

# Nitrification inhibitors effectively target N<sub>2</sub>O-producing *Nitrosospira* spp. in tropical soil

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## Summary

The nitrification inhibitors (NIs) 3,4-dimethylpyrazole (DMPP) and dicyandiamide (DCD) can effectively reduce N<sub>2</sub>O emissions; however, which species are targeted and the effect of these NIs on the microbial nitrifier community is still unclear. Here, we identified the ammonia oxidizing bacteria (AOB) species linked to N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and evaluated the effects of urea and urea with DCD and DMPP on the nitrifying community in a 258 day field experiment under sugarcane. Using an *amoA* AOB amplicon sequencing approach and mining a previous dataset of 16S *rRNA* sequences, we characterized the most likely N<sub>2</sub>O-producing AOB as a *Nitrosospira* spp. and identified *Nitrosospira* (AOB), *Nitrososphaera* (archaeal ammonia oxidizer) and *Nitrospira* (nitrite-oxidizer) as the most abundant, present nitrifiers. The fertilizer treatments had no effect on the alpha and beta diversities of the AOB communities. Interestingly, we found three clusters of co-varying variables with nitrifier operational taxonomic units (OTUs): the N<sub>2</sub>O-producing AOB *Nitrosospira* with N<sub>2</sub>O, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, water-filled pore space (WFPS) and pH; AOA *Nitrososphaera* with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and pH; and AOA *Nitrososphaera* and NOB *Nitrospira* with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, which suggests different drivers. These results support the co-occurrence of non-N<sub>2</sub>O-producing *Nitrososphaera* and *Nitrospira* in the unfertilized soils and the promotion of N<sub>2</sub>O-producing *Nitrosospira* under urea fertilization. Further, we suggest that

DMPP is a more effective NI than DCD in tropical soil under sugarcane.

## Introduction

Anthropogenic inputs of N fertilizers to agriculture have stimulated agricultural soils to contribute up to 59% of anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Fields, 2004; Robertson and Vitousek, 2009; Ciais, 2013; Signor and Cerri, 2013). Because N<sub>2</sub>O has a global warming potential 298 times that of CO<sub>2</sub> (Ravishankara *et al.*, 2009) and diverts N that would otherwise be used by the crop, reducing N<sub>2</sub>O emissions is a major target for sustainable management practices (Venterea *et al.*, 2012). The N<sub>2</sub>O emitted from a soil is the cumulative result of abiotic and biotic N<sub>2</sub>O-generating pathways (Graham *et al.*, 2014; Hu *et al.*, 2015). The two main biotic processes contributing to N<sub>2</sub>O in agricultural soils are nitrification (oxidation of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> to NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and denitrification (reduction of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> to N<sub>2</sub>O to N<sub>2</sub>; reviewed in (Guo *et al.*, 2013; Ruser and Schulz, 2015). Nitrification is carried out by a few bacterial and archaeal genera; ammonia oxidation is mediated by the ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA), such as the Thaumarchaeota *Nitrososphaera* and *Nitrosopumilus* (Walker *et al.*, 2010; Offre *et al.*, 2013) and the ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB), such as the Betaproteobacteria *Nitrosomonas* and *Nitrospira*; nitrite oxidation is carried out by nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB), including the Nitrospirae *Nitrospira* and the Alphaproteobacteria *Nitrobacter*. Denitrification is carried out by microorganisms widely dispersed over the bacterial, archaeal and fungal domains and denitrification genes can also be carried by nitrifiers in what is termed nitrifier denitrification (Kool *et al.*, 2010). Further, the process of complete nitrification by the recently discovered comammox bacteria, which have so far been found in the NOB *Nitrospira* genus, might also contribute to N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Liu *et al.*, 2017).

Nitrification and denitrification processes are regulated by the abiotic factors temperature, oxygen availability, moisture, ammonia and nitrate availability, carbon availability and pH (Wallenstein *et al.*, 2006; Butterbach-Bahl *et al.*, 2013). These factors also affect the distribution and niche differentiation of nitrifiers; for example, the AOB numerically dominate in neutral soils with high NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>

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concentrations while the AOA numerically dominate in acidic soils with low  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations (Di *et al.*, 2009, 2010a). These general ranges can vary within taxonomic groups; the AOB *Nitrosospira* are more common in acid soils (Pommerening-Röser and Koops, 2005) compared to the AOB *Nitrosomonas*, which are uncommon in acidic environments (pH 4–5) (Song *et al.*, 2016; Li *et al.*, 2018). The AOB *Nitrosospira* isolated from acid soils in general have urease enzymes catalysing the breakdown of urea to ammonia (De Boer and Kowalchuk, 2001), and these ureolytic AOB characteristics allow them to grow at low pH with urea source (Pommerening-Röser and Koops, 2005). However, there are also exceptions to the general rule, for example, a Gammaproteobacteria AOB, Candidatus *Nitrosoglobus*, was recently isolated from acidic soils with survival in conditions down to pH 2 (Hayatsu *et al.*, 2017). Further, the nitrite oxidizer bacteria *Nitrobacter* and *Nitrospira* have optimal growth under higher and lower nitrite supplies, respectively, which is linked to their ecological niches (Attard *et al.*, 2010; Nowka *et al.*, 2015).

Nitrification is doubly implicated in  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production, either directly or indirectly by producing  $\text{NO}_3^-$  as the basis for denitrification, and has been shown to be the main process involved in  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions in some Brazilian sugarcane soils (Liu *et al.*, 2016; Soares *et al.*, 2016; Wu *et al.*, 2017a, 2017b; Lourenço *et al.*, 2018a, 2018b). The addition of nitrification inhibitors with nitrogen fertilizers is currently being explored as a sustainable management practice in Brazilian sugarcane (Signor *et al.*, 2013; Soares *et al.*, 2015, 2016). In agriculture, dicyandiamide (DCD) and 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate (DMPP) are commercially-used nitrification inhibitors which are thought to be Cu-chelating agents acting on ammonia monooxygenase (Morales *et al.*, 2015). These inhibitors have been shown to effectively reduce  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions by 40%–95% in temperate and tropical soils (Misselbrook *et al.*, 2014; Gilsanz *et al.*, 2016; Soares *et al.*, 2016). The effects of DCD and DMPP are generally shown to act on ammonia oxidizing bacterial abundances, perhaps because this group increases with increasing N fertilization and likely contributes to the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions under N fertilization in these studies (Morales *et al.*, 2015; Soares *et al.*, 2016). Beyond lowering  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions, nitrogen fertilization with nitrification inhibitors might have complex effects on ammonia and nitrite oxidizer distributions (Stempfhuber *et al.*, 2016). It is yet unknown which nitrifiers are specifically affected by nitrogen fertilization with the nitrification inhibitors DCD and DMPP, especially in tropical conditions.

Here, our objectives were to identify the AOB species linked to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions in our previous experiment (Soares *et al.*, 2016) and to compare the effects of urea fertilization with or without nitrification inhibitors on *amoA*-containing nitrifier abundances. We sequenced *amoA*

AOB amplicons and mined the previous 16S rRNA amplicons from a 258 day field experiment encompassing treatments with urea and two nitrification inhibitors, DCD and DMPP, on soils growing ratoon sugarcane. To gain insight into the environmental niches of different nitrifiers, we included the previously generated 16S rRNA gene, nitrification and denitrification gene copy numbers and soil environmental variable datasets (Soares *et al.*, 2016). To our knowledge, no studies to date have examined the dynamics of the nitrifier community growing in tropical soil nitrification inhibitors in urea fertilized soils.

