

1 **Analysing the effect of soil organic matter on bacterial**
2 **communities using T-RFLP fingerprinting: different methods,**
3 **different stories?**

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22

23 **Abstract**

24 Soil microbial ecology needs robust tools to elucidate ecological questions, such as the impact
25 of fertilisation on soil microbial communities. However, the methods and data analysis used
26 can directly affect the biological conclusions. In this study, the sensitivity of terminal-
27 restriction fragment length polyphorism (T-RFLP) to four restriction enzymes (RE), six peak
28 area thresholds (PAT) from 0 to 10 % and two matrices (presence/absence and relative
29 abundance) was assessed on soils subjected to eight different long-term amendments. The T-
30 RFLP profiles were analysed using a three-step multivariate analysis approach: (i) cluster
31 analysis and non-metric multi-dimensional scaling, (ii) ANOSIM and PERMANOVA and
32 (iii) correlations. The application of organic and mineral fertilisers over 53 years changed the
33 bacterial community composition regardless if the RE, PAT and matrix were used. However,
34 the clustering of the community, the strength of these differences, the correlations with
35 environmental variables and, subsequently, the biological conclusions varied with the use of
36 RE, PAT and matrix. Hence, the bacterial community composition was found to be either
37 highly sensitive to any changes in soil organic matter strongly correlated to C and N
38 concentration, or only affected by large inputs of C or soil management. Different REs can
39 reveal different bacterial populations affected by different drivers, but PATs 0.5 and 1 %
40 should be used especially when using presence/absence matrix. This study also shows the
41 complexity of the effect of organic and mineral amendment on bacterial community
42 composition and stresses the importance to inform on methodological and data analysis
43 parameters.

44

45 **Keywords:** Bacterial community structure, soil organic matter, T-RFLP, ANOSIM,
46 PERMANOVA, RELATE

47

48 **Introduction**

49 Soil microbial ecology needs robust tools to elucidate ecological questions, which
50 often require the analysis of large sample numbers, such as the link between soil fertility and
51 microorganisms. Soil fertility is essential to maintain or increase soil productivity to feed the
52 growing world population and is sustained by applying fertilisers to fields. Mineral and
53 organic fertilisers are known not only to affect the bacterial community composition and
54 abundance (Wessén et al. 2010; Hassan et al. 2013; Cederlund et al. 2014; Wu et al. 2014), but
55 can also affect the functions that microorganisms can deliver to the ecosystems (Enwall et al.
56 2007; Lerch et al. 2013). Hence, it is essential to use robust tools not only to analyse the
57 composition and the activity of microbial communities, but also to use accurate methods to
58 analyse the results to understand the effects of agricultural management on these microbial
59 properties.

60 Among DNA fingerprinting methods, terminal-restriction fragment length
61 polymorphism (T-RFLP) has become a popular method to rapidly assess the composition of
62 soil microbial communities (Thies 2007; Singh et al. 2009; Rousidou et al. 2013; Reardon et
63 al. 2014). Although next-generation sequencing (NGS) now provides much more information
64 on the composition of microbial communities, T-RFLP is able to capture the same major
65 trends of bacterial community composition. For example, Elsayed et al. (2014) reported
66 similar Shannon diversity index (Spearman's $\rho=0.83$, $P=0.003$) when using T-RFLP and
67 pyrosequencing approaches on the same samples. Furthermore, van Dorst et al. (2014)
68 showed that T-RFLP has a similar ability compared with 454 sequencing to separate bacterial
69 community composition between sample locations and to identify correlations with
70 environmental variables. As a cheaper method compared to NGS (van Dorst et al. 2014), T-
71 RFLP allows us to analyse many true field replicates, and therefore, assesses the potential

72 variation arising from environmental heterogeneity or other sources of variability, which is a
73 fundamental need in microbial ecology (Prosser 2010).

74 The interpretation of genetic profiles can be affected by several methodological issues
75 such as the choice of restriction enzymes (RE; i.e. different REs will not have the same
76 resolution to characterise microbial community composition), peak area threshold and matrix
77 choices for data interpretation. The peak area threshold (PAT) involves the removal of peaks
78 under a certain percentage in relation to their contribution to the entire data matrix, after
79 alignment of samples, in order to remove false fragments and background noise. The PAT can
80 be applied to data based on the area under the peaks (or peak height). Furthermore, data can
81 be analysed using a variety of ordination methods and statistical tests based on relative
82 abundances or presence/absence matrices.

83 We reviewed 159 articles using T-RFLP and published between 2002 and 2014 in the
84 top five of soil biology journals to examine variation in the processing of T-RFLP data in the
85 field of soil microbial ecology. We found that T-RFLP is still largely used in soil microbial
86 ecology (Fig. S1), but the choice of RE, PAT, matrix and ordination/statistical analysis varied
87 greatly between studies (Table S1). Most of the articles reported the use of only one RE,
88 where the most frequently used were *HhaI*, *MspI*, *HaeIII*, *TaqI* and *AluI*. Less than half of all
89 the publications indicated the size of the T-RFs used for analysis. A third of these studies used
90 the baseline threshold (i.e. threshold based on peak fluorescence before alignment) and
91 approximately the same proportion used the peak area/height threshold; many peak thresholds
92 were reported from 0.1 to 5 %. When indicated, the relative abundance matrix was used
93 twice more often than the presence/absence matrix. Although non-exhaustive, this review of
94 the literature in soil biology revealed that T-RFLP methods are far from being harmonised,
95 yet the effects of such parameters on the determination of soil microbial community
96 composition and have been scarcely studied (Bennett et al. 2008).

97 The aim of this study was to test the robustness of T-RFLP method for assessing the
98 effect of soil organic matter on the composition of bacterial communities. We used soil
99 samples taken from the Ultuna long-term field experiment where previous studies showed that
100 fertilisation strongly affected the composition of soil bacterial communities due to change in
101 soil chemical parameters such as pH or C to N ratio (Enwall et al. 2007; Wessén et al. 2010).
102 The sensitivity of T-RFLP fingerprints was evaluated by comparing (i) four different REs
103 (*AluI*, *HaeIII*, *MspI* and *RsaI*) separately or combined together, (ii) six different thresholds
104 (from 0% to 10 %) and (iii) two different types of matrices (relative abundance vs. presence/
105 absence). This study not only simultaneously evaluated the effects of these parameters on T-
106 RFLP profiling, but also assessed the impact of these factors on the biological interpretation
107 related to organic and mineral amendment using multivariate data analysis.

108

109 **Material and methods**

110 **Soil sampling**

111 Soil sampling was conducted in June 2009 (Lerch et al. 2013) at the Ultuna Long-Term Soil
112 Organic Matter Experiment (Uppsala, Sweden; 60°N, 17°E). The experiment was started
113 in 1956 on a post-glacial clay loam soil classified as an Eutric Cambisol (Witter et al. 1993).
114 Since then, the soils have been treated with different N fertilisers or organic amendments. The
115 soil texture was 36.5% clay, 41% silt and 22.5% sand. In this experiment, soils (2×2 m blocks)
116 were treated with mineral N fertilizers (annual addition of 80 kg N ha⁻¹) or organic
117 amendments (biennial addition of 8 Mg ash-free organic matter per hectare). The different
118 amendments resulted in a wide range of soil organic C contents ranging from 1 to 4 % (Table
119 1). The treatments were replicated in four blocks, but one of the four blocks did not have
120 randomly distributed treatments and was therefore omitted from the current study. Eight sub-

121 samples from 0 to 7 cm depth were taken from each plot, sieved < 4 mm, bulked, mixed and
122 stored at -20 °C before DNA extraction and T-RFLP analyses.

123

124 **DNA extraction and purification**

125 DNA extraction followed the ISO-11063 (Petric et al. 2010) procedure which is a modified
126 version of the method described by Martin-Laurent et al. (2001). The procedure involved
127 three main steps: (i) microbial cell lysis by chemical (SDS) and physical (bead beating)
128 action, (ii) deproteination and (iii) alcohol precipitation and washing of the extracted nucleic
129 acids. Two hundred and fifty milligrams (dry weight) of each soil sample were mixed with a
130 solution of 100 mM Tris (pH 8.0), 100 mM EDTA (pH 8.0), 100 mM NaCl and 2 % (w/v)
131 sodium dodecyl sulphate. Glass beads of different diameters were added in a bead-beater tube
132 and the soil solution was shaken for 40 s at 6 m.s⁻¹ in a mini bead-beater cell disruptor (Fast
133 Prep, MP Bio) before centrifugation at 14, 000×g for 1 min. For protein precipitation,
134 supernatants were incubated on ice for 10 min with 1/10 volume of 3 M sodium acetate and
135 centrifuged (14,000×g, 5 min, 4 °C). In the last step, nucleic acids were precipitated from the
136 collected supernatants by adding 1 volume of ice-cold isopropanol. The DNA pellets obtained
137 after centrifugation (14,000×g, 5 min, 4 °C) were washed with 70 % ethanol. Soil DNA was
138 purified as described by Petric et al. (2011). Finally, DNA was eluted in 100 µl of milli-Q
139 water.

140

141 **PCR and T-RFLP analysis**

142 PCR was performed with 2 µl of diluted (1:10) DNA template (i.e. 1 ng of DNA per
143 microliter) in a total volume of 20 µl (Master Mix Kit, Qiagen) and 0.05 mM of primer 63F
144 (5'-CAGGCCTAACACATGCAAGTC-3') and 1389R (5'-ACGGGCGGTGTGTACAAG-3';
145 Marchesi et al. 1998; Osborn et al. 2000). The forward primers were fluorescently labelled at

146 the 5' end with FAM dye. PCR amplifications were carried out in a T100 thermocycler
147 (BioRad) with an initial enaturation at 94 °C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles of 94 °C for 30
148 s, 57 °C for 45 s and 72 °C for 90 s followed by a final extension time at 72 °C for 10 min.
149 PCR products were purified using the QIAquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen) following the
150 manufacturer's instructions.

