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1 Bacterial dispersers along preferential flow paths of a clay till depth

2 profile

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20 ABSTRACT

21 This study assessed the dispersal of five bacterial communities from contrasting compartments along a fractured clay till depth profile comprising plow layer soil, preferential flow paths 22 23 (biopores and the tectonic fractures below) and matrix sediments, down to 350 cm below the surface. A recently developed expansion of the porous surface model (PSM) was used to capture 24 25 bacterial communities dispersing under controlled hydration conditions on a soil-like surface. All five communities contained bacteria capable of active dispersal under relatively low hydration 26 27 conditions (-3.1 kPa). Further testing of the plow layer community revealed active dispersal even 28 at matric potentials of -6.3 to -8.4 kPa, previously thought to be too dry for dispersal on the PSM. 29 Using 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing, the dispersing communities were found to be less 30 diverse than their corresponding total communities. The dominant dispersers in most compartments belonged to the genus Pseudomonas and, in the plow layer soil, to Rahnella too. An 31 32 exception to this was the dispersing community in the matrix at 350 cm below the surface, which 33 was dominated by Pantoea. Hydrologically connected compartments shared proportionally more 34 dispersing than non-dispersing amplicon sequence variants (ASVs), suggesting that active dispersal is important for colonizing these compartments. These results highlight the importance of 35 36 including soil profile heterogeneity when assessing the role of active dispersal, and contribute to 37 discerning the importance of active dispersal in the soil environment.

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42 **IMPORTANCE**

43 The ability to disperse is considered essential for soil bacteria colonization and survival, yet very little is known about the dispersal ability of communities from different, heterogeneous soil 44 compartments. An important factor for dispersal is the thickness and connectivity of the liquid film 45 between soil particles. The present results from a fractured clay till depth profile suggest that 46 47 dispersal ability is common in various soil compartments and that most are dominated by a few dispersing taxa. Importantly, an increase in shared dispersers among the preferential flow paths of 48 49 the clay till suggests that active dispersal plays a role in the successful colonization of these 50 habitats.

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53 KEYWORDS

- 54 Community motility, liquid film, preferential flow paths, soil, succession
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63 Introduction

64	Bacterial dispersal in soil has long been considered an important topic of study for microbiologists
65	in various contexts such as bioremediation, ecology, plant protection and community dynamics
66	(1–5). While these studies provide essential insights, they are mostly based on observations from
67	pure culture studies, leaving much still unknown about dispersal in natural soil communities.
68	Bacteria disperse either passively, e.g. by random movement (Brownian motion), transport on
69	plant roots or with water flow, or actively, which requires energy, often using dedicated cellular
70	appendages such as flagella (2, 6–8). In recent studies, there is also an increasing awareness of the
71	potential for cooperative dispersal strategies such as cargo transport of nonmotile bacteria by
72	motile bacterial swarms (3, 9) or interkingdom cooperation with dispersal facilitated by fungi or
73	amoeba (10–13). However, methods for assessing dispersal ability of complex bacterial
74	communities under conditions relevant to soil have only lately become available (14, 15).
75	Bacteria are aquatic organisms by nature and require an aquatic environment for their life
76	functions (16). In soil, water is also crucial to dispersal because bacterial cells generally need to be
77	fully immersed in liquid to move (2, 17). As a consequence, bacterial dispersal in soil is limited to
78	microhabitats that are interconnected by water pathways, such as the liquid films between soil
79	particles (2, 7). This makes soil water a key factor in bacterial dispersal and consequently in
80	bacterial survival and community diversity. Indeed, connectivity, or more accurately the lack of it,
81	is important for maintaining the huge microbial diversity found in the heterogeneous soil
82	environment (2, 18–21). Connectivity in soil can be considered at different scales, from a
83	microscale at which a single bacterium operates to a macroscale, <i>e.g.</i> an agricultural field.

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At the macroscale, the flow of water in well-structured soils is mainly restricted to preferential flow paths, closely connecting some parts of the soil profile while leaving others isolated (7, 22, 23). A "text-book" example of connectivity at the macroscale is agricultural clay tills, where most of the water, primarily from rainfall, moves from the plow layer through preferential flow paths towards groundwater reservoirs. These preferential flow paths comprise a complex system of biopores (mainly earthworm burrows and plant root channels) that are connected to tectonic fractures in deeper layers (22, 24, 25).

In clay till, preferential flow paths are fairly well characterized from a geological perspective (24-91 92 27), particularly as a result of their potential importance in the leaching of pesticides and other contaminants to groundwater (28). However, from a microbial perspective, much is still unclear. 93 94 Soils separated by a few meters may have very different community structures (2, 6). Indeed, communities separated by as little as few millimeters can vary in composition, activity, and 95 function, e.g. the potential for degradation of pesticides (6, 20, 29). This spatial influence on 96 bacterial communities may be pronounced in clay tills, where the soil profile can be viewed as 97 98 consisting of spatially isolated compartments, and fracture surfaces and matrix sediment for example, which provide bacterial habitats with vastly different physical and chemical compositions 99 100 (24–27, 30). These varying conditions can select for different bacteria, leading to differences in 101 community composition (31). Dispersal has the potential to redistribute bacteria and spatially homogenize community composition. While preferential flow paths can be a major route for the 102 103 passive transport of bacteria through soil (7, 16, 32, 33), the contribution of active dispersal to 104 community assembly processes in soil and sediments has not been explored.

