

**This is the preprint of the contribution published as:**

Widdig, M., **Heintz-Buschart, A.**, Schleuss, P.-M., Guhr, A., Borer, E.T., Seabloom, E.W., Spohn, M. (2020):

Effects of nitrogen and phosphorus addition on microbial community composition and element cycling in a grassland soil

*Soil Biol. Biochem.* **151** , art. 108041

**The publisher's version is available at:**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2020.108041>

1 **Effects of nitrogen and phosphorus addition on microbial community**  
2 **composition and element cycling in a grassland soil**

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17 Paper type: Research Article (Regular Paper)

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19 Keywords: nutrient cycling, bacterial community composition, nitrogen and phosphorus  
20 fertilization, functional redundancy, carbon mineralization, Nutrient Network (NutNet)

## 21 Abstract

22 Microorganisms mediate nutrient cycling in soils, and thus it is assumed that they largely control  
23 responses of terrestrial ecosystems to anthropogenic nutrient inputs. Therefore, it is important to  
24 understand how increased nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) availabilities, first, affect soil  
25 prokaryotic and fungal community composition and second, if and how changes in the  
26 community composition affect soil element cycling. We measured soil microbial communities  
27 and soil element cycling processes along a nine-year old experimental N-addition gradient  
28 partially crossed with a P-addition treatment in a temperate grassland. Nitrogen addition affected  
29 microbial community composition, and prokaryotic communities were less sensitive to N  
30 addition than fungal communities. P addition only marginally affected microbial community  
31 composition, indicating that P is less selective than N for microbial taxa in this grassland. Soil pH  
32 and total organic carbon (C) concentration were the main factors associated with prokaryotic  
33 community composition, while the dissolved organic C-to-dissolved N ratio was the predominant  
34 driver of fungal community composition. Against our expectation, plant biomass and plant  
35 community structure only explained a small proportion of the microbial community composition.  
36 Although microbial community composition changed with nutrient addition, microbial biomass  
37 concentrations and respiration rates did not change, indicating functional redundancy of the  
38 microbial community. Microbial respiration, net N mineralization, and non-symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation  
39 were more strongly controlled by abiotic factors than by plant biomass, plant community  
40 structure or microbial community, showing that community shifts under increasing nutrient  
41 inputs may not necessarily be reflected in element cycling rates. This study suggests that  
42 atmospheric N deposition may impact the composition of fungi more than of prokaryotes and that  
43 nutrient inputs act directly on element-cycling rates as opposed to being mediated through shifts  
44 in plant or microbial community composition.

## 45 1 Introduction

46 Microorganisms govern soil nutrient cycling, and hence might regulate ecosystem responses to  
47 the human induced increases in nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) availabilities (Galloway et al.,  
48 2008; Wang et al., 2015; Peñuelas et al., 2013). Microorganisms not only mediate the fate of  
49 nutrients in soils, they also respond to nutrient inputs by shifts in biomass and community  
50 structure. To predict effects of nutrient inputs on ecosystems, it is critical to understand how  
51 nutrient additions affect soil microbial community structure, and how these shifts are linked to  
52 important processes of element cycling (Zhou et al., 2017). The relationships between changes in  
53 prokaryotic and fungal community composition and element cycling rates in response to nutrient  
54 addition are currently poorly understood (Zeng et al., 2016), and the drivers of these changes  
55 have rarely been analyzed.

56 The emission of biologically available N has more than doubled through anthropogenic activities  
57 since 1970 (Galloway et al., 2008; Gruber and Galloway, 2008). Large regions of the world  
58 receive N at deposition rates  $> 1 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , and it has been predicted that by 2050 some regions  
59 may receive up to  $5 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Galloway et al., 2004). Increases in N inputs are often not  
60 paralleled by increased P inputs (Peñuelas et al., 2012), changing ratios of bioavailable N to P  
61 (Peñuelas et al., 2013), and highlighting the need for studies on the independent and interactive  
62 effects of N and P addition.

63 Increased supplies of biologically limiting nutrients can alter microbial community composition  
64 (Ramirez et al., 2010; Ramirez et al., 2012; Fierer et al., 2012; Morrison et al., 2016; Leff et al.,  
65 2015). However, drivers of microbial community change are difficult to disentangle (Wardle et  
66 al., 2013; Manning et al., 2006), because the changes can arise for instance through changes in  
67 soil chemistry (e.g., soil pH, the bioavailability of carbon (C) and N) and biology (e.g. food webs,

68 viruses), and they can be mediated through changes in above- and belowground plant biomass or  
69 plant community structure (Högberg et al., 2007; Ramirez et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2015; Leff et  
70 al., 2015; Prober et al., 2015; Zeng et al., 2016). Of these factors, soil pH can have particularly  
71 strong effects on the soil bacterial community composition (Lauber et al., 2009; Fierer et al.,  
72 2009; Fierer and Jackson, 2006) because low soil pH imposes stress on bacterial cells, exerting  
73 selection pressure on certain bacterial taxa (Lauber et al., 2008; Rousk et al., 2010a). In  
74 particular, low soil pH impedes the metabolism of bacteria (Rousk et al., 2010b), reducing the  
75 ability of bacteria to successfully compete with fungi (Rousk et al., 2010b).

76 Increased nutrient supplies have been shown to change plant biomass and plant community  
77 composition (Stevens et al., 2015; Harpole et al., 2016), which impacted bacterial (Leff et al.,  
78 2015) and fungal community structure (Heinemeyer and Fitter, 2004; Lauber et al., 2008). For  
79 example, nutrients can change root architecture offering different microhabitats and  
80 environmental conditions, and can change the food spectrum in the form of root exudates and  
81 litter inputs (Lange et al., 2015; Berg and Smalla, 2009).

82 Altered microbial community structure can influence ecosystem functions including soil element  
83 cycling (Philippot et al., 2013; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2016; Strickland et al., 2009), although  
84 functional redundancy of microbial communities also occurs (Louca et al., 2018; Nannipieri et  
85 al., 2003). Functional redundancy means that loss of species may not impact ecosystem  
86 functioning because each metabolic function can be performed by several coexisting,  
87 taxonomically distinct species (Allison and Martiny, 2008; Philippot et al., 2013; Louca et al.,  
88 2018).

89 Predicting the effects of nutrient supply on ecosystems requires an understanding of microbial  
90 responses to nutrient addition and the linkages between soil microbial communities and nutrient

91 cycling. However, our mechanistic understanding of microbial communities and coupled  
92 physicochemical processes is in its infancy (Louca et al., 2018), and few studies have  
93 concurrently explored responses of bacterial and fungal communities (e.g. Allison et al., 2007;  
94 Ramirez et al., 2010; Fierer et al., 2012; Zeng et al., 2016). In particular, few sequence-based  
95 attempts have been made to simultaneously explore drivers of changes in prokaryotic and fungal  
96 community composition under nutrient addition (Leff et al., 2015; Schleuss et al., 2019) and link  
97 it to element cycling processes.