151 The purified PCR product of each sample was split into four aliquots (10 µl), which
152 were digested with 10 U of a single RE (either AluI, HaeIII, MspI or RsaI and 1× specific
153 RE buffer (Fermentas) in a total volume of 15 µl at 37 °C for 3 h. Five microliters of the
154 digests were desalted using a precipitation step with 0.25 µl of glycogen (20 mg ml⁻¹) and
155 75 µl of 0.3 mM MgSO₄·7H₂O in 70 % ethanol. The solution was briefly vortexed and
156 incubated at room temperature for 15 min, then centrifuged at 3,991×g for 30 min. The
157 solution was removed by inverting, centrifuged for 1 min at 900×g and the pellet was
158 resuspended in 5 µl of nuclease-free water (Qiagen). Desalted products (0.5 or 1 µl) were
159 mixed with formamide containing 0.5 % LIZ500 internal size standard (Applied Biosystems)
160 in a total volume of 10 µl. Desalted products were denatured at 94 °C for 3 min and
161 electrophoresed for 20 min on an ABI 310 capillary DNA sequencer (Applied Biosystems)
162 filled with the POP-7 polymer. The TRFLP profiles obtained with the sequencer were
163 analysed using GeneMarker® V1.97 software (SoftGenetics). The terminal restriction
164 fragments (T-RFs) were binned with a 0.5 bp interval. T-RFs between 50 and 500 bp and with
165 a peak height>0 fluorescent units were included in the analysis.

166

167 **Statistical analysis**

168 The richness of the T-RFLP profiles was expressed as the total number of T-RFs, and the
169 evenness of profiles was estimated using the Shannon index (H' ; Shannon 1948). T-RF
170 richness and Shannon index were first used to describe the overall TRFLP profiles, but were

171 not used as true indicators of the overall soil bacterial community richness or diversity
172 (Blackwood et al. 2007). A three step statistical approach was then chosen to determine the
173 influence of the different factors on T-RFLP results: (i) data ordination; (ii) tests of significant
174 differences between treatments, REs or PATs; and (iii) correlation between bacterial
175 community composition and environmental variables.

176 The influence of RE on T-RFLP results was investigated not only on the individual 4
177 REs mentioned above but also on the combination of the 4 RE results. It is often stated that
178 multiple REs increase the resolution of T-RFLP (see Thies 2007), but it is still unclear if the
179 results obtained from combining several REs are more robust towards different data analyses
180 (Bennett et al. 2009). Several matrices were produced using six different PATs ranging from
181 0 % to 10 %. Thresholds of 0 %, 0.1 %, 0.5 % and 1 % are commonly used with T-RFLP
182 analyses; we also included thresholds of 5% and 10 % to assess when the use of threshold can
183 negatively impact the T-RFLP results. To analyse the T-RFLP profile datasets (i.e. for each
184 PAT and matrix types), the total peak area for each profile was normalised across peaks (i.e.
185 the area under each peak was divided by the total peak area of each sample) to account for
186 run-to-run variations. Data from the TRFLP matrices were then square root transformed and
187 similarity matrices were constructed using the Bray-Curtis method (Clarke et al. 2006). Bray-
188 Curtis distance was chosen because it is not affected by the number of null values between
189 samples as with the Euclidean distance method (Clarke and Warwick 2001).

190 Similarities between samples were displayed using non-metric multi-dimensional
191 scaling (nMDS) plots and dendrograms (Ramette 2007; Culman et al. 2008). Each nMDS plot
192 was presented with a 2D Stress value, which indicated the mismatch between the rank
193 similarity matrices and the nMDS 2D representation. A 2D stress value close to 0 indicates an
194 excellent representation in 2D. Values above 0.2 indicate a weak 2D representation (i.e. data
195 is more spread in 3D). To indicate percentage of similarity between samples on the nMDS,

196 the clusters from the dendrograms were overlaid onto the nMDS. Dendrograms were
197 produced using the group average linking method based on the Bray-Curtis similarity
198 matrices. Furthermore, the composition of dendrograms was tested using SIMPROF
199 (PRIMER software v6), to determine if the composition of the dendrogram was random or
200 not, i.e. if the different clusters were significantly different from each other or not (999
201 permutations).

202 Differences in bacterial community composition among soils studied, REs used and
203 PATs were tested using one-way and two-way ANOSIM analysis (100,000 permutations) on
204 the similarity matrices obtained using the Bray-Curtis method. One-way ANOSIM was used
205 to compare, for example, differences between soils for a specific RE and PAT, while two-way
206 ANOSIM was used, for example, to compare differences between soils and RE
207 simultaneously. The significance levels, i.e. P value, and R value, i.e. the strength of the
208 factors on samples were determined. R values close to 1 indicated high separation between
209 groups (e.g. between soil treatments), while R values close to 0 indicated no separation
210 between groups. Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was also
211 used to test for difference in TRFLP profiles between soil treatments (999 permutations)
212 giving a P and F values.

213 The relationship between the bacterial community composition and the environmental
214 variables (C, N, C/N and pH) was tested by performing correlation analysis between the
215 similarity matrices of T-RFLP profiles obtained using the Bray-Curtis method and the
216 matrices of each environmental variables obtained using the Euclidean distance (Clarke and
217 Ainsworth 1993). The RELATE test from the PRIMER software was used to perform the
218 analysis, which is a permutation-based test (rank correlation method: Spearman, 999
219 permutations) giving the significance levels of the correlation, i.e. P value, and the correlation
220 strengths, i.e. Spearman coefficient ρ . The ρ value varies between 0 and 1; a ρ value close to 1

221 indicates a strong correlation between an environmental variable and the microbial
222 community composition. Similarly, the relationship between the T-RFs richness or Shannon
223 index and each environmental variable were performed using Spearman rank correlations.
224 The Spearman rank correlation gives the significance level of the correlation (i.e. P value) and
225 the strength of the correlation (i.e. Spearman rank coefficient ρ). The ρ value varies between -
226 1 and +1, ρ value close to zero indicates no correlation, and value close to -1 or +1 indicates a
227 strong negative or positive correlation, respectively. To display the Spearman correlations,
228 heatmaps were generated using the gplots R package.

229 All data analysis from the T-RFLP was performed using the PRIMER software (v6,
230 PRIMER-E Ltd, Plymouth, UK) and R version 3.1.0 (R Development Core Team 2014).

231

232 **Results**

233 **Bacterial community richness and evenness**

234 The restriction enzyme *AluI* showed a high T-RFs number 44 ± 5 and Shannon index 2.9 ± 0.3 ,
235 while lower numbers were found for *HaeIII* (richness= 36 ± 14 ; $H' = 2.9 \pm 0.5$), and *MspI* showed
236 the lowest T-RFs number 30 ± 10 (Fig. 1e) and $H' = 2.2 \pm 0.2$ (Fig. 1). *RsaI* showed the highest
237 T-RFs number (57 ± 12) and Shannon index (3.2 ± 0.4) at peak area threshold of 0 % across the
238 different soil treatments. This hierarchy was consistent with PATs up to 1 %, but at 5 % and
239 10 % *RsaI* showed lower or the lowest richness and evenness. The T-RFs number and H'
240 varied between soil treatments but none of the soil consistently showed the lowest/highest
241 richness or H' across the different REs. Increasing PAT reduced richness at different rates for
242 each RE (Fig. 1). On average, between 9 and 23 % of T-RFs were lost at 0.1 %, 28-47 % at
243 0.5 %, 42-61 % at 1 %, 82-90 % at 5 % and 91-99 % at 10 %. The 10 % PAT led to a
244 reduction of richness down to 1-4, or even the complete loss of T-RFs for all replicates of
245 green manure amended soils and 1 soil replicate for soils amended with farmyard manure

246 (Fig. 1g), and subsequently null Shannon index for several soil treatments (Fig. 1). The H'
247 was less sensitive to the different PATs than richness. Hence, H' was only reduced between
248 7-13 % at 1 % PAT in comparison to 0 %, and it was only at 5 % and 10 % PATs that H' was
249 reduced by 38-50 % and 60-85 %, respectively. When the results from all the Res were
250 combined, the richness and H' at PAT 0 % were 167.0 ± 24.1 and 4.2 ± 0.2 respectively (Fig. 1i,
251 j). The effect of PAT on richness and H' was similar for all RE, including the combination
252 of RE.

253

254 **Bacterial community composition**

255 Different enzymatic digestions generated different bacterial community compositions,
256 regardless of the PAT and the matrix used (Fig. 2, Fig. S2). For example, at PAT of 0.5 %
257 from the relative abundance matrix, the bacterial community generated with *AluI* showed that
258 soil amended with sewage sludge and peat had the lowest similarity percentage (~60 %) in
259 comparison to the other soil treatments (Fig. 2). In contrast, *MspI* showed that green manure
260 amended soils had the lowest similarity percentage (~60 %) in comparison with other soil
261 treatments. The bare fallow soil treatment with ~70 % of similarity and the other soil
262 treatments clustered in 2 groups with ~75 % of similarity between groups. Sewage sludge and
263 peat showed more similarity (~75 %) than that generated with *AluI* (Fig. 2). Bacterial
264 community generated with *HaeIII* and *RsaI* showed more variation than *AluI* and *MspI*
265 between field replicates of sewage sludge, peat and sawdust amended soils (Fig. 2). The
266 bacterial community generated with *HaeIII*, for the peat and sewage sludge treatments
267 showed the lowest similarity with other soil treatments, as found with that generated with
268 *AluI*. The restriction enzyme *RsaI* showed that the green manure amended soil and bare
269 fallow had the lowest similarity (50-60 %) with other soil treatments, such as found with
270 *MspI*. Peat amended soil showed high difference with all soil treatments but also high

271 variability between fields replicates (Fig. 2). When the results from each RE were combined,
272 the cluster analysis showed similar clustering that when using AluIalone (Fig. 2). The use of
273 presence/absence matrix increased the similarity percentage between clusters for all soils by
274 10 to 20 % regardless the RE, and could have led to non-significant differences between soil
275 treatments as revealed by SIMPROF analysis (Fig. S2). When all the soil treatments were
276 significantly different to each other with relative abundance matrix for each RE, with
277 presence/absence matrix, many soil treatments grouped together and some soil treatments did
278 not group together anymore (Fig. 2, S2).