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106	One of the most important factors potentially limiting active dispersal in soil and deeper
107	sediments is fluctuating matric potentials and the subsequent loss of connectivity at the
108	microscale, as has been shown in pure culture studies that have highlighted the negative effect of
109	increasingly thin liquid films on flagella-mediated dispersal (18, 34, 35). However, these limitations
110	might not apply to the same extent to the dispersal of environmental communities. Using the
111	novel and expanded PSM method to study bacterial dispersal under controlled hydration
112	conditions on a soil-like surface, Krüger et al. (2018) found that part of environmental
113	communities were able to disperse even under conditions previously thought too dry for dispersal
114	(14, 18, 35). According to their observations, rapid dispersal was possible even at a matric
115	potential of -4.2 kPa, but the community response to increasingly negative matric potentials, and
116	thus decreased liquid film thickness and connectivity, have not been investigated beyond that
117	point.
118	In the present study, the aim was to assess the dispersal potential of bacterial communities from
119	five compartments of a well-defined agricultural soil profile covering the plow layer, deeper
120	preferential flow paths (biopores and tectonic fractures) and adjacent matrix sediments. It was
121	hypothesized that: 1) a sub-community of efficient dispersers is present in each compartment, and
122	2) these bacteria are frequently shared between hydraulically connected compartments.

Furthermore, the effect of low matric potential, and thus low liquid film thickness, on dispersal of
a plow layer soil bacterial community was studied and it was hypothesized that: 3) only a fraction
of the motile community is able to disperse at low hydration conditions.

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128 Results

129 Bacterial communities recovered from the soil profile

This study assessed the dispersal of five bacterial communities extracted from five different 130 compartments of a well-defined clay till depth profile (Fig. 1). A newly developed method, the 131 132 extended porous surface model (PSM), was used in which agar plate imprints are used to reveal 133 the spatial spreading of bacterial communities on a rough hydrated surface resembling soil. This method allows for the recovery and characterization of both the dispersing bacteria and the total 134 135 community, recovered respectively by pressing a hollowed-out agar plate or a 'full' agar plate onto 136 the PSM surface. The total bacterial communities from the five soil and sediment compartments clearly separated into five clusters on the non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) plot of the 137 community composition from 16S rRNA amplicon sequence data. This was confirmed by 138 PERMANOVA analysis on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities, where 56 % of the variance could be explained 139 140 by soil compartment (p < 0.001) (Fig. 2). Heatmaps and Venn diagrams of the amplicon sequence 141 variants (ASVs) (36) of the total communities also illustrate the different community compositions (Fig. S1- S6). Comparisons between the original soil community, the inoculum (Nycodenz 142 143 extractions) and the cultivable communities on the full plates and reference plates (inoculum placed directly on agar plate) confirm the expected cultivation bias (Fig. S7 and S8). Yet, in general, 144 the total cultivable communities retained a high level of diversity, with representatives of 109 145 146 unique genera (belonging to 5 different phyla), across all compartments plus 161 ASVs that were not identifiable at the genus level (Table S1). 27.7 % and 8.7 % of the genera in abundance >0.1 % 147 in the biopores and plow layer soil communities, respectively, were recovered on the full plates 148 149 pressed onto the PSM incubated for 48h at -3.1 kPa. Similar values were observed for the -0.5 kPa

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150 24 h samples (Table S2). Additionally, the ASVs found on the full plates represented 10 % and 1 % 151 of the original community from the biopores and plow layer soil (Table S3). This signifies that the 152 applied method was able to recover a substantial part of the diversity present in the original soil 153 communities.

The genera Pseudomonas, Flavobacterium and Pedobacter dominated the total communities of 154 155 the plow layer, biopores, and matrix at 80-120 cmbs (cm below surface) (Fig. S1- S3), while in the fracture community at 300-350 cmbs, Flavobacterium was replaced by Arthrobacter (Fig. S4). The 156 157 community from the deep matrix sediment at 300-350 cmbs was dominated by the genus 158 Pantoea, followed by Pseudomonas, Chryseobacterium and Stenotrophomonas (Fig. S5). The moisture conditions on the PSM model (-0.5 and -3.1 kPa) had only a minor influence on the total 159 160 bacterial community composition, contributing just 7 % of the variation in the PERMANOVA analysis of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities (p<0.001) (Fig. 2 and Fig. S1-5). In conclusion, the soil 161 communities recovered from the PSM were distinctly different, although they shared some 162 163 dominant genera.

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165 **Community dispersal potential and identity of major dispersers**

166 Rapid dispersal of bacteria was observed for all soil and sediment communities in wet conditions (-

167 0.5 kPa). Except for the plow layer community, there was a clear tendency towards slower

dispersal and lower surface coverage scores in dry conditions (-3.1 kPa) compared to wet

169 conditions, indicating dispersal limitation in dry conditions (Fig. 3).

