1	Response of total (DNA) and metabolically active (RNA) microbial communities in Miscanthus
2	× giganteus cultivated soil to different nitrogen fertilization rates
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4	Jihoon Yang, ^{1,2} , Jaejin Lee, ^{1,2} , Jinlyung Choi, ^{1,2*} , Lanying Ma, ^{1,2*} , Emily Heaton, ^{2,3} Adina
5	Howe ^{1,2} #
6	
7	¹ Department of Agricultural and Biosystems Engineering, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa,
8	USA
9	² Center for Advanced Bioenergy and Bioproducts Innovation, Urbana, Illinois, USA
10	³ Department of Agronomy, Iowa State University, Ames IA, United States
11	
12	Running Title: Comparing DNA and RNA approaches in soil microbiomes
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14	#Address correspondence to Adina Howe, adina@iastate.edu
15	*Present address: Jinlyung Choi, Second Genome Inc., Brisbane, California, USA
16	*Present address: Lanying Ma, VastBiome Inc, Millbrae, California, USA

18 Abstract

Miscanthus x giganteus is a promising high-yielding perennial plant to meet growing 19 20 bioenergy demands but the degree to which the soil microbiome affects its nitrogen cycling and 21 subsequently, biomass yield remains unclear. In this study, we hypothesize that contributions of 22 metabolically active soil microbial membership may be underestimated with DNA-based 23 approaches. We assessed the response of the soil microbiome to nitrogen availability in terms of both DNA and RNA soil microbial communities from the Long-term Assessment of Miscanthus 24 25 Productivity and Sustainability (LAMPS) field trial. DNA and RNA were extracted from 271 26 samples, and 16S SSU rRNA amplicon sequencing was performed to characterize microbial 27 community structure. Significant differences were observed in the resulting soil microbiomes and were best explained by the sequencing library of origin, either DNA and RNA. Similar numbers 28 29 of taxa were detected in DNA and RNA microbial communities, with more than 90% of taxa shared. However, the profile of dominant taxa within DNA and RNA differed, with varying 30 31 proportions of Actinobacteria and Proteobacteria and Firmicutes and Proteobacteria. Only RNA microbial communities showed seasonal responses to nitrogen fertilization, and these differences 32 33 were associated with nitrogen-cycling bacteria. The relative abundance of bacteria associated with nitrogen cycling was 7-folds higher in RNA than in DNA, and genes associated with denitrifying 34 35 bacteria were significantly enriched in RNA, suggesting that these bacteria may be underestimated with DNA-only approaches. Our findings indicate that RNA-based SSU characterization can be a 36 37 significant and complementing resource for understanding the role of soil microbiomes in 38 bioenergy crop production.

39

41 Importance

Miscanthus x giganteus is becoming a cornerstone of bioeconomy cropping systems, but 42 it remains unclear how the soil microbiome supplies nitrogen to this low-input crop. DNA-based 43 44 techniques are used to provide community characterization but may miss important metabolically 45 active taxa. By analyzing both DNA- and actively transcribed RNA-based microbial communities, 46 we found that nitrogen cycling taxa in the soil microbiome may be underestimated using only 47 DNA-based approaches. Accurately understanding the role of microbes and how they cycle nutrients is important for the development of sustainable bioenergy crops, and RNA-based 48 49 approaches are recommended as a complement to DNA approaches to better understand the 50 microbial, plant, and management interactions.

51 Introduction 52

The sterile allopolyploid (2n=3x=57) Miscanthus \times giganteus (Greef et Deu.) is a 53 promising perennial grass bioenergy crop because of its ability to produce large amounts of 54 55 biomass with little fertilizer compared to hav or grain crops (1-4). The peak biomass production 56 of M. x giganteus has been observed to be up to three times higher than switchgrass (Panicum virgatum L. cv. Cave-in-Rock), similar to willow (Salix schwerinii E. Wolf × viminalis L.), three 57 times higher than reed canary grass (Phalaris arundinacea L.), and two times higher than triticale 58 59 (Triticosecale Wittmack) (5–7). Additionally, M. x giganteus production has been shown to have 60 decreased environmental impact, with decreased requirements of nitrogen and pesticides (8, 9) and 61 reduced nitrate leaching relative to other bioenergy crops (10, 11). These advantages of $M_{\rm c}$ x 62 giganteus and its ability to maintain high productivity for up to 20 years compared to other energy crops have contributed to its increased cultivation (9, 12–14). 63

To support its growth, environmental and management factors that can affect the productivity of *M*. x *giganteus* have been evaluated. Previously, *M*. x *giganteus* has been observed to decrease in productivity at low temperatures (15, 16). It has also been observed to have relatively high water demand (17, 18) and to require cultivation for at least three years to obtain adequate yield (16, 19–25). Recommendations for nitrogen fertilization of *M*. x *giganteus* are inconsistent, with previous studies showing that fertilization can have little to no effect (26–31) or contribute to its productivity (32–35).

Previously, it has been estimated that *M*. x *giganteus* can obtain 16% of its nitrogen demand
from the atmosphere during the growing season (36). Nitrogen can also be provided by the activity
of nitrogen-fixing bacteria in the rhizobiome of *M*. x *giganteus* (37), which are enriched early after *M*. x *giganteus* planting (36). Nitrogen fixation genes have been observed to be more abundant in

M. x *giganteus* relative to other energy crops planted in similar soils (38, 39). Specific phyla which
have been identified in *M.* x *giganteus* rhizobiomes include *Actinobacteria* and *Proteobacteria*,
which include known nitrogen-fixing families such as *Hyphomicrobiaceae*, *Bradyrhizobiaceae*, *Rhodospirillaceae*, and *Geobacteraceae* (40).