279 The effect of PAT on bacterial community composition varied with the RE and matrix
280 used. For example, increasing PAT did not have strong effect on nMDS for *MspI* based on
281 relative abundance matrix between 0 % and 1 % (Fig. 3). The different soil treatments were
282 separated from each other and the treatments replicates grouped together (Fig. 3). In contrast,
283 at PATs of 5% and 10 %, the nMDS did not discriminate 6 out of 8 soil treatments, and the
284 treatment replicates showed high variability and changes in similarity (Fig. 3). When the
285 nMDS for *MspI* were generated based on presence/absence matrix, PAT had more effect on
286 the nMDS (Fig. S3). At 0 % PAT, the soil treatments were not well separated by nMDS and
287 treatment replicates showed high variability. Between 0.1 % and 1 %, the separation between
288 soil treatments increased continuously and the treatment replicates grouped together.
289 However, at 5 % and 10 %, the nMDS representation did not separate the soil treatments as
290 found with relative abundance matrix.

291

292 **ANOSIM and PERMANOVA analysis**

293 Significant differences ($P=10^{-6}$) between the bacterial community composition of the
294 different soil treatments were observed for the 4 REs, regardless of PAT and type of matrix

295 (Fig. 4). However, the R (from ANOSIM) and F (from PERMANOVA) values differed
296 greatly between REs and matrices. The restriction enzymes AluI and MspI showed the highest
297 R (from 0.32 up to 0.97) and F (from 2.5 up to 54.0) values regardless of matrix used. In
298 contrast, HaeIII and RsaI showed lower R (from 0.23 to 0.74) and F (from 2.2 to 13.3) values
299 than AluI and MspI. HaeIII showed overall the lowest R values in comparison with other REs
300 but similar F values than RsaI. When the REs results were combined, the R values were
301 slightly lower than for AluI and MspI, but the F values were much lower than for AluI and
302 MspI (up to 3.6 times lower).

303 The R and F values increased for all REs and both matrices with increasing PATs
304 from 0.5 % to 1 % and then decreased (except for the F values of HaeIII that increased
305 continuously). The R and F values reached their highest values at different PATs, but were
306 not different for both matrices, for the different REs: for AluI at 0.5 %, for MspI and RsaI at 1
307 %, and for HaeII at 5 % (except for HaeIII F value: 10%). The R and F values often decreased
308 sharply after the highest value for the different REs and both matrices, leading sometimes to
309 R values inferior than PAT 0%. The R and F values showed more sensitivity to increase in
310 PAT when the analyses were based on the presence/absence matrix rather than the relative
311 abundance matrix (Fig. 4).

312 The bacterial community composition generated by HaeIII and RsaI showed
313 variability between replicates of the sewage sludge amended soil for HaeIII and, peat and saw
314 dust amended soil for RsaI (Fig. 2), which could affect the results of ANOSIM,
315 PERMANOVA and RELATE test. However, when the ANOSIM and RELATE tests were
316 performed for both REs without the soil treatments showing variability, and for the different
317 PAT and matrices, HaeIII showed similar R and ρ values and RsaI showed similar ρ values
318 but 0.2 to 0.3 times higher R values than when the variable replicates were included.

319

320

321 **Relationship between composition of bacterial community and soil chemical properties**

322 The bacterial community composition showed different relationships with the C and N
323 content, C/N and soil pH for the four REs and combined REs results (Fig. 5). Hence, bacterial
324 community composition generated with *AluI*, *HaeIII* and combination of all REs results were
325 significantly ($P=0.05$) correlated to each of the soil chemical properties. However, it was not
326 always significantly correlated for some specific PATs. The communities generated with
327 *AluI*, *HaeIII* and the combined RE results, showed strong correlations with C content (ρ
328 values up to 0.65), while the strength of the correlations with N content, C/N and soil pH were
329 more variable, influenced by PAT and matrix. In contrast, the bacterial community
330 composition generated with *MspI* and *RsaI* were not significantly ($P\leq 0.05$) correlated with all
331 of the soil chemical properties. The bacterial community generated with *MspI* showed only ρ
332 values that were relatively high for C content (up to 0.4 for PAT 0.1 % and presence/absence
333 matrix) for both matrices (Fig. 5). The bacterial community composition generated with *RsaI*
334 was only significantly correlated to C and C/N, regardless of the matrix used, with ρ values up
335 to 0.4 and 0.56 for C and C/N, respectively (presence/absence matrix). The use of either
336 relative abundance or presence/absence matrix can affect the strength of the correlation and
337 the significance between bacterial community composition and the soil chemical properties.

338 The effect of PAT on the correlations between bacterial community composition and
339 the soil chemical properties mainly depend on the matrix used. The strength of the correlations
340 from bacterial community composition generated with relative abundance matrix were weakly
341 affected by the PATs commonly used (i.e. 0 – 1 %), but decreased with PATs ≥ 5 %,
342 decreasing the ρ values from 0.1 to 0.3 (Fig. 5). In contrast, correlations based on
343 presence/absence matrix were more strongly affected by PATs, either increasing or

344 decreasing the strength and significance of the correlations. Increasing PATs, increased the ρ
345 values between bacterial community and some chemical properties, but often decreased
346 at PATs 5 % and 10 %. In contrast, increasing PAT had a negative effect on the correlations
347 between bacterial community composition and all soil chemical properties for *MspI* and
348 *RsaI* REs (Fig. 5).

349 The relationship between the T-RFLP profiles richness or evenness (Shannon index)
350 and environmental variables showed different patterns between REs and PATs (Fig. 6). *MspI*
351 and the combined results of all REs showed the highest number of significant correlations
352 (16), and both were negatively correlated with C and N content. In contrast, *HaeIII* and *RsaI*
353 showed nearly no significant correlations with the environmental variables (5 for both REs).
354 Then, *AluI* showed a high number of significant correlations (11) with most environmental
355 variables, but the correlations were greatly affected by PAT, as some correlations were either
356 positive, negative and non-significant for the same variables depending on PAT (Fig. 6). In
357 contrast, the other REs were affected in the same way by PAT, i.e. correlations became
358 significant or stopped being significant. For each RE, PATs ≥ 5 % decreased the number of
359 significant correlations from 2 to 7 times, while PATs 0.1 %, 0.5% and 1% showed high
360 number of significant correlations (15, 11 and 10, respectively).

361

362 **Discussion**

363 **Influence of soil organic matter on bacterial community composition**

364 The application of organic materials and N fertilisers over 53 years significantly changed the
365 amount and the quality the soil organic matter, and subsequently, the bacterial community
366 composition. The cluster and nMDS analysis showed clear separation between all treatments,
367 which was confirmed by the SIMPROF, ANOSIM and PERMANOVA analysis. Hence, the
368 treatments likely affected the composition of bacterial community via direct effects, due to

369 changes in C and N concentration and C/N ratio, or indirect changes, for example, due to soil
370 acidification from the treatment applications. This result agrees with previous studies
371 investigating the bacterial community composition at the Ultuna experiment using TRFLP
372 (Enwall et al. 2007; Hallin et al. 2009; Cederlund et al. 2014) or other fingerprinting methods
373 such as ribosomal intergenic spacer analysis (Enwall et al. 2005) or phospholipid fatty acids
374 (PLFA; Elfstrand et al. 2007; Börjesson et al. 2012).

375 Each soil treatment grouped separately, with high similarity between field replicates,
376 highlighting sufficient resolution of T-RFLP to discriminate the communities. Hence, each
377 treatment was affected to some extent by the organic or inorganic amendment, showing
378 specific bacterial community composition. The sewage sludge treatment was previously
379 found to harbour distinct bacterial community compositions in comparison to the other
380 treatments (Enwall et al. 2005, 2007; Elfstrand et al. 2007; Hallin et al. 2009), which was
381 attributed to the low soil pH (Enwall et al. 2007) and mainly to the high heavy metal
382 concentration (such as Cd and Pb) in soil coming from the sewage sludge applied (Enwall et
383 al. 2005; Börjesson et al. 2012). The bacterial community composition of the peat treatment
384 was also previously found to be different from the one of straw (with or without addition of
385 $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$) and unfertilised treatment. The different bacterial community composition of the
386 peat treated soil could be related to C and N concentration and C/N ratio, which were higher
387 for the peat treatment than any other treatments.

