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1 **Diazotroph abundance and community structure are reshaped by rice straw**
2 **incorporation and inorganic fertilization in rice-rice-green manure rotation**

3

4 Lu Yang ^{a,b}, Jinshun Bai ^b, Naohua Zeng ^b, Xing Zhou ^{c,d}, Yulin Liao ^{d,e}, Yanhong Lu ^{d,e},
5 Robert M. Rees ^f, Jun Nie ^{d,e,*}, Weidong Cao ^{b,*}

6

7 ^a Graduate School, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Beijing 100081, P.R. China

8 ^b Key Laboratory of Plant Nutrition and Fertilizer, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs /
9 Institute of Agricultural Resources and Regional Planning, Chinese Academy of Agricultural
10 Sciences, Beijing 100081, P.R. China

11 ^c College of Resources and Environment, Hunan Agricultural University, Changsha 410128,
12 P.R. China

13 ^d Soil and Fertilizer Institute of Hunan Province, Hunan Academy of Agricultural Sciences,
14 Changsha 410125, P.R. China

15 ^e Scientific Observing and Experimental Station of Arable Land Conservation (Hunan),
16 Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, Changsha 410125, P.R. China

17 ^f Scotland's Rural College (SRUC), West Mains Road, Edinburgh EH9 3JG, UK

18

19 * Corresponding author (W.C., caoweidong@caas.cn; J.N., junnie@foxmail.com).

20

21 **Abstract:**

22 Soil microbial community can be radically changed by the addition of inorganic or organic
23 nutrients; however, the response of the diazotroph population to nutrient and residue
24 management in wetland rice rotations is poorly understood. Here, we investigated the
25 diazotrophic community to inputs of a leguminous green manure Chinese milk vetch (Mv,
26 *Astragalus sinicus*) using quantitative PCR and Illumina Miseq sequencing of the *nifH* gene.
27 Five treatments were compared in a Milk vetch–early rice–late rice rotation: 1) Control, no
28 fertilization and straw return (CK); 2) rice straw incorporation alone (Rs); 3) inorganic
29 fertilizer application alone (F); 4) F plus Rs (FRs); 5) similar with FRs but high-stubble (~35-
30 40 cm) of late rice straw was remained (FRh). The results showed that cultivation practice
31 affected the magnitude of soil available nutrient pools (N, P and K), but not the soil organic
32 matter and total N pools. The rice straw significantly repressed the *nifH* gene abundance
33 compared to the control, and also increased the number of diazotrophic bacteria species,
34 Chao 1 values, Shannon and Simpson indexes more than other fertilization treatments.
35 Multivariate regression tree analysis revealed that the community diversity and structure of
36 diazotrophs were primarily shaped by soil nitrate and available P status, as well as C/N ratio.
37 The most abundant genus *Bradyrhizobium* (21%-32%) tended to decrease in rice straw soil in
38 comparison with the control but was significantly enhanced in the FRs treatment at seedling
39 stage and in FRh treatment at flowering stage. Spearman correlation analysis showed that the
40 dominant diazotrophic genera were positively related with soil available phosphorus, but
41 responded differentially to soil total N, nitrate, and pH between the seedling and flowering
42 stages. Overall, the planting and incorporation of vetch under different practices of residue
43 and fertilizer management reshaped the diazotrophic community during the green manure

44 season, highlighting the crucial roles of soil C, N, and P status or their ratios in shaping the
45 population and diversity of diazotrophs.

46 **Key words:** Chinese milk vetch; diazotrophic community; inorganic fertilizer; *nifH*, rice;
47 straw return.

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50 The excessive application of inorganic fertilizer nitrogen (N) in agriculture has caused
51 severe environmental issues (Le et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2018). A major
52 challenge for the sustainable production of rice is to maintain grain yield but with lower
53 environmental impacts (Chen et al., 2014). Substitution of the inorganic fertilizer by organic
54 substrates, such as straw and green manure is considered a promising way of reducing the
55 chemical fertilizer input (YadvinderSingh et al., 2004; Xie et al., 2016). Legumes are favored
56 crops cultivated in the rice-green manure rotation systems because of their ability to fix N by
57 biological fixation, and enhance N use efficiency and rice productivity (Gao et al., 2011; Xie
58 et al., 2016). It is estimated that the annual global amount of biological N fixation is 40-70 Tg
59 in agricultural systems (Galloway et al., 2008; Herridge et al., 2008). Soil microbes are the
60 key players involved in these processes, and have been well investigated during rice growth
61 (Wang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017), but little is known about their response to residue
62 additions in green manure season.

63 The diazotrophs are the major microbial group involved in biological N fixation in rice
64 paddies, and are highly sensitive to environmental conditions (Jangid et al., 2008), for
65 instance, the changes of soil physicochemical properties and bio-environment induced by
66 fertilization and straw incorporation (Bandyopadhyay et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2017).

67 However, there is considerable debate as to how the diazotrophs respond to varied
68 fertilization practices. Some studies found that the long-term inorganic fertilization affected
69 both diazotrophic abundance and community composition (Wang et al., 2017), while others
70 showed marginal effects of fertilization on the abundance of *nifH*-containing microbes
71 (Mårtensson et al., 2009). This suggests that the abundance and community structure of
72 diazotrophs could be strongly but differentially affected by inorganic fertilization. The
73 addition of organic substrates into soil generally has positive influences on diazotrophs. Since
74 many of the microorganisms participating in N₂ fixation are heterotrophic or mixotrophic, the
75 addition of external organic matter provides a source of energy and nutrients to support
76 growth (Rahav et al., 2016). For example, the abundance of the *nifH* gene is enhanced by
77 stubble retention or straw incorporation from rice plants (Wakelin et al., 2009; Tang et al.,
78 2017). Moreover, different substrate quality can change soil physicochemical properties, such
79 as pH, nutrient availability, and the quantity and quality of carbon, which would impose
80 positive or negative influences on soil microbial populations (Geisseler and Scow, 2014;
81 Levy-Booth et al., 2014). Besides the exogenous application of inorganic and organic
82 substrates, plants could be another factor affecting the functions and activities of the soil
83 microbiome, especially in the rhizosphere (Berendsen et al., 2012). The *nifH* gene abundance
84 differed between soybean season and wheat season (Sun et al., 2015), implying that the
85 microbial community may vary with the cultivated crops (Zhang et al., 2017). Thus, it is
86 important to know how the diazotrophic community changes during the green manure season
87 within rice-green manure rotations.

88 Chinese milk vetch (Mv) (*Astragalus sinicus* L.) is commonly grown within double-rice
89 rotations in southern China, where the Mv is planted as winter green manure instead of a bare

90 fallow, and is then incorporated into soil together with rice straw or alone. The returned
91 leguminous Mv residue is a rich source of N and could stimulate the utilization of rice straw
92 by the microbial community. Previous studies have shown that the co-incorporation of Mv
93 and rice straw could change microbial community composition and structure in a paddy soil
94 (Xie et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2018) or benefit carbon sequestration and improvements in soil
95 fertility (Poeplau, 2015). It is likely that microbial utilization of C and N within residues is
96 influenced by the straw return strategy, which includes conventional return (straw crushed
97 and directly incorporated into soil), straw mulching (straw cover on the field), or high stubble
98 retention. In practice, straw management is currently changing from conventional return to
99 high stubble retention because of the popularity of mechanized agricultural operations, which
100 favor reduced tillage, and labor-saving approaches. To date, many studies have focused on
101 the influences of green manure incorporation on rice productivity, and microbial or
102 diazotrophic community changes during the rice growing seasons (Wang et al., 2017; Xie et
103 al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017), but little is known about changes in the green manure season,
104 how the different straw return strategies and their combination with inorganic fertilizer N
105 application affect the diazotrophic community composition and structure.