79 To date, all studies of M. x giganteus soil microbial communities and their response to 80 fertilization or biomass production have been limited to the characterization of soil environmental DNA. We previously used sequencing of 16S rRNA genes in DNA to identify significant 81 interactions between microbial diversity, stand age, fertilization, and above-ground biomass in M. 82 83 x giganteus (41). However, it is possible that DNA-based analysis may underestimate the number of active taxa, resulting in biased interpretations of how microbial communities respond to the 84 85 environment (42, 43). By contrast, RNA-based characterization of microbial communities, representing metabolically active or transcribed genes, can better relate community responses to 86 environmental variability (44-48). Additionally, RNA-based studies are more sensitive and have 87 88 detected underrepresented active bacteria that are below the amplification threshold of DNA-based 89 approaches. Despite the advantages of RNA-based methods, direct comparison of the DNA and RNA methods for microbial community characterization in bioenergy crops soil microbial 90 91 communities is sparse. One previous study of the bioenergy grass, *Pennisetum purpure*, compared 92 bacterial communities of DNA- and RNA-based denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) 93 profiles and clone libraries and found that RNA-based methods could identify enriched 94 metabolically active membership (49).

In this study, we perform comparison of DNA and RNA approaches to help us better understand how soil microbiome in field-grown *M*. x *giganteus* can inform management and environmental impacts of *M*. x *giganteus* production. We evaluate the effects of stand age

98 (representing different initial growth environments) and fertilization (representing different N availability) on changes in microbial community membership and structure. We hypothesize that 99 100 microbiome responses (as indicated by DNA and RNA) to M. x giganteus management will differ 101 and specifically that metabolically active (RNA) microbial communities will show a more rapid 102 and sensitive response to fertilization than total (DNA) microbial communities. To test these 103 hypotheses, soil samples were collected from the Long-term Assessment of Miscanthus Productivity and Sustainability (LAMPS) site, a replicated chronosequence field previously used 104 to investigate the effects of stand age and nitrogen fertilizer on M. x giganteus and corn (Zea mays 105 106 L.) (28, 50). DNA and RNA were extracted from these soil samples, and we compared these 107 microbial responses to stand age, N fertilization amount, and time since fertilization.

108

109 Material and Methods

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111 Sample description

112 Soil samples were collected in 2018 from the Long-term Assessment of Miscanthus 113 Productivity and Sustainability (LAMPS) site located in Central IA, USA (42.013° N, 93.743° W). 114 This staggered-start experiment was planted with M. x giganteus (clone "Freedom", AGgrow Tech, 115 High Point NC, USA) at a density of ~11 plants m⁻² in replicated blocks (n=4) in each of 2015, 116 2016 and 2017 as described previously (28). The experimental design is a split-plot replicated 117 block with age (planting year) as the main plot and N fertilization rate as the split plot. Soils at the 118 site are deep loams (>1m) formed over glacial till; the dominant soil type (53%) is a Webster clay 119 loam (fine-loamy, mixed, superactive, mesic Typic Endoaquoll). Fertilizer was applied as banded 120 urea ammonium nitrate (UAN) in aqueous solution and side-dressed into the soil at 0.1 m depth on May 9, 2018, at rates of 0, 224, and 448 kg ha⁻¹ N. Soil samples were taken on April 30, May 121

122 14, May 30, and July 3. Soils were collected from within 10 cm radius of the M. x giganteus stems 123 using a sampling core (30.5 cm wet sample tube with 1.75cm diameter, Clements Associates Inc, 124 USA). Soil samples included in this analysis were obtained in triplicate from 60 experimental plots 125 at each time point and analyzed independently. Samples for DNA extraction were stored on dry 126 ice immediately after being taken as described previously (41), and samples for RNA extraction 127 were immediately collected and then frozen in RNAlater (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) which offers the advantage of preserving microbial community integrity while preventing RNA 128 129 degradation (51). All samples were stored in a cooler filled with dry ice during return to the 130 laboratory.

131

132 DNA/RNA extraction and 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing

133 DNA and RNA extraction was performed from subsampled 0.25 g soil samples submerged in RNAlater (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), using the MagAttract PowerMicrobiome 134 135 DNA/RNA EP Kit (Qiagen, USA) following the standard protocol in this kit and liquid handling 136 in Eppendorf epMotion 5075 (Eppendorf North America). The extracted RNA was transcribed 137 into cDNA according to a standard protocol using iScriptTM cDNA Synthesis Kit (BIO-RAD, USA) 138 for sequencing analysis. The resulting DNA and RNA were analyzed for quantity using an 139 InvitrogenTM QubitTM 4 Fluorometer (Invitrogen, USA). DNA and RNA sample concentrations above 10 ng ul⁻¹ were normalized to 10 ng ul⁻¹ prior to sequencing. Samples with concentrations 140 141 lower than 10 ng ul⁻¹ were submitted directly for sequencing. The V4 region of the bacterial 16S 142 rRNA gene was amplified with the conserved primers 515F (5'-GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3') and 806R (5'-GGACTACNVGGGTWTCTAAT-3') (52, 53). Bacterial amplicon sequencing 143 144 was performed on Illumina Miseq with Miseq Reagent Kit V2 (Illumina, USA) at Argonne

145 National Laboratory. The DNA and RNA sequencing data are available at NCBI Short Read
146 Archive PRJNA601860 and PRJNA745191, respectively.

147

148 Amplicon bioinformatics and statistical analysis

The DADA2 package (version 1.13.1) in R (version 4.1.0) was used to perform quality 149 150 control of sequencing libraries and to determine the abundance of amplicon sequence variants (ASV). The quality filtering parameters for all sequences were the same as previously described 151 152 for DNA amplicons (41). The Ribosomal Database Project (RDP) Classifier (version 11.5) was 153 used for taxonomic identification of each observed ASV depending on the sequence similarity to 154 the representatives in the current database. ASVs were removed if no more than 10 total 155 observations were observed in a sample. All statistical analyses were performed in R (version 156 4.1.0). Two diversity indices, Chao1 and Shannon, were used to compare the alpha diversity of 157 bacteria using the *vegan* package (version 2.5 - 7). Multivariate homogeneity of group dispersions, 158 calculating the average distance of members to the centroid of the group, was used to analyze the 159 dispersion of each sample using *betadisper* function from the *vegan* package (version 2.5 - 7). Significant differences in alpha diversity and homogeneity between DNA and RNA microbial 160 161 communities were evaluated using the Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post hoc test. Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was performed with the adonis 162 function of the vegan package using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix (version 2.5 - 7). 163 164 PERMANOVA was performed to identify significant differences between centroids of each microbial community, and the R² statistic represents the proportion of the variance for the 165 166 separation of the microbial community that was explained by experimental and field 167 environmental factors (i.e., origin of the sequencing library, stand age, N fertilization amount,