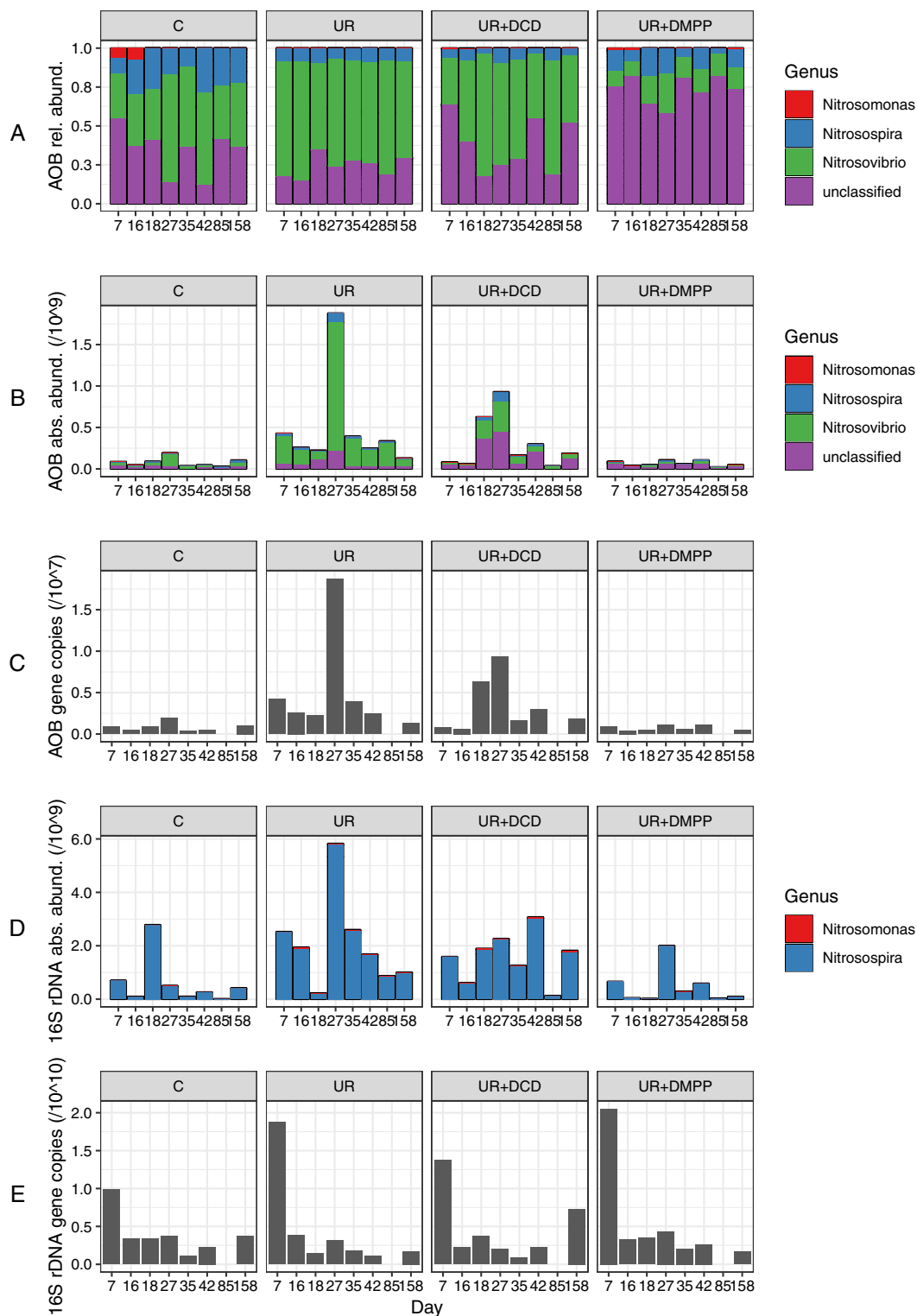
## Results

### *amoA* AOB community sequencing coverage and composition

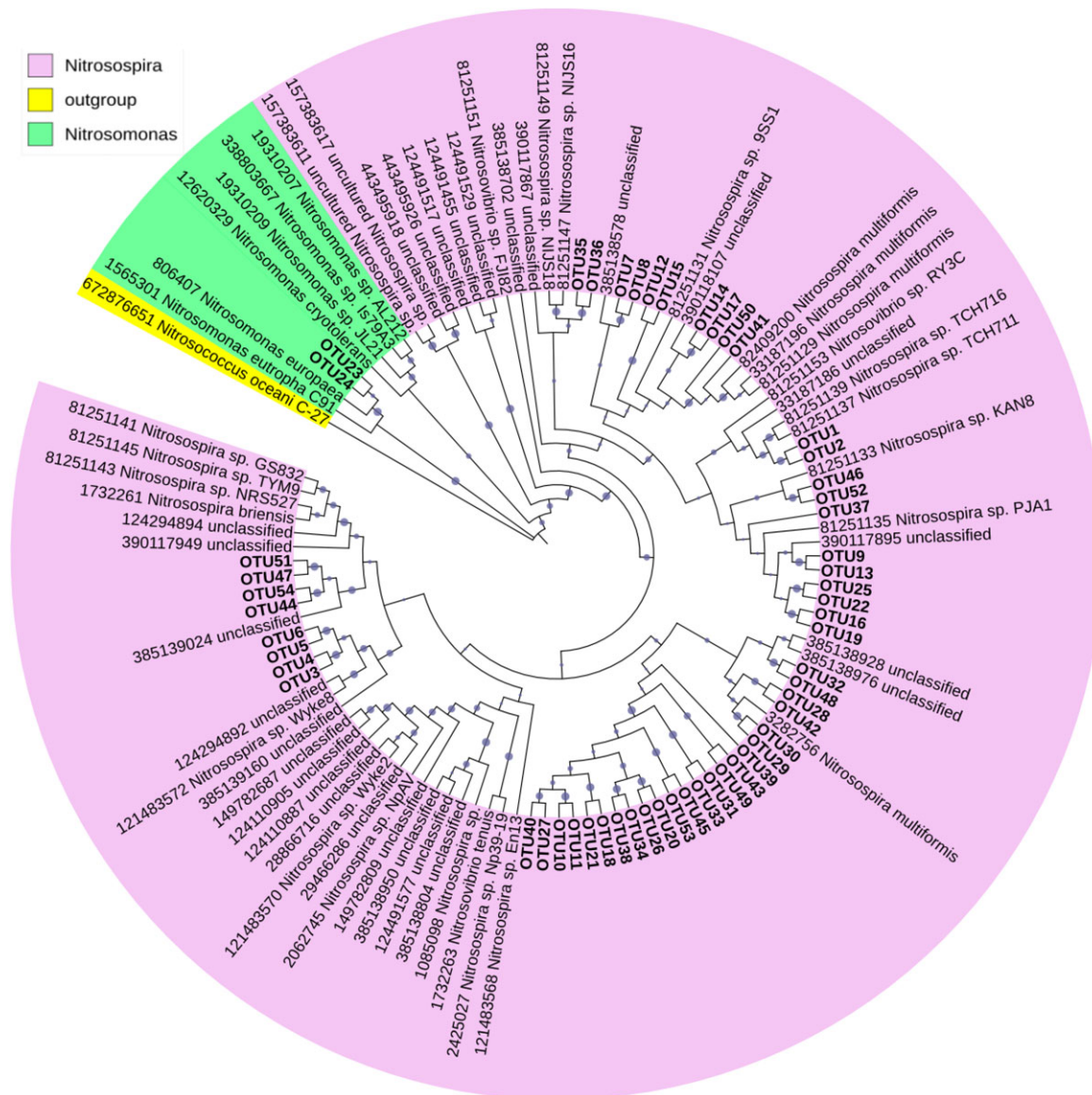
Processing of the *amoA* AOB amplicon data resulted in 68 211 sequences, which were clustered into 54 OTUs. The number of sequences ranged between 121 and 3019 across the 127 samples (4 treatments  $\times$  8 time points  $\times$  4 replicates with one outlier sample removed). The samples had average Good's coverage of at least 94% (Supporting Information Table S1), which was supported in the rarefaction curve results, with more sequences not adding more species in the samples (Supporting Information Fig. S3). At the genus level, the AOB community was composed of unclassified Betaproteobacteria, *Nitrosomonas* and *Nitrosospira* (which included the *Nitrosovibrio* classification; Fig. 1A). The phylogenetic tree of the *amoA* AOB OTUs with reference sequences indicated that these aligned with *Nitrosospira* (52/54 *amoA* OTUs) and *Nitrosomonas* (2/54 *amoA* OTUs; Fig. 2). In support of the low diversity of the *amoA* AOB communities, the 16S rRNA gene dataset revealed only two *Nitrosospira* OTUs (abundant OTU 30 and rare 16S rRNA OTU 1102) and one *Nitrosomonas* OTU (rare 16S rRNA OTU 2875). Further, the *Nitrosospira* 16S rRNA OTUs had similar absolute abundances as the *Nitrosospira amoA* AOB OTUs across the treatments (Fig. 1B and D), supporting the idea that both amplicon datasets adequately covered the AOB communities in the samples.

