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F. Vautrin, P. Piveteau, M. Cannavacciuolo, P. Barre, C. Chauvin, et al.. The short-term response of soil microbial communities to digestate application depends on the characteristics of the digestate and soil type. Applied Soil Ecology, 2024, 193, pp.art. 105105. 10.1016/j.apsoil.2023.105105 . hal-04266661

HAL Id: hal-04266661 https://hal.science/hal-04266661v1

Submitted on 12 Jan2025

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1 The short-term response of soil microbial communities to digestate application depends

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Keywords: Digestate; soil types; high-throughput DNA sequencing; microcosm experiment;
microbial community

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35

36 Abstract

Anaerobic digestion of organic waste is a key process to produce renewable energy and meet 37 the growing demand for sustainable energy. The residues of anaerobic digestion - called 38 39 digestates - can be used as soil amendments to improve crop yields. However, the effect of 40 digestates on the soil biota, especially on microorganisms, needs to be better documented before a large scale use of digestates in agriculture. In addition, how the quality and 41 42 composition of the digestate may affect soil microbial communities has not been properly addressed yet. We designed a microcosm experiment under controlled experimental 43 conditions to compare effects (42 days) of four digestates produced from varying intakes 44

(cattle manure and/or energy crop and/or food residues and/or slurry) on soil microbial 45 46 communities; a control microcosm made of undigested cattle manure was also used. Each digestate was applied on three contrasting soils representing contrasted pedo-climatic 47 conditions (especially soil type and climate). These three soils presented different prokaryotic 48 and fungal communities structures. The effect of digestate inputs on the soil microbial 49 biomass and diversity was assessed using molecular DNA-based tools (quantification of 50 51 extracted soil DNA and high-throughput sequencing, respectively) in comparison to the untreated cattle manure control condition. Our results show that 42 days after digestate 52 application, significant differences of soil microbial communities were observed according to 53 54 the digestate characteristics; these differences were soil-dependent. Thus, in the silty clay loam soil, no effect of digestates was observed on soil microbial biomass or diversity (P > 55 0.05), as compared to the undigested cattle manure. In the two other soil types (loam and 56 57 sandy loam), soil microbial biomass decreased (around -40%, P<0.001) when digestates having a low total organic carbon content (from 0.61 to 3.3 g.100g⁻¹) were applied. None of 58 59 the digestates affected the soil prokaryotic diversity whatever the soil type (P > 0.05). Digestate application resulted in higher fungal diversity (around +35%; P<0.001) in soils with 60 low C/N ratio (9.14 in average). The microbial community structure of coarse-textured soil 61 appeared more impacted by organic inputs than fine-textured soils. To conclude, our results 62 show that different soil types, harboring distinct microbial community structures, responded 63 differently to different digestates application. This response was also digestate-dependent. 64

65 1. Introduction

Biogas production has been rapidly growing in Europe for more than a decade (Appel et
al., 2016), in line with Europe's target to meet 32% of renewable energy production by 2030
(European Parliament, 2018). This increase may be further amplified by the current

geopolitical context raising questions about Europe's gas self-sufficiency. It is also an alternative way to manage farmyard manure and/or industrial organic waste while producing green energy (Panuccio et al., 2021). In addition to biogas production, anaerobic digestion produces digestate – a by-product used as an organic fertilizer (Pivato et al., 2016). Thus, biogas production contributes to promote circular bioeconomy by closing the nutrient loop, it contributes also to the mitigation of greenhouse gas emissions from farm effluents and increases carbon sequestration in soils (Nayal *et al.*, 2016; Tambone *et al.*, 2017).

According to the literature, the organic matter of digestates may improve the soil structure, its infiltration rate and its water-holding capacity (Barłóg *et al.*, 2020; Makádi *et al.*, 2012; Möller and Müller, 2012), and thus increase productivity while lowering fertilization costs. However, thorough investigations of possible side effects on the soil biota – especially on microorganisms that play important roles in the soil ecosystem – are required to properly assess the sustainability of large-scale land application of digestates in agricultural fields.

It is now well established that organic amendments improve soil microbial communities 82 83 by increasing the soil microbial biomass (Chaudhry et al., 2012; Francioli et al., 2016; Ros et al., 2006) and inducing shifts of prokaryotic and fungal community structures (Chaudhry et 84 al., 2012; Francioli et al., 2016; Ros et al., 2006; Sadet-Bourgeteau et al., 2018). The 85 86 response of microbial communities to organic waste inputs depends on the soil type and on the nature of the organic materials (Sadet-Bourgeteau et al., 2019). In addition, it is important 87 to consider the time lag between organic material application and their impact on the soil. 88 Transient changes in the bacterial functional and genetic structures occur within the first three 89 months following organic amendment. Then, a period of resilience is observed, eventually 90 91 leading to similar communities in both the amended and control plots (Calbrix et al., 2007). This strong transient alteration of soil microbial functioning may lead to modifications of the 92 93 carbon and nitrogen cycles (Sadet-Bourgeteau et al., 2019). This could explain why the period

within days directly following land application of organic amendments is considered of the
highest importance for environmental hazards. However, the impact of digestates on the soil
microbial communities has not been extensively studied on the short term, *i.e.* up to eight
weeks after application. In addition, to our knowledge, no studies assessed this effect on soil
microbial communities from different soil types.