168 fertilization history, and time since fertilization). PERMANOVA was performed using the "strata" 169 argument for the planted block, which was identified as one of the major factors to structure the 170 microbial composition in the previous study, to better identify the effects of stand age and N 171 fertilization amount, fertilization history, and time since fertilization. This analysis restricted 172 permutations to the dataset within each block and was used to quantify variations between and 173 within treatments (41). The comparison between the two groups within the three (stand age, N fertilization amount) or four (time since fertilization) groups was accomplished using pairwise 174 175 PERMANOVA. The level of significance in the statistical analysis was defined as p < 0.05.

176

177 **Results**

178

179 DNA and RNA microbial communities differ in microbial composition and alpha diversity

The 16S rRNA amplicons from DNA and RNA from soil samples representing three ages 180 181 and three fertilization rates of M x giganteus were compared. The origin of the sequencing library, 182 either DNA or RNA, was found to have the greatest influence on the separation of the microbial community ($R^{2}_{PERMANOVA} = 0.117$, $p_{PERMANOVA} = 0.001$, Table S1). Their influence was 3.9 times 183 higher than that of stand age ($R^{2}_{PERMANOVA} = 0.030$, $p_{PERMANOVA} = 0.001$) and 15 times higher than 184 185 that of N fertilization amount ($R^{2}_{PERMANOVA} = 0.008$, $p_{PERMANOVA} = 0.001$). DNA and RNA 186 microbial communities were observed to separate into clear clusters using constrained analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) along the first axis of the CAP (CAP1, 11.8%, F = 77.56, $p_{ANOVA} =$ 187 188 0.001, Figure 1). The microbial composition (ADONIS, $p_{ADONIS} = 0.001$) and homogeneity 189 (betadisper, $p_{betadisper} = 0.001$) of DNA and RNA communities were also observed to be 190 significantly different.

Table S1. Comparison of microbial community dissimilarity using permutational multivariate
analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) for bacterial communities in *M.* x *giganteus* soil samples.

Figure 1. Similarities, assessed with Bray-Curtis indices, between DNA and RNA microbial communities from *M.* x *giganteus* soils. Constrained analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) was used to ordinate Bray-Curtis indices calculated with ASVs. Blue dot and red triangle represent the DNA and RNA microbial communities, respectively.

199

200 Alpha diversity of soil microbial communities was compared using the Shannon index, 201 which evaluates both microbial richness and evenness, and Chao1, which evaluates the abundance 202 of observed species. Both alpha diversity indices showed significant differences between DNA 203 and RNA microbial communities, with higher alpha diversity observed in DNA microbial 204 communities (p_{Shannon} < 0.001, p_{Chao1} < 0.001, Figure 2). On average 32% and 12% higher Chao1 and Shannon indices, respectively, were observed in DNA compared to RNA microbial 205 206 communities. The average value of alpha diversity was higher in DNA, but the variation in alpha 207 diversity indices was larger between RNA samples. Specifically, the DNA Chao1 index was in the 208 range of 1,667 to 9,170, and RNA was associated with a much wider range of 195 to 9,343. Similar 209 results were observed with Shannon indices, with DNA ranging from 4.88 to 7.85 and RNA from 210 2.69 to 7.72.

211

Figure 2. Alpha diversity indices of DNA and RNA microbial communities. Richness ((A) Chao1,

213 (B) Shannon index) were estimated for microbial communities with ASVs. Letters "***" denote

significant differences of alpha diversity indices between DNA and RNA microbial communities
at a p-value < 0.05 as assess by Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test.

216

217 Taxa distributions varied between DNA and RNA microbial communities

218 The total number of taxa in DNA and RNA microbial communities was estimated by 219 observations of ASVs, where a total of 39,898 and 32,171 ASVs were identified in DNA and RNA, 220 respectively. We compared the ASVs between DNA and RNA samples and found that 17,779 ASVs were shared between DNA and RNA microbial communities (32% and 58%, respectively); 221 222 22,119 and 14,392 ASVs were unique in DNA and RNA, respectively. Unique ASVs were 223 generally low abundance (average < 0.000003%) and low prevalence (average < 0.022%) in their 224 respective libraries (Figure 3). ASVs that were identified in both DNA and RNA were found to be 225 identified at increased though still low abundance (average < 0.00005%) and higher prevalence 226 (average > 0.16%).

ASVs commonly identified between DNA and RNA libraries were further classified based on their enrichment in DNA or RNA, specifically using the ratio of RNA:DNA relative abundances. The RNA:DNA ratio of shared ASVs ranged from 0.0023 to 1,300. The majority of shared ASVs (58%) were more enriched in RNA relative to DNA (Figure 4). For ASVs enriched in DNA (RNA:DNA ratio < 1), the average RNA:DNA ratio was 0.44; the average RNA:DNA ratio for ASVs enriched in RNA (RNA:DNA ratio > 1) was 4.82. Additionally, more variation was observed in shared ASVs which were enriched in RNA relative to those enriched in DNA.

234

Figure 3. Abundance-occupancy comparison of ASVs in the DNA and RNA microbialcommunities. Abundance-occupancy distributions were assessed to identify the dynamics of the

DNA and RNA microbial community memberships. Each point is an ASV. The ASVs were
classified as (A) unique in DNA or (B) unique in RNA, respectively, when it was detected only in
the DNA or RNA microbial communities. ASVs detected in both DNA and RNA microbial
communities were classified as "shared" and further classified by the average relative abundance
based on its enrichment in (C) DNA or (D) RNA.

