

# Imprint of management on microbial communities in arable soil

Implications for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions

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## Abstract

Arable soils are a major source of the greenhouse gas nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O), emissions of which are directly linked to increased use of N fertilizers. Microbial communities that drive N cycle processes in soil ultimately determine the fate of reactive N inputs and control N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Under anoxic conditions, two processes compete for nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>): denitrification, the stepwise reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to N<sub>2</sub>O or atmospheric nitrogen, and dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA), in which NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is reduced to ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>). The reduction of N<sub>2</sub>O by denitrifiers and non-denitrifying N<sub>2</sub>O reducers is the only known biological sink for N<sub>2</sub>O.

The aim of this thesis was to investigate how edaphic factors that are altered by soil management practices influence the diversity, structure and activity of the soil microbiota regulating anaerobic N cycling, and thereby N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. We hypothesised that N replete conditions and long-term fertilization promote incomplete denitrifiers, whereas high C content increases the abundance of DNRA bacteria and N<sub>2</sub>O reducing organisms, enhancing soil N<sub>2</sub>O sink capacity. Inoculation of soil microcosms with a non-denitrifying N<sub>2</sub>O reducing strain confirmed that increased abundance of these organisms can mitigate soil N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. A survey of long-term fertilization trials showed a consistent increase in the relative abundance of taxonomic groups previously inferred from genomic evidence to produce or consume N<sub>2</sub>O in fertilized soil. Nevertheless, the abundance of organisms comprising a truncated denitrification remained dominant, concomitant with increased potential N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Another field study including fertilization and different crop rotations suggested that changes in soil C/N ratio due to cropping system influenced the competition between DNRA and denitrification, with higher C/N promoting DNRA and N<sub>2</sub>O reducing community abundance and activity. This was confirmed in controlled manipulations of C/N in a microcosm study, suggesting that soils covering higher C/N ratios sustain a greater abundance of DNRA and N<sub>2</sub>O reducing bacteria and therefore have a lower N<sub>2</sub>O emission potential.

*Keywords:* denitrification, arable soils, nitrous oxide, microbial communities, *nosZ*, DNRA, fertilization, C/N ratio

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### Sammanfattning

Jordbruksmark är den enskilt största källan av växthusgasen lustgas, vilket är direkt kopplat till det ökade användandet av kvävegödsel. Mikrosamhällen i marken avgör vad som händer med tillsatt kväve och styr lustgasproduktionen. Under syrefria förhållanden påverkas nitrat i marken av två processer: denitrifikation, som stegvis omvandlar nitrat till lustgas eller till atmosfäriskt kväve, och dissimilatorisk nitratreduktion till ammonium (DNRA), som omvandlar det till ammonium. Denitrifierande bakterier, och icke - denitrifierande lustgasreducerande bakterier, är den enda kända biologiska lustgassänkan.

Syftet med denna avhandling var att undersöka hur brukandet av jorden påverkar mångfalden, strukturen och aktiviteten hos de marklevande mikroorganismer som reglerar de dominerande anaeroba kväveomvandlingsprocesserna i mark, och därigenom lustgasproduktionen. Hypotesen var att kväverika förhållanden och långvarig gödsling gynnar icke fullständiga denitrifierare, medan kolrika förhållanden ökar mängden DNRA-bakterier och lustgasreducerande organismer, vilket stärker jordens lustgassänkande kapacitet. Vi inokulerade jord med icke denitrifierande lustgasreducerande bakterier, vilket bekräftar ett samband mellan antalet lustgasreducerande bakterier och minskad lustgasproduktionen. I en studie med långliggande gödslingförsök fann vi att kvävegödsling konsekvent ökade förekomsten av organismer med genetiska förutsättningar för att både producera och konsumera lustgas. Trots detta dominerades jordarna av ofullständigt denitrifierande organismer, vilket leder till ökad potential för lustgasproduktion. En annan fältstudie med gödsling i växtföljder med och utan vall indikerade att växtföljden orsakar förändringar i jordens kol-kväve-förhållande, vilket påverkar balansen mellan DNRA och denitrifikation: högre kol-kväve-kvot ger mer DNRA och ett mikrosamhälle med bättre förmåga att reducera lustgas. Detta bekräftades i kontrollerade försök där kol-kväve-förhållandet i olika jordar manipulerades.

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## List of publications

This thesis is based on the work contained in the following papers, referred to by Roman numerals in the text:

- I Domeignoz-Horta L.A., Putz M., Spor A., Bru D., Breuil M.C., Hallin S. Philippet L. (2016). Non-denitrifying nitrous oxide-reducing bacteria – An effective N<sub>2</sub>O sink in soil. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 103, 376-379
- II Putz M., Jones C.M., Emmerich M., Hallin S. Fertilizer-induced N<sub>2</sub>O production is consistently linked to changes in soil microbial community composition and community functions controlling N<sub>2</sub>O. (manuscript)
- III Putz M., Schleusner P., Rütting T., Hallin S. Relative abundance of denitrifying and DNRA bacteria and their activity determine nitrogen retention or loss in agricultural soil (*Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, accepted)
- IV Putz M., Maheshwari A., Jones C.M., Hallin S. Legacy effects of N fertilization and soil C:N ratio controls microbial communities and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under anoxic conditions. (manuscript)

Paper I is reproduced with the permission of the publisher.

The contribution of Martina Putz to the papers included in this thesis was as follows:

- I Contributed to molecular work and analysis of results
- II Performed some of the field work the majority of the molecular work, data analysis and writing
- III Performed field work, contributed to the experimental work and did the molecular work, half of the data analysis and writing
- IV Contributed to planning of the work, and performed the experimental and molecular work, data analysis and writing



# Abbreviations

DNRA	dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium
ITS	internal transcribed spacer
N <sub>2</sub> O	nitrous oxide
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	ammonium
<i>nirK</i>	gene encoding copper nitrite reductase
<i>nirS</i>	gene encoding heme nitrite reductase
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	nitrite
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	nitrate
<i>nosZ</i>	gene encoding nitrous oxide reductase
OTU	operational taxonomic unit
WHC	water holding capacity



# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Background

Nitrogen (N) is the main component of our atmosphere and one of the most abundant elements on earth. The ability to artificially fix N, by the so-called Haber-Bosch process, and its use as fertilizer in agriculture has more than quadrupled global crop production and feeds more than half of the world's population. Adversely, large quantities of reactive N have become one of the main threats to the environment and human health (Sutton *et al.*, 2011). High amounts of N are lost from arable fields through microbial activities. Denitrification, together with other processes producing nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O), resulted in increased N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Consequently, agriculture contributes 62 % to global N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Thomson *et al.*, 2012). Nitrous oxide is a potent greenhouse gas and also has a strong depletion effect on the atmospheric ozone layer (Ravishankara *et al.*, 2009). The high increase in atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O since the massive application of mineral N as fertilizer has, therefore, contributed to the acceleration of global warming (Davidson & Kanter, 2014).

Microorganisms control the interchange between N<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere and reactive N, which is a product of metabolisms or growth and are the conducting unit of biogeochemical processes (Stein & Klotz, 2016). Nitrous oxide is naturally produced by soil bacteria, archaea and fungi by several different processes. The main pathways responsible for soil N<sub>2</sub>O emissions are nitrification and denitrification (Butterbach-Bahl *et al.*, 2013). Nitrification occurs under oxic conditions and is either a two-step oxidation of ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) to nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) and further to nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) by two different organisms, or proceeds as a one-step process in the so called comammox process (Daims *et*

*al.*, 2015; van Kessel *et al.*, 2015). Ammonia oxidation, is carried out by two distinct groups of microorganisms, ammonia oxidizing archaea and ammonia oxidizing bacteria. Niche partitioning between the two groups has been suggested and there is evidence for higher abundance of ammonium oxidizing bacteria in fertilized soils (Hink *et al.*, 2017; Verhamme *et al.*, 2011; Di *et al.*, 2010). Nitrous oxide is produced during ammonia oxidation and more N<sub>2</sub>O is produced, when bacteria perform the process and to a lesser extent by the archaeal counterpart (Hink *et al.*, 2018). The importance of comammox for N<sub>2</sub>O production is not yet known.

Denitrification is an anaerobic respiration process with the sequential reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> to gaseous N compounds (NO, N<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub>) and considered as the main source of N<sub>2</sub>O (Butterbach-Bahl *et al.*, 2013). The last step, the reduction of N<sub>2</sub>O to N<sub>2</sub>, is also a N<sub>2</sub>O sink. However, denitrification is characterized as a modular pathway (Hallin *et al.*, 2018; Graf *et al.*, 2014) implying a proportion of denitrifiers, including all fungal denitrifiers, do not have the genetic potential to reduce N<sub>2</sub>O. In addition, non-denitrifying N<sub>2</sub>O reducers also exist and most of them belong to the recently discovered group (Jones *et al.*, 2013; Sanford *et al.*, 2012), which is suggested to be an important N<sub>2</sub>O sink in soil (Samad *et al.*, 2016; Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2015; Jones *et al.*, 2014). A yet understudied process in soils that counteracts the loss of N, is the dissimilatory ammonification of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> under anoxic conditions. While NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is highly mobile in soils and the starting point of denitrification, dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA) is retaining N. Ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) is less mobile due to the positive interaction with the soil matrix and the contribution of DNRA to N<sub>2</sub>O emissions is minor (Stremińska *et al.*, 2012; Rütting *et al.*, 2011a). Thus, DNRA does not only have the advantage of resulting in higher retention, but also circumvents negative environmental impacts such as N<sub>2</sub>O emissions compared to denitrification.