388

389 **Different restriction enzymes reveal different stories**

390 Despite the clear differences in bacterial community composition generated by T-RFLP
391 between the treatments, the bacterial communities clustered differently in relation to the RE
392 used, directly influencing the biological conclusions. When the T-RFLPs were generated
393 using *AluI*, *HaeIII* or the combination of all the REs, the soil treated with sewage sludge and

394 peat showed clear differences in bacterial community composition compared to the other soil
395 treatments. In this case, T-RFLP profiles were strongly correlated with C and N
396 concentration, and to a lesser extent, to C/N and soil pH, confirming previous studies
397 (Elfstrand et al. 2007; Hallin et al. 2009; Cederlund et al. 2014). In contrast, when the
398 bacterial community composition was generated with *MspI*, the green manure and bare fallow
399 treatments showed the most distinct bacterial community composition from the other
400 treatments. Using *RsaI*, results showed that peat, green manure and bare fallow were the
401 treatments with distinct bacterial communities. A previous study showed that the green
402 manure treatment harbours a distinct bacterial community composition generated by PLFA,
403 but peat and sewage sludge treatment were not included in the analysis (Elfstrand et al.
404 2007). When the T-RFLP profiles were generated by *MspI* and *RsaI*, only weak correlations
405 with a few variables were found, indicating that the differences in microbial community
406 composition depended on other environmental variables (Elfstrand et al. 2007; Hallin et al.
407 2009). The specific bacterial community of the bare fallow could be due to the fact that the
408 bare fallow treatment is the only one treatment where no crops were grown and was weeded
409 manually, leaving a bare soil. In contrast, the specific bacterial community of the green
410 manure treated soil is likely to be related to the nature of the amendment, which showed the
411 lowest humification coefficient in comparison to other organic amendments (Kätterer et al.
412 2011), highlighting high and rapid mineralisation that could favour fast growing bacteria.

413 Many studies have shown that the use of different Res gives different results, i.e.
414 different profiles (Burke et al. 2005; Osborne et al. 2006; Bennett et al. 2008, 2009; Kasel et
415 al. 2008; Barkovskii et al. 2009). The selection of RE is usually empirical or based on the
416 enzyme that gives the highest number of T-RFs for the gene of interest, with the expectation
417 that it will give the best representation of the community composition (Marsh 2005). This
418 selection is often obtained by *in silico* digestion of sequences. However, the RE commonly

419 used to digest the bacterial 16S rRNA gene (i.e. *HhaI*, *MspI*, *HaeIII*, *RsaI* and *AluI*) can give
420 similar numbers of T-RFs and/or peak areas for the same samples (Osborne et al. 2006;
421 Bennett et al. 2008). Here we performed in silico digestion on 51 sequences previously
422 published from the
423 Ultuna experiment (Sessitch et al. 2001). We found that different REs can result in similar
424 numbers of T-RFs with in silico digestion or in T-RFLP, and that the results between in silico
425 digestion and T-RFLP can differ (Table S2). This study clearly shows that different REs
426 target different bacterial populations which are affected by the treatments, but in different
427 ways, due to their sensitivities to different chemical parameters such as pH, C and N contents
428 in soil. Thus, selecting an appropriate enzyme is more complex than purely selecting the one
429 that gives the highest number of T-RFs. This means that empirical selection is crucial
430 (Schütte et al. 2008) and should be based on existing literature as it also vary with the primers
431 pair used and the targeted gene.

432 Several studies have stressed the importance of using multiple REs (see Thies 2007),
433 either by simultaneous digestion (Bastias et al. 2007; Kluber et al. 2011; Aislabie et al. 2012;
434 Godin et al. 2012) or by combining the data (Klamer and Hedlund 2004; Kasel et al. 2008;
435 Bennett et al. 2009; Trabelsi et al. 2012) to obtain an accurate representation of the microbial
436 community composition (Marsh et al. 2000). In the present study, the effect of soil treatments
437 on bacterial community composition and the relationship between community composition
438 and environmental variables were lower when the four REs were combined, and when only
439 *AluI* and *MspI* were combined, most of the soil treatment replicates did not group together and
440 soil treatment effect was low (data not shown). The combination of all the RE results may
441 represent a summary of the results showing only the strongest change in the composition of
442 bacterial community due to the most important factors (here, soil C and N content).

443

444 **Variability in the effects of peak area threshold**

445 Although the selection of RE was clearly the dominant factor affecting microbiological
446 conclusions, the use of different peak area thresholds (PAT) and relative abundance or
447 presence/absence matrices also affected the interpretation. The effect of PAT on bacterial
448 community composition varied with RE, the matrix used and statistical analysis. Peak area
449 threshold had a stronger effect on bacterial community composition when generated with
450 presence/absence matrix rather than relative abundance. This was expected as presence/
451 absence give the same weight to all the T-RFs and is likely to be more sensitive to different
452 noise thresholds than relative abundance due to the loss of T-RFs (Clarke 1993; Bennett
453 et al. 2008).

454 Overall, the use of PAT improved the separation/significance between microbial
455 groups and correlations with environmental variables. The positive effect of PAT is likely
456 due to the reduction of the variability in T-RF richness, which could be related to background
457 noise (Fig. 1). The peak area threshold between 0.5 % and 1 % gave the best results for the
458 different REs. Peak area thresholds >1 % had overall a negative effect on ordination and
459 statistical analyses and should therefore not be used for most REs. Peak area threshold of 0.1
460 % did not result in high R and ρ values, indicating that it may not be a strong threshold to
461 improve the results, which was confirmed by the absence of significant differences between
462 bacterial community composition obtained with 0 % and 0.1 % PAT (data not shown). This
463 study stresses the importance of using peak threshold especially for presence/absence matrix,
464 as only 29 % of the studies surveyed (Table S1) used a threshold and about 77% of the studies
465 that used presence/absence matrix did not apply any peak threshold on the data.

466

467 **Relative abundance matrix: a robust method?**

468 The choice of matrix between presence/absence and relative abundance depends on whether
469 the specific aim of the study is qualitative (presence/absence) or quantitative (relative
470 abundance). The presence/absence matrix gives the same weight to all the T-RFs, i.e. rare T-
471 RFs have the same impact on the data than abundant T-RFs and can be highlighted in the
472 results, while abundant peaks dominate the relative abundance matrix. Thus, the type of used
473 matrix can have a direct effect on the results and the biological conclusions. The
474 presence/absence matrix showed that only high input of $C \geq 23$ % and $N > 2$ % can affect
475 bacterial community composition. This suggests that bacteria are resilient to small changes in
476 soil C and N content even over long periods of time. Hence, presence/absence matrix showed
477 only the strong differences between samples, reducing the complexity of the results. Rees et
478 al. (2004) also showed that relative abundance matrix (peak area) over presence/absence
479 matrix, generated better nMDS representation (i.e. better separation between groups) and
480 higher R values . In the present study, the relative abundance matrix appeared to be more
481 robust and reliable than presence/absence method. Thus, based on the results, the use of
482 relative abundance matrix is recommended over presence/absence matrix to investigate
483 complex bacterial community composition and to reveal the full extent of the changes in
484 microbial community composition.

485

486 **Conclusions**

487 Fifty three years of organic amendments and the addition of N fertilisers strongly changed the
488 composition of bacterial community of all the treatments, with the sewage sludge and peat
489 treated soil being the most affected. The C and N concentration (and to a lesser extent C/N
490 ratio and soil pH) were identified as the main drivers of these differences in the composition
491 bacterial community. However, biological conclusions found in this study were clearly
492 affected by the methods and data analysis. The selection of RE was found to be the main

493 factor influencing T-RFLP, highlighting the importance of empirical and literature based RE
494 selection. Nevertheless, different REs can reveal different bacterial populations. PAT also
495 affect the results using the presence/absence matrix, and to a lesser extent, using relative
496 abundance matrix. Thus, PATs of 0.5 % or 1 % were found to be the most appropriate for
497 determining meaningful biological conclusions. The relative abundance matrix was found to
498 be a robust and reliable measure in comparison to presence/absence matrix, as relative
499 abundance was less sensitive to PAT, generated less variable results and revealed the full
500 complexity of the results, whilst the presence/absence matrix lost information. This study also
501 demonstrates the importance of using a variety of multivariate analysis to fully assess the
502 effect of different factors on T-RFLP and to obtain accurate biological conclusions. Here, we
503 demonstrated that cluster or nMDS analysis alone is not sufficient. As suggested by Rees et
504 al. (2004), the use of statistical test such as ANOSIM or PERMANOVA is essential for data
505 interpretation.

506

507 **Acknowledgments**

508 The authors would like to thank the Department of Soil and Environment, SLU (Uppsala,
509 Sweden) for access to soil samples and managing the Ultuna Long-Term Soil Organic Matter
510 Experiment. We would also like to thank Dr Susan Johnston for proof reading the article.

