

Drivers of diazotroph community structure and co-occurrence in a Northern Great Plains pulse crop rotation system



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ABSTRACT

The Northern Great Plains of the United States and Canada have seen an increase in pulse crops like pea, lentil, and chickpea acreage in dryland and irrigated systems. Rotating pulse crops into cereal crop production systems could reduce the demand for nitrogen fertilizer due to the symbiotic relationship with nitrogen fixing bacteria called diazotrophs. Legume-diazotroph relationships are well studied, but little is known about the free-living bacteria of the bulk soil in the legume-cereal rotation systems. Here we determine the community structure of the overall (16S) and diazotroph (*nifH*) soil microbiome in pulse-cereal rotations across the state of Montana. Many variables influenced the microbial community structure, but and among them, irrigation caused a significant shift in the composition of the communities and co-occurrence network topology. Interestingly, the diazotrophic communities in dryland soil are more robust and contain more generalist compared to irrigated soils. Co-occurrence networks support the identification of different diazotrophic keystone taxa such as Firmicutes in irrigated and Proteobacteria in dryland soils. Linking farm management practices and crop productivity with microbial community structure dynamics is an initial step in establishing a knowledge base for farmers to exploit the soil microbiota to maintain healthy soil for crop production.

1. Introduction

Farmers are increasingly choosing to rotate pulse crops, such as peas (*Pisum sativum* L.), with cereals in their production system due to the economic and environmental benefits. Because pulse crops are annual grain legumes which establish a symbiotic relationship with nitrogen-fixing bacteria (diazotrophs) in the soil, they can reduce the need for nitrogenous fertilizers and help to manage weeds and diseases when pulse crops are rotated with wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) (Gan et al., 2015). Rotating pulse crops with cereals also benefits the environment by reducing greenhouse gas emissions in the form of CO₂ and N₂O, while increasing soil organic carbon (Chen et al., 2012; Stagnari et al., 2017). With these benefits as well as adaptation to the Northern Great Plain environment, Montana has been the country's leader in pea and lentil production since 2011 (Lee, 2011).

Healthier soil and better crop yield in low input agricultural systems correlate to higher soil microbial diversity (Hartmann et al., 2015). Conventional wheat dominant agricultural systems are more

homogenous and comparatively lack microbial diversity due to monoculture and agrochemical additions (Chaudhry et al., 2012; Lupatini et al., 2017). Diversified crop rotation systems offer heterogeneity to the soil with the addition of different crops (Nannipieri et al., 1999). The specific factors of rotational crops' influence on the soil microbiome differ by the quantity and composition of root exudates as well as the organic matter left by decaying biomass (Sul et al., 2013). A healthy soil microbiome benefits crop production by providing necessary mineral requirements and protecting crops from diseases (Berg and Koskella, 2018; Finkel et al., 2017; Van Wees et al., 2008).

Pulse crop is often grown after wheat in a crop rotation sequence, and farmers regularly do not apply any nitrogen fertilizer to pulse crops. About 60–90% of the nitrogen in pulse crop biomass is taken up through symbiotic N-fixation from atmospheric N₂, and the rest of the 10–40% N came from soil (Peoples et al., 2009; St. Luce et al., 2015). The bulk soil after pulse harvest is an environment that is limited by reduced nitrogen leading to a selection of robust diazotrophs (Tan et al., 2003). An increase in diazotrophs in the bulk soil could potentially be

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benefiting to the cereals in the next season by increasing overall soil nitrogen and organic matter. Cereal crop grown after pulse crop have performed better than following a cereal crop (Chen et al., 2012). The rate of selection of robust diazotrophs and benefit of the free-living population to crops is still unknown, but a basic understanding of the community will allow farmers to establish best practices for the pulse crop rotation system.

Diazotrophs are phylogenetically diverse, including both symbiotic rhizobia bacteria and free-living soil bacteria (Reed et al., 2011). To determine the phylogeny of diazotrophs in the soil, the highly conserved gene *nifH*, a subunit of nitrogenase, can be used to distinguish different genera (Hsu and Buckley, 2009). In the bulk soil, free-living diazotrophs have access to multiple sources of fixed nitrogen and most likely only fix atmospheric nitrogen under N-limiting conditions (Norman and Friesen, 2017). Nitrogen fixation is an energy-intensive reaction requiring environmental conditions with high available carbon and low nitrogen (Orr et al., 2012). The heterogeneity of soil and the intense requirements of nitrogen fixation requires species to evolve numerous different physiologies to occupy niches within the soil, and diazotrophs have diversified to fix nitrogen optimally in a variety of conditions.

The potential input or removal of nitrogen into the system (nitrogen increment) by pulse crops after harvest is variable and dependent on pulse crop species and geographical location (Walley et al., 2007). The effects of nitrogen increment on the microbial ecology of the bulk soil in pulse-wheat systems are understudied with little literature about drivers of microbial diversity past the rhizosphere. A better understanding of the microbial communities in the bulk soil and the factors that influence them will help determine how the microbial soil communities at large are impacted by pulse rotation.

Microbial communities are complex and dynamic, where each member is always competing for space and resources. Niche differentiation in the rhizosphere and bulk soil is continuously changing with influence from root exudates in the rhizosphere, mineral availability, and carbon recycling in the bulk soil (Kuzakov and Blagodatskaya, 2015; Shi et al., 2016). How free-living diazotrophs interact and compete in a nitrogen-depleted niche is only recently being discovered (Norman and Friesen, 2017). Many abiotic factors have been shown to influence the diazotrophic microbiome from soil pH (Fan et al., 2018), and organic matter (Gupta et al., 2014), to soil moisture in both flooded riparian zones (Chen et al., 2019) and permafrost thawing regions (Penton et al., 2016). Here we analyzed the general and diazotrophic bacterial communities in the bulk soil taken after growing pea crop with different farm management practices such as irrigation at different geographical locations in Montana. We hypothesized that the edaphic, geographic, and farm management practice would have a larger influence on the bulk general and diazotrophic communities than pea variety. The results provide insight into the relationship between community structure and different farming practices, soil properties, and environmental factors. The impact and contribution of free-living diazotrophs to crop productivity in agricultural soils are still unknown. Our study lays a foundation for further discovery in the complex system of diazotroph community and farm management practices.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Field locations

Fields used in this study are named for their location at Montana State University Agricultural Research Centers (ARCs) (Conrad, Huntley, Moccasin, Sidney, Corvallis, and Kalispell) as well as a farmer's land near Richland (Fig. 1). Location were chosen as they are diverse in geographical and farm management practices. These reflect the variation in microclimates statewide, representing average rainfall across a growing season (April to August) ranging from 65.28 mm (Corvallis) to 264.67 mm (Sidney).