98 Here, we investigated how N and P addition (a) altered prokaryotic and fungal community  
99 composition and (b) changed processes of soil element cycling. Further, we explored the drivers  
100 of microbial community change and of element cycling processes to understand the links between  
101 nutrient addition and microbial communities and between microbial community change and  
102 element cycling. We hypothesized that N and P additions alter prokaryotic and fungal community  
103 composition (i). We expected that these alterations in prokaryotic and fungal community  
104 composition are mainly caused by altered soil pH and by altered plant biomass and plant  
105 community structure under N and P addition (ii). In addition, we hypothesized that changes in  
106 soil element cycling processes (microbial respiration, N mineralization, and non-symbiotic N<sub>2</sub>  
107 fixation) are mediated by changes in microbial community composition (iii). To close the critical  
108 knowledge gaps about microbial and ecosystem responses to nutrient inputs, we studied soil  
109 microbial community structure and element cycling in a grassland N and P addition experiment  
110 in the USA after nine years of annual nutrient addition.

111

## 112 2 Material and Methods

### 113 2.1 *Site description and experimental design*

114 We studied a grassland site in the Central Plains, USA, that belongs to a worldwide research  
115 cooperation called Nutrient Network (Borer et al., 2014). The site is located within the Cedar  
116 Creek Ecosystem Science Reserve, Minnesota, USA (45.43 N, -93.21 E). The mean annual  
117 temperature is 6 °C and mean annual precipitation is 800 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>. The site is situated 270 m  
118 above sea level on the Anoka Sand Plain, an outwash plain of the Wisconsin Glacial Episode  
119 giving the soil a sandy texture (88.7 % sand, 9.7 % silt and 1.5 % clay). The soil is an Arenosol  
120 according to WRB classification and the site is currently vegetated by tallgrass prairie.

121 Nutrients have been added annually to 5 x 5 m plots at the beginning of the growing season since  
122 2008. Six different nutrient addition treatments were studied here that consist of different levels  
123 of N addition (control, N1, N5, and N10), a combined N and P addition treatment (N10P10, later  
124 referred to as N10P), and a P addition treatment (P10, later referred to as P). Nutrient addition  
125 treatments were each replicated in three blocks. The three different levels of N (1, 5, and 10 g N  
126 m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) were added as time-release urea ((NH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CO). Further, 10 g P m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> was added as  
127 triple-super phosphate (Ca(H<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>) without N and in combination with 10 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>.

128

### 129 2.2 *Soil sampling*

130 Soils were sampled from 0-15 cm depth (called topsoil hereafter) and in a second depth  
131 increment from 15-30 cm depth (called subsoil hereafter). Both depth increments covered the A  
132 horizon. Six soil samples were taken per plot and depth from three replicate blocks (blocks 1-3)  
133 using a soil corer with a diameter of 3.5 cm and combined into one mixed sample. Sampling was  
134 carried out in September 2017 at peak biomass and samples were shipped to University of

135 Bayreuth, Germany, directly after sampling. Subsequently, soils were sieved (< 2 mm), and  
136 stones and roots were removed. An aliquot of each soil sample was dried at 60 °C for soil  
137 chemical analyses, another aliquot was frozen for microbial analyses, and a third aliquot was  
138 adjusted to 60 % water holding capacity and pre-incubated for 1 week at 15 °C before incubation  
139 experiments were started. Soil water content and water-holding capacity (WHC) were analyzed  
140 gravimetrically. To determine WHC, we oversaturated fresh samples with water, drained them  
141 for 24 h on a sand bath, determined the mass gravimetrically, and then dried them at 105 °C  
142 before determining the dry weight.

143

### 144 2.3 *Soil chemical parameters*

145 Soil pH was measured in deionized water in a soil:water ratio of 1:2.5 (m:v) using air-dried soil.  
146 Soil samples were milled prior to the determination of total organic C (TOC), total N (TN), and  
147 total P (TP). TOC and TN were measured using an element analyzer (Vario Max Elementar,  
148 Hanau, Germany). TP was determined by ICP-OES (Vista-Pro radial, Varian) after pressure  
149 digestion in aqua regia (HNO<sub>3</sub> + HCl). Dissolved organic C (DOC), dissolved total N (DN), and  
150 dissolved inorganic P (DIP) were extracted in deionized water in a ratio of 1:4 (soil:water) by  
151 shaking for one hour. Water extracts were filtrated through 0.45 µm filters using an under-  
152 pressure device. Concentrations of DOC and DN were quantified by a TOC/TN Analyzer (multi  
153 N/C 2100, Analytik Jena, Germany), and DIP concentrations were quantified by a  
154 spectrophotometer (UV 1800, Shimadzu) using the molybdenum blue method (Murphy and  
155 Riley, 1962).

156



157 2.4 *Microbial biomass carbon*

158 Microbial biomass C concentrations were determined using the chloroform fumigation-extraction  
159 method (Brookes et al., 1982; Vance et al., 1987). Each soil sample was split into two aliquots of  
160 which one was fumigated with chloroform for 24 h and the other not. Fumigated and non-  
161 fumigated samples were extracted in 0.5 M K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> in a ratio of 1:5 (soil:extractant). Samples  
162 were diluted in a ratio of 1:20 before measuring dissolved C using a TOC/TN analyzer (multi  
163 N/C 2100, Analytik Jena, Jena, Germany). Microbial biomass C was calculated by subtracting the  
164 concentrations of the non-fumigated samples from the fumigated samples, and by multiplying the  
165 difference with a conversion factor of 2.22 (Jenkinson et al., 2004).

166

167 2.5 *Microbial respiration*

168 Soil samples of 40 g dry-weight-equivalent were incubated for 35 days at 15 °C in the dark.  
169 Respired CO<sub>2</sub> was trapped in 0.6 M KOH and changes in electrical conductivity were measured  
170 by a respirometer (Respicond V, Nordgen Innovations). Cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> was measured  
171 continuously (every 2 hours) and respiration rates were calculated based on the linear increase in  
172 accumulated C-CO<sub>2</sub> over time (Heuck and Spohn, 2016).

173

174 2.6 *Net N mineralization*

175 Sub-samples of 20 g soil dry-mass equivalent were extracted in 80 ml distilled water on an  
176 overhead shaker for one hour and filtrated through 0.45 µm filters using an under-pressure  
177 device. The extraction-filtration procedure was repeated after 0, 14, 28, and 42 days of soil  
178 incubation at 15 °C. Water extracts were measured for ammonium (N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) and nitrate (N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>)  
179 via flow injection analysis (FIA-Lab, MLE Dresden) and ICP-OES, respectively. Net N

180 mineralization rates were calculated based on the linear increase of  $\text{N-NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{N-NO}_3^-$   
181 (dissolved inorganic N, DIN) over time.