511

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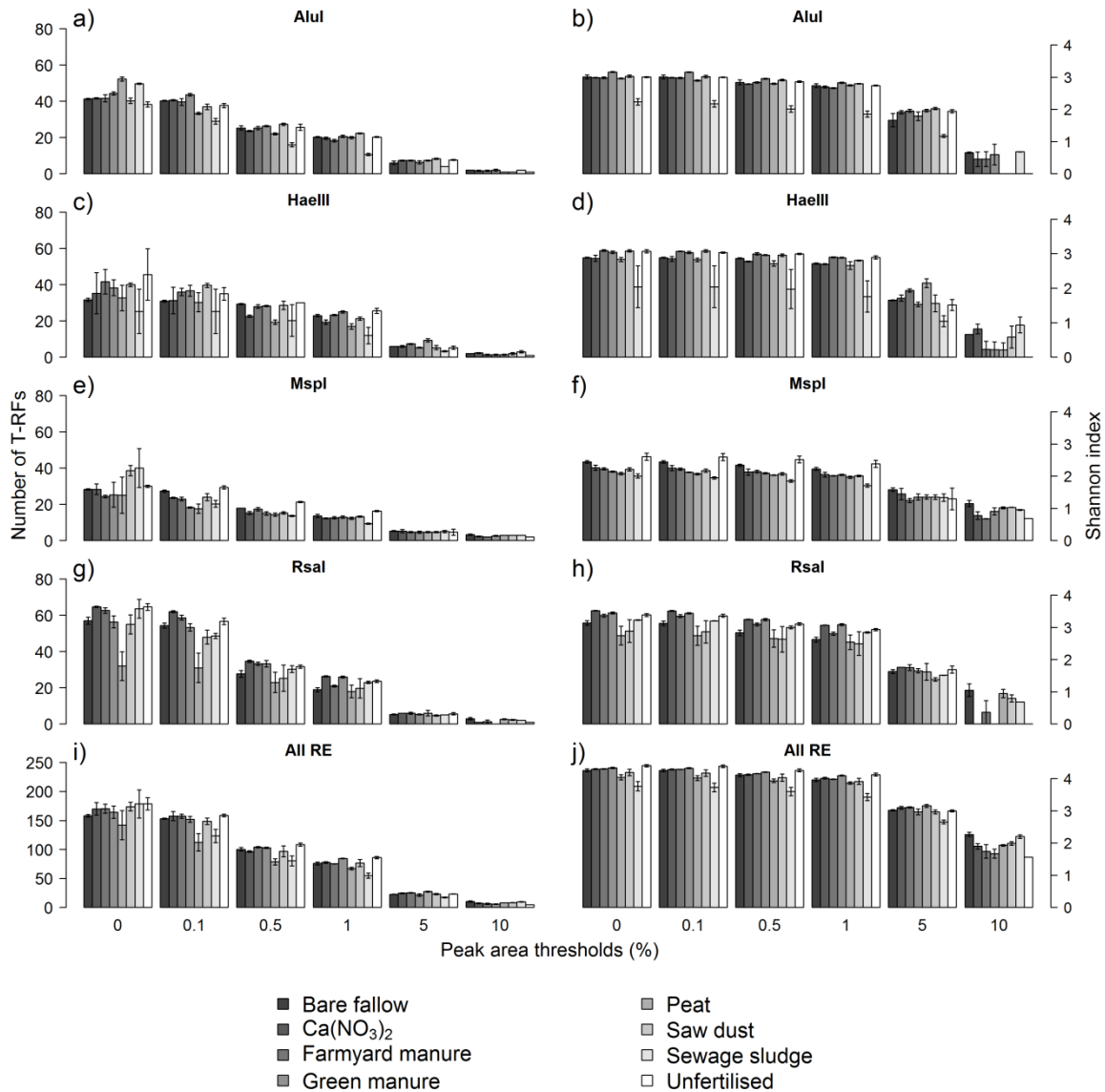
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644 **Table 1.** Chemical characteristics of the 8 different soil treatments of the Ultuna Long
 645 Term Field Experiment (Uppsala, Sweden). Means values \pm standard errors ($n = 3$) are
 646 shown.

Soils treatments	Total C (mg g ⁻¹ soil)	Total N (mg g ⁻¹ soil)	C/N	pH (water)
Bare fallow	9.8 \pm 0.08	1.06 \pm 0.01	9.2 \pm 0.01	6.1 \pm 0.03
Ca(CO ₃) ₂	14.0 \pm 0.12	1.45 \pm 0.01	9.6 \pm 0.03	6.7 \pm 0.02
Farmyard manure	23.0 \pm 0.08	2.27 \pm 0.003	10.1 \pm 0.02	6.5 \pm 0.03
Green manure	16.9 \pm 0.07	1.73 \pm 0.01	9.8 \pm 0.02	6.1 \pm 0.02
Peat	38.2 \pm 0.46	2.07 \pm 0.01	18.5 \pm 0.14	6.1 \pm 0.02
Saw dust	20.9 \pm 0.45	1.49 \pm 0.02	14.0 \pm 0.14	6.3 \pm 0.04
Sewage sludge	28.6 \pm 0.19	3.08 \pm 0.02	9.3 \pm 0.01	4.9 \pm 0.02
Unfertilised	11.1 \pm 0.04	1.18 \pm 0.004	9.4 \pm 0.03	6.2 \pm 0.02

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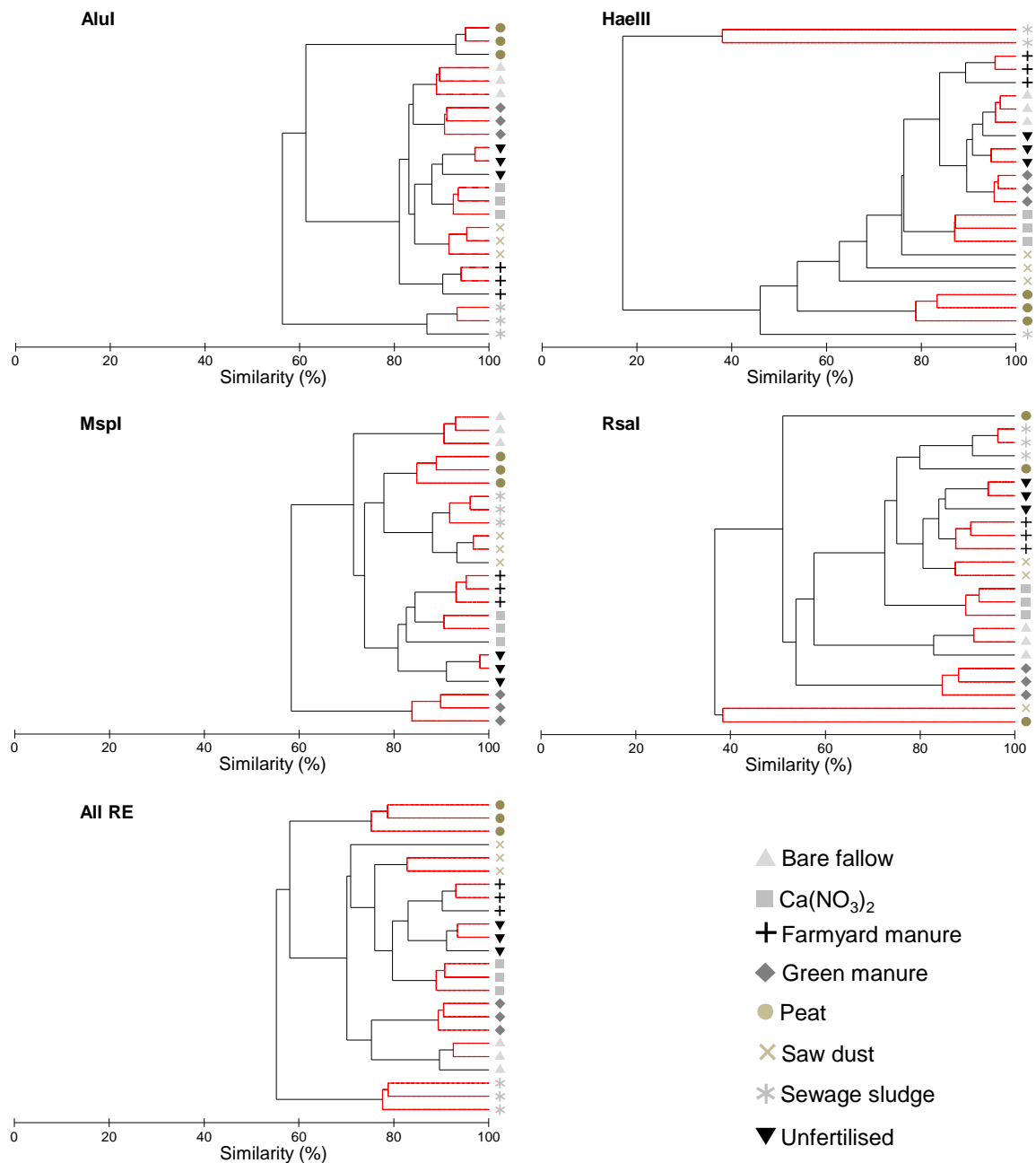
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649

650 **Fig. 1.** Variation in the number of T-RFs (a, c, e, g, i) and the Shannon index (b, d, f, h, j)
 651 from the bacterial community structures in the eight soil treatments studied, at six peak area
 652 thresholds and for each of the four enzymatic digestions (*AluI*, *HaeIII*, *MspI* and *RsaI*) and the
 653 combination of the four restriction enzymes results (All RE). Mean values \pm standard errors (n
 654 = 3) are shown. NB: the y-scale for the number of T-RFs from All RE is different than the
 655 other plots.