242

Figure 4. RNA/DNA ratio comparison of the shared ASVs. The ratio of average relative abundance
in DNA and RNA microbial communities of ASVs detected in both microbial communities was
compared to identify the biased in the DNA and RNA-based microbial community analysis results.

246 Shared - higher in DNA (blue) and Shared - higher in RNA (red).

247

248 Phylogenetic composition varied between DNA and RNA microbial communities

The phylogenetic composition of DNA and RNA microbial communities was compared, with 20 phyla identified in both libraries. Soils were dominated by *Actinobacteria* (26%) and *Proteobacteria* (33%) in DNA and mainly *Proteobacteria* (49%) in RNA (Figure 5). While DNA and RNA had similar membership at the phylum-level, the relative abundance of every phylum significantly differed (Table S2). Thirteen out of 20 phyla were more enriched in DNA than RNA, and seven phyla were more enriched in the RNA microbial communities.

We evaluated whether the phyla observed to be significantly different between DNA and RNA were comprised of ASVs unique to DNA or RNA or shared between the two methods (Figure S1). ASV shared by DNA and RNA microbial communities showed more pronounced variations in microbial community structures differences. *Actinobacteria* and *Bacteroidetes* were more enriched in DNA (p_{Kruskal-Wallis} < 0.05), while *Firmicutes* and *Proteobacteria* were more enriched

260	in the RNA microbial community ($p_{Kruskal-Wallis} < 0.05$). Differentiating ASVs unique in DNA
261	included sequences associated with Actinobacteria, Gemmatimonadetes, Latescibacteria, and
262	Parcubacteria; in contrast, sequences associated with Firmicutes were unique in RNA.
263	
264	Figure 5. Phylum level differences in DNA and RNA microbial communities. Relative abundances
265	of annotated ASVs are shown, identified to their closest match in the RDP classifier. See
266	Supplementary Table 2 for a different perspective on the dynamics of numerical relative
267	abundance.
268	
269	Table S2. Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test comparing the average relative abundances of
270	phyla between DNA and RNA microbial communities.
271	
272	Figure S1. Phylum level differences in DNA and RNA microbial communities based on unique
273	ASVs in DNA or RNA only (A) or shared ASVS and their enrichment in either DNA or RNA (B).
274	Relative abundances of annotated ASVs are shown, identified to their closest match in the RDP
275	classifier.
276	
277	DNA and RNA microbial community compositions were variably changed by stand age, N
278	fertilization amount, and time since fertilization
279	Previously, the response of the soil microbial community at this site to plant stand age,
280	fertilization history, and time since fertilization was studied based on DNA (41). In this study,
281	subsets of these samples were studied to directly compare DNA and RNA 16S rRNA gene

characterization. Based on DNA, community composition responded significantly to the stand age

and N fertilization amount. The community response based on RNA was similar, with the notable
exception that time since fertilization showed a significant effect only in RNA (Table 1). The effect
of stand age and N fertilization amount was generally larger in DNA than RNA, and time since
fertilization had a larger effect on the RNA microbial community.

287

Table 1. Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) for comparing DNAand RNA microbial community dissimilarity.

290

291 Next, pairwise comparisons of DNA and RNA microbial communities between stand ages 292 were performed (pairwise PERMANOVA, Table S3). The stand ages of M. x giganteus included 293 were 2-, 3-, and 4-year-old, and the microbial community of each stand age was significantly 294 different based on both DNA and RNA microbial communities ($p_{pairwisePERMANOVA} < 0.05$). Similar 295 patterns were observed for the response to N fertilization amount in both libraries, and both DNA 296 and RNA microbial communities were found to have different microbial community compositions 297 for three varying N fertilization amount ($p_{pairwisePERMANOVA} < 0.05$). Pairwise comparison of DNA 298 and RNA based on sampling day or the time since fertilization resulted in no significant differences 299 observed in DNA, but significant differences between pre-fertilization (10 days before fertilization) 300 and 69 days since fertilization in RNA (Table S4, $p_{pairwisePERMANOVA} < 0.05$).

301

Table S3. Pairwise permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) for
 comparing the effect of stand age and fertilization on the DNA and RNA microbial community
 dissimilarity.

Table S4. Pairwise permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) for comparing the effect of time since fertilization on the DNA and RNA microbial community dissimilarity.

309

310 Stand age was consistently observed to explain the most variation between experimental 311 factors, regardless of DNA or RNA methods (Table 1). We next evaluated if the specific phyla 312 found to be different between stand ages was consistent between DNA and RNA microbial communities. A total of 20 identical phyla were detected in both sequencing libraries. Every 313 314 phylum showed significant relative abundance differences between DNA and RNA (pKruskal-Wallis < 0.05). The dominant phyla differed between DNA and RNA (Figure 6), with Acidobacteria 315 316 (>17%), Actinobacteria (>24%), and Proteobacteria (>32%) dominant in DNA, and Firmicutes (>12%) and *Proteobacteria* (>43%) in RNA. We subsequently selected these phyla to evaluate 317 318 genera level differences between DNA and RNA methods.

319

Figure 6. Phylum level differences in DNA and RNA microbial communities according to stand age differences. Relative abundances of annotated ASVs are shown, identified to their closest match in the RDP classifier. The letters "***" denote significant differences of relative abundance between different stand ages of *M*. x *giganteus* at a p-value < 0.05 as assessed by Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test.

325

A total of 569 genera were detected among *Actinobacteria*, *Proteobacteria*, and *Firmicutes* and 308, 316, and 337 genera in 2-, 3-, and 4-year-old *M*. x *giganteus*, respectively, showed significant differences between the DNA and RNA microbial communities. We selected the genera with greater than 0.1% relative abundance and compared differences between taxonomic profiles
in DNA and RNA (Figure S2). Sequences associated with *Bacillus*, *Clostridium*, *Paenibacillus*, *Sporosarcina* of *Firmicutes* and *Bradyrhizobium*, *Methyloversatilis*, *Nitrosomonas*, *Nitrosospira*,
and *Steroidobacter* of *Proteobacteria* were more enriched in RNA than in DNA. On the other hand, *Gaiella* and *Solirubrobacter* of *Actinobacteria* were more enriched in DNA.