106 The study was carried out in a rice-rice-green manure rotation, in which the objectives
107 were to investigate the influence of legumes, rice straw, and inorganic fertilization on
108 microbial community composition and structure. Specifically, the two aims were, (i) to
109 investigate whether different combinations of rice straw incorporation strategies and
110 inorganic fertilizer application could shift the diazotrophic community composition and
111 structure in the green manure season; (ii) to identify the key soil physicochemical factors
112 shaping diazotroph diversity and community composition as affected by the diverse patterns

113 of straw incorporation and inorganic fertilization.

114

115 **2. Materials and methods**

116 *2.1 Site description and experimental design*

117 The field experiment was carried out from 2011 to 2017 at the Nan County, Hunan Province,
118 China (29°13'N, 112°28'E) and was conducted on an Entisols, Fluvents, soil derived from
119 lake sediment with a silt loam texture (USDA soil taxonomy). The basic physicochemical
120 properties of 0-20 cm soil layer in 2011 were as follows: pH (H₂O) 7.70, soil organic matter
121 47.5 g kg⁻¹, total N 3.28 g kg⁻¹, total P 1.28 g kg⁻¹, total K 22.2 g kg⁻¹, alkali-hydrolyzale N
122 261.0 mg kg⁻¹, available phosphorus 15.6 mg kg⁻¹ and available potassium 98.0 mg kg⁻¹.

123 The cropping system was early rice, followed by late rice, followed by a winter green
124 manure within an annual rotation. The early rice (cv. Yuanzao 1) and late rice (cv.
125 Huanghuazhan) were transplanted in mid-to-late April and mid-to-late July each year,
126 respectively. The winter green manure Mv was planted at a seed rate of 30 kg ha⁻¹ in early
127 October each year and grew through the interval between the late and early rice. Five
128 treatments were compared in the present study, and Mv crops were incorporated. Beyond
129 that, each treatment included either an inorganic fertilizer application or rice straw
130 incorporation, and could be summarized as follows: (i) CK, no fertilizer application and straw
131 incorporation during the rice-rice-Mv rotation; (ii) Rs, rice straw incorporation alone (both
132 the early and late rice straw were conventionally returned to the soil after harvest); (iii) F,
133 inorganic fertilizer application alone (the rates of N, P, and K were 120, 26 and 60 kg ha⁻¹ for
134 early rice, and 144, 16 and 80 kg ha⁻¹ for late rice, respectively); (iv) FRs, F plus Rs; (v) FRh,
135 the early rice straw was conventionally returned to soil, while high stubble (about 35 cm)

136 from late rice straw was retained after harvest, and returned together with Mv incorporation
137 before next early rice transplanting. Treatments were arranged in a randomized complete
138 block design with three replicates. The plot size was 20 m² (4 m width by 5 m length).

139 In the treatments without rice straw incorporation, the above-ground parts of rice straw
140 were removed from the plots. For the inorganic fertilization, half amount of the N (urea) and
141 all P and K (superphosphate and potassium chloride, respectively) were applied as a base
142 fertilizer to 5 cm soil depth, and the remaining N was top-dressed at the tillering stage of each
143 rice season. The nutrients added by inorganic fertilizer or biological N fixation of Mv plants
144 in each year are listed in Table A1. No fertilizer was applied during Mv's growth.

145

146 *2.2 Soil sampling and analysis*

147 Soil samples in the 0-20 cm layer were collected at the Mv seedling and flowering stages
148 during the green manure season in 2017. Five randomized auger points in each plot were
149 pooled and mixed thoroughly to provide one sample which was then divided into two sub-
150 samples and transported to the laboratory on ice. One group was stored at -80°C for DNA
151 extraction, and the other one was used for soil chemical analysis. The soil ammonium (NH₄⁺)
152 and nitrate (NO₃⁻) were extracted from fresh soils in 100 ml 0.01 M CaCl₂, and determined by
153 continuous flow analysis (Seal AA3, Norderstedt, Germany). The air-dried soil was used for
154 analysis of other properties as follows. Soil pH was determined with a glass electrode pH
155 meter (soil:water=1:1, w:v); total N was analyzed by Kjeldahl digestion (Bremner, 1960);
156 soil organic matter (SOM) was measured using a titration method after oxidation with
157 K₂Cr₂O₇ (Yeomans and Bremner, 1988); soil available phosphorus (AP) was extracted with
158 0.5 mol L⁻¹ NaHCO₃ and analyzed colorimetrically (Murphy and Riley, 1962); soil available

159 potassium (AK) was analyzed by flame photometry following extraction with 1 M
160 ammonium acetate (Walker and Barber, 1962).

161

162 *2.3 DNA extraction, PCR-amplification, and Illumina Miseq sequencing*

163 The genomic DNA was extracted using a PowerSoil® DNA Isolation kit (MO BIO
164 Laboratories, Inc., CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. The DNA quantity
165 and quality were assessed using agarose gel electrophoretic analysis and a Nanodrop ND-
166 1000 spectrophotometer (Nano-Drop Technologies Inc., Wilmington, DE).

167 The primers used for PCR amplification were *nifH* Pol F (5'-TGC GAI CCS AAI GCI
168 GAC TC-3') and *nifH* AQER (5'-GAC GAT GTA GAT YTC CTG-3') (Poly et al., 2001;
169 Wartainen et al., 2008). A unique barcode was added at the 5'-end of the reverse primer for
170 each sample. The PCR amplification program included initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 min,
171 followed by 30 cycles of 94 °C for 60 s, 56 °C for 60 s, and 72 °C for 60 s, and a final
172 extension at 72 °C for 10 min. Each sample had two PCR reactions and they were combined
173 together after amplification. The correct band was excised and purified using a SanPrep DNA
174 Gel Extraction Kit (Cat# SK8132, Sangon Biotech, Shanghai, China), and was quantified
175 with a Nanodrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer. All samples were mixed together in equal
176 molar amounts from each sample for library construction using a TruSeq DNA kit according
177 to manufacturer's instructions, and then sequenced by an Illumina Miseq system.

178

179 *2.4 Bioinformatic analysis*

180 A total of 28141 sequences were obtained from the 30 samples. The raw sequences were
181 processed with QIIME pipeline (Caporaso et al., 2010). Low quality sequences were

182 removed, and the barcode was examined to assign sequences to each sample. The chimera
183 sequences were removed by USEARCH v9.2, and frame shifts were corrected with FrameBot
184 at default settings. The remaining sequences after quality control were translated into amino
185 acid sequences for further analysis.

186 The sequences were clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at the 94%
187 identity level (Tu et al., 2016). The representative sequences of OTUs were obtained with the
188 most frequently ones and excluded singletons. Annotation for *nifH* OTUs at an 80% cutoff
189 value was achieved with reference to the ARB database
190 (http://www.zehr.pmc.ucsc.edu/nifH_Database_Public/) (Zehr et al., 2003).

191

192 *2.5 Statistical analysis*

193 Data were subjected to analysis of variance using Proc ANOVA with SAS package 9.1 (SAS
194 Institute, Cary, NC, USA). The cultivation practice (referring to the straw return strategy and
195 inorganic fertilization) and sampling stage were treated as fixed effects and replication as a
196 random effect for the data of soil physicochemical properties, gene copy numbers, alpha-
197 diversity, and relative abundance of different genera. The least significant difference was
198 used to determine treatment differences at a $P < 0.05$ level of probability. Spearman
199 correlation coefficients were employed to test the relationships between soil variables and
200 relative abundance of genera in R. The principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was performed
201 based on the Bray-Curtis distance matrices, and the hierarchy clustering analysis was based
202 on the weighted unifracs distance. A redundancy analysis (RDA) was conducted to investigate
203 the correlation between the diazotrophic community composition and soil variables. PCoA,
204 RDA, and clustering analysis were performed using the ‘vegan’ and ‘GUniFrac’ packages in

205 R. A multivariate regression tree analysis was performed to identify the most important soil
206 factors for diazotroph diversity and community composition using ‘mvpart’ package (De'Ath,
207 2002).

