing
415 clearly showed that two years of manure application significantly altered community composition.
416 Consequently, our study demonstrated a strong link between abundances of nitrate reducer (*narG*),
417 *nirK*- and *-nosZ* type denitrifiers and enhanced denitrifying enzyme activity by manure application
418 under the drip-irrigated conditions, indicating that denitrification is likely the key process

419 determining manure-induced N₂O emissions.

420

421

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Table 1 (on next page)

Table 1 The primer sets and thermocycling conditions used for real-time qPCR reactions.

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Table 1 The primer sets and thermocycling conditions used for real-time qPCR reactions.

Target gene	Primer set	Sequence (5'–3')	Product size (bp)	Annealing time and temperature	Elongation time and temperature	Reference
<i>Archaeal amoA</i>	Arch-amoAF	STA ATG GTC TGG CTT AGA CG	635	30 s, 55°C	30 s, 72°C	<i>Francis et al. (2005)</i>
	Arch-amoAR	GCG GCC ATC CAT CTG TAT GT				
<i>Bacterial amoA</i>	amoA1F	GGG GTT TCT ACT GGT GGT	491	30 s, 56°C	30 s, 72°C	<i>Rotthauwe, Witzel & Liesack (1997)</i>
	amoA2R	CCC CTC KGS AAA GCC TTC TTC				
<i>narG</i>	narGG-F	TCGCCSATYCCGGCSATGTC	173	30 s, 55°C	30 s, 72°C	<i>Bru, Sarr & Philippot (2007)</i>
	narGG-R	GAGTTGTACCAGTCRGC SGAYT CSG				
<i>nirS</i>	nirS4QF	GTS AAC GYS AAG GAR ACSGG GAS TTC GGR TGS GTC	465	30 s, 60°C	30 s, 72°C	<i>Throback et al. (2004)</i>
<i>nirK</i>	nirS6QR	TTSAYGAA	474	30 s, 63°C	30 s, 72°C	<i>Throback et al. (2004)</i>
	FlaCu	ATCATGGTSC TGCCGCG				
<i>nosZ</i>	R3Cu	GCCTCGATCAGRTTGTGGTT	453	30 s, 61°C	35 s, 72°C	<i>Scala & Kerkhof (1998)</i>
	nosZF	CGYTGTTCMTCGACAGCCG				
	nosZ-1622R	CGSACCTTSTTGCCSTYGCG				

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Table 2 (on next page)

Table 2 Soil (0-20 cm) properties of addition treatments in the drip-irrigated cotton field. U+M: 50% urea + 50% manure. Values are mean \pm 1 standard error, n = 4.

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Table 2 Soil (0-20 cm) properties of addition treatments in the drip-irrigated cotton field. U+M: 50% urea + 50% manure. Values are mean \pm 1 standard error, n = 4.

Treatment	Total N content (g kg⁻¹)	NO₃⁻ (mg kg⁻¹)	NH₄⁺ (mg kg⁻¹)	Total C content (g kg⁻¹)	DOC (mg g⁻¹)	C:N
Control	0.9 \pm 0.1 c	21 \pm 3 b	14.1 \pm 0.1 a	7.8 \pm 0.5 b	0.21 \pm 0.01 b	9.2 \pm 0.7 bc
Urea	1.0 \pm 0.2 bc	30 \pm 2 b	17.9 \pm 3.2 a	6.8 \pm 0.4 b	0.20 \pm 0.02 b	6.8 \pm 1.3 c
Manure	1.3 \pm 0.1 ab	120 \pm 29 a	15.4 \pm 1.5 a	15.9 \pm 1.4 a	0.37 \pm 0.04 a	12.6 \pm 0.8 ab
U+M	1.4 \pm 0.1 a	103 \pm 7 a	17.9 \pm 2.6 a	19.1 \pm 1.8 a	0.36 \pm 0.02 a	13.6 \pm 1.3 a

2 Means within a column followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$.

Table 3 (on next page)

Table 3 Richness and diversity of the microbial community at a similarity level of 97% as affected by addition treatments in a drip-irrigated cotton field used in this study. Values are means \pm 1 standard error, n = 3.

1

Table 3 Richness and diversity of the microbial community at a similarity level of 97% as affected by addition treatments in a drip-irrigated cotton field used in this study. Values are means \pm 1 standard error, n = 3.