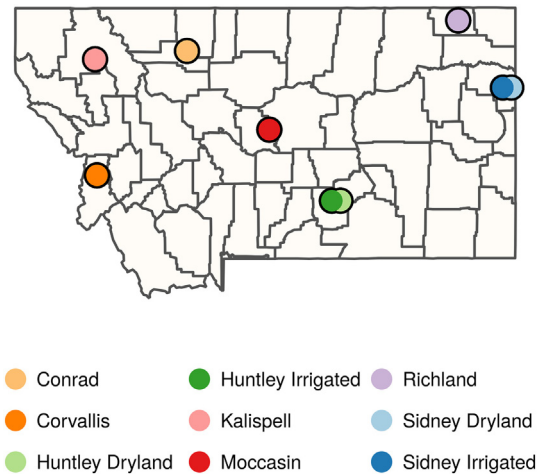


Fig. 1. Soil sampling locations across the state of Montana. Each site is a Montana State University Agricultural Research Center except the Richland site on a farmer's field.

2.2. Soil sampling

Soil samples were taken using a soil hand probe after harvesting pea crop from a statewide pea variety trial at seven locations across Montana in late August to early September (Fig. 1). At each location (either dryland or irrigation site), a pea variety trial nursery had 6 varieties and 4 replications with total 24 plots. The plots were arranged as randomized complete block design. The plot size is 1.5 m × 6 m. Peas were planted at 86 pure live seeds per square meter and managed following recommended agronomic practices at each location, no fertilizer was added to the peas (Table S1). Soil cores were taken 0–30 cm depth within crop row from each plot, so that there were 4 soil samples (replications) per variety and total 24 samples for 6 varieties. Soil cores were taken where the majority of crop roots and microorganisms live and is most influenced by agronomic practice. Each soil core sample was placed in a Ziploc bag and labeled with the pea variety name, replication, location, and sampling date. The soil samples were then put into a cooler containing ice packs. After sampling all plots, the samples were transported to the laboratory and stored in a freezer at −20 °C.

2.3. Soil analysis

Each sample collected representing a field replicate was partitioned into two containers for DNA extraction and chemical analysis. First, a volume of 50 mL was collected from each replicate separately and stored at −20 °C for future DNA extraction. The rest of the soil was used for chemical analysis, due to a shortage of sample amount, 100 g soil from each of the four replicates of each pea variety was mixed thoroughly to a total amount of 400 g. The mixed replicates sample was then sent to the University of Idaho Analytical Science Laboratory (uidaho.edu/asl) for chemical analysis. Two soil tests were performed on aliquots from the mixed sample: 1) The Extended Fertility Test was performed to measure moisture content, pH, available phosphorus, available potassium, nitrates and nitrites, ammonia, sulfates, organic matter, and boron using standard soil chemical analysis methods. 2) The Dissolved Metal Screen Test was used to measure elements: Ca, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, Mo, Na, Ni, V, and Zn with inductively coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (ICP-MS).

2.4. DNA extraction

The DNA extraction was performed with the DNeasy PowerSoil kit (MoBio Laboratories, Inc. Carlsbad, CA, USA). The Powersoil kit was used with the Mini-beadbeater-24 (Bio-Spec Products, Bartlesville, OK,