The dissimilatory processes denitrification, N<sub>2</sub>O reduction and DNRA are found amongst a wide variety of microorganisms that are not phylogenetically related. Hence, taxonomy-based approaches are not appropriate to assess the communities that perform these processes. Instead, these organisms are grouped into functional guilds, defined as a group of taxonomically unrelated organisms sharing the same function. To study these groups, genes encoding catalytic enzymes were developed early on as an alternative to phylogenetic marker genes like 16S rRNA for PCR-based tools for quantification and sequencing (Hallin & Lindgren, 1999; Scala & Kerkhof, 1999; Braker *et al.*, 1998). Based on molecular tools, it has been estimated that the proportion of denitrifiers and N<sub>2</sub>O reducers account for up to 5 % of the total bacterial community in soil (Jones *et al.*, 2013; Hallin *et al.*, 2009). Estimates for DNRA bacteria suggest an

abundance of 3 - 4 % of the total soil microbial community (Bárta *et al.*, 2017; Brenzinger *et al.*, 2017), but these numbers are to some degree uncertain, since molecular tools were developed only very recently and there are few studies of DNRA in soil.

The abundances, diversity, community composition and functionality of these functional guilds in arable soils are influenced by environmental factors and agricultural practices in particular (Juhanson *et al.*, 2017; Tatti *et al.*, 2017; Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2015; Hartmann *et al.*, 2015). Fundamental knowledge about the importance and interplay of soil management and biotic factors driving these processes and communities is needed to undertake actions for proper N management in soils and development of N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation strategies.

## 1.2 Objectives of the thesis

This thesis was dedicated to investigate the ecology of communities involved in dissimilatory NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction in agricultural soils. The loss of N from applied fertilizers along with N<sub>2</sub>O emissions are main environmental issues in modern agriculture, thus the aim was to identify factors influencing the activity and structure of microbial communities driving N turnover processes. We specifically aimed at gaining better understanding of the role of the abundance and diversity of microorganisms carrying out denitrification, N<sub>2</sub>O reduction and DNRA. To reach this goal, soil microcosm incubations as well as utilization of long-term fertilization field experiments were used.

In **paper I** we hypothesized that a higher abundance of a non-denitrifying N<sub>2</sub>O reducing strain effectively enhances the net N<sub>2</sub>O reduction capacity of arable soils by using N<sub>2</sub>O produced by the indigenous soil community under anoxic conditions. An assumed causal link between higher proportions of a non-denitrifying organism featuring the *nosZ* gene to the proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O as denitrification end-products was assessed.

**Paper II** focused on the effects of long-term N fertilization on bacterial taxa and if there are predictive trends of fertilization on the composition of the overall bacterial communities and the functional guilds of N<sub>2</sub>O reducers. We hypothesised that fertilizer-induced N<sub>2</sub>O emissions are determined by changes in the relative abundance of specific bacterial taxa, which controls the genetic capacity underpinning net N<sub>2</sub>O production caused by heterotrophic denitrification and N<sub>2</sub>O reduction.

In **paper III** we investigated if different crop rotations and fertilization regimes leading to different soil properties, influence the soil microbial community steering the fate of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . We hypothesised that short term grasslands favour primarily the soil organic matter content in relation to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and thus DNRA over denitrification activity. Shifts in the relative importance of both processes consequently altered  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions. Moreover, a potential effect of the relative importance of both processes and consequences for N loss and N retention was expected.

In **paper III** we investigated if crop rotations with and without short-term grasslands and different fertilization regimes leading to different soil properties, primarily the soil organic matter content in relation to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  influence the soil microbial community steering the fate of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . We hypothesised that short-term grasslands increase the soil organic matter content in relation to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and thus DNRA over denitrification activity. Consequently, shifts in the relative importance of both processes should alter  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions. Moreover, a potential effect of the relative importance of both processes and consequences for N loss and N retention was expected.

Based on results from **papers I-III**, indicating the importance of the soil C/N ratio for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  reduction, a microcosm experiment was set up to determine mechanistic effects of altered C/N ratios on the bacterial communities (**paper IV**). The hypothesis was that a high C/N ratio favours DNRA and a low C/N ratio not only promotes higher denitrification potential, but also fosters a truncated denitrification pathway without  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  reduction capacity. The effects of C/N ratio on the relative importance of both processes, and on  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  reducers, was expected to provide insight into the mechanisms influencing the balance of the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  budget. Another objective was to test if legacy effects of long-term fertilization affect the response of the microbial community to short-term availability of resources under anoxic conditions.

## 2 Microbial mediated N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes from soils under anoxic conditions

### 2.1 Agriculture and climate change

Soils are a fundamental resource for human civilisations as they are an integral component of food, feed and fibre production. Before the invention of artificial N<sub>2</sub> fixation, reactive N was generated by microorganisms, but today the anthropogenic creation of reactive N exceeds all the natural terrestrial sources combined (Galloway *et al.*, 2004; Vitousek *et al.*, 1997). Although the N use efficiency increased over the past decades in many parts of the world, the amount of applied N that is recovered in major crops in the US is still below 40 – 50 %, implying high losses of all forms of reactive N from agricultural fields (Cavigelli *et al.*, 2012; Venterea *et al.*, 2012). A waste of fertilizer does not only mean an economic loss, but also has detrimental and expensive consequences for the environment. Agricultural soils emit 4.3-5.8 Tg N<sub>2</sub>O y<sup>-1</sup> (Butterbach-Bahl *et al.*, 2013). Besides being a strong greenhouse gas, N<sub>2</sub>O is removed from the stratosphere through photodissociation, where NO<sub>x</sub> is generated which reacts with ozone causing its depletion (Ravishankara *et al.*, 2009).

### 2.2 Anaerobic N transformation processes in soils

#### *Processes leading to N retention and loss*

There are microbial anaerobic processes resulting in retention of soil N, whereas other processes result in losses (Fig. 1). In addition to assimilation, DNRA has been recognized as a process conserving N in ecosystems including arable soils

(Inselbacher *et al.*, 2010). It can be important for N conservation since the positively charged  $\text{NH}_4^+$  molecule is adsorbed to negatively charged surfaces, *e.g.* clay minerals and, thus becomes more stable in the soil compared to water soluble  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . In tropical forest soils, DNRA was shown to be three times higher than denitrification rates (Silver *et al.*, 2001).

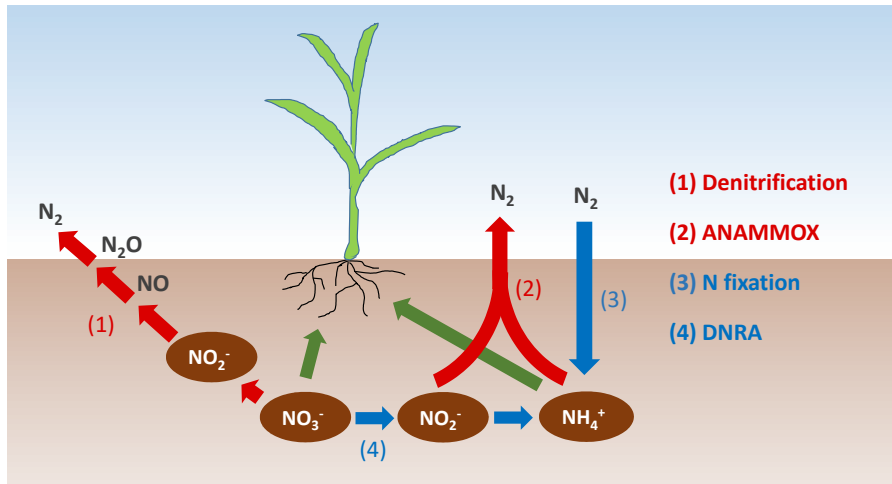


Figure 1. Simplified schematic representation of major anaerobic N transformations performed by microorganisms in soils. Pathways in red colour indicate loss of N and blue arrows indicate N retaining pathways. In addition plant uptake is indicated by green arrows (Elaborated from yara.com).

Denitrification is the main N-loss process in upland soil (Zhu *et al.*, 2018) and for a long time it was considered the only pathway contributing to N loss from the biosphere to the atmosphere. Another pathway occurring under anoxic conditions that directly returns fixed N to the atmosphere is anaerobic ammonia oxidation (anammox). Anammox combines  $\text{NO}$  from  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reduction and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  to hydrazine ( $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$ ), which is further oxidized to  $\text{N}_2$ . This pathway contributed to 1% - 14 % loss of N from agricultural upland soil (Zhu *et al.*, 2018; Long *et al.*, 2013).

#### *Fate of nitrate – competition between denitrification and DNRA*

The reduction of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is a shared starting point of three anaerobic N-transformation pathways – DNRA, denitrification, and anammox (Kraft *et al.*, 2011). The ecological significance of all three processes is different. Denitrification and anammox are leading to a loss of reactive N from the ecosystem to the atmosphere. While denitrification is the main contributor to



N<sub>2</sub>O, anammox bacteria do not possess the ability to reduce NO further to N<sub>2</sub>O (Strous *et al.*, 2006). Compared to denitrification the contribution to N loss is marginal and anammox bacteria are not known to emit N<sub>2</sub>O, facilitated by a tolerance of high NO levels (Zhu *et al.*, 2018; Strous *et al.*, 2006). Since, anammox has a subordinate part of N loss and N<sub>2</sub>O production in agricultural soils, the focus of this thesis was on NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction by denitrification or DNRA.

