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Plant and microbial responses to nitrogen and phosphorus addition

2 across an elevational gradient in subarctic tundra

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20 Abstract: Temperature and nutrients are major limiting factors in subarctic tundra. Experimental 21 manipulation of nutrient availability along elevational gradients (and thus temperature) can 22 improve our understanding of ecological responses to climate change. However, no study to date 23 has explored impacts of nutrient addition along a tundra elevational gradient, or across 24 contrasting vegetation types along any elevational gradient. We set up a full factorial nitrogen (N) 25 and phosphorus (P) fertilization experiment in each of two vegetation types (heath and meadow) 26 at 500 m, 800 m and 1000 m elevation in northern Swedish tundra. We predicted that plant and 27 microbial communities in heath or at lower elevations would be more responsive to N addition 28 while communities in meadow or at higher elevations would be more responsive to P addition, 29 and that fertilizer effects would vary more with elevation for the heath than for the meadow. Although our results provided little support for these predictions, the relationship between 30 31 nutrient limitation and elevation differed between vegetation types; most plant and microbial 32 properties were responsive to N and/or P fertilization but responses often varied with elevation 33 and/or vegetation type. For instance, vegetation density significantly increased with N + P34 fertilization relative to the other fertilizer treatments, and this increase was greatest at the lowest 35 elevation for the heath but at the highest elevation for the meadow. Arbuscular mycorrhizae 36 decreased with P fertilization at 500 m for the meadow, but with all fertilizer treatments at in 37 both vegetation types at 800 m. Fungal to bacterial ratios were enhanced by N + P fertilization 38 for the two highest elevations in the meadow only. Additionally, microbial responses to 39 fertilization were primarily direct rather than indirect via plant responses, pointing to a decoupled 40 response of plant and microbial communities to nutrient addition and elevation. Because our 41 study shows how two community types differ in their responses to fertilization and elevation, 42 and because the temperature range across this gradient is $\sim 3^{\circ}$ C, our study informs on how

43 nutrient limitation in tundra may be influenced by temperature shifts that are comparable to those

44 expected under climate change during this century.

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46 Keywords: fertilization experiment, global warming, plant-soil linkages, plant functional groups,

47 fungal-to-bacterial ratios, above- and belowground communities.

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49 INTRODUCTION

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51 Temperature is a major limiting factor for high latitude communities and ecosystems such as 52 subarctic tundra, and these systems are therefore predicted to be particularly responsive to global warming (IPCC 2007). Since organisms and communities regulate ecosystem processes, 53 54 understanding how they will respond to long-term warming is essential for predicting the effect 55 of global climate change on tundra ecosystem functioning (Wookey et al. 2009). Increasing 56 elevation is associated with a decline in temperature, so elevational gradients represent powerful 57 natural experiments which may inform about community responses to variation in temperature at 58 the landscape-scale when other abiotic factors remain relatively constant (Körner 2007, 59 Sundqvist et al. 2013). As such, several observations have shown that organisms and 60 communities, both above- and belowground, are highly responsive to elevation (and associated 61 changes in climatic factors) in many locations around the world (e.g. Whittaker 1956, Hodkinson 62 2005, Bahram et al. 2012). 63 Declining temperatures associated with increasing elevation can directly influence

64 community properties through limiting metabolism and process rates for both plants (Hoch and

65 Körner 2012) and soil microbes (Schinner 1982, Margesin et al. 2008). However, reduced

temperatures associated with increasing elevation can also exert indirect effects on organisms 66 67 and communities (e.g. Hodkinson 2005, Sundqvist et al. 2013). One important indirect effect 68 involves impairment of fluxes and biological availability of soil nutrients resulting from reduced 69 temperatures associated with increasing elevation (Vitousek et al. 1988, Vitousek et al. 1994, 70 Sveinbjörnsson et al. 1995). This can occur for instance through lower temperatures at high 71 elevations influencing species composition, or impairing microbial activity, nutrient inputs, 72 organic matter quality, decomposition and nutrient mineralization rates (Vitousek et al. 1988, 73 Vitousek et al. 1994, Sveinbjörnsson et al. 1995, Sundqvist et al. 2011a). We currently have a 74 limited understanding of the mechanistic basis through which this indirect effect of elevation (i.e. 75 via soil nutrient availability) may influence communities in ecosystems that are likely to be heavily impacted by global warming such as tundra. Since temperature limits soil nutrient 76 77 mineralization rates, global warming is also expected to significantly enhance nutrient availability in arctic tundra (ACIA 2005). An increased understanding of community responses 78 79 to the indirect effect of elevation on nutrient availability should therefore inform on responses of 80 tundra ecosystems to future climate change.

81 Tundra ecosystems are widely recognized as highly nutrient limited. This has been 82 confirmed through numerous experiments in both alpine and arctic tundra that have revealed 83 strong effects of fertilization on aboveground properties and processes such as plant biomass, net 84 primary productivity and plant community composition (Gough et al. 2000, Bret-Harte et al. 85 2008, Haugwitz and Michelsen 2011). With regard to belowground responses, fertilizer additions 86 in tundra have also been shown to reduce soil carbon (C) storage (Mack et al. 2004), and drive 87 shifts in the relative proportion of bacterial and fungal biomass in variable directions (Rinnan et 88 al. 2013, Wardle et al. 2013). Studies in other ecosystems have also revealed consistent shifts in

89 soil bacterial community structure in response to nitrogen (N) addition (Ramirez et al. 2010) and 90 a greater responsiveness of soil microbes to phosphorus (P) addition under low soil P availability 91 (Craine et al. 2007) or high N deposition levels (Liu et al. 2012). Nitrogen is often considered the 92 main limiting nutrient in high-altitude and high-latitude ecosystems (Tamm 1991, Aerts and 93 Chapin 2000), but a growing number of studies suggest that plant productivity for some tundra 94 species and vegetation types is limited by P or co-limited by N and P (e.g. Seastedt and Vaccaro 95 2001, Weintraub 2011, Giesler et al. 2012, Zamin and Grogan 2012). Some studies have also 96 provided evidence for a change in the relative importance of P versus N limitation with elevation 97 (van de Weg et al. 2009). Specifically, results from the Swedish subarctic tundra suggest that P 98 relative to N limitation increases with elevation-associated declines in temperature (Sundqvist et 99 al. 2011b). However, no study has tested this experimentally through the use of fertilizer addition 100 in tundra ecosystems. Indeed, to our knowledge the only study to have explicitly tested this 101 across any elevational gradient is Fisher et al. (2012) who applied N and P fertilizers across a 102 tropical forest gradient in the Peruvian Andes and showed that N limitation increased with 103 elevation.