334

Figure S2. Comparison of dominant genus (> 0.1% relative abundance) in *Actinobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, and *Proteobacteria* between DNA and RNA microbial communities. (A) 4-year-old *M. x giganteus*, 73 genera. (B) 3-year-old *M. x giganteus*, 77 genera. (C) 2-year-old *M. x giganteus*,
74 genera. All genera included this analysis were significantly different between DNA and RNA
microbial communities (p_{Kruskal-Wallis} < 0.05).

340

Differences in response to fertilization were also observed between DNA and RNA 341 microbial communities. Both DNA- and RNA-based methods identified that soil microbial 342 343 communities showed different responses to N fertilization amount (Table 1, Table S3), though the phylogenetic profile observed under fertilized conditions differed based on the two methods 344 345 (Figure S3). Overall, a greater number of phyla in RNA relative to DNA were significantly affected by differences in N fertilization amount (Table S5). Seven phyla in RNA (Actinobacteria, 346 347 Firmicutes. Gemmatimonadetes, Hydrogenedentes, Latescibacteria, Nitrospirae. and 348 Proteobacteria) showed significant differences between N fertilization amount differences compared to four phyla in DNA (Acidobacteria, Chloroflexi, Latescibacteria, and Proteobacteria). 349 Actinobacteria (>26%) was more enriched in DNA microbial communities ($p_{Kruskal-Wallis} < 0.05$), 350

and *Firmicutes* (>12%) and *Proteobacteria* (>47%) were significantly more enriched in RNA
microbial communities (p_{Kruskal-Wallis} < 0.05).

353

Figure S3. Phylum level differences in DNA and RNA microbial communities according to N
fertilization amount differences. Relative abundances of annotated ASVs are shown, identified to
their closest match in the RDP classifier. The letters "***" denote significant differences of relative
abundance between different stand age of *M*. x *giganteus* at a p-value < 0.05 as assess by Kruskal-
Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test.

Table S5. Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test comparing the average relative abundances of
phyla between DNA and RNA microbial communities by different amounts of N fertilization.
Denote N0, N224, and N448 are N fertilization amount of 0 kg N ha⁻¹, 224 kg N ha⁻¹, and 448 kg
N ha⁻¹, respectively.

364

Genus-level analysis was performed on the *Actinobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, and *Proteobacteria* and among the 569 genera detected, 330, 323, and 309 genera showed significant differences between DNA and RNA microbial communities at N fertilization amount of 0, 224, and 448 kg N ha⁻¹, respectively (Figure S4). Sequences associated with *Bacillus*, *Clostridium*, *Paenibacillus*, *Sporosarcina* of *Firmicutes* and *Bradyrhizobium*, *Methyloversatilis*, and *Nitrosomonas* of *Proteobacteria* more enriched in RNA than DNA. On the other hand, *Gaiella* from *Actinobacteria* and *Sphingomonas* of *Proteobacteria* were more abundant in DNA.

Figure S4. The dynamics of the 88 major genus (> 0.1% relative abundance) in the *Actinobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, and *Proteobacteria* between DNA and RNA microbial communities. (A) 0 kg N ha⁻¹ of fertilizer applied *M*. x *giganteus* soil including 79 genera. (B) 224 kg N ha⁻¹ of fertilizer applied *M*. x *giganteus* soil including 76 genera. (C) 448 kg N ha⁻¹ of fertilizer applied *M*. x *giganteus* soil including 74 genera. All genera included this analysis were significantly different between DNA and RNA microbial communities ($p_{Kruskal-Wallis} < 0.05$).

379

Taxa associated with nitrogen cycle-related bacteria showed a short-term response since fertilization only in RNA microbial communities.

In comparing pre- and post-fertilization soil samples, differences in soil microbial communities were observed only in RNA libraries (Table 1, Table S4). Taxa that were significantly different before and since fertilization were associated with 10 phyla (Figure 7). Additionally, these differences were only observed 69 days since fertilization, where the relative abundances of *Acidobacteria*, *Armatimonadetes*, *Firmicutes*, and *Planctomycetes* were increased compared to before fertilization, and the relative abundances of *Actinobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, *Chloroflexi*, and *Latescibacteria* decreased.

389

Figure 7. Phylum-level responses to time since fertilization in RNA microbial communities. The
average relative abundances of phyla over time since fertilization were summarized. Letters "***"
denote significant differences of relative abundance between pre- and 69 days since fertilization
at a p-value < 0.05 as assess by Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test.

395 The most enrichment since fertilization was observed in the *Firmicutes*, in which relative abundance was increased 10 folds, and *Planctomycetes* also increased by about 1.7 folds. These 396 397 phyla are notable because they are known to contain known nitrogen cycling taxa (54, 55). To 398 better explore the response to fertilization of nitrogen cycling taxa, we obtained taxa that are 399 associated with nitrogen fixation, nitrification, and denitrification from the Fungene database. 400 These taxa include 51 genera associated with *Firmicutes*, *Nitrospirae*, and *Planctomycetes*. We 401 compared the differences of these genera between DNA and RNA libraries. Overall, the total relative abundance of these genera comprised 1.18% and 8.51% in the 402 403 DNA and RNA microbial communities, respectively (Figure 8). The large majority of these genera (with the exception of four genera) showed significant differences between DNA and RNA, and 404 405 among them, *Bacillus*, *Paenibacillus*, and *Sporosarcina* were the most abundant (> 20%) in the 406 RNA microbial community.

407

Figure 8. Comparison of nitrogen cycling-related bacteria in the DNA and RNA microbial
communities. The average relative abundances of genus associated with nitrogen fixation,
nitrification, and denitrification were summarized.

411

The taxa that showed distinct responses in RNA compared to DNA were classified by their known nitrogen cycling functions (excluding taxa with multiple functional annotations). Only taxa associated with denitrification in the RNA microbial communities showed a significant difference (Figure 9, Table S6) between pre- and post-fertilization, consistent with the observation that denitrifying bacteria were consistently enriched since fertilization (56).