A principal factor influencing DNRA compared to denitrification is the soil oxidation state (Matheson *et al.*, 2002). Under fluctuating redox conditions, DNRA can be more competitive and act as a significant and sometimes dominant process of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> loss (Pett-Ridge *et al.*, 2006). Both, denitrification and DNRA occur under anoxic conditions and require N-oxides as terminal electron acceptor and suitable electron donors such as organic carbon (C). Based on calculations of the Gibbs free energy, each molecule of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> allows microorganisms to gain significantly more free energy by denitrification compared to DNRA (Strohm *et al.*, 2007; Tiedje *et al.*, 1982). Nevertheless, based on cultivations the actual biomass yield was shown to be lower for denitrification than for DNRA (van den Berg *et al.*, 2015; Strohm *et al.*, 2007). Under shortage of electron acceptor like NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and strongly reducing conditions, DNRA is suggested to have an advantage over denitrification, as more electrons are transferred during DNRA compared to denitrification (Kraft *et al.*, 2014; Tiedje *et al.*, 1982). Thus the C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio has been shown to be an environmental factor regulating NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> partitioning between denitrification and DNRA.

## 2.3 Dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium

Dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium occurs mainly under anoxic conditions (Morley & Baggs, 2010) and is predominant in reductant-rich environments such as wetlands, forest soils, peatlands and mangrove sediments (Fernandes *et al.*, 2012; Davis *et al.*, 2008; Huygens *et al.*, 2007). Typically more than 90 % of the end product of DNRA is NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (Streimińska *et al.*, 2012; Bleakley & Tiedje, 1982). Although in small amounts, DNRA is the third biological process which was discovered to produce N<sub>2</sub>O as a by-product (Rütting *et al.*, 2011a). The ability to perform DNRA is spread among bacterial and fungal phyla (Rütting *et al.*, 2011a; Simon, 2002) with many different lifestyles (Welsh *et al.*, 2014; Polcyn & Podeszwa, 2009).

The process itself consists of two independent steps: the reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, and further the reduction of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. The first step, the reduction of

$\text{NO}_2^-$  is catalysed by enzymes encoded in *nar* or *nap* genes depending on if the process takes place in the cytoplasm or the periplasm (Simon, 2002). Reduction of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  is carried out by the reductase NrfA. The gene *nrfA* is used as the marker gene to target organisms potentially mediating this step (Welsh *et al.*, 2014; Moreno-Vivián & Ferguson, 1998). Interestingly, *nrfA* sequences that can be assigned to specific organisms are also characterized by the capability of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  reduction (Sanford *et al.*, 2012). However, in DNRA  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  is not an intermediate product like in denitrification, but a by-product.

## 2.4 Denitrification

Denitrification is a facultative heterotrophic pathway and mainly occurs under low  $\text{O}_2$  partial pressure, as most denitrifying organisms prefer  $\text{O}_2$  respiration due to the higher energy gain, but denitrification under the presence of oxygen has been also reported (Patureau *et al.*, 2000; Robertson & Kuenen, 1984). Complete denitrification comprises a four-step reduction of the soluble anion  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and further to gaseous compounds NO,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{N}_2$ . Nitrous oxide is not only an intermediate product, prone to volatilization. It can as well be the end product of denitrification (Zumft, 1997). The reduction of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  to  $\text{N}_2$ , which is the final step of complete denitrification, is the only biological sink of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (Conrad, 1996). The step  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reduction to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  is not necessarily associated with denitrification, but could also be involved in anammox, DNRA or simply a process in itself (Stein & Klotz, 2016). Denitrification is a trait within 19 phyla of bacteria, archaea and also found among certain fungi (Graf *et al.*, 2014; Spott & Stange, 2011). So far, no fungal denitrifiers are known to perform the last step of denitrification and terminate with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (Maeda *et al.*, 2015; Laughlin & Stevens, 2002).

Nitrate reduction is performed by a periplasmic or membrane-associated  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reductase encoded by *napA* or *narG* genes, respectively. The key step of denitrification is the reduction of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  to NO because it transforms soluble  $\text{NO}_2^-$  into a gaseous N compound. Nitrite reduction takes place in the periplasm and can be catalysed by one of the two non-homologous enzymes encoded by *nirS* or *nirK* genes. The *nirK* gene encodes the copper binding  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reductase, while *nirS* encodes the heme-binding reductase. Even though both enzymes are considered to be mutually exclusive, a few  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reducers were found to have both *nir* genes (Sánchez & Minamisawa, 2018; Vaccaro *et al.*, 2016; Graf *et al.*, 2014). To assess the abundance and diversity of denitrifiers in an environment, the *nirK* and *nirS* abundance are often used in combination as molecular markers. Niche partitioning of the two *nir* genes has been suggested several

times (Yuan *et al.*, 2012; Enwall *et al.*, 2010; Jones & Hallin, 2010). Arable soils are commonly characterized by a higher abundance of *nirS* than *nirK* (Graf *et al.*, 2014) including most soils studied in this thesis (**paper II-IV**).

Not every denitrifying organism performs all four steps of the denitrification pathway (Zumft, 1997). In an analysis of denitrification gene co-occurrences across 652 genomes, each with at least one denitrification gene, Graf *et al.* (2014) demonstrated that 64 % of organisms lack the *nosZ* gene and are therefore incapable of reducing N<sub>2</sub>O. Moreover, a difference in the co-occurrence of *nir* and *nosZ* genes was apparent. While 80 % of *nirS* denitrifiers possess the *nosZ* gene, 70 % of *nirK* organisms lack it. On the other hand, 23 % were shown to harbour the *nosZ* gene, but lack other genes associated with denitrification (Graf *et al.*, 2014; Simon *et al.*, 2004; Sanford *et al.*, 2002). In order to assess the potential for N<sub>2</sub>O reduction, and at the same time estimate complete denitrification, the abundance and diversity of *nosZ* is usually determined. Nitrous oxide is neither known to cause inhibition of any other enzyme in denitrification, nor is it involved in regulation unlike the cytotoxic NO (Carreira *et al.*, 2017). However, high concentrations of N<sub>2</sub>O can have negative effects by causing destruction of vitamin B<sub>12</sub> (Sullivan *et al.*, 2013).

## 2.5 Nitrous oxide reducers

Nitrous oxide reduction is not only a step in the denitrification pathway as there are many organisms only reducing N<sub>2</sub>O (Jones *et al.*, 2013) and negative N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes in soils have been reported and shown to be of biological nature (Wu *et al.*, 2013; Chapuis-Lardy *et al.*, 2007). Hence, N<sub>2</sub>O reduction can be considered as a trait on its own.

It has been recently discovered that the gene *nosZ*, encoding the N<sub>2</sub>O-reductase, can be divided in two phylogenetic clades (I and II) (Jones *et al.*, 2013; Sanford *et al.*, 2012). Both genes are abundant in a wide range of environments implying a relative ecological relevance (Jones *et al.*, 2013). Contrasting abundance patterns and ecological differences between *nosZI* and *nosZII* were observed in soils, but also in marine sediments and the rhizosphere (Juhanson *et al.*, 2017; Graf *et al.*, 2016; Wittorf *et al.*, 2016). The abundance of *nosZI* has been reported to correlate with specific soil factors like clay content, N, C or C/N ratio (Juhanson *et al.*, 2017; Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2015). Clade I harbours mainly Proteobacteria, whereas clade II consists of a diverse range of denitrifying taxa. There is also a difference in the co-occurrence with other denitrification genes; *e.g.* while 17% of *nosZI* organisms lack *nirK* and *nirS*, about 52% of *nosZII* do not possess the ability to denitrify (Graf *et al.*, 2014).

The enzyme N<sub>2</sub>O reductase is sensitive to oxygen, and low pH might also affect the N<sub>2</sub>O reductase (Blum *et al.*, 2018; Liu *et al.*, 2014; Bergaust *et al.*, 2010; Zumft & Kroneck, 2006; Šimek & Cooper, 2002). Thus, even if microorganisms have the genetic ability to possess the last step of denitrification, it might be impaired by unfavourable environmental conditions and high amounts of N<sub>2</sub>O are emitted.

Yoon *et al.* (2016) reported a lower half-saturation constant ( $K_s$ ) for *nosZII* which would result in an advantage under N<sub>2</sub>O limiting conditions. Under low dilution rates *nosZII* dominates over *nosZI* but at faster growth rates *nosZI* outcompetes *nosZII* independent of N<sub>2</sub>O availability (Conthe *et al.*, 2018b). Conthe *et al.* (2018a) found that N<sub>2</sub>O reduction kinetics and stoichiometric yields do not distinguish between *nosZI* and *nosZII*, which contradicts reports of higher growth yields of *nosZII* during growth on N<sub>2</sub>O as sole electron acceptor. The authors conclude that differences in N<sub>2</sub>O affinity might be taxa-dependent rather than related to the clade of (Conthe *et al.*, 2018a). Furthermore it has been reported that organisms within *nosZI* reduce N<sub>2</sub>O at different rates (Cavigelli & Robertson, 2001).

## 2.6 Determining NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction activities

Denitrification is responsible for high losses of N, therefore a great interest in the development of several methods to assess the denitrification activity has evolved. Calculation of the N balance budget is the simplest method to quantify loss of N. However, it is not possible to distinguish between denitrification and N leaching when using this approach. Also, this method does not provide information about the proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O produced. Another, more specific approach is the acetylene inhibition method, developed in the 1970s (Yoshinari *et al.*, 1977; Balderston & Payne, 1976). Thereby, the N<sub>2</sub>O reductase is inhibited by the presence of the gas acetylene and total N loss by denitrification can be quantified as N<sub>2</sub>O. Due to its toxicity, NO emissions are very low and the production of N<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O is considered as a good estimator of denitrification (Meyer *et al.*, 2010). Acetylene inhibition methods have been applied to soil cores, slurries and *in situ* in the field using closed chambers (Ryden & Dawson, 1982). To assess the potential denitrification and potential N<sub>2</sub>O production of a soil, samples are incubated for a short time under non-limiting denitrification conditions with- or without the presence of acetylene and the rate of N<sub>2</sub>O is measured (Pell *et al.*, 1996). This method cannot be used to determine field rates, however the potential for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions can be quantified and compared between samples.