### Treatment effects on *amoA* AOB community beta diversity

Beta dispersion analysis on all the samples revealed that treatment, but not time point, had a significant effect on the AOB community dispersions ( $F = 3.6529$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Subsequent beta diversity analysis revealed that time point, considering all treatments, had no effect on the AOB community structures (Supporting Information Table S2). Ordination plots showed that the *amoA* AOB communities overlapped between treatments, considering all time points, according to 95% confidence intervals



**Fig. 1.** Taxonomic distributions of the *amoA* AOB amplicon samples by (A) relative abundances or (B) absolute abundance estimates within genus and (C) the *amoA* AOB gene copy numbers. Also included are the (D) taxonomic distributions of the 16S *rRNA* amplicon samples by absolute abundance estimates within the *Nitrosomonadaceae* family and (E) the gene copy numbers of 16S *rRNA* gene sequences. Mean values within treatments and time points are shown. Treatments were the unfertilized control (C), urea (UR), urea with dicyanamide (UR + DCD) and urea with 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate (UR + DMPP). Day = days after fertilization. [Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

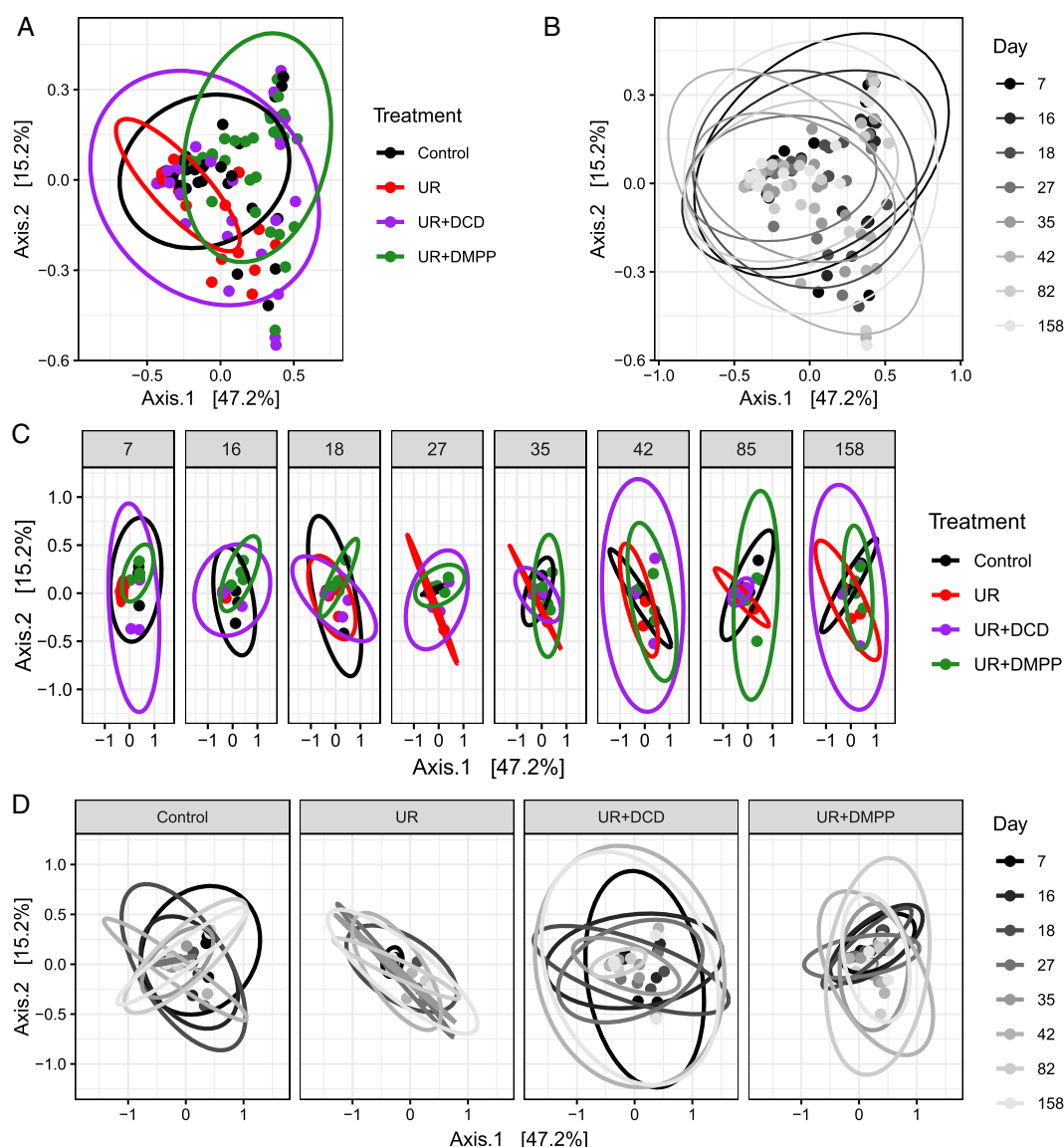


**Fig. 2.** Phylogenetic analysis of *amoA* AOB OTUs and reference *amoA* sequences from the FUNGENE database based on the maximum likelihood distance method. Bootstrap values (1000 replicates) of less than 90% are depicted by the blue dots on the branches. The *Nitrosospira* are depicted with purple colour, *Nitrosomonas* with green colour and the outgroup *Nitrososoccus* with the yellow colour. [Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

(Fig. 3A). Within time points and treatments, the beta dispersions of the *amoA* AOB communities were unaffected by treatment and time point, respectively. Treatment had a significant effect on the *amoA* AOB community structures only within Days 7 and 16 (PERMANOVA;  $p < 0.1$ ; Supporting Information Table S2). However, pairwise comparisons revealed that no *amoA* AOB community structures were significantly different between treatments within these time points. Time point had no effect on *amoA* AOB community structures within any treatment. Ordination plots within time point revealed that the *amoA* AOB communities did not cluster separately for treatments nor time points at 95% confidence intervals (Fig. 3C and D).