418	Figure 9. Comparison of nitrogen cycling-related bacteria in the DNA and RNA microbial
419	communities according to time since fertilization. The average relative abundances of bacteria
420	associated with nitrogen fixation, nitrification, and denitrification function were summarized.
421	
422	Table S6. Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test comparing the average relative abundances of
423	nitrogen cycling functions in RNA microbial communities by time since fertilization.
424	
425	Discussion
426 427	In direct comparisons of <i>M</i> . x giganteus soil microbiomes from DNA and RNA extractions,
428	we found that the most significant factor in explaining variation between microbiomes was its
429	sequencing library of origin, even more so than experimental factors of stand age, N fertilization
430	amount, or sampling day (Table S1). DNA and RNA microbiomes also had significantly different
431	alpha diversity, with increased diversity and less variation observed in DNA relative to RNA.
432	These results are consistent with what is known about DNA and RNA. DNA represents the
433	potential genes or membership that may be active and thus is expected to represent more diverse
434	membership with the potential to become metabolically active. RNA, which is actively transcribed,
435	represents growing members, and its higher variability is consistent with its dynamic responses.
436	Previous studies have shown that the RNA microbial community may also have lower alpha
437	diversity because it does not contain the sequences of dormant or dead cells and also has greater
438	variability in response to the environment (47, 57–59).
439	Overall, the large majority of membership between DNA and RNA was shared (greater

439 Overall, the large majority of membership between DNA and RNA was shared (greater
440 than 90%), suggesting that both methods identify the similar presence of taxa. The abundance of
441 these shared taxa, however, could be significantly different between DNA and RNA, and most of

the shared taxa were more enriched in RNA. Based on the assumption that taxa observed in both methods are the most reliable, it is likely that DNA-based methods are underestimating the relative abundance of taxa. Further, these differences between DNA and RNA methods contributed to differences in estimated alpha diversity and varying observations of the microbial community response to plant host stand age and fertilization.

447 In response to both stand age and N fertilization amount, significant differences were observed in both DNA and RNA communities. While the overall pattern and ranking of differences 448 were similar, the magnitude of this change and taxonomic membership driving these differences 449 450 varied between DNA and RNA approaches. The most significant difference we observed in M. x 451 giganteus soil microbial communities between the two library methods was in response to nitrogen 452 fertilization. Only RNA microbial communities showed differences pre- and post-fertilization and 453 only at day 69. RNA is able to show more rapid changes in response to changes in environmental 454 conditions than DNA (60, 61), and here, we show the ability of RNA to capture a relatively short-455 term response over the course of one growing season in M. x giganteus, which is not observed in 456 DNA. These results are consistent with RNA's short half-life of several minutes to several hours (62) and also justify its usage for measuring short-term seasonal responses in bioenergy soils. Our 457 458 results showed that it was not until over two months that a response different to pre-fertilization 459 conditions was observed in RNA, providing some insight into the metabolic response of soil 460 microbes to fertilization in these soils.

Among the taxa which were found to be uniquely identified in RNA libraries were members associated with nitrogen-cycling, including members of *Firmicutes*, *Nitrospirae*, and *Planctomycetes* which were enriched with both the presence of fertilizer and increasing nitrogen fertilizer. These results are consistent with previous studies which have shown that *Firmicutes* are 465 enriched when nitrogen fertilizers are used (63–67). In the context of taxa associated with nitrogen cycling, it was confirmed that the RNA-based approach could better detect the denitrification 466 467 function among the nitrogen cycling functions. This result is consistent with the results of previous 468 studies that the application of nitrogen fertilizers suppressed the activity of nitrogen-fixing bacteria 469 and enhanced denitrifying bacteria (56, 68). These results also emphasize that DNA may 470 underestimate or miss the contribution of nitrogen-cycling taxa, which are highly relevant for 471 nitrogen management in bioenergy systems. In addition to these taxa, we also found that members 472 of dominant soil phyla, Actinobacteria and Proteobacteria are underestimated using DNA 473 methods alone.

474 In summary, we found that DNA and RNA methods for characterizing the general response 475 of microbial communities varied. With relevance to developing sustainable bioenergy crops and 476 understanding the role of microbes in nutrient cycling, RNA appears to capture better the response 477 of taxa known to be involved in nitrogen cycling and is also more sensitive to seasonal shifts in 478 microbiomes. To better link microbial communities to ecosystem processes, we need to move 479 towards characterizing the functional response of microbial communities. Due to costs, the first 480 step in this characterization is often phylogenetic characterization of SSU genes based on DNA. 481 Our results indicate that this method alone may bias against the composition results of the relevant 482 microbial membership.

Notably, the integration of RNA-based methods into an experiment adds significant costs, requiring materials to quickly preserve samples for RNA extraction and typically more time for extraction and library preparation. RNA used for SSU characterization can be a complement to DNA-based studies, as it leverages the advantages and throughput of indicator gene amplification while not being as expensive as metatranscriptomics strategies. Based on our results, we

488 recommended that DNA can be used for the initial and broad characterization of community membership. The use of RNA for SSU characterization could be used to complement DNA 489 490 characterization when experimental questions have been developed. In the context of our 491 experiment, DNA-based analyses were used to validate that there was a significant response to 492 stand age and fertilization. RNA-based analyses were more helpful in identifying the specific taxa 493 that respond to fertilization. With these specific taxa now identified, future research will be focused on functional characterization, guided by the result of this study (e.g., microbial responses to 494 fertilization responses are most significant two months since fertilization). More broadly, in our 495 496 understanding of microbial ecology, increasing numbers of studies are identifying the 497 environments or gradients for which microbial communities are changing. In future work, it will 498 be necessary to emphasize which taxa or what functions are changing, and our results indicate that 499 RNA-based SSU characterization may be a substantial resource.

