Previous legume identity influences wheat protein content through organic matter depolymerization

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Highlights

- Previous crop identity distinctively shaped wheat rhizosphere microbial

communities

- Previous legume altered the wheat rhizosphere microbial depolymerization

capacity

- Wheat grain protein content was higher following faba bean than peas

Graphical Abstract

Abstract

In crop rotation systems, plant-soil feedback (PSF) effects can modulate nutrient cycling in soil, like organic nitrogen cycling. Organic nitrogen (N) is present in plant and microbial necromass, and it must be depolymerized by microbes to become available for crops. Since plant identity can modulate the microbial communities' diversity and composition, we thought that previous crop identity would also change the microbial depolymerization capacity, and thereby impact soil N availability, and the quality and yield of the following crop. To test this, two legumes (*Vicia faba* L., i.e. faba bean, and *Pisum sativum* L., i.e., yellow pea) were grown in two fields in Abitibi-Témiscamingue, Québec, Canada. During the following growing season, spring wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) was sown and received, or not poultry manure as an organic fertilizer. We determined the diversity and composition of the microbial communities and their enzymatic depolymerization capacity in the soil and the rhizosphere each growing season. During wheat growth, previous legumes shaped bacterial (p-value = 0.006) and fungal (p-value = 0.001) communities and modulated the enzymatic activity of wheat-associated rhizosphere microbes. Faba bean increased β-glucosidase activities by up to 13% (1.13-fold) in the wheat rhizosphere compared to peas. Faba bean as a previous crop also increased wheat grain protein content at harvest by up to 0.17% as compared to peas. Altogether, our results show that faba beans, through lasting shifts in the microbial communities, can enhance microbial depolymerization activities in the wheat rhizosphere, impacting its N nutrition. Understanding plant-soil feedback in crop rotation systems is crucial to improve our practices and sustainably meet crops' nutritional needs.

54   Key words

1. Introduction

Agricultural practices have a significant impact on belowground microbial communities, altering their functionality, community structure, and diversity (Calderon et al., 2001; Li et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020). Monocropping often leads to lower soil microbial diversity and decreased plant growth and yield compared to crop rotation systems (Bak et al., 2022; Adebayo et al., 2025). Crop rotation systems (i.e., growing different crop species sequentially on the same land) enhance soil nutrient content and nutrient cycling (Wang et al., 2023b), limit the establishment of plant pathogens (Zhou et al., 2023) and enhance soil health and microbial diversity (Yang et al., 2024). Crop rotation systems are therefore fundamental in organic farming to maximize yield without the use of synthetic chemical inputs (Gamage et al., 2023).

The benefits of crop rotation systems can be explained by positive plant-soil feedback (PSF). The previous crop modulates soil microbial communities and physicochemical properties, impacting the next crop (Mariotte et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2025). Indeed, plants release a myriad of compounds, shaping spatially and temporally distinct microbial communities (Zhalnina et al., 2018). Positive plant-soil feedback includes pathogen reduction and beneficial microbes' enrichment (Ma et al., 2017; Hannula et al., 2021). *Arabidopsis thaliana* changes its exudation pattern in response to the pathogenic bacterium *P. syringae* (Yuan et al., 2018). After six passages in the same soil, these changes created soil microbial communities antagonist to the pathogen, resulting in healthy plants (Yuan et al., 2018). Due to highly diversified plant traits, functions and

exudation patterns, PSF effects are species-specific, meaning that we cannot associate a

PSF effect with a plant family (Hannula et al., 2020). Plant-soil feedbacks are also not

limited to the original plant species and can affect other plants grown in the same soil,

creating multiple possibilities for crop rotation systems (Murrell et al., 2020). For instance,

winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) grown continuously had a lower yield compared to

winter wheat growing after oilseed rape, because oilseed rape changed the microbial

communities and the abundances of functional genes related to inorganic N-cycling

(Kaloterakis et al., 2025). This plant-specific rhizospheric effect can persist for many

growing seasons (Bay et al., 2021).

Besides changing the microbial community structure and abundance of specific genes,

crops also affect more generally the carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) cycles (Knops et al.,

2002). Plant-Soil feedback effects on nutrient cycling can be attributed to both living and

dead crops. Plant litter origin (above vs belowground) and chemistry mediate the

decomposition rate (Freschet et al., 2013), and microbial decomposer abundance and

diversity over time (Bhatnagar et al., 2018). A classic use of PSF in agricultural settings is

legume-cereal rotations. Legumes are well known to enhance soil N through biological

fixation, and using them in crop rotation systems replenishes soil N without using

chemical fertilizers (Gan et al., 2015). But not all legumes are identical. For instance, faba

bean (*Vicia faba* L.) fixed 185 kg N ha^{-1} and forage peas (*Pisum sativum* L.) 165 kg ha^{-1},

resulting in different amounts of C and N in their residues (Lupwayi and Soon, 2015).

Living plants also influence microbial decomposer communities and their functionality

through their C-rich root exudates. Since litter and root exudates composition differ

among plant species, different crops in rotation systems will not have the same effect on

soil nutrient cycling and on the next crop grown (Huo et al., 2017). Therefore, the choice

of rotation systems design, especially the choice of crop species, is crucial to optimize PSF

effects associated with nutrient cycling. The mechanistic link between shifts in microbial

communities caused by the crop's identity, soil nutrients availability, and the following

crop's growth and nutrition is, however, not clear, especially in organic agroecosystems.

One possible explanation could be changes in organic N depolymerization.