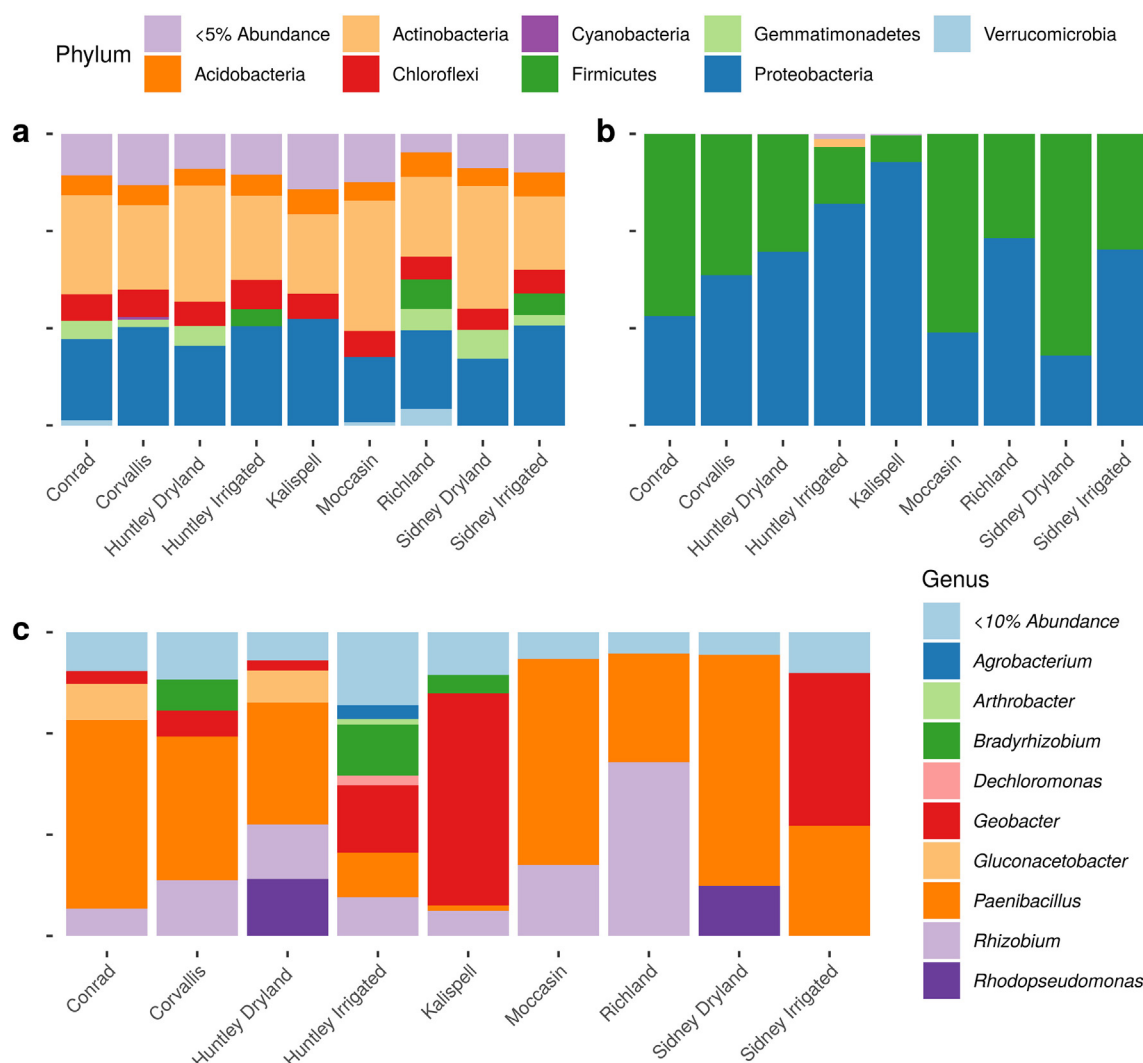


Fig. 2. The relative abundance of OTUs at each site across the state of Montana. The phylum-level relative abundance of the 16S sequences (a). The diazotrophic sequences (*nifH*) at the phylum level (b) and the genus level (c).

USA) DNA was quantified with absorbance 260/280 nm on a NanoDrop 2000 (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). An aliquot of DNA was diluted to a concentration of 20 ng/ μ L. DNA was stored and shipped at -20°C . The DNA was tested for amplification against the 16S rRNA 515/806 primers, and the *nifH* gene was tested by the IKG and DVV primers using the following protocols.

2.5. PCR gene amplification

The 16S rRNA gene V4 variable region PCR primers 515/806, forward 515-GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA and reverse 806-GGACTACNV-GGGTWTCTAAT, with a sample barcode on the forward primer, were used in a 30 cycle PCR using the HotStarTaq Plus Master Mix Kit (Qiagen, Germantown, MD, USA). Amplifications were performed using the following cycling parameters: an initial single step at 94°C for 3 min (denaturation) was followed by 30 cycles of the following: (a) 94°C for 30 s (denaturation), (b) 53°C for 40 s (primer annealing) and (c) 72°C for 1 min (elongation). A final single step at 72°C for 5 min followed these 30 cycles.

The *nifH* amplicon sequencing used primers adapted from the paper by Gaby and Buckley (Gaby and Buckley, 2012), forward IKG- AARG-GNGGNATHGGNAA (Ohkuma and Kudo, 1996) and reverse DVV-ATIGCRAAICCCRCACIACIACRT (Ando et al., 2005). A Touchdown PCR was performed with the following conditions: 94°C for 5 min,

followed by 10 cycles starting at 94°C for 90 s, 61°C for 60 s, 72°C for 90 s, the first ten cycles step down -1°C every cycle till 53°C , followed by 20 cycles of 94°C for 90 s, 53°C for 60 s, and 72°C for 90 s. A final elongation step at 72°C for 10 min and storage at 4°C . After amplification, PCR products were checked in 2% agarose gel to determine the success of amplification and the relative intensity of bands. Multiple barcoded samples were pooled together in equal proportions based on their molecular weight and DNA concentrations. Pooled samples were purified using calibrated Ampure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, IN, USA).

2.6. Sequencing

The pooled and purified PCR product is used to prepare a DNA library following the Illumina TruSeq DNA library preparation protocol (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Sequencing was performed at MR DNA (www.mrdnalab.com, Shallowater, TX, USA) on a MiSeq following the manufacturer's guidelines. Sequence data were processed using MR DNA analysis pipeline (MR DNA, Shallowater, TX, USA). In summary, sequences were joined, depleted of barcodes then sequences < 150 bp were removed, and sequences with ambiguous base calls removed. Sequences were denoised, operational taxonomic units (OTUs) generated, and chimeras removed. OTUs were defined by clustering at a 3% divergence (97% similarity). Final OTUs were taxonomically classified

using BLASTn against a curated database derived from GreenGenes (DeSantis et al., 2006), RDP II (Cole et al., 2014), and NCBI (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov).

2.7. Statistics and data analysis

Multivariate data analysis was performed in R.3.6.1 (<https://www.r-project.org/>) using different major packages (vegan, phyloseq, ggplot2). Data for primary analysis was rarefied and trimmed to remove OTUs that have less than three counts. Alpha and beta diversity metrics were performed in the phyloseq package (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). Statistics and model building were performed with the vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2018). A more detailed explanation of the statistical methods can be found in the supplemental methods section.

2.8. Network construction

Networks were constructed using the R package SPIEC-EASI (Sparse Inverse Covariance Estimation of ecological association inference) (Kurtz et al., 2015). Data was subsetting before network creation to a prevalence of 37% and an abundance greater than five. The neighborhood (MB) selection framework was used as a covariance selection method with the minimal lambda ratio set to 0.001 and nlambdas set to 30 for an adequate sample of the lambda path. All network parameters and network figures were produced using the R package iGraph (Csárdi and Nepusz, 2006).

3. Results

3.1. Soil microbial ecology across Montana

The most abundant phylum in the general bacteria community (based on the sequences of 16S ribosomal RNA amplicons) are *Actinobacteria*, *Proteobacteria*, *Acidobacteria*, and *Chloroflexi* (Fig. 2A). While the diazotrophic community (based on sequences of *nifH* amplicons) is dominated by two main phyla, *Proteobacteria*, and *Firmicutes* (Fig. 2B). Within the diazotrophic community, the dominating genus is *Paenibacillus*, with *Geobacter* and *Rhizobium* also being dominant but not as ubiquitous (Fig. 2C). Richland site has the most extended pea production history and shows more abundance of *Rhizobium* than other locations. The Shannon diversity is significantly different across the state of Montana for both general bacteria (Fig. 3A, Table S4, Kruskal-Wallis, $p = 8.8 \times 10^{-7}$) and diazotrophic (Fig. 3B, Table S5, Kruskal-Wallis, $p = 4.2 \times 10^{-6}$) communities. Shannon diversity of the general community and Shannon diversity of the diazotrophic community correlated across the state ($r = 0.44$, $p < .001$) (Fig. S1). Irrigated sites in Corvallis, Kalispell, and Sidney tend to have high Shannon diversity of general community and diazotrophic community, but some other locations do not follow this overall trend like Huntley irrigated site which has a high diversity of diazotrophs (average observed OTUs = 368) but average diversity of general bacteria (average observed OTUs = 2462) and Conrad dryland which has the opposite trend of high diversity of general bacteria and average diazotrophic community diversity (16S Observed OTUs = 2643, and *nifH* observed OTUs = 246) (Tables S4, S5).