#### Treatment and time point effects on *amoA* AOB community alpha diversity

The alpha diversities of the *amoA* AOB communities ranged from 1 to 3 based on Shannon index (Fig. 4). Considering all time points, treatment had an effect on the alpha diversity of the *amoA* AOB communities (chi-squared value 33.884,  $p$  value =  $2.096e^{-07}$ ), but time point had no effect on the alpha diversities when considering all treatments. Post hoc testing over all time points found that the *amoA* AOB communities in the DMPP treatment had higher alpha diversity compared to the other treatments (Dunn's test,  $p < 0.05$ ; Fig. 4). Within time point, treatment had an effect on the *amoA* AOB alpha diversities for Days 7, 18, 27, with chi-squared values of 7.6103 ( $p$  value 0.05479), 4.7792 ( $p$  value 0.1887) and



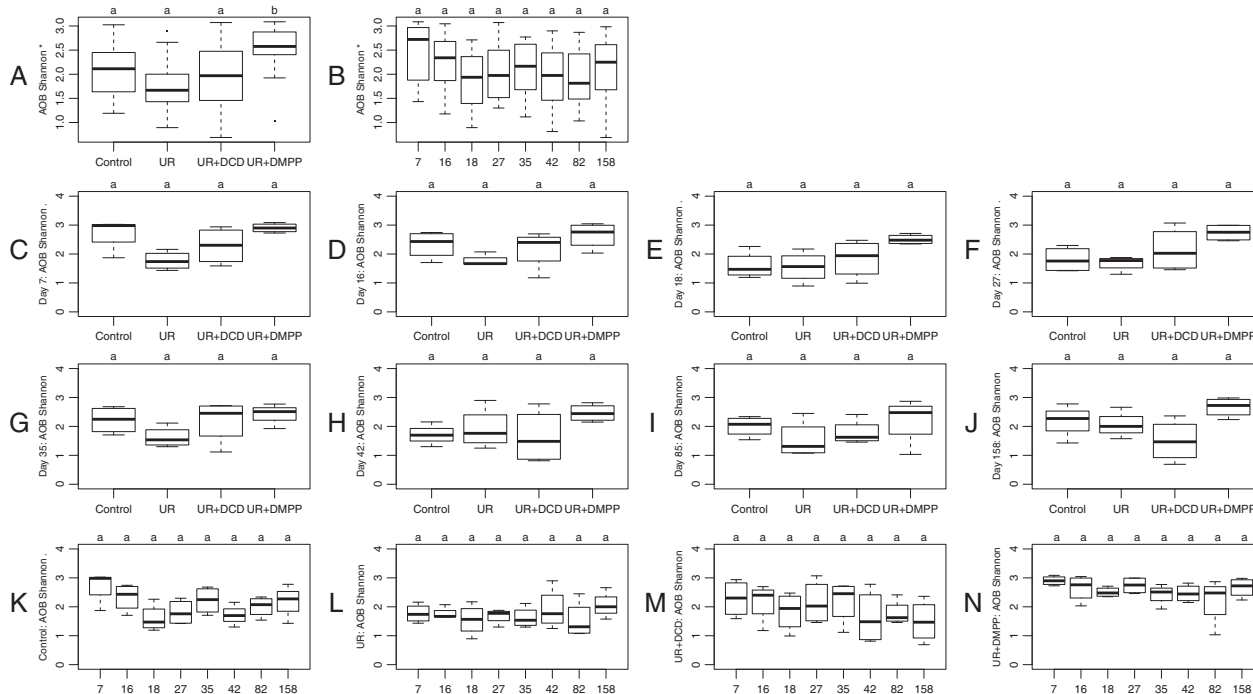
**Fig. 3.** Ordination plots of the ammonia-oxidizing bacterial communities using PCoA on Bray–Curtis sample distances based on *amoA* AOB OTU relative abundances ( $n = 127$ ) (A) across all time points ( $n = 127$ ) and (B) across all treatments, (C) by treatment within each time point ( $n = 16$ ) and (D) by time point within each treatment ( $n = 24$ ). Time points were 7, 16, 18, 27, 35, 42, 82 and 158 days after fertilization. Treatments were unfertilized (Control, black), urea (UR, red), urea with dicyanamide (UR + DCD, purple), urea with 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate (UR + DMPP, green). Confidence intervals of 0.95 are drawn around the treatments or days as ellipses. [Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

6.7721 ( $p$  value 0.07953), respectively. However, post hoc testing revealed no different pairs. Within treatment, time point had an effect on the *amoA* AOB community alpha diversities only for the Control treatment (chi-squared 12.534,  $p$  value = 0.08431); further, pairwise post hoc tests revealed no difference in alpha diversity between treatments.

#### Differential abundance of nitrifier 16S rRNA OTUs and treatment group indicators

From the 16S rRNA variance-stabilized abundances, four genera of nitrifiers were represented: *Nitrosomonas* (1

OTU), *Nitrososphaera* (37 OTUs), *Nitrosospira* (2 OTUs) and *Nitrospira* (11 OTUs). The variance-stabilized trajectories of *Nitrosospira*, *Nitrososphaera* and *Nitrospira* 16S rRNA OTUs across the four treatments can be seen in Supporting Information Fig. S4. The two 16S rRNA *Nitrosospira* OTUs showed a similar trend across the treatments, with higher abundances in the urea and urea with DCD treatments compared to the control and the urea with DMPP treatments. The 16S rRNA *Nitrososphaera* OTUs showed three trends, with OTUs 11 and 429 having lowest abundances in the control treatment and higher abundances in the treatments with urea, with the highest



**Fig. 4.** Alpha diversity of the *amoA* AOB communities calculated from rarefied raw abundances as affected by (A) treatment, for all time points, (B) time point, for all treatments, (C–J) treatment, within each time point and (K–N) time point, within each treatment. Treatments were unfertilized (C), urea (UR), urea with dicyanamide (UR + DCD) and urea with 3,4-dimethylpyrazole phosphate (UR + DMPP); time points were 7, 16, 18, 27, 35, 42, 82, 158 days after fertilization. The y-axis label includes the result of a Kruskal–Wallis chi-squared test (\*\* for  $p < 0.05$ , ' for  $p < 0.10$ ); the letters above the plots represent the results of Dunn's post hoc tests at alpha  $< 0.05$  in which similar letters denote no difference between groups.

abundances in the urea with DMPP treatment; OTUs 40 and 45 having highest abundances in the control treatment, lower abundances in the treatments with urea and the lowest abundance in the urea treatment; and OTUs 112 and 39 having highest abundances in the control and urea with nitrification inhibitor treatments and the lowest abundance in the urea treatment. The *16S rRNA Nitrospira* OTU followed the last trend with the highest abundances in the control and urea with nitrification inhibitor treatments and the lowest abundance in the urea treatment.