Organic N depolymerization is a limiting step of the enzymatic cascade leading to

mineralization and nitrification, producing inorganic N available for crops (Jan et al.,

2009). The input of C-rich compounds, from plant litter and/or root exudates, steers up

the C: N ratio, forcing microbes to mine for nitrogen (Jones et al., 2009; Kuzyakov and Xu,

2013) by depolymerizing soil organic matter (SOM) containing organic N, such as protein,

chitin and amino acid (Zhu et al., 2014). When their elemental demand is met, microbes

will mineralize the excess N into inorganic form (ammonium and nitrate), usable by

plants. Not to mention that small organic N forms (e.g. amino acids) are also usable by

plants, highlighting the importance of N depolymerization for crop nutrition (Näsholm et

al., 1998). Extracellular enzymes produced by microbial decomposers mediate soil N

depolymerization. Microbes will release extracellular enzymes in soil, and their enzymatic

activities will be induced by the presence of their substrate (Geisseler and Horwath,

2008). Nitrogen release from depolymerization depends on the microbial decomposer

communities, soil physicochemical properties, and the organic substrate availability

(Séneca et al., 2021), all of which are influenced by the identity of the plant and the crop

rotation system. Increased N depolymerization may be one of the mechanisms

responsible for the benefits of rotation systems. Yet, to our knowledge, few studies have

tested that hypothesis under organic production conditions.

Here, we hypothesize (H1) that peas and faba beans, two legumes, have different lasting

influences on the microbial communities' diversity and composition, changing the

microbial depolymerization capacity, and thereby impacting soil inorganic N availability

and quality and yield of wheat grown the following season. We also hypothesize (H2) that

the addition of fertilizer would lessen the previous crop's impact on wheat. To test these

hypotheses, we grew wheat with and without organic fertilizer in plots where peas or

faba beans had been previously grown, under production conditions in two different

fields in the Abitibi-Témiscamingue region (Québec Canada).

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Experimental design

We conducted a two-year field experiment in Abitibi-Témiscamingue (Québec Canada) on two farms under actual farm operating conditions, one in Palmarolle (48.665°N, 79.201°W) and in Cloutier (48.00297°N, 79.15°W). Both sites were grassland previously cropped to perennial forages for at least three years before our experiment. Palmarolle soil texture is clay with 80, 355 and 565 g kg^{-1} of sand (2000–50 µm), silt (50-20 µm) and clay (<2 µm) particles at 0-15 cm depth, respectively. It belongs to the Gleysolic order according to the World Reference Base for Soil Resource system (WRB, 2007) and the Canadian System of Soil Classification (Group et al., 1998). Cloutier soil texture is a silty clay with 38, 481 and 520 g kg^{-1} of sand, silt and clay particles at 0-15 cm depth, respectively, and also belongs to the Gleysolic order (Group et al., 1998) (WRB, 2007).

In fall 2022, both sites were moldboard plowed to a depth of 17 cm. In spring 2023, successive passes with a disk harrow and a field cultivator were carried out to prepare the seedbed. Faba beans and peas were sown in 2023, using the producer's equipment (Table 1). Three blocks were split into two, allowing four plots of the same legume to be next to each other, facilitating seeding. Thus, eight plots per block were sown, for a total of 24 plots in each field (3 blocks with each 4 faba bean plots and 4 pea plots). Plots in Palmarolle were 11 m wide by 100 m long, while those in Cloutier were 4 m wide by 120 m long. In Palmarolle, faba bean was buried at the end of the growing season, while pea was harvested. In Cloutier, both crops were harvested at the end of the season (Table 1).

The following year (2024), the same plots were divided into two to test the effect of

organic fertilization on wheat. Twelve plots (4 plots/block; two plots that received faba

beans and two plots that received peas in 2023) received the equivalent of 0.5 Mg ha^{-1}

and 1 Mg ha^{-1} of granulated chicken manure (N:5-P:3-K:2) for Palmarolle and Cloutier

fields, respectively. Wheat was sown on the same day as the fertilization occurred (i.e.,

May 30th at Palmarolle and June 04 at Cloutier). At the end of the growing season, wheat

was sampled and harvested (Table 1).

Table 1: Sowing, Harvesting and sampling dates for Cloutier et Palmarolle in 2023 and 2024

Field	Crops	Sowing date	Harvesting date	Beginning of the season soil sampling date	Mid-growing season soil sampling date
Cloutier	Faba beans	2023-06-07	2023-10-17	2023-06-06	2023-08-01
	Peas		2023-09-27		
	Wheat	2024-06-04	2024-09-12	2024-05-23	2024-07-31
Palmarolle	Faba beans	2023-05-21	Burried	2023-05-21	2023-07-31
	Peas		2023-09-18		
	Wheat	2024-05-30	2024-09-04	2024-05-21	2024-07-30

2.2 Soil sampling

Every year, we sampled twice during the season, in the beginning and mid-growing season

(Table 1). Wheat was approximately in the tillering phase when we sampled. We sampled

five points per plot (one in the center and four in the corners, at approximately 0.5 m

from the plot borders), and we combined all samples into a composite, creating one

sample for every 24 plots. From the five points, we sampled the bulk soil by collecting soil

(0-15cm) between rows. When present (mid-growing season), we sampled the

rhizosphere of the main crops (faba bean, peas or wheat) by gently removing plants from

the same five points, shaking the roots to remove the excess soil and considering the

remaining soil attached to the rhizosphere (i.e., the soil influenced by plant roots). Soil

samples were kept in a cooler until they were brought back to the laboratory. Samples

were kept at 4 °C before sieving and aliquoting. We separated the rhizospheric soil from

the roots before sieving. We sieved (4mm) rhizospheric and bulk soil, and we prepared

two aliquots for each sample: one stored at 4 °C for enzymatic assays and

ammonium/nitrate quantification, and another stored at -20 °C for DNA extraction.

2.3 Wheat sampling

At the end of the growing season, we sampled wheat to determine yield and protein

content. Each plot was subsampled at four randomly distributed locations within the plot.