500

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502

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Figure 1. Similarities, assessed with Bray-Curtis indices, between DNA and RNA microbial
communities from *M.* x *giganteus* soils. Constrained analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) was
used to ordinate Bray-Curtis indices calculated with ASVs. Blue dot and red triangle represent the
DNA and RNA microbial communities, respectively.



718 Figure 2. Alpha diversity indices of DNA and RNA microbial communities. Richness ((A)



720 denote significant differences of alpha diversity indices between DNA and RNA microbial

721 communities at a p-value < 0.05 as assess by Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test.



722

Figure 3. Abundance-occupancy comparison of ASVs in the DNA and RNA microbial communities. Abundance-occupancy distributions were assessed to identify the dynamics of the DNA and RNA microbial community memberships. Each point is an ASV. The ASVs were classified as (A) unique in DNA or (B) unique in RNA, respectively, when it was detected only in the DNA or RNA microbial communities. ASVs detected in both DNA and RNA microbial communities were classified as "shared" and further classified by the average relative abundance based on its enrichment in (C) DNA or (D) RNA.



731 Figure 4. RNA/DNA ratio comparison of the shared ASVs. The ratio of average relative abundance

732 in DNA and RNA microbial communities of ASVs detected in both microbial communities was

compared to identify the biased in the DNA and RNA-based microbial community analysis results.

734 Shared - higher in DNA (blue) and Shared - higher in RNA (red).



735

Figure 5. Phylum level differences in DNA and RNA microbial communities. Relative abundances
of annotated ASVs are shown, identified to their closest match in the RDP classifier. See
Supplementary Table 2 for a different perspective on the dynamics of numerical relative
abundance.



741

Figure 6. Phylum level differences in DNA and RNA microbial communities according to stand 742 age differences. Relative abundances of annotated ASVs are shown, identified to their closest match in the RDP classifier. The letters "***" denote significant differences of relative abundance 743 744 between different stand ages of M. x giganteus at a p-value < 0.05 as assessed by Kruskal-Wallis 745 with post hoc Dunn's test.



Figure 7. Phylum-level responses to time since fertilization in RNA microbial communities. The
average relative abundances of phyla over time since fertilization were summarized. Letters "***"
denote significant differences of relative abundance between pre- and 69 days since fertilization
at a p-value < 0.05 as assess by Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test.



Figure 8. Comparison of nitrogen cycling-related bacteria in the DNA and RNA microbial
communities. The average relative abundances of genus associated with nitrogen fixation,
nitrification, and denitrification were summarized.



Figure 9. Comparison of nitrogen cycling-related bacteria in the DNA and RNA microbial
communities according to time since fertilization. The average relative abundances of bacteria
associated with nitrogen fixation, nitrification, and denitrification function were summarized.



Figure S1. Phylum level differences in DNA and RNA microbial communities based on unique





Figure S2. Comparison of dominant genus (> 0.1% relative abundance) in *Actinobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, and *Proteobacteria* between DNA and RNA microbial communities. (A) 4-year-old *M. x giganteus*, 73 genera. (B) 3-year-old *M. x giganteus*, 77 genera. (C) 2-year-old *M. x giganteus*,
74 genera. All genera included this analysis were significantly different between DNA and RNA
microbial communities (p_{Kruskal-Wallis} < 0.05).



770

771Figure S3. Phylum level differences in DNA and RNA microbial communities according to N772fertilization amount differences. Relative abundances of annotated ASVs are shown, identified to773their closest match in the RDP classifier. The letters "***" denote significant differences of relative774abundance between different stand age of *M.* x *giganteus* at a p-value < 0.05 as assess by Kruskal-</td>775Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test.



Figure S4. The dynamics of the 88 major genus (> 0.1% relative abundance) in the *Actinobacteria*, *Firmicutes*, and *Proteobacteria* between DNA and RNA microbial communities. (A) 0 kg N ha⁻¹ of fertilizer applied *M*. x *giganteus* soil including 79 genera. (B) 224 kg N ha⁻¹ of fertilizer applied *M*. x *giganteus* soil including 76 genera. (C) 448 kg N ha⁻¹ of fertilizer applied *M*. x *giganteus* soil including 74 genera. All genera included this analysis were significantly different between DNA and RNA microbial communities ($p_{Kruskal-Wallis} < 0.05$).

783 Table 1. Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) for comparing DNA

Response	Stord ago	N fertilization	Time since	Fertilization
variable	Stand age	amount	fertilization	history
DNA	R^2 permanova:	R^2 permanova:	R^2 permanova:	R^2 permanova:
microbial	0.051	0.015	0.005	0.003
community	ppermanova: 0.001	ppermanova: 0.002	ppermanova: n.s	ppermanova: n.s
community RNA	ppermanova: 0.001 R ² permanova:	ppermanova: 0.002 R ² permanova:	ppermanova: n.s R ² permanova:	ppermanova: n.s R ² permanova:
community RNA microbial	ppermanova: 0.001 R ² permanova: 0.037	ppermanova: 0.002 R ² permanova: 0.009	ppermanova: n.s R ² permanova: 0.010	p _{permanova} : n.s R ² _{permanova} : 0.005

and RNA microbial community dissimilarity.

786 Table S1. Comparison of microbial community dissimilarity using permutational multivariate

analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) for bacterial communities in *M*. x giganteus soil samples.

Response variable	Dissimilarity
Nucleic Acid	R ² permanova: 0.117
(DNA and RNA)	p _{permanova} : 0.001
Stand ages	R^2 permanova: 0.030
(2, 3, or 4-year-old)	ppermanova: 0.001
N fertilization amount	R^2 permanova: 0.008
$(0, 224, and 448 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1})$	ppermanova: 0.001
Time since fertilization	R ² permanova: 0.003
(-10, 5, 21, and 69 days)	p _{permanova} : 0.015
Fertilization history	R ² permanova: 0.002
(fertilized or unfertilized)	p _{PERMANOVA} : n.s

789 Table S2. Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test comparing the average relative abundances of

790	phyla be	etween DN	A and RNA	microbial	communities.