208

209 **3. Results**

210 *3.1 Effects of straw return and inorganic fertilization on soil properties*

211 The sampling stage and/or cultivation practice had significant influences on the contents of
212 soil available nutrients ($\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$, $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$, available P, and available K), soil pH, and C/N
213 ratio, but not on the SOM and total N contents. No obvious interactions were found between
214 sampling stage and cultivation practice (Table 1 and Table A2).

215 At the time of Mv planting and incorporation, the Rs treatment led to a marked increase
216 of soil available K at both seedling and flowering stages of Mv growth, together with an
217 obvious decrease of $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ content at the flowering stage ($P<0.05$; Table 1). Compared to the
218 Rs treatment, the inorganic fertilizer treatment F resulted in 0.6- to 1.5-fold increase in soil
219 available P content, but 11-13% less available K, at the two sampling stages. In the
220 combination treatments (FRs and FRh), there was a further increase of soil available P and K
221 relative to the Rs and F treatments ($P<0.05$). The soil C/N ratio in these combined treatments
222 decreased by comparison with the CK at flowering stage, while the pH values increased
223 ($P<0.05$) (Table 1). There were no significant differences in the soil properties of the FRs and
224 FRh treatments, except for the lower available K in FRh at the seedling stage (Table 1).

225

226 *3.2 nifH gene copy number*

227 The *nifH* gene copy number ranged from 4.5×10^6 to 25.0×10^6 g^{-1} soil across treatments at the

228 Mv seedling stage, which was higher than that at Mv flowering stage (11.2×10^6 to 15.3×10^6
229 g^{-1} soil) (Fig. 1). At the seedling stage, the gene copy number in the Rs treatment decreased
230 strongly compared to the CK. The reverse impacts were observed in the inorganic fertilizer
231 application or by the combinations of FRs and FRh (Fig. 1). At the flowering stage, the
232 cultivation practice had limited effects on *nifH* gene copy number compared with the CK.
233 Similar to the pattern at the seedling stage, the gene copy number tended to decrease in the
234 straw return treatment (Rs), but increased in the combination treatment (FRs), and significant
235 differences were detected between the Rs and FRs (Fig. 1). The relative influence of soil
236 variables on *nifH* gene copy number was evaluated by relative weight analysis (Fig. 2).
237 Nitrate and available P explained most of the variation of *nifH* gene abundance at the
238 seedling stage (37% and 24%, respectively), while available K and available P were the most
239 two variables at the flowering stage (27% and 25%, respectively) (Fig. 2)

240

241 *3.3 The richness and diversity of diazotrophic community*

242 On the basis of OTUs at 94% similarity, the alpha-diversity of the diazotrophic community
243 was mainly affected by the cultivation practice, rather than sampling stage, but interactions
244 were pronounced (Table 2). Greater OTU richness (Chao1 and Observed species) was
245 observed in the CK and Rs treatments than that in other F-containing treatments where the
246 inorganic fertilizer tended to repress it. The trends of diazotroph diversity (Shannon diversity
247 and Simpson index) were consistent with the OTU richness, which showed that the
248 diazotrophic bacteria in the Rs were more diverse than that in the treatments applied with
249 inorganic fertilizer (Table 2). Multivariate regression tree analysis indicated that diazotroph
250 diversity and richness were mainly shaped by soil available P at the seedling stage and by

251 NO_3^- at the flowering stage (Fig. 3).

252

253 *3.4 Diazotrophic community structure*

254 For community composition discrimination, a PCoA was performed based on the Bray-
255 Curtis distance of OTU compositions (Fig. 4a and b). At the seedling stage, PCoA analysis
256 showed that Rs was separated from other groups at both seedling and flowering stages of Mv
257 growth. The hierarchy clustering analysis further confirmed these results, and the biggest
258 differences in diazotroph structure occurred between Rs and FRs at seedling and between Rs
259 and FRh at flowering stage, respectively (Fig. 4 c and d). In addition, the diazotrophic
260 communities formed four clusters at the Mv flowering: CK, Rs, FRh, and others, showing
261 that diazotroph communities differed between treatments (Fig. 4 b and d).

262 The redundancy analysis showed that the examined soil variables explained 50.9% of the
263 variation of diazotroph community composition at the Mv seedling stage, and the first two
264 axes attributed to 19.6% and 9.3%, respectively (Fig. 5a). According to the vectors, the
265 diazotrophic communities of the Rs treatment were positively correlated with soil C/N ratio
266 and pH, whereas in the FRs and FRh treatments, the communities were associated with soil
267 NO_3^- , available P, total N, and SOM contents (Fig. 5a). At the Mv flowering stage, soil
268 variables explained 74.7% of the variation, which was attributed to soil TN ($F=2.71$,
269 $P=0.049$), SOM ($F=2.93$, $P=0.029$), available P ($F=3.34$, $P=0.007$), and available K ($F=2.36$,
270 $P=0.023$) (Fig. 5b). The diazotrophic community of the Rs treatment was associated with
271 SOM, soil total N, and the C:N ratio, while it was affected more by soil available K in FRs
272 treatment, and by soil pH, available P and NH_4^+ in the FRh treatment (Fig. 5b).

273

274 3.5 Relative abundance of the diazotrophic taxa

275 OTUS of all treatment samples were taxonomically classified into 14 different genera which
276 accounted for about 70% of the total sequences, with the other unclassified genera attributed
277 to the remaining 30%. The seven most abundant genera with relative abundance more than
278 1% are presented in Fig. 6. The genus *Bradyrhizobium* was by far the most dominant group in
279 all treatments, containing 21.8%-29.1% and 21.4%-32.2% of the total *nifH* gene sequences in
280 soils at the Mv seedling and flowering stages, respectively (Fig. 6). The relative abundance of
281 *Bradyrhizobium* was slightly reduced in the Rs soil by comparison with the CK, but was
282 significantly increased ($P<0.05$) by FRs at seedling stage and by FRh at flowering stage. The
283 *Anaeromyxobacter* and *Burkholderia* abundances were significantly increased in the Rs
284 treatment by comparison with the CK at the flowering stage. There were no differences in the
285 genus abundance between the FRs and FRh treatments, except for greater abundance of
286 *Anaeromyxobacter* in FRh at seedling stage (Fig. 6). Multivariate regression tree analysis
287 showed that the diazotroph community composition was mainly shaped by available P and
288 available K at the Mv seedling stage and by C/N ratio at the flowering stage, respectively
289 (Fig. 7).

290 A Spearman analysis indicated that soil variables were closely correlated, but
291 differentially, with most of the abundant genera (Fig. 8). As to the most abundant two genera,
292 the relative abundance of *Bradyrhizobium* at the Mv flowering stage was closely related to
293 soil available P and negatively to the C/N ratio. The *Azospirillum* abundance was positively
294 related to soil NO_3^- and available P contents (Fig. 8). By contrast with *Bradyrhizobium* and
295 *Azospirillum*, the relative abundance of *Rhodobacter* was closely associated with SOM, TN,
296 available P and negatively correlated with pH at the seedling stage. In addition, the relative

297 abundance of *Anaeromyxobacter* and *Burkholderia* genera were negatively correlated with
298 soil NO₃⁻ content at seedling stage and total N at flowering stage, respectively.

299

300 **4. Discussion**

301

302 *4.1 Successive straw return and inorganic fertilizer application changed the diazotrophic*
303 *abundance and richness in green manure season*

304 Soil microbes are highly sensitive to the environmental changes, such as soil C, N, and P
305 availability or their ratios. It has been reported that long-term inorganic fertilizer application
306 generally decreases soil microbial abundance (Wang et al., 2017), while the frequent return of
307 rice straw could increase the diazotrophic diversity and richness, but reduce the *nifH* gene
308 expression (Tang et al., 2017). Similar results were found in the present study where the *nifH*
309 gene copy number was increased (relative to the control) in the treatments with inorganic
310 fertilizer application but decreased in the treatment of straw incorporation alone (Fig. 1). The
311 diazotrophic community was more diverse in the straw treatment, and less so in the
312 treatments receiving inorganic fertilizer (Table 2). The results indicated that the diazotroph
313 communities were altered by the straw and fertilization practices.