At each location, we sampled a quadrat of wheat by placing two 76 cm long half-frames

on the soil at about 45 cm width from each other, including 5 wheat rows (approximately

0.342 m^2). At each subsample point, we measured the internal width between half-frames

to calculate precisely the sampling area, and we harvested wheat. We stored wheat in

paper bags and brought it back to the laboratory. Wheat was then dried at 35 °C for

several days and kept for further analysis.

2.4 DNA extraction and sequencing

We extracted soil DNA from 0.25g of bulk and rhizosphere soil (previously sieved at 4mm)

samples   using   the   DNeasy   PowerLyzer   power   soil   kit   (Qiagen)   following   the

manufacturer's protocol. DNA was eluted in 50 μL of elution buffer and was stored at

−20°C until further analyses. We prepared libraries for 16S and ITS amplicon sequencing

according to Illumina's "16S Metagenomic Sequencing Library Preparation" guide

(Part#15044223Rev.B). We prepared libraries for the bacterial 16 S rRNA gene using

primers 16S: 515Y and 926R, and for the fungal ITS1 region, we used the primers ITS1F

and 58A2R. NextSeq (Illumina) sequencing (PE300 10M reads) was performed at the

Centre d'expertise et de service Génome Québec (CESGQ, Montréal, Canada).

2.5 Enzymatic potential activities quantification

We quantified the potential activity of three exoenzymes involved in SOM

depolymerization (deaminases, β-glucosidases and proteases) using colorimetric

methods. Every protocol follows the same principle: soil samples were incubated with an

excess of substrate under optimal conditions. Therefore, the result is the potential

activity, meaning that they do not reflect real-time activity in the soil.

2.5.1 Protease activity

To quantify the potential activity of soil protease, we used a protocol adapted from Jesmin

et al. (2022) (Jesmin et al., 2022). Briefly, we incubated 1g of dried sieved (4mm) soil with

2.5 mL sodium caseinate (2%) and 2.5 mL Tris buffer for two hours at 50°C and 100 rpm.

After incubation, we added 5mL Trichloroacetic acid (1 g L^{-1}) to stop the enzymatic

reaction, and we used 0.75mL Na_2CO_3 and 0.25 mL Folin & Ciocalteu's phenol (1:3) to

quantify tyrosine, the product that produces a blue colour.   We used 500 μL of every

sample to measure the absorbance at 650-700 nm using a TECAN Infinite M plate reader.

The potential protease activity is expressed in µmol tyrosine release g^{-1} dry soil h^{-1}

incubation and was quantified using a tyrosine standard curve (2-fold serial dilution from

1.0 to 0.005 mM).

2.5.2 β-glucosidases activity

To quantify the potential activity of soil β-glucosidase, we used a protocol adapted from

Eivazi and Tabatabai (1988) (Eivazi and Tabatabai, 1988). Briefly, we incubated 1g of dried

sieved (4mm) soil with a buffer solution containing p-nitrophenyl glycoside (25mM) at

37°C for 1 h. After incubation, we added calcium chloride (0.5M) and Tris buffer (0.1M,

pH 12) to extract p-nitrophenol, resulting from the degradation of the substrate.

Extraction of the product produces a yellow colour, and we measured absorbance at 415

nm using a TECAN Infinite M plate reader. The potential activity is expressed in µmol p-

nitrophenol released g^{-1} dry soil h^{-1} incubation and was quantified using a p-nitrophenol

standard curve (2-fold serial dilution from 0.5 to 0.0078 g L^{-1}).

2.5.3   Deaminase activity

To quantify the potential activity of soil deaminases, we used a protocol adapted from

Killham and Rashid (1986) (Killham and Rashid, 1986). Briefly, we incubated 1g of dried

sieved (4mm) soil with 1.2-diamino-4-nitrobenzene (0.06g L^{-1}) for 20h at 25°C, 100 rpm.

The substrate is red, and the colour intensity decreases with the deamination of the

benzene ring. After incubation, we extracted twice the remaining substrate using

methanol 100% and filtered (Whatman no1) the solution to remove any impurities. We

measured the absorbance at 405 nm using a TECAN Infinite M plate reader. The potential

activity is expressed in and was quantified using a 1.2-diamino-4-itrobenzene standard

curve (0/0.008/0.011/0.014/0.019/0.025/0.034/0.045/0.06 g L^{-1}).

2.6 Available inorganic nitrogen quantification

To quantify ammonium and nitrate, we first needed to extract nitrogen from the soil,

using a protocol adapted from Maynard et al. (1993) (Maynard et al., 1993) .

To do so, we incubated 1 g of dried sieved (4mm) soil with 10 mL of KCl (2M) for 1h at 25

°C at 100 rpm. After incubation, we filtered (Whatman no. 42) the soil slurry to remove

any soil and debris. Soil extracts were kept at 4°C until further analyses.

2.6.1 Ammonium quantification

To quantify ammonium in soil extracts, we adapted a protocol from Rhine et al. (1998)

(Rhine et al., 1998). Briefly, we added 100 μL of the sample (standard and/or soil extract)

to a 96-well plate. Using a multi-channel pipette, we added 50 μL of citrate reagent, 50

μL of phenylphenol nitroprusside, 25 μL of buffered hypochlorite reagent and 50 μL of

deionized water to each well and incubated 45 minutes at room temperature. Based on

the Berthelot method, ammonium in soil extracts reacts with the buffered hypochlorite

solution and the phenylphenol nitroprusside, producing a blue product. After incubation,

we measured the absorbance at 660 nm using a TECAN Infinite M plate reader and the

concentration of ammonium is expressed in mg g^{-1} of air-dried soil and quantified using a

$(NH_4)_2SO_4$ standard curve (2-fold serial dilution from 20 to 0.0195 mg L^{-1}).

2.6.2 Nitrate quantification

To quantify nitrate in soil extracts, we adapted a protocol from Hood-Nowotny et al.

