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- Arable soil nitrogen dynamics reflect organic 1
- inputs via the extended composite phenotype, 2
- not the metagenome associated with nitrogen 3
- transformations. 4
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Abstract 21

- 22 Achieving food security whilst minimising agriculture's influence on climate and biodiversity
- 23 requires resilient systems, predicated on improved nutrient-use efficiency, water and nutrient storage
- 24 in soils and reducing gaseous emissions. Success requires sufficient understanding of coupled
- 25 nitrogen and carbon metabolism in soils, associated influences on soil structure, and of processes
- 26 controlling nitrogen-transformations at scales relevant to microbial activity. We show the influence
- 27 of organic matter on arable soil nitrogen transformations and balances can be understood by
- 28 integrating metagenomic data with soil structural parameters. System function can be predicted from
- 29 theory of soil as an extended composite phenotype, where physical and biotic interactions result in

emergent organisation and function. The approach provides mechanistic explanation of why organic
matter is effective in reducing nitrous oxide losses while supporting system resilience. The
relationship between organic carbon, soil connected porosity and flow rates at scales relevant to
microbes suggests significant increases in efficiency and resilience could be achieved at lower organic
carbon stocks than currently envisaged.

35 Main

36 Agricultural production must balance ostensibly incompatible demands. Ideally, it must provide 37 sufficient, nutritious food to increasing human populations, reduce its environmental footprint, restore 38 biodiversity, and attenuate greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and associated climate change. Soil is 39 simultaneously the most important terrestrial sink and source of GHG, particularly the long-lived 40 gases carbon dioxide and nitrous oxide (N₂O), and shorter-lived methane¹. As N₂O constitutes a loss 41 of an important plant nutrient from the system, nitrogen dynamics in soil are particularly important in linking climate regulation and food security². Improving nutrient use efficiency (NUE) such that GHG 42 43 emissions resulting from fertiliser production and use falls by 40% per unit of food produced is 44 predicted to be more effective at reducing emissions from the food system than higher-yielding crops 45 or a 50% reduction in food waste³. NUE and carbon sequestration, are closely coupled in soils⁴, co-46 regulated by microbial metabolism which, in turn, is governed by oxygen availability and co-location 47 of nitrogen in, and together with, organic matter. The distribution of oxygen, in turn, is determined by 48 the physical soil pore structure, its moisture content, and the distribution of potential microbial 49 respiration⁵. Therefore, an understanding of how management impacts on the partitioning of carbon 50 and nitrogen between storage in soil and emissions requires and understanding of the dynamics of 51 both the physical and biotic state. The 'extended composite phenotype' theory of soil provides the 52 required framework.

Important soil functions, particularly transport capacity, metabolic efficiency, and resource supply
 resilience to plants, acting across a broad range of scales, are dependent upon the connectivity and
 heterogeneity of pore space, emphasizing the importance of a pore-centric view of soil architecture⁶.

56 The theory of soil as an extended composite phenotype is based on detailed observations and 57 modelling of the interactions between structural genesis and microbial community structure and 58 function⁷. Soils exhibit spontaneous emergence of multi-scale self-organisation driven by endogenous 59 feedback between pore space architecture and microbial metagenetic-rather than taxonomic-60 states⁷. Microbiological activity influences soil pore architecture at scales below approximately 80 61 μ m. Since these are the scales that affect the relative balance and distribution of air and water in soil, 62 these changes also influence the nature of microbial activity, especially the relative activity of aerobic 63 and anaerobic metabolism. The resulting process-form state is a consequence of the self-organisation of the integrated biophysical system of soil^{7,8}. The emergent state is affected by incorporation of OM 64 65 into soil because this drives a tightly coupled feedback involving changes to the process-form state associated with altered gene assemblages and soil texture - hence the extended phenotype⁷⁻¹⁰ of the 66 67 soil system is an irreducible composite reflecting physical and biotic feedbacks. 68 Based upon our previous observations, the soil extended composite phenotype incorporates microbial 69 gene assemblages, soil structural parameters, hierarchical flux processes of gases and water, and overall system function including the likelihood of anoxia. In soil with a high throughput of OM, 70 71 process-form states are characterised as having a high porosity and a high degree of pore connectivity^{11,12}. Reduced levels of OM are associated with less extensively developed soil pore 72 networks. The resultant altered state modifies diffusivity and O_2 permeability^{7,13-16}. This pore-centric 73 74 perspective is essential when considering the consequences of incorporating OM into arable soils for 75 NUE and GHG emissions. The extended composite phenotype of soils containing low stocks of 76 organic carbon is characterised by greater proportions of anoxic pore space-the principal control of biological denitrification activity¹⁷—and increased abundance of genes in the metagenome associated 77 with dissimilatory respiration of nitrate and nitrite⁷. These factors effectively link the fates of nitrogen 78 79 and carbon in soil. 80 Here, we provide a further test of the theory of soil as an extended composite phenotype, to provide a 81 mechanistic explanation of the links between carbon and nitrogen metabolism and show how both 82 physical and genetic factors must be accounted for. According to this theory, we hypothesise that

83 arable soils receiving high organic inputs would have a highly connected process-form state resulting

84 in reduced losses of stored nitrogen as N₂O through anaerobic metabolism. Conversely, soils 85 receiving low organic inputs would result in a poorly connected state, reduced oxygen flux and higher 86 gaseous losses of nitrogen. Furthermore, using this framework, we seek to explain the link between 87 carbon dynamics and non-equilibrium NUE, calculated as the balance of nitrogen inputs, off-takes 88 and accumulation in soil. We hypothesise that offsetting losses of N₂O from soil would be associated 89 with higher stocks of soil nitrogen, along with carbon and water storage-key factors in conveying 90 resilience in rainfall-limited production systems. To test our hypotheses, we studied arable soils 91 subjected to consistent management for over 160 years, comparing soils which had received a range 92 of continuous organic or inorganic fertilisation over this period.