104 Here, we use a N and P fertilization experiment designed to alleviate N and/or P 105 limitation across an established elevational gradient in Swedish subarctic tundra (Sundqvist et al. 106 2011a,b, 2012, Milbau et al. 2013), to explore how nutrient limitation impacts plant and soil 107 microbial communities across ecosystems that experience contrasting temperature regimes. The 108 Swedish subarctic tundra is a mosaic of different vegetation types, and two functionally 109 contrasting vegetation types, heath and meadow, co-occur at all elevations along our gradient. 110 Heath vegetation is dominated by evergreen and deciduous dwarf-shrubs, while the meadow 111 vegetation is dominated by faster growing plants such as forbs, graminoids and sedges. The

112 heath vegetation has been shown to have lower soil pH and N availability, but higher P 113 availability and soil fungal to bacterial ratios compared to meadow vegetation (Björk et al. 2007, 114 Eskelinen et al. 2009, Sundqvist et al. 2011a, Giesler et al. 2012). Plant and microbial 115 communities for these two vegetation types also display vastly different responses to elevation 116 (Sundqvist et al. 2011a). Previous work in our study system has also shown that foliage and leaf 117 litter N:P ratios increase with elevation for both vegetation types, indicating an overall increase 118 in the relative importance of P versus N limitation with increasing elevation (Sundavist et al. 119 2011b). Further, while soil fungal to bacterial ratios increase and available concentrations of N 120 and P decline with increasing elevation for the heath, these properties show idiosyncratic 121 responses to elevation for the meadow (Sundqvist et al. 2011a). Because responses of soil abiotic, plant, and microbial properties to elevation have been described for both the heath and the 122 123 meadow (Sundqvist et al. 2011a,b), this system provides strong opportunities for studying the 124 response of highly contrasting plant and microbial communities to the alleviation of N and P 125 limitation across the same elevational gradient.

126 It is widely recognized that the plant and soil microbial subsystems are often interlinked 127 (Wardle 2002, Bardgett and Wardle 2010). For example, plant species adapted to more fertile 128 soils which produce high quality litter are generally associated with a more bacterial-based soil 129 microbial community compared to plants growing on less fertile soils which often have a 130 relatively higher dominance of fungi (e.g. Coleman et al. 1983, Eskelinen et al. 2009). However, 131 some recent studies have pointed to a decoupled response of plant and microbial communities to 132 fertilization (Wardle et al. 2013) while others have not (Suding et al. 2008); we still know very 133 little about the generality of this decoupled response. Additionally, to our knowledge, no study 134 has explored the effect of fertilization for both plant and microbial communities at multiple

135 points across the same elevational gradient. We used this study system to test the following three 136 hypotheses: 1) Plant and soil microbial communities at lower elevations will be more responsive 137 to N addition and higher elevational communities will be more responsive to P addition. We base 138 this on previous measures of plant tissue N:P ratios across the study system which suggest 139 increasing P relative to N limitation with increasing elevation (Sundqvist et al. 2011b). 2) 140 Phosphorus fertilization will have a greater effect on plant and microbial properties in the 141 meadow and N fertilization will have a greater impact in the heath. This is based on previous 142 measures of that higher concentrations of mineral N occur in the meadow soils and higher 143 mineral P concentrations occur in the heath soils (Sundqvist et al. 2011a). 3) The influence of 144 addition of N and P (either singly or in combination) on plant and microbial properties will be determined by interactive effects between elevation and vegetation type (heath vs. meadow) 145 146 because fertilizer effects will change more with elevation for the heath than for the meadow. This 147 third hypothesis is based on previous findings that concentrations of soil available nutrients 148 decline unidirectionally with elevation for the heath but not for the meadow (Sundqvist et al. 149 2011a). We tested these hypotheses in the Swedish subarctic tundra which contain large 150 gradients of elevation and a mosaic of contrasting vegetation types and which is therefore highly 151 regulated by local-scale variation in temperature and nutrient availability. Using this study 152 system we aim to advance our mechanistic understanding of how community properties and 153 aboveground-belowground linkages in these ecosystems may respond to global change. 154

155 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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157 Study site

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159 This study was conducted on the north-east facing slope of Mt. Suorooaivi (1193 m a.s.l.) 160 situated 20 km south east from Abisko, northern Sweden (68°21'N,18°49'E), previously 161 described by Sundqvist et al. (2011a). The climate in this area is subarctic with a growing season 162 of approximately three months. Previous measurements of air temperature during the summer 163 months have shown that temperature declines by ~3°C from 400 m to 1000 m across the study 164 site (Sundqvist et al. 2011a,b, Appendix A). The mean annual precipitation measured in the 165 proximity of the study area (Abisko Scientific Research Station) was 310 mm for the period 166 1913 – 2000, with the highest mean monthly precipitation in July (51 mm) and the lowest in 167 April (12 mm) (Kohler et al. 2006). Summer precipitation at Mt Suorooaivi ranges between 230 168 and 290 mm and has been shown to vary little across elevations in the proximity of the study 169 area (Karlsson et al. 2005) as well as across two contrasting elevations in the study site itself 170 (Sundqvist 2011). At the study site, the bedrock consists of salic igneous rocks and quartic and 171 phyllitic hard schists. The forest line, formed by *Betula pubescens* ssp. *czerepanovii* (mountain 172 birch), is situated at an elevation of 500-600 m at the study site. Two co-dominant vegetation 173 types occur in a mosaic at all elevations; meadow (dominated by forbs, graminoids and sedges) 174 and heath (dominated by deciduous and evergreen dwarf-shrubs). For more details on the study 175 system see Sundqvist et al. (2011a,b, 2012).