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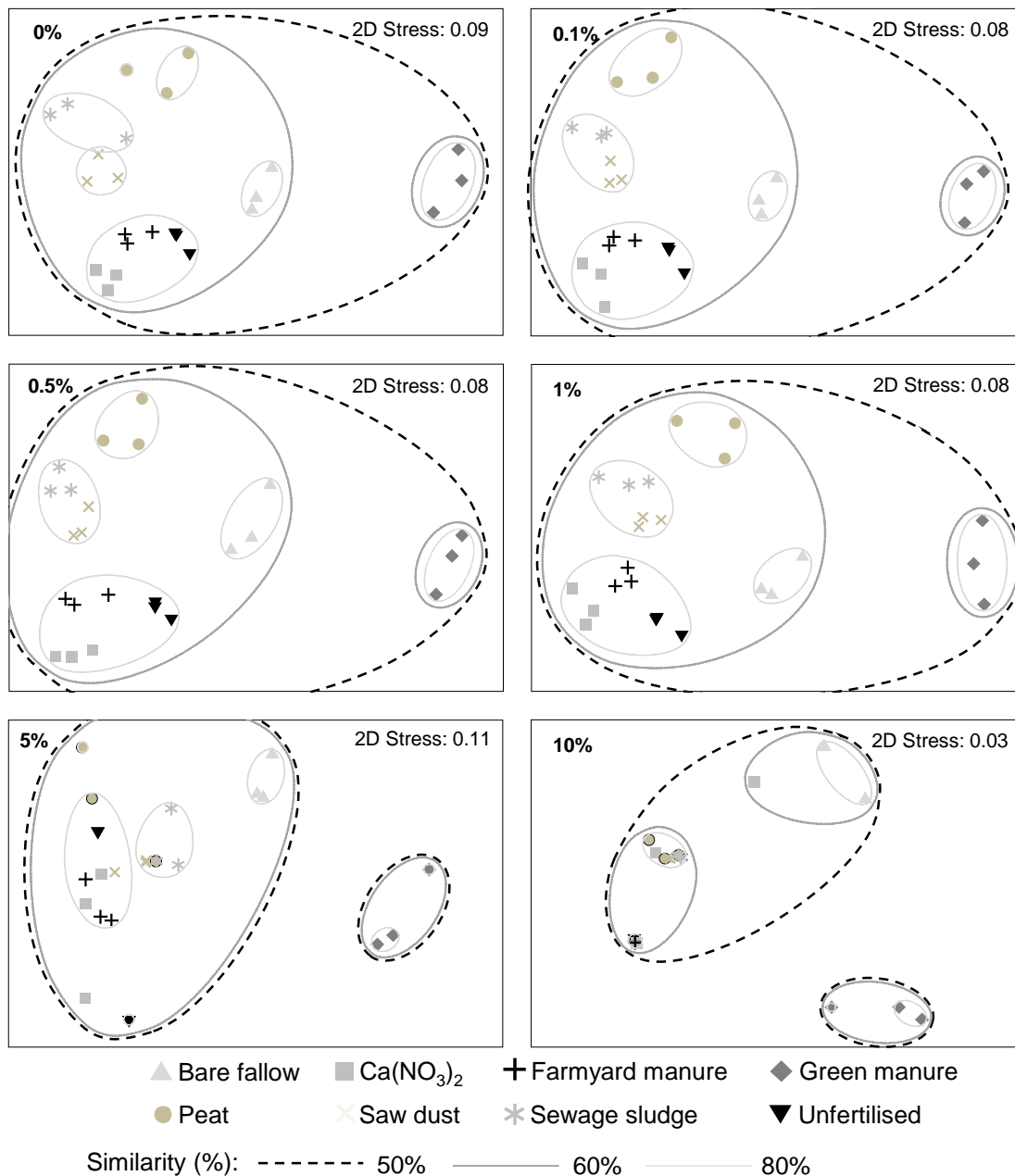


657

658 **Fig. 2.** Cluster analysis of the bacterial community structure of eight soil treatments studied at
 659 0.5% peak area threshold generated from relative abundance matrix, from four different
 660 enzymatic digestions (*AluI*, *HaeIII*, *MspI* and *RsaI*) and the combination of the four restriction
 661 enzymes results (*All RE*). Different soil treatments are indicated in the key (3 experimental
 662 replicates). Red lines indicate clusters that are not significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

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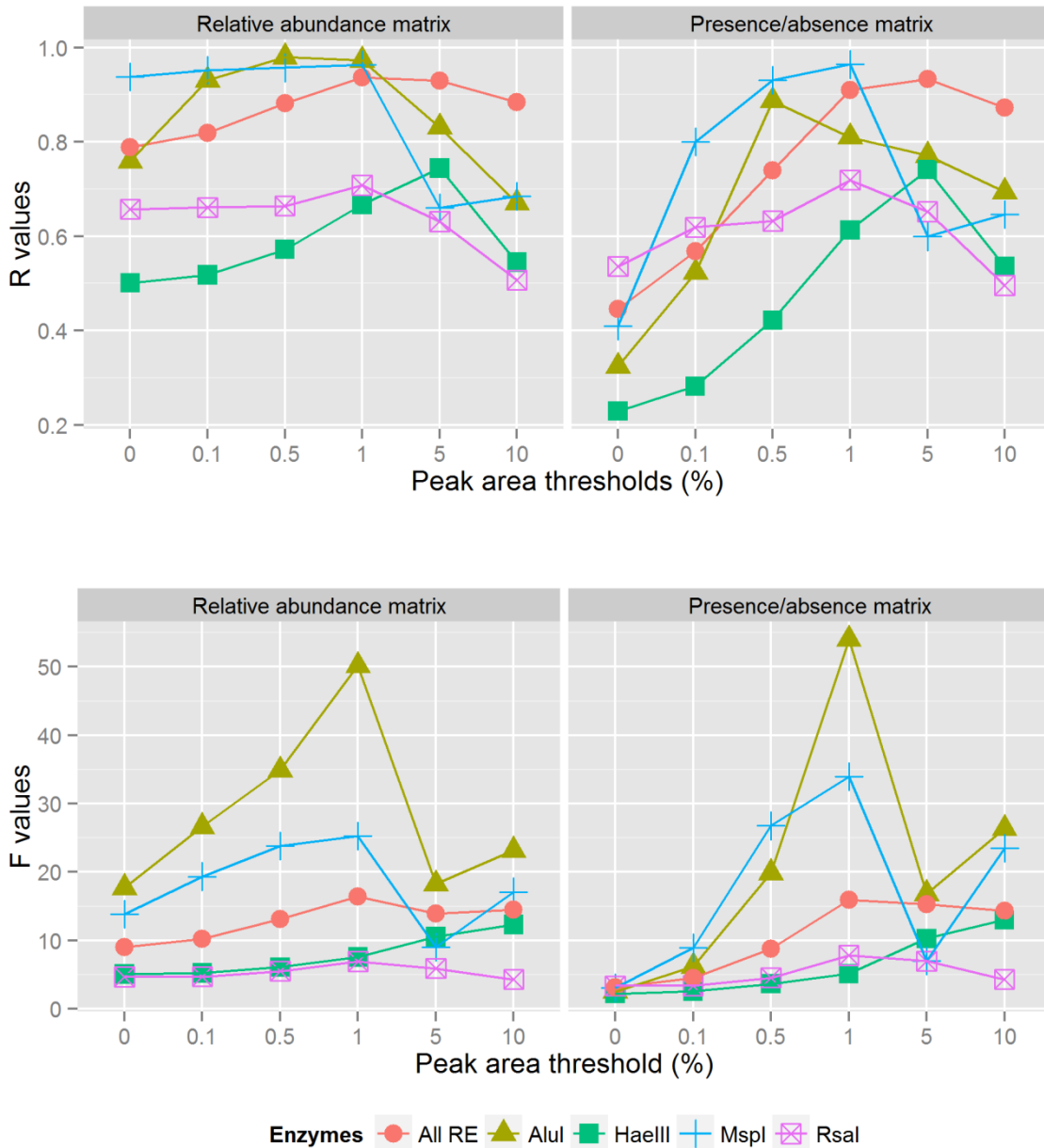
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666 **Fig. 3.** nMDS plots of the bacterial community structure generated from the relative
 667 abundance matrix, obtained by T-RFLP and digested with the restriction enzyme *MspI*, from
 668 eight different soil treatments studied, at 0%, 0.1% 0.5%, 1%, 5% and 10% peak area
 669 thresholds. Different soil treatments are indicated in the key (3 experimental replicates). The
 670 2D stress is given for each nMDS plot. Circles indicate percentage of similarity between
 671 samples based on cluster analysis.