182

### 183 2.7 *Non-symbiotic $\text{N}_2$ fixation*

184 Non-symbiotic fixation of atmospheric  $\text{N}_2$  was measured based on a  $^{15}\text{N}$  stable isotope approach  
185 (Zechmeister-Boltenstern, 1996). A dry-mass equivalent of 4 g fresh soil (60 % WHC) was filled  
186 into 12 ml exetainers (Labco). All exetainers were closed, flushed with argon (Ar), carefully  
187 evacuated, and finally filled with 7.2 ml  $^{15}\text{N}_2$  (99.8 atom%  $^{15}\text{N}_2$ , Sigma Aldrich, batch number:  
188 MBBB5815V) and 0.8 ml  $\text{O}_2$  and incubated in the dark at 15 °C for 72 h in the  $^{15}\text{N}$  enriched  
189 artificial atmosphere. To control the artificial  $^{15}\text{N}$ -enriched atmosphere, pressure changes were  
190 noted before and after adding  $^{15}\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$ . The average atmospheric composition consisted of  
191 72.5 %  $^{15}\text{N}_2$ , 8.2 %  $\text{O}_2$ , and 19.2 % Ar in v/v%. The samples being exposed to  $^{15}\text{N-N}_2$  as well as  
192 the samples that were not exposed to  $^{15}\text{N-N}_2$  (natural abundance) were dried at 50°C, milled and  
193 analyzed for  $^{15}\text{N}$  (Delta plus, Conflo III, Thermo Electron Cooperation, Bremen, Germany). The  
194  $^{15}\text{N}$  atom% was calculated using the isotope ratio of each sample ( $R_{\text{sample}} = ^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$ ). The  $^{15}\text{N}_2$   
195 fixation was calculated using an isotope mixing model (Zechmeister-Boltenstern, 1996):

$$^{15}\text{N}_2 \text{ fixation rate (ng N g soil}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}) = \text{TN (mg N g soil}^{-1}) \times \frac{(^{15}\text{N}_{\text{labeled}} \text{ (at}\%)) - ^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NA}} \text{ (at}\%)}}{100 * t \text{ (h)}} \times 10^6$$

196 where TN is the total soil N (in mg N per g soil),  $^{15}\text{N}_{\text{labeled}}$  is the content of  $^{15}\text{N}$  atoms in the  
197 labeled sample,  $^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NA}}$  is the content of  $^{15}\text{N}$  atoms in the control samples, and  $t$  is the incubation  
198 time (in h).

199

## 200 2.8 Sequencing

201 Before pre-incubation of soil for the incubation experiments, samples for amplicon sequencing  
202 were taken and frozen. The DNeasy PowerSoil Kit (Qiagen) was used to extract DNA of 400 mg  
203 soil of each sample. The V4 region of the prokaryotic 16S rRNA gene and the fungal ITS2 region  
204 were amplified (primers F-515- GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA, R-806-  
205 GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT for prokaryotes (Caporaso et al., 2011); and F-ITS4-  
206 TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC (White et al., 1990), R-ITS7-GTGARTCATCGAATCTTTG  
207 for fungi (Ihrmark et al., 2012); modified with heterogeneity spacers according to Cruaud et al.  
208 (2017)) and sequenced using the Nextera XT kit (Illumina) on an Illumina MiSeq with 2 x 300  
209 bp. Primer sequences were removed from reads using *cutadapt* v1.8 (allowing 4 mismatches).  
210 Both 16S and ITS amplicon reads were processed separately using DADA2 (Callahan et al.,  
211 2016: maximum estimated error: 0.7, truncation quality score: 2, length of first/second read: 230 /  
212 200), to estimate error models for the whole run to yield counts at sequence variant level.  
213 Chimeras were removed. For the ITS data set, non-fungal reads were removed according to ITSx  
214 annotation (Bengtsson-Palme et al., 2013). Sequences were taxonomically classified using  
215 *mothur's classify.seqs* (Schloss et al., 2009) against the UNITE v8 database for ITS (Kõljalg et  
216 al., 2013), and the SILVA v132 database for 16S sequences (Quast et al., 2013). Amplicon  
217 sequence variants (ASVs) not classified as the target taxa ('Fungi' for the ITS data set, 'Bacteria'  
218 or 'Archaea' for the 16S data set) were removed. Chloroplast and mitochondria sequences were  
219 manually removed from the 16S data set.

220

221 2.9 *Plant sampling*

222 At peak biomass in 2017, all aboveground plant biomass was clipped in two 0.1 x 1 m strips  
223 within each 5 x 5 m plot, and the current year's growth was sorted to species level, dried to a  
224 constant mass at 60 °C, and weighted to the nearest 0.01 g. Areal cover and identity of all species  
225 was estimated visually in a 1 m<sup>2</sup> quadrat in each plot.

226

227 2.10 *Accession numbers*

228 The raw sequencing data from 16S rRNA genes and ITS regions were deposited in NCBI's  
229 sequence read archive under the accession number PRJNA596166.

230

231 2.11 *Statistics*

232 To test significant differences in soil properties and element cycling rates between treatments and  
233 depth increments, two-way ANOVA was conducted followed by Tukey-Test for multiple  
234 comparisons ( $p < 0.05$ ). Previously, data were checked for normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilks  
235 test) and homogeneity of variance (Levene's test) and log- or square root-transformed if data  
236 were not normally distributed and variances were not homogenous.

237 Prokaryotic and fungal beta-diversity was calculated as Jensen-Shannon divergences (JSD) of  
238 sum-normalized community profiles at ASV level (using vegan and phyloseq packages (Oksanen  
239 et al., 2019; McMurdie and Holmes, 2013)). To test for pairwise differences in community  
240 profiles of all treatment levels, analyses of similarity (ANOSIM) were performed on JSDs,  
241 stratifying for sampling depth (using vegan's function anosim (Oksanen et al., 2019)). Non-  
242 metric multi-dimensional scaling (NMDS) plots were calculated based on the JSD after sum-

243 normalization at ASV level using the phyloseq implementation metaMDS (McMurdie and  
244 Holmes, 2013).

245 N and P addition were assessed as independent variables in a multivariate analysis of beta-  
246 diversity by permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) of JSDs (using  
247 adonis2 of the vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2019)). The same analyses were conducted at the  
248 taxonomic ranks of genus, family, order, class, phylum, and using weighted UniFrac distances for  
249 prokaryotic data and at the taxonomic ranks of genus, family, order, class, and division for fungal  
250 data (using vegan and phyloseq packages (Oksanen et al., 2019; McMurdie and Holmes, 2013)).  
251 Differentially abundant genera were detected from a data matrix containing the samples from the  
252 Ctrl, N10, N10P and P treatments with reads summed up at genus level using DESeq2 (Love et  
253 al., 2014) with the model  $Y \sim N * P$ . To test if plant beta-diversities correlated with beta-  
254 diversities of prokaryotes and fungi, Mantel tests were performed using the mantel.rtest function  
255 from the R-package ade4 (Dray and Dufour, 2007).