Treatment	Coverage index	Reads	OTUs	Shannon	ACE	Chao	Simpson
Control	0.93 \pm 0.00 a	27,131 \pm 854 a	4,353 \pm 100 a	7.0 \pm 0.12 a	7,001 \pm 662 a	6,354 \pm 240 a	0.0070 \pm 0.0023 a
Urea	0.94 \pm 0.00 a	28,812 \pm 63 a	4,395 \pm 70 a	6.9 \pm 0.07 a	7,001 \pm 385 a	6,429 \pm 63 a	0.0068 \pm 0.0011 a
Manure	0.94 \pm 0.01 a	26,413 \pm 2,397 a	4,072 \pm 164 a	7.1 \pm 0.04 a	6,106 \pm 147 a	5,972 \pm 151 a	0.0031 \pm 0.0002 a
U+M	0.94 \pm 0.00 a	30,405 \pm 1,280 a	4,291 \pm 171 a	7.1 \pm 0.07 a	6,413 \pm 262 a	6,323 \pm 278 a	0.0031 \pm 0.0004 a

2 Means within a column followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$.

3

Table 4 (on next page)

Table 4 Relative abundances (%) of selected bacterial and archaeal taxa at the phylum level as affected by addition treatments.

1

Table 4 Relative abundances (%) of selected bacterial and archaeal taxa at the phylum level as affected by addition treatments.

	Bacteria							Archaea		
	<i>Planctomy cetes</i>	<i>Acidob acteria</i>	<i>Actinoba cteria</i>	<i>Bactero idetes</i>	<i>Armatim onadetes</i>	<i>Ignaviba cteriae</i>	<i>candidate division WPS-2</i>	<i>Latescib acteria</i>	<i>Thaumar chaeota</i>	<i>Euryarc haeota</i>
Control	8.9 b	11.5 a	11.6 a	5.6 b	0.62 a	0.13 b	0.07 a	0.12 a	0.58 a	0.77 a
Urea	8.3 b	10.7 a	12.1 a	6.2 b	0.67 a	0.14 b	0.04 a	0.08 ab	0.50 ab	0.87 a
Manure	11.1 a	8.8 b	9.0 b	11.4 a	0.37 b	0.25 a	0.01 b	0.06 b	0.24 bc	0.24 b
U+M	10.0 a	7.5 b	9.4 b	8.3 ab	0.27 b	0.20 ab	0.01 b	0.04 b	0.30 b	0.24 b

2 Means followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$.

Table 5 (on next page)

Table 5 Pearson correlation coefficients (r) between copy number of N₂O-related functional genes and soil characteristics, $n = 16$.

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Table 5 Pearson correlation coefficients (*r*) between copy number of N₂O-related functional genes and soil characteristics, n = 16.

	<i>AOA</i>	<i>AOB</i>	<i>narG</i>	<i>nosZ</i>	<i>nirS</i>	<i>nirK</i>
NO ₃ ⁻ (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.65**	0.61*	0.81***	0.65**	0.24	0.77***
NH ₄ ⁺ (mg kg ⁻¹)	-0.29	0.15	-0.58	-0.14	-0.24	0.01
DOC(mg g ⁻¹)	0.70***	0.73***	0.86***	0.76***	0.47	0.73***
pH	-0.22	-0.30	-0.40	-0.25	-0.28	-0.33
TN(g kg ⁻¹)	0.63*	0.71**	0.66**	0.58**	0.21	0.63**
TC(g kg ⁻¹)	0.85***	0.82***	0.82***	0.72**	0.31	0.76***
C/N	0.72**	0.61*	0.67**	0.58*	0.29	0.62**
DEA(ug N ₂ O-N g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	0.57*	0.85***	0.84***	0.70**	0.31	0.76***
NEA(ug N-NO ₂ ⁻ +NO ₃ ⁻ g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	0.19	0.26	0.18	0.06	-0.22	0.64**

2 *, **, *** indicate significance at $P < 0.05\%$, $< 0.01\%$ and $< 0.001\%$, respectively.

3

Figure 1

Figure 1 Denitrifying enzyme activity (DEA) and nitrifying enzyme activity (NEA) as affected by addition treatments in the drip-irrigated cotton field.