314 Nitrogen and P are essential for the growth and metabolism of organisms and play a
315 pivotal role in biological N fixation (Wurzburger et al., 2012). Depending on the various
316 environmental factors in different ecosystems, N availability may have contrasting effects on
317 the abundance of *nifH* gene, where enhanced and suppressed impacts have been both
318 documented (Gonzalez Perez et al., 2014; Reardon et al., 2014; Zhalnina et al., 2015; Wang
319 et al., 2017). Nonetheless, high soil NO₃⁻-N and NH₄⁺-N content generally inhibit the

320 members of the diazotrophic community, while lower N status could stimulate the biological
321 N fixation (Coelho et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2017). Rice straw has a relatively low N
322 concentration, but is rich in C. In the Rs treatment, rice straw incorporation might be
323 expected to stimulate microbial growth and enhance the immobilization of soil available N
324 (Rao and Mikkelsen, 1976). The lower soil NO₃⁻-N content was observed in Rs treatment is
325 consistent with this expectation (Table 1). Furthermore, the significantly lower soil available
326 P content in the Rs treatment compared with that in the F or combination treatments might
327 further exacerbate such impacts. In agreement with that, soil nitrate and available P were
328 identified as the primary predictor of *nifH* gene abundance (Fig. 2). In addition, the increased
329 *nifH* gene abundance in the Rs treatment might be partly attributed to the increased relative
330 abundance of dominant diazotroph genera *Anaeromyxobacter* and *Burkholderia* (Fig. 6).

331 The results also showed that diversity was closely related to soil C/N ratios. Higher C/N
332 values could result in a competitive advantage for free living diazotrophs (Mirza et al., 2014).
333 Due to the relatively less N input, the CK and Rs treatments had greater C/N ratios by
334 comparison with the F, FRs, and FRh treatments at the Mv flowering stage, which might also
335 explain the higher diversity in the Rs treatment than others. Consistently, the diazotroph
336 diversity at this stage was mainly shaped by soil NO₃⁻ content and C/N ratios (Fig. 3b). Taken
337 together, the gene copy numbers and diazotrophic diversity had relatively moderate values in
338 the combinations of fertilization and rice straw incorporation, suggesting that both the N and
339 P nutrients and C supply are important factors in regulating the shifts of diazotrophic
340 diversity and richness.

341 Soil pH has been considered as a key factor affecting soil microbial richness and
342 diversity (Levy-Booth et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017). It is often due to the negative feedback

343 from intensified soil acidification caused by long-term inorganic fertilization (Guo et al.,
344 2010). This could also partly explain the higher diversity in Rs treatment relative to those
345 receiving fertilizer additions since higher pH values were observed in the straw treatment
346 than the control. However, the reduction in the diversity index was not been fully offset by
347 the combinations of fertilization and straw incorporation, which might imply the strong
348 impacts of long-term inorganic fertilizer application on the diversity of the diazotrophic
349 community.

350

351 *4.2 Straw return and inorganic fertilizer application reshaped the diazotrophic community* 352 *structure during the growth of Chinese milk vetch*

353 Straw mulching and return, especially when combined with inorganic fertilization, could
354 significantly reshape the soil diazotrophic community structure (Tang et al., 2017). Many
355 studies have found that the community structure of soil ammonia-oxidizing bacteria,
356 ammonia-oxidizing archaea, fungi, and diazotrophic bacteria could be easily affected by the
357 long-term fertilization (Geisseler and Scow, 2014). In this study, the shifts of diazotrophic
358 community structure were consistently observed in response to straw mulching and fertilizer
359 application (Fig. 4). Compared to the control, the diazotrophic community structure under the
360 Rs treatment was separated from others during the Mv growth, and the biggest differences in
361 diazotroph structure occurred between Rs and FRs at seedling and between Rs and FRh at
362 flowering stage, respectively (Fig. 4), which showed that cultivation practices indeed affected
363 the soil diazotrophic community structure.

364 Soil is a very complex environment and the formation of microbial community's
365 structure is often regulated by various interacting soil variables (Young, 1998; Geisseler and

366 Scow, 2014). The availability of soil N, P, and K are the important factors shaping
367 diazotrophic community composition (Tang et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017). Varied
368 responses of the diazotrophic community structure and populations to soil nutrient status
369 were observed, which might have resulted from the greater availability of soil NO_3^- and
370 available P in the treatments with inorganic fertilizer application relative to the Rs treatment.
371 In accordance with that, the diazotrophic communities in the FRs and FRh treatments were
372 associated with soil NO_3^- , available P, total N, and SOM contents at the Mv seedling stage,
373 and affected more by soil available K in FRs treatment, and by soil pH, available P and NH_4^+
374 in the FRh treatment (Fig. 5). The results indicated that soil nutrient availability, which is
375 highly responsive to fertilizer input, is crucial for the establishment of soil diazotrophic
376 community structure.

377 Likewise, our results also showed that the soil C/N ratio and soil organic matter
378 concentration played important roles in regulating soil diazotrophic community composition.
379 The quality and quantity of added straw could influence the response to different fertilization
380 practices by altering microbial mineralization and immobilization turnover (Curtin and Fraser,
381 2003; Cusack et al., 2011). However, the practice of straw incorporation, i.e. conventionally
382 returned to soil and high stubble retention, under the present conditions, had marginal
383 differences in shaping the diazotrophic community and structure.

384

385 *4.3 Straw return and inorganic fertilizer application influenced the dominant diazotrophic* 386 *genera during the growth of Chinese milk vetch*

387 The diazotrophic genera may respond differently to the various soil physicochemical
388 properties, due to their individual sensitivities to changes of the soil environment (Wakelin et

389 al., 2009; Wang et al., 2017). There were clearly various responses or sensitivities of the
390 different dominant diazotrophic genera to soil conditions in this study (Figs. 6, 7 and 8).
391 Cultivation practices such as fertilization and straw incorporation are common ways of
392 altering environmental conditions of soil microbes, and thus could change the composition of
393 diazotrophic genera depending on their competitiveness and external environment. The
394 *Bradyrhizobium* genus is ubiquitous in soil and is a commonly known N₂-fixing bacterium,
395 which includes symbiotic N-fixing bacteria and free-living soil diazotrophs (Kahindi et al.,
396 1997). As expected, the genus *Bradyrhizobium* was the most dominant group in all
397 treatments, containing 21%-32% of the total *nifH* gene sequences in soils at the seedling and
398 flowering stages of Chinese milk vetch (Fig. 6). The relative abundance of *Bradyrhizobium*
399 was slightly reduced in Rs soil in comparison with CK, but significantly increased in FRs at
400 seedling stage and in FRh at flowering stage. This was likely to have caused by the lower
401 level of soil available P and higher C/N ratio in Rs treatment, since the relative abundance of
402 *Bradyrhizobium* was positively related to the soil's available P content, but negatively
403 correlated with soil C/N ratios (Fig. 8). These results were in agreement with the concept that
404 the dominant genera abundance was mainly shaped by the soil available P and C/N ratio (Fig.
405 7). The significant correlations between the relative abundance of *Azospirillum* and
406 *Rhodobacter* and the content of soil available N and P implied that these two diazotrophic
407 genera were very sensitive to soil N and P nutrients status. Interestingly, the Rs treatment
408 selectively increased the relative abundance of *Anaeromyxobacter* and *Burkholderia*,
409 especially at the flowering stage. They were negatively associated with either soil nitrate or
410 total N content, but positively related to soil C/N and pH. The lower soil nitrate content in Rs
411 treatment further indicated that these two dominant genera were more sensitive to soil C and

412 N status than others.

413 Changes in soil quality occur slowly and need time for the soil microbial community to
414 adapt to the altered environments and then stabilize (Geisseler and Scow, 2014; Wang et al.,
415 2017). In the present study, we found that the relative abundance of the dominant genera
416 *Bradyrhizobium* was generally lower than that reported by other studies during the rice
417 growing seasons (Wang et al., 2017). This might be due to the different soil texture and
418 different sampling seasons. The soil samples were collected during the winter season of the
419 Chinese milk vetch, which had relatively lower temperatures than the rice seasons, thus
420 leading to lower overall microbial activity. In addition, the differences might also be
421 associated with the cultivated plants, since different *nifH* gene abundances between soybean
422 and wheat seasons have been reported (Sun et al., 2015). Nitrogen fixing bacteria strongly
423 interact with cultivated plants (Leguminosae vs. Poaceae), which could change the sensitivity
424 and responses of diazotrophic genera to various soil conditions (Tan et al., 2003).