The results of the differential abundance and indicator species analyses, based on the variance-stabilized abundances and absolute abundance estimates, respectively, generally agreed. Differential abundance analysis revealed the nitrifier *16S rRNA* OTUs that were significantly over- and under-represented between pairwise comparisons of treatments based on variance-stabilized abundances (Supporting Information Table S3). Of the *Nitrosospira 16S rRNA* OTUs, OTU 30 was an indicator of the control, urea and urea with DCD treatments, while OTU 1102 was an indicator of only the urea and urea with DCD treatments (adjusted  $p$  value  $< 0.1$ ; Supporting Information Table S3). Of the *Nitrososphaera 16S rRNA* OTUs, OTU 45, OTU 112, OTU 40, OTU 39 and OTU 11 were indicators of the control,

urea with DCD and urea with DMPP treatments. Of the *Nitrospira 16S rRNA* OTUs, OTU 79 was an indicator of the control, urea with DCD and urea with DMPP treatments.

#### *Nitrifier amoA and 16S rRNA OTU and environmental correlations*

The correlations of the environmental variables with the gene copy numbers of AOB, AOA, *nirK*, *nirS*, *16S rRNA* total bacteria and total Archaea (Supporting Information Fig. S5) of all eight sampling days depict the positive links between AOB,  $N_2O$ ,  $NO_3^-$ ,  $NH_4^+$ , WFPS and pH and AOA, *nirS*, *nirK*, total archaea and total bacteria; and the negative links between  $CO_2$ ,  $CH_4^+$  and WFPS and AOA, total Archaea,  $NH_4^+$ ,  $N_2O$  and  $NO_3^-$  (Fig. 5A). As can be seen in Fig. 5B which depicts correlations including the normalized abundances of *16S rRNA* OTUs,  $N_2O$  emissions were correlated with *amoA* AOB copy numbers, water-filled pore space (WFPS),  $NO_3^-$ ,  $NH_4^+$  and pH. Interestingly, the *16S rRNA* and *amoA* AOB OTU correlations clustered with the previous variables with the exception of  $NH_4^+$  and pH, which nevertheless suggests that *Nitrosospira* (*16S rRNA* OTU 30 and OTU 1102) were the  $N_2O$ -producing AOB in these soils. Other interesting clusters were the *16S rRNA Nitrososphaera* OTUs

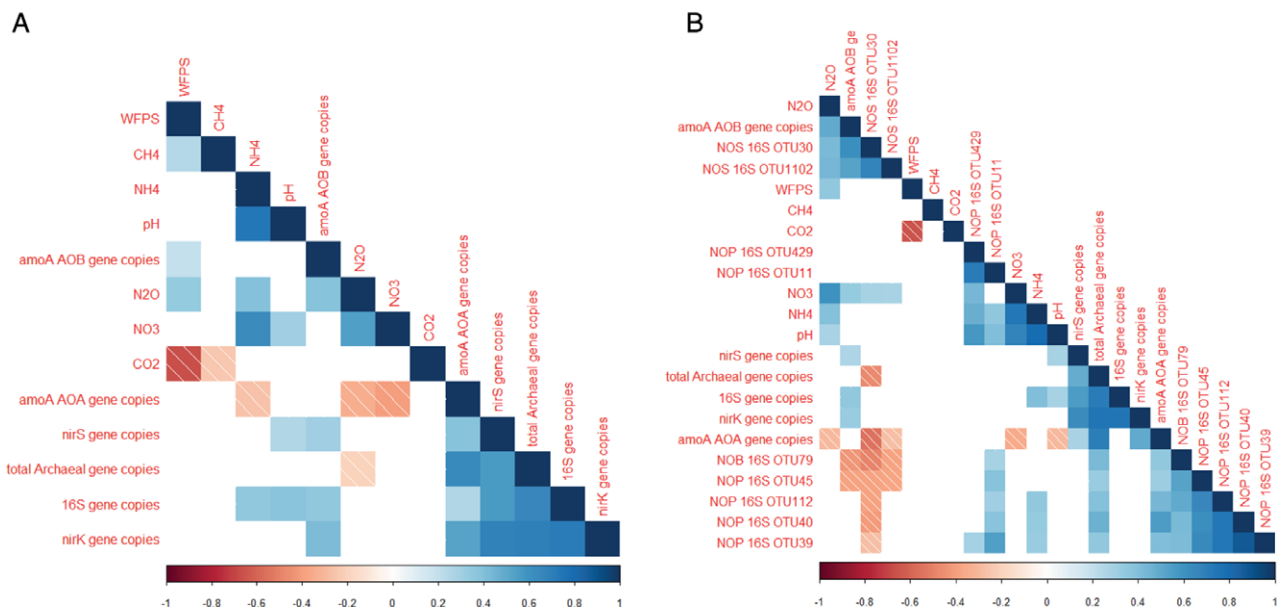
429 and 11 with  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and pH; the *nirS*, *nirK*, total archaeal and 16S rRNA gene copy numbers; and the *amoA* AOA, 16S rRNA *Nitrosospira* OTU 79, the 16S rRNA *Nitrososphaera* OTUs 45, 112, 40 and 39. These clusters were found in all the correlations with absolute abundance estimates and relative abundances of the *amoA* AOB and the 16S rRNA gene sequence data (Supporting Information Fig. S5).

## Discussion

From our previous work, we found that bacterial *amoA* (AOB) but not archaeal *amoA* (AOA) nor denitrification gene copy numbers (*nirK*, *nirS*) were correlated with nitrous oxide emissions from tropical soil growing sugarcane (Soares *et al.*, 2016). Here, we found evidence that the AOB responsible for the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions was most phylogenetically similar to the *Nitrosospira* spp. (*Nitrososphaera* RY3C), based on the decrease in abundance of these OTUs in soils with the nitrification inhibitors in comparison with the urea treatment and the correlation of these OTUs with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions. The *Nitrososphaera* RY3C species was originally isolated from avocado rhizosphere and its nitrifying activity was susceptible to DCD (Matsuba *et al.*, 2003). To our knowledge, just one other study has identified *Nitrosospira* spp. as the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ -generating AOB in tropical soil under sugarcane, and that study applied  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  as the N source (Lourenço *et al.*, 2018a). Interestingly, Lourenço *et al.* (2018a) also found a *Nitrososphaera* spp. RY3C-like OTU as a probable responsible for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions, along with OTUs similar to

*Nitrosospira multififormis* and *Nitrosospira* spp. PJA1, using the same FUNGENE *amoA* AOB database used here. The *Nitrosospira* in general are widespread spiral soil bacteria with generally low specificity for ammonia and, thus, found in soils under high levels of ammonia (Jia and Conrad, 2009; Di *et al.*, 2010a; Sterngren *et al.*, 2015). The other AOB identified here was *Nitrosomonas*, which was present in low abundance in the soils and was not linked to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions. The *Nitrosomonas* are also generally found in soils with high N inputs; moreover, *Nitrosomonas europaea* has a 3.5-fold higher  $V_{\text{max}}$  compared to *Nitrosospira* sp., suggesting that these AOB might compete with *Nitrosospira* in soils regularly fertilized with N (Taylor and Bottomley, 2006). Given our results, we suggest that the conditions of tropical soils used in the present study (generally low N with occasional high N inputs from fertilization) selects for the *Nitrosospira*, and perhaps a *Nitrosomonas* species adapted to these conditions but without contributing to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions was also present. Further work can focus on culturing the *Nitrosospira* spp. RY3C-like nitrifier identified here to verify their  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ -production and apparent inhibition by DCD and DMPP.