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177 Experimental setup

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In July 2008, a total of 96 plots (each 1 × 1 m, with the outer 10 cm as a buffer) were established,
i.e., 16 plots in heath vegetation and 16 plots in meadow vegetation at each of three elevations

181 (500, 800 and 1000 m), in the proximity of plots used in previous studies in this system 182 (Sundqvist et al. 2011a,b, 2012). The size of each plot is characteristic of the minimum size of 183 patches of each vegetation type across the study site, and is of a sufficient size for assessing 184 vegetation responses in both vegetation types (Sundqvist et al. 2011a). Within each elevation, the mean distance of each plot to the nearest plot for the same treatment is approximately 10 m (and 185 186 the mean distance between the two most distant plots is approximately 100 m). Due to high 187 spatial heterogeneity over very short distances (often on the order of a few meters) in 188 microtopography and soil fertility characteristic of these communities (Björk et al. 2007), it is 189 expected that the 10 m distance among plots is sufficient to ensure adequate independence 190 among them (Sundqvist et al. 2011a, 2012). Plots at the 500 m elevation were situated in open 191 birch forest immediately below the forest line, and plots at 800 m and 1000 m were devoid of 192 trees. Gradients of this type are powerful for exploring the role of temperature and associated 193 changes in climate in influencing ecosystem properties when other abiotic factors do not co-vary 194 with elevation (Körner 2007, Sundqvist et al. 2013). In this study system, all plots have 195 approximately the same aspect (north east facing slope), and parent material is independent of 196 elevation, so that climate is the principal abiotic factor that varies with elevation (Sundqvist et al. 197 2011a).

At each elevation, in each vegetation type, four replicates of the 16 plots were each randomly assigned to one of four treatments, i.e., Control (unamended), N-addition, P-addition and N+P addition. To alleviate N and P limitation for each plot which received N and P addition, fertilizers were added annually from 2008 to 2010 in the amount of 10 g N m⁻² yr⁻¹ as NH₄NO₃, and 5 g P m⁻² yr⁻¹ as superphosphate (Ca(H₂PO₄)₂·H₂O) which is in line with rates used in previous studies on nutrient limitation in arctic tundra (e.g., Jonasson 1992, Chapin et al. 1995,

Mack et al. 2004, Rinnan et al. 2007) as well as other ecosystems (Vitousek 2004). Fertilizers were added for the first time in July 26, 2008. For the two following years half of the total annual amount was added when all plots were snow free (June 25, 2009 and June 8, 2010), and half was added three weeks later (i.e. July 16, 2009 and June 29, 2010).

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209 Vegetation survey

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211 Tundra vegetation is well known to be responsive to nutrient additions within a two-year period 212 (e.g. Chapin and Shaver 1985, Jonasson 1992). In order to assess the effect of fertilizer addition 213 after two years on vegetation properties across our study site, total cover of each species was 214 measured by point quadrat analysis (Goodall 1952), in each plot, over 8-20 July, 2010. This was 215 performed by recording the total number of times the vegetation of each species was intercepted 216 from a total of 100 downward projecting points in each plot (Wardle et al. 2003) using the inner 217 80×80 cm of each plot, with the outer 10 cm serving as a buffer zone. This cover data was also 218 used for calculating Shannon's diversity index (hereafter 'Shannon's diversity') and total 219 vegetation density (Sundqvist et al. 2011a), as well as the cover of each plant functional group, 220 i.e., forbs, graminoids, sedges, deciduous and evergreen dwarf-shrubs, pteridophytes. Further, 221 total species richness was also recorded by noting all plant species present within this 80×80 cm 222 area, including those not intercepted by any points.

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224 Soil sampling and analysis

226 Fresh soil was sampled from each plot after two years, over August 23-27, 2010. In each plot, at 227 least 5 samples were taken to ensure a minimum of 0.2 L of humus. The whole humus layer was 228 sampled using a 45-mm diameter soil core, and the depth of the humus layer for each core was 229 recorded. All cores collected in each plot were bulked into one composite sample and brought to 230 the laboratory on the same day as sampling, where they were kept cold $(+2^{\circ}C)$ for a maximum of 231 24 h before further analysis. For each bulked sample from each plot, the humus soil was 232 homogenized using a 4-mm sieve. Soil pH was measured in a soil:water suspension (50 mL de-233 ionized water and 6 g fresh weight soil shaken overnight and sedimentation for 1 h). Gravimetric 234 soil moisture was determined after drying (105 °C, 24 h) and soil organic matter (OM) content 235 was determined by loss on ignition (550 °C, 4 h). To measure soil available concentrations of N 236 (NH₄-N and NO₃-N) and P (PO₄-P) for each plot, a subsample of 5 g fresh weight soil was extracted in 80 mL 1 M KCl and concentrations were determined by colorimetry on an 237 238 AutoAnalyser III (SEAL Analytical, Kontram OmniProcess AB, Sweden). All mineral nutrient concentrations are expressed as mg g^{-1} OM. A subsample of dried (70 °C, 3 days) and ground 239 240 (ball mill; Retsch MM 301) soil from each plot was analyzed for total % carbon (C), N (Leco 241 TruSpec CN Furnace) and P (nitric acid:perchloric acid digestion followed by inductively 242 coupled plasma analysis) (Thompson and Wood 1982).