256 To identify the main controls of prokaryotic and fungal community composition, PERMANOVA  
257 was conducted as well. Only soil data from the first depth increment was used for these analyses  
258 to match the plant data. Plant communities were represented by plant Shannon diversity and the  
259 first three axes of a principal coordinate analysis based on plant community JSD (using the  
260 phyloseq and ape packages (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013; Paradis and Schliep, 2019)). The soil  
261 and plant variables with significant explanatory values in single-factor PERMANOVAs were  
262 determined and added to a combined model after removal of collinearity. As PERMANOVA is  
263 sensitive to factor order, variables were given by decreasing importance in single-factor models.

264 For identification of the main controls on microbial respiration, net N mineralization, and non-  
265 symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation, multiple backward stepwise regression analysis was applied using the

266 stepAIC function in R. The initial linear model contained soil pH, TOC, TN, DOC and DN  
267 concentrations, DOC:DN ratio, prokaryotic and fungal community composition (based on first  
268 axis of principal coordinates analysis), plant diversity and plant biomass (same variables as used  
269 to assess drivers of microbial community composition + prokaryotic and fungal community  
270 composition as potential drivers). Level of significance was chosen at  $p < 0.05$ . The first model  
271 with a p-value below 0.05 and the highest number of remaining variables was selected to show  
272 the influence of several variables. Variance inflation factors were used to check for  
273 multicollinearity and highly collinear variables were dropped. The order of variables in further  
274 analyses was based on AIC from stepwise regression analysis, except that DN was placed as first  
275 independent variable as we considered it to be the main factor related to the N treatment.

276 Plant diversity was calculated using Shannon's Diversity ( $H' = -\sum(p_i * \ln(p_i))$ , where  $p_i$  is the  
277 frequency of occurrence of each species). To test if nutrient additions significantly affected plant  
278 diversity and biomass, one-way-ANOVA was conducted followed by Tukey-Test for multiple  
279 comparisons. To assess the plant community composition, we first calculated Bray-Curtis  
280 distance matrices in PRIMER 7 (Clarke and Gorley, 2015) with 999 permutations before NMDS  
281 was applied to display the community composition. After the calculation of Bray-Curtis matrices,  
282 one-way-ANOSIM with 999 permutations was used to test significant effects of nutrient addition.  
283 Statistical analyses were done using R (R Core Team, 2018).

284

## 285 3 Results

### 286 3.1 *Soil physical and chemical parameters*

287 After nine years of N addition, topsoil pH was significantly lower in the highest N level  
288 compared to the control and the P addition treatments (Table 1), whereas in the second depth

289 increment, nutrient addition did not change soil pH. Mean topsoil TOC concentration across all  
290 treatments amounted to  $12.2 \pm 5.1$  g C kg soil<sup>-1</sup>, TN concentrations to  $0.9 \pm 0.2$  g N kg soil<sup>-1</sup>, and  
291 TP concentrations to  $0.5 \pm 0.1$  g P kg soil<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1). Total element concentrations were not  
292 significantly affected by nine years of element addition (Table 1).

293 The mean topsoil DOC concentration across all treatments amounted to  $19.4 \pm 3.9$  mg C kg soil<sup>-1</sup>.  
294 Under NP addition, topsoil DOC concentrations were significantly higher compared to the  
295 control and the lowest N addition level. In contrast, nutrient addition did not significantly change  
296 the DOC concentration in the second depth increment (Table 1). N addition rates of 1, 5, and 10 g  
297 N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> gradually increased the topsoil DN concentration 2, 7, and 10 times, respectively,  
298 compared to the control, whereas P addition did not significantly change topsoil DOC and DN  
299 concentrations compared to the control. The molar topsoil DOC:DN ratio was highest in the  
300 control ( $18.1 \pm 11.3$ ) and under P addition ( $12.0 \pm 6.1$ ), and compared to control, decreased 3, 15,  
301 and 24 times exposed to 1, 5, and 10 g of N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Further, mean DIP  
302 concentrations were significantly higher under P addition compared to the control and to all  
303 levels of N addition in both depth increments (Table 1).

304

### 305 *3.2 Microbial biomass carbon and element cycling processes*

306 Nutrient addition did not significantly change microbial biomass C or microbial respiration in  
307 either depth increment compared to the control (Table 2). Further, microbial respiration per unit  
308 microbial biomass C (metabolic quotient; qCO<sub>2</sub>) was about twice as high in the control treatment  
309 than in the lowest N addition treatment, but differences were not statistically different due to the  
310 large variation among the plots (Table 2). Topsoil net N mineralization rates were 2 - 4 times  
311 higher under any level of N and combined NP addition compared to the control (Table 2). Non-

312 symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation rates in the second soil depth increment were 1.7 times higher under the  
313 lowest level of N addition and 1.8 times higher under P addition compared to the control (Table  
314 2).

315 Stepwise multiple regression analysis revealed that DOC:DN ratio, plant diversity, and DN  
316 concentrations could account for 15.7 %, 21.4 %, and 5.8 % of microbial respiration, respectively  
317 (Table 3, Figure 1, plant data is described in section 3.3). Further, DN (42.9 %), DOC (18.8 %),  
318 and fungal community composition (9.0 %) were the best explanatory variables for net N  
319 mineralization rates (Table 3, Figure 1, fungal data is described in section 3.5). For non-  
320 symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation, TOC (24.2 %), DOC:DN ratio (17.3 %), plant biomass (9.3 %), and  
321 prokaryotic community composition (7.5 %) were the variables explaining the largest proportion  
322 of variation (Table 3, Figure 1, prokaryotic data is described in section 3.4).

323

### 324 3.3 *Plant diversity, biomass, and community composition*

325 Plant diversity was not significantly different in any of the nutrient addition treatments compared  
326 to the control. However, diversity tended to decline with increasing N addition and was lowest in  
327 the NP treatment (Figure S1a). Plant biomass amounted to  $283.4 \pm 8.8 \text{ g m}^{-2}$  in the control plots  
328 and was significantly higher under combined NP addition ( $975.7 \pm 144.4 \text{ g m}^{-2}$ , Figure S1b).  
329 Single N or P addition did not significantly affect plant biomass compared to the control (Figure  
330 S1b). There were no strong changes/trends in the plant community composition due to nutrient  
331 addition in the three sampled blocks (Figure S2).

332



333 *3.4 Prokaryotic community composition*

334 Combined NP addition significantly shifted the prokaryotic community composition across both  
335 depth increments compared to the community in the control (Table S1). Both N10 and NP  
336 addition significantly altered the prokaryotic community composition as compared to P addition  
337 calculated across both depth increments (Table S1). Only considering 0-15 cm soil depth,  
338 community composition in all treatments was not significantly different due to statistical power  
339 issues (Figure 2).