99 Reports on the impacts of digestates on the soil microbiota are scarce, and those on the 100 short-term effects of digestates on the soil microbial communities are rather contradictory, as reviewed by Karimi et al. (2022). Some studies suggest that biogas digestates increase the soil 101 microbial biomass (Caracciolo et al., 2015; Cattin et al., 2021; García-Sánchez et al., 2015; 102 103 Muscolo et al., 2017; Panuccio et al., 2021) and prokaryotic diversity (Caracciolo et al., 2015; García-Sánchez et al., 2015) from 21 to 180 days after inputs compared to unfertilized soil. 104 Other studies show no significant effect of digestate inputs on the soil microbial biomass or 105 106 prokaryotic diversity from 1 to 10 weeks after application (Akari and Uchida, 2021; Barduca et al., 2021; Podmirseg et al., 2019). To our knowledge, the short-term impact of digestates on 107 108 the soil fungal community has never been assessed. Interestingly, a short-term effect of digestates on the microbial community structure is consistently observed whatever the 109 experimental conditions (Caracciolo et al., 2015; Gómez-Brandón et al., 2016; Hupfauf et al., 110 2016; Johansen et al., 2013; Sapp et al., 2015), leading to growth of Actinobacteria and 111 Acidobacteria, a decrease of the Bacteroidetes (Sapp et al., 2015) or a shift in the ammonia-112 oxidizing bacteria (AOB) community (Gomez-Brandon et al., 2016). Differences in 113 experimental setups and conditions could explain conflicting results observed for some 114 microbial indicators: the soil type, the digestate nature and dose, the delay between digestate 115 application and soil sampling, the presence and type of vegetation varied across studies. All 116 these factors make it difficult to reach generic conclusions about the impact of digestates on 117

the soil microbial quality. However, as previously mentioned, studies combining differentsoil types and contrasting digestates are lacking (Karimi et al., 2022).

Therefore, thorough investigations of possible side effects on the soil biota – especially
on microorganisms that play important roles in the soil ecosystem – are required to properly
assess the sustainability of large-scale land application of digestates in agricultural fields.

123 Based on previous studies, we hypothesized that the responses of microbial communities to digestate depend on the soil type and on the nature of digestate. Therefore, the objective of the 124 present study was to compare, under controlled experimental conditions, the short-term 125 impact of different types of digestates on soil microbial communities, and to assess if these 126 127 impacts depended on the type of soil. This laboratory microcosm experiment was designed with four types of digestate and three soils, with a range of physicochemical and climatic 128 characteristics, selected to represent different microbial communities. Soils were sampled 129 130 from fields that had never received any digestate amendment. The four digestates mainly differed in their physicochemical composition, especially their C/N ratio and nutrient content. 131 Digestates were applied to the microcosms at an agronomic dose of 25 t.ha⁻¹. The responses 132 of prokaryotic and fungal communities (microbial biomass, 16S and 18S ribosomal gene 133 inventories) were assessed 42 days after digestate application. The novelty of this work is to 134 address concomitantly the factors "type of digestate" and "type of soil" within the same 135 experimental setup to assess how these factors affect the responses of prokaryotic and fungal 136 communities upon digestate application to soil. High throughput sequencing respectively 137 targeting 16S and 18S ribosomal genes was used to characterize the vast microbial diversity 138 of soil and assess microbial communities' composition changes after amendment. 139

- 140 **2.** Materials and methods
- 141 2.1. Soils, biogas digestates and control manure used in this study

Three soils were selected according to their pedoclimatic diversity. One silty clay loam soil was collected from the continental Burgundy region (BOU, 47°38'86.88N; 5°06'29.01E). One loam soil originated from the oceanic Pays de la Loire region (PDL, 47°72'86.90N; 0°49'71.88W). The third soil, of sandy loam texture, came from the Mediterranean Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur region (PACA, 43°17'80.55N; 6°20'88.88E). These three soils, thereafter called BOU, PDL and PACA did not have any record of digestate land application; BOU and PDL were under annual cropping systems, while PACA was a vineyard soil.

The top layer (0-20 cm) of these soils was sampled in February 2021. Each soil sample 149 was homogenized and sieved to 4 mm to remove aboveground plant debris, roots and stones. 150 151 An aliquot was air-dried for physicochemical analysis. Particle size distribution, pH, soil total organic carbon (TOC), soil total nitrogen (Total N), soil C/N ratio, Olsen P, Cation Exchange 152 Capacity (CEC) and exchangeable cations (calcium, magnesium, sodium and potassium) were 153 154 determined by the Soil Analysis Laboratory of INRAE (Arras, France, https://www6.hautsdefrance.inrae.fr/las). The water-holding capacity (WHC; gravimetric 155 156 humidity) was estimated in the laboratory. The initial soil physicochemical parameters are summarized in Table 1. The remaining soil was used for microcosm setup. 157

Whole digestates were collected from four commercial anaerobic digestors fed with 158 159 contrasting input organic materials: i) FYM :farmyard manure - 75% cattle manure, 10% cattle slurry, 10% energy crop and 5% milk-derived matter, ii) CMF :cattle manure + fat -160 45% duck slurry, 45% biowaste products, 10% fatty waste from agroindustry, iii) MFW 161 :manure + food waste - 52% manure, 17% vegetables, 19% waste from agroindustry, 10% 162 slurry and 2% blood and iv) SMS : silage maize and sorghum – 90% energy crop and 10% 163 164 maize silage. FYM underwent a sanitation stage at 70 °C for 1h. Undigested cattle manure (CM) from a dairy farm was chosen as control to assess conventional agronomic practices. 165 166 All fresh organic amendments were sent to Aurea Co. (France, https://aurea.eu/) to determine

167 moisture, total nitrogen (Total N), pH, and exchangeable cations (phosphorus, potassium, 168 calcium, magnesium and sodium). The carbon fractions (total organic carbon (TOC), soluble 169 organic carbon (SOC), hemicellulosis, cellulosis and lignin-cutin) were assessed by the 170 Regional Laboratory of Analyses and Research (France, https://aisne.com/a-votre-171 service/laboratoire-departemental). The physicochemical characteristics of the organic 172 amendments are summarized in **Table 2**.