Soil microbial community composition was characterized for a subsample of each bulked soil sample by using phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) analysis as described by Frostegård et al. (1991) with minor modifications. Briefly, 0.5 g fresh soil samples were extracted in chloroformmethanol-phosphate buffer (1:2:0.8 v/v/v), and the extracted lipids were fractionated into neutral lipids, glycolipids and polar lipids on silic acid columns by successive eluation with chloroform, acetone and methanol. The methanol fraction (containing phospholipids) was subjected to mild

249 alkaline methanolysis to transform the fatty acids into free methyl esters and analyzed on a gas 250 chromatograph (GC), equipped with a flame ionization detector. The PLFAs i15:0, a15:0, i16:0, 251 16:109, 16:107t, 16:107c, i17:0, a17:0, cv17:0, 18:107 and cv19:0 were used to indicate 252 relative bacterial biomass, the PLFA 18:2\omega6 was used as an indicator of relative fungal biomass 253 (Frostegård and Bååth 1996) and the PLFA 16:105 was used as an indicator of relative 254 arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) biomass (Olsson 1999). The PLFAs 10Me17:0 and 10Me18:0 were 255 used to indicate relative actinomycete biomass (Lechevalier 1977, Kroppenstedt 1985). The 256 PLFAs chosen to represent fungi and the sum of the PLFA markers chosen to represent bacteria 257 were used to calculate the fungal to bacterial ratio (Frostegård and Bååth 1996) for each plot. All PLFAs were calculated as $nmol g^{-1}OM$. 258

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260 Statistical analysis

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262 The effects of vegetation type, elevation, N addition, P addition, and all possible interactions 263 among these factors, on plant, soil microbial and soil abiotic variables were analyzed using four-264 way ANOVA. Whenever ANOVA yielded significant effects we used Duncan's test at P = 0.05265 to assess differences among means. To further evaluate the response of the plant and microbial 266 communities to these factors as well as their relationships with each other and with soil abiotic 267 properties, multivariate approaches were used. First, detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) 268 was applied to the plant species data set, which revealed a gradient length of the first axis > 5 SD, 269 indicating a unimodal response (ter Braak and Šmilauer 2002). Thus, canonical correspondence 270 analysis (CCA) was applied to the plant species data set using soil properties as explanatory 271 environmental variables. Each explanatory variable that explained an additional amount of

272 variation at P < 0.05 was retained by manual forward selection using Monte Carlo permutations 273 (999 unrestricted permutations) (ter Braak and Šmilauer 2002). The sample scores for the first 274 and the second axis for all plots derived from the CCA were further analyzed using four-way 275 ANOVAs as described above to test the effects of vegetation type, elevation, N addition and P 276 addition on plant community composition. The microbial data set (PLFAs) was firstly subjected 277 to DCA which revealed a gradient length of the first axis < 1 SD, indicating a linear response (ter 278 Braak and Šmilauer 2002). As such, the microbial data set was further subjected to a partial 279 redundancy analysis (RDA) using soil abiotic properties and plant functional group cover as 280 explanatory environmental variables, with species standardized by error variance (Borcard et al. 281 1992, ter Braak and Šmilauer 2002). The most discriminating combination of environmental 282 variables was selected by the 'forward selection' Monte-Carlo procedure, exactly as described above. The sample scores derived from the RDA were further analyzed by four-way ANOVAs 283 284 as described above to test the effects of vegetation type, elevation and fertilization (N, P addition) 285 on soil microbial community composition. All univariate analyses were performed in SPSS 286 Statistics 20.0 and all multivariate analyses were performed using CANOCO for Windows 4.5. 287

288 RESULTS

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290 Plant community properties

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Both species richness and Shannon's diversity were highest for the meadow where they peaked at 800 m, while for the heath they were lowest at 800 m (Figures 1A-D, Appendix B). Fertilizer treatments by themselves had no overall effect on either variable, but there was a significant N ×

295 vegetation type \times elevation interaction for Shannon's diversity because at 500 m for the heath 296 and 800 m for the meadow, Shannon's diversity was significantly reduced by N+P fertilization 297 relative to the treatments without N addition (Figure 1A-D, Appendix B). Vegetation density did 298 not differ between vegetation types but did differ among elevations; overall, density was highest 299 at the 500 m elevation for the heath, and at the 500 and 1000 m for the meadow (Figure 1E,F, 300 Appendix B). Vegetation density was significantly increased by N + P fertilization relative to the 301 other treatments, and this increase was greatest at the lowest elevation for the heath and at the 302 highest elevation for the meadow (Figure 1E-F; $N \times P \times$ vegetation type \times elevation interaction: 303 F = 5.2, P = 0.008).

304 Deciduous and evergreen shrub cover was highest on heath while cover for all other plant 305 functional groups was highest on the meadow (Figure 2, Appendix B). There was also an 306 interactive effect of elevation × vegetation type on all plant functional groups (Appendix B). For 307 the heath, pteridophytes, deciduous shrubs, graminoids and forbs declined, while evergreen 308 shrubs and sedges increased with increasing elevation. Conversely, for the meadow, deciduous 309 and evergreen shrubs, graminoids and sedges increased while pteridophytes and forbs declined 310 with increasing elevation (Figure 2, Appendix B). All plant functional groups were responsive to 311 N and/or P fertilization (except for pteridophytes) and responses often differed significantly 312 amongst fertilizer treatments, vegetation types and elevations (Figure 2, Appendix B,C). For the 313 heath at the 500 m elevation only, deciduous and evergreen shrubs were significantly reduced by 314 N+P addition, and evergreen shrubs were also reduced by N added alone. Meanwhile, graminoid 315 cover in the heath was increased by N and N+P fertilization at 500 m and by N +P fertilization at 316 1000 m (Figure 2, Appendix B,C). For the meadow, deciduous shrubs were least in the N+P 317 fertilization treatment at 800 m, and in the N and N+P fertilization treatments at 1000 m, while

evergreen shrubs were least in the N and N+P fertilization at 800 m. Further, in the meadow,
graminoids were greatest in the N+P fertilization treatment at all elevations, while sedges were
least in the N+P fertilization treatment at 800 m and 1000 m (Figure 2, Appendix B,C). Overall,
forbs were reduced by N fertilization and this reduction was greatest for the meadow (significant
N × vegetation type interaction; Figure 2, Appendix B).