340 Addition of N (highest N addition treatment compared to control) accounted for between 10 %  
341 and 28 % of the variance in bacterial community composition across all taxonomic ranks (Table  
342 S2). Further, P addition accounted for a smaller proportion of bacterial community composition  
343 than N addition (between 5 % and 8 % of variance). Addition of N accounted for a significant  
344 proportion of variance of the archaean community composition at ASV level (between 17 % and  
345 32 %), whereas P addition had no explanatory power (Table S2). Together N and P addition  
346 accounted for between 18 % and 35 % of the variance in prokaryotic community composition in  
347 the highest N level compared to the control across all taxa (Table S2).

348 Variation in the prokaryotic community was highly correlated with the plant community (Mantel  
349 test  $r = 0.48$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). However, plant community composition accounted for only 10 % of  
350 variance in prokaryotic community composition in a multi-factor PERMANOVA (Table S3)  
351 considering all significant factors from single-factor PERMANOVA, whereas soil pH and TOC  
352 concentration accounted for a larger proportion of variance in community composition with 23 %  
353 and 20 %, respectively (Figure 3a).

354 In total, bacterial reads were assigned to 41 different prokaryotic phyla with Proteobacteria,  
355 Acidobacteria, and Actinobacteria being the dominant phyla in both depth increments. Under

356 N10 addition, the relative abundances of sequencing reads of nine prokaryotic genera increased,  
357 while the relative abundances of twelve genera decreased, compared to the control (Table S4,  
358 based on DESeq2 analysis). P addition decreased the relative abundances of two prokaryotic  
359 genera and two prokaryotic genera were affected by the interactive effects of N and P (Table S4).  
360 Of these genera, *Rhodanobacter* and *Sphingomonas* were above a relative abundance of 2 %  
361 (Figure 4).

362

### 363 3.5 *Fungal community composition*

364 The lowest and the highest level of N addition as well as combined NP addition significantly  
365 altered the fungal community composition compared to control and P addition calculated across  
366 both depth increments (Table S1). Combined NP addition significantly shifted the fungal  
367 community compared to the communities of all other treatments calculated across both depth  
368 increments (Table S1). Only considering 0-15 cm soil depth, community composition in all  
369 treatments was not significantly different due to statistical power issues (Figure 2).

370 Considering only the highest N addition treatment compared to the control, N addition accounted  
371 for between 12 % and 46 % of variance of the fungal community composition across all  
372 taxonomic ranks (Table S2). In contrast, P addition only accounted for a significant proportion of  
373 variance (14 %) at the division level but not at any other taxonomic rank (Table S2).

374 The variation in the fungal community was highly correlated with the plant community (Mantel  
375 test  $r = 0.46$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). However, in multi-factor PERMANOVA (Table S3), considering all  
376 significant factors from single-factor PERMANOVA, plant community composition accounted  
377 for only 9 % of variation in fungal community composition, whereas the DOC:DN ratio  
378 accounted for 21 % (Figure 3b).

379 Fungal reads were assigned to 13 different fungal divisions, of these Ascomycota,  
380 Basidiomycota, and Mortierellomycota showed the highest relative abundance across both depth  
381 increments. Under N10 addition, the relative abundances of sequencing reads of four fungal  
382 genera decreased, whereas one genus increased (Table S4, based on DESeq2 analysis). Of these  
383 genera, *Clavaria* and *Hygrocybe* (both Basidiomycota) were above 1% relative abundance  
384 (Figure 5).

385

## 386 4 Discussion

387 By studying a unique nutrient-addition experiment, we investigated the link between changes in  
388 microbial communities and soil element-cycling processes such as microbial respiration, N  
389 mineralization, and non-symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation that play a key role in soil C and N cycling. We  
390 found that nutrient addition significantly affected microbial community composition. We found  
391 that soil, not plant, properties affected microbial communities under nutrient addition and that  
392 changes in microbial communities were not reflected in most element cycling rates.

393

### 394 4.1 *Changes in soil microbial element cycling under nutrient addition*

395 Unchanged microbial respiration under nutrient addition, despite changed microbial community  
396 composition, indicates functional redundancy of the soil microbial community with respect to C  
397 mineralization as has been found in other studies (Banerjee et al., 2016; Rousk et al., 2009; Wertz  
398 et al., 2006). Thus, contrary to previous findings (Liu and Greaver, 2010), N inputs might not  
399 lower soil CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in this grassland as corroborated in a global meta-analysis (Yue et al.,  
400 2016). Correlational analyses indicated that abiotic factors, mainly the DOC:DN ratio that

401 changed along our N gradient, accounted for a large proportion of microbial respiration  
402 demonstrating the importance of substrate stoichiometry for controlling microbial respiration  
403 (Spohn, 2015; Spohn and Chodak, 2015). Besides substrate stoichiometry, plant diversity  
404 explained a large proportion of variation in microbial respiration as found in a global meta-  
405 analysis (Chen et al., 2019a). The maintenance of the microbial respiration rate and biomass  
406 production, despite changes in the microbial community, may have occurred because a limited set  
407 of metabolic pathways is associated with core processes, such as respiration, in soil microbial  
408 clades (Falkowski et al., 2008). Consequently, these functions shared by many microbial taxa, are  
409 less affected by changes in microbial community composition than more specific processes  
410 (Griffiths et al., 2000; Wertz et al., 2006; Louca et al., 2018; Schimel, 1995).

411 Further, N addition increased N mineralization rates as commonly observed (Vourlitis et al.,  
412 2007; Vestgarden et al., 2003; Ma et al., 2011) and this increase was associated with changes in  
413 DN and DOC concentrations. Whether N release or immobilization prevails also depends on the  
414 availability of C in relation to N (Manzoni et al., 2008). Microorganisms are most likely to  
415 release excess N when microbial C demands are not met, and N supplies exceed demands. In  
416 contrast, microorganisms likely retain N in their biomass when abundant C is available and N  
417 demands are not covered (Manzoni et al., 2008; Heuck and Spohn, 2016).

418 In contrast to processes, such as respiration, that are performed by many microorganisms,  
419 specialized functions that are restricted to a few groups, such as non-symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation by  
420 free-living microorganisms (Dixon and Kahn, 2004), might be more affected by microbial  
421 community change (Schimel, 1995; Reed et al., 2010). However, correlational analysis indicated  
422 that the TOC concentration was the major driver of non-symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation rates. This is likely  
423 because non-symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation is one of the most energy-costly biological processes on earth

424 (Hill, 1992; Smith, 1992) and enough energy- and C-sources need to be available to support non-  
425 symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation (Reed et al., 2011). Further, the experimental P addition increased non-  
426 symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation likely because P is needed to produce sufficient ATP to fuel the energy-  
427 costly process of N<sub>2</sub> fixation (Reed et al., 2011). Surprisingly, the lowest level of N addition  
428 significantly enhanced N<sub>2</sub> fixation rates in the subsoil. An explanation could be that under N1  
429 addition TOC concentrations were increased when calculated across both depth increments  
430 confirming the importance of C sources on non-symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation.