The influence of farm management and abiotic factors were investigated to determine their influence on alpha diversity among the bacterial communities. Pea varieties were shown not to have any correlation with alpha diversity in general ($p = .96$) and diazotrophic ($p = .95$) communities across the state. Soil chemical elements correlate poorly to the general bacterial Shannon index and the diazotrophic Shannon index, with most of the chemistry being nested into site location. Diazotrophic diversity was found correlated with moisture content statewide ($r = 0.31$, $p = .027$).

To compare the community structures at each site, a non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination plot was constructed for

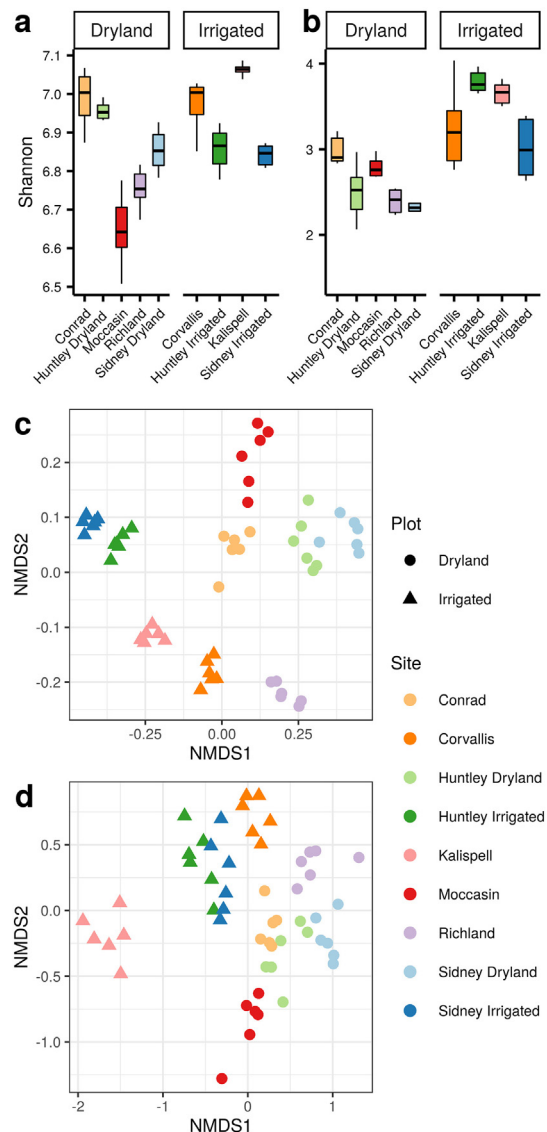


Fig. 3. Diversity of general and diazotrophic communities. The Shannon diversity index across the sites in Montana for the general bacterial community (a). The Shannon diversity index for the diazotrophic community (b). The NMDS orientation plot based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity for the general bacterial community comparing irrigated (triangle) and dryland (circle) and sites (color) (c). The NMDS orientation based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity of the diazotrophic community (d). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

the general and diazotrophic communities (Fig. 3C and D). The plots were created from the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix, and a stress test was accepted (16S stress = 0.07, *nifH* stress = 0.18). There is a distinct clustering of site location in both general (16S) and diazotroph (*nifH*) communities (Fig. 3C and D, colors). There is a differentiation in the irrigated and dryland plots along a bisecting axis in both general bacteria and diazotrophs communities (Fig. 3C and D, shapes). To determine the effects of farm management and soil chemistry on beta diversity, the *envfit* function in vegan R package was used to correlate the environmental variables within the dissimilarity matrix. The function *envfit* fits the measured variables and factors to the NMDS space, which reflects the linear relationship between the factors and the Bray-Curtis distance. With this analysis, multiple factors significantly correlate to the ordination of the bacterial communities in the NMDS (Table S6). Overall location effect highly influences the community structure with the majority of variance explained by geographical location (16S

$r^2 = 0.7556$ $p \leq .001$, $nifH$ $r^2 = 0.8274$ $p \leq .001$). While the location is dominating overall, other farm management and chemical variables also influence the community structure. Farm management practices of tillage, previous crop, and irrigation all influence both general and diazotrophic communities significantly (16S: Tillage, $r^2 = 0.25$, $p \leq .001$, Previous Crop, $r^2 = 0.26$, $p \leq .001$, $nifH$: Tillage, $r^2 = 0.21$, $p \leq .001$, Previous Crop, $r^2 = 0.35$, $p \leq .001$,) but irrigation is responsible for 58% of the variability in 16S ($p \leq .001$) while it accounts for 44% of the variation in $nifH$ ($p \leq .001$). Soil moisture content, which was measured during chemical analysis, influences the general and diazotrophic communities differently (16S $r^2 = 0.14$ $p = .012$, $nifH$ $r^2 = 0.048$ $p = .287$). The general community is also correlated with grain yield (a proxy for pea crop health) while diazotrophs are not correlated (16S $r^2 = 0.18$ $p = .008$, $nifH$ $r^2 = 0.02$ $p = .562$). A noticeable difference is in the large correlation of organic matter with the diazotrophs community ($r^2 = 0.4791$ $p \leq .001$) but not in the general bacterial ($r^2 = 0.0463$ $p = .303$).

3.2. Irrigation and soil microbiology

In order to be more accurate in determining the influence of irrigation on the soil microbial ecology, we analyzed a subset of the ARC sites, Sidney and Huntley, which contained two plots that were subject to irrigation or kept as dryland. By subsetting, the data overall geographical effect seen in the statewide survey was removed.

There is a slight influence of irrigation on the alpha diversity of the general bacterial community (Figs. 4A and S4), but there is a significant difference between the irrigation and dryland for the diazotrophic community (Huntley $p < .0001$, and Sidney $p < .001$) (Figs. 4B and S2). To determine the effect of irrigation on beta diversity, an ordination plot was generated using Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA), in order to better understand the irrigation gradient of the samples. In this analysis, the differentiation between the irrigation type appears diverging along the DCA1 axis with corresponding to 84.5% of the variance for the general bacterial community (Fig. 4C) and 42.6% of the variation for the diazotrophic community (Fig. 4D). The location influence is present with a smaller effect of 7.5% and 34.4% along the DCA2 axis for the general and diazotrophic community, respectively. For the general bacteria community, the samples have less dispersion, and the irrigated samples are highly clustered, representing less location effect for irrigated compared to dryland. The diazotrophic community is highly dispersed, which was seen before in the statewide analysis, most likely due to the higher abundance of low count unique species.