93 **Results and discussion**

94 Emergent soil process-form states

95 **Co-metabolism of carbon and nitrogen** – Since experiment establishment (1843), soils subject to 96 different management or fertilisation (Table I) have developed distinct soil organic carbon (SOC) and 97 total nitrogen (Ntot) stocks (Supplementary Fig. 1). Woodland and proximal grassland soils, together 98 with arable soil receiving composted farmyard manure (FYM) were the only soils to display net SOC 99 and Ntot accumulation (Fig. 1). Grassland and FYM-amended arable soils both contained over 70 Mg 100 ha^{-1} SOC and over 6 Mg ha^{-1} N_{tot}, significantly more than other treatments. There was a positive 101 geometric mean functional relationship between SOC and N_{tot} (Fig. 2), corresponding to a C:N ratio of 102 11.4. Despite widely varying quantities and qualities of carbon and nitrogen inputs, this indicates 103 coupling via the same metabolic pathways and mechanisms of storage in soil. Metabolic and storage 104 constraints in soil are both linked to microenvironmental conditions, via a strong association between 105 SOC inputs and soil process-form relationships⁷. Therefore, we quantified micrometre-scale structure 106 of a subset of soils to understand the biophysical feedbacks in the co-metabolism of carbon and 107 nitrogen.

108 Links between nitrogen storage and physical processes – Parameters relating to soil

109 architecture were determined in grassland, woodland, FYM, and inorganically fertilised arable soils

110	receiving 144 kg-N ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹ as ammonium nitrate, phosphorus and potassium (¹⁴⁴ NPK), 192 kg-N ha ⁻¹
111	yr ⁻¹ and potassium but no phosphorus (¹⁹² NK), and soil receiving no nitrogen fertilisation but
112	phosphorus and potassium (PK). Significant treatment-dependant differences were observed for
113	parameters generated directly from X-ray computed tomography of pore networks in each soil (total
114	$[P_t]$ and connected $[P_c]$ porosity) and those derived from simulation of the permeability (k),
115	normalized effective oxygen diffusion coefficient (D_e '), and hydraulic conductivity (K) within the
116	pore networks (Table II). Collectively, these measures describe the dynamical state of soil pore space
117	and the maximum potential rate at which resources can move through the networks, <i>i.e.</i> , the capacity
118	for flux. Grassland, woodland and FYM-amended arable soils were typified as having more extensive
119	and more connected pore networks than inorganically fertilised arable soils. We observed a power-
120	law relationship between P_c and K: increased SOC was associated with increases in both parameters
121	(Fig. 2B). Regions of this relationship correspond to the process-form states of the various soils. This
122	infers that—in the case of the soils studied here—for Pc between 0.05 and 0.4, relatively small
123	changes in geometry, characterised by P_c , result in substantial increases in K, characterising flow rate.
124	This power law therefore has profound implications for soil management strategies.
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virtue of its greater capacity to transport O₂. Annual addition of FYM (35 Mg ha⁻¹) to the soil has
resulted in SOC and N_{tot} contents, and process-form states resembling unmanaged woodland and
grassland, despite regular physical disturbance by inversion tillage. This combined evidence is
consistent with our hypothesis regarding the influence of organic carbon in soils in creating a more
highly connected and oxygenated structure.

143 Consequences of soil processes-form state for potential biological function – Nitrogen

- 144 transformation-associated metagenomes were determined in grassland, woodland, FYM, ¹⁴⁴NPK,
- 145 ¹⁹²NK and PK soils from shotgun metagenomic approaches. There was a significant treatment effect

upon gene assemblages (PERMANOVA, 99,999 permutations: *pseudo-F*_{5,12}=22.5, $p_{perm}=1x10^{-5}$).

147 *Post hoc* pairwise comparisons indicated no significant difference in gene assemblages between ¹⁹²NK

and PK soils. All other comparisons were significantly different.

149 Hierarchical clustering of soils based upon centred log-ratio transformed counts of read 150 numbers matching each identified gene (*i.e.*, relative abundance) demonstrated gene assemblages of 151 unmanaged woodland and grassland soils were distinct from arable soils (Fig. 3). Genes separated 152 into two broad clusters based upon their distribution between unmanaged and arable soils. The first 153 included genes associated with amino-acid metabolism and other nitrogen-assimilation pathways, 154 including nitrate assimilation (KEGG module M00615) and assimilatory nitrate reduction (M00531). 155 Several genes associated with dissimilatory nitrate reduction (M00530) and denitrification (M00529) 156 were also associated with this cluster. Relative abundance of these genes was greater in woodland 157 and grassland soils-which were most alike-than arable soils (Fig. 3). More subtly, genes 158 associated with nitrate assimilation were relatively more abundant in FYM-amended than 159 inorganically fertilised arable soils. 160 The second gene cluster was generally more abundant in arable soils. This comprised genes 161 associated with several modules, including nitrification (M00528), denitrification (M00529), 162 dissimilatory nitrate reduction (M00530) and complete nitrification (M00804), (c.f. Supplementary 163 Information). This pattern of limited genotypic differences between arable soils is broadly consistent with known responses of microbial communities to nitrogen fertilisation¹⁸⁻²¹. This is evidence for 164