425 Taken together, at the time of Chinese milk vetch planting and incorporation, straw
426 incorporation alone had relatively sufficient C inputs, but was short of N and P, which
427 repressed the *nifH* gene abundance and the relative abundance of dominant diazotroph
428 genera. The results highlighted the importance of straw incorporation coupled with N and P
429 inputs to maintain microbial activity and diversity in the rice-rice-green manure rotations in
430 subtropical regions.

431

432 **5. Conclusion**

433 In conclusion, this study has demonstrated that straw incorporation and inorganic fertilizer
434 application lead to significant changes in soil diazotrophic community structure and

435 populations during the growth of Chinese milk vetch in a paddy soil. The straw alone could
436 supply enough C to support microbial activity, but it contained relatively little N and P, thus
437 reducing the *nifH* gene abundance and tending to decrease the relative abundance of the
438 diazotrophic genera. The high C inputs with lower nutrient availability in straw enhanced
439 diazotrophic diversity, while successive inorganic fertilizer applications decreased it.
440 Although the combination of Mv, straw, and fertilization did not fully reverse the decline, the
441 co-utilization practice helped stimulate the dominant diazotroph abundance by comparison
442 with straw alone. Overall, the results suggest that both the C sources introduced by the rice
443 straw and the N and P supplied by fertilizer application were crucial for improving soil
444 quality and the population and diversity of soil diazotrophic community.

445

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452 **Appendix A.** Supplementary data

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590

591 **Tables**592 **Table 1.** Soil physicochemical properties at seedling and flowering stages of Chinese milk vetch.

Stage	Treatment	Soil organic matter (g/kg)	Total N (g/kg)	NO ₃ ⁻ (mg/kg)	NH ₄ ⁺ (mg/kg)	Available P (mg/kg)	Available K (mg/kg)	C/N ratio	pH
Seedling	CK	45.9±0.4 a	2.8±0.0 a	25.7±2.3 b	5.5±1.4 a	11.5±0.8 c	88.2±0.8 d	9.5±0.0 a	7.67±0.01 b
	Rs	44.5±0.4 a	2.7±0.1 a	25.8±0.9 b	5.6±1.3 a	10.1±0.3 c	106.0±1.5 c	9.7±0.1 a	7.73±0.01 a
	F	46.2±1.0 a	2.8±0.0 a	30.0±4.9 ab	4.3±1.6 a	16.3±0.6 b	94.4±0.8 cd	9.7±0.1 a	7.69±0.02 ab
	FRs	44.3±1.0 a	2.8±0.1 a	35.9±2.6 a	3.8±1.7 a	19.7±2.2 ab	139.3±4.7 a	9.3±0.2 a	7.68±0.02 b
	FRh	46.0±0.9 a	2.8±0.0 a	34.2±4.0 ab	5.2±1.3 a	21.2±1.2 a	121.2±6.6 b	9.7±0.2 a	7.67±0.01 b
Flowering	CK	45.7±0.2 a	2.7±0.0 a	4.7±0.8 a	1.4±0.8 a	5.7±0.4 bc	78.9±1.6 c	9.9±0.1 a	7.73±0.02 b
	Rs	46.0±3.3 a	2.7±0.2 a	2.6±0.3 b	1.2±0.6 a	2.8±1.1 c	93.1±3.3 b	10.1±0.1 a	7.79±0.05 ab
	F	43.6±0.3 a	2.6±0.0 a	3.4±0.2 ab	2.7±0.0 a	7.1±0.3 b	81.0±1.3 c	9.7±0.1 ab	7.77±0.04 ab
	FRs	46.8±2.1 a	2.9±0.1 a	3.3±0.3 ab	2.0±0.5 a	12.4±1.4 a	109.7±3.4 a	9.5±0.1 b	7.85±0.03 a
	FRh	43.0±1.2 a	2.6±0.0 a	4.3±0.5 ab	2.4±0.1 a	11.8±1.4 a	105.8±2.4 a	9.5±0.1 b	7.87±0.02 a

593 Values indicate mean±SE (*n*=3). Different letters in the columns represent significant differences between treatments within each stage (*P* < 0.05).

594

595 **Table 2.** The diazotrophic alpha-diversity as influenced by varied straw return and
 596 fertilization practices in a Chinese milk vetch-based system.

Stage	Treatment	Observed species	Chao1 index	Shannon diversity	Simpson index
Seedling	CK	1623±103 a	2746.0±62.4 a	7.5±0.1 a	0.982±0.002 ab
	Rs	1539±31 ab	2564.0±43.1 ab	7.6±0.1 a	0.982±0.003 ab
	F	1332±32 cd	2312.0±101.5 c	7.2±0.0 bc	0.978±0.001 bc
	FRs	1341±37 cd	2205.0±5.5 c	7.1±0.1 bc	0.978±0.001 bc
	FRh	1448±82 bc	2368.0±137.3 bc	7.4±0.1 ab	0.981±0.001 ab
Flowering	CK	1399±51 bc	2356.3±50.4 bc	7.2±0.1 bc	0.979±0.002 bc
	Rs	1550±56 ab	2672.3±99.9 a	7.6±0.2 a	0.984±0.003 a
	F	1384±34 cd	2299.7±93.4 c	7.2±0.0 bc	0.978±0.000 bc
	FRs	1354±20 cd	2232.3±41.9 c	7.3±0.0 ab	0.981±0.001 ab
	FRh	1244±42 d	2160.7±75.1 c	7.0±0.1 c	0.975±0.001 c
Stage (S)		0.0424	0.0870	0.0597	0.3249
Cultivation practice (C)		0.0010	0.0034	<0.0001	0.0271
S × C		0.0317	0.0320	0.0238	0.0607

597 Values indicate mean±SE ($n=3$). Different letters in the columns represent significant
 598 differences between treatments across stages ($P < 0.05$).

599

600 **Figure legend**

601

602 **Figure 1. *nifH* gene copy number in soils sampled at the seedling and flowering stages of**
603 **Chinese milk vetch as affected by the continuous straw return or fertilization practices.**

604 The data were subjected to a two-way analysis of variance. Abbreviations: S, stage; C,
605 cultivation practice; Different capital letters above the gray columns and lowercase letters
606 above the black columns indicate significant differences among cultivation practices at
607 seedling and flowering stages by LSD test, respectively ($P < 0.05$). The asterisks within each
608 cultivation practice indicate significant differences between two stages (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P <$
609 0.01). Vertical bars represent the standard error of four replicates.

610

611 **Figure 2. Relative influence of soil physicochemical properties on abundance of *nifH***
612 **genes at the seedling and flowering stage of Chinese milk vetch evaluated using relative**

613 **weight analysis.** Abbreviations: AK, available potassium; AP, available phosphorus; C/N,
614 carbon to nitrogen ratio; SOM, soil organic matter; TN, total nitrogen. Values are means of
615 three replicates.