173 2.2. *Microcosm setup and incubation*

174 The experimental design consisted of a factorial arrangement with three soils (BOU, PACA and PDL), five amendments (four different types of digestates (CMF, FYM, MFW, 175 SMS), one untreated organic amendment (CM) and one unfertilized control (sterile water). 176 Four replicate microcosms were prepared per condition. In total, 72 microcosms (3 soils \times 6 177 treatments \times 4 replicates) were prepared. Unfertilized control microcosms were added in 178 179 order to take into account the natural evolution of the microbial communities during incubation of soil microcosms, as reported previously (Sadet-Bourgeteau et al., 2019; Tardy 180 et al., 2014). Microbial community results after 42 days of incubation of these unfertilized 181 182 control were subtracted to those of the treated samples. Thus, for each soil type, results were expressed as percent differences between the test condition (CMF, FYM, MFW, SMS or CM) 183 and unfertilized control. 184

For each condition, four sterile flasks (250 mL) were filled with 60 g (dry weight) of soil. After two weeks of pre-incubation at 15 °C, 0.682 g of organic waste products were thoroughly mixed with a soil sample to reach the agronomic dose of 25 t.ha⁻¹ according to agricultural practices in French cropping systems. Sterile water was added to these microcosms to adjust the water content to 70 % soil water-holding capacity (WHC). The flasks were incubated in the dark at 15 °C for 42 days to simulate spring weather conditions.

Every week, they were aerated under a biological safety cabinet, and the water content was 191 192 adjusted (70% of the soil WHC) when necessary to correct for any water loss through evaporation. Germinating plants were removed when required. After incubation 42 days 193 incubation, samples were harvested, lyophilized and stored at -40 °C until use for molecular 194 analyses based on soil DNA extraction. Aliquots of each of the four replicates were pooled, 195 and soil chemical analyses (except particle size distribution) were performed by the Soil 196 197 Analysis Laboratory at the INRAE of Arras (France) as described for the initial stage of the 198 experiment.

199 2.3. DNA Extraction, purification and molecular microbial biomass determination

200 Microbial DNA was extracted from 1 g (dry weight) of soil according to a standardized 201 procedure of the GenoSol platform (INRAE, Dijon, France, https://www2.dijon.inrae.fr/plateforme_genosol/) (Terrat et al., 2012). Since a highly positive 202 203 linear relationship has been shown between soil DNA recovery and C-biomass measurement (Dequiedt et al., 2011; Marstorp et al., 2000), DNA concentrations of crude extracts were 204 determined by electrophoresis in 1% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide using a calf 205 206 thymus DNA standard curve, and used as estimates of microbial biomass (Dequiedt et al., 2011). After quantification, residual impurities were separated from nucleic acids by 207 centrifuging 100 µL of crude DNA through two types of minicolumns (Macherey-Nagel, 208 209 Hoerdt, France) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Purified DNA concentrations were finally measured on a 5-µL load using the Quantifluor staining kit (Promega, Lyon, 210 France) according to the manufacturer's protocol. 211

212 2.4. High-throughput sequencing of 16S and 18S rRNA gene sequences

For prokaryotic diversity (16S), the V3-V4 region of the bacterial chromosome was targeted using primers F479 (5'-CAG CMG CYG CNG TAA NAC-3') and R888 (5'-CCG YCA ATT CMT TTR AGT-3') on a 440-bp fragment (Tardy et al., 2014). For each sample, 5
ng of DNA were used in a final PCR volume of 25 μL, and amplified under the following
conditions: 94 °C for 2 min, 35 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 52 °C and 1 min at 72 °C,
followed by 7 min at 72 °C (Tardy *et al.*, 2014).

As demonstrated by George et al., 2019, soil fungal richness follows the same trends 219 across land use, irrespective of primer set (18S rRNA or ITS (internal transcribed spacer)). 220 221 Thus, as proceeded in previous studies (Chemidlin Prévost-Bouré et al., 2011, Sadet-Bourgeteau et al., 2019) we used a 350-bp 18S rRNA fragment to target fungi with primers 222 FR1 (5'-ANC CAT TCA ATC GGT ANT-3') and FF390 (5'-CGA TAA CGA ACG AGA 223 224 CCT-3') (Chemidlin Prévost-Bouré et al., 2011). For each sample, 5 ng of DNA were used in a final PCR volume of 25 µL and amplified under the following conditions: 94 °C for 3 min, 225 35 cycles of 30 s at 94 °C, 1 min at 52 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, followed by 5 min at 72 °C 226 (Sadet-Bourgeteau et al., 2019). 227

All PCR products were purified using the ProNex® Size-Selective DNA Purification System (Promega, Lyon, France) and quantified with the Quantifluor staining kit (Promega, Lyon, France) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Series of 10-bp multiplex identifiers were added to the 5' end of the primers to identify each sample and prevent PCR biases. For bacteria and archaea, 7.5 ng of DNA were used and amplified with seven cycles under the same conditions as those of the first PCR. For fungi, 5 ng of DNA were used under optimized PCR conditions with a denaturation step at 94 °C for 1 min and seven cycles.

The PCR products were purified with the MinElute gel extraction kit (Qiagen NV) and quantified with the Quantifluor staining kit (Promega, Lyon, France) according to the manufacturer's instructions. All samples were pooled in equal amounts and cleaned with the solid-phase reverse immobilization method (SPRI) using the ProNex[®] kit (Promega, Lyon,
France). The pool was finally sequenced with a MiSeq Illumina instrument (Illumina Inc, San
Diego, CA) operating with V3 chemistry and producing 2x300 bp paired-reads by
GenoScreen (https://www.genoscreen.fr/fr/).