(2010) (Hood-Nowotny et al., 2010). Briefly, we added 100 μL of the sample (standard

and/or soil extract) to a 96-well plate. Using a multi-channel pipette, we added 100 μL of

VCl_3 solution and 100 μL of the Griess reagent mix (a solution containing 1:1 Griess

solution 1 and Griess solution 2) to each well, and we incubated the plate for 1h at 37°C.

Based on the VCL_3/Griess method, nitrate in soil extracts is converted to nitrite with VCL_3,

and nitrite reacts with both Griess solutions to produce a pink color. After incubation, we

measured absorbance at 540 nm using a TECAN Infinite M plate reader and the

concentration of nitrate is expressed in mg g^{-1} of soil and quantified with a standard curve

of KNO_3 (2-fold serial dilution from 10 to 0.0195 mg L^{-1}).

2.7 Wheat grain yield and protein content

At the end of the 2024 growing season, wheat was hand harvested (see section 2.3) to be

threshed using a laboratory thresher (DL-350, Wintersteiger, Ried im Innkreis,

Austria)..Grains were then cleaned with a sample cleaner (MNL Pfeuffer, Kitzingen,

Germany). Grain yield (Y_{FH}, kg ha^{-1}) was determined at the subsample level by weighing

clean grain harvested for the given surface area sampled at each subsampling point (see

section 2.3). Grain protein content (%) was analyzed using a Near-infrared spectrometer

(Infratec 1241, FOSS, Hillerød, Denmark), and wheat yield was reported on a 13.5%

relative humidity content ($Y_{13.5}$, kg ha^{-1}) as follows: $Y_{13.5} = (Y_{FH} \times (100 - W_{FH})) / (100 - 15)$.

We used $Y_{13.5}$ for our statistical analyses. We determined yield and protein content for

each subsample harvested in the field (four subsamples), and we used the mean of the

subsamples to perform our statistical analyses.

2.8 Bioinformatic analyses

We analyzed amplicon sequencing data (16S rRNA gene and ITS region) using the DADA2

pipeline in R to process raw reads. For 16S, we used truncLen (280,250) and maxEE (2,2)

to filter and trim forward and reverse reads. We used the pooled method for removing

chimeras, and we assigned taxonomy with the SILVA reference database. After the

assignation, we removed chloroplasts and mitochondria from our dataset before further

analysis. For ITS, we used truncLen (270,250) and maxEE (2,2) to filter and trim forward

and reverse reads. We used the pooled method for removing chimeras, and we assigned

taxonomy with the UNITE reference database.

2.9 Statistical analysis and data visualization

We performed Statistical analyses in R (version 4.5.1, *The R Foundation for Statistical*

Computing), and we created figures using the package ggplot2. We divided and

performed statistical analyses for each field (i.e., Cloutier and Palmarolle) separately. For

testing the effect of the previous legume crop (i.e., pea and faba bean), organic

fertilization (i.e., with or without manure), soil compartment (i.e., rhizosphere and bulk

soil) and block on potential enzymatic activities, soil ammonium and nitrate content and,

wheat yield ($Y_{13.5}$, kg ha^{-1}) and protein content, we performed analysis of variance

(ANOVA) when the assumptions were met. If they were not met, we performed a Kruskal-

Wallis non-parametric test, testing each factor independently. To validate ANOVA

assumptions, we performed Shapiro-Wilk tests to check the normality of the residuals

and Bartlett tests to check the homogeneity of variances.

To find out if there was any significant correlation between enzymatic activities, soil N

content and wheat yield and protein content, we performed Spearman correlations for

every sampling time (see supplementary material) and soil compartment.

We performed Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric tests to determine the effect of previous

crop, organic fertilization, soil compartment and block on Alpha diversity and relative

abundance data. To analyze the bacterial community structure, we first transformed our

dataset using the Hellinger transformation. We then used Euclidean distance matrices

based on our transformed data to visualize the community structure using a principal

coordinate analysis (PCoA). We tested the effect of the previous crop, organic fertilization

and soil compartment on the community using PERMANOVA (1000 permutations).

2.10 Data availability

The R code used to analyze the data and generate the figures is available on GitHub

(https://github.com/le-labo-yergeau/). Raw sequencing reads were deposited in the NCBI

SRA repository under BioProject accession PRJNA1390138.

3. Results

We focused our analysis on the mid-growing season samples (2024) to assess previous

legume crops' PSF effects, except when it is mentioned.

3.1 Previous crop PSF on microbial communities' composition

3.1.1 Cloutier 2024

The bacterial and fungal community compositions of wheat plots differed significantly

depending on the previous legume sown in 2023 and the addition of organic fertilization

(i.e. manure) in 2024 (Fig. 1.A and 1.C ; Table S.1 and S.2). For the bacterial community

(Fig. 1.A), there was also a significant interaction between the previous crop and the

fertilization, meaning that depending on the previous crop sown, fertilization's effect

varied. In Figure 1.A, we can see that the addition of manure increases the variability of

the bacterial community composition, especially when the previous crop was peas. For

the fungal community (Fig. 1.B), there was no interaction between the effect of the

previous crop and the organic fertilization. The soil compartment (rhizosphere and bulk

soil) modulated the fungal communities' composition (Fig. 1.B), but not the bacterial

communities.

3.1.2 Palmarolle 2024

The bacterial and fungal community composition of wheat plots is significantly different

depending on the previous crop sown in 2023 and the soil compartment (Fig. 1.C and

1.D; Table S.1 and S.2). There is also a significant effect ($p = 0.043$) of the interaction

between the previous crop and the fertilization on the fungal communities' composition

in Palmarolle (Fig. 1.D). Like the bacterial community composition in Cloutier,

fertilization makes the fungal community composition more variable (Fig. 1.C).