616

617 **Figure 3. Multivariate regression tree analysis of alpha diversity (observed species,**
618 **Chao 1, Shannon and Simpson indexes) of diazotrophs and soil physicochemical**

619 **variables.** Treatments and the number of samples included in the analysis are shown at the
620 bottom. Abbreviations: AK, available potassium; AP, available phosphorus; C/N, carbon to
621 nitrogen ratio; SOM, soil organic matter; TN, total nitrogen.

622

623 **Figure 4. Principal coordinate analysis of diazotrophic community composition in soils**
624 **sampled at the seedling and flowering stages of Chinese milk vetch as affected by the**
625 **continuous straw return or fertilization practices.** The samples were analyzed in triplicate
626 plots.

627

628 **Figure 5. Redundancy analysis of the diazotrophic community structure in soils**
629 **sampled at the seedling and flowering stages of Chinese milk vetch as affected by the**
630 **continuous straw return or fertilization practices.** The positions and lengths of the arrows
631 indicate the directions and strengths, respectively, of the effects of variables on the
632 diazotrophic communities. The samples were analyzed in triplicate plots. Abbreviations: AK,
633 available potassium; AP, available phosphorus; C/N, carbon to nitrogen ratio; SOM, soil
634 organic matter; TN, total nitrogen.

635

636 **Figure 6. Relative abundances (%) of the seven most abundant genera (>1%) in soils**
637 **sampled at the seedling and flowering stages of Chinese milk vetch as affected by the**
638 **continuous straw return or fertilization practices.** The samples were analyzed in triplicate
639 plots. Different letters above columns in each genus indicate significant differences among
640 treatments at $P < 0.05$.

641

642 **Figure 7. Multivariate regression tree analysis of the dominant genera abundance and**
643 **soil physicochemical variables.** Treatments and the number of samples included in the
644 analysis are shown at the bottom. Abbreviations: AK, available potassium; AP, available
645 phosphorus; C/N, carbon to nitrogen ratio; SOM, soil organic matter; TN, total nitrogen.

646

647 **Figure 8. Spearman correlation analysis between the relative abundances of dominant**
648 **diazotrophic genera and soil physicochemical variables at the seedling and flowering**
649 **stages of Chinese milk vetch.** *r* indicates the correlation coefficient; *, $P < 0.05$.

650 Abbreviations: AK, available potassium; AP, available phosphorus; C/N, carbon to nitrogen
651 ratio; SOM, soil organic matter; TN, total nitrogen.

652

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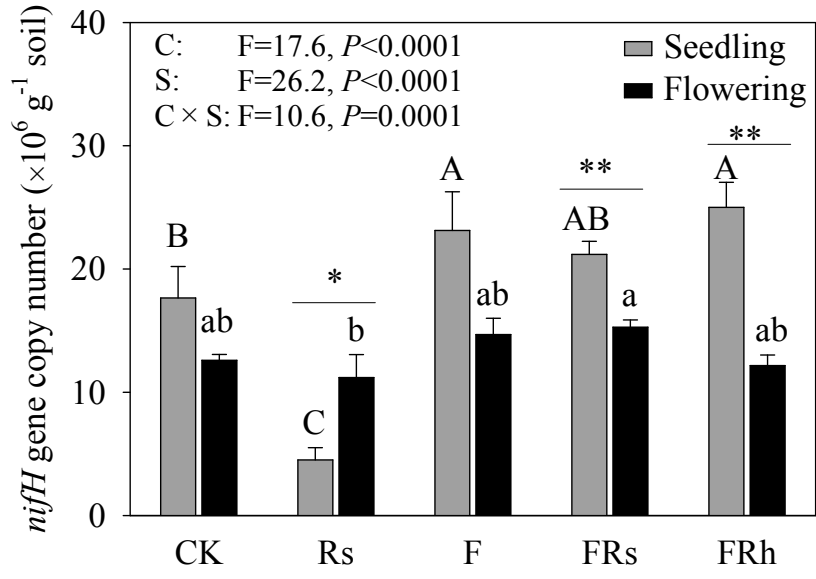


Figure 1

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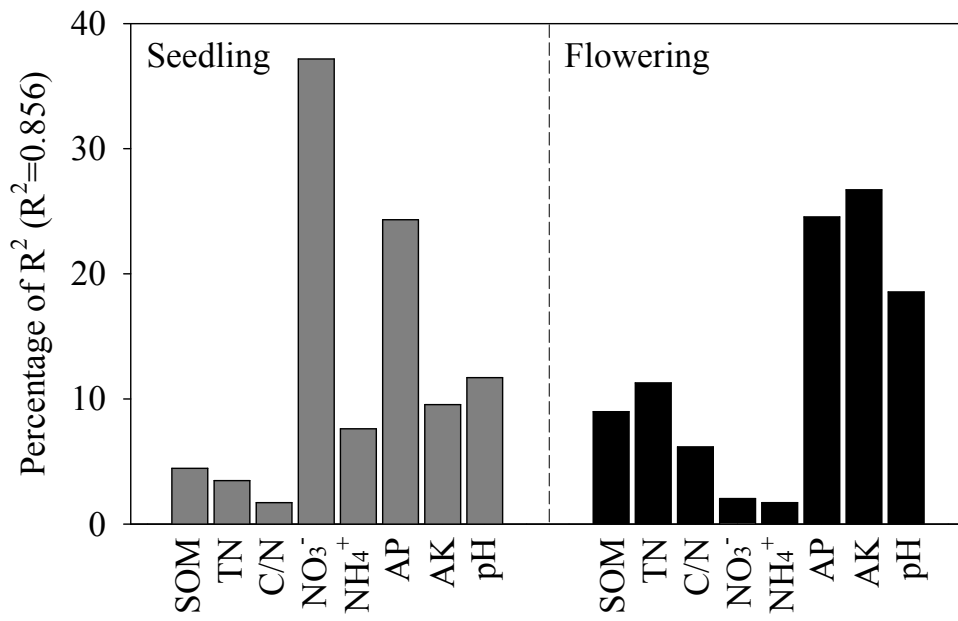


Figure 2

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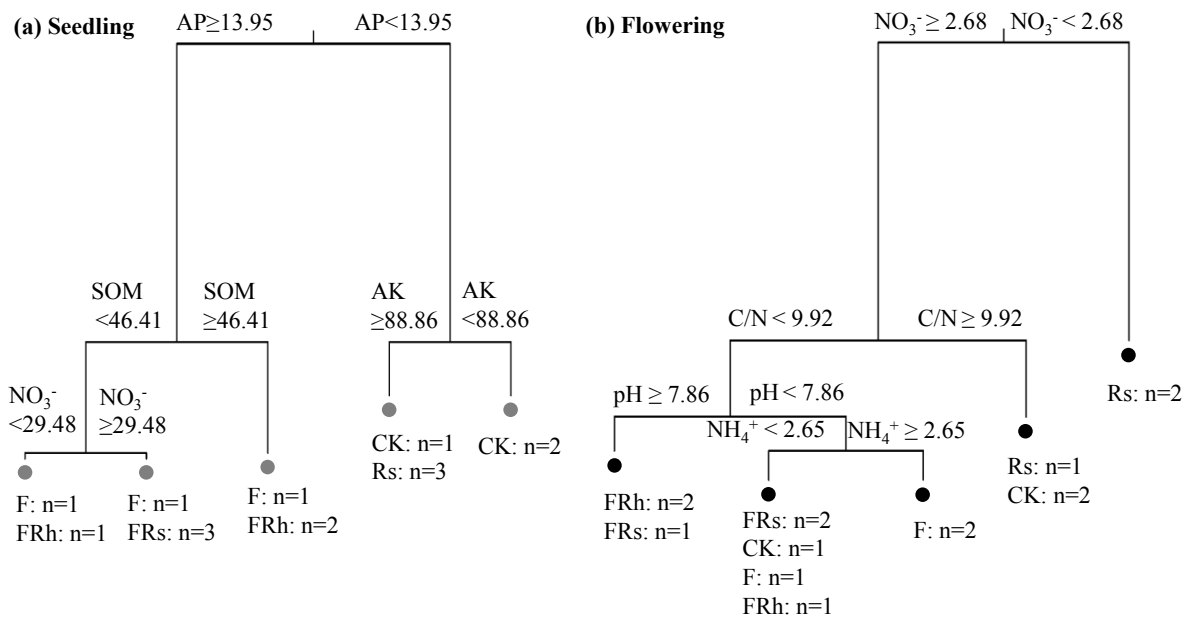