243 2.5. Bioinformatic analysis of the 16S and 18S rRNA gene sequences

All paired-end Illumina MiSeq reads were processed using the BIOCOM-PIPE, as described by Djemiel *et al.* (2020). The parameters retained for each step can be found in **Supplementary Table S1**. The resulting high-quality reads were used for (*i*) taxonomyindependent analysis, determining a biodiversity richness index, and (*ii*) taxonomy-based analysis using similarity approaches against dedicated reference databases from SILVA v132 (Quast et al., 2012). The raw datasets are available in the EBI database system under project accession PRJEB53389.

251 2.6. Statistical analysis

All datasets were analyzed with R software (R version 4.1.3) (Verzani, 2004). As 252 previously mentioned, in order to take into account the natural evolution of the soil microbial 253 community throughout the incubation (molecular microbial biomass and microbial richness), 254 255 the results at the end of the experiment (42 days) from the soils that only received sterile water (un-fertilized control) were subtracted from those of the treated samples. Then, the 256 results were expressed as percent differences. Normality was tested for each parameter using 257 Shapiro-Wilk's test followed by Bartlett's test of the homogeneity of variances. Then, an 258 analysis of variance (ANOVA) and a *post-hoc* Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) 259 test (P < 0.05) were performed to test the effect of soil type, organic materials type and soil 260 type × organic material type on physicochemical properties and microbial community 261

262 indicators (microbial biomass, prokaryotic and fungal richness). The effects with p-values <
263 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

In order to highlight the organic amendment or soil physicochemical parameters involved 264 265 in changes in the microbial community indicators, a redundancy analysis (RDA) was performed, based on the following parameters: soil granulometry, total nitrogen (Total N), 266 total organic carbon (TOC), C/N ratio, pH, Olsen P, together with the following organic 267 268 amendment variables: total nitrogen (Total N), total organic carbon (TOC), SOC, C/N ratio, pH, Olsen P. These variables were used to evaluate whether the soil and organic inputs 269 physico-chemical characteristics discriminated the different treatments. To determine the 270 271 abiotic effects on the microbial community indicators, the *rda* and *ordistep* functions (*vegan* package) were used in R software (R version 4.1.3) (Verzani, 2004). 272

273 The prokaryotic and fungal community structures were also compared using a taxonomic abundance matrix at the phylum level. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) was 274 275 performed on raw data (no subtraction of the unfertilized control) to graphically depict the 276 distribution patterns of the microbial community structures across treatments, constructed with the 1% most abundant phyla. Differences between treatments were assessed by non-277 parametric PERMANOVA tests (P < 0.05) run with the *adonis* function in the *vegan* package. 278 279 Explanatory phyla and physicochemical parameters were fitted on the graphs (Total N, TOC, SOC, C/N ratio, pH and Olsen P for the organic amendments; Total N, TOC, C/N ratio, pH, 280 Olsen P, clay and silt for the soils). 281

282 **3. Results**

283 3.1. Soil physicochemical characteristics

Before organic material application, the three soils exhibited contrasting textures, with a greater clay content in BOU (386 g clay.kg⁻¹ dry soil) and a greater sand content in PACA

(666 g sand.kg⁻¹ dry soil), whereas PDL was considered as a loamy soil (392 g silt kg⁻¹ dry 286 287 soil) (Table 1). Forty-two days after organic material application, the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the soil physico-chemical characteristics highlighted that soil samples 288 were not discriminated according to organic treatments, but remained mainly discriminated by 289 their type (Fig. 1). Thus, at the end of the experiment, BOU was characterized by a higher pH 290 (7.9), higher TOC (20.57 g.kg⁻¹ dry soil) and nitrogen (1.79 g.kg⁻¹ dry soil) contents (Fig. 1). 291 PACA was characterized by lower TOC (5.99 g.kg⁻¹ dry soil) and nitrogen (0.63 g.kg⁻¹ dry 292 soil) contents (Fig. 1). PDL was characterized by a lower pH (6.8). 293

294 3.2. Effects of digestate inputs on soil microbial community indicators

Forty-two days after organic material application, an effect of soil, digestate and soil*digestate interaction was observed for all measured soil microbial indicators (molecular microbial biomass, prokaryotic and fungal richness; Fig. 2, 3 and 4; P < 0.001). More precisely, in BOU, no significant digestate-related difference was observed (P > 0.05; Fig. 2, 3 and 4). All digestates (CMF, FYM, MFW and SMS) induced the same effect on the soil microbial biomass and the microbial diversity indexes (prokaryotic and fungal richness) as cattle manure did.

In PACA, 42 days after application, most of digestates (CMF, FYM and SMS) inputs induced lower microbial biomass compared to CM (-48%, -53% and -37%, respectively; P < 0.001; **Fig. 2**). No significant difference in soil microbial biomass was observed between MFW- and CM-amended PACA (P > 0.05; **Fig. 2**). In PACA soil, digestate application induced no differences of prokaryotic richness in comparison to the CM control, excepted for MFWtreated PACA, which exhibited 20% lower prokaryotic diversity compared to CM treatment (P < 0.001, **Fig. 3**). Regarding PACA soil fungal richness, no significant differences were 309 observed between digestates (CMF, FYM, MFW and SMS)- and CM-treatments (P > 0.05;
310 Fig. 4).

In PDL, 42 days after application, significant lower soil microbial biomass was observed when CMF and SMS were applied compared to CM (-44% and -48%, respectively; P < 0.001; **Fig. 2**). Regarding soil prokaryotic diversity, no difference was noted between CM- and digestates-amended PDL (P > 0.05; **Fig. 3**). On the opposite, all digestates induced 21% higher fungal richness in PDL soil compared with cattle manure input (P < 0.001; **Fig. 4**).