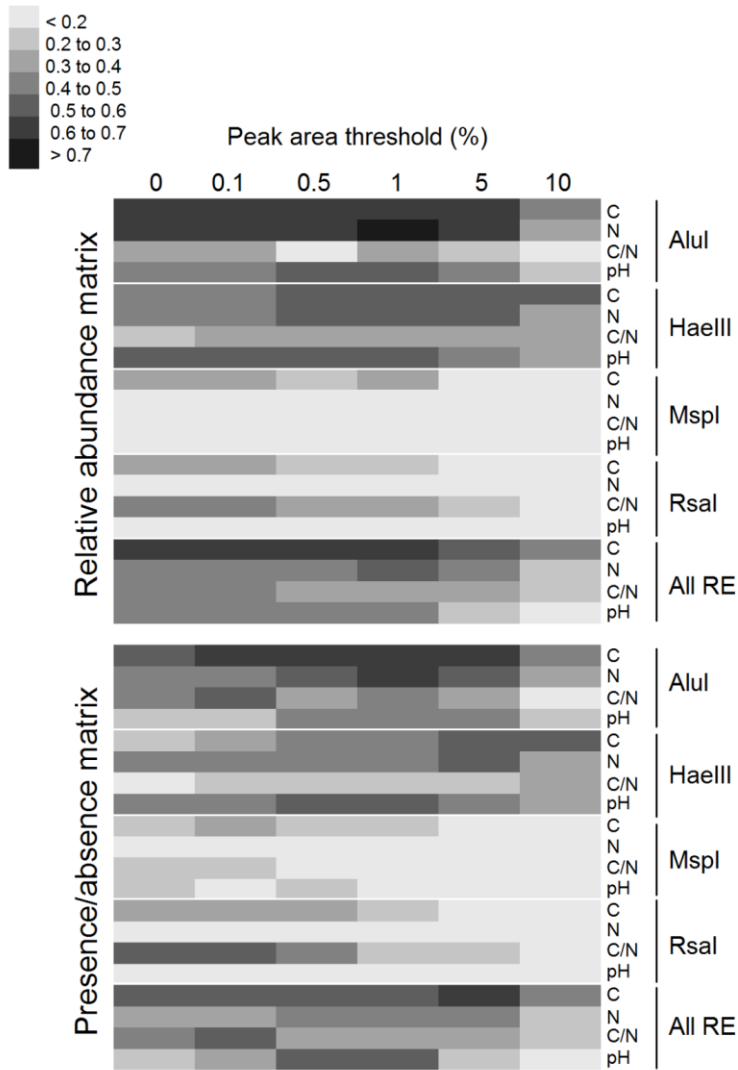
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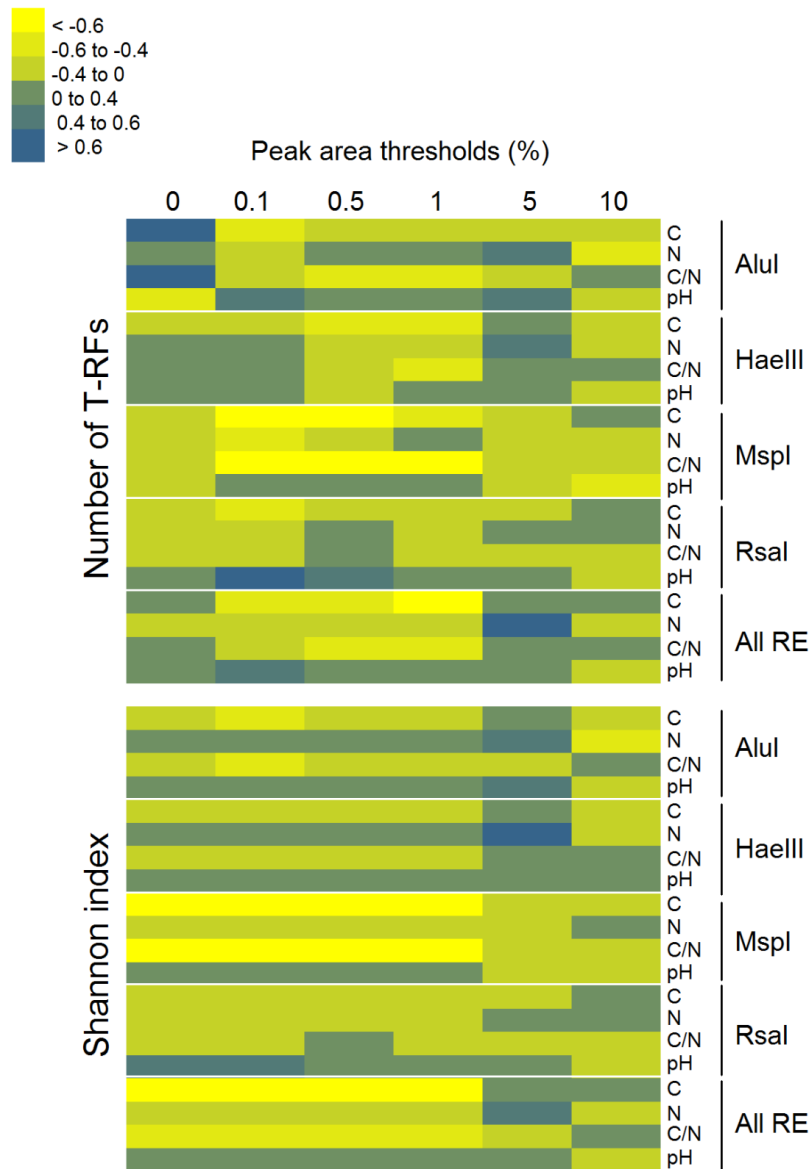
674 **Fig. 4.** Variation in the effect of soil organic and mineral amendments on bacterial community
 675 structure generated from four different enzymatic digestions (*AluI*, *HaeIII*, *MspI* and *RsaI*)
 676 and the combination of the four restriction enzymes results (All RE), 6 different peak area
 677 thresholds (0 to 10%) and from relative abundance or presence/absence matrices. The effect
 678 of soil organic and mineral amendments on bacterial community structure was expressed as R
 679 (top plots) and F (bottom plots) values obtained from one-way ANOSIM and PERMANOVA,
 680 respectively. All the analysis were significant at $P = 0.00001$.

681



682

683 **Fig. 5.** Heatmaps of Spearman rank correlations between each environmental variable (i.e. C
 684 and N content, C/N and pH) and T-RFLP profiles from 8 different samples, generated with 4
 685 different enzymatic digestions (*AluI*, *HaeIII*, *MspI* and *RsaI*), 6 different peak area thresholds
 686 (0, 0.1, 0.5, 1, 5 and 10%) and from relative abundance or presence/absence matrices. Colours
 687 represent the ρ values of Spearman rank correlations, i.e. the strength of the correlations
 688 varying between 0 and +1. All RE corresponds to the combination of the 4 restriction
 689 enzymes. Variations in correlation between bacterial community structure and environmental
 690 variables were expressed as ρ values generated from the RELATE test from the software
 691 PRIMER. Significant ($P < 0.05$) correlations were found for Spearman's rank correlation
 692 superior ~ 0.2 .



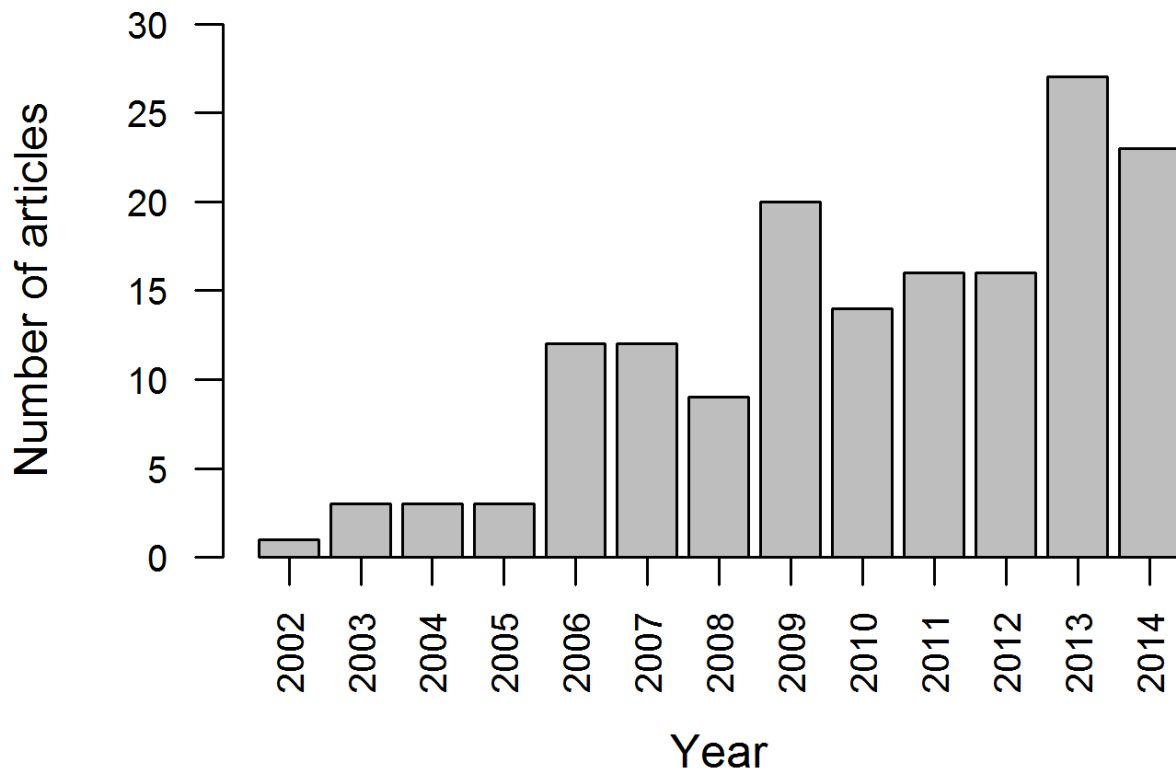
693

694 **Fig. 6.** Heatmaps of Spearman rank correlations between each environmental variable (i.e. C
 695 and N content, C/N and pH) and richness or evenness of the T-RFLP profiles (See Fig. 1)
 696 from 8 different samples and generated with 4 different enzymatic digestions (*AluI*, *HaeIII*,
 697 *MspI* and *RsaI*) and 6 different peak area thresholds (0, 0.1, 0.5, 1, 5 and 10%). Colours
 698 represent the ρ values of Spearman rank correlations, i.e. the strength of the correlations
 699 varying between -1 and +1. Significant ($P < 0.05$) correlations were found for Spearman's
 700 rank correlation > 0.4 and < -0.4 .

701

702

Supplementary Information



703

704 **Fig. S1.** Number of articles using T-RFLP and published in *Biology and Fertility of Soils*
705 (17), *European Journal of Soil Sciences* (4), *Geoderma* (2), *Plant and Soil* (24) and *Soil*
706 *Biology & Biochemistry* (112), between 2002 (first article published) and 2014 (See also
707 Table S1).