170 Using 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing, the dispersing bacteria from the extracted soil and

171 sediment communities were identified. The composition of these dispersing communities was

172	then compared to the total bacterial communities. Both the Shannon diversity and Faith's
173	phylogenetic diversity indices showed that the total communities were more diverse than the
174	dispersed communities, and that the dispersers had a narrow phylogenetic diversity (Fig. S9 and
175	S10). The Shannon diversity index also revealed a lower diversity in dry (-3.1 kPa) compared to wet
176	conditions for all dispersed communities, except for the matrix sediment at 80-120 cmbs, where a
177	high variation between replicates was seen. Dispersing bacteria predominantly belonged to the
178	genus Pseudomonas in all but one community at -0.5 kPa. Additionally, under these wet
179	conditions, the plow layer and the biopore dispersers shared a high relative abundance of
180	Rahnella, Paenibacillus, Lysinibacillus and Kluyvera (Fig. 3). In dry conditions, Pseudomonas almost
181	completely dominated the dispersed communities, except for the matrix soil at 300-350 cmbs.
182	Here Pantoea was dominant at -0.5 kPa, while at -3.1 kPa Pantoea and Pseudomonas were
183	represented equally. In general, the dominant disperser genera were also represented in the total
184	community, but they were greatly enriched in the disperser communities.

186 On an NMDS plot (Fig. S11 and S12) the dispersed communities separated from the total 187 communities, as confirmed by PERMANOVA analysis on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities, explaining 9 % and 11 % of the variance for -0.5 and -3.1 kPa (all p<0.001) respectively. However, the strongest 188 effect was still attributed to the compartment type, explaining 47 % and 28 % of the variance in 189 190 wet and dry conditions. Additionally, there was a significant, but moderate, interaction between dispersed/total community and soil compartment (14 %, P< 0.001, for -0.5 kPa, 24 h and 15 %, 191 192 P<0.001, for -3.1 kPa, 48 h respectively). Significant differences in homogeneity between the 193 dispersed and total communities was found using Betadisperser followed by ANOVA, which tested

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195	groups (F=5.9 , P< 0.05, for -0.5 kPa 24 h and F= 7.1, P< 0.01 for -3.1 kPa 48 h). Hence, the
196	dispersed communities had a significantly greater variation than the total communities, indicati
197	a stochastic element in the identity of the bacterial dispersers.
198	
199	Connectivity of dispersing communities from preferential flow paths and matrix
200	A closer look at the ASVs in the dispersed communities (Fig. 4 A, B and Tables S4-S5) revealed
201	many ASVs shared between the plow layer, biopores and fracture communities. The number of
202	shared ASVs was generally much higher in wet conditions than in dry conditions. The most
203	common genus amongst the shared dispersers between the three communities of the plow laye
204	biopores and fractures under both hydration conditions was Pseudomonas (10 shared ASVs at -
205	kPa and -3.1 kPa), but Buttiauxella was also represented (1 shared ASV at -0.5 kPa and -3.1 kPa)
206	The one ASV shared between all compartments under wet conditions belonged to the genus
207	Pseudomonas.
208	
209	Comparing the percentages of shared ASVs between dispersing and non-dispersing bacteria fro
210	the preferential flow paths also revealed a very clear picture of the dispersers being more share
211	then non dispersors (Table 1). It should be noted that what are referred to as "non dispersors"

whether the dispersion of a group from its median was different from the dispersion of other 194

a from hared than non-dispersers (Table 1). It should be noted that what are referred to as "non-dispersers" are 211 actually the ASVs in the total communities minus the ASVs observed among the dispersers. This 212 213 group may therefore also contain some slow dispersers, which were not quick enough to be 214 detected among the dispersers. The proportion of shared dispersers was significantly higher than the proportion of shared non-dispersers in the preferential flow paths for both wet and dry 215

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communities.

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conditions, although in dry conditions this was only significant for the shared communities between the plow layer and fractures. In contrast to the greater sharing of dispersers along the preferential flow paths, there was no significant preferential sharing of dispersers between the preferential flow paths and the adjacent matrix sediments. Indeed, in some cases there was even greater sharing of non-dispersing ASVs between these compartments, as was also the case for vertical sharing between the matrix 80-120 cmbs and matrix 300-350 cmbs sediment Response to increasingly negative matric potentials

225 To test the effect of increasingly negative matric potentials on the dispersal ability of a soil 226 community, the community extracted from the plow layer soil was exposed to matric potentials from -0.5 to -8.4 kPa. Interestingly, dispersal was seen even in the driest conditions, but the 227 228 Shannon diversity index of the dispersing community decreased as the conditions became dryer (Fig. 5), with only very few genera present in dry conditions (Fig. 6 and Fig. S13). Furthermore, 229 Faith's diversity index extended the previous results, showing that the narrow phylogenetic 230 distribution of the dispersed communities became narrower in even dryer conditions (Fig. S14). 231 In general, dispersal was increasingly restricted at matrix potentials of -4.1 kPa and below (Fig. 6), 232 233 with no replicates dispersing beyond the 15-20 mm section for matric potentials of -6.1 and -234 8.4 kPa. An element of randomness seemed to be involved in the identity of the dispersers at -235 4.1 to -8.4 kPa, with *Pseudomonas* still being prominent, but in some replicates *Cupriavidus*, 236 Bacillus, or Pseudoduganella were also dominant dispersers.