Figure 3

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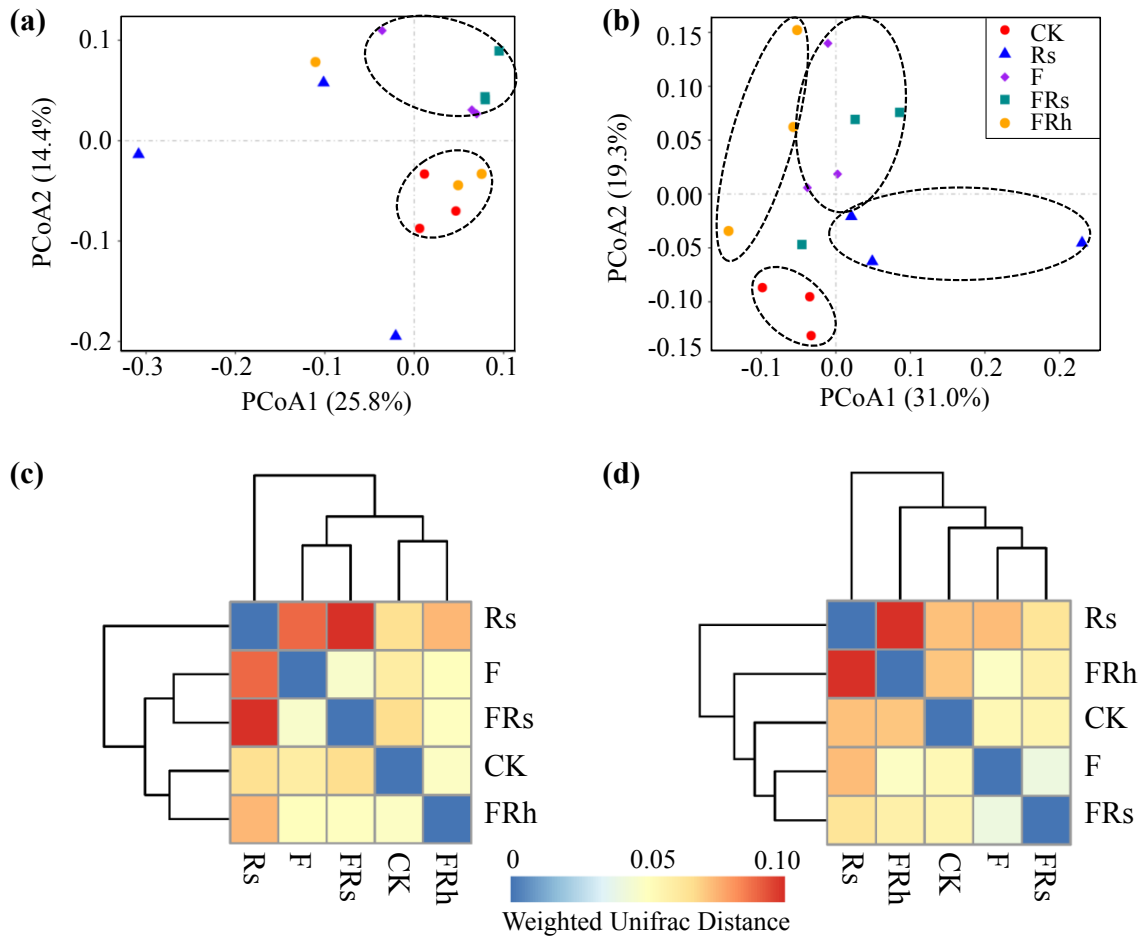


Figure 4

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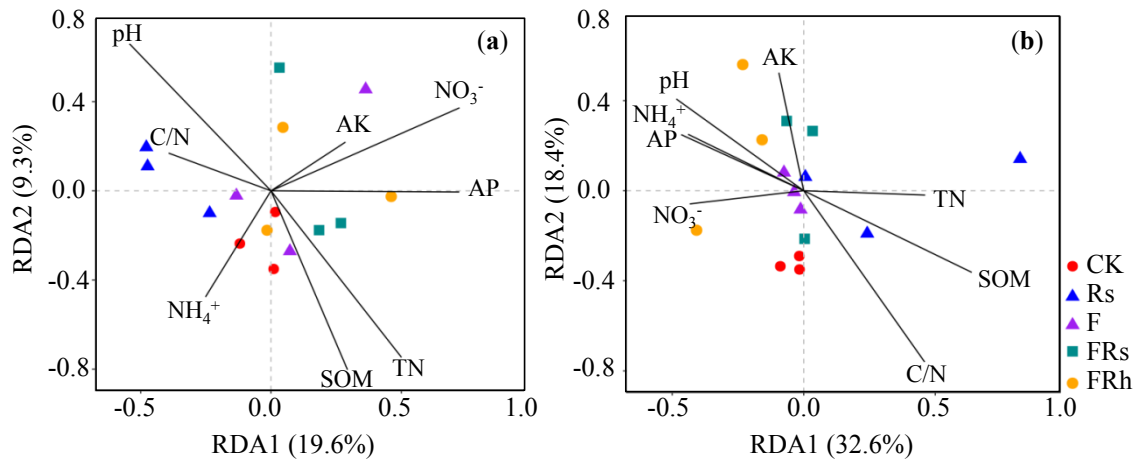


Figure 5

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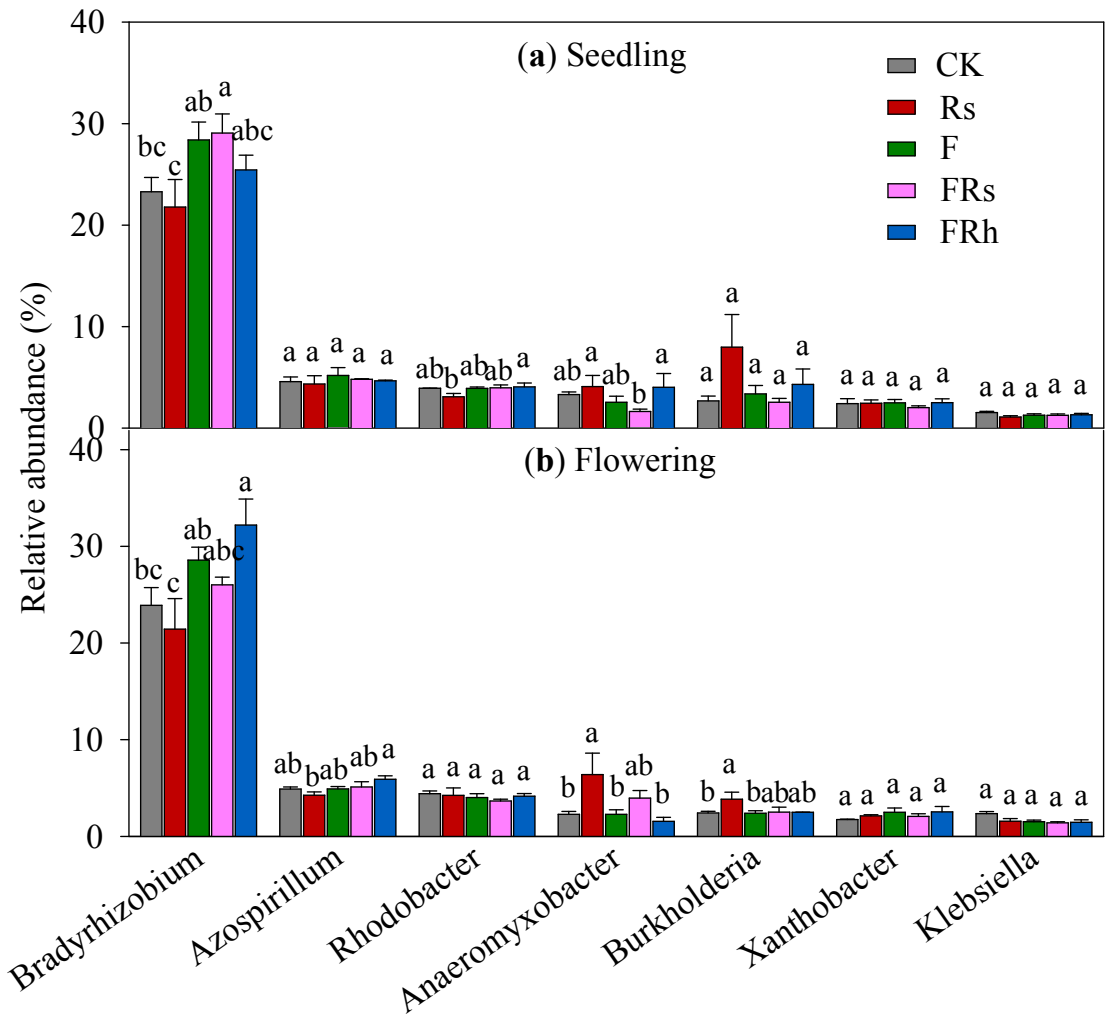