165 direct influence of process-form states upon nitrogen-associated gene assemblages in soil, particularly 166 the association of nitrogen assimilatory pathways with soils having the greatest SOC and Ntot, 167 connected porosity, and hydrodynamic conductivity. The greater relative abundance of genes 168 associated with nitrogen assimilation in FYM-amended soil is consistent with this soil having a 169 similar process-form state (Fig. 2B) and oxygen status (Fig. 2C) to woodland and grassland soils. 170 Soils having low SOC (and Ntot) and thus low connected porosity and hydrodynamic conductivity 171 were associated more with dissimilatory pathways, utilizing oxidised forms of nitrogen as alternative 172 electron acceptors for respiration. Within arable plots particularly, there was a subtle shift in genes 173 associated with denitrification and dissimilatory nitrate reduction: NO-forming and cytochrome c-type 174 nitrate reductases (nirK and napAB respectively) were relatively more abundant in FYM-amended 175 than inorganically fertilised soils. These genes are typically associated with more oxygenated 176 environments than the functionally equivalent but structurally dissimilar genes *nirS* (*c*-type cytochrome) and the nitrite oxidoreductase $nxrAB^{22-25}$ and were most abundant in grassland and 177 178 woodland soils respectively. In addition, FYM had the highest relative abundance of genes of the 179 high-affinity nitrate-binding transporter (*nrtABC*) of all arable soils. These genes were otherwise 180 most abundant in grassland soils. Nitrite reductases typical of more reducing environments (nirS, nxrAB) were indicative of arable soils in general, particularly ¹⁴⁴NPK, ¹⁹²NK treatments. In FYM-181 182 amended soil, the more oxygen-rich process-form state (Fig. 2C) influences the gene assemblage such 183 that it shares similarities to those of grassland and woodland soils. 184 Assessment of gene abundance associated with nitrogen transformations by quantitative PCR provides evidence of the pattern and rate of nitrogen cycling processes in soil²⁶. However, the relative 185 186 abundance of different genes discussed above (and Supplementary Information) generated from metagenomics cannot in themselves be used as the basis for estimates of process rates²⁷. We assumed 187 188 relative gene abundance reflects the likelihood of a process with which they are associated when 189 environmental conditions allow. To test this assumption, we measured N₂O emissions in the field, 190 relating them to relative gene abundance and predictions of anoxic pore space (Fig. 2c).

7

191 Nitrous oxide emissions from soil – Since lower levels of organic carbon are associated with less extensively-developed soil pore networks^{11,12} (Table II) and the resultant low diffusivity restricts 192 oxygen permeability^{7,13-16} (Fig. 2C), elevated N_2O emissions are often associated with poor soil 193 architecture. We placed static chambers²⁸ in the field on FYM, ²⁴⁰NPK, ¹⁹²NK, ¹⁴⁴NPK and PK soils 194 195 between April and November 2019 to compare soil N₂O emissions. For each measurement date, greatest emissions were typically measured from ²⁴⁰NPK soils and least from PK soils 196 197 (Supplementary Fig. 2). We detected no significant influence of soil temperature (ANCOVA; $F_{1,134}=0.901, p=0.344$) or potential soil moisture deficit (ANCOVA; $F_{1,134}=0.272, p=0.603$) upon N₂O 198 199 emissions. Comparing soils directly, there was a significant influence of arable soil management 200 $(ANOVA; F_{4,116}=8.7, p=3x10^{-6})$ upon soil mean daily N₂O emission (Fig. 4). FYM-amended soil emitted significantly less N₂O than ²⁴⁰NPK soil (t=3.1; p=0.005), despite receiving similar annual 201 202 nitrogen inputs and having more than double the nitrogen stocks of inorganically fertilised soils

203 (Supplementary Fig. 1).

204 **Non-equilibrium nitrogen use efficiency of the soil-plant system** – We hypothesised that 205 differences in extended composite phenotype of FYM-amended and inorganically fertilised arable soils 206 would be reflected in historical nitrogen fluxes and stocks through the soil-plant systems. Traditionally, NUE is expressed as a ratio between the amount of nitrogen introduced to and harvested from a system 207 within a single season²⁹⁻³¹. This implicitly assumes a system is operating under a long-term equilibrium, 208 209 where soil nitrogen stocks remain temporally constant. For the inorganically fertilised plots this 210 condition is largely satisfied, due to the long trial history meaning annual production of soil organic nitrogen virtually equals annual nitrogen mineralisation^{32,33}. However, when this condition is not 211 212 satisfied—FYM-amended soils continue to accumulate nitrogen (Fig. 1B)—applied nitrogen stored in 213 soil beyond a single cropping cycle is incorrectly considered 'wasted'. Although nitrogen which 214 accumulates in soil is not recovered by the immediate crop, it may contribute to system resilience by 215 supporting production of subsequent crops. To account for this, we calculated non-equilibrium NUE 216 for treatments, apportioning nitrogen introduced to each system between that taken up by the crop, 217 stored in soil and 'lost' from the soil-plant system. For lost nitrogen, gaseous losses resulting from

denitrification may be up to double those via leaching³⁴. Since ²⁴⁰NPK and FYM receive similar levels 218 219 of nitrogen inputs (but differ in levels of readily available nitrogen), the effect of organic carbon input 220 can be evaluated. Mean annual nitrogen fluxes through the three pools following addition to the 221 different winter wheat crop systems (2000-2015) demonstrate progressively greater losses of nitrogen 222 inputs with increasing fertilisation (Fig. 5A). Whilst total nitrogen associated with wheat grain and 223 straw increases as nitrogen inputs increase, the proportion of total assimilated nitrogen reduces 224 (Supplementary Fig. 3), indicating progressively reduced long-term NUE. Nitrogen inputs required to 225 generate a 1 Mg grain harvest show similar trends (Fig. 5B). Set alongside inorganically fertilised systems, and particularly ²⁴⁰NPK, the FYM system shows altered allocation of added nitrogen to each 226 227 pool. Reduced total (Fig. 5A) and proportional (Supplementary Fig. 3) allocation of nitrogen to lost 228 pools and increased in nitrogen stocks (cf. Figs. 1 and 5A), suggest greater NUE. This increased 229 efficiency is tempered by reduced nitrogen allocation to crops and grain yields (Fig. 5). The 2000-2015 average grain yield from FYM-amended soil was 1.1 Mg ha⁻¹ less than from ²⁴⁰NPK fertilised soil 230 (Q=4.2; p=0.035). This is consistent with lower area-scaled (but greater yield-scaled) N₂O emissions 231 from soils receiving organic amendments rather than inorganic fertiliser³⁵. Measured and simulated 232 233 micropore-scale behaviour of soil extended composite phenotypes reflect our field-scale description of 234 nonequilibrium NUE, particularly reductions in the absolute and proportional size of the lost nitrogen 235 pool. Our data suggest that the application of FYM to soil is directly related to the reduction of nitrogen 236 losses since we observe a 1.5-fold increase in soil P_t and a four-fold increase in k in FYM-amended 237 over inorganically fertilised soils.