[Insert Figure 1 here]

3.2 Potential Enzymatic activities associated with depolymerization

3.2.1 Cloutier 2024

During wheat growth, there was significantly more β-glucosidase and deaminase

potential activities in the wheat rhizosphere than in the bulk soil (Fig. 2.B and 2.C; Table

2). The potential β-glucosidase activity in wheat plots was higher after faba bean than

after peas. The addition of organic fertilizer at the beginning of the season did not affect

enzymatic activities during wheat growth.

3.2.2 Palmarolle 2024

During wheat growth, there was significantly more protease and β-glucosidase potential

activities in the wheat rhizosphere than in the bulk soil (Fig. 2.D and 2.E; Table 2). After

faba bean, wheat plots had more protease and β-glucosidase activities than after peas.

The addition of organic fertilization at the beginning of the season enhanced the

deaminase activity mid-growing season.

[Insert Figure 2 here]

Table 2: Effects of previous crop, organic fertilization and soil compartments (rhizospheric vs. bulk soil) on

proteases, β -glucosidases and deaminases potential activities at 0-15 cm depth in Cloutier and Palmarolle

during the wheat mid-season (2024).

	Test	Response variable	Factor/Term	Statistic	df	p-value	
Cloutier	Kruskal	Protease activity	Previous crop	0.409	1	0.5227	
			Compartment	2.929	1	0.0870	
			Fertilization	1.582	1	0.2085	
			Block	2.089	2	0.3518	
	Kruskal	Deaminase activity	Previous crop	0.823	1	0.3643	
			Compartment	**4.423**	**1**	**0.0354**	*
			Fertilization	0.786	1	0.3753	
			Block	4.353	2	0.1135	
	ANOVA	β - glucosidase activity	**Previous crop**	**3.616**	**1**	**0.0648**	.
			Compartment	**78.663**	**1**	**8.59E-11**	***
			Fertilization	0.104	1	0.7486	
			Block	1.438	2	0.2499	
			Previous crop :Compartment	1.344	1	0.5610	
			Previous crop :Fertilization	1.173	1	0.2855	
			Compartment :Fertilization	0.291	1	0.5929	
			Previous crop :Compartment :Fertilization	0.084	1	0.7729	
Palmarolle	ANOVA	Protease activity	**Previous crop**	**8.802**	**1**	**0.00518**	**
			Compartment	**26.272**	**1**	**8.96E-06**	***
			Fertilization	1.064	1	0.30872	
			Block	**3.040**	**2**	**0.05963**	.
			Previous crop :Compartment	0.048	1	0.82787	
			Previous crop :Fertilization	1.247	1	0.27105	
			Compartment :Fertilization	0.007	1	0.93608	
			Previouscrop :Compartment :Fertilization	1.811	1	0.18639	
	ANOVA	β - glucosidase activity	**Previous crop**	**4.105**	**1**	**0.0498**	*
			Compartment	**7.023**	**1**	**0.0117**	*
			Fertilization	0.252	1	0.6185	
			Block	**3.943**	**2**	**0.0278**	*
			Previous crop :Compartment	0.778	1	0.3833	
			Previous crop :Fertilization	0.399	1	0.5313	
			Compartment :Fertilization	0.004	1	0.9516	
			Previouscrop :Compartment :Fertilization	1.316	1	0.2585	
	ANOVA	Deaminase activity	Previous crop	1.661	1	0.2057	
			Compartment	0.033	1	0.8565	
			Fertilization	**4.814**	**1**	**0.0348**	*
			Block	**4.001**	**2**	**0.0270**	*
			Previous crop :Compartment	0.000	1	0.9903	
			Previous crop:Fertilization	0.151	1	0.7001	
			Compartment :Fertilization	0.613	1	0.4387	
			Previouscrop :Compartment :Fertilization	1.266	1	0.2680	

.: almost significant; *: p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***:p<0.001

Factor/Term, Statistic, df and p-value in bold are the significant and/or almost significant values

3.3 Soil inorganic N content

Figure 3 shows the amount of inorganic N in the bulk soil and the rhizosphere of wheat,

at mid-growing season in 2024. In the wheat rhizospheric soil at Cloutier, there is

significantly less inorganic N in ammonium and nitrate forms than in the bulk soil (Fig. 3.A

and 3.B; Table 3). In the wheat rhizospheric soil at Palmarolle, there is significantly less

nitrate, but more ammonium than in the bulk soil (Fig. 3.C and 3.D; Table 3). Also, in

Palmarolle, there was less nitrate in wheat plots after faba beans than after peas,

regardless of the compartment (Fig. 3.D).

[Insert Figure 3 here]

Table 3: Effects of previous crop, organic fertilization and soil compartments (rhizospheric vs. bulk soil) on ammonium and nitrate content at 0-15 cm depth in Cloutier and Palmarolle during wheat growth (2024).

Test	Response variable	Factor/Term	Statistic	df	p-value	
Kruskal	Cloutier Nitrate content	Previous crop	2.102	1	0.1471	
		Compartment	**20.576**	**1**	**5.73E-06**	***
		Fertilization	1.345	1	0.2461	
		Block	1.839	2	0.3987	
Kruskal	Cloutier Ammonium content	Previous crop	3.072	1	0.0797	
		Compartment	**6.225**	**1**	**0.0126**	*
		Fertilization	0.000	1	0.9835	
		Block	2.141	2	0.3428	
ANOVA	Palmarolle Nitrate content	**Previous crop**	**6.492**	**1**	**0.0150**	*
		Compartment	**32.354**	**1**	**1.53E-06**	***
		Fertilization	0.053	1	0.8200	
		Block	**2.958**	**2**	**0.0640**	.
		Previous crop :Compartment	0.104	1	0.7480	
		Previous crop :Fertilization	1.053	1	0.3110	
		Compartment :Fertilization	1.152	1	0.2900	
		Previouscrop :Compartment :Fertilization	0.627	1	0.4330	
ANOVA	Palmarolle Ammonium content	Previous crop	0.978	1	0.3290	
		Compartment	**14.457**	**1**	**0.0005**	***
		Fertilization	**4.570**	**1**	**0.0390**	*
		Block	2.442	2	0.1005	
		Previous crop :Compartment	0.023	1	0.8797	
		Previous crop :Fertilization	0.059	1	0.8096	
		Compartment :Fertilization	0.416	1	0.5230	
		Previouscrop :Compartment :Fertilization	0.763	1	0.3877	