Figure 6

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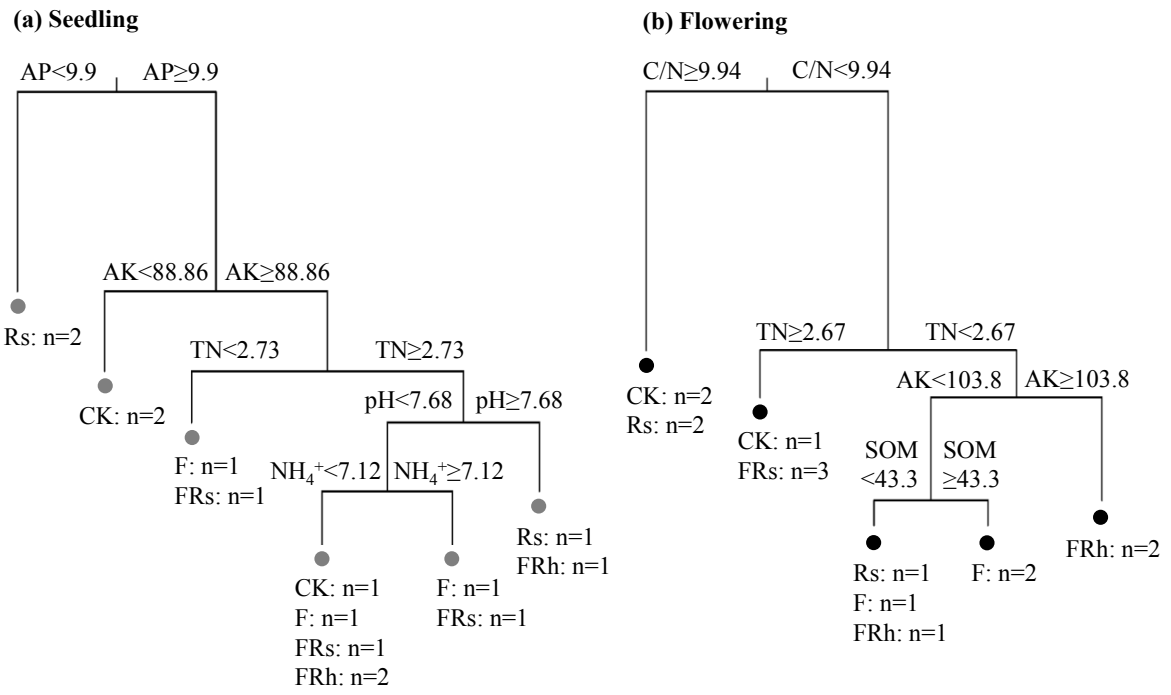


Figure 7

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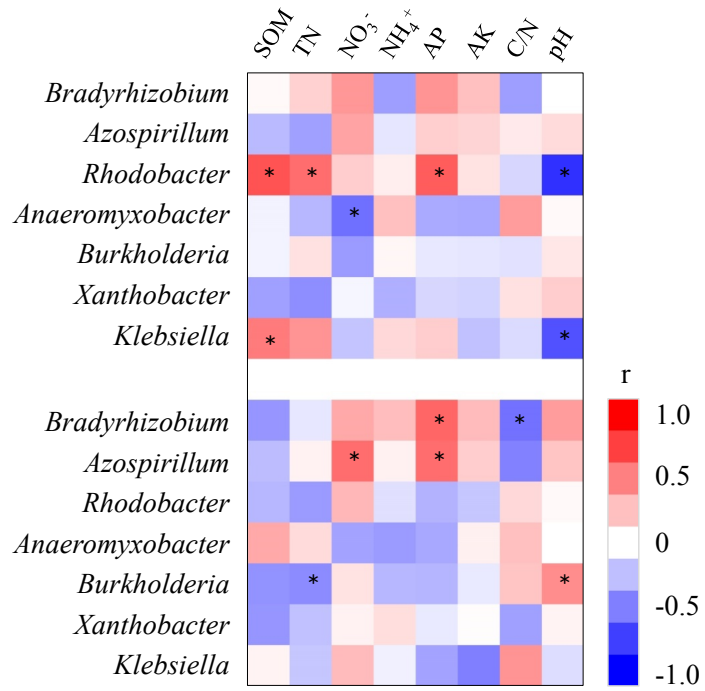


Figure 8

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679 **Appendix A.** Supplementary data

680

681 **Table A1**

682 The estimated amount (kg ha⁻¹) of exogenous N, P and K inputs by chemical fertilizer
 683 application (N_{CF}, P_{CF}, and K_{CF}) and biological N fixation of Chinese milk vetch (N_{BF}) each
 684 year #.

Treatment	Mv season	Early-rice season			Late-rice season			Annually total input		
	N _{BF}	N _{CF}	P _{CF}	K _{CF}	N _{CF}	P _{CF}	K _{CF}	N	P	K
CK	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	45	0	0
Rs	47	0	0	0	0	0	0	47	0	0
F	47	120	26	60	144	16	80	311	42	140
FRs	46	120	26	60	144	16	80	310	42	140
FRh	51	120	26	60	144	16	80	315	42	140

685 # The nutrient input by precipitation and irrigation was not included, and the NPK brought by
 686 straw return was considered as nutrient cycling within the double rice rotation system, not an
 687 exogenous input.

688

689 **Table A2**

690 The two-way analysis of variation for the soil properties influenced by stage and cultivation
691 practice in this Chinese milk vetch-based system

Soil properties	Stage (S)		Cultivation practice (C)		S × C	
	F	<i>P</i>	F	<i>P</i>	F	<i>P</i>
Soil organic matter	0.16	0.691	0.24	0.9118	1.37	0.285
Total N	1.61	0.220	1.01	0.427	0.87	0.499
NO ₃ ⁻	375.75	<.0001	2.44	0.0846	2.41	0.0868
NH ₄ ⁺	16.72	<.0001	0.15	0.959	0.60	0.668
Available P	116.11	<.0001	30.16	<.0001	0.89	0.491
Available K	61.18	<.0001	56.24	<.0001	2.92	0.050
C/N ratio	3.77	0.068	3.61	0.025	1.52	0.237
pH	42.63	<.0001	2.29	0.099	2.67	0.066

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