316 The redundancy analysis (RDA) approach allowed us to decipher the determinants of these variations of soil microbial parameters. Whatever the soil considered, the total organic carbon 317 content of the inputs (29% of the variance due to the TOC) and the silt content (30% of the 318 variance) of soil explained the significant variations of soil molecular microbial biomass 319 320 (Supplementary Table S2). Concerning the prokaryotic diversity, none of the physicochemical characteristics tested could explain observed variance. Fungal diversity 321 322 variation was explained by the soil C/N ratio (67% of the variance) (Supplementary Table 323 **S2**).

324 *3.3. Soil microbial community structure*

325 The nMDS ordination highlighted distinct prokaryotic and fungal community structures among the three unfertilized soils at the end of the 42-day incubation (Supplementary Fig. 326 327 S1 A and B). Consequently, the microbial structures of each soil, 42 days after organic amendment application, were analyzed separately. In BOU, the prokaryotic and fungal 328 community structures differed among treatments at the end of the 42-day incubation (Fig. 5A 329 and Fig. 6A). The prokaryotic community structure of CMF-, FYM- and MFW-amended 330 BOU seemed to differ from those of CM- and SMS-amended BOU (Fig. 5A). However, 331 PERMANOVA analysis highlighted that prokaryotic community structure of BOU soil 332

amended with digestates or undigested cattle manure was similar 42 days after organic 333 334 materials inputs (P > 0.05, Supplementary Table S3). The fungal community structure of CMF- and MFW-amended BOU differed from those of CM-amended BOU (Fig. 6A). 335 PERMANOVA analysis confirmed these observations highlighting significant differences 336 between fungal community structures from BOU soil amended with CM and those amended 337 with the following digestates: CMF, FYM and MFW (P < 0.05, Supplementary Table S4). A 338 339 greater abundance of Ascomycota was found in CM-amended BOU. BOU soil amended with digestates such MFW and CMF recorded a greater abundance of Mucoromycota, 340 Cryptomycota and Basidiomycota (Fig. 6A). FYM-amended BOU soil was supported by a 341 342 greater abundance of *Chytridiomycota* (Fig. 6A).

The prokaryotic community structure of CM-amended PACA significantly differed from 343 FYM and CMF treatments (Fig. 5B, PERMANOVA, Supplementary Table S3, P < 0.05). 344 To note that PERMANOVA analysis highlighted that the prokaryotic structure from PACA 345 amended with CMF differed from those amended with SMS (Supplementary Table S3, P < 346 347 0.05). These differences were supported by a greater abundance of *Bacteroidetes*, *Chloroflexi* and Spirochaetes and a lower abundance of Firmicutes, Actinobacteria and Cloacimonetes in 348 CM-amended PACA than in CMF-, FYM-, MFW- and SMS-amended PACA (Fig. 5B). 349 350 Regarding the fungal community structure, SMS-amended PACA differed from all other amended PACA, CM included (Fig. 6B, PERMANOVA, Supplementary Table S4, P < 351 0.05). PACA amended with SMS recorded a greater abundance of *Basidiomycota* (Fig. 6B). 352

The prokaryotic community structure of CM-amended PDL seemed to differ from all digestates-amended PDL (**Fig. 5C**), but this was not confirmed by PERMANOVA analysis, (**Supplementary Table S3,** P > 0.05). Regarding the fungal community structure, CMamended PDL seemed to differ from FYM-, MFW- and CMF-amended PDL (**Fig. 6C**). This was not confirmed by PERMANOVA analysis, (**Supplementary Table S4,** P > 0.05), however, CMF-amended PDL differed from MFW- and SMS-amended PDL
(PERMANOVA, Supplementary Table S4, P < 0.01). As observed in BOU soil, PDL soil
amended with CMF recorded a greater abundance of *Mucoromycota* and *Cryptomycota* (Fig.
6C).

362 **4. Discussion**

Widespread development of anaerobic digestion is expected in the coming years to meet the 363 364 rising demand for green energy. As a result, agronomic use of digestates may be generalized. However, impacts of digestates on soil biodiversity still need to be evaluated to prevent 365 366 potential environmental side effects associated to the use of these inputs across a wide range of biogeographic regions and soil contexts. To our knowledge, the comparison of different 367 digestates in different soil types has never been addressed simultaneously under the same 368 controlled experimental conditions. Contrasting digestates were selected and raw cattle 369 manure was added as control treatment to illustrate the most common organic materials used 370 as crop amendments. A dose of digestate of 25 t.ha⁻¹ was applied to mimic common 371 agronomic practices in French fields (Monard et al., 2020). Application of the same 372 agronomic dose of digestates with contrasting composition resulted in different doses of 373 elements brought, especially nitrogen. Interestingly, the total nitrogen and C/N ratio of CMF 374 differed from those of the other digestates: the nitrogen content was two times higher in CMF 375 (the largest amount) than in SMS, and TOC was seven times lower in CMF than in FYM. 376 377 These differences in carbon and nitrogen amounts induced a high variability of the C/N ratio across treatments, probably leading to different fates of nitrogen in the amended soils. A C/N 378 ratio > 15 (e.g. in CM) leads to nitrogen immobilization in the soil, whereas a low C/N ratio 379 380 leads to NOx emissions, so that a value $5 \le C/N$ ratio ≤ 6 was proposed to be optimal 381 (Abubaker *et al.*, 2015; Cheng *et al.*, 2020). The differences of C/N ratios of the applied
382 organic materials led us to expect differences among the microcosms.