.: almost significant; *: p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***:p<0.001

Factor/Term, Statistic, df and p-value in bold are the significant and/or almost significant values

3.4 Wheat yield and grain quality

3.4.1 Cloutier 2024

The addition of organic fertilizer significantly enhanced wheat grain protein content (Fig. 4: Table 4). Also, faba bean, when used as the previous crop, significantly increased wheat

grain protein content as compared to peas (Fig. 4). Figure 5 shows the correlation

between wheat yield, protein content, enzymatic activities, and N content in the bulk soil

(Fig. 5.A) and rhizospheric soil (Fig. 5.B). We found a significant positive correlation

between bulk soil ammonium content at mid-season and wheat yield (Rho = 0.4513, p-

value = 0.0269). We also found a significant positive correlation between bulk soil nitrate

content at mid-season and grain protein content (Rho = 0.503, p-value = 0.0121), but a

significant negative correlation between wheat yield and rhizospheric soil nitrate content

(Rho = -0.4487, p-value = 0.0279).

[Insert Figure 4 here]

[Insert Figure 5 here]

Table 4: Kruskal-Wallis results for the effect of organic fertilization and previous crops on grain protein

content and yield ($Y_{13.5}$) in Cloutier

Response variable	Factor	Statistic	p-value	
	Fertilization	0.093	0.7609	
Yield(kg ha^{-1})	Previous crop	1.245	0.2645	
	Block	**10.619**	**0.0050**	****
	Fertilization	**14.087**	**0.0002**	*****
Protein content (%)	**Previous crop**	**5.927**	**0.0149**	*****
	Block	**10.048**	**0.0066**	****

*: p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***:p<0.001

Factor/Term, Statistic, df and p-value in bold are the significant values

3.4.2 Palmarolle 2024

For Palmarolle, we were only able to determine the grain yield at the end of the growing

season. We found no significant effect of fertilization and the previous crop on grain yield

(Table 5). There was also no significant correlation between the potential enzymatic

activities, N content in the rhizosphere and the bulk soil, and wheat yield (Fig. 6).

However, when we looked at the enzymatic activities at the beginning of the season, we

found a significant positive correlation between the β-glucosidase activity and grain yield

(Rho = 0.543, p-value = 0.00606) (Fig. 7).

[Insert Figure 6 here]

[Insert Figure 7 here]

Table 5: Kruskal-Wallis results for the effect of organic fertilization and previous crops on grain yield ($Y_{13.5}$)

in Palmarolle

Response variable	Factor	Statistic	p-value
	Fertilization	0.257	0.6120
Yield (kg ha-1)	Previous crop	0.833	0.3613
	Block	0.247	0.8838

*: p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***:p<0.001

Factor/Term, Statistic, df and p-value in bold are the significant values

4. Discussion

This study aimed to evaluate the impact of the identity of the previous legume crop on

microbial communities' composition and on its depolymerization capacity in the following

growing season. We hypothesized that a part of the positive legume-cereal rotation effect

on wheat yield and grain quality could be mediated by changes in the depolymerization

capacity of the microbial community. Lastly, we also hypothesized that the addition of

fertilizer would lessen the previous crop's impact. First, we confirmed that legume

identity modifies soil microbial communities in the following growing season, and that

PSF effects can be transferred to other plant species (in our case, from legumes to wheat).

Second, we showed that this multi-year PSF effect can directly alter the depolymerization

capacity of the wheat rhizospheric microbial communities, modulating enzymatic

capacities associated with depolymerization. Lastly, we found that the identity of

previous legumes altered wheat grain protein content, a key parameter of grain baking

quality (Nuttall et al., 2017). This suggests that this persistent shift in depolymerization

capacity is one of the mechanisms that can explain the beneficial effects of crop rotation

systems. Under real farming conditions in fields located 100 km from each other, we

confirmed that the previous crops' PSF influenced the microbial communities'

composition. In fact, among all factors tested, the previous crop was the only one that

consistently shaped microbial communities in both fields.

Faba beans and peas are two legumes used in crop rotation systems to replenish soil N

pools. Both crops fix atmospheric N through a symbiosis with rhizobia (Jensen et al.,

2010). Their PSF effects on microbial communities' composition were, however, distinct,

supporting other findings (Yixuan et al., 2025). It could be explained by the fact that faba

beans have a coarser root system (i.e., higher mean root diameter and lower specific root

length) and allocate a higher proportion of total plant biomass belowground than pea

(Guerrero-Ramírez et al., 2021), therefore adding more organic matter to the soil

(Nuruzzaman et al., 2006). Differences in root system sizes can also alter soil physical

properties, therefore changing microbial communities. With a root system four times

bigger than peas, faba beans promote aggregate formation, creating different

microenvironments for microbes in the next growing season (Oliveira et al., 2019).

Fertilization is known to alter soil properties and microbial communities (Luo et al., 2018).

Therefore, variability in microbial communities created by organic fertilization in our

study is not surprising. Interestingly, microbial communities resulting from previous crops

did not respond the same way to organic fertilization in both fields. It is important to

mention that the organic fertilizer amount was not the same in both fields, which could

in part explain the difference between the fields (Zhou et al., 2021). Nevertheless, organic

fertilization increased the variability of microbial communities coming from peas. It

suggests that faba beans have stronger PSF effects, creating microbial communities more

resistant to the modification induced by organic fertilization (Shade, 2023).   The

resistance of the faba bean microbial communities towards organic fertilization input

could result from the abovementioned larger addition of root-derived organic matter,

priming the microbial community to mineralize organic fertilizer (Aschi et al., 2017).