Another approach to determine the denitrification activity is based on addition of the stable isotope  $^{15}\text{N}$ . Subsequently transformations of  $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$  to  $^{15}\text{N}_2\text{O}$  or  $^{15}\text{N}_2$  can be traced by analysis of the isotopic ratio of denitrification products. Application of a  $^{15}\text{N}$ -tracing model was the method of choice to compare the activity of denitrification and DNRA in **paper III** (Rütting *et al.*, 2011a). Addition and tracing of  $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$  provides insights in soil N cycling rates, representative for the actual field conditions since only small amounts of N compounds need to be added if the N-components are highly enriched in  $^{15}\text{N}$ . In this way, an increase of the soil N and water content, which consequently alters C/N ratio and enhances microbial activity can be avoided (Rütting *et al.*, 2011b). When using  $^{15}\text{N}$  labelling approaches, modelling can be used to trace simultaneously occurring N transformations (Müller *et al.*, 2014).

## 2.7 Linking soil microorganisms to processes

Although the importance of microorganisms for N cycling in soil is known, the relevance of the microbial community composition and abundance of functional groups of microorganisms to predict process rates is under debate (Graham *et al.*, 2014; Nemergut *et al.*, 2014). Evidence of a positive relation between soil diversity and ecosystem functioning has been shown (Wagg *et al.*, 2014), with variation between different ecosystems and processes (Graham *et al.*, 2016). For nutrient cycling processes, positive effects of higher diversity have been suggested to depend on community composition rather than species richness (Bardgett & van der Putten, 2014) and three out of four models predicting denitrification were improved by 16S rRNA community diversity but less by considering functional gene abundances (Graham *et al.*, 2016). Both *nirK* and *nirS* OTUs from a study with agricultural soils have been positively, but also negatively correlated to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions, relativizing the significance of solely functional gene abundance (Bent *et al.*, 2016). Petersen *et al.* (2012) suggested that gene abundances might not be a good predictor for relatively small changes in activity, but a good predictor when large fluctuation is observed. Variation partitioning revealed that the genetic potential of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  reduction is an important variable describing  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions occurring at high levels, while basal  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  is governed by soil properties (Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2018).

A lack of observed correlations between  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions and gene-based abundance of denitrifiers could be due to the facultative nature of the process, regulation at the gene or protein level or because of limited coverage of the high phylogenetic diversity (Bonilla-Rosso *et al.*, 2016; Rocca *et al.*, 2015; Wei *et al.*, 2015). Another considerable factor may be a lack of complete knowledge of

N turnover processes. For example the recent findings of *nosZII* (Jones *et al.*, 2013; Sanford *et al.*, 2012) or comammox (Daims *et al.*, 2015; van Kessel *et al.*, 2015) point towards an incomplete picture of microbial driven N processes.

### *Relationships of N<sub>2</sub>O reducing bacteria to N<sub>2</sub>O emissions*

A high N<sub>2</sub>O emission potential of soils was characterized by a low *nos/nir* ratio of the native soil microbial communities throughout **papers II-VI**. Manipulations of the *nos/nir* ratio were shown to have implications for the denitrification end-product ratio. In a study *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* was inoculated to a variety of soils and an increased denitrification activity as well as changes in the denitrification end product ratio were observed (Philipot *et al.*, 2011). In **paper I**, the non-denitrifying N<sub>2</sub>O-reducing strain *Dyadobacter fermentans* was added to 11 different soils, which significantly reduced the denitrification end-product ratio by 51 % on average and some soils even became N<sub>2</sub>O sinks. Due to the short incubation time, we cannot speculate on growth of the amended N<sub>2</sub>O reducing strain, which has been shown to be a limiting factor of a successful application of N<sub>2</sub>O reducing strains (Gao *et al.*, 2017) but we showed that there is a causal relationship between the abundance of non-denitrifying N<sub>2</sub>O reducers and the net N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. In **paper I**, we identified soil factors that influence the effectiveness of *D. fermentans*. The strains N<sub>2</sub>O sink capacity was associated with pH, C/N ratio and also biotic factors like the *nirK/nirS* and *nosZI* abundance (Table 1). This study demonstrated that the microbial community composition is ultimately controlling the extent of N<sub>2</sub>O reduction.

Table 1. Contribution of abiotic and biotic factors in percent to differences in the effectiveness of *D. fermentans* reducing N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Results are based on a model selection analysis, significant variables are indicated ( $p < 0.05^*$ ,  $p < 0.01^{**}$ ) and the direction of the correlation is indicated (-) or (+).

Variable	Sink capacity
pH	10.8** (+)
Clay (%)	0.1
Loam (%)	2.5
C/N	19.4** (+)
16S rRNA	3.8
<i>nirK/nirS</i>	17.3* (+)
<i>nosZI</i> (%)	6.4* (+)
<i>nosZII</i> (%)	1.5
Residuals	36.8

Not only is the relative abundance of denitrifiers possessing a truncated pathway relevant for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, but also the abundance of solely N<sub>2</sub>O reducing bacteria. In agreement, statistical modelling indicate that the abundance of *nosZ* clade II directly affects the soil N<sub>2</sub>O sink capacity when comparing a range of different soils (Jones *et al.*, 2014). Considering denitrification as a shared pathway is relevant for balancing N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Recent investigations suggest that denitrification in soils might be performed by an assembly of different populations (Orellana *et al.*, 2018). Potential interactions between denitrifiers with a truncated denitrification pathway and lineages of *nosZ* acting as N<sub>2</sub>O consumers could be an important mechanism of N<sub>2</sub>O emission mitigation of soil ecosystems (Juhanson *et al.*, 2017). Besides the abundance of N<sub>2</sub>O reducers, the diversity of N<sub>2</sub>O reducing communities has been shown to be important for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in situ (Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2018). The community structure of *nosZI* and *nosZII* correlated negatively with the denitrification end-product ratio in **paper II**. The diversity of the *nosZII* community is important for the soil N<sub>2</sub>O sink capacity while not contributing to higher potential denitrification (Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2015; Jones *et al.*, 2014).





## 3 Fertilization affects functional microbial groups accounting for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions

### 3.1 Influence of fertilization on the soil microbiome

Fertilization has long lasting effects on soil properties (Kätterer *et al.*, 2014; Rousk *et al.*, 2011), crop yields (Zhang *et al.*, 2009; Steiner *et al.*, 2007) and the soil microbial community (Cassman *et al.*, 2016; Hartmann *et al.*, 2015; Lauber *et al.*, 2013; Clark *et al.*, 2012; Hallin *et al.*, 2009). Long-term field experiments are useful resources when assessing the impact of management practices on various ecosystem services of arable fields since major impacts of soil management on the microbial community are detectable only after several years. In this thesis, a total of 15 long term field trials across Sweden were used to test the impact of fertilization regimes on the soil microbial communities and their N processing functionality. These field trials were set up during the years 1956-1998 and are well suited for exploration of the long-term effects of fertilization on the soil microbiome.

#### *Fertilization and the soil microbiome*

In general, fertilization leads to a higher microbial biomass but if the applied N fertilizer lowers the soil pH, the microbial biomass decreases (Geisseler & Scow, 2014; Börjesson *et al.*, 2011). In **papers II** and **IV**, we found higher bacterial 16S rRNA gene abundances in fertilized fields compared to unfertilized control fields. All fertilized fields exclusively received mineral fertilizer which did not alter the soil pH and the fertilizer N was simply an input of resources. **Paper III** revealed a higher abundance of fungi in fertilized fields, which we suspected was due to a growth of Ascomycota (Leff *et al.*, 2015; Nemergut *et al.*, 2008), a

fungal phylum that was shown to be predominant in agro-ecosystems (Lienhard *et al.*, 2014).

The observed increase in bacterial abundance after fertilization (**paper II**) coincided with a change of the microbial community structure. After six months incubation of these soils with or without  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and C addition (**paper IV**), this contrast was still evident indicating persistent major structural changes in the microbial community composition (Cassman *et al.*, 2016; Francioli *et al.*, 2016; Börjesson *et al.*, 2011; Allison & Martiny, 2008). Changes in the microbial community structure were apparent in the shifts in relative abundance of bacterial groups at high and low taxonomic levels (Figure 2; **paper II**). Certain phylogenetic taxa like Actinobacteria or Acidobacteria have been assigned to a specific lifestyle based on consistent response to fertilization (Fierer, 2017). Results in **paper II** confirm the suggested *r*-strategy lifestyle of Actinobacteria, which are characterized by rapid growth rates in conditions of high nutrient availability (Fierer *et al.*, 2012). Adversely, independent of pH, the abundance of Acidobacteria decreased with fertilization typically for a *k*-strategy lifestyle, exposing low growth rates and being favoured under nutrient limitation (Leff *et al.*, 2015; Cederlund *et al.*, 2014; Fierer *et al.*, 2012; Ramirez *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, consistent effects on a lower taxonomic level were observed (Figure 2). The highest change in relative abundance was observed for taxa with a known function in the N cycle, like the N-fixing Cyanobacteria, which were characterized by a strong decrease in fertilized soils, or  $\text{NH}_3$  oxidizing Nitrosomonadales, which increased the most in relative terms (**paper II**).