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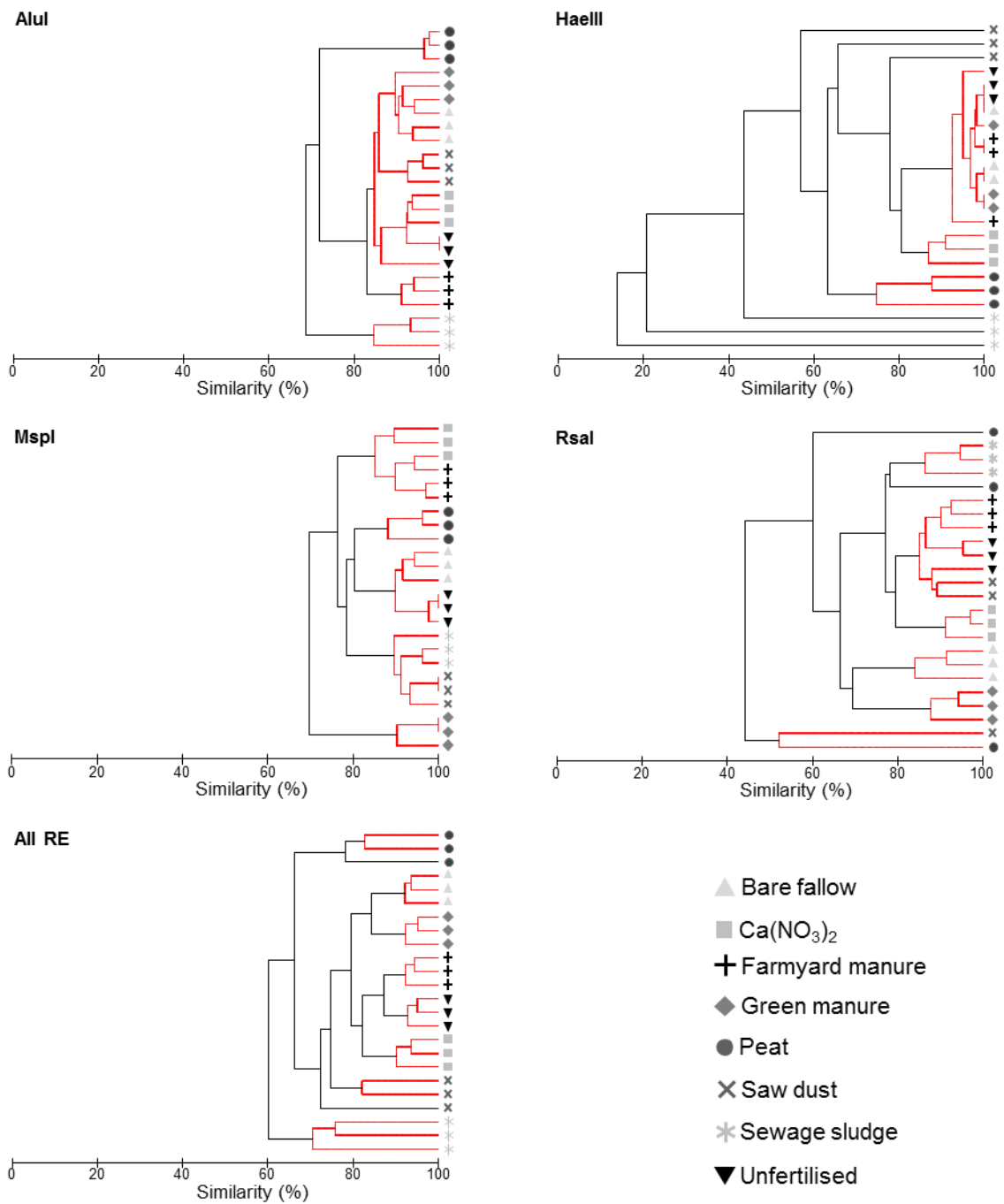
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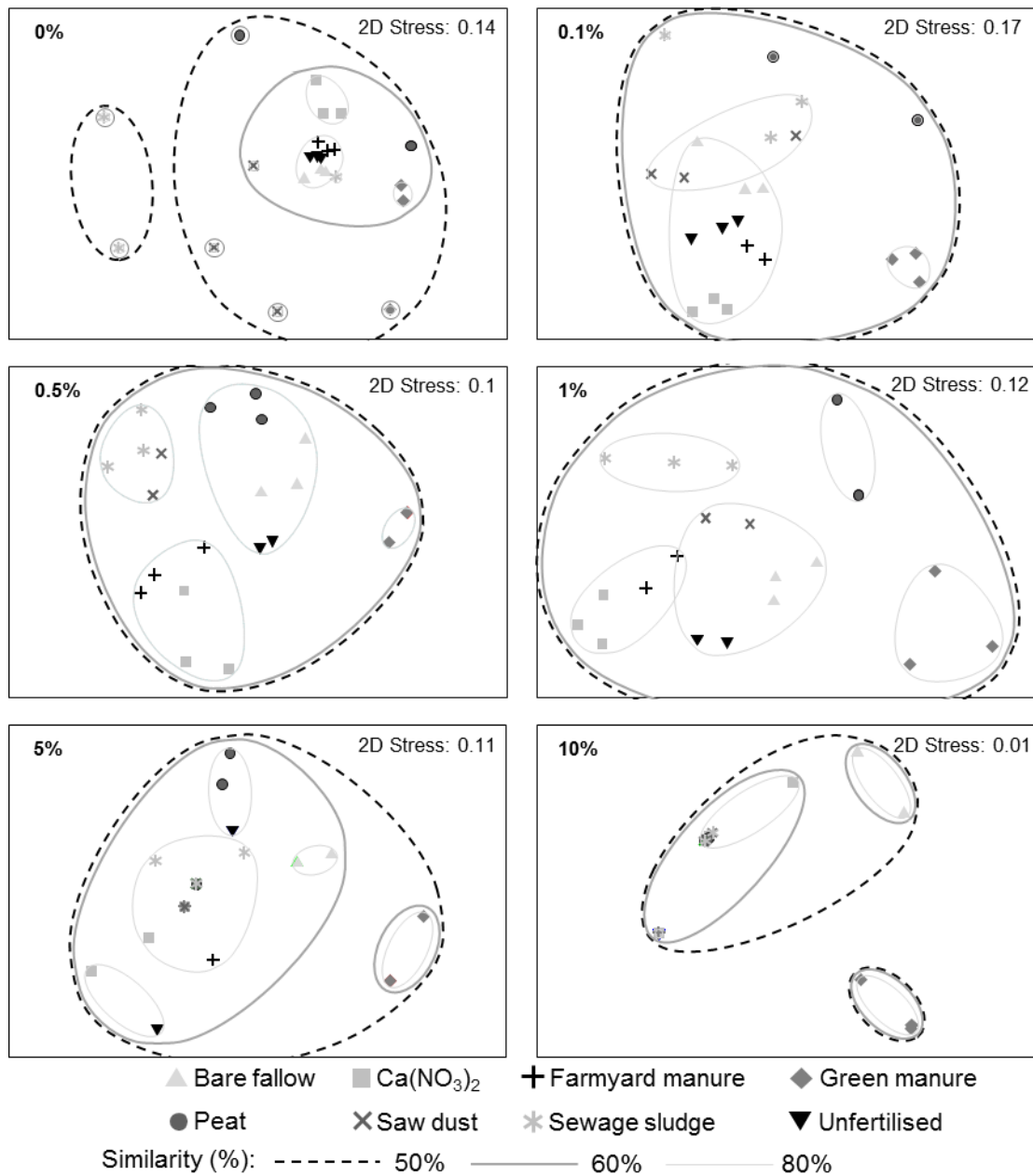
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717

718 **Fig. S2.** Cluster analysis of the bacterial community structure of eight soil treatments studied
 719 at 0.5% peak area threshold generated from presence/absence matrix, from four different
 720 enzymatic digestions (AluI, HaeIII, MspI and RsaI) and the combination of the four
 721 restriction enzymes results (All RE). Different soils treatments are indicated in the key (3

722 experimental replicates). Red lines indicate clusters that are not significantly different ($P <$
 723 0.05).



724

725 **Fig. S3.** nMDS plots of the bacterial community structure generated from presence/absence
 726 matrix, obtained by T-RFLP and digested with the restriction enzyme MspI, from eight soils
 727 treatments studied, at 0%, 0.1% 0.5%, 1%, 5% and 10% peak area thresholds. Different soils
 728 treatments are indicated in the key (3 experimental replicates). The 2D stress is given for each

729 nMDS plot. Circles indicate percentage of similarity between samples based on cluster
 730 analysis.

731

732 **Table S1.** Analysis of 159 studies published in *Biology and Fertility of Soils* (17), *European*
 733 *Journal of Soil Sciences* (4), *Geoderma* (2), *Plant and Soil* (24) and *Soil Biology &*
 734 *Biochemistry* (112), between 2002 (first article published) and 2014, in which T-RFLP was
 735 used. The data present the percentage of articles that indicate: 1 or >1 restriction enzymes
 736 used, mentioned the size interval of T-RFs analysed, used noise threshold (baseline or peak),
 737 normalised data, the type of matrix used for data analysis and the main ordination/statistical
 738 analysis performed.

Criteria for T-RFLP analysis	Proportion ($n = 159$)
Only one enzyme ^{a,b}	62%
More than one enzyme ^b	43%
T-RFs size known ^c	46%
Baseline threshold	38%
Peak area/height threshold ^d	29%
Presence/Absence matrix ^e	29%
Relative abundance matrix ^e	61%
Main ordination/statistical analysis	Proportion ($n = 159$)
Cluster	18%
nMDS	25%
PCA	25%
ANOSIM	13%
MRPP	6%
PERMANOVA	11%

739 ^a For 81 studies amplifying the bacterial 16S rRNA gene, the restriction enzymes the most frequently used were
 740 HhaI (37%), MspI (36%), HaeIII (30%), RsaI (12%) and AluI (10%).

741 ^b The total percentage is > 100% because some studies using one or more enzymes for different communities
 742 within the same study, and were subsequently counted twice.

743 ^c article that used or indicated the interval-size (base pair or nucleotide) of T-RFs included in their analysis.
744 ^d 1% peak threshold was the most used (16%) and then 0.5% (8%), 0.1% (3%), followed by 1.5%, 2%, 3% or
745 5% representing 1% of the studies.
746 ^e 9% of the studies did not indicate which matrix they used. The total percentage of studies is > 100% because
747 some studies used presence / absence and relative abundance in their analysis and were counted twice.
748 **Table S2.** Number of T-RFs obtained by *in silico* digestion or T-RFLP. The *in silico*
749 digestion was performed on 51 sequences previously published from the Ultuna experiment
750 (Sessitsch et al., 2001). The number of unique T-RFs and the total number of T-RFs for all the
751 sequences or samples are given at peak area threshold 0%.

Restriction enzyme	<i>In silico</i> digestion		T-RFLP	
	Unique T-RFs	Total number of T-RFs	Unique T-RFs	Total number of T-RFs
AluI	33	51	136	1049
HaeIII	34	49	162	872
MspI	27	41	137	720
RsaI	24	33	138	1368

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