We showed that faba bean and peas differently altered the wheat rhizospheric microbial

depolymerization capacity in the following growing season, providing a potential

mechanism to link the shifts in microbial community to the beneficial effect of crop

rotation. This suggests that previous legumes selected differently for microorganisms

with a role in the organic N cycle, which persisted among the wheat rhizospheric microbial

communities. The PSF effect was not found across both fields for every exoenzyme tested,

except for the β-glucosidase potential activity. It can be due to differences in pedoclimatic

conditions, which alter the soil physico-chemical properties across both fields (A'Bear et

al., 2014). However, in most instances, enzymatic activities are higher in wheat plots after

faba beans than after peas. It can be explained, as mentioned above, by the size of the

plant itself (above and below ground), since faba beans have a bigger root system than

peas (Nuruzzaman et al., 2006), leading to different amounts of litter addition. It is also

important to mention that the faba bean was entirely buried in the Palmarolle field at the

end of the 2023 growing season. In contrast, faba bean in Cloutier and peas in Cloutier

and Palmarolle were harvested. The addition of the totality of aboveground plant material

in the soil may have stimulated the microbial community to produce exoenzymes, like

proteases, to depolymerize this nutrient source (Freschet et al., 2013). In other words, we

found that the identity of the previous legume crops directly modulates enzymatic

activities related to depolymerization, providing a mechanistic link between crop rotation

system benefits, microbial community composition and functionality.

Almost every exoenzyme's potential activities were higher in the wheat rhizosphere than

in the bulk soil, suggesting that wheat, through its root exudates, stimulate for a

community proficient in depolymerization. Our results align with the rhizosphere priming

theory, a plant competitive strategy for N (Kuzyakov and Xu, 2013; L'Espérance et al.,

2024). Plants change the rhizosphere C: N ratio through their C-rich exudates to force

microbes to depolymerize soil organic matter to scavenge for N. When the C-rich

exudates are all consumed, microbes will mineralize the N excess, providing inorganic N

to plants (Zhu et al., 2014).

Unlike previous studies (Li et al., 2015; Lupwayi et al., 2019), the addition of organic

fertilizer did not have a significant effect on the enzymatic activities, except for the

deaminase activity in Palmarolle. This is surprising, since we added a substrate that can

stimulate microbes to produce and release exoenzymes. In contrast, Breza et al., (2023)

found that the addition of granular urea in more complex rotation systems disturbs the

organic N cycle, reducing the depolymerization rate to a similar rate as monocropping. In

both cases, fertilization affects exoenzyme activities mediating depolymerization (Breza

et al., 2023). In our study, the lack of fertilization effects is perhaps due to the sampling

date. We decided to determine enzymatic activities at mid-growing season,

approximately two months after the application of organic fertilizer. Organic fertilizer

depends on the soil mineralization rate and usually takes longer to be available for plants

and microbes (Wang et al., 2023a). Lazicki et al., (2020) showed that poultry manure-

based granulated fertilizer was already mineralized after a few weeks of incubation.

Therefore, nutrients derived from organic fertilizer were probably already immobilized in

microbial or wheat biomass in our study, since we sampled about two months after

fertilizer application.

Without a significant increase in soil inorganic N content, grain protein content was higher

after faba bean compared to peas, with and without the addition of organic fertilizer. It

was already known that faba bean, through N-fixation, is particularly efficient in

increasing soil N for the following crop (Herridge et al., 2008; Peoples et al., 2009). Here,

we showed that changes in the microbial community and their depolymerization capacity

could also play a role. Indeed, we hypothesized that an enhanced depolymerization

capacity would increase the amount of soil ammonium and nitrate. This part of our

hypothesis was disproved, since we did not find an increase in soil inorganic N in the faba

bean plots, where depolymerization capacity was the highest. It suggests that the

enhanced wheat grain quality in the faba bean plots is more likely due to a continuous

uptake of the N mineralized by the microbial community or the plant. Alternatively, the

N from the faba bean could have already been taken up by the wheat early in the season

and remobilized during grain filling. In wheat, the N assimilated by the plant is mostly

taken up before and during the anthesis stage (Cox et al., 1985; Sharma et al., 2023). In

our case, wheat could have taken up N during and before our mid-season sampling,

potentially explaining the better protein content at the end of the season.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, we showed that the two legumes tested modulated the microbial

community composition differently, resulting in different microbial depolymerization

capacity. In comparison to wheat plots after peas, wheat plots after faba bean had a

higher microbial depolymerization capacity, resulting in an enhanced wheat grain protein

content. Taken together, our results suggest a mechanistic link between shifts in the

composition and potential activities of microbial communities and the beneficial effects

of crop rotation on wheat nutrition. Understanding plant-soil feedback in crop rotation

systems is essential to improve our practices and sustainably meet crops' nutritional

needs.

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Figure captions

Figure 1: Beta diversity of the bacterial (16S) and fungal communities (ITS) from

rhizosphere and bulk soil under wheat cropping in Cloutier (A, B) and Palmarolle (C, D) in

2024 using a Euclidean distance matrix and principal coordinate analysis. The effect of the

previous crop (color) and organic fertilization (form and ellipse) is presented. The R^2 and

p-value correspond to the PERMANOVA results for these variables and the compartment

(i.e., rhizospheric and bulk soil) variable.

Figure 2: Protease, β-glucosidase and deaminases potential activities in the rhizosphere

and bulk soil at 0-15 cm depth under wheat cropping in Cloutier (A, B, C) and Palmarolle

(D, E, F) mid-growing season in 2024. The effects of the soil compartment, the previous

crop, and fertilization are represented. The organic fertilization is represented by the

mean and standard deviation of both compartments and the previous crop. Significant

results from Kruskal-Wallis or ANOVA tests for each enzyme's potential activities (see

Table 1) are identified with a *($p < 0.05$).