The extended composite phenotype and system resilience - Consistent with our hypothesis that nitrogen balance in soils would be altered under different emergent process-form states, we observe that the reduced area-scaled N₂O emissions in FYM amended soils associated with high connected porosity and predicted greater oxygen availability are associated with greater N_{tot} stocks over the long term. By combining physical structure with metagenetic and phenotypic description, we invoke a more fundamental and mechanistic conceptualisation of the role of organic matter in soil function. We demonstrate that the nitrogen-associated metagenome responds to nitrogen fertilization markedly, but 245 that form of nitrogen input exerts relatively little influence upon redox sensitive nirK-napAB and nirS-246 *nxrAB* gene abundances. Given the magnitude of the changes we observe in process-form state, it is 247 likely that OM controls N₂O emissions by influencing gene expression (phenotype) rather than altering 248 gene abundance (genotype). In effect, reduced nitrous oxide losses are a co-benefit of increased organic 249 inputs. This regulation results in nitrogen accumulation in soil conferring a degree of resilience, 250 consistent with previously observed reductions in the need for inorganic nitrogen application to achieve a target yield in organic carbon-rich soils³⁶. Evidence for higher SOC stocks being associated with 251 higher crop yields is equivocal³⁷⁻³⁸. However, resilience of rainfed crop yields to drought does appear 252 to be related to higher SOC stocks^{39,40}, although in the soils studied here such effects are only observed 253 254 where nitrogen availability limits crop yield⁴¹.

255 Conclusions -- Soil presents a multivariate conundrum in which simple, linear cause-effect 256 processes—however conceptually appealing—are difficult to reconcile with field data. Our adoption 257 of a novel non-linear and systems-level approach, founded on quantification of the process-form state 258 and interactions with the metagenome, shows that the behaviour of the soil system cannot be understood 259 by studying the behaviour of the physical and biotic components in isolation. Our emphasis is on a 260 parsimonious explanation for our observations. It shows that the form of nitrogen fertilisation in arable 261 systems does little to influence nitrogen-metabolism-associated gene assemblages, but control over 262 expression is exerted by the emergent process-form state which is dependent upon organic matter 263 inputs. Combined evidence suggests a mechanistic basis for why regular addition of organic matter to 264 arable soils is effective in reducing losses of nitrogen as N_2O to the atmosphere. Whilst the applications of FYM used in our experimental system are impractical⁴², the power-law relationship observed in Fig. 265 266 2 implies that similar levels of efficiency and resilience could be achieved at lower SOC input and 267 stocks than used here. One consequence of close coupling of carbon and nitrogen metabolism is that 268 increased N₂O emissions may offset any benefits for limiting global warming accruing from actively increasing SOC stocks^{43,44}. Our data suggest that optimally efficient systems can achieve both increased 269 270 SOC stocks and reduced N₂O emissions. The extended composite phenotype concept provides an integrative explanation why this might be so, based upon a biological and pore-centric understandingof soil processes.

273 Methods

274 **Field experiment and soil sampling** – Soil used to generate physical data relating to soil 275 structure and biological data derived from metagenomics was sampled from arable soils which had 276 received inorganic fertiliser inputs ranging from no inputs to different combinations of inorganic 277 nitrogen (ammonium nitrate), phosphorus and potassium, comparing rates of nitrogen inputs from 0 to 240 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ from contrasting treatments of the Broadbalk Long-Term field experiment established 278 279 in 1843 (51°48'35" N, 00°22'30" W). The experiment tests the long-term consequences of different 280 fertiliser and manure applications on the yield of winter wheat, as well as the effect of cessation of all 281 cultivation from a part of the site in 1882. Detailed description of the treatments compared in this 282 study are provided in the Supplementary Information: comprehensive details regarding the experiment history are provided by Macdonald et al.⁴⁵. We also studied two soils which had not been subject to 283 284 management for over a century: part of the original Broadbalk experiment which since 1882 has been 285 allowed to revert naturally to a woodland (referred to as the woodland treatment), and plots of the Highfield Ley-Arable experiment managed as a mown sward⁴⁵ (referred to as the grassland 286 287 treatment). Details of the management associated with the different soils compared in his work are 288 provided in Table I. Treatments are not replicated across the Broadbalk experiment. Therefore, 289 samples associated with metagenomics and X-ray computed tomography (both described below) are 290 by necessity *pseudo*-replicates. Assessment of differences between treatments as a consequence are 291 relative to the pooled within-plot variability in both ANOVA and PERMANOVA tests, rather than 292 some form of between-plot variability, and we cannot statistically separate spatial from "treatment" 293 effects. Our approach therefore tests the hypothesis that there are differences in measured and 294 simulated soil parameters, and assemblages and relative abundance of nitrogen cycle-associated genes 295 in the different plots at the Broadbalk site. We cannot conclude, based on statistical inference, that any 296 differences observed result from different fertility management directly. However, it is reasonable to 297 interpret our observations of between-plot differences in soil structure and relative gene abundance

298 within the context of the broader data relating to SOC and N_{tot} stocks, held by the *e*-RA electronic

database, and N₂O emissions—all of which are temporally replicated—to suggest explanations for the
patterns we observe.