Differences in molecular microbial biomass were observed depending on the soil type 383 and the digestate. Microbial biomass remained unchanged in the silty clay loam soil (BOU) 384 regardless of the treatment, but decreased in the sandy loam (PACA) and loam (PDL) soils 385 down to 48% under CMF and SMS treatment compared to the CM treatment. The effects of 386 387 digestate on soil microbial biomass reported in the literature are often conflicting, mainly due to great variations between the experimental systems. Thus, several authors observed an 388 increase of soil microbial biomass (assessed by fumigation extraction or soil DNA 389 390 measurement) after digestate application (Cattin et al., 2021; García-Sánchez et al., 2015; Muscolo et al., 2017; Panuccio et al., 2021), whereas others reported no change (Barduca et 391 al., 2021; Podmirseg et al., 2019). In the present study, redundancy analysis highlighted silt 392 393 content as a major driver of the observed differences according to the soil type. This suggests that the soil texture can influence the response of microbial biomass to digestate application. 394 395 This hypothesis is supported by Panuccio et al. (2021), who found greater changes of microbial biomass in sandy soil than in silty soil both amended with digestate. Fine-textured 396 soil is indeed known to be a favourable habitat for microbes because of a better supply of 397 398 organic resources and protection from desiccation, gas diffusion, toxic exogenous compounds and predation by protozoa (Dequiedt et al., 2011; Ranjard et al., 2003). 399

400 Our work also highlighted total organic carbon of digestates as a second major driver 401 of soil microbial biomass variations. Thus, the lower microbial biomass quantified in some 402 digestate-amended soils than in CM-amended soils can be explained by the low total organic 403 carbon content of the digestates, hence a lower amount of organic carbon available for 404 microbial growth.

As observed for the soil microbial biomass, 42 days after organic material application, 405 406 microbial diversity variations depended on the characteristics of the digestate applied and the soil type. This was consistent with previous results collected from different soil microbial 407 408 communities amended with other types of organic waste products (Sadet-Bourgeteau et al., 2019). o increase of prokaryotic richness could be observed but a significant decrease was 409 410 observed in MFW-amended sandy loam soil (PACA) (20% less than in CM-amended soil). 411 These results are not in accordance with the literature available where an increase of soil prokaryotic diversity (Shannon) was reported after digestate application (Caracciolo et al., 412 2015; García-Sánchez et al., 2015; Hupfauf et al., 2016). These conflicting results could be 413 414 due to the sensitivity of the method used (fingerprint technics, PLFA... versus 16S 415 metabarcoding), on the difference of metric used (Shannon vs Richness), and, more largely, 416 on the differences between experimental designs (soil type, digestate...).

In the present work, the prokaryotic community structures of the three unfertilised 417 soils (control microcosms) were significantly different (Supplementary Fig. S1). Whatever the 418 419 treatment and soil type, at the end of the experiment the prokaryotic community structures at the phylum level were dominated by Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Thaumarchaeota and 420 421 Actinobacteria, major taxa found in French soils (Karimi et al., 2018), but changes of 422 microbial community structure were detected depending on the soil type and the quality of the amendment applied (Fig. 4 and 5). In comparison with manure amendment, differences in 423 prokaryotic community structures were significant only in sandy loam soil (PACA) amended 424 with FYM and CMF digestates. Similar trends were recorded in the loam (PDL) and silty clay 425 loam (BOU) soils, but differences were not significant. As already mentioned for the soil 426 427 microbial biomass, the coarse texture also influenced the prokaryotic community structure more than the fine texture did. This is consistent with other studies highlighting an effect of 428 429 digestate on prokaryotic community structure limited to coarse-textured soils (Gómez-

Brandón et al., 2016; Hupfauf et al., 2016; Johansen et al., 2013; Sapp et al., 2015). This was 430 431 confirmed by Abubaker et al. (2013) who observed greater variability of community structure in sandy soil than in clay soil. To summarize, our results highlighted that the observed effects 432 on distinct prokaryotic community structures were digestate- and soil-dependent. However, in 433 434 the three studied soils, the CM and CMF treatments consistently led to the most different soil prokaryotic community structures, with Spirochaetes more abundant in all CM-amended soils 435 436 and Actinobacteria in all CMF-amended soils. This can be explained by the abundance of Spirochaetes in manure because Spirochaetes are known free-living, anaerobic symbionts in 437 the stomachs of cows and other ruminants (Gupta et al., 2013). Thus, they may have come 438 439 from non-sanitized livestock manure. CMF was the digestate with the largest amount of nitrogen and NH4⁺. High amounts of ammonium ions lower the soil pH and modify the 440 microbial community structure (Chen et al., 2020). Furthermore, Actinobacteria are 441 442 stimulated in acidic soils (Karimi et al., 2018). In CMF, these conditions probably favoured the abundance of Actinobacteria. This is also in accordance with a previous study 443 highlighting that the proportion of Actinobacteria was significantly higher in inorganically 444 fertilized (NPK) soils (Francioli et al., 2016). 445

Increases of fungal richness were captured but only in loam soil (PDL) amended with CMF and FYM (21% more than in CM-amended soil). To our knowledge, this is the first report of the effect of digestates on soil fungal diversity. In the present study, the redundancy analysis did not explain prokaryotic richness variation, but a 67% negative effect of the soil C/N ratio of digestates on fungal richness was captured. This is in accordance with previous works reporting that the soil fungal richness was negatively correlated with the soil C/N ratio (George et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2017).