The AOB are widely implicated in  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions under conditions favouring nitrification in tropical and temperate soils, in contrast to the AOA (Di *et al.*, 2010b; Liu *et al.*, 2016; Hink *et al.*, 2017; Theodorakopoulos *et al.*, 2017; Meinhardt *et al.*, 2018). This is thought to be linked to the enzymatic capabilities of different AOB and AOA species, with the former generating higher amounts of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  through both abiotic (nitric oxide oxidation by  $\text{O}_2$ ) and biotic (incomplete



**Fig. 5.** Cluster plot visualizing Spearman's correlations (A) between environmental variables and gene copy numbers and (B) between environmental variables, gene copy numbers and the variance-stabilized abundances of the 16S rRNA nitrifier OTUs. Normalization was carried out using DeSeq2. Only significant correlations are shown ( $p < 0.01$ ). Clusters were determined using complete linkage clustering. NOS = *Nitrosospira*, NOP = *Nitrososphaera*, NOB = *Nitrosospira*. [Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

hydroxylamine oxidation and nitrifier denitrification) mechanisms, while the latter likely emits lower  $N_2O$  using only an abiotic (nitric oxidation by  $O_2$ ) mechanism (Harper *et al.*, 2015; Kozłowski *et al.*, 2016). While the AOB *Nitrosospira* was abundant in the soils under urea and urea with DCD treatments, we found that in the unfertilized and in the urea with DMPP treatment, the AOA *Nitrososphaera* were more abundant. More than five AOA *Nitrososphaera* 16S rRNA OTUs were identified compared to the two AOB *Nitrosospira* 16S rRNA OTUs; this supports the idea that the conditions in these unfertilized soils normally support the AOA *Nitrososphaera* rather than the AOB *Nitrosospira* or *Nitrosomonas* as the main ammonia oxidizers. Moreover, these native *Nitrososphaera* appeared to be non- $N_2O$ -producing AOA. These results support observations that the AOA *Nitrososphaera* is associated with low concentrations of ammonia linked to the stronger affinity of the archaeal ammonia monooxygenase for ammonia (Sterngren *et al.*, 2015).

Interestingly, we identified two types of *Nitrososphaera* (AOA): one cluster of *Nitrososphaera* OTUs was more abundant in the soils with urea and DMPP, while the other cluster was more abundant in the unfertilized soils and co-varied with the NOB *Nitrospira*. The *Nitrospira* was the only nitrite-oxidizer found in our soils according to the 16S rRNA gene sequence data; interestingly, this was most abundant in the unfertilized soils and co-varied with AOA *Nitrososphaera* OTUs. The *Nitrospira* are thought to be adapted to low  $NO_2^-$  availability (Nowka *et al.*, 2015), which might explain their presence in our soils instead of *Nitrobacter* (Attard *et al.*, 2010; Gruber-Dorninger *et al.*, 2015). Further, perhaps the *Nitrososphaera* and *Nitrospira* naturally interact in these unfertilized soils, as has been suggested for unfertilized grassland soils and at the field level in agricultural soils (Stempfhuber *et al.*, 2016). Future work could focus on this hypothesized interaction between non- $N_2O$ -generating *Nitrososphaera* and *Nitrobacter*, which appears to be selected for by low levels of available substrate and might be enhanced by adding organic residues with high C:N (Levičnik-Höfferle *et al.*, 2012; Hink *et al.*, 2017).

The inhibitors DCD and DMPP are both thought to inhibit ammonia monooxygenase by chelating the Cu cofactor in the enzyme (Ruser and Schulz, 2015). The limitation of *Nitrosospira* but not *Nitrososphaera* by DCD has been shown also in a paddy field soil and in microcosms of *Nitrosospira multiformis* but not *Nitrososphaera viennensis* (Shen *et al.*, 2013; Fu *et al.*, 2018). Based on gene copy numbers, the AOB but not the AOA were inhibited by DMPP in a sandy soil (Duncan *et al.*, 2017); and the AOB but not the AOA were inhibited by DCD in a grazed grassland system (Di *et al.*, 2010b). In a Chinese vegetable soil, DMPP rather than DCD was revealed to be the more effective inhibitor of  $N_2O$ -producing AOB rather than AOA, although the N source urea was also amended with manure (Kou *et al.*, 2015). In studies of

nitrification in agricultural soils, DMPP inhibited AOB expression under neutral pH conditions (Shi *et al.*, 2016, 2017). The different success of the nitrification inhibitors appears to be a function of temperature, Cu-levels, and variation in abundance, genetic potential and/or expression levels of the targeted nitrifiers (Ruser and Schulz, 2015). The different effects of DCD and DMPP on the abundance of the AOB *Nitrosospira* and the AOA *Nitrososphaera* found here suggests that evaluating the nitrification dynamics of these species in culture would be interesting for future work.

In contrast to our hypothesis that the nitrification inhibitor treatments would decrease the *amoA* AOB community alpha diversity, this diversity remained largely unchanged across treatments. There overall was low alpha diversity of the *amoA* AOB community, which was supported in both the *amoA* AOB and 16S rRNA sequence results. Nitrifiers occupy a specific functional niche in the soil environment, and the nitrifying functions are restricted to a handful of genera; new AOB are not likely to appear at least over the relatively short duration of this experiment (in total 258 days, subset presented here was 158 days). Moreover, the sugarcane plant competes with microbes for  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  and these substrates are not likely to remain immobile long in this soil (Hajari *et al.*, 2014). The highly weathered soils have high soil drainage capacity and have been under more than 20 years of sugarcane cultivation. Due to the long time of cultivation by sugarcane, likely the nitrifiers found in this soil are those that are adapted to the natural unfertilized conditions, to the brief high inputs of ammonia through urea fertilization, and to the competition with the sugarcane plant for ammonia. We speculate that the overall low nitrifier diversity and the selection of the nitrifiers that are present in these soils are driven by the generally low N levels.

Caveats to our methods should be mentioned, as well as how we minimized biases inherent in amplicon metagenomics (Weiss *et al.*, 2017). To reduce noisy OTUs in both the *amoA* AOB and 16S rRNA datasets, we used the data to guide cutoffs for OTU inclusion. Because of the low coverage and diversity of the *amoA* AOB dataset, we turned to the previously generated 16S rRNA amplicon dataset, first ensuring that the same genera identified in the *amoA* dataset were present past the cutoffs. The previous qPCR data was generated using independent, duplicate reactions, improving our confidence in the accuracy of these copy number estimates (Soares *et al.*, 2016). Further, the precision of the OTU classification was dependent upon the coverage of the databases used; for example, for our 16S rRNA dataset we were only able to confidently classify to the genus level. This prevented us from directly comparing the classification results between the *amoA* AOB and 16S rRNA datasets at the species level.