301 Soil structure and hydrodynamic behaviour

302 X-ray computed tomography and image analysis – We generated X-ray CT images from grassland,

303 woodland, FYM, ¹⁴⁴NPK, ¹⁹²NK and nil treatments at 1.5 µm resolution and scales relevant to

304 microbes (10^{0} - 10^{2} µm), requiring imaging of 0.7 – 2.0 mm diameter soil aggregates. Aggregates (*n*

305 = 9) were selected at random from soil collected from each plot. Each was scanned using a Phoenix

306 Nanotom system (GE Measurement and Control solution, Wunstorf, Germany) operated at 90 kV, a

307 current of 65 µA and at a voxel resolution of 1.5 µm. Initial image analysis was performed using

308 Image-J. Images were threshold-adjusted using a bi-level bin approach⁴⁷ using QuantIm version 4.01.

309 Porosity was calculated directly from threshold-adjusted binary images, pore connectivity was

310 determined according to Vogel *et al.*⁴⁷.

311 Pore network permeability, hydraulic conductivity and oxygen diffusion in soil – The

312 permeability (k) and hydraulic conductivity (K) of soil pore networks, and the effective diffusion 313 coefficient (D_e) for oxygen within the pores was calculated for each soil structure imaged by X-ray CT using lattice Boltzmann simulation^{47,48}. Permeability and hydraulic conductivity were calculated 314 315 as described by Zhang et al.¹⁵. For oxygen diffusion, hierarchical soil structures revealed by X-ray 316 CT images indicate that gaseous oxygen in the atmosphere moves into soil primarily through its inter-317 aggregate pores and is then dissolved in water prior to moving into aggregates, largely by molecular 318 diffusion. Since gaseous oxygen diffuses up to 10^3 -fold more quickly than oxygen dissolved in water, 319 microbial community activity is constrained mainly by oxygen diffusion within aggregates. The 320 ability of aggregates to conduct dissolved oxygen and other soluble substrates depends on the intra-321 aggregate pore geometry, and we quantified it with effective diffusion coefficients calculated directly 322 by mimicking solute movement through the pore geometry using numerical simulations. The 323 movement of solutes, including oxygen, within the pore geometry is assumed to be diffusion

324 dominated. To account for the effect of temperature upon diffusion, we calculated a normalized

effective diffusion coefficient D_e ' dividing the effective diffusion coefficient by the molecular

diffusion coefficient of oxygen, D, in water at the same temperature, *i.e.*, $D_e' = D_e/D^{15,16}$. Detailed

327 description of pore-scale simulation is provided in the Supplementary Information.

328 **Modelling anoxia within soils** – Having established D_e ' for oxygen in the soil pore networks of each 329 soil, we simulated oxygen consumption by microbes under various levels of water saturation⁷. The 330 first step of simulation was to determine water distributions in the pore networks under different 331 matric potentials (ψ_m). Once water distributions were determined for a given ψ_m , we simulated 332 oxygen dissolution at air-water interfaces and then diffusion towards solid-water interfaces where it 333 was reduced by microbial respiration. Microbial consumption was assumed to occur in water-filled 334 voxels adjacent to the water-solid wall and described by a Monod kinetic equation. Oxygen diffusion 335 and reduction was simulated to steady state. As the development of anaerobic volume is a balance 336 between oxygen diffusion within the pore network and microbial consumption, we simulated two scenarios: fast $(k' = 1 \times 10^{-2})$ and slow $(k' = 1 \times 10^{-4})$ microbial consumption of oxygen to determine 337 338 whether the relative anaerobicity of soils under the same ψ_m was a consequence of their structures and 339 not microbial respiration rate. Once each system had reached a steady state, we considered sites where concentration of dimension-less dissolved oxygen was less than 20% to be anaerobic⁴⁹. We repeated 340 341 the procedure to achieve different water distributions calculated by varying $\psi_{\rm m}$ and then calculated the 342 proportional change in the volumetric anaerobic sites with the ψ_m for both the fast and slow microbial 343 reactions. Detailed description of these steps is provided in the Supplementary Information.

344 DNA extraction, sequencing and quality control – Three *pseudo*-replicate samples of soils
345 from the grassland, woodland, FYM, ¹⁴⁴NPK, ¹⁹²NK and PK treatments were sampled in October
346 2015. Soil community DNA was extracted from a minimum of 2 g of thawed soil the using MoBio
347 PowerSoil DNA isolation kits (Mo Bio Laboratories, Inc. Carlsbad, CA). 10 µg of high-quality DNA
348 was provided for sequencing for each of the samples. Shotgun metagenomic sequencing of DNA was
349 performed using 150-base paired-end chemistry on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 sequencing platform by
350 Beijing Novogene Bioinformatics Technology Co. Ltd. (Beijing, China). The generated raw

sequences were limited to a minimum quality score of 25 and a minimum read length of 70 bases
using Trimmomatic⁵⁰.