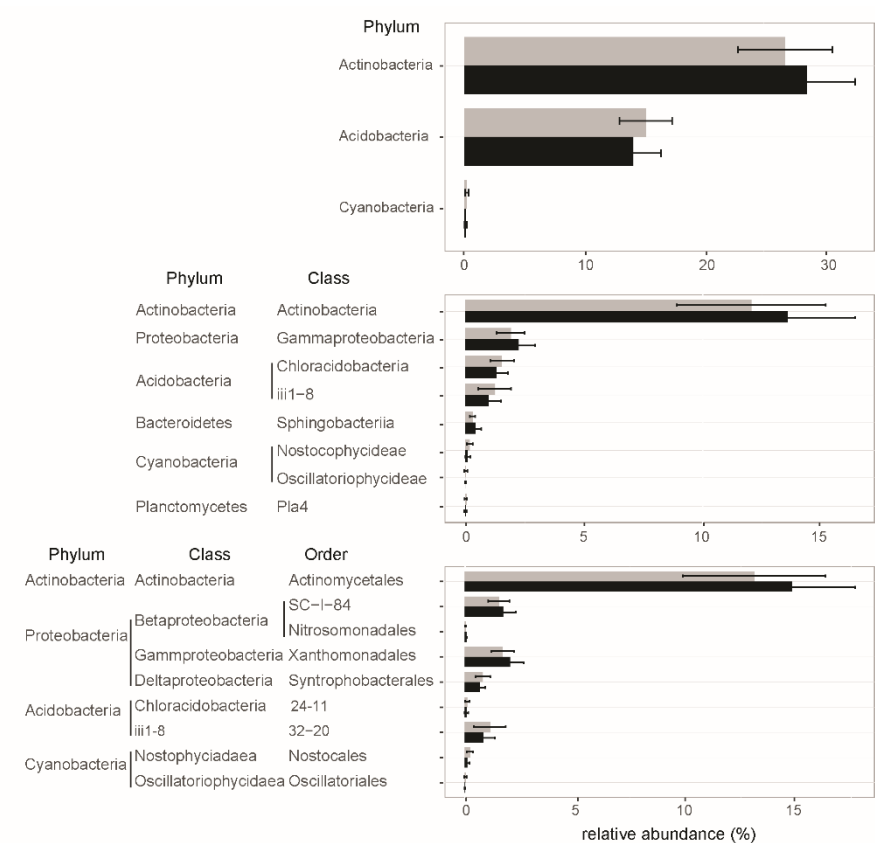


Figure 2. Bacterial taxonomic groups with significant response to fertilization ( $p < 0.05$ ). Relative abundances in unfertilized (grey bars) and fertilized field plots (black bars) are expressed as percent of the total bacterial community.

The change in microbial community composition was not reflected in the alpha diversity in **paper II**. However, short term  $\text{NO}_3^-$  application to the same soils from the field experiments led to a decrease in Shannon's diversity (**paper IV**). Several studies reported that application of fertilizer was either related to a decrease of bacterial richness and diversity (Samad *et al.*, 2017; Zeng *et al.*, 2016; Koyama *et al.*, 2014; Campbell *et al.*, 2010) or shown to not affect Shannon's diversity index (Coolon *et al.*, 2013). While mineral fertilizer are chemically simply structured and activate biomass growth, other, more complex fertilizers, like manure have been shown to stimulate a broader range of organisms (Francioli *et al.*, 2016). It has been suggested that N availability could be a predictor for the loss of soil bacterial diversity (Zeng *et al.*, 2016). However, contradictory results and distinct effects of different types of N-fertilizer on the

bacterial diversity limit general conclusions from N application to the soil microbial diversity.

#### *Fertilization and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions*

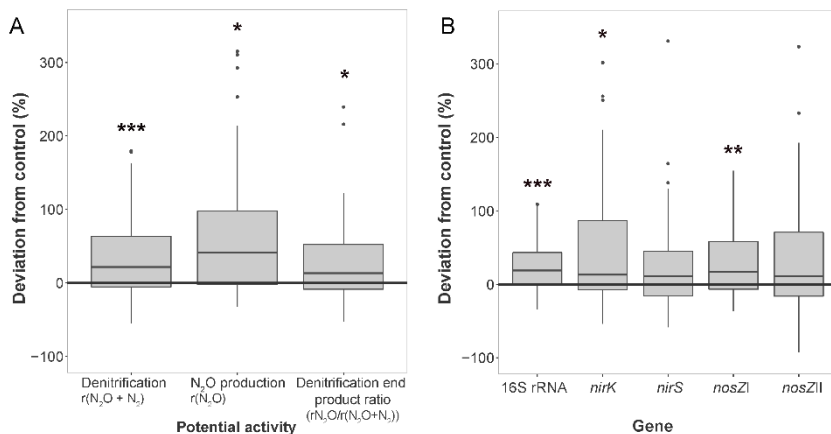
The application of N fertilizer is known to enhance N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Charles *et al.*, 2017; Buckingham *et al.*, 2014; Lebender *et al.*, 2014; Shcherbak *et al.*, 2014; Coolon *et al.*, 2013). Increased N<sub>2</sub>O release from soils due to denitrification is observed as high emissions during a short period of time – so-called ‘hot-moments’ – which commonly occur after N application followed by heavy rainfall, or frequent freeze-thaw cycles in spring (Congreves *et al.*, 2017; Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2018; Abalos *et al.*, 2016; Liang *et al.*, 2016). A combination of high water content, leading to anaerobic conditions, and high availability of N in the soil promotes denitrification (Enwall *et al.*, 2005). In agreement with the literature, we observed that fertilized soils had a higher potential denitrification activity and also a higher N<sub>2</sub>O/N<sub>2</sub> denitrification end product ratio which consequently is associated with higher N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Figure 3A; **paper II**). Nitrification and the abundance of nitrifying organisms has been shown to increase after the application of N fertilizer (Hink *et al.*, 2017; Zhou *et al.*, 2015; Fisk & Schmidt, 1996), thus accelerating N loss with high N loads. Various types of fertilizers can have secondary effects like acidification of the soil which might be a factor increasing the denitrification end-product ratio. Consequently, not only the amount of N application but the type of fertilizer affects N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Shcherbak *et al.*, 2014; Šimek & Cooper, 2002).

### 3.2 Effects of fertilization on NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reducing communities

#### *Fertilization effects on denitrifiers*

The abundance of N<sub>2</sub>O producing microbes is often positively correlated with the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Cui *et al.*, 2016; Morales *et al.*, 2010), suggesting that the quantity of N<sub>2</sub>O generating enzymes can be rate limiting for N<sub>2</sub>O production. Shared response of denitrifier communities to an ecosystem disturbance such as fertilization might be less frequent due to the facultative nature of denitrification and the high metabolic versatility of most microorganisms. It has been shown several times that denitrifiers increase not only in activity, but also in abundance after N fertilization (Yang *et al.*, 2015; Hallin *et al.*, 2009), however this relationship was not always observed (Wu *et al.*, 2017; Yin *et al.*, 2014).

Despite the mainly higher abundance of *nirS* compared to *nirK* in soils, higher responsiveness of *nirK* to N loads is observed in **paper II** (e.g. Figure 2B). This confirmed the proposed promotion of *nirK* denitrifiers by fertilization compared to *nirS* (Coyotzi *et al.*, 2017; Maeda *et al.*, 2017; Brenzinger *et al.*, 2015; Clark *et al.*, 2012; Hallin *et al.*, 2009), although this may depend on the type of fertilizer (Cui *et al.*, 2016). Similarly, a strong increase of *nirK* abundance during the growing season, or under high cattle impact has also been observed (Schulz *et al.*, 2017; Philippot *et al.*, 2009).



*Figure 3.* Deviation of gene abundance and potential activities in fertilized arable soils compared to unfertilized control soils. (A) Relative change of potential denitrification, N<sub>2</sub>O production and denitrification end product ratio and (B) gene copy numbers per g soil. Significant increases are indicated by asterisks (\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ ).

In **paper II**, both *nirK* and *nirS* were positively correlated with the denitrification activity, but only *nirS* was positively correlated to the potential N<sub>2</sub>O production rate. A high abundance of *nirK* was correlated with a low denitrification end-product ratio and a high abundance of *nosZI*. Higher levels of *nirK* and *nosZI* were associated with lower net N<sub>2</sub>O production. Despite a higher probability of *nirS* to co-occur with a *nosZ* gene (Graf *et al.*, 2014), organisms harbouring *nirS* potentially contribute to net N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. This finding is in line with observations of direct influence of *nirS* organisms on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from an arable soil (Cui *et al.*, 2016).

Bacteroidetes increased marginally after fertilization (**paper II**). Nevertheless, Bacteroidetes and subgroups within this phylum were associated with lower N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, potentially because several members of this phylum are non-denitrifying N<sub>2</sub>O reducers (Graf *et al.*, 2014). These results in **paper II**

highlight that the taxonomic composition of microbial communities may have an important impact on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, due to the non-random distributional patterns of N-cycle genes amongst different taxonomic groups.

Across multiple sites, it was shown that fertilization caused shifts of the abundance of microbial taxa. The adaptation of the microbial community to N fertilization occurred with higher denitrification activity in fertilized soils in annual cereal crop rotations compared to unfertilized treatment (**paper II** and **III**). Long-term fertilization effects on denitrifiers was further shown to impact the response to additional nutrient input. In **paper IV** we observed legacy effects of long-term fertilization on the abundance of functional genes including *nirS* which was higher in incubated soils from fertilized field plots. The distinct response of *nirS* gene abundance based on previous fertilization, significantly influences the genetic potential of microbial communities controlling N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.

#### *Fertilization effects on DNRA activity and abundance*

Several studies have outlined the importance of DNRA over denitrification in N poor environments (Franklin *et al.*, 2017; Kim *et al.*, 2016; Song *et al.*, 2014; Fernandes *et al.*, 2012), but less is known about the effects of high N loads on organisms conducting DNRA. In **paper III** we could not detect a response of fertilization on the abundance of the *nrfA* gene. However, *nrfA* was correlated to C and N and thus higher abundance was observed in the ley cropping soils compared to the annual cereal crop rotation, likely related to the higher C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio in the ley (see chapter 4). Within the annual crop rotation system, fertilized soils were characterized by a lower reduction rate of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> suggesting that soils with regular mineral N input, retain less N despite the lack of captured differences in soil properties and genetic abundances. It can be hypothesized that the difference in DNRA rates could result from differences in the relative abundance of *nrfA* community induced by long-term fertilization.