The element of randomness at decreased matric potentials was also supported by visual observations of the colonization patterns on the surface of the agar plates (Fig. S15). While at -0.5 and -3.1 kPa the patterns were characterized by a relatively uniform spread of bacteria from the inoculation point to the edge of the plate at -6.3 and -8.4 kPa, dispersal was limited to a few corridors.

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243 Discussion

244 Dispersal potential and disperser identity in communities from fractured clay till

While the role of passive transport is well established (2, 32, 33), the importance of active
dispersal in soil has been debated for many years (2, 3, 7, 17). Until recently there was no
experimental platform to screen for active dispersal at the community level (14, 15). The present
study assessed the dispersal of five bacterial communities from matrix sediments and preferential
flow paths of a clayey till.

250	The soil and sediment compartments studied here harbored different bacterial communities,
251	reflecting the very heterogeneous nature of clay till profiles and confirming the existence of
252	distinct compartments (30, 31). Dispersing bacteria were found in the plow layer and in all deeper
253	sediments, pointing to the importance of active dispersal in these environments, though these
254	dispersers were not dominant in the total communities (14, 15). Pseudomonas was the dominant
255	disperser in the top soil, in agreement with results from the few comparable studies available (14,
256	15). Members of the Pseudomonadaceae family have also been found to be early colonizers of
257	plant litter in an agricultural field, also suggesting that <i>Pseudomonas</i> is a key disperser in the soil

258	environment (37). In the literature, pseudomonads are known to be efficient dispersers,
259	employing various adaptations such as swimming, swarming and sliding motility (35, 38–40).
260	Additionally, it has been suggested that the ability of <i>Pseudomonas</i> to disperse even in dry
261	conditions could be linked to their ability to produce biosurfactants, which can facilitate surface
262	dispersal, especially in fluctuating hydration conditions (14, 41–43). However, the production of
263	surfactants might be linked to specific habitats such as the rhizosphere (41, 44), and the presence
264	of surfactants would therefore have to be proven in soil-like conditions.
265	In general, the dispersing bacterial communities of the soil and sediment compartments had a
266	narrow phylogenetic distribution and many dispersing taxa were shared between the
267	compartments. These dispersers had several genera in common with dispersers from other plow
268	layer soils (14, 15). Besides Pseudomonas, these were Paenibacillus, Flavobacterium and
269	Janthinobacterium, as well as Rahnella and Pantoea, the latter two belonging to the
270	enterobacteria, a group identified as the most abundant disperser in a previous study (15). While
271	Pseudomonas flagellar swimming dispersal and Flavobacterium gliding dispersal on surfaces have
272	been studied extensively, mainly in pure cultures (18, 35, 45–48), there needs to be a greater
273	focus on the mode of dispersal of other genera, e.g. Pantoea, which was found to be dominant in
274	the deep matrix sediment at 300-350 cmbs in the present study.
275	Dispersal rates were severely inhibited in conditions dryer than -3.1 kPa, because smaller liquid
276	film thickness on the ceramic surface prevent active dispersal, as previously demonstrated for
277	both pure bacterial cultures (18, 35) and soil and lake microbial communities (14).

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280 Bacterial dispersers in preferer

0 Bacterial dispersers in preferential flow paths *versus* matrix sediments

281 The high percentage of shared dispersers between the communities derived from the preferential flow path compartments compared to the matrix sediments indicated that the interchange of 282 283 dispersing genera is more common along hydrologically connected compartments. This concept is illustrated in Figure 7. As the preferential flow paths are enriched with dissolved nutrients, oxygen 284 285 and organic carbon transported from the surface by the flow of water (27, 49, 50), they can provide an attractive habitat for soil bacteria. While it has previously been shown that preferential 286 flow paths have the potential to be a major route for the passive transport of bacteria (7, 16, 32, 287 288 33), the current results support the notion that part of the bacterial communities in the flow 289 paths can also take advantage of active dispersal to spread through and colonize these habitats. 290 This was especially interesting as the benefit of active motility in the presence of water flow was 291 not obvious. Indeed, it might have been expected that the benefit of active motility would be 292 more prominent in the matrix soil where flow is absent.

293

294 The limited number of shared dispersers between the flow paths and the adjacent matrix 295 sediments, especially at 300-350 cmbs (Table 1), may be due to limited connectivity. Given the 296 small particle size of clay particles (< 2μ m), the pore space in dense clay sediment is generally very 297 small (7), probably impeding bacterial dispersal. Indeed the porosity of the clay till at the current study site decreases with depth (51). Although some bacterial pure cultures are known to be able 298 299 to swim through apertures as small as $1.1 \,\mu m$ (52), the small pore size and low connectivity of 300 matrix clay tills likely form a barrier to the exchange of bacteria, in particular at 300-350 cmbs. For 301 comparison, deep fractures are reported to have apertures of 100 μ m (22) and biopores may have diameters of 8-10 mm, leaving ample space for bacterial dispersal subject to the presence of
sufficient liquid films. Furthermore, fractures may be coated with metal oxide precipitates such as
iron oxides, which can be almost impermeable to water (27, 53) and therefore probably also a
hindrance for bacterial dispersal.