353 Bioinformatic analysis of metagenome sequences - To assess general abundance of genes in 354 metagenomes, we mapped individual metagenomic sequences to the RefSeq non-redundant (NR) protein database held at NCBI (downloaded August 22nd, 2018) using DIAMOND version 0.8.27⁵³ in 355 356 BLASTX mode imposing a bitscore cut-off of 55. For each sequence, only the match with the highest 357 bitscore was considered. Sequences not matching the NR database were considered currently unclassified. MEGAN Ultimate version 6.10.2⁵² was used to associate metagenome sequences with 358 Kyoto Encyclopaedia of Genes and Genomes⁵³ (KEGG) functional orthologs (ko) and modules (M). 359 360 From all the reads binned to at least one KEGG orthologous group, we selected those associated with 361 nitrogen metabolism (ko00910), amino acid metabolism (ko09105) and metabolism of other amino 362 acids (ko09106) for detailed study of distribution differences between soils. Nitrous oxide is a 363 product of autotrophic and heterotrophic nitrification pathways as well as denitrification. Emission rates differ markedly, both between processes and at different soil saturations⁵⁴. Emission rates of 364 N_2O due to denitrification are far greater than from either nitrification pathway⁵⁴. Not only is 365 366 nitrification a minor source of N₂O, but arable systems also exhibit the lowest maximum potential 367 nitrification-derived N₂O emissions across a broad range of ecosystems, and this declines with increasing management intensity⁵⁵. For these reasons, we assumed that N₂O emissions were 368 369 predominantly driven by the influence of oxygen upon anaerobic respiration via the denitrification 370 pathway. For each module in the KEGG ontology, genes may be associated with several sub-modules. 371 These are not formed of exclusive sets of genes and so are likely to reflect a range of function and 372 ecophysiologies. In addition, the ontology does not distinguish between amoABC associated with 373 nitrification and *pmoABC* associated with methane oxidation. Details of individual genes included in 374 the analysis is provided in the Supplementary Information and the distribution of genes across 375 different modules are shown in Fig. 3.

Emissions of nitrous oxide from soil – All nitrogen fertilisers were applied on April 12th, 2019,
 FYM was applied 17th September 2018 and 23rd September 2019. Measurement of gaseous emissions

from ²⁴⁰NPK, FYM and PK soils were taken on eleven dates between April 11th and October 7th, 2019. 378 Measurements from ¹⁴⁴NPK and ¹⁹²NK soils were taken on eight dates between April 23rd and October 379 7th, 2019. Gas sampling was performed using in-field static chambers²⁸. Three chambers (dimensions 380 40 cm x 40 cm x 25 cm height) were inserted to a depth of 5 cm in soil of each treatment. Details of 381 382 sampling times and frequency are provided in the Supplementary Information. N₂O concentrations in 383 gas samples collected in the field were analysed on a PerkinElmer Clarus 500 Gas Chromatograph 384 (GC) equipped with a TurboMatrix 110 automated headspace sampler, fitted with an electron capture 385 detector set at 300 °C for N₂O analysis. The static chamber approach used here is prone to errors 386 derived from GC instrumental noise and temperature and pressure changes within the chamber leading to artefactual negative fluxes of N₂O⁵⁶. To avoid these artefacts, only non-zero flux estimates 387 388 were used to analyse differences in N₂O emissions between treatments: negative fluxes were removed 389 from the analysis. We summed total N₂O emissions and tested for differences in the mean N₂O 390 emissions between treatments for the sampling period assessed on an area basis per day. 391 Non-equilibrium nitrogen use efficiency of the soil-plant system – The balance of nitrogen 392 inputs, off-takes in wheat grain and straw and accumulation in arable soils was estimated for FYM, ²⁴⁰NPK, ¹⁹²NPK, ¹⁴⁴NPK and PK Broadbalk fertiliser treatments between 2000 and 2015. Historical 393 data relating to nitrogen inputs (as ammonium nitrate fertiliser or FYM, within seed grain and 394

atmospheric deposition), off-takes (as harvested grain and straw), and soil nitrogen stocks were

acquired from the e-RA managed database of data from Rothamsted's long-term experiments (data

available from http://doi.org/10.23637/rbk1-yldS10115-01). The end-of-season fate of annual

398 nitrogen additions in the form of inorganic fertiliser or FYM introduced to the Broadbalk continuous

399 wheat plots was separated into three pools: (1) that taken up for the current season's production (*i.e.*

400 nitrogen content in straw and harvested grain); (2) the pool held within the system for potential use in

401 the future (*i.e.* change in soil nitrogen stock); and (3) that lost from the system without being utilised

402 (e.g. as N₂O emitted to the atmosphere or nitrate leached to groundwater). The agronomic

403 performance of each plot was then evaluated by nonequilibrium nitrogen use efficiency, here defined

404 as the ratio between nitrogen input and (1)+(2) above.

405 Availability of data

- 406 Data relating to the Broadbalk and Highfield long-term experiments can be accessed *via* the electronic
- 407 Rothamsted Archive (http://www.era.rothamsted.ac.uk/experiment/rbk1 and
- 408 http://www.era.rothamsted.ac.uk/experiment/rrn1, respectively). Historical data relating to nitrogen
- 409 inputs (as ammonium nitrate fertiliser or FYM, within seed grain and atmospheric deposition), off-
- 410 takes (as harvested grain and straw), and soil nitrogen stocks are available from
- 411 http://doi.org/10.23637/rbk1-yldS10115-01. All soil images are available upon reasonable request
- 412 from the corresponding author. Code relating to lattice Boltzmann simulation is available upon
- 413 request from Xiaoxian Zhang, Rothamsted Research. Sequence data associated with this research
- 414 have been deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive
- 415 <u>https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/browser/view/PRJEB43407?show=reads.</u>

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563 Figure and Table legends

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Figure 1. Trends in *A* soil organic carbon (SOC) and *B* soil total nitrogen (N_{tot}) stocks in unmanaged woodland and grassland soils, and arable soils of the Broadbalk Winter Wheat Experiment receiving farmyard manure (FYM) annually, or inorganic fertiliser at rates of 240 kg-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ as ammonium nitrate combined with phosphorus and potassium (²⁴⁰NPK), 144 kg-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ combined with phosphorus, and potassium (¹⁴⁴NPK), 192 kg-N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ with potassium but no phosphorus (¹⁹²NK) and soil which has received no fertilisation (nil). Soil management is summarised in Table I.