431 Prokaryotic community composition accounted for around 8 % of non-symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation,  
432 indicating some importance of microbial community composition on more specialized functions  
433 such as non-symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation. Taken together, microbial community composition was  
434 largely unrelated to changes in element-cycling rates caused by N and P additions. Thus,  
435 community change under nutrient addition may not necessarily mean change in ecosystem  
436 functioning.

437

#### 438 4.2 *Drivers of prokaryotic community composition under nutrient addition*

439 Prokaryotic community composition was only affected by the highest level of N addition, under  
440 which also soil pH decreased. Accordingly, correlation analyses also indicated that soil pH was  
441 one of the most important determinants of the prokaryotic community composition, as has been  
442 found in other studies (Ramirez et al., 2010; Lauber et al., 2009; Fierer and Jackson, 2006; Rousk  
443 et al., 2010a). Soil pH can directly induce physiological stress on soil prokaryotes impairing their  
444 growth or competitiveness (Fernández-Calviño and Bååth, 2010). We found decreased relative  
445 abundances under N10 addition of the myxobacterial genus *Labilithrix* (Yamamoto et al., 2014)  
446 that was also decreased in a South African grassland (Schleuss et al., 2019) and in a Chinese

447 forest soil (Cui et al., 2017) due to N addition. The relative decrease in *Labilithrix* is likely  
448 associated with the decreased soil pH under N10 addition, since its growth range is pH 5-9  
449 (Yamamoto et al., 2014). Decreased soil pH likely explained increased relative abundances of  
450 *Rhodanobacter* species that can be considered as acid-tolerant denitrifiers and dominated  
451 bacterial communities in acidic and nitrate-rich conditions (Green et al., 2012; van den Heuvel et  
452 al., 2010).

453 N addition enhanced abundances of ammonia-oxidizing bacteria such as of *Nitrosospira* and of  
454 ammonia-oxidizing archaea such as *Candidatus Nitrocosmicus* that oxidize ammonia to nitrate  
455 and thus perform the first step of nitrification, as previously observed (Carey et al., 2016; Yan et  
456 al., 2020). Further, under NP addition relative abundances of *Sphingomonas* increased, as  
457 previously observed for a Chinese agricultural (Chen et al., 2019b) and forest soil (Cui et al.,  
458 2017). *Sphingomonas* species are known as ubiquitously occurring generalists (Aschenbrenner et  
459 al., 2017) with high catabolic versatility (Asaf et al., 2020) and seem to be favored by increased  
460 N and P availabilities likely because nutrient addition makes the soil less oligotrophic.

461 Besides soil pH, TOC concentration accounted for a high proportion of prokaryotic community  
462 composition according to our correlation analysis, reflecting the importance of C as a limiting  
463 resource supporting and structuring microbial communities (Alden et al., 2001; Heuck et al.,  
464 2015; Sul et al., 2013). For example, C availability structured bacterial communities across N  
465 gradients in a grassland and an agricultural soil in the USA (Ramirez et al., 2010), TOC was the  
466 most important factor that accounted for differences in microbial community structure in an  
467 African savanna (Sul et al., 2013), and differences in tree species derived C inputs under N  
468 addition were the main factor driving microbial community composition in a hardwood forest  
469 (Weand et al., 2010). TOC concentration also has been shown to control the number of

470 metabolically active cells in soil (Semenov et al., 2016). Although we sequenced total microbial  
471 communities and not active microbial communities based on RNA analysis, most of the  
472 community in the rhizosphere can be considered as active or potentially active rather than  
473 dormant (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov, 2013). The root density in the topsoil of the sampled  
474 grassland was very high suggesting that most of our soil volume was from the rhizosphere.

475

#### 476 4.3 *Drivers of fungal community composition under nutrient addition*

477 Nutrient addition altered fungal more strongly than prokaryotic community. This is in line with  
478 previous studies indicating that fungi react more sensitively to nutrient addition than other  
479 microbial groups (Högberg et al., 2007; Freedman et al., 2015). In contrast to the main drivers of  
480 the prokaryotic community, DOC:DN ratio was the strongest predictor of the fungal community,  
481 according to correlation analysis. An explanation for this finding could be that fungal and  
482 bacterial biomass show slightly different C:N ratios, with C:N ratios around 5 for bacteria and  
483 around 10 for fungi in soils (Strickland and Rousk, 2010; De Deyn et al., 2008). Generally  
484 speaking, fungi and bacteria prefer substrates with different C:N ratios (Sturner and Elser, 2002)  
485 with fungi preferring substrates with a higher C:N ratio in comparison to bacteria (Six et al.,  
486 2006; Keiblinger et al., 2010; Grosso et al., 2016). Thus, smaller DOC:DN ratios under N  
487 addition could have affected especially fungal communities. However, certain fungi, mainly fast-  
488 growing fungi in the Ascomycota, such as molds (Lundell et al., 2014), also benefit from smaller  
489 DOC:DN ratios, whereas other fungi, mainly Basidiomycota, are specialists in decomposing  
490 complex C sources with high C:N ratios (de Boer et al., 2005).

491 Consequently, the relative decreases in the saprotrophic Basidiomycota genera *Hygrocybe* and  
492 *Clavaria* (Tedersoo et al., 2014) under N addition can be explained by their sensitivity to elevated

493 nutrient inputs (Griffith et al., 2002). For instance, the number of *Hygrocybe* strongly decreased  
494 through intensification of management in European grasslands (Griffith et al., 2002; Griffith and  
495 Roderick, 2008). Decreasing Basidiomycota abundances due to N addition have been found in  
496 other studies as well (Leff et al., 2015; Nemergut et al., 2008; Klaubauf et al., 2010; Morrison et  
497 al., 2016).

498 In contrast to the prokaryotic community, the fungal community composition was not as strongly  
499 controlled by soil pH, indicated by the correlation analysis. Previous studies also confirmed that  
500 fungi were less sensitive to soil pH changes than bacteria (Rousk et al., 2010a; Rousk et al.,  
501 2010b; Schleuss et al., 2019). However, plant and fungal community composition were highly  
502 correlated, as found in other grasslands (Chen et al., 2017; Prober et al., 2015), whereas a more  
503 detailed analysis revealed that nutrient availabilities were more important drivers of fungal  
504 communities than plant biomass or plant community structure. A global study confirmed that  
505 climatic and edaphic factors, not plant diversity, predicted fungal richness at a global scale  
506 (Tedersoo et al., 2014).

507

#### 508 4.4 Conclusion

509 Nine years of N addition altered prokaryotic and fungal community composition. The response of  
510 the prokaryotic and fungal community composition to nutrient addition was more tightly coupled  
511 to soil properties such as pH, TOC concentration, and DOC:DN ratio than to changes in the plant  
512 community. The changes in microbial communities did not affect microbial biomass and  
513 respiration rates indicating functional redundancy of these variables. In general, element-cycling  
514 rates were mainly mediated by soil factors as opposed to plant and microbial community shifts.  
515 Yet, over several decades, the observed changes in in microbial community composition and



516 element cycling will likely become stronger. Taken together, our results suggest that changes in  
517 the microbial community in response to increasing N inputs might not necessarily lead to a loss  
518 of microbial functioning that underlies soil element cycling in grassland ecosystems.