Fertilization had no effect on the relative abundance of *nrfA/nir* due to high levels of both NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reductase genes in fertilized fields (**paper III** and **IV**). However, short-term NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> application in microcosm incubations decreased the *nrfA/nir* ratio. It can be speculated that a reduced spatial heterogeneity and wet conditions in the microcosms, enable higher nutrient mobility and consequently increase the direct competition between denitrifiers and DNRA bacteria. Under the tested conditions with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> levels corresponding to 200 and 1000 kg N/ha denitrifiers appear to be more competitive for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. This finding is in line with results from pure culture and enrichment studies, where DNRA was repeatedly shown to be favoured under limitation of electron acceptor, such as NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (van den Berg *et al.*, 2015; Yoon *et al.*, 2015).

### 3.3 N input influencing N<sub>2</sub>O reducing communities

A dominance of *nir* genes over the genes encoding the N<sub>2</sub>O reductase was characteristic for all arable soils and not affected by long-term fertilization (**paper II**). After 6 months of incubation with or without added NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, the *nos/nir* ratio in previously fertilized soils decreased (**paper IV**), while it increased in the unfertilized soils. This increase was mainly driven by an increase in *nosZII* abundance. The abundance of *nosZII* also increased in the previously fertilized soils, although to a lesser extent, suggesting that a higher N<sub>2</sub>O reduction potential develops under constant denitrifying conditions. Six months after NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> application to the microcosm incubations, the N<sub>2</sub>O concentration in the headspace with soils of low C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio was still high. This high production of N<sub>2</sub>O might allow certain soil organisms to grow on N<sub>2</sub>O produced by other organisms, which could be another reason why growth of *nosZII* organisms was observed. About 50 % of *nosZII* organisms are solely N<sub>2</sub>O reducers (Graf *et al.*, 2014), and in **paper I**, we demonstrated that soil organisms without the capacity to produce N<sub>2</sub>O could grow on medium with N<sub>2</sub>O as sole electron acceptor. Moreover, *nosZII* organisms can be favoured over *nosZI* organisms (i.e. denitrifiers) when N<sub>2</sub>O is the only electron acceptor (Conthe *et al.*, 2018a).

In an environmental study, it has been recognized that fertilization regimes affect organisms of the two *nosZ* clades differently (Krause *et al.*, 2017). Distinct spatial distributions of *nosZI* and *nosZII* in organic and integrated cropping systems as well as a correlation of *nosZI* but not *nosZII* and soil organic N has been reported (Juhanson *et al.*, 2017). In **paper II** and **IV**, N<sub>2</sub>O reducing bacteria with *nosZI* more often increased in abundance after higher nutrient application in a long and short-term N application. Higher correlations of *nosZI* with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, but not *nosZII* have been observed previously. Thereupon, it has been suggested that organisms harbouring *nosZI* grow faster than those with *nosZII* in fertilized soils due to a more widespread genetic ability to process NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and intermediate products of denitrification (Krause *et al.*, 2018). In agreement, *nosZI* organisms were shown to dominate over *nosZII* at high dilution rates in chemostat experiments and the most abundant *nosZII* organisms had the capacity for full denitrification (Conthe *et al.*, 2018b). Similarly, Yoon *et al.* (2016) concluded that *nosZI* organisms were *r*-strategists, whereas organisms harbouring *nosZII* were *k*-strategists based on their apparent affinities for N<sub>2</sub>O. However, the current literature on niche differentiation of *nosZI* and *nosZII* and potential functional differences with respect to N<sub>2</sub>O reduction are too limited to draw general and robust conclusions. More effort in classifying the ecophysiology of both clades is needed, but might be impeded by the high phylogenetic diversity of *nosZ* clade II.

While the *nosZI* community was increasing in abundance after fertilization, the *nosZII* community structure changed and the diversity increased (**paper II**). Input of additional N might benefit specific *nosZII* organisms, which affects *nosZII* species richness and phylogenetic diversity. A stronger susceptibility of the *nosZII* community to agricultural practices has been suggested previously (Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2015).



## 4 C/N ratio as determining factor of N<sub>2</sub>O

### 4.1 Effect of C/N ratio on soil microbial community structure and diversity

Agricultural management practices can influence the soil C/N ratio. For example, incorporation of crop residues counteracts the loss of C from agricultural soils with additional beneficial effects such as erosion control, increased nutrient recycling and improved soil structure, which could stimulate plant growth (Liu *et al.*, 2015; Poeplau *et al.*, 2015).

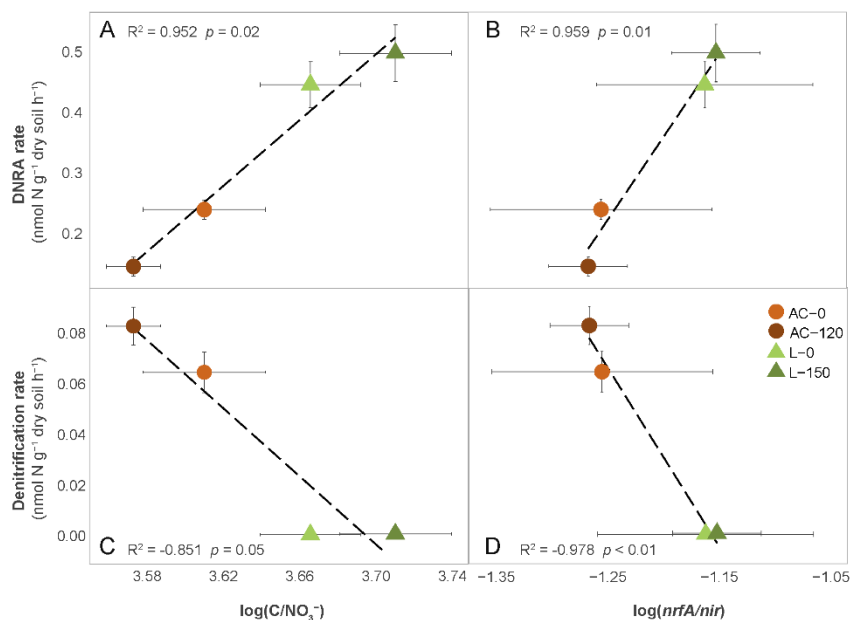
Changes in the microbial community according to C/N may not only have consequences for C cycling in soils, but can also affect microbial mediated N turnover (Mooshammer *et al.*, 2014). The microbial community structure in a range of arable soils across Sweden were significantly influenced by the soil C/N ratio (**paper II**), as microbial diversity increased with increasing soil C/N (**paper II** and **IV**). This effect of C/N has been observed in relation to change of specific taxonomic groups. Bacterial taxa like Chloroflexi and Firmicutes were negatively correlated to C/N ratio, whereas Planctomycetes and Acidobacteria were positively correlated to C/N (Delgado-Baquerizo *et al.*, 2017). Specific correlations of certain taxa with C/N ratio are in line with lowered C/N by fertilization (Leff *et al.*, 2015; Fierer *et al.*, 2012). Delgado-Baquerizo *et al.*, (2017) suggested that the preference for high or low C availability is a result of an adaptation during early evolution of specific taxa to geologically old mineral soils, or organic soils emerging later on.

## 4.2 C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio determining the fate of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>

Under anoxic conditions denitrification and DNRA compete for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> as electron acceptor. It has been suggested that the relative importance of DNRA versus denitrification is controlled by the C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio as means of ratio of electron-donor to electron acceptor (Schmidt *et al.*, 2011; Tiedje *et al.*, 1982). This has been supported by pure culture studies of a strain of *Shewenella loihica*, which is capable of both denitrification and DNRA. This strain reduced NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to N<sub>2</sub> when growing on a medium with a low C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio while ammonifying NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> under high C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> conditions (Yoon *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, chemostat studies have shown that high C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratios allow for enrichment of DNRA populations (van den Berg *et al.*, 2015). In **paper IV**, the effect of C/N ratio on complex native soil communities was tested utilizing soil microcosm incubations with straw and KNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> addition to determine causal and general effects of altering the C/N ratio in soils with different edaphic factors and microbial communities. The consequence of modified C/N ratio was a shift in the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reducing communities, with the *nrfA/nir* gene abundance ratio positively correlated with soil C/N. Straw addition to soil incubations promoted *nrfA* over denitrification genes, whereas when straw was added in combination with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, the *nrfA/nir* ratio was not affected or decreased. A possible explanation could be the advantage of DNRA bacteria under electron acceptor limiting conditions, since NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> accepts eight instead of five electrons per nitrite (Kraft *et al.*, 2014; Tiedje *et al.*, 1982).

The predominance of DNRA over denitrification was also observed in **paper III**, in which the C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio of field plots that were altered by 45 years of different cropping systems. Here, we could directly link the activities of denitrification and DNRA with both C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and *nrfA/nir* ratio (Figure 3). It is important to recognize that total N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was higher in the ley (L) soils compared to the annual cereal rotation (AC), indicating that a high N level does not necessarily promote N loss from soils, and that a high activity of DNRA over the years can foster N conservation.

Besides effects on the DNRA bacteria, the soil C/N ratio also affects denitrifiers with direct links to N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Yuan *et al.*, 2017; Bent *et al.*, 2016). Therefore the balance between the two NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction processes govern N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, as also shown in **paper III**.