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324 Soil microbial community composition

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326 Overall, actinomycete, AM, and bacterial biomasses were highest for the meadow, while fungal 327 biomass and the fungal to bacterial ratio were highest for the heath (Figure 3, Appendix D). For both vegetation types, fungal biomass was highest at 800 m, the fungal to bacterial ratio was 328 329 least at 500 m and the bacterial biomass was unresponsive to elevation (Figure 3). While there was a significant effect of elevation on AM biomass according to ANOVA (Appendix D), post-330 331 hoc analyses revealed no significant differences amongst elevations (data not shown). There was 332 a significant overall effect of N and/or P fertilization on most microbial properties, and the effect 333 of fertilization was often dependent on elevation and/or vegetation type (Figure 3, Appendix D). 334 Overall, N fertilization slightly increased fungal biomass and P addition decreased bacterial 335 biomass but this was not statistically significant for either variable. There was also an interactive 336 effect of P fertilization and vegetation type on fungal biomass (Figure 3, Appendix D). 337 Specifically for the heath, at the 800 m elevation bacterial biomass was reduced by all fertilizer 338 additions (Figure 3), and at 1000 m, actinomycete biomass was increased by N fertilization (data 339 not shown, Appendix D). Meanwhile for the meadow, at 800 and 1000 m the fungal to bacterial 340 ratio was increased by N+P fertilization while the bacterial and fungal biomass were both

unresponsive to fertilization within each elevation (Figure 3). Further for the meadow, AM biomass was reduced by P fertilization at 500 m, and for both vegetation types AM biomass was reduced by all fertilizer treatments at the 800 m elevation ($E \times P$ interaction: F = 3.2, P = 0.048, N × P interaction: F = 5.9, P = 0.017; data not shown).

345

346 Soil abiotic properties

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348 Overall, total soil C (%), N to P ratios and PO₄-P concentrations were highest for the heath, and 349 pH, P and NH₄-N concentrations were highest for the meadow (Figure 4, Appendix E,F). For the 350 heath, N was highest at 500 and 800 m, NH₄-N concentrations were highest at 800 m and lowest at 500 m and PO₄-P concentrations declined with increasing elevation, and no other abiotic soil 351 352 variables revealed any simple relationships with elevation for either vegetation type (Figure 4, 353 Appendix E,F). Phosphorus fertilization generally increased soil P and PO₄-P concentrations and 354 reduced the N to P ratio (Figure 4, Appendix E,F). There was also a significant interactive effect 355 of P addition and elevation on PO₄-P concentrations because the increase in PO₄-P was greatest 356 at the lowest elevation (Figure 4, Appendix E). Meanwhile, N fertilization added alone 357 significantly increased NH₄-N concentrations especially at mid-elevations (significant N \times 358 elevation interaction), but this increase was mostly not significant when P was added together 359 with N (significant N \times P interaction, Figure 4, Appendix E). There was a significant interactive 360 effect of P addition and vegetation type on PO₄-P because responses of PO₄-P to fertilization 361 were overall greater for the heath than for the meadow (Figure 4, Appendix E). Further, relative 362 to the control, pH was reduced by N+P fertilization at 500 m and increased by N fertilization at 363 800 m for the heath, while it was reduced by N+P fertilization relative to the control and N

364 fertilization plots at 800 m for the meadow (significant N \times P \times elevation interaction; Appendix 365 E, Appendix F). Concentrations of NO₃-N were only detected in 56 % of the samples (data not 366 shown). For the heath, the lowest detectable NO₃-N concentrations were found in control plots at 1000 m (0.07 ± SE 0.001 μ g g⁻¹ OM, n = 2) and the highest in N+P addition plots at 800 m (0.6 ± 367 SE 0.1 μ g g⁻¹ OM, n = 3). For the meadow, the lowest detectable NO₃-N concentrations were 368 found in control plots at 1000 m ($0.8 \pm SE 0.5 \mu g g^{-1}$ OM, n = 3) and the highest in N addition 369 plots at 1000 m (2.4 \pm SE 0.8 µg g⁻¹ OM, n = 4). No NO₃-N was detected in any P addition plots 370 371 at 500 m for either vegetation type, in any control plots in meadow at 500 m, or in any P addition 372 plots in meadow at 800 m.

- 373
- 374 Linking vegetation and soil microbial data to soil properties
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The CCA for the plant community data revealed that axis 1 was clearly separated by vegetation 376 377 type, with pH and bacterial and AM biomass associated with meadow plots and the fungal to 378 bacterial ratio, soil C and moisture content associated with heath plots (Figure 5A-B). Plots at 379 different elevations were separated along axis 2 by soil N (associated with the 500 m elevation 380 for both vegetation types), P (associated with the meadow at 500 m elevation), C and PO₄-P 381 (associated with the heath at 500 m elevation), and NH₄-N (associated with the meadow at 800 382 and 1000 m) (Figure 5A). The CCA also showed that certain plant species were more associated 383 with specific elevations and this effect was stronger for the meadow than for the heath (Figure 384 5B); specifically for the meadow plots, species composition below the tree line at 500 m differed 385 greatly from that of the other two elevations. The ANOVAs revealed that there were no main 386 effects of N and P addition on axis 1 and 2 scores derived from CCA (Appendix B). However,

there was a significant interactive effect of P addition and vegetation type on axis 1 scores (F = 4.1, P = 0.046) because P fertilization increased these scores for the heath but reduced them for the meadow (although this was not significant within vegetation types). According to the post hoc tests, the 500 m elevation differed significantly from the 800 and 1000 m elevations along axis 1 and 2 for the meadow, and all elevations differed significantly from each other along both axes for the heath (Figure 5A).