Figure 1 Denitrifying enzyme activity (DEA) and nitrifying enzyme activity (NEA) as affected by addition treatments in the drip-irrigated cotton field. U+M: 50% urea +50% manure. Data are means +1 standard error, n = 4. Means followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$.

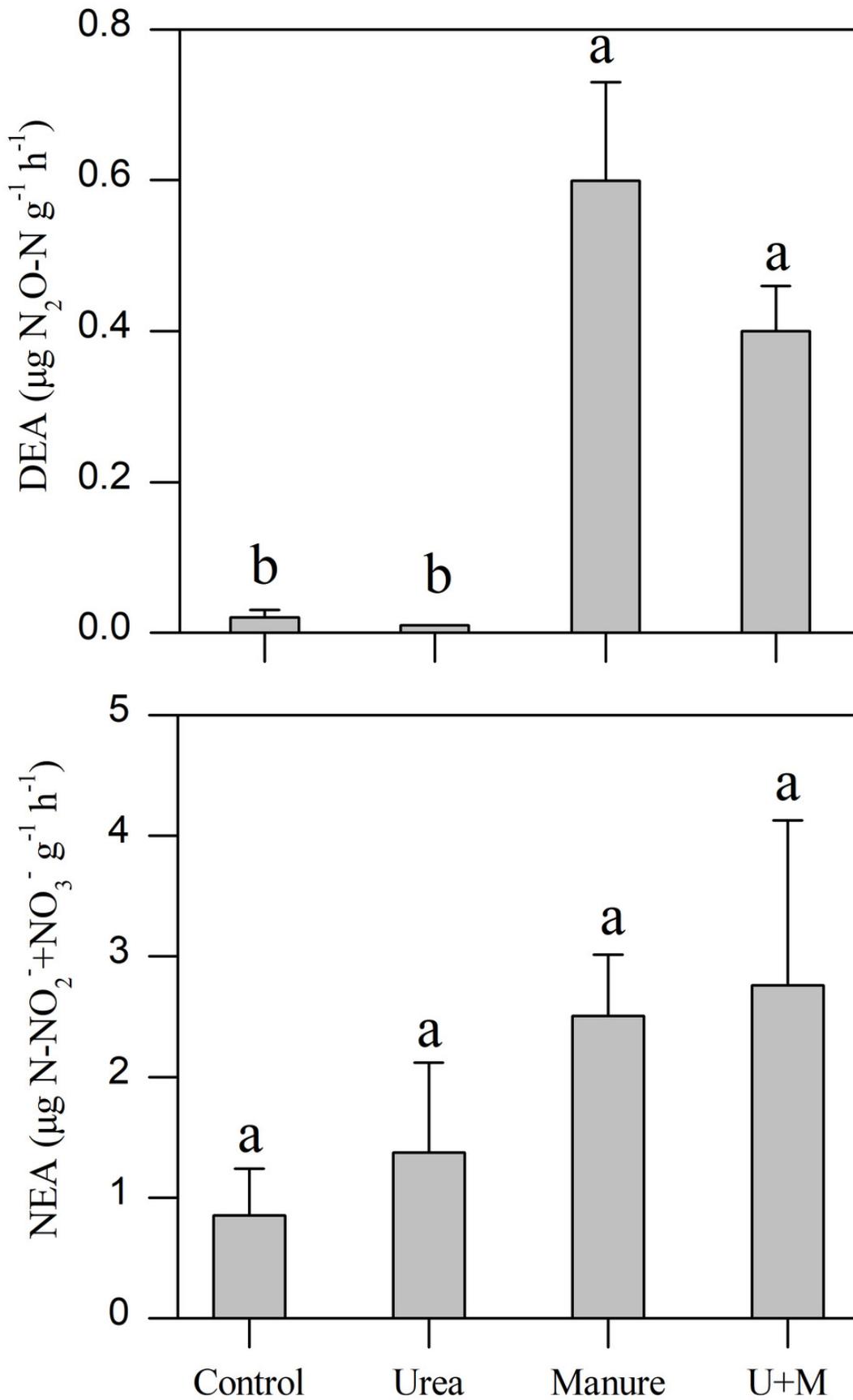


Figure 2

Figure 2 Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) plot of weighted Unifrac distance matrix showing patterns of β -diversity in microbial communities as affected by addition treatments in the drip-irrigated cotton field. U+M: 50% urea +50% manure.