**Figure 3.** Regression analysis for illustrating the relationship between  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reducing activities DNRA (A, B) and denitrification (C, D) with explanatory variables soil  $\text{C}/\text{NO}_3^-$  ratio (A, C) and  $nrfA/nir$  gene abundance ratio (B, D). Different colors and shapes of data points correspond to annual cereal crop rotation (AC) or ley rotation (L) and the level of N fertilization (0 or 120, 150  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ).

The  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission pattern in the headspace of microcosms in **paper IV** hints towards a differential response of soils to straw and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  application, depending on the fertilization history. As we observed legacy effects of N fertilization, a possible adaptation of the soil microbial community might also be relevant for various soil management practices with the aim to raise the C content. The strong interdependence of C and N cycling in soils suggests that long-term manipulation of the soil C content, effects as well  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions.

### 4.3 C/N influencing $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ reduction

Across the studies the effect of different agricultural management systems on the functional microbial communities with impact on  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions were evident. Initiated adaptations of microbial regulated N use efficiency has impact on N conservation and N losses with implementation on the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  budget. In **paper III-IV** we observed significant correlations between  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production and soil  $\text{C}/\text{NO}_3^-$  ratio, underscoring how management strategies that directly

influence C/N in soils can result in lower N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2018; Abalos *et al.*, 2016; Gelfand *et al.*, 2016; Thompson *et al.*, 2016).

It has been suggested that for the availability of electron donor (C) in relation to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (electron acceptor) has consequences for the extent of N<sub>2</sub>O reduction (Richardson *et al.*, 2009). Accordingly the last step of denitrification, the reduction of N<sub>2</sub>O demands twice as much electrons compared to NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction. A high availability of electron donor consequently promoted the N<sub>2</sub>O reduction activity of a denitrifying bacterium (Felgate *et al.*, 2012). This is in line with the finding of C/N ratio being a main factor for effectivity of *D. fermentans*, a N<sub>2</sub>O-reducing strain, in the inoculated soils (**paper I**). While we found a higher abundance of N<sub>2</sub>O reducers, expressed as *nos/nir* gene ratio in soils with high C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratios in **paper III**, a negative correlation of the *nos/nir* ratio and C/N was determined in **paper IV**. Consequently, the relation to N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was inconclusive. The C/N ratio reportedly affects the abundance and community of *nosZ* organisms (Krause *et al.*, 2018; Juhanson *et al.*, 2017; Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2015). Thereby disparate effects of altered C/N ratio on the *nosZI* and *nosZII* communities can be expected. In **paper II** and **III**, higher C/N ratio was correlated with a higher *nosZI/nosZII* ratio. The gene abundance of *nosZI* has been correlated to C/N in arable soils but not *nosZII* (Juhanson *et al.*, 2017; Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2015), which further signals that under N limiting conditions, denitrifiers with a complete pathway have an advantage (Felgate *et al.*, 2012). In a field study utilizing straw incorporation, the only *nosZ* OTU negatively correlated with N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was assigned to Betaproteobacteria, highly abundant in high C/N ratio fields (Bent *et al.*, 2016). The level of *nosZI* abundance or *nosZI* transcripts can be increased by crop residue incorporation or biochar amendment (Krause *et al.*, 2018; Németh *et al.*, 2014). Attempts to raise the C/N ratio by adding a C source may also lead to higher denitrification activity and emissions of N<sub>2</sub>O, depending on the N amendment (Köbke *et al.*, 2018). If C is added to fertilized plots, no effect on the *nosZI* abundance was shown, whereas C addition under shortage of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> promotes *nosZI* and N<sub>2</sub>O reduction to N<sub>2</sub> (Fracetto *et al.*, 2017).

Further, the effect of crop residue incorporation on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions is highly affected by synthetic fertilizer application (Liu *et al.*, 2015; Shan & Yan, 2013). It has been observed, that in soils receiving organic amendment in combination with N fertilizer, the emission factor, modulated by the C/N, soil texture and precipitation rises (Charles *et al.*, 2017).

In a lab-experiment of **paper IV**, we observed that straw addition without NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> addition promoted the gene abundance for *nosZI* and *nosZII*. However, if straw was applied in combination with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> we observed no or suppressing effects compared to the treatment without straw addition. This affected the

pattern for the gene abundance ratios of *nos/nir* ratio (Figure 4), which serves as an experimental evidence of higher amounts of electron donor enhance the potential for N<sub>2</sub>O reduction. Here, *nosZI* and *nosZII* contributed to a higher N<sub>2</sub>O reduction in relation to C/N ratio. In **paper III**, *nosZII* was the only gene correlated with the C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio. It has also been shown that the *nosZII* community structure is correlated to C/N ratio, and both factors *nosZII* community and C/N ratio are important explanatory factors for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Juhanson *et al.*, 2017; Domeignoz-Horta *et al.*, 2015; Jones *et al.*, 2014).

The strong correlation of the *nosZII* and *nrfA* abundance in **paper IV** and similar response to various treatments suggests a significant amount of organisms harbouring both genes, *nosZII* and *nrfA* (Mania *et al.*, 2014; Sanford *et al.*, 2012). The co-occurrence of *nosZII* and *nrfA* might be common as N<sub>2</sub>O can be produced as a side product of DNRA and thus organisms might use it to gain energy. Organisms with this asset have high potential in retaining N in soils, and mitigate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and further research should be focused on the ecology of this trait.

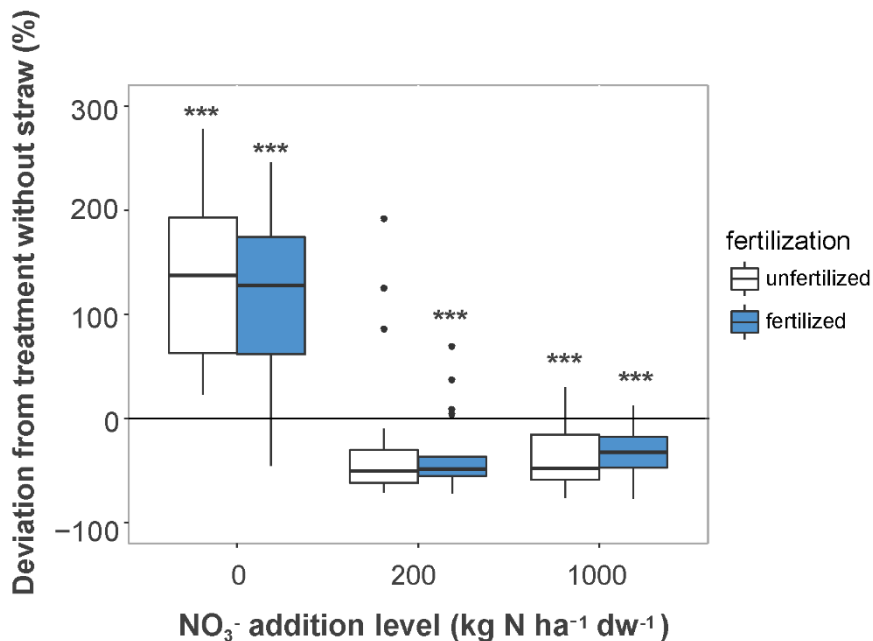


Figure 4. Difference of the *nos/nir* gene abundance ratio after application of straw to microcosms at different levels of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> application. The different colours of the boxplot indicate the fertilization treatment prior to microcosm incubation. Significant deviations are indicated by asterisks (\**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01, \*\*\**p* < 0.001).



## 5 General conclusions and future perspectives

There is a growing interest in understanding the functions of soil microbial communities in relation to ecosystem functioning as it will be needed to meet the pressing challenges to reduce agriculture's impact on climate warming. This thesis showed the complexity of functions within the soil microbial communities that affect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under anoxic conditions. Across **papers I-IV** we found evidence that the soil C/N and C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio respectively were important factors influencing the microbial communities and net N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.

As a proof of concept, the abundance of non-denitrifying bacteria harbouring the *nosZ* gene was shown to reduce N<sub>2</sub>O emitted by the native soil microbial community in **paper I**. Moreover, the effectivity of nitrous oxide reduction was correlated with higher C/N ratio of soils.

A field study (**paper III**) revealed that crop rotations with ley (short-term grasslands) leading to higher C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio promoted not only a higher relative abundance of potential N<sub>2</sub>O reduction, but more important also higher rates of DNRA which can contribute significantly to soil N retention. At the same time, denitrifying bacteria were less favoured than DNRA bacteria and subsequently less N<sub>2</sub>O was produced. We found that ley had a stronger effect on soil C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratio compared to fertilization, as grasslands retained C and N content in soils with possible implications for higher crop yields.

In the manipulation experiment in **paper IV**, the effects of altered C/N ratio on the relative abundance of DNRA versus denitrifiers within complex soil communities was observed. The DNRA process and N<sub>2</sub>O reduction were favoured under high C/N ratios and were shown to reduce N<sub>2</sub>O emissions to a great extent. In both studies, **paper III** and **IV**, lower C/N or C/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ratios, respectively were associated with higher N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Determined higher N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and denitrification end-product ratios were associated with lower *nos/nir* ratios (**paper II – IV**) demonstrating the relevance of the genetic basis

for actual N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Changes in the *nos/nir* ratio were mainly driven by an increase of *nosZI* bacteria at higher N levels (**paper II - IV**). Consistent effects of fertilization on the functional microbial groups of denitrifiers and N<sub>2</sub>O reducers were demonstrated and we could identify taxonomic groups likely involved in regulating net N<sub>2</sub>O emission by affecting N<sub>2</sub>O production and reduction. Moreover, we observed a distinct response of both *nosZ* clades to N fertilization, including higher susceptibility of *nosZII*, although community structure of both clades were correlated with N<sub>2</sub>O reduction (**paper II**).