However, the congruence of the *amoA* and *16S rRNA* sequence data relative to the absolute abundances of the *amoA* AOB at genus level was convincing to us. Further, the low diversity of the *amoA* bacterial communities was echoed in the *16S rRNA* data with just a few OTUs identified as *Nitrosospora* and only one as *Nitrosomonas*. Last, though the *16S rRNA* samples had high Good's coverage values between 85% and 99%, there is a possibility that the nitrifying subset of the community did not have such high coverage values. However, the focus of this study was the *amoA* AOB nitrifiers, although future studies could target in more depth and with more specificity the nitrifying network in these soils.

In summary, the nitrification inhibitors in our experiment were revealed to target the N<sub>2</sub>O-producing bacterial ammonia-oxidizer *Nitrosospora* spp. in the soils. The low N availability appeared to drive the nitrifier community found in these soils, which should be explored in future studies. Treatment with urea and DMPP appeared to favour one functional type of AOA *Nitrososphaera* while the unfertilized soils revealed potentially interdependent, non-N<sub>2</sub>O-producing AOA *Nitrososphaera* and NOB *Nitrospira*. Our results support the use of DMPP and especially DCD as inhibitors of N<sub>2</sub>O-producing *Nitrosospora* spp. in tropical soils under sugarcane. The DMPP treatment may also increase the amount of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in the soil, allowing the sugarcane crop to uptake this N source while blocking the N<sub>2</sub>O from *Nitrosospora*. Furthermore, we provide evidence that the nitrification process in these soils is controlled by a few bacterial and archaeal species, driven mainly by the overall low N levels and which have contrasting functional potentials for N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates.

## Experimental procedures

### *Experimental design and sampling summary from the original experiment*

A field experiment on Typic Hapludox soil (also known as Red Latosol) was set up at the Agronomic Institute in Campinas, Brazil at 22°52'15" S, 47°04'57" W, as described previously (Soares *et al.*, 2015, 2016). Briefly, four treatments containing four replicate plots each were established in the 2013/2014 season on a third cycle of ratoon sugarcane (cultivar SP791011). The treatments were (1) no N fertilizer (control), (2) urea (UR), (3) urea with dicyandiamide (UR + DCD), (4) urea with 3,4-dimethylpyrazone phosphate (UR + DMPP). Urea was incorporated into the first 5 cm of soil and applied at a rate of 120 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>. The DCD (Sigma Aldrich) was added at 5% DCD-N per unit N from urea (v/v) while powdered DMPP (Sigma Aldrich) was added as 1% DMPP (w/w). Gas emission rates of CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O were measured daily to monthly using static chambers fixed 5 cm deep in between sugarcane rows (Soares

*et al.*, 2016). Gas samples were taken at three-time intervals: 1, 15 and 30 min; the gas samples were stored in pre-evacuated Extainers<sup>®</sup> vials (Labco Limited, Ceredigion, UK) and analysed in a Shimadzu gas chromatograph (GC-2014). In summary of the previous soil sampling scheme, soil samples were taken of the top 10 cm of soil such that three subsamples were combined per plot. The soil samples were collected at eight time points: 7, 16, 18, 27, 35, 42, 82 and 158 days following fertilizer application and stored at -80 °C. Last, total DNA was extracted from the composite soil samples using a Power Soil kit from Mobio (Carlsbad, CA, USA) without modifications (Soares *et al.*, 2016). One plot was dropped at random due to cost constraints, resulting in a total of 96 DNA samples (3 replicate plots × 8 time-points × 4 treatments). Further, pH, NO<sub>3</sub>-N and NH<sub>4</sub>-N were measured from the soil samples and water-filled pore space (WFPS) and temperature was previously calculated (Soares *et al.*, 2016). In addition to the previously generated dataset of *16S rRNA* sequences, the previously generated qPCR dataset of *16S rRNA*, *nirK*, *nirS*, *nosZ* and *amoA* (AOB) and *amoA* (AOA) gene abundances, which were made from the same DNA samples as the *16S rRNA* and *amoA* AOB (described below), were used for the current study (Soares *et al.*, 2016).

To investigate the dynamics of ammonia-oxidizing bacterial abundances over the experiment, we sequenced and annotated the *amoA* AOB amplicons resulting in a dataset containing the relative abundances of ammonia-oxidizing bacterial species. Because of the challenges inherent in interpreting compositional data such as relative abundances – for example, an increase in relative abundance does not necessarily point to an increase in cell density (Probst *et al.*, 2016; Weiss *et al.*, 2017) we attempted three transformations of this dataset, resulting in three versions: relative abundances, variance-stabilized abundances and absolute abundance estimates. Absolute abundance estimates were calculated using the previously generated dataset of *amoA* AOB qPCR gene abundances (Soares *et al.*, 2016). The variance-stabilized transformation for the *amoA* AOB dataset was not possible due to low number of sequences. To support the *amoA* AOB analyses, we mined the previously generated *16S rRNA* dataset and repeated the analyses using the *16S rRNA*-based relative abundances of nitrifiers. These abundances were analysed using the three transformations.

### *amoA* AOB amplification and sequencing

Amplification of the partial *amoA* bacterial gene (491 bp) was performed on the 96 DNA samples previously generated (Soares *et al.*, 2016). Here, the *amoA* amplification was carried out using a two-step barcoding approach. The first PCR from the total DNA samples was carried out using forward primer H-AmoA1F-mod (5'-GCTATGCGCGAGC

TGCGGGGHTTYTACTGGTGGT-3') and reverse primer H-amoA2R (5'-GCTATGCGGAGCTGCCCCCTCKGSAAA GCCTTCTTC-3') (Rotthauwe *et al.*, 1997; Herbold *et al.*, 2015). In the second PCR, the *amoA* amplification products were amplified with primers that consisted of a 16 bp head sequence and included at the 5' end a library-specific 8 bp barcode (Hamady *et al.*, 2008). Each PCR reaction (20 µl in first step, 50 µl in second step) consisted of 0.025 units of FastStart Taq DNA Polymerase (Roche), 1x reaction buffer with MgCl<sub>2</sub> (Roche), 0.5 mM dNTPmix (Fermentas), 0.125 µM of the forward and reverse primers, 0.1 mg/ml bovine serum albumin and 1 µl of DNA template. Thermocycler (C1000 Touch Thermal cycler, Biorad) conditions were as follows: (1) 5 min at 95 °C; 35 times 30 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 53 °C, 30 s at 72 °C; and 7 min at 72 °C and (2) 5 min at 95 °C; 10 times 30 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 53 °C, 1 min at 72 °C; and 10 min at 72 °C. The first PCR reaction was performed in duplicate, screened by gel electrophoresis and pooled for use as a template in the second step, which used one primer (5'-BARCODE-HEAD-3'). Second step PCR products were checked by agarose gel electrophoresis and the concentration and quality determined using a fragment analyser (Advanced Analytical). The bar-coded PCR products from all samples were normalized in equimolar amounts before sequencing. The *amoA* amplicon pool was sequenced using MiSeq V3 (2x300bp) technology (LGC, Germany). To complement the analysis of the *amoA* amplicon sequences, we mined the previously published dataset of 16S rRNA partial gene amplicons (Soares *et al.*, 2016). The *amoA* AOB amplicons were obtained from the same total DNA samples as the 16S rRNA amplicons.