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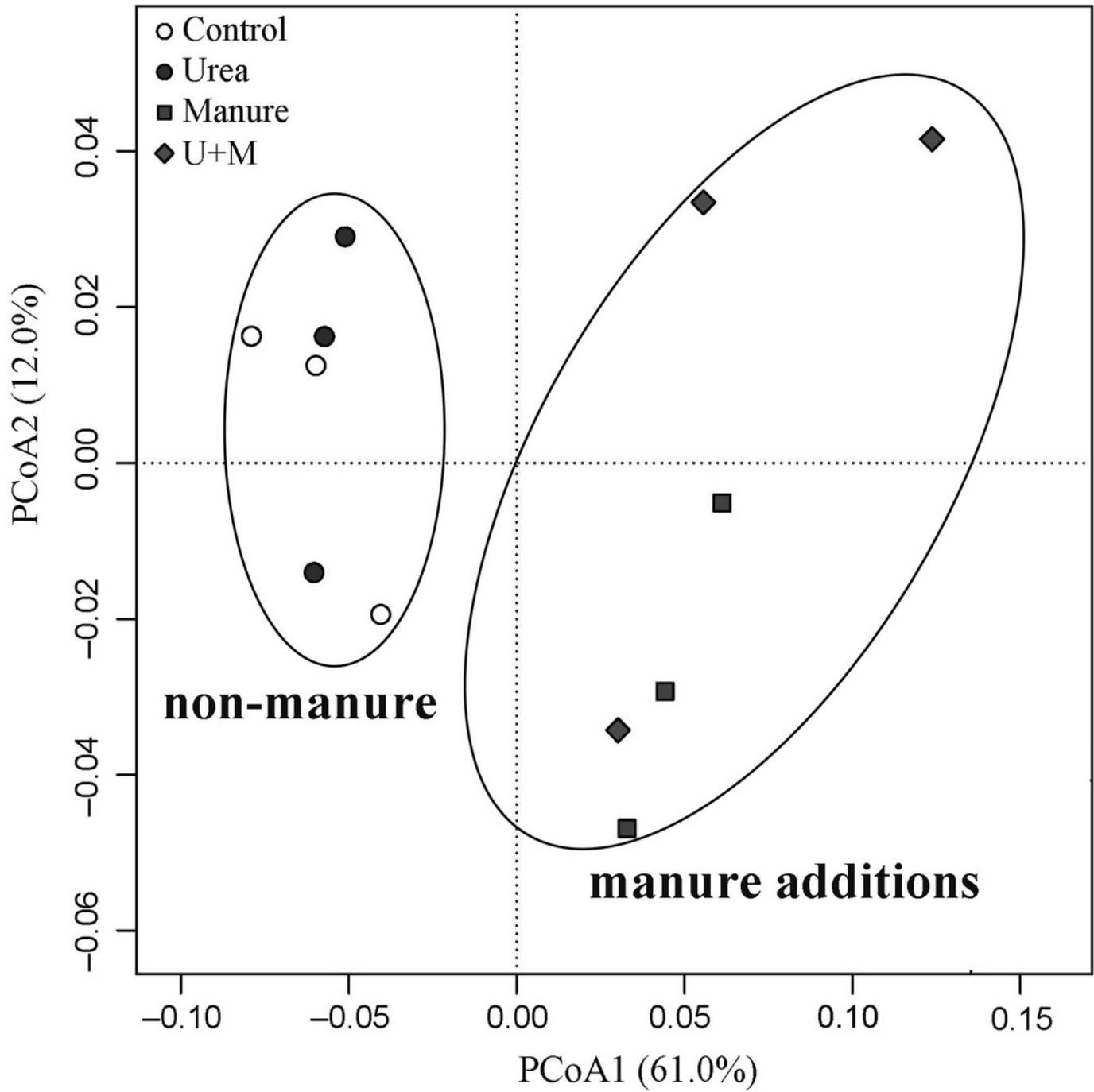


Figure 3

Figure 3 Copy numbers of archaeal (AOA) and bacterial (AOB) *amoA* (A), *nirS* (B), *narG* (C), *nosZ* (D) and *nirK* (E) genes in the soil as affected by addition treatments in the drip-irrigated cotton field.