It is tempting to speculate that bacterial communities of dense clay matrixes are islands that have 306 307 little contact with nearby communities. Water percolation through clay till matrix sediments is very limited (22, 23), thereby providing little input of nutrients and organic carbon to the bacteria. 308 309 The low amount of nutrients in deep sediments (54) may also inhibit active dispersal as nutrient 310 limitation can greatly decrease the fraction of motile bacteria (55). We recognize that the method applied in this study is limited to the fraction of bacteria able to grow under the selected growth 311 312 conditions excluding contribution of microbes that cannot be active under the conditions of our assay (e.g. strict anaerobes). Nonetheless, while the current study was limited to exploring 313 subgroups of the total diversity of soil bacteria present along the preferential flow paths of a clay 314 315 till depth profile we believe that we are uncovering important processes relating dispersal 316 potential and connectivity in the heterogeneous soil environment. The observed patterns of intensified cell exchange affected by dispersal potential and soil compartment should apply to 317 318 other bacteria as well as the principles of soil physics will apply irrespective of bacterial taxonomy.

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320 Dispersal at low matric potentials

In unsaturated soil, low matric potentials are known to negatively affect bacterial dispersal (2, 18,
35). Here, the matric potential on the PSM was extended to -8.4 kPa, the lowest possible without
using a pressurized version of the PSM (56), in order to investigate how low hydration conditions

324	affect active dispersal of soil bacterial communities. The finding of active dispersal even at -8.4
325	kPa, albeit at a decreased rate, was surprising because recent measurements of liquid films on the
326	PSM have shown rapid thinning and disconnection of the liquid films at matric potentials
327	exceeding -2.0 kPa (18), causing severe inhibition of dispersal, as demonstrated for bacterial pure
328	cultures (18, 35, 46). However, due to residual surface roughness on the PSM it is still possible to
329	observe rare thicker liquid films (≥ 5 $\mu m)$ at -2.0 kPa (18). Visual analysis of the agar plates
330	suggested that dispersal at the lowest matrix potentials of -6.3 to -8.4 kPa occurred along a few of
331	such narrow liquid film corridors on the rough surface. At a decreased matric potential (-4.1 to -8.4
332	kPa), Bacillus and Pseudoduganella rather than Pseudomonas were major dispersers in some
333	replicates, indicating a stochastic element with regards to which bacteria disperse when water film
334	thickness becomes limited. Due to the complex heterogeneous nature of soil we speculate that
335	there could also be some open dispersal corridors available in natural soil even under relatively
336	dry conditions. One known option is the use of the thin liquid films surrounding fungal hyphae (i.e.
337	fungal highways) (57, 58). It has been suggested that the abundance of mycelial networks in soil is
338	part of the explanation for the maintenance of the otherwise costly flagella in soil bacteria (11,
339	59).

It has been claimed that active motility is limited in soil mainly due to dry and unsaturated
conditions, which confines active dispersal to transient wet periods, *e.g.* during rain events (2, 7,
21). These claims have been supported in part by experimentation done using the porous surface
model, showing that bacterial flagellar motility is restricted to a narrow range of high matric water
potentials (18, 35). While the relationship between matric potential on and liquid film thickness on

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346 the PSM differs from that in soil, it is relevant to ascertain if the range of matric potentials found in 347 soil is compatible with flagella powered swimming. According to data from the Danish Pesticide 348 Leaching Assessment program (PLAP) (60, 61) in fractured clay till, which is a common soil type in Denmark (26), the matric potential of Danish agricultural top soils can fluctuate between -5 and -349 1500 kPa while deeper clayey matrix sediments (from 60 cmbs and down) remain water-saturated 350 (\sim 0 kPa) most of the time (61–63). There should therefore be sufficient liquid films in subsurface 351 352 clay till to allow active dispersal unless low pore connectivity and fracture coatings create physical 353 barriers that cannot be overcome.

354

355 Conclusions

356 This study demonstrated that different compartments of a heterogeneous clay till depth profile 357 harbor bacterial communities that are capable of dispersing in low hydration conditions. The dispersers show narrow phylogenetic diversity and are dominated by pseudomonads and 358 enterobacteria. Active dispersal occured even within thin and poorly-connected liquid films on the 359 360 surface of the PSM at matric potentials of -6.3 to -8.4 kPa. These results indicate that active 361 dispersal ability is widespread in soil and sediment communities. An increased proportion of 362 disperser ASVs shared between highly connected compartments (e.g. preferential flow paths) 363 points to a role for active dispersal in the spread through, and colonization of, these habitats. Fewer shared disperser ASVs between the preferential flow paths and the matrix sediments 364 illustrated that low porosity of clay tills and metal oxide-coated fracture walls might be barriers to 365 366 the exchange of bacteria, leaving matrix bacterial communities relatively isolated.