393 Partial RDA for the soil microbial data showed that axis 1 was mainly separated by forbs 394 and pH (which were greater in meadow plots), and by C (which was greater in heath plots) 395 (Figure 6A-B). Meanwhile, plots at different elevations were separated along axis 2 by soil N 396 (greatest in 500 m plots), sedges (greatest in 1000 m meadow plots) and soil moisture (greatest in 397 1000 m heath plots). Some PLFA markers were also associated with particular vegetation types and elevations (Figure 6B). For instance, bacterial markers were mainly associated with the 398 399 meadow, the fungal marker (18:2 ω 6) was associated with higher elevations for the heath, and the 400 AM and actinomycete markers with high elevations for the meadow. The ANOVAs revealed that 401 axis 1 scores from the RDA were significantly affected by P and vegetation type, as well as 402 interactive effects of N \times elevation, and N \times vegetation type \times elevation (Appendix D). As such, 403 axis 1 scores differed significantly between heath and meadow and increased overall with P 404 fertilization. Duncan's post hoc test (P = 0.05) also revealed that axis 1 scores significantly 405 increased with fertilization at the 800 m elevation for the heath only. Meanwhile, axis 2 scores 406 were significantly influenced by the interactive effect of N \times vegetation type (F = 7.9, P = 0.010) 407 because N fertilization tended to decrease axis 2 scores for the meadow but not for the heath. 408 Axis 2 scores were also responsive to the effect of elevation (Appendix D) and the vegetation 409 type \times elevation interaction (F = 15.4, P < 0.001). Duncan's post hoc test at P = 0.05 revealed

- 410 that this was because all elevations differed significantly from each other for the heath, and the
- 411 500 m differed significantly from the 800 and 1000 m for the meadow.
- 412
- 413 DISCUSSION
- 414
- 415 *Responses to fertilization across contrasting elevations and vegetation types*
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417 Nutrient limitation often increases with increasing elevation and associated declines in 418 temperature (Sveinbjörnsson 1995, Kitayama et al. 1998, Johnson et al. 2000), but some recent 419 observational studies suggest that the relative importance of different limiting nutrients changes with elevation (van de Weg et al. 2009, Fisher et al. 2012). In addition, plant and soil microbial 420 421 community composition can be closely associated (Bardgett and Wardle 2010, Eisenhauer et al. 422 2010), and vegetation responses to elevation can thus influence microbial responses (Löffler et al. 423 2008, Sundqvist et al. 2011a). Previous work in our study system has shown increasing 424 limitation of plants by P relative to N with increasing elevation (Sundqvist et al. 2011b), and we 425 therefore predicted that community properties at low and high elevations would be more responsive to N and P addition respectively. However, we did not find this for either plant or 426 427 microbial communities, leaving our first hypothesis unsupported. While no comparable 428 fertilization study has been performed across contrasting elevational gradients in tundra, our 429 findings are also inconsistent with a recent fertilization study in Peru which revealed declining 430 foliar N:P ratios and increasing responsiveness of plant growth to N addition as elevation 431 increased from lowland tropical forest to montane cloud forest (Fisher et al. 2012). However, we 432 found that different plant functional groups showed contrasting responses to fertilization, and to

433 the interactive effects of fertilization with elevation and vegetation type. These varying responses 434 of different floristic components are likely to have contributed to preventing community-level 435 properties, such as total cover, species richness and Shannon's diversity, from showing simplistic 436 responses to fertilization across the gradient. These findings are at least partly consistent with 437 experimental manipulation studies in tundra systems spanning between five and 21 years that 438 have shown complex interactions of fertilization and plant removal among coexisting plant 439 functional groups (Suding et al. 2008, Bret-Harte et al. 2008, Wardle et al. 2013). Similarly, 440 fertilization influenced the soil microbial community but not in any consistent way across the 441 gradient, which may be explained by different components of the microflora showing contrasting 442 responses to fertilization and elevation.

We further predicted a greater effect of P fertilization on plant and microbial properties in 443 444 meadow vegetation than in heath and a greater effect of N fertilization in heath compared to 445 meadow. Although soil nutrient concentrations in the unfertilized plots suggested higher soil N 446 and lower soil P availability in the meadow than the heath (Figure 4, Sundqvist et al. 2011a, 447 Giesler et al. 2012), we found little support for our second hypothesis. Instead, most plant and 448 microbial variables that we measured were only weakly responsive, or unresponsive, to the 449 interactive effect of either N or P addition with vegetation type, meaning that heath and meadow 450 did not differ much in their responsiveness to either fertilizer. However, vegetation density 451 consistently showed a strong positive response to simultaneous N and P addition for both heath 452 and meadow. This result after two years of fertilization is consistent with other experiments that 453 have been conducted over both the same (Madan et al. 2007) and longer (4-9 years) time-span 454 (Shaver et al. 1998, Gough and Hobbie 2003, Zamin and Grogan 2012) in showing tundra

vegetation to be most responsive to the combined effect of N and P. This means that N and P can
often co-limit tundra plants across contrasting vegetation types (Onipchenko et al. 2012).

457 Overall, N and P addition also had an overall positive effect on the fungal to bacterial 458 ratios for both vegetation types, although this was statistically significant for only two elevations 459 in the meadow. While the method used here (PLFA analysis) may not detect all potential 460 changes in the microbial community, our results point to N and P fertilization favoring soil fungi 461 over bacteria in at least some of our plots. In these cases, they therefore suggest that alleviation 462 of N and P addition could be associated with a change in the competitive strength among major 463 functional groups of soil microbes (Fierer et al. 2007). Since fungal based food-webs can be 464 associated with a more conservative nutrient cycling in comparison to bacterial based food webs, this observed change could potentially also influence nutrient turnover rates (Wardle et al. 2004), 465 466 although this requires further study. While our results may also be indicative of at least some 467 plant and microbial properties being co-limited by N and P in our study system, they provide 468 little evidence that the extent of this co-limitation differs strongly among vegetation types.

469

470 Interactive effects of fertilization, elevation and vegetation type

471

In previous work on this system, concentrations of available soil nutrients declined with
elevation for the heath but showed idiosyncratic responses for the meadow (Sundqvist et al.
2011a); we therefore predicted that plant and microbial variables would be most responsive to
fertilization at higher elevations for the heath. A three way interactive effect of fertilization,
elevation and vegetation type is needed for this hypothesis to hold. However, with regard to the
plant community, we only found such an interactive effect for some variables and never in a

478 direction consistent with our third hypothesis. Instead, fertilization sometimes had greater effects 479 on plant properties at the higher (and colder) elevations for the meadow but at lower (and 480 warmer) elevations for the heath (Figure 1, 2); this was especially apparent for the positive 481 fertilization effects on vegetation density and graminoids, and negative effects on dwarf-shrub 482 cover. These results emphasize that the role of temperature in controlling tundra plant 483 community responses to improved nutrient availability varies among vegetation types. As such, they suggest that with increasing temperature, N and P becomes less limiting factors for plants 484 485 dominating more fertile tundra soils, but more limiting for plants dominating poorer soils. Our 486 results for the meadow are consistent with several studies in other ecosystems suggesting that 487 increasing elevation (and thus declining temperature) is associated with reduced soil fertility and 488 thus increased nutrient limitation (Vitousek et al. 1988, 1994, Sveinbjörnsson et al. 1995, 489 Johnson et al. 2000). In contrast, for the heath, our results indicate that low temperatures 490 constrain plant responses to improved nutrient availability at high elevations, consistent with 491 work showing high elevation tundra communities dominated by slow growing dwarf-shrubs to 492 be relatively resistant to fertilization (Haugwitz and Michelsen 2011). This highlights how 493 opposing patterns of plant nutrient limitation can occur even across the same elevational gradient 494 when different vegetation types are considered.