Dhylum	Average rela	n voluo	
Filylulli	DNA	RNA	p-value
Acidobacteria	17.88%	16.29%	6.54E-09
Actinobacteria	26.46%	8.18%	2.22E-87
Armatimonadetes	0.31%	0.23%	1.92E-17
Bacteroidetes	6.02%	2.34%	1.13E-77
Chlamydiae	0.05%	0.10%	1.60E-93
Chloroflexi	2.58%	1.47%	3.04E-90
Cyanobacteria/Chloroplast	0.02%	0.03%	7.67E-93
Deinococcus-Thermus	0.00%	0.02%	4.75E-07
Firmicutes	1.05%	12.90%	1.13E-92
Gemmatimonadetes	2.81%	0.14%	1.33E-87
Hydrogenedentes	0.00%	0.00%	7.75E-83
Ignavibacteriae	0.01%	0.01%	2.61E-11
Latescibacteria	0.28%	0.10%	4.30E-83
Nitrospirae	0.45%	0.33%	1.69E-74
Parcubacteria	0.05%	0.00%	7.05E-68
Planctomycetes	2.64%	4.06%	4.49E-98
Proteobacteria	32.76%	48.97%	3.08E-90
Spirochaetes	0.01%	0.01%	1.50E-94
Tenericutes	0.00%	0.00%	1.93E-33
Verrucomicrobia	6.63%	4.81%	3.18E-15

792 Table S3. Pairwise permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) for

comparing the effect of stand age and fertilization on the DNA and RNA microbial community

794 dissimilarity.

Response	Stand age		N fertilization amount (kg N ha ⁻¹)		
variable					
DNA microbial community	4-year-old vs	$R^2_{pairwisePERMANOVA} = 0.063$	0 vs	$R^2_{pairwisePERMANOVA} = 0.014$	
	3-year-old	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.001$	224	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.023$	
	4-year-old vs	R^2 pairwisePERMANOVA= 0.073	0 vs	$R^2_{pairwisePERMANOVA} = 0.021$	
	2-year-old	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.001$	448	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.018$	
	3-year-old vs	$R^2_{pairwise PERMANOVA} = 0.210$	224 vs	$R^2_{pairwisePERMANOVA} = 0.015$	
	2-year-old	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.001$	448	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.023$	
	4-year-old vs	$R^2_{pairwisePERMANOVA} = 0.039$	0 vs	$R^2_{pairwisePERMANOVA} = 0.011$	
RNA microbial community	3-year-old	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.001$	224	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.031$	
	4-year-old vs	$R^2_{pairwise PERMANOVA} = 0.057$	0 vs	$R^2_{pairwisePERMANOVA} = 0.013$	
	2-year-old	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.001$	448	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.029$	
	3-year-old vs	$R^2_{pairwise PERMANOVA} = 0.152$	224 vs	$R^2_{pairwisePERMANOVA} = 0.012$	
	2-year-old	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.001$	448	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.029$	

- 796 Table S4. Pairwise permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) for
- 797 comparing the effect of time since fertilization on the DNA and RNA microbial community
- 798 dissimilarity.

Response variable	Time	Time since fertilization			
	-10 vs 5	n.s			
DNA microbial community	-10 vs 21	n.s			
	-10 vs 69	n.s			
	5 vs 21	n.s			
	5 vs 69	n.s			
	21 vs 69	n.s			
	-10 vs 5	n.s			
	-10 vs 21	n.s			
DNIA anti-	10 vs 60	R^2 pairwise PERMANOVA = 0.018,			
RNA microbial community	-10 vs 09	$p_{\text{pairwisePERMANOVA}} = 0.018$			
	5 vs 21	n.s			
	5 vs 69	n.s			
	21 vs 69	n.s			

- 800 Table S5. Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test comparing the average relative abundances of
- 801 phyla between DNA and RNA microbial communities by different N fertilization. Denote N0,
- 802 N224, and N448 are N fertilization of 0 kg N ha⁻¹, 224 kg N ha⁻¹, and 448 kg N ha⁻¹, respectively.

	Dissission	Difference in		p-value	
	Phylum	average relative abundance			
	A side based on in	10 440/	17 220/	3.62E-02	
-	Actuobucteriu	10.4470	17.2370	between N0 and N448	
	Chloroflari	2.30%	2.90%	1.24E-02	
	Chiorofiexi			between N224 and N448	
microbial		0.22%	0.30%	1.79E-04	
community	Latosoihaetaria	0.5270	0.5070	between N0 and N448	
community	Lutescibacieria	0.200/	0.210/	1.30E-03	
		0.50%	0.2170	between N224 and N448	
	Ductochactoria	21.540/	24 100/	3.17E-04	
	Proteobacierta	51.54%	54.1070	between N0 and N448	
	Actinobacteria	0.199/	7 200/	1.33E-03	
		9.18%	1.39%	between N224 and N448	
	Firmicutes	12.91%	13.78%	2.55E-03	
				between N224 and N448	
	Commatimonadotos	0.12%	0.13%	4.52E-02	
	Gemmatimonadeles			between N0 and N448	
ΡΝΛ	Hydrogenedentes	0.0054%	0.0047%	2.47E-02	
microbial				between N0 and N224	
community		0.0047%		2.62E-02	
community		0.004770	0.003370	between N224 and N448	
	Latescibacteria	0.10%	0.08%	3.87E-03	
		0.1070		between N224 and N448	
	Nitropiraa	0.30%	0.31%	1.59E-04	
	nuiopirae			between N0 and N448	
	Protechacteria	50.08%	49 46%	3.27E-05	
	11010000010110		T7.70/0	between N0 and N448	

804 Table S6. Kruskal-Wallis with post hoc Dunn's test comparing the average relative abundances of

-		Function	Days		Relative abundance		p-value
-	RNA		-10 days	69 days	0.85%	1.15%	1.52E-08
	microbial	Denitrification	5 days	69 days	0.95%	1.15%	7.72E-03
	community		21 days	69 days	0.94%	1.15%	2.72E-03

805 nitrogen cycling functions in RNA microbial communities by time since fertilization.