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Figure 2. Contrasting long-term soil management results in quantitatively different process-form 572 573 states. A - Geometric mean functional relationship between soil organic carbon (SOC) and total 574 nitrogen (N_{tot}) spanning the years 1843 – 2015 measured in farmyard manure (FYM)-amended, inorganically-fertilised (²⁴⁰NPK, ¹⁴⁴NPK, ¹⁹²NK) and unfertilised (nil) arable soils of the Broadbalk 575 576 Winter Wheat Experiment, and unmanaged (woodland and grassland) soils. Slope = 0.088(bootstrapped 95% confidence interval, 0.085 - 0.091), t = 60.7, $p = 6.5 \times 10^{-63}$; $\rho = 0.990$, t = 60.1, p = 0.090577 1.3x10⁻⁶². **B** – FYM-amended, ¹⁴⁴NPK, ¹⁹²NK and PK arable soils, and woodland and grassland 578 579 unmanaged soils are described by a combination of the connectivity of pore space, established from 580 X-ray computed tomography, and simulated saturated hydraulic conductivity (K, in units of μ m s⁻¹)— 581 a measure of capacity, representing the maximum potential movement of resources through pore 582 networks to organisms. Data point size is proportional to SOC stocks (Mg ha^{-1}) in each soil, shown in Supplementary Fig 1A. C - Process-form states control anoxia within the same soils. Low-SOC, low-583 connected porosity soils (inorganically fertilised and unfertilised arable soils ¹⁴⁴NPK, ¹⁹²NK and nil) 584 contain large volumes of anoxic microsites. Across a range of matric potential (ψ_m), the predicted 585 volume of anoxic sites is consistently larger in these soils than high-SOC, high-connected porosity 586 587 soil (FYM-amended arable, and grassland and woodland soils). Anoxic pore space was modelled 588 under conditions of relatively low microbial respiration, $k' = 8.5 \times 10^{-3}$. Key shown in A relates to all 589 three figures.

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Figure 3. Nitrogen metabolism-associated gene assemblages in farmyard manure (FYM)-amended, 591 inorganically fertilised (144NPK, 192NK and PK) arable of the Broadbalk Winter Wheat Experiment, 592 593 and unmanaged (woodland and grassland) soils determined from shotgun metagenomics. Left -594 heatmap representation and bi-hierarchical clustering of gene orthologs (vertical clustering) and soil 595 management (horizontal clustering) based upon centred-log ratio scaled ortholog relative abundance. 596 Genes are identified by their KEGG ortholog (K) number and gene name. The largest log₂-fold 597 difference between soils is shown together with a measure of significance of the difference 598 determined using Wald's test and Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate correction (p_{adi}) . **Right** – 599 association of individual genes with nitrogen metabolism-related functional units of gene sets 600 associated with metabolic pathways (modules). Closed circles indicate genes for which a significant

difference in abundance between soils was identified, open circles indicate genes for which no
 significant difference was observed. The KEGG ontology does not discriminate between the genes
 amoABC associated with ammonia oxidation and *pmoABC* associated with methane oxidation.

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Figure 4. Adjusted mean estimates of nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from farmyard manure (FYM)amended and inorganically fertilised (²⁴⁰NPK, ¹⁴⁴NPK, ¹⁹²NK and PK) soils of the Broadbalk Winter Wheat Experiment measured between April and November 2019. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean, *t* and probabilities (*p*) indicate the results of Holm-Šidák *a priori* contrasts of FYM, ¹⁴⁴NPK, ¹⁹²NK and PK mean N₂O emissions to ²⁴⁰NPK emissions.

610

611 Figure 5. Nonequilibrium nitrogen use efficiency of farmyard manure (FYM)-amended and inorganically fertilised (240NPK, 192NPK, 144NPK and PK) soils of the Broadbalk Winter Wheat 612 Experiment between 2000 and 2015 indicates divergent allocation of A – absolute nitrogen inputs to 613 614 arable systems and **B** - nitrogen inputs supporting 1 Mg of grain production, between grain, straw, soil 615 and lost pools. Small increases in nitrogen soil stocks observed for inorganic plots could be due to 616 measurement error, as these systems are assumed to have reached steady states. C – Grain yields for 617 inorganically fertilised and FYM-amended soils for the same period. Box plots show interpolated 618 25% and 75% quartiles, the median is represented as a horizontal line. Whiskers indicate minimum 619 and maximum values. Each treatment mean is represented by a X, the line connects treatment means. 620 Results of analysis of variance (ANOVA) are shown together with estimates of treatment effect size 621 (ω^2) upon yield, calculated as $(SS_{bg} - df_{bg} MS_{wg})/(SS_{total} + MS_{wg})$ where SS indicates the sum of 622 squares, df the degree of freedom, MS the mean square and the subscripts bg and wg indicate 623 between-group and within-group respectively. Post hoc pairwise comparisons indicate that the mean 624 PK grain yield was significantly lower than the means of all other treatments (smallest difference, Q =11.7, $p = 2x10^{-12}$). FYM mean grain yield was significantly lower than the mean yields of both the 625 ¹⁹²NPK and ²⁴⁰NPK treatments (smallest difference, Q = 4.2, p = 0.033). There was no significant 626 difference between the mean grain yields of FYM and ¹⁴⁴NPK treatments. 627

628

Table I. Fertility management associated with arable soils of the Broadbalk Winter Wheat
 Experiment and associated unmanaged soils used in various aspects of this study.

631

632 **Table II.** Topology-related parameters derived directly from binary images generated from X-ray 633 computed tomography of aggregates from farmyard manure (FYM)-amended and inorganically fertilized (144NPK, 192NK and PK) arable soils of the Broadbalk Winter Wheat Experiment and 634 635 unmanaged woodland and grassland (total and connected porosity) and estimates of permeability (k), 636 effective diffusion coefficient of oxygen (D_e) which is normalised by dividing the diffusion 637 coefficient of oxygen in water without pore constraints, and hydraulic conductivity (K) of the soil 638 pore networks derived from lattice Boltzman simulation (and where K = gk/v where g is the 639 gravitational constant, k the permeability, and v the viscosity of water). The mean associated with 640 each parameter is provided together with the standard error of the mean in parentheses. Results of 641 analysis of variance (ANOVA) are shown together with estimates of treatment effect size (ω^2) for 642 each parameter, calculated as $(SS_{bg} - df_{bg} \cdot MS_{wg})/(SS_{total} + MS_{wg})$ where SS indicates the sum of squares, 643 df the degree of freedom, MS the mean square and the subscripts bg and wg indicate between-group 644 and within-group respectively.