We also often found differences among heath and meadow vegetation in terms of how fertilizer effects on soil microbial properties changed with elevation, but again not in the direction predicted by our third hypothesis. However, most microbial variables were responsive to the interactive effects of fertilization with elevation and/or vegetation type, which highlights the importance of environmental context in determining when and how microbial communities respond to increased supply of N and P in the tundra landscape. Our data also showed that N+P

501 addition caused an increase in the ratio of fungal to bacterial biomass at the mid- and high 502 elevation for the meadow. This is inconsistent with predictions that greater nutrient availability 503 supports a more bacterial-based energy channel (Coleman et al. 1983, Bardgett and Wardle 504 2010), and with the results of some previous fertilizer experiments in tundra (Schmidt et al. 2000, 505 Wardle et al. 2013). However, fungal to bacterial ratios were also least at the lowest (and thus 506 warmest) elevation for both vegetation types (Figure 3). Therefore, our results from two years of 507 fertilization corroborate findings from a long-term (10 yr) climate change experiment in 508 subarctic tundra heath showing a positive effect of fertilization (NPK), but not warming, on 509 fungal to bacterial ratios (Rinnan et al. 2007). As such, the effect of alleviation of nutrient 510 limitation by fertilization on soil microbial properties may not necessarily mirror the effect of 511 long-term changes in temperature on microbes through influencing soil nutrient availability 512 (Rinnan et al 2007). Our results also at least partly contrast with those from an 18 year warming 513 experiment in the Alaskan arctic suggesting that increasing dwarf shrub (Betula nana) growth in 514 response to warming has an important role in enhancing soil fungal biomass (Deslippe et al. 515 2012). Taken together, our findings instead suggests that future warmer temperatures may be 516 associated with an increased role of the bacterial-based energy channel in tundra soils regardless 517 of nutrient availability or vegetation type.

518

519 Decoupled responses of plants and microbes to fertilization

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521 Changes in both plant and soil abiotic properties along elevational gradients are known to

522 influence soil microbial community responses to elevation (Wagai et al. 2011, Sundqvist et al.

523 2011a, Bahram et al. 2012) and our data is consistent with this (Figure 6). Further, while addition

524 of N and P to our plots always raised soil available levels of N and P at specific elevations, they 525 also influenced other properties that could potentially impact on soil microbial communities. 526 such as plant community composition (Gravston et al. 1998, Orwin et al. 2010) and soil pH 527 (Lauber et al. 2009, Rousk et al. 2010). However, we found little evidence that plant community 528 changes mediated the response of the microbial community composition to fertilization across 529 contrasting elevations in the manner recently shown for the response of aboveground consumers 530 (de Sassi et al. 2012). This was because those plant and soil abiotic properties that were most 531 strongly altered by fertilization did not have any great impact on microbial community 532 composition (Figure 6). As such, within elevations microbial community composition changed 533 significantly in response to fertilization only at 800 m for the heath (as revealed by Duncan's 534 post hoc test at P = 0.05; see results text), but this did not occur in association with any plant or 535 abiotic soil variable that was responsive to fertilization (Figure 6A). Generally, our results are 536 broadly in agreement with experimental evidence from studies spanning five to 11 years that 537 have shown that the dominant effects of fertilization on soil microbial communities operate 538 directly (Marshall et al. 2011, Wardle et al. 2013) rather than indirectly via shifts in vegetation 539 composition and thereby plant-soil feedbacks (Suding et al. 2008). They further highlight how 540 these direct effects can differ greatly among communities, and depend on factors such as type of 541 nutrient addition (i.e. N and/or P), elevation and vegetation type.

542

543 Conclusions

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545 Our results show that plant and microbial properties in tundra can be responsive to elevation and 546 fertilization as well as their interaction, but that these responses can vary among vegetation types,

547 and with plant and soil microbial communities sometimes responding in markedly different ways. 548 These results have several implications. First, they show that the response to nutrient addition 549 and increasing elevation for both plant and microbial communities is not constant among 550 differing vegetation types. Instead, we found that significant plant responses to N and P added in 551 combination (i.e. Shannon's diversity and vegetation density) was greatest at lower elevations for 552 heath but at higher elevations for meadow vegetation, and that while microbial responses to these 553 nutrients were weaker these also differed among vegetation types and elevations. Second, they 554 suggest that plant community responses to nutrient addition may not necessarily be an important 555 determinant of microbial community responses irrespective of elevation or vegetation type, 556 indicative of a decoupled response of plant and microbial communities to changes in temperature 557 and soil fertility. These results further suggest that the relative importance of temperature versus 558 nutrient limitation differs for tundra plant and microbial communities across tundra landscapes. 559 However, we stress that further work is needed to understand the mechanistic basis for these 560 decoupled responses. Since our results are also broadly in line with more long-term 561 manipulations of plant functional groups and nutrients in tundra (Wardle et al. 2013) plant 562 community responses to climate change may be poor predictors of microbial community 563 responses in these ecosystems. Finally, they highlight how manipulating soil fertility for 564 contrasting vegetation types across an elevational gradient may help us better understand the 565 mechanistic basis through which changes in temperature influence plant and soil communities, 566 and the linkages between them, at the landscape-scale (Sundqvist et al. 2013). Since elevational 567 gradients allow us to determine how communities and ecosystems respond to changes in 568 temperature that are of similar magnitude to those expected to occur through global climate 569 change (Fukami and Wardle 2005, Malhi et al. 2010, Sundqvist et al. 2013), this type of