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368 Materials and methods

369 Soil sampling

Soils were sampled over a three-day period in September 2016 from an agricultural field (Anthric
Luvisol) in Lund, Denmark (55°14′49″N, 12°17′24″E) (51). The adjacent field has recently been
included in the Danish Pesticide Risk Assessment Program (PLAP)(51, 64). The soil is characterized
by clay till and boulder clay, with a very pronounced fracture system down to at least 6 m depth.
While the biopores, dominating the top 150 centimeters below the surface (cmbs), mainly consist
of earthworm burrows and decayed root channels, the fractures below are mainly of tectonic
origin.

377 A multi-bench excavation down to 6 m depth allowed the sampling of sediment from different 378 depths. Soil was sampled from the plow layer (0-20 cmbs), biopores (80-120 cmbs), matrix 379 sediment next to the biopores (80-120 cmbs), oxidized iron-rich red fractures (300-350 cmbs) and 380 matrix sediment next to these fractures (300-350 cmbs) (Fig. 1). Soils were collected as composite 381 samples, *i.e.* as small subsamples combined into one pooled sample for each of the five soil and 382 sediment compartments. One composite sample equaled ca. 15-30 subsamples per soil compartment, except for the biopore samples, which consisted of ca. 70 subsamples. The 383 subsamples were combined into one composite sample per compartment to ensure sufficient soil 384 385 from biopores and fractures for further analysis. Samples were secured by carefully removing the 386 outer layer of the soil profile with a knife to avoid cross contamination. Hereafter the freshly exposed soil and sediment were subsampled (carefully scraped off) with a small spoon and stored 387 388 at 5 °C.

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390 Extraction of soil bacteria

The soil and sediment samples from each compartment were homogenized by sieving (2 mm), and mass reduction for laboratory subsampling was performed by bed blending, as described in the "Representative Sampling Horizontal Standard" (65) and by Kardanpour *et al.* (2015) (66). This resulted in 25 g composite soil or sediment sample for each experimental setup. The soil bacterial community from each compartment was extracted using Nycodenz density

gradient centrifugation as in (67), except for the final cell density determination, which was performed directly using a Thoma counting chamber. Cell densities of the extracts were adjusted to 0.8×10^6 cells µl⁻¹ in 0.9 % NaCl solution. The soil bacterial extracts were kept at 4 °C overnight before inoculation on the ceramic discs of the extended porous surface model system.

400

401 Dispersal potential of environmental communities using the extended porous surface model

402 An extended version of the porous surface model (PSM) (14) was used, where the original PSM 403 model (46) had been further developed to encompass the dispersal of non-fluorescent complex communities extracted from environmental samples. The method allows communities to disperse 404 405 under controlled hydration conditions from the center of a porous ceramic disc (diameter = 406 41.3 mm, thickness = 7.1 mm, maximum pore size <1.5 μ m, 1 bar bubbling pressure; Soilmoisture 407 Equipment Corp., Santa Barbara, USA), mimicking a rough soil surface. Imposing suction on the ceramic disc allows for precise control of the liquid film thickness on its surface. The liquid medium 408 used in the PSM was 25 % R2B (Alpha Biosciences, Baltimore, MD). Each experimental setup 409 410 allowed for the parallel incubation of 9-11 PSMs.

411 Each PSM was inoculated with 10 μ l of bacterial extract placed as 1 μ l drops at the center of the ceramic disc. Although the inocula for the PSM were adjusted to the same cell densities according 412 to Thoma counts, the cultivable fraction was generally lower in deep sediment samples compared 413 to plow layer and biopore soil. CFU numbers were highest in the plow layer (ca. 11,250 CFU) and 414 biopores (130,000 CFU), and decreased in the matrix at 80-120 cmbs (1,000 CFU), red fractures 415 (1,125 CFU) and matrix sediment from 300-350 cmbs (750 CFU). Colonies were enumerated on 416 25 % R2A plates (Fluka R2A; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) after incubation at 25 °C for 48-72 hours. 417 All plates were amended with 100 mg \int^{1} Delvocid to inhibit fungal growth (Natamycin, DSM food 418 specialties, Delft, The Netherlands). 419

420 After inoculation, the discs were brought to matric potentials of -0.5 or -3.1 kPa and incubated at 421 room temperature for 24 or 48 hours before sampling. After incubation, the bacteria were recovered from the surface of the ceramic disc by means of an agar plate lift. This is described in 422 detail in Krüger et al. (14) In brief, to visualize the colonization on the ceramic disc, a series of agar 423 plates were used to cover different sections of the ceramic surface. The agar plate series consisted 424 of small flat 25 % R2A plates containing 20 g agar l⁻¹ (Star[™]Dish diameter, 40 mm; height, 425 12.5 mm; Phoenix Biomedical Products, Mississauga, Canada), with holes in four sizes. Sampling 426 427 was achieved by starting with the plate with the largest hole size, 25 mm, followed by 20, 15, 428 11.5 mm, and ending with the pressing of a full agar plate (full plate). The extent of colonization of 429 the ceramic disc was quantified by evaluating the coverage of bacterial growth on the individual 430 agar plates, after 72 h incubation at 25 °C, and dividing it into four categories: 1-25, 26-50, 51-75 and 76-100 % coverage. 431