3.3. Constrained ordination of bacterial communities

To more precisely discover the drivers of the microbial communities, a model selection approach has been chosen to select the combination of chemical variables that drive the community structure. *Capscale* function in the *vegan* package was used to constrain the variables in a non-Euclidean Bray-Curtis dissimilarity space. Then the function *ordir2step* was used to build a correlation model by a forward selection approach.

The models explain 51% and 38% of the variance on the general bacteria and diazotrophic community structure statewide, respectively (Table S7). Using these models made in *capscale*, an *a priori* vector fitting can be done on a CAP ordination (Fig. 4A (16S), 4B ($nifH$)). In this CAP ordination constrained by the model, specific differences between the general and diazotrophic bacterial communities can be established. First, organic matter, which was a significant factor in the *envfit* NMDS space, has a more significant driving force (larger arrow) on differentiating the Kalispell site and from others in the diazotrophic ordination. This reflects a more significant effect by organic matter on the diazotrophic bacterial community compared to the general bacterial community (Fig. 5A and B).

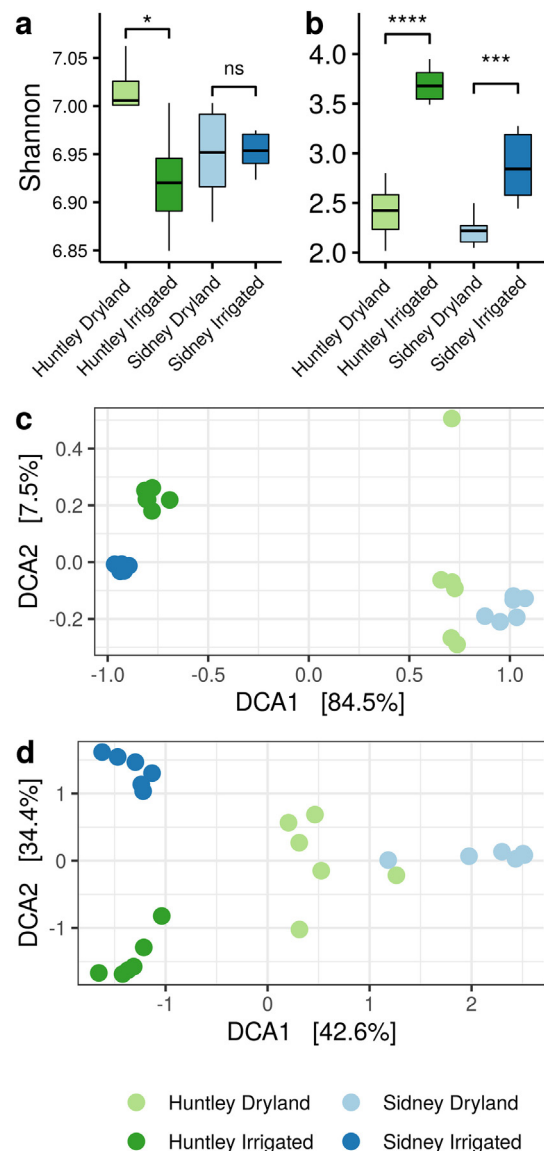


Fig. 4. The Shannon diversity index is comparing irrigated and dryland sites for the general bacteria community (a) and the diazotrophic community (b). The DCA ordination plot based on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity of the general (16S rRNA) (c) and diazotrophic ($nifH$) community (d). With irrigation and sites labeled as colors. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

The same model building procedure was followed for the subsetting irrigation data. This shows a similar model which contains the same compilation of chemical factors that determined the statewide model (Table S8). However, subsetting the data provide a better insight into (1) what changes in chemical composition are associated with geographical sites, and (2) what effects are due to irrigation treatments. The general bacterial CAP plot (Fig. 4C) shows farm amendments like potassium, nitrate, phosphorus, and organic matter all correlate to the irrigated fields following the CAP1 axis. While elemental differentiation like cobalt and calcium are strictly geographically in character following the CAP2 axis, which separated the ARCs. For the diazotrophic CAP plot (Fig. 4D), a different model was produced using the same procedure. Ammonia, the product of nitrogen fixation, is correlated to the species composition of the diazotrophs as well as the pH, which was not correlated with the 16S communities. Interestingly the two metals nickel and copper are differentiating along the CAP1 axis showing that copper is correlated with community structure in irrigated soils and