### *Future perspectives*

The N cycle is still characterized by high uncertainties and the microbial N transformation are not yet fully understood. Recent discoveries of processes and genes possessing steps of the N cycle like archaeal NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation (Francis *et al.*, 2005; Könneke *et al.*, 2005; Treusch *et al.*, 2005; Venter *et al.*, 2004), codenitrification (Laughlin & Stevens, 2002; Shoun *et al.*, 1992; Tanimoto *et al.*, 1992) or the recent discovery of comammox organisms (Daims *et al.*, 2015; van Kessel *et al.*, 2015) illustrates our evolving view on the N cycle. A combination of better methods to analyse the soil microbiome and quantification of the bacterial N turnover provides improved possibilities to develop nutrient management options by incorporating soil microbial communities. The observed correlations between the soil microbial diversity, C/N ratio and the *nrfA* abundance with implications for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions reported in this thesis are a first step towards that goal, but better characterization of the soil microorganisms possessing NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reduction to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and their abilities in N<sub>2</sub>O reduction is required.

A threat of enhanced production of N<sub>2</sub>O when more C is sequestered in soils highlights the urgency to study the interaction of C and N cycling in arable soils. The demonstrated importance of the C/N ratio on the N turnover of soils, clarifies that integrated nutrient cycling is a key in the mitigation of greenhouse gases to meet future challenges of a climate friendly agriculture. A future challenge in agricultural research is also incorporation of knowledge on functional microbial guilds, which could allow for better predictions of soil N cycling under different management practices. This thesis points at an important mitigation potential by using the *nosZ* community. Experimental testing of the suggested niche differentiation between *nosZI* and *nosZII* is needed to be able to adjust agronomic practices to reach high efficiency of microbial N<sub>2</sub>O reduction. Moreover, although N<sub>2</sub>O reducers are important, we conclude that the balance between DNRA and denitrification can be more determinant for net N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Knowledge on the ecology of DNRA organisms in arable soils is still very limited and more research within this area is therefore needed. Furthermore,



studies focusing on soil microbiota, nutrients and the interaction with plants have potential to increase our understanding on how interactions between different trophic levels contribute to N cycling in soil. A deeper understanding of the soil microbial complexity in respect to agronomic practices and climate change are indispensable steps towards reaching resource and climate conservation agriculture and technologies to foster a soil microbial community that supports high N use efficiency and high crop yields is needed.



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## Popular science summary

Nitrogen (N) is an essential element for life on earth. Air consists to 78% of N and bioavailable forms of N, like nitrate and ammonium, are important for production of food, feed and fibre. In 1909, the so called Haber-Bosch method was invented, which enables the production of artificial fertilizer. Since then, the global application of fertilizer has increased dramatically and has become “too much of a good thing”. Nitrogen fertilizer, often applied in form of nitrate, escape the agricultural fields and pollute aquatic systems. It may also spread to the atmosphere as ammonia or as the powerful greenhouse gas  $N_2O$  (laughing gas), known to accelerate global warming. Excessive fertilizer use has increased the concentration of  $N_2O$  in the atmosphere by 20% since agricultural intensification began around 1930. Despite the known warming potential of  $N_2O$ , which is about 300 times stronger than carbon dioxide, decreasing N fertilization is problematic, as current food production relies on high inputs of N fertilizer and the demand is predicted to even increase with a growing world population.

Nitrogen in the soil can be converted by a wide range of microorganisms. Certain bacteria have the ability to transform nitrate to atmospheric N or  $N_2O$  while other bacteria are able to convert nitrate to ammonium, which is more stable in the soil. Additionally there has been a group of bacteria described recently that is able to produce atmospheric N out of  $N_2O$ . In that case N is still lost from the soil and not available to plants, but at least not in form of a dangerous greenhouse gas.

The aim of the thesis was to understand how different soil factors, like nitrogen or carbon content, affect the soil microbial community. These soil factors don't only differ between different soils, but are influenced by different agricultural management practices, like fertilization or different crop rotations. We measured that a high abundance of bacteria able to convert  $N_2O$  is effectively reducing the greenhouse gas emissions from the soils by ~50%. These bacteria are not able to produce  $N_2O$  by themselves and thus effectively reduce the gas

produced by other bacteria. This is important, as they may provide a potential way to mitigate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. We observed bacteria reducing N<sub>2</sub>O were present in fertilized fields, but bacteria converting nitrate to N<sub>2</sub>O were even more prevalent. This was in connection with greater loss of N and also higher N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from fertilized fields than from unfertilized. The abundance of N<sub>2</sub>O converting bacteria was dependent on content of soil carbon compared to N. A comparison between a cereal crop rotation and a four year ley rotation revealed that choice of crop had stronger effects on the soil N and carbon content, and on the bacterial community, than did fertilization. During 40 years of an annual cereal crop rotation, the soil lost carbon and N, while the ley soil retained both nutrients. We could see that a high amount of bacteria with the ability to convert nitrate to ammonium were active in the ley soils. This type of bacteria and their role in agricultural fields are poorly studied, but our results suggest that they thrive on carbon-rich soils. To further test this hypothesis, we conducted a lab experiment where naturally carbon rich straw and nitrate was added in different amounts to soil, to simulate fertilization. This showed that the ratio between carbon and N was of importance for bacteria controlling N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. We could prove that the straw addition helped retaining nitrogen in soils, but not if nitrate was added.

In this study we showed that the ratio of carbon to N in soils was a driving factor influencing the microbial community. A high ratio fostered the abundance and activity of bacteria retaining nitrogen. Not only bacteria involved in nitrogen loss are active in agricultural soils, but also less-studied bacteria important for nitrogen retention and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Bacteria reducing N<sub>2</sub>O were shown to be sensitive to agricultural management practices and are important to decrease emissions from fertilized fields.



## Populärvetenskaplig sammanfattning

Kväve (N) är en förutsättning för allt liv på jorden. Luften består till 78 % av kväve, och kväveföreningar som nitrat och ammonium är viktiga för produktion av mat, foder och annat växtriket ger oss. År 1909 uppfanns den så kallade Haber-Bosch-metoden, som gör det möjligt att producera kvävebaserat konstgödsel. Sedan dess har det globala användandet av gödsel ökat dramatiskt och blivit ett problem. Gödslets kväve, som ofta appliceras i form av nitrat, kan vandra från åkrarna och förorena vattendrag. Det kan också hamna i atmosfären som ammonium eller som lustgas ( $N_2O$ ), som är känd för att bidra till växthuseffekten. Vidlyftigt gödslande har ökat koncentrationen av lustgas i atmosfären med 20 % sedan jordbruket började intensifieras runt 1930. Trots att lustgas är en 300 gånger starkare växthusgas än koldioxid är det svårt att dra ner på användandet av gödsel. Dagens matproduktion bygger på höga tillsatser av kvävegödning och efterfrågan på mat förväntas dessutom öka, eftersom världens befolkning ökar.

Kväve i jorden kan omvandlas av en mängd olika mikroorganismer. Vissa bakterier kan omvandla nitrat till atmosfäriskt kväve eller lustgas, medan andra kan omvandla det till den i jorden stabilare formen ammonium. Nyligen har dessutom beskrivits en grupp av bakterier som kan omvandla lustgas till atmosfäriskt kväve, vilket visserligen fortfarande gör kvävet otillgängligt för växterna men åtminstone inte i form av en farlig växthusgas.

Målet med denna avhandling var att förstå hur olika jordfaktorer, som mängden kväve och kol, påverkar mikrosamhället. Dessa faktorer varierar inte bara mellan olika jordar, utan påverkas också av hur jorden brukas, som mängd tillsatt gödsel eller val av växtföljd. Vi noterade att jordar med hög förekomst av bakterier som kan omvandla lustgas släpper ut ~50% mindre växthusgaser. Sådana bakterier producerar inte själva lustgas utan minskar den mängd som producerats av andra bakterier. Detta är viktigt, eftersom de därmed kan begränsa lustgasproduktionen gödslandet ger upphov till. Även om vi observerade att dessa bakterier förekom i gödslande jordar, var bakterier som

producerar lustgas ännu vanligare. Gödslade jordar förlorar alltså kväve och producerar lustgas snabbare än icke gödslade. Mängden bakterier som omvandlar lustgas påverkades av förhållandet mellan kol och kväve i jorden. En jämförelse mellan en jord med växlande spannmålsgrödor och en med vallgrödor avslöjade att valet av gröda hade större inverkan på kol/kväveförhållandet och mikrosamhället än vad gödslingen hade. Jorden som i 40 år producerade spannmål tappade både kväve och kol, medan valljordarna kunde behålla båda. Valljordarna innehöll också många bakterier som omvandlar nitrat till ammonium. Dessa typer av bakterier och deras roll i jordbruket har inte studerats ingående, men våra resultat antyder att de trivs på kolrika jordar. För att testa den hypotesen ytterligare gjorde vi ett experiment där jord berikades i olika mängder med naturligt kolrika växtdelar och nitrat, för att simulera gödsling. Detta visade att förhållandet mellan kol och kväve var av betydelse för bakterier som påverkar lustgasutsläppet. Vi såg att växtdelarna bidrog till att fixera kvävet i jorden, men bara om man inte samtidigt tillsatte nitrat.

I denna avhandling har vi visat att förhållandet mellan kol och kväve i jorden hade en avgörande inverkan på mikrosamhället. Mer kol gynnade förekomst och aktivitet av bakterier som fixerar kväve. Bakterier som minskar kvävet i jorden är inte de enda som verkar i jordbruksjord; här finns också mindre studerade bakterier viktiga för kvävefixering och lustgasutsläpp. Bakterier som minskar dessa utsläpp har visat sig vara känsliga för hur jorden brukas och är viktiga för att minska utsläppen från gödslade åkrar.



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