Figure 3 Copy numbers of archaeal (AOA) and bacterial (AOB) *amoA* (A), *nirS* (B), *narG* (C), *nosZ* (D) and *nirK* (E) genes in the soil as affected by addition treatments in the drip-irrigated cotton field. Data are means ± 1 standard error, $n = 4$. Means followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$.

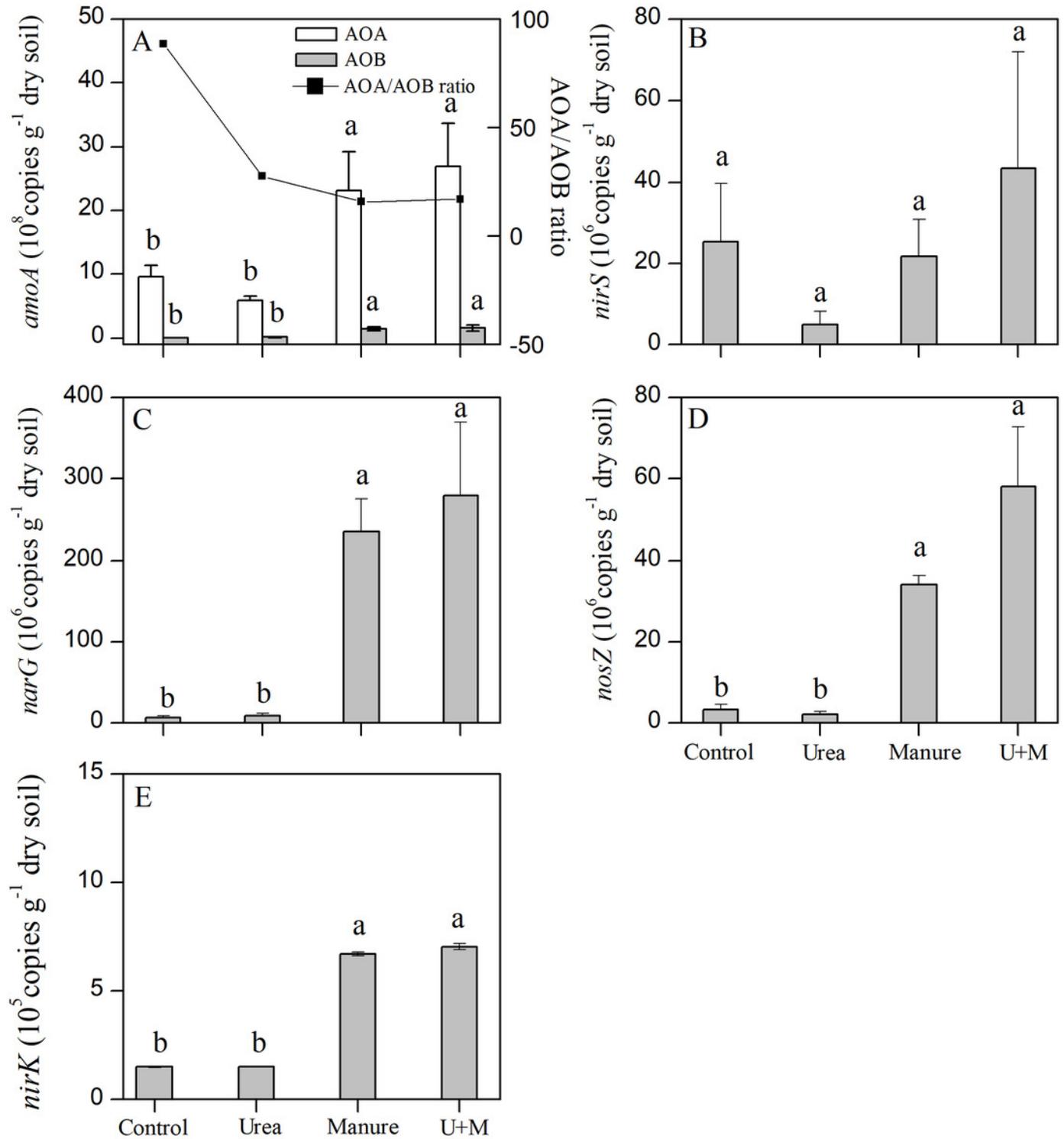


Figure 4

Figure 4 Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) of soil properties in relation to microbial OTUs as affected by addition treatments in the drip-irrigated cotton field.

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