The fungal community structure was influenced by the input type, but the soil type balanced this effect. To our knowledge, the impact of digestate application on soil fungal

community structure had never been assessed before. In the present study, the sandy loam soil 455 456 (PACA) exacerbated the effect of organic inputs on soil fungal community structure compared to the silty clay loam soil (BOU). In the three soils, the communities were 457 458 dominated by Ascomycota, Mucoromycota and Basidiomycota whatever the condition, as frequently observed in French soils (Maron et al., 2018). Contrary to what was observed with 459 the soil prokaryotic communities, different fungal phyla could be stimulated by the same 460 461 organic material depending on the type of soil in which it was applied. This suggests that different soil types, harbouring distinct fungal community structures, responded differently to 462 digestates application. 463

464 The present work monitored under controlled conditions enabled us to address the impact of the characteristics of digestates on the response of soil microbial communities. 465 Moreover, high throughput sequencing was appropriate to characterize the vast microbial 466 diversity of soil but it provides limited information on soil microbial functioning. In order to 467 better characterize the environmental impacts of digestates, further research is needed under 468 469 field conditions. Future field studies should be implemented with repeated applications of digestates over several years, in order to address holistically the sustainability of digestate 470 application. A special focus on microbial communities involved in biogeochemical cycles 471 472 would be of interest in combination with measurements of GHG emissions.

473

474 **5.** Conclusions

The forthcoming increase of the amounts of anaerobic digestates produced requires a proper assessment of the environmental safety of land application of digestates, notably for soil health and the telluric microorganisms that play key roles in biogeochemical cycles. This study provided new insights regarding the short-term effects of contrasting anaerobic

digestates on soil microorganisms. Our results highlighted that the response of soil microbial 479 480 communities to the application of digestate depended firstly on the characteristics of the digestate and secondly that these effects of digestate on soil microbial community depended 481 on the soil type. Indeed, coarse-textured soil was most affected that the finest ones. 482 Importantly, when applied on coarse-textured soil, digestates characterized by a low C/N ratio 483 (high levels of ammonium and low levels of organic carbon) induced the greatest impact on 484 485 soil microbial communities (lower microbial biomass and a shift of microbial structure and composition) compared to untreated manure amendment. This pattern suggests that digestates 486 with low C/N ratios could be recommended for fertilisation of heavy soils with high clay and 487 488 C content while digestates with higher C/N ratios seem more appropriate for lighter, sandier 489 soils, containing less organic carbon.

490

491 6. Acknowledgments

492 The authors thank the GenoSol platform for technical support https://doi.org/10.15454/L7QN45 in molecular biology. The authors are grateful to the 493 OPAALE (Optimisation des Procédés en Agriculture, Agroalimentaire et Environnement) and 494 495 LEVA (Légumineuses, Ecophysiologie Végétale, Agroécologie) technical staff for their technical support for soil and biogas digestate harvesting and microcosm experiment setup, 496 497 and Aurélien Cottin for his help with the bioinformatic tools. Calculations were performed using HPC resources from DNUM CCUB (Centre de Calcul de l'Université de Bourgogne). 498 They also thank Annie Buchwalter for correction and improving English language in the 499 500 manuscript.

501 Funding

This work was supported by grants GRAINE from the ADEME, the CASDAR Innov et PartMetha-BioSol and GrDF.

504 **Declaration of competing interest**

505 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal 506 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Figure 1. Principal Component analysis (PCA) performed on the soil physicochemical characteristics 42 days after organic materials application (CM; CMF; FYM; MFW; SMS) or sterile water (Unfertilized control) for the three soils (BOU; PACA and PDL).

Abbreviations: BOU, Bourgogne; PACA, Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur; PDL, Pays de la Loire; CM, cattle manure; CMF, cattle manure + fat; FYM, farmyard manure; MFW, manure + food waste; SMS, silage maize and sorghum; Total N, total nitrogen; TOC, total organic carbon; C/N, carbon/nitrogen ratio; pH, potential of hydrogen; P₂O₅, phosphorus pentoxide; K₂O, potassium oxide; MgO, magnesium oxide; Na₂O, sodium oxide.



Figure 2. Effect of different organic materials (digestate and cattle manure) on soil microbial biomass from three soils, 42 days after application.

In order to take into account the natural evolution of soil microbial biomass throughout the incubation, results at the end of the experiment (42 days) from un-fertilized control were subtracted from those of the treated samples; results were expressed as percent of differences. Crossed effect soil x digestate, significant at the 0.05 probability level.

Abbreviations: BOU, Bourgogne; PACA, Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur; PDL, Pays de la Loire; CM, cattle manure; CMF, cattle manure + fat; FYM, farmyard manure; MFW, manure + food waste; SMS, silage maize and sorghum.



-40% -

Figure 3. Effect of different organic materials (digestate and cattle manure) on the prokaryotic richness from three soils, 42 days after application.

In order to take into account the natural evolution of soil prokaryotic richness throughout the incubation, results at the end of the experiment (42 days) from un-fertilized control were subtracted from those of the treated samples; results were expressed as percent of differences. Crossed effect soil x digestate, significant at the 0.05 probability level.

Abbreviations: BOU, Bourgogne; PACA, Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur; PDL, Pays de la Loire; CM, cattle manure; CMF, cattle manure + fat; FYM, farmyard manure; MFW, manure + food waste; SMS, silage maize and sorghum.



Figure 4. Effect of different organic materials (digestate and cattle manure) on the fungal richness from three soils, 42 days after application.

In order to take into account this natural evolution of soil fungal richness throughout the incubation, results at the end of the experiment (42 days) from un-fertilized control were subtracted from those of the treated samples; results were expressed as percent of differences. Crossed effect soil x digestate, significant at the 0.05 probability level.

Abbreviations: BOU, Bourgogne; PACA, Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur; PDL, Pays de la Loire; CM, cattle manure; CMF, cattle manure + fat; FYM, farmyard manure; MFW, manure + food waste; SMS, silage maize and sorghum.





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NMDS1

Figure 5. Non-metric multi-dimensional scaling (nMDS) ordination plot derived from the taxonomy table of the prokaryotic phyla (abundance > 1%) from three soils ((**A**) BOU, (**B**) PACA, and (**C**) PDL), 42 days post treatment.