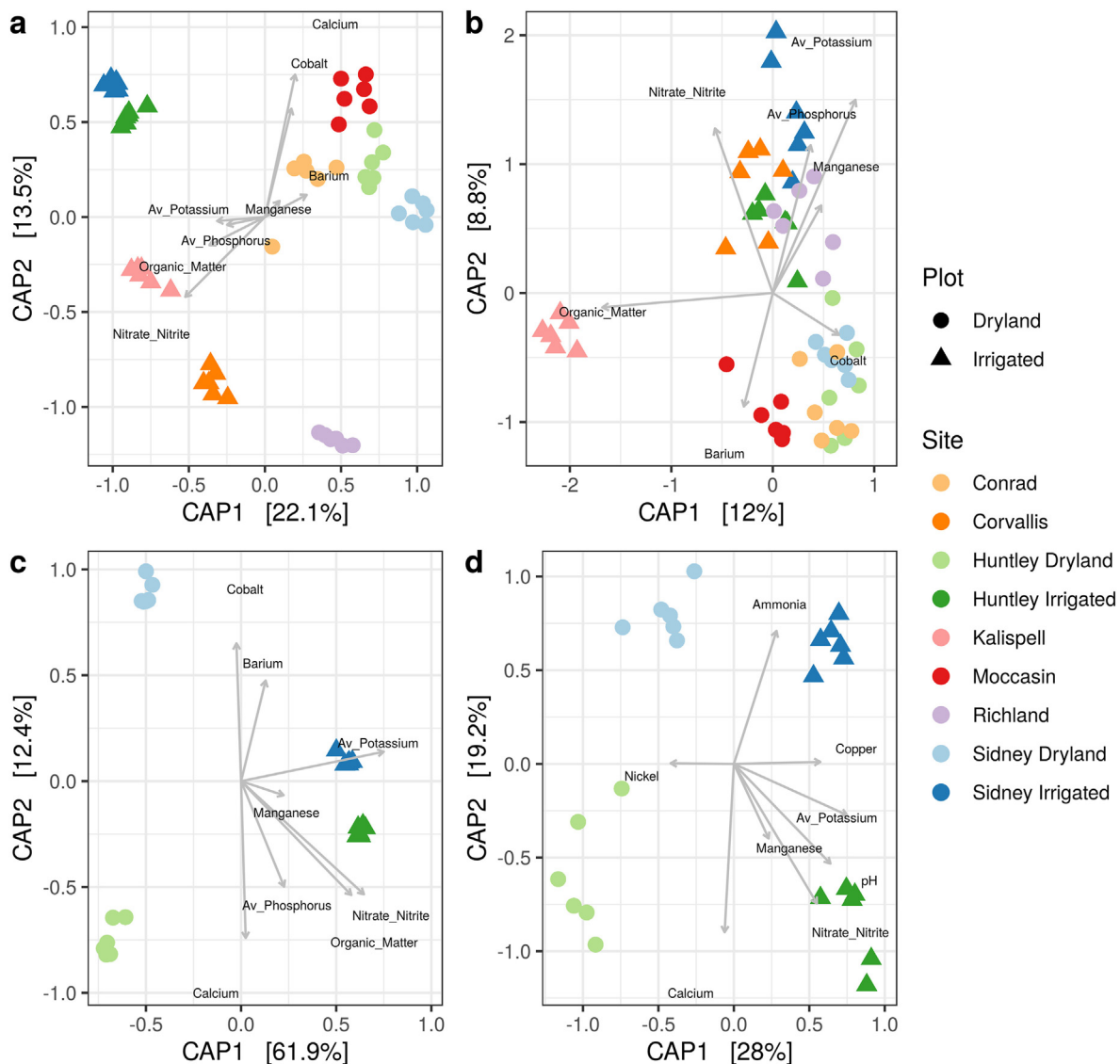


Fig. 5. Chemical CAP plots. CAP plots were constrained by an *a priori* selected capscale model. Constraining all the sites with capscale model in general (a) and diazotrophic (b) bacterial communities still shows separation between irrigated and dryland sites. Specific sites correlate best with chemical vectors in the plot as Kalispell, and organic matter, and Moccasin and Barium are two examples. The irrigation sites were then looked at by themselves with the same CAP/capscale model selection procedure for the general (c) and diazotrophic (d) bacterial communities. Av (Available).

nickel is correlated with community structure in dryland soils. The unique effectors of diazotrophs, ammonia, and pH are more correlated with community structure in irrigated plots than dryland.

By fitting highly correlated ($r^2 > 0.9$) species onto the constrained CAP ordination, we can see which species in the general and the diazotrophic bacterial communities are affected most by the chemical gradients (Fig. S3). For the general population, a diverse set of bacteria from 4 different phyla (Actinobacteria, Firmicutes, Verrucomicrobia, and Cyanobacteria) are all influenced by the chemical gradients while represented diazotrophs included bacteria from 2 different classes (Alphaproteobacteria, and Bacillus).

3.4. Irrigation management influences soil microbial ecology

There is substantial evidence to support that the irrigation management of the ARC affects the composition of the microbiome, its chemical drivers, and species (Figs. 4, 5, and S3). To more deeply interpret these effects of irrigation on the community structure of the diazotrophs, a co-occurrence network was created to determine its keystone species and the effect for irrigation on the robustness of the

community.

The network topological structure of the dryland and irrigated diazotrophs show a similar trend, as was seen with the diversity analysis where irrigated communities are more similar while dryland communities are more dissimilar, showing unique co-occurrence. Overall the dryland network contains more edges (274), higher average degree (3.58), shorter path length (5.4), and smaller betweenness centrality (223) (Table S9). The modularity and subgraphs of the networks were studied by removing all nodes that were not in a major community. These results show that the dryland network has a much higher density and three times more clusters than the irrigated network (Fig. 6 and Table S10). The modularity of the network is higher in dryland, and eigenvalue centrality shows that the dryland not only has more clusters but more interaction between clusters. The dryland network is also more robust than the irrigated network shown in node removal analysis (Fig. S4).

The diazotrophic keystone species were evaluated in both the dryland and irrigated networks (Fig. 7). Keystone species can be inferred from a network topology of high degree, high closeness, and low betweenness (Banerjee et al., 2018; Berry and Widder, 2014). In the

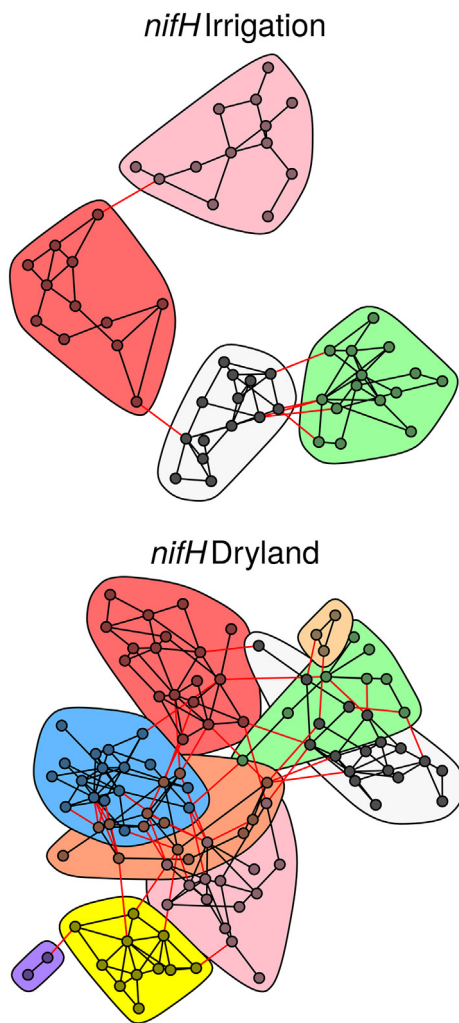


Fig. 6. Diazotrophic co-occurrence networks for the dryland and irrigated plots. The modularity of the irrigated and dryland networks was determined by the cluster walktrap algorithm and presented by colors. Edges that are interacting between modules are colored in red. Co-occurrence networks were built on species that occur in at least 37% of the samples and modularity was assigned to cluster with at least ten members. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

dryland network, one OTU is a prominent highly interconnected node; this OTU is annotated to species *Paenibacillus graminis*. Overall, Bacilli is more enriched as high node degree in the dryland network (Fig. 7). The Irrigated network does not have such a precise keystone species with four OTUs with the highest degree; two of them *Rhizobium leguminosarum*, and *Azotobacter vinelandii* have high closeness, but only *Rhizobium leguminosarum* and *Rhodopseudomonas palustris* have low betweenness. In contrast to dryland, high degree OTUs are dominated by Proteobacteria (alpha and gamma).