449

433	communities were then identified, <i>i.e.</i> the colonies of the pressed agar plate the furthest from the
434	point of inoculation (the plate with the largest hole size) that presented growth (referred to as the
435	"dispersers" or "dispersing community"), and the total community present on the full agar plates,
436	by 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. The full plate represented the cultivable community
437	developing on an agar plate covering the entire ceramic plate, <i>i.e.</i> both dispersing and non-
438	dispersing bacteria. Additionally, for each separate experiment and soil, a no-motility reference
439	plate, shortened to "reference plate", was made by drop-plating 10 μ l of each inoculum directly
440	onto the center of a small 25 % R2A plate with 20 g agar l ⁻¹ , which provided conditions that are not
441	conductive for flagellar motility and are not influenced by the PSM (34). All bacteria were washed
442	off the agar plates using 0.9 % NaCl following the procedure described by Krüger et al. (2018) (14).
443	For comparisons with the dispersed communities, total communities present on the full plates
444	were generally preferred, as they captured the double cultivation step (both on the PSM and on
445	the agar plates). However the reference plates were also valuable because they gave an indication
446	of what could be cultivated upon direct inoculation on the agar plates. The cell suspensions from
447	the pressed plates and the reference plates (plate wash) as well as the original Nycodenz extracts
448	were all stored at -80 °C before further processing.

For each series of five pressed plates, the fastest-dispersing bacteria from the environmental

450 Porous surface model with increasingly negative matric potentials

To achieve matric potentials down to -8.4 kPa, the PSM assembly was slightly modified. To limit the amount of air entering the system, the PSM tubing was tightened and partly replaced with stainless steel. To further limit the formation of air bubbles that can form in the medium at

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454 lowered matrix potentials, the ceramic plates were degassed for 24 h using a vacuum pump, and the 25 % R2B medium was degassed for 20 minutes in an ultrasound bath. PSMs were assembled 455 submerged in degassed medium. 456

457

458 **DNA extraction and sequencing**

459 DNA was extracted using the DNeasy Powerlyzer Powersoil kit (Quiagen; Hilden, Germany)

460 following the manufacturer's protocol with a few adjustments, as in Krüger et al. (2018). The DNA

461 concentrations were measured on Qubit 2.0 (Life Technologies, Invitrogen; Carlsbad, USA) and

samples stored at -80 °C until sequencing. The DNA was PCR-amplified using the primer set 341F 462

463 (5'-CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3') and 806R (5'-GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3') (68) targeting the

464 hypervariable V3-V4 regions of bacterial 16S rRNA genes. The purified PCR products (2 x 300-bp

reads) were sequenced on the Illumina Miseq platform by Macrogen (Seoul, South Korea). 465

466 The raw 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequences were processed using the DADA2 pipeline (69) with

467 default parameters. Sequence classification was based on the SILVA prokaryotic reference

database version 123 (70). A total of 7.2 million sequences passed the filtering steps, representing 468

an average of 60,500 sequences per sample. 469

470

Data analysis and statistical methods 471

472 Data analysis of sequences and statistics was computed in R (71). The Shannon diversity index was 473 calculated using the "plot richness" function in the phyloseq package (72). Faith's phylogenetic diversity (PD) was calculated with the "pd.query" function in the PhyloMeasures package (73). 474

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475 Prior to calculating the PD, samples were rarefied to an even depth (mean of 10 iterations) using 476 the "rarefy even depth" function in the phyloseq package. Heatmaps were plotted using the "amp_heatmap" function in the ampvis2 package (74). Venn diagrams were plotted using the 477 function "venn" from the gplots package (75). Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) 478 ordination was undertaken on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities using the "ordinate" function in the 479 phyloseq package. PERMANOVA and analysis of multivariate homogeneity of group dispersions 480 (variances) were computed using the "adonis" and "betadisper" functions in the vegan (2.4-6) 481 482 package (76), with 999 permutations. Differences in the proportions of shared ASVs between communities were tested using Fisher's exact test in R (71). 483 Additional statistical analysis was undertaken using Sigmaplot 13 (Systat Software, Inc., San Jose, 484 485 CA).

Differences in Shannon diversity indices between total communities and the fastest dispersers was
tested using one-tailed, one sample t-tests (testing for subtracted differences greater than zero).
The effects of matric potentials were tested using two-tailed t-tests. P values of < 0.05 were
considered significant.

490 Accession number(s). All sequencing data have been deposited as an NCBI BioProject under

491 accession number PRJNA483533

492

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Figures 684



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686 FIG 1 Schematic illustration of the soil profile with highlighted sampling points. Plow layer 687 samples were obtained from 20 cmbs (cm below surface). Biopores and matrix sediment samples 688 were from 80-120 cmbs, and red fractures and matrix sediment were sampled from 300-350 cmbs. The illustration is adapted with permission from a report from the Danish Pesticide Leaching 689 690 Risk Assessment Program (PLAP) (64).