645

Supplementary Figure 1. A - Soil organic carbon (SOC) stocks for the years 1966 - 2015 646 measured in farmyard manure (FYM)-amended, inorganically fertilised (²⁴⁰NPK, ¹⁴⁴NPK, ¹⁹²NK and 647 648 PK) and unfertilised (nil) arable soils of the Broadbalk Winter Wheat Experiment and unmanaged 649 grassland soil. B - Soil total nitrogen (N_{tot}) stocks for the same period and treatments. Box plots 650 indicate the interpolated 25% and 75% quartiles with the median represented as a horizontal line. 651 Whiskers indicate minimum and maximum values. Results of analysis of variance (ANOVA) are 652 shown together with estimates of treatment effect size (ω^2) upon SOC and N_{tot}, calculated as (SS_{bg}-653 $df_{bg} MS_{wg}/(SS_{total}+MS_{wg})$ where SS indicates the sum of squares, df the degree of freedom, MS the 654 mean square and the subscripts bg and wg indicate between-group and within-group respectively.

655

656 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Mean estimates (n = 3) of nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from farmyard 657 manure (FYM)-amended and inorganically fertilised (²⁴⁰NPK, ¹⁴⁴NPK, ¹⁹²NK and PK) soils of the 658 Broadbalk Winter Wheat Experiment measured in 2019. Emissions were measured discontinuously 659 on the dates shown using in-field static chambers. Daily precipitation measured on a 254-mm 660 diameter rain gauge located 500 m east of the field experiment together with the potential soil 661 moisture deficit (PSMD) are also shown.

662
 663 Supplementary Figure 3. Nonequilibrium nitrogen use efficiency of farmyard manure (FYM) 664 amended and inorganically fertilised (²⁴⁰NPK, ¹⁹²NPK, ¹⁴⁴NPK and PK) treatments of the Broadbalk
 665 Winter Wheat Experiment between 2000 and 2015. The proportion of total nitrogen inputs derived
 666 from ammonium nitrate fertiliser or FYM, associated with seed grain and atmospheric deposition

allocated to harvested grain and straw, and soil and lost pools.

668













Table I.

Treatment	Annual fertility management	Designation
Arable, composted farmyard manure	35 Mg ha ⁻¹ since 1843	FYM
Arable, 240 kg-N ha ⁻¹ inorganic fertiliser ^a	240 kg-N ha ⁻¹ since 1985; (144 kg-N ha ⁻¹ between 1852 and 1984)	²⁴⁰ NPK
Arable 192 kg-N ha ⁻¹ , inorganic fertiliser ^a	192 kg-N ha ⁻¹ since 1968	¹⁹² NPK
Arable, 144 kg-N ha ⁻¹ inorganic fertiliser ^a	144 kg-N ha ⁻¹ since 1852	¹⁴⁴ NPK
Arable, inorganic fertiliser ^a , no phosphorus	No triple superphosphate additions since 1968; (96 kg-N ha ⁻¹ between 1968 and 2001; 192 kg-N ha ⁻¹ since)	¹⁹² NK
Arable, inorganic fertiliser ^a , no nitrogen	No ammonium nitrate additions since 1852	РК
Arable, unfertilised	No fertiliser additions since 1852	nil
Grassland	None, grassland since 1838	grassland
Woodland	None, woodland since 1882	woodland

^a – unless stated otherwise, inorganic fertiliser included inorganic nitrogen as ammonium nitrate, 90 kg-K ha⁻¹ as K₂SO₄, 35 kg-P ha⁻¹ as triple superphosphate [Ca(H₂PO₄)₂·H₂O], and 12 kg-Mg ha⁻¹ as kieserite (MgSO₄·H₂O)

Table II.

	Total Porosity (P _t) / %	Connected Porosity (P _c) / %	Permeability (k) / μm²	Diffusion Coefficient (D _e ')	Hydraulic Conductivity (<i>K</i>) / μm s ⁻¹
	Welch ANOVA; $F_{5,20.8} = 14.1,$ $p = 4.5 \times 10^{-6}$	Welch ANOVA; $F_{5,20.7} = 14.2,$ $p = 4.3 \times 10^{-6}$	Welch ANOVA; $F_{5,21} = 36.5$, $p = 1.4 \times 10^{-9}$	ANOVA; $F_{5,47} = 19.5$, $p = 1.8 \times 10^{-10}$	Welch ANOVA; $F_{5,21} = 15.8,$ $p = 2.1 \times 10^{-6}$
	$\omega^2 = 0.467$	$\omega^2 = 0.459$	$\omega^2 = 0.775$	$\omega^2 = 0.636$	$\omega^2 = 0.361$
woodland	33.1 (1.3)	32.8 (1.4)	0.396 (0.131)	0.278 (0.020)	8.86 (2.94)
grassland	31.0 (1.2)	30.8 (1.2)	1.13 (0.089)	0.254 (0.015)	9.61 (1.61)
FYM	37.7 (1.6)	37.5 (1.6)	0.265 (0.028)	0.335 (0.023)	5.92 (0.62)
¹⁴⁴ NPK	23.6 (2.4)	22.4 (2.7)	0.045 (0.012)	0.135 (0.016)	1.01 (0.27)
¹⁹² NK	24.9 (4.5)	23.4 (5.1)	0.065 (0.027)	0.151 (0.032)	1.45 (0.60)
РК	22.6 (1.7)	21.6 (1.8)	0.048 (0.011)	0.129 (0.014)	1.07 (0.24)