Abbreviations: CM, cattle manure; CMF, cattle manure + fat; FYM, farmyard manure; MFW, manure + food waste; SMS, silage maize and sorghum. The most explanatory phyla and soil chemical parameters are fitted on the plot. TOC, total organic carbon; C/N, carbon/nitrogen ratio; pH, potential of hydrogen.

Colors are not mandatory for this figure in print.







Figure 6. Non-metric multi-dimensional scaling (nMDS) ordination plot derived from the taxonomy table of the fungal *phyla* (abundance > 1%) from three soils ((**A**) BOU, (**B**) PACA, and (**C**) PDL), 42 days post treatment.

Abbreviations: CM, cattle manure; CMF, cattle manure + fat; FYM, farmyard manure; MFW, manure + food waste; SMS, silage maize and sorghum. The most explanatory *phyla* and soil chemical parameters are fitted on the plot. TOC, total organic carbon; C/N, carbon/nitrogen ratio; pH, potential of hydrogen.

Colors are not mandatory for this figure in print.

	BOU	PACA	PDL
Water-holding capacity (%)	33	23	26
Clay (g.kg ⁻¹ DM)	386	102	115
Silt (g.kg ⁻¹ DM)	530	232	392
Sand (g.kg ⁻¹ DM)	80	666	493
pH *	7.96 ± 0.013 a	6.68 ± 0.017 b	6.63 ± 0.005 c
CEC (cmol ⁺ .kg ⁻¹ DM) *	25.44 ± 0.192 a	7.10 ± 0.477 b	6.94 ± 0.527 b
TOC (g.kg ⁻¹ DM) *	19.81 ± 0.360 a	7.68 ± 0.748 c	9.65 ± 0.239 b
Total N (g.kg ⁻¹ DM) *	1.74 ± 0.011 a	0.77 ± 0.043 c	0.99 ± 0.019 b
$NH_4{}^+ \left(mg.kg{}^{-1} \ DM\right){}^\dagger$	1.01 ± 0.118 a	1.15 ± 0.220 a	1.54 ± 0.564 a
NO3 ⁻ (mg.kg ⁻¹ DM) *	5.58 ± 0.193 b	9.53 ± 2.408 a	2.90 ± 0.359 b
C/N ratio *	11.4 ± 0.236 a	10.0 ± 0.503 b	9.7 ± 0.087 b
P2O5 (g.kg ⁻¹ DM) *	0.070 ± 0.001 a	0.014 ± 0.002 c	0.040 ± 0.001 b
K ₂ O (g.kg ⁻¹ DM) *	0.17 ± 0.002 b	0.22 ± 0.478 a	0.18 ± 0.008 b
CaO (g.kg ⁻¹ DM) *	6.86 ± 0.032 a	1.41 ± 0.053 c	1.73 ± 0.025 b
MgO (g.kg ⁻¹ DM) *	0.12 ± 0.002 b	0.29 ± 0.018 a	0.09 ± 0.002 c
Na ₂ O (g.kg ⁻¹ DM) *	0.011 ± 0.001 b	0.021 ± 0.002 a	0.010 ± 0.001 b

Table 1. Initial physicochemical characteristics of the three soils.

*Significant at the 0.001 probability level; [†]Values with the same lower-case letters in a row are not significantly different at P < 0.05.

Abbreviations: BOU, Bourgogne; PACA, Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur; PDL, Pays de la Loire; DM, dry matter; CEC, cation exchange capacity; TOC, total organic carbon; NH₄⁺, ammonium nitrogen; NO₃⁻, nitric nitrogen; TOC, total organic carbon; C/N, carbon/nitrogen ratio; pH, potential of hydrogen; P₂O₅, phosphorus pentoxide; K₂O, potassium oxide; CaO, calcium oxide; MgO, magnesium oxide, Na₂O, sodium oxide.

Organic amendments	Total N	Organic N	$\mathrm{NH_{4}^{+}}$	NO ₃ -	TOC	C/N	pН	P ₂ O ₅	K ₂ O	CaO	MgO	Na ₂ O	SOC	Hemicellulosis	Cellulosis	Lignin cutin
	mg			μg	mg	-	-	mg								
FYM	3.75	2.39	1.33	2.75	26.60	6.30	8.80	1.84	5.59	2.46	0.89	1.02	10.29	4.57	6.54	5.16
MFW	4.23	2.30	1.92	2.70	14.32	2.80	8.30	1.09	4.84	2.11	0.34	0.82	9.62	1.76	1.27	1.65
SMS	2.52	1.70	0.81	2.73	13.30	4.50	8.00	0.82	3.27	1.02	0.34	0.14	8.07	2.25	1.25	1.73
CMF	4.64	1.43	3.11	2.70	3.82	0.80	8.40	0.34	1.43	0.20	0.07	1.09	3.81	0.00	0.00	0.01
СМ	2.66	2.26	0.38	2.76	42.97	18.30	8.90	1.16	3.27	1.57	0.68	0.27	9.88	11.51	14.22	7.35

Table 2. Elements brought with the digestates and the manure, expressed as the amount loaded in each microcosm.

Weights are expressed as the amount loaded in each microcosm.

Abbreviations: NH₄⁺, ammonium nitrogen; NO₃⁻, nitric nitrogen; TOC, total organic carbon; C/N, carbon/nitrogen ratio; pH, potential of hydrogen; P₂O₅, phosphorus pentoxide; K₂O, potassium oxide; CaO, calcium oxide; MgO, magnesium oxide, Na₂O, sodium oxide; SOC, soluble organic carbon; FYM, farmyard manure; MFW, manure + food waste; SMS, silage maize and sorghum; CMF, cattle manure + fat; CM, cattle manure.



Different soils with distinct microbial community structures, responded differently to different digestates application. Response also digestate-dependent