To determine if irrigation was selecting for a narrower range of diazotrophs as it is shown in the co-occurrence, a mean abundance and prevalence plot was made on the rarified data (Figs. S5 and S6). The plot of all diazotrophs across the state shows some specialist (low prevalence, high abundance) but more generalist (high prevalence, high abundance). If the samples are subsetted to the irrigated plots and dryland plots across the state, almost all the specialists from across the state are in irrigated soils while dryland continues to maintain a high level of generalists.

4. Discussion

4.1. Geography and farm management shape microbial diversity

The geographic differences are a significant portion of the variance in-between bacterial communities. This is expected in a study across such a large area with such diverse environments. Even with this diversity of samples, some broad trends can be seen, with the predominant trend to be the influence of irrigation on soil microbial composition. Recently, a long-term study showed irrigation significantly reduced the native population of *Pseudomonads* in the field as well as impact the community composition due to changes in the water potential and pH caused by irrigation (Mavrodi et al., 2018). We have shown that the bulk soil is also influenced by irrigation, with a notable change in total bacterial community structure.

Irrigation overlaps with other farm management practices such as tillage, and previous crop. While confounding, we can suggest that both of these additional farm management practices influence the general and diazotrophic communities. The diazotrophic community composition has previously been shown to be impacted by tillage do to influence of biomass retention homogenization of soil, these findings are supported by our survey (Hsu and Buckley, 2009). Interestingly the previous crop (fallow, wheat, or barley) had more influence on the diazotrophic community composition than on the general bacteria community (Table S6). Though the presented survey has design constraints to claim any significance, previous work supports that barley causes an increase in Shannon diversity of free-living diazotrophs in a potato-barley rotation (Orr et al., 2011). Most crop rotation studies only look at rhizosphere bacterial communities and fail to comprehend the farm-wide implications of pulse crop rotations (Larkin and Honeycutt, 2007; Niu et al., 2018).

4.2. Impacts of irrigation on microbial community structure

It is well known that the primary limiting factor of agricultural yield in a semiarid region is precipitation. Also, it has been well documented that changes in precipitation and irrigation regime effect microbial community structure and microbial activity (Castro et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2016; Lacerda-Júnior et al., 2019; Lüneberg et al., 2018; Mavrodi et al., 2018). We have shown that irrigation significantly impacts the general microbial community and the diazotrophic community diversity. While irrigated samples tend to have higher Shannon diversity than dryland samples, they are also more homogenous. This effect is amplified in the diazotrophic samples where all irrigated samples have higher Shannon diversity, but dryland samples are highly dissimilar (Fig. 4C and D).

Shifts in phylum-level relative abundances like those seen in a longer-term study of (Hartmann et al., 2017) were also shown in our survey. An increase of Proteobacteria and Firmicutes, and a decrease of Gemmatimonadetes and Actinobacteria were observed across the state and in controlled irrigation plots (Fig. 2A and B). This is following the copiotroph-oligotroph hypothesis presented by (Fierer et al., 2007) in which copiotrophic organisms which thrive in higher moisture and higher carbon environment versus oligotrophs which are slower growing and maintain in viability under limited substrates (Ho et al., 2017). Conversely, diazotrophs share some ecological trends as the general population, such as the increase of *Geobacter* in high moisture and high carbon soils like Kalispell (Fig. 2). *Geobacter*, an anaerobic respiratory delta-proteobacteria, uses humic acid as an electron acceptor, allowing it to fix nitrogen in a copiotrophic environment (Lovley et al., 2011). Diazotrophs require a large amount of energy to maintain homeostasis while surviving on atmospheric nitrogen. Nitrogenase regulation across diazotrophs is stimulated by a large C:N ratio. Though diazotrophs need a high carbon level to maintain nitrogen fixation, they are still present in oligotrophic soils. While this topic is understudied, it has been intensely looked at in ocean