519

## 520 Acknowledgements

521 M. Spohn thanks the German Research Foundation for funding this study through the Emmy  
522 Noether-program (grant SP1389/6-1). Coordination and data management of the Nutrient  
523 Network have been supported by funding to E. Borer and E. Seabloom from the National Science  
524 Foundation Research Coordination Network (NSF-DEB-1042132) and Long Term Ecological  
525 Research (DEB-1234162 and DEB-1831944 to Cedar Creek LTER) programs, and the Institute  
526 on the Environment (DG-0001-13). A. Heintz-Buschart was funded by the German Centre for  
527 Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv) Halle-Jena-Leipzig of the German Research Foundation  
528 (FZT 118). We thank Renate Krauss, Uwe Hell, and Karin Söllner for technical assistance, the  
529 chemical analytics (CAN) of the Bayreuth Center of Ecological and Environmental Research  
530 (BayCEER) for performing parts of the chemical analyses, the Laboratory of Isotope  
531 Biogeochemistry at the University of Bayreuth for measuring  $^{15}\text{N}$  isotopes, and Beatrix Schnabel  
532 of the Helmholtz-Centre for Environmental Research (UFZ) for sequencing. We thank Eduardo  
533 Vazquez for his helpful comments on a previous version of the manuscript. The community  
534 composition data have in part been computed at the High-Performance Computing (HPC) Cluster  
535 EVE, a joint effort of both the Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research - UFZ and the  
536 German Centre for Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv) Halle-Jena-Leipzig.

537

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877 **Figure captions**

878 **Figure 1:** Proportion of microbial respiration (a), net nitrogen (N) mineralization (b), and non-  
879 symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation rates (c) in 0-15 cm soil depth explained by the displayed soil, microbial,  
880 and plant factors. Soil factors include soil pH, total organic carbon (TOC), dissolved organic  
881 carbon-to-dissolved nitrogen ratio (DOC:DN), total nitrogen (TN), dissolved organic carbon  
882 (DOC), and dissolved nitrogen (DN). Microbial factors include prokaryotic and fungal  
883 community composition at ASV level based on first axis of principal coordinates analysis. Plant  
884 factors include plant biomass, and plant diversity measured as Shannon diversity. All input  
885 variables are displayed, for a significant model, variables were removed stepwise as displayed in  
886 Table 3.

887 **Figure 2:** Prokaryotic (a) and fungal (b) community composition at ASV level displayed via non-  
888 metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) of Jensen-Shannon divergences for different treatments  
889 in 0-15 cm soil depth. To test for significant differences in community profiles of all treatments,  
890 analyses of similarity were performed on JSDs of both depth increments (Table S1) stratifying  
891 for sampling depth.

892 **Figure 3:** Proportion of variation (R<sup>2</sup>) of prokaryotic (a) and fungal (b) community composition  
893 explained by the displayed soil and plant factors in 0-15 cm soil depth. Results are based on  
894 permutational multivariate analyses of variance (PERMANOVA) using Jensen-Shannon  
895 divergence of microbial communities at ASV level (Table S3), included are all factors with  
896 significant explanatory value in single-factor PERMANOVA. Soil factors include soil pH, total  
897 organic carbon (TOC), dissolved organic carbon-to-dissolved nitrogen ratio (DOC:DN), total  
898 nitrogen (TN), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and dissolved nitrogen (DN). Plant factors

899 include plant community based on the first axis of principal coordinates analysis, plant biomass,  
900 and plant diversity measured as Shannon diversity.

901 **Figure 4:** Relative abundances of prokaryotic genera in 0-15 cm soil depth. Displayed are  
902 prokaryotic genera that made up > 2 % of relative abundance. Prokaryotic genera < 2 % relative  
903 abundance were grouped as “Other”. Differentially abundant genera were detected from a data  
904 matrix containing the samples from the Ctrl, N10, N10P and P treatments with reads summed up  
905 at genus level, using DESeq2 with the model  $Y \sim N * P$ . Differentially abundant genera are  
906 indicated with an asterisk in the legend and displayed in Table S4.

907 **Figure 5:** Relative abundances of fungal genera in 0-15 cm soil depth. Displayed are genera with  
908 > 1 % relative abundance. Unclassified fungi and fungal genera < 1 % abundance were grouped  
909 as “Other”. Differentially abundant genera were detected from a data matrix containing the  
910 samples from the Ctrl, N10, N10P and P treatments with reads summed up at genus level, using  
911 DESeq2 with the model  $Y \sim N * P$ . Differentially abundant genera are indicated with an asterisk  
912 in the legend and displayed in Table S4.

## 1 Tables

2 **Table 1:** Soil pH, total organic carbon (TOC), total nitrogen (TN), and total phosphorus (TP) contents, dissolved organic carbon (DOC), dissolved  
 3 nitrogen (DN), and dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP) concentrations under N and P addition in 0-15 cm and 15-30 cm soil depth. Numbers  
 4 depict means  $\pm$  standard deviations (n=3). Two-way ANOVA was conducted followed by Tukey test for multiple comparisons. Lower-case letters  
 5 indicate significant differences between treatments tested separately for each depth increment. If no lower-case letters are shown, treatments did not  
 6 differ significantly. Asterisks indicate significant differences between depth increments tested individually for each treatment.