#### *amoA* AOB amplicon sequence processing

Bioinformatics steps were performed on a multi core server with 64 threads running Linux Ubuntu 16.04. Processing was accomplished through a Snakemake pipeline and bash and perl scripts. The *amoA* AOB sequences were clipped of primers and barcodes using *bbduk* (*bbmap* version 35.82) and the paired-ends were merged with the 'join\_paired\_ends.py' script from *ea\_utils* version 1.1.2–537. The AOB merged sequences were dereplicated and clustered into 97% AOB OTUs with minimum size of 2 using *USEARCH* version 9.2.64 (commands: *derep\_fulllength* and *cluster\_otus*; Edgar, 2010). These parameters were chosen based on the recommendation found in the *USEARCH* manual (see also Supporting Information Fig. S1). To confirm the functional potential of the OTUs as *amoA* (KEGG pathway K10944), the centroids were compared to the KEGG database (2014-03-17 version) using *uproc-dna* (*UPROC* v1.2.0; (Meinicke, 2015)). The table of OTU abundances across samples was created with the *usearch* global command based on 97% identity of sequences to the OTUs. Taxonomy was assigned to OTU centroids by *diamond blastx*

v0.8.20 against the 2016-10-04 NCBI-nr database (Buchfink *et al.*, 2015). When this step yielded only classifications in the category 'environmental samples', taxonomy was assigned instead by best *blastn* (*e*-value cutoff 0.02; *blast* v2.6.0) comparison against the custom *amoA* database described below. The raw sequences were submitted to the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) under accession numbers ERS3128792 to ERS3129046.

To support the taxonomic classification results, a phylogenetic tree was created to depict the relationships between the 54 *amoA* OTUs and their closest matches in the custom *amoA* database. The latter was constructed as follows. High-quality *amoA* AOB sequences were downloaded from the FUNGENE RDP database (v9.4.1) with score above 350, HMM coverage above 80% and a minimum amino acid size of 270. Duplicates were reduced to one entry. The *amoA* OTU centroids and reference *amoA* AOB sequences along with an outgroup *amoA* sequence from *Nitrosococcus oceani* C-27 were aligned using *ClustalW* and used as input to make a phylogenetic tree in *MEGA7* (Saitou and Nei, 1987; Kumar *et al.*, 2016). The Maximum Composite Likelihood method was used to calculate phylogenetic distances, and bootstrap tests with 1000 replicates were performed (Felsenstein, 1985). The *iTOL* was used to create the final tree with bootstrap values of at least 90% depicted on the branches (Letunic and Bork, 2016).

#### *amoA* AOB OTU processing and beta and alpha diversity analyses

Statistical analyses were carried out in R version 3.3.1 using R-Studio version 1.0.136. The R package *phyloseq* was used to handle the amplicon datasets. To remove undersequenced samples, the *amoA* AOB samples with less than 120 sequences were filtered out. To evaluate the sequencing coverage of the AOB communities, Good's coverage was calculated (package *jqf3/QsRutils*) and rarefaction curves were produced. Three normalization methods were attempted as follows: raw abundances were converted to percentages of total sample abundances (relative abundances). The variance-stabilizing transformation of *DeSeq2* was applied to the raw abundances (variance-stabilized abundances; Love *et al.*, 2014), but this was not successful due to low number of sequences. Last, relative abundances of the *amoA* AOB OTUs were converted to absolute abundance estimates by multiplying by sample the relative abundances by the relevant gene copy numbers previously obtained (Soares *et al.*, 2016, as in Datta *et al.*, 2016).

To ascertain the effect of treatment on the AOB community structure, we ordinated the *amoA* AOB samples using Bray–Curtis distances based on the relative abundances. Multivariate homogeneity of dispersion was checked with

function 'betadisp' in the vegan R package. If dispersions were homogeneous, the effects of time point, treatment within time point and time point within treatment were assessed through PERMANOVA analyses ('vegan' R package). Post hoc tests of different pairwise group means were carried out using the 'pairwiseAdonis' R package (Arbizu, 2017).

To determine the effect of treatment and time point, treatment within time point and time point within treatment on the AOB community alpha diversity, the raw abundances were first rarified to 120 sequences across samples using random seed 42. After confirming that all the data were not normal using the Shapiro–Wilk test and visual check of quantile plots, two-way crossed analyses of treatment and time point and one-way analyses of treatment within time point and time point within treatment were evaluated using Kruskal–Wallis tests. These were supplemented with Dunn's post hoc tests.

#### *16S rRNA OTU processing and differential abundance and indicator species analyses*

We supplemented the analyses of the *amoA* AOB dataset using the previously published 16S rRNA gene sequence dataset (Soares *et al.*, 2016). Good's coverage was calculated and rarefaction curves were produced as described for the *amoA* AOB OTU dataset. The 16S rRNA OTU abundance dataset was processed as follows. Samples with less than 3000 sequences and 16S rRNA OTUs with less than 23 sequences across all samples were filtered out. The same three transformations were applied to the 16S rRNA data as described above for the *amoA* AOB data. To determine significantly different nitrifier 16S rRNA OTUs between treatments, differential abundance analysis was applied between treatment pairs considering all time points. The DeSeq2 package, which applies a negative binomial and total sum scaling transformations of the filtered abundance data to stabilize variances, was used for the differential abundance testing (Love *et al.*, 2014). The Wald test with local model fit was applied; orthogonal contrasts of the control and all other treatments, and of the urea against the treatments with a nitrification inhibitor, were carried out using Bonferroni–Hochberg correction for multiple tests. Significantly different 16S rRNA OTUs with Bonferroni-adjusted *p* values of less than 0.05 were identified.

In parallel to the differential abundance testing using the variance-stabilized abundances, the 16S rRNA relative abundances were converted to absolute abundance estimates using the 16S rRNA copy numbers previously obtained by real-time PCR (Soares *et al.*, 2016). To examine the 16S rRNA OTUs that were potential indicators of combinations of up to three treatments, we used the *multipatt* function from the 'indicspec' R package to apply

Legendre's indicator species analysis on the 16S rRNA absolute abundances. Multiple comparison *p* values were adjusted using the Benjamini–Hochberg correction.

#### *Spearman correlations of amoA AOB and nitrifier 16S rRNA OTUs with environmental variables*

Correlations between nitrifier abundances and environmental variables of published environmental data were revealed using Spearman correlations (Soares *et al.*, 2016). Log transformations of the gene copy numbers obtained by qPCR (*nirS*, *nirK*, *amoA* AOB, *amoA* AOA, total Archaeal, 16S rRNA) were carried out leaving the other variables (CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub>, soil NH<sub>4</sub>-N, soil NO<sub>3</sub>-N, soil pH and WFPS) untransformed (Supporting Information Fig. S2). The nitrifier 16S rRNA and *amoA* AOB relative abundances and absolute abundance estimates, and the nitrifier 16S rRNA variance-stabilized abundances, were independently correlated with the environmental variables. Significant correlations (*p* < 0.01) were kept; for visualization the correlations were clustered using complete linkage clustering through the 'corrplot' package.

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#### Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

#### Authors' contributions

EEK and NAC designed the current study. JRS and HC designed the original experiment. JRS and KSL carried out the field work and DNA extractions. JRS and AP ran the qPCRs. AP prepared the *amoA* amplicon library for sequencing. NAC performed all bioinformatics processing and NAC and JRS performed the statistical analyses. NAC wrote the paper. JAV, HC, KSL and EEK contributed to the interpretation of the results and discussion of the article. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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### Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher's web-site:

**Appendix S1:** Supporting Information