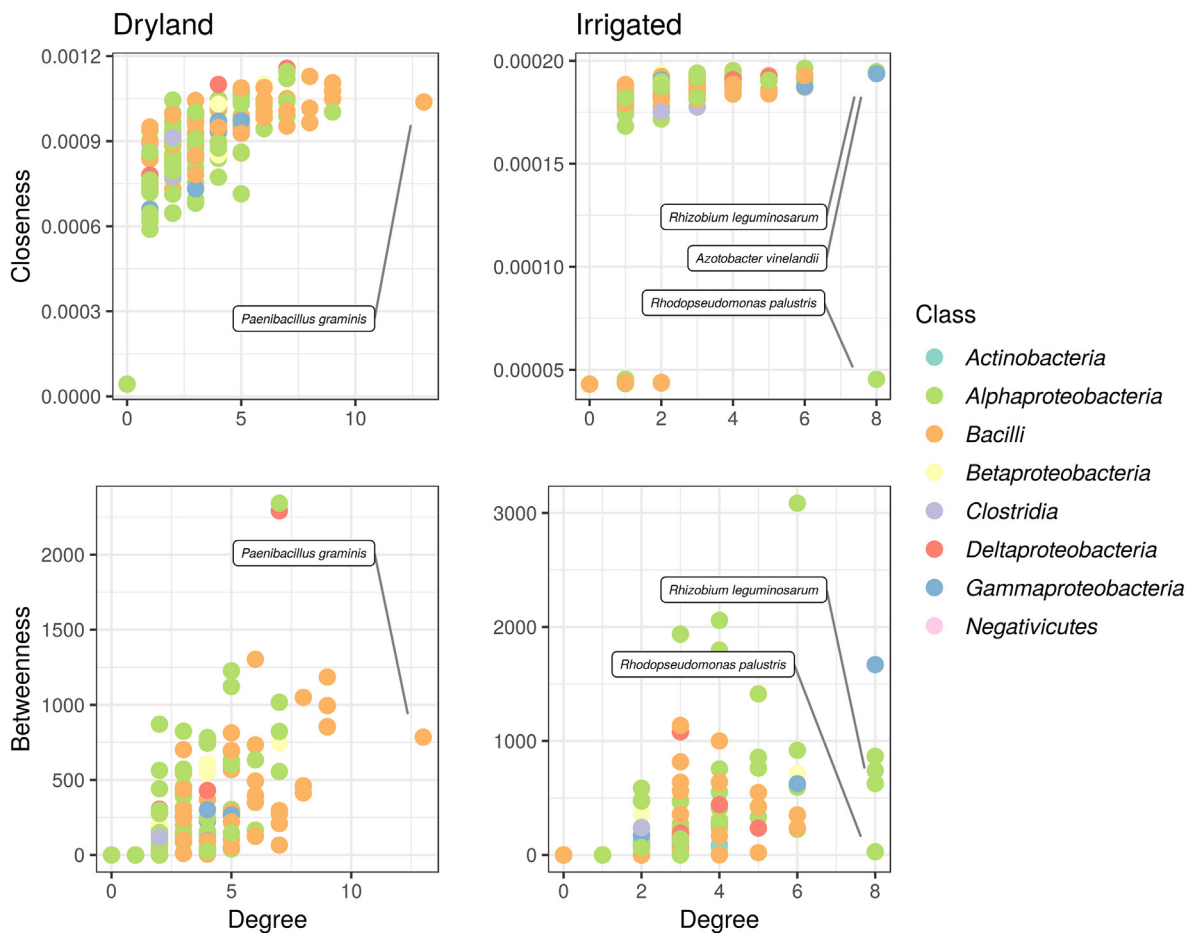


Fig. 7. Composition of diazotrophic OTUs (nodes) in dryland and irrigated plots distributed along degree against closeness centrality or betweenness. Nodes with a large degree, large closeness, and small betweenness can be identified as keystone species. The Diazotrophic class is colored on the plots with the Bacilli: *Paenibacillus graminis* having all characteristics of a keystone species in the dryland plots while the Alphaproteobacteria: *Rhizobium leguminosarum* and *Rhodopseudomonas palustris* have the characteristics of a keystone species in the irrigated plot.

ecosystems. Oceans are notoriously known as low carbon environments, while the diversity and the abundance of marine heterotrophic diazotrophs are considered to play a pivotal role in the nitrogen cycle (Gradoville et al., 2017; Zehr and Deniz, 2015). In the soil, we can postulate that strategies of mutualism with fungus and other heterotrophs will provide the needed carbon or diazotrophs utilizing nitrogenase as an electron sink could be possible in low carbon and low nitrogen soil niches.

4.3. Irrigation influences network topology

The co-occurrence of diazotrophs shows the interactions within the nitrogen fixing community or the concurrent influence of species to abiotic factors. Here we showed that specific farm management systems impact the network topology of the diazotrophic co-occurrence networks. The irrigated network has lower modularity, low density, and poor robustness, therefore, selecting for a more definite group of diazotrophs that are more susceptible to environmental variables (Röttgers and Faust, 2018). When plots are left as dryland, the community structure is more dissimilar, shown as a highly interconnected network. The network shows high modularity with high network robustness as compared to the irrigated soils. The density of the dryland networks is also high, with a short path length showing an integrated network. Networks with these properties have been proposed to have a quick response to environmental perturbations (Thébault and Fontaine, 2010).

Habitat filtering affects the interpretation of co-occurrence

networks, and environmental changes such as irrigation need to be made clear. As has been shown, irrigation selects for specialists in the co-occurrence networks, but it is difficult with this data to determine if this is due to microbe-microbe interaction or shared habitat preference. The specialists that are more abundant in the irrigated data and are highly connected in the network (high keystone properties) might be appearing in the samples due to fast growth in specific conditions and have little interaction with other bacteria in the network. Co-occurrence networks are a great start to deduce interactions, but real-world experiments must be used to confirm the interactions.

4.4. Irrigation effects diazotrophic community robustness

In this study, we have demonstrated that the diazotrophic community is sensitive to irrigation and irrigated soils are presumably less resilient to changes of other edaphic, geographic, or farm management practices. It is difficult to determine the effects of the overall nitrogen fixing ability of the irrigated soil as compared to dryland soil due to the type of data collected. However, we can see that a shift in phylogenetic taxa compositions between the two soils leads to irrigation selecting for more specialized OTUs, such as *Geobacter*. The specialization of the irrigated soils can be understood as less robust and less responsive to environmental change at the taxa or phylogenetic level. The dryland soil communities are more dissimilar even though they are less diverse than the irrigated soil communities. The dissimilarity offers the dryland an advantage with the “portfolio effect” as suggested by (Allison and Martiny, 2008), in which increasing the ability to fix nitrogen in one

condition averages the overall decrease of nitrogen fixation. The portfolio effect and functional redundancy supported by dormancy of the diazotrophs allow an environment like dryland to adapt better to changes in growth conditions. The homogenous environment of agricultural soils could lead to more homogenous microbial communities that are prone to the inability to overcome disturbance such as the introduction of exogenous N or planting of leguminous plants such as peas (Zeng et al., 2016). Our hypothesis of irrigation sub selecting more specific diazotrophs that are less robust will need to be further tested. A time-series experiment of farm management practices in pulse rotation system where plots are alternated from irrigated and dryland should be conducted to understand the selection over time for specific diazotrophs.

5. Conclusion

The large-scale survey of diazotrophs present in this work lays the groundwork for future understanding and development of the nitrogen-fixing microbiome. We have demonstrated that geographic and edaphic characteristics influence the community structure and diversity of free-living diazotrophs in pulse crop rotations. Also, we have identified that irrigation has a significant role in shaping the diazotrophic communities. We see that the irrigated soil contains a more sparse co-occurrence network and select for more specialized species that in the class alpha-proteobacteria. While the dryland has a more interconnected and robustness co-occurrence network and has Bacilli as their keystone species. This shows that farm management factors can shape the free-living diazotrophic community in the topsoil layer and opens the way for more intense study of the influences of this agriculturally and environmentally crucial microbial niche.

Data availability

Sequencing data available at NCBI SRA BioProject PRJNA580458.

R scripts and data available at <https://github.com/alexander-alleman/MontanaPulseCrops>

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2020.103737>.

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