Figure 3: Wheat rhizosphere and bulk soil ammonium and nitrate content mid-growing

season in Cloutier (A, B) and Palmarolle (C, D) at 0-15 cm depth. The effects of the

compartment, the previous crop, and fertilization are represented. The fertilization is

shown by the mean and standard deviation of both compartments and previous crops.

Significant results from Kruskal-Wallis or ANOVA tests for ammonium and nitrate content

(see Table 2) are identified with a *($p < 0.05$).

Figure 4: Wheat grain protein content of each organic fertilization treatment and previous

crops after harvest in Cloutier. The effects of the previous crop and fertilization are

represented. Significant results from Kruskal-Wallis tests (see Table 3) are identified with

a *(p<0.05).

Figure 5: Heatmap of Spearman correlations between wheat grain yield, protein content,

and protease, β-glucosidases, deaminases potential activities, ammonium and nitrate

content in wheat rhizosphere (A) and bulk soil (B) in Cloutier. The circle's size represents

the Spearman correlation coefficient (Rho). Significant results are identified with a

*(p<0.05).

Figure 6: Heatmap of Spearman correlations between wheat grain yield, and protease, β-

glucosidases, deaminases potential activities, ammonium and nitrate content in wheat

rhizosphere (A) and bulk soil (B) in Palmarolle. The circle's size represents the Spearman

correlation coefficient (Rho). Significant results are identified with a *(p<0.05).

Figure 7: Heatmap of Spearman correlations between wheat grain yield, and protease,

β-glucosidases, deaminases potential activities, ammonium and nitrate content in and

bulk soil in Palmarolle at the beginning of the growing season. The circle's size represents

the Spearman correlation coefficient (Rho). Significant results are identified with a

*(p<0.05).

Figure 1.

Figure 2.

    Figure 3.

810   Figure 4.

814 Figure 5.

818   Figure 6.

A   Correlations between wheat grain yield and bulk

B   Correlations between wheat grain yield and rhizosphere

822   Figure 7.

Correlations between wheat grain yield and N content and enzymatic activities at the beginning of the season

 Supplementary results

827 Table S1: PERMANOVA results of Hellinger-transformed Euclidian distances from bacterial communities

828 (16S) data in Cloutier et Palmarolle

	Variable	Df	SumOfSqs	R2	F	p-value	
	Fertilization	**1**	**0.395**	**0.029**	**1.391**	**0.002**	**
	Previous crop	**1**	**0.378**	**0.028**	**1.333**	**0.006**	**
	Compartment	1	0.271	0.020	0.955	0.481	
Cloutier	**Fertilization: Previous crop**	**1**	**0.332**	**0.025**	**1.170**	**0.048**	*
	Fertilization: Compartment	1	0.251	0.019	0.884	0.818	
	Previous crop: Compartment	1	0.267	0.020	0.941	0.55	
	Fertilization: Previous crop: Compartment	1	0.245	0.018	0.865	0.886	
	Residual	40	11.353	0.841			
	Total	47	13.493	1.000			
	Fertilization	1	0.384	0.024	1.148	0.083	
	Previous crop	**1**	**0.477**	**0.030**	**1.427**	**0.006**	**
	Compartment	**1**	**0.454**	**0.029**	**1.360**	**0.017**	*
Palmarolle	Fertilization: Previous crop	1	0.381	0.024	1.140	0.104	
	Fertilization: Compartment	1	0.296	0.019	0.885	0.714	
	Previous crop: Compartment	1	0.304	0.019	0.909	0.633	
	Fertilization: Previous crop: Compartment	1	0.263	0.016	0.786	0.984	
	Residual	40	13.372	0.839			
	Total	47	15.931	1.000			

829 *: p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***:p<0.001

830 Df, SumOfSqs, R2, F and p-value in bold are the significant and/or almost significant values

833   Table S2: PERMANOVA results on Hellinger-transformed Euclidean distances from fungal communities (ITS)

834   data in Cloutier and Palmarolle

	Variable	Df	SumOfSqs	R2	F	p-value	
Cloutier	**Fertilization**	**1**	**0,471**	**0,028**	**1,350**	**0,007**	***
	Previous crop	**1**	**0,720**	**0,043**	**2,065**	**0,001**	**
	Compartment	**1**	**0,417**	**0,025**	**1,198**	**0,037**	*
	Fertilization: Previous crop	1	0,382	0,023	1,095	0,158	
	Fertilization: Compartment	1	0,287	0,017	0,823	0,917	
	Previous crop: Compartment	1	0,285	0,017	0,818	0,934	
	Fertilization: Previous crop: Compartment	1	0,316	0,019	0,908	0,679	
	Residual	40	13,940	0,829			
	Total	47	16,817	1,000			
Palmarolle	Fertilization	1	0,394	0,023	1,116	0,108	
	Previous crop	**1**	**0,844**	**0,049**	**2,391**	**0,001**	***
	Compartment	**1**	**0,503**	**0,029**	**1,426**	**0,007**	**
	Fertilization: Previous crop	**1**	**0,441**	**0,025**	**1,249**	**0,043**	*
	Fertilization: Compartment	1	0,296	0,017	0,839	0,824	
	Previous crop: Compartment	1	0,396	0,023	1,123	0,123	
	Fertilization: Previous crop: Compartment	1	0,314	0,018	0,891	0,673	
	Residual	40	14,114	0,816			
	Total	47	17,302	1,000			

835   *: $p<0.05$; **$p<0.01$; ***:$p<0.001$

836   Df, SumOfSqs, R2, F and p-value in bold are the significant and/or almost significant values