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697	restricted controls (reference plate) are marked with squares. Replicates are depicted as separate
698	dots.
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702	FIG 3 Dispersal and composition of communities derived from five compartments of a well-defined
703	soil profile and incubated at matric potential -0.5 kPa for 24 h (A) and -3.1 kPa for 48 h (B). Left:
704	Symbol shading depicts bacterial coverage of the pressed agar plate, giving an indication of the
705	extent of colonization. The distances shown are ranges, <i>e.g.</i> colonies were observed on the agar
706	ring at a distance of between 11.5 and 15 mm from the inoculation point at the center. Right:
707	Heatmap of the relative abundance of the most dominant genera among the dispersing bacteria
708	across five soil communities. The replicates are depicted as separate dots and replication numbers
709	varied from three to four.

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717 with a total of 138 unique ASVs.

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Table 1.

Shared dispersing and non-dispersing ASVs between communities derived from five compartments of a well-defined soil profile

compartments of a wen defined son profile											
		Percentage of	Percentage of	P value Fisher's							
		shared	shared	exact test							
		dispersers ^a	non-dispersers ^b								
Preferential flow path	s										
Plow layer vs.	-0.5 kPa	28.9 %	12.2 %	P< 0.001							
biopores	-3.1 kPa	20.0 %	15.0 %	0.2892							
Biopores vs. fractures	-0.5 kPa	22.9 %	5.6 %	P< 0.001							
	-3.1 kPa	14.7 %	7.6 %	0.1042							
Plow layer vs.	-0.5 kPa	14.6 %	3.8 %	P<0.01							
fractures	-3.1 kPa	26.3 %	6.9 %	P<0.001							
Preferential flow path	<i>vs.</i> matrix										
Biopores vs.	-0.5 kPa	17.0 %	13.6 %	0.5636							
matrix at 80-120	-3.1 kPa	20.0 %	12.6 %	0.1093							
cmbs											
Fractures vs. matrix	-0.5 kPa	4.4 %	13.3 %	0.0826							
at 300-350 cmbs	-3.1 kPa	6.4 %	17.8 %	0.07794							
Matrix vs. matrix											
Matrix 80-120 vs.	-0.5 kPa	2.9 %	10.1 %	0.2712							
matrix 300- 350 cmbs	-3.1 kPa	1.4 %	11.9 %	P< 0.05							

720

^{*a*} Dispersed bacteria recovered the furthest from the inoculation point (at least 11.5 mm).

^b Non-dispersing bacteria were calculated by subtracting the unique ASVs observed in the

723 dispersed community from the ASVs observed in the total community.

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FIG 5 Estimates of alpha-diversity (Shannon diversity index) for communities derived from plow
layer soil samples and incubated at a range of negative matric potentials (-0.5 to -8.4 kPa) for 24 h
or 48 h. For each replicate PSM, the total community recovered from the full agar plate (full plate)
and the dispersed community is presented. A motility-restricted control (reference plate) is also
included. Replicates are depicted as separate dots.

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						- Pseudomonas	- Flavobacterium	-Bacillus	- Pseudoduganella	- Rahnella	- Citrobacter	-Buttiauxella	- Cupriavidus	- Paenibacillus	-Lysinibacillus	-Variovorax	-Moraxella	- Kluyvera	-fEnterobacteriaceae_16S_131	-Micrococcus
					•	60.7	0	0	0	11.2	14.7	0	0	11.7	1.5	0	0	0.2	0	0
-0.5 kPa 24h					0	33.9	0	0	0	31.1	35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
					•	29.6	0	0	0	29.6	0	14	0	8.3	12.8	0.3	0	4.5	0	0
						39.6	57.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.4	0	0	1.5	0
-3.1 KPa 24h						63.7	84.1	27	0	0	0	33.6	0	0	0	1.2	0	0	0	0
	⊢					99.3	0.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-3.1 kPa 48h					Δ	99.4	0.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
					Δ	95.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4.5	0	0	0	0
				Δ		99.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-4.1 kPa 48h					Δ	0.4	0	99.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
						92.3	0	7.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-6.3 kPa 48h																				
		Δ				71.3	0	0.1	0	0	0	0	28.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-8.4 kPa 48h			Δ			0	0	0	99.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
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FIG 6 Dispersal and composition of a community extracted from plow layer soil and incubated at matric potentials from -0.5 kPa to -8.4 kPa for 24 h or 48 h. Left: Symbol shading depicts bacterial coverage of the pressed agar plate, giving an indication of the extent of colonization. The distances shown are ranges, *e.g.* colonies were observed on the agar ring at a distance of between 11.5 to 15 mm from the inoculation point at the center. Right: Heatmap of the relative abundance of the most dominant genera among the dispersers. Replication number varied from two to three.

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FIG 7 Conceptual model of preferential flow paths as facilitators of connectivity between
communities and "hotspots" for the exchange of motile bacteria. The highest number of shared
dispersers were observed along the preferential flow path (plow layer vs. biopores and biopores
vs. fracture), fewer shared dispersers between the biopores and matrix, and almost none shared
between the fracture and deep matrix. The size of the depicted bacteria represents the intensity
of shared dispersers between compartments.

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