- 570 information is essential for predicting tundra responses to climate change across vegetation types
- and levels of soil fertility (Wookey et al. 2009).
- 572
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- 797 Appendix A. Daily summer mean temperature across the study site.
- 798 Appendix B. ANOVA results testing for effects of N and P fertilization, vegetation type,
- relevation, and their interactions on vegetation properties.
- 800 Appendix C. Plant functional group cover in control and fertilizer plots across the study site.
- 801 Appendix D. ANOVA results testing for effects of N and P fertilization, vegetation type,
- 802 elevation, and their interactions on soil microbial properties.
- 803 Appendix E. ANOVA results testing for the effects of N and P fertilization, vegetation type,
- 804 elevation, and their interactions on soil abiotic properties.
- Appendix F. Soil abiotic properties (means ± standard errors) in control and fertilizer plots
- across the study site.
- 807
- 808

809 FIGURE CAPTIONS

811	Figure 1. Shannon's diversity index (A, B), species richness (C, D) and vegetation density (E, F)
812	in plots without fertilizer addition (Control), or amended with N, P, or N+P, for subarctic heath
813	and meadow vegetation across an elevational gradient. Error bars = standard errors ($N = 4$).
814	Within each panel, groups of 4 bars topped by the same capital letters are not significantly
815	different at $P < 0.05$ (Duncan's test). Within each group of 4 bars, bars topped by the same lower
816	case letters are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$; letters are not presented when none of the 4
817	bars differ significantly from any of the others (Duncan's test). ANOVA results are given in
818	Appendix B.
819	
820	Figure 2. The mean (±SE) cover (%) of plant functional groups in plots without fertilizer
821	addition (Control) or amended with N, P or N+P for subarctic heath (A) and meadow (B) along
822	an elevational gradient. ANOVA results given in Appendix B, and actual values with SEs are
823	given in Appendix C.
824	
825	Figure 3. Fungal biomass (A, B), bacterial biomass (C, D) and fungal:bacterial ratio (E, F) in
826	plots without fertilizer addition (Control) or amended with N, P or N+P for subarctic heath and
827	meadow vegetation across an elevational gradient. Error bars = SE ($N = 4$). Within each panel,
828	groups of 4 bars topped by the same capital letters are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$

- 829 (Duncan's test). Within each group of 4 bars, bars topped by the same lower case letters are not
- 830 significantly different at P < 0.05; letters are not presented when none of the 4 bars differ
- 831 significantly from any of the others (Duncan's test). ANOVA results are given in Appendix D.

833	Figure 4. Concentrations of soil NH ₄ -N (A, B) and PO ₄ -P (C, D) in plots without fertilizer
834	additions (Control) or amended with N, P or N+P in subarctic heath and meadow vegetation
835	along an elevational gradient. Error bars = standard errors ($N = 4$). Within each panel, groups of
836	4 bars topped by the same capital letters are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$ (Duncan's test).
837	Within each group of 4 bars, bars topped by the same lower case letters are not significantly
838	different at $P < 0.05$; letters are not presented when none of the 4 bars differ significantly from
839	any of the others (Duncan's test). ANOVA results are given in Appendix D.
840	
841	Figure 5. Canonical correspondence analysis of plant community composition constrained by
842	soil properties. (A) Biplot displaying means of the axis scores for each fertilizer treatment at each
843	elevation within each vegetation type, and environmental (soil abiotic and biotic) variables.
844	Square symbols are meadow plots and circles are heath plots. Whenever Duncan's post hoc test
845	at $P = 0.05$ revealed significant differences among elevations, and among plots within elevations
846	and vegetation types these are presented in the results text. (B) Biplot of species and
847	environmental (soil abiotic and biotic) variables. Species with $\geq 20\%$ cover in one or more plots
848	are shown: A. odo = Anthoxanthum odoratum, B. nan = Betula nana, C. alp = Cicerbita alpina,
849	C. big = Carex bigelowii, C. lap = Calamagrostis lapponica, C. tet = Cassiope tetragona, D. fle
850	= Deschampsia flexuosa, E. her = Empetrum hermaphroditum, F. ovi = Festuca ovina, F. viv =
851	Festuca vivipara, G. dry = Gymnocarpium dryopteris, G. syl = Geranium sylvaticum, M. eff =
852	Milium effusum, P. cae = Phyllodoce caerulea, R. ace = Rumex acetosa, V. bif = Viola biflora,
853	V. myr = Vaccinium myrtillus, V. uli = Vaccinium uliginosum, V. vit = Vaccinium vitis-idaea. C
854	= total soil carbon, N = total soil nitrogen, P = total soil phosphorous, Moisture = Soil moisture

content, AM = Arbuscular mycorrhizae, F:B ratio = Fungal-to-Bacterial ratio. The biplot
displays 37.1% of the variance explained by soil properties. The sum of all canonical eigenvalues
is 2.122.

858

859 Figure 6. Partial RDA of soil microbial community composition constrained by plant species and 860 abiotic soil properties. (A) Biplot displaying means of the axis scores for each fertilizer treatment 861 at each elevation within each vegetation type, and environmental (i.e., plant and abiotic soil) 862 variables. Square symbols are meadow plots and circles are heath plots. Whenever Duncan's 863 post hoc test at P = 0.05 revealed significant differences among elevations, and among plots 864 within elevations and vegetation types these are presented in the results text. (B) Biplot of 865 microbial phospholipid fatty acids and environmental (i.e., plant and abiotic soil) variables. The 866 sum of all canonical eigenvalues is 0.571 and the biplot displays 57.1% of the variance explained by plant and soil properties. The relative amount of variance explained by plant and soil 867 868 properties is 2.2% and 7.9%, respectively with a shared variance of 47.0%. For the PLFAs, 869 triangles = bacteria, the square = fungi, the star = arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and circles = 870 actinomycetes.









874

875 Figure 2