Depth (cm)	N addition (g m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )	P addition (g m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )	pH <sub>H2O</sub>	TOC <sup>1</sup>	TN <sup>1</sup>	TP <sup>2</sup>	DOC	DN <sup>1</sup>	DIP <sup>1</sup>	DOC:DN ratio <sup>2</sup>
				(g kg <sup>-1</sup> )				(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )		
0-15	0	0	5.27 $\pm$ 0.08 <sup>a</sup>	9.44 $\pm$ 0.87	0.71 $\pm$ 0.09	0.31 $\pm$ 0.03	14.59 $\pm$ 0.30 <sup>a</sup>	3.20 $\pm$ 3.61 <sup>a</sup>	0.16 $\pm$ 0.10 <sup>a</sup>	18.08 $\pm$ 11.31 <sup>a</sup>
	1	0	5.03 $\pm$ 0.16 <sup>ab</sup>	16.18 $\pm$ 3.84	1.14 $\pm$ 0.31	0.48 $\pm$ 0.21	17.37 $\pm$ 1.75 <sup>a</sup>	6.77 $\pm$ 6.04 <sup>abc</sup>	0.18 $\pm$ 0.07 <sup>a</sup>	6.09 $\pm$ 4.02 <sup>a</sup>
	5	0	4.98 $\pm$ 0.18 <sup>ab</sup>	11.79 $\pm$ 5.71	0.89 $\pm$ 0.43	0.36 $\pm$ 0.17	20.14 $\pm$ 4.15 <sup>ab</sup>	21.68 $\pm$ 8.65 <sup>bc</sup>	0.13 $\pm$ 0.08 <sup>a</sup>	1.19 $\pm$ 0.28 <sup>bc</sup>
	10	0	4.70 $\pm$ 0.14 <sup>b</sup>	15.68 $\pm$ 7.16	1.13 $\pm$ 0.53	0.46 $\pm$ 0.20	20.24 $\pm$ 3.91 <sup>ab</sup>	32.88 $\pm$ 12.71 <sup>c</sup>	0.13 $\pm$ 0.05 <sup>a</sup>	0.77 $\pm$ 0.15 <sup>c</sup>
	0	10	5.27 $\pm$ 0.08 <sup>a</sup>	8.99 $\pm$ 0.25	0.61 $\pm$ 0.04	0.58 $\pm$ 0.08	19.75 $\pm$ 0.87 <sup>ab</sup>	2.73 $\pm$ 1.68 <sup>ab</sup>	13.37 $\pm$ 2.25 <sup>b</sup>	12.04 $\pm$ 6.14 <sup>a</sup>
	10	10	4.84 $\pm$ 0.08 <sup>ab</sup>	11.01 $\pm$ 2.80	0.82 $\pm$ 0.21	0.56 $\pm$ 0.09	24.28 $\pm$ 2.15 <sup>b</sup>	13.42 $\pm$ 2.36 <sup>abc</sup>	12.29 $\pm$ 2.89 <sup>b</sup>	2.14 $\pm$ 0.17 <sup>ab</sup>
15-30	0	0	5.36 $\pm$ 0.08	5.17 $\pm$ 0.88	0.35 $\pm$ 0.07	0.24 $\pm$ 0.03	10.90 $\pm$ 0.50	1.32 $\pm$ 0.51 <sup>a</sup>	0.06 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>a*</sup>	10.89 $\pm$ 3.27 <sup>a</sup>
	1	0	5.23 $\pm$ 0.26	11.32 $\pm$ 6.33	0.77 $\pm$ 0.44	0.43 $\pm$ 0.25	12.59 $\pm$ 1.97 <sup>*</sup>	5.65 $\pm$ 3.84 <sup>ab</sup>	0.05 $\pm$ 0.03 <sup>a*</sup>	3.59 $\pm$ 1.53 <sup>ab</sup>
	5	0	5.22 $\pm$ 0.29	8.64 $\pm$ 5.19	0.60 $\pm$ 0.34	0.36 $\pm$ 0.14	12.76 $\pm$ 2.05 <sup>*</sup>	12.77 $\pm$ 0.94 <sup>c</sup>	0.04 $\pm$ 0.02 <sup>a*</sup>	1.18 $\pm$ 0.24 <sup>c</sup>
	10	0	5.17 $\pm$ 0.15 <sup>*</sup>	10.39 $\pm$ 6.40	0.67 $\pm$ 0.40	0.40 $\pm$ 0.16	12.48 $\pm$ 1.65 <sup>*</sup>	10.01 $\pm$ 0.85 <sup>bc</sup>	0.04 $\pm$ 0.01 <sup>a*</sup>	1.45 $\pm$ 0.08 <sup>bc*</sup>
	0	10	5.45 $\pm$ 0.19	4.44 $\pm$ 0.41	0.33 $\pm$ 0.05	0.36 $\pm$ 0.03	12.42 $\pm$ 0.23 <sup>*</sup>	2.06 $\pm$ 1.20 <sup>ab</sup>	4.19 $\pm$ 0.45 <sup>b*</sup>	9.60 $\pm$ 4.69 <sup>a</sup>
	10	10	4.96 $\pm$ 0.18	5.76 $\pm$ 1.73	0.40 $\pm$ 0.08	0.38 $\pm$ 0.05	14.91 $\pm$ 1.03 <sup>*</sup>	6.96 $\pm$ 1.69 <sup>ab</sup>	5.01 $\pm$ 0.73 <sup>b*</sup>	2.65 $\pm$ 0.64 <sup>abc</sup>

7 <sup>1</sup>Data were log10 transformed for statistical tests, <sup>2</sup>reciprocally transformed (1/x) for statistical tests

8 **Table 2:** Microbial biomass carbon (MBC), microbial respiration, microbial respiration per unit MBC (qCO<sub>2</sub>), net nitrogen (N) mineralization, and  
9 non-symbiotic nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) fixation under N and P addition in 0-15 cm and 15-30 cm soil depth. Numbers depict means ± standard deviations  
10 (n=3). Two-way ANOVA was conducted followed by Tukey test for multiple comparisons. Lower-case letters indicate significant differences  
11 between treatments tested separately for each depth increment. If no lower-case letters are shown, treatments did not differ significantly. Asterisks  
12 indicate significant differences between depth increments tested individually for each treatment.

Depth (cm)	N addition (g m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )	P addition (g m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )	MBC (mg C kg soil <sup>-1</sup> )	Respiration (mg C kg soil <sup>-1</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	qCO <sub>2</sub> (mg C (g MBC) <sup>-1</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	N mineralization (mg N kg soil <sup>-1</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	Non-symb. N <sub>2</sub> fixation (ng N g soil <sup>-1</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )
0-15	0	0	162.68 ± 51.18	8.30 ± 3.03	51.59 ± 16.09	0.09 ± 0.05 <sup>a</sup>	0.69 ± 0.09
	1	0	155.81 ± 35.26	3.41 ± 0.27	22.73 ± 3.83	0.20 ± 0.03 <sup>bc</sup>	1.13 ± 0.20
	5	0	163.70 ± 47.23	3.80 ± 1.29	23.11 ± 4.43	0.32 ± 0.07 <sup>d</sup>	1.28 ± 0.13
	10	0	235.22 ± 36.29	5.75 ± 1.87	25.97 ± 12.03	0.25 ± 0.02 <sup>bcd</sup>	1.02 ± 0.41
	0	10	192.71 ± 7.12	6.69 ± 3.97	34.73 ± 20.79	0.16 ± 0.03 <sup>ab</sup>	1.08 ± 0.17
	10	10	168.81 ± 80.65	4.01 ± 1.80	29.32 ± 13.13	0.28 ± 0.05 <sup>cd</sup>	0.79 ± 0.21
15-30	0	0	118.62 ± 83.95	2.32 ± 0.85 <sup>*</sup>	27.29 ± 17.16	0.06 ± 0.01	1.05 ± 0.21 <sup>a</sup>
	1	0	113.07 ± 66.81	2.03 ± 0.97	39.34 ± 26.35	0.09 ± 0.03 <sup>*</sup>	1.78 ± 0.27 <sup>b*</sup>
	5	0	95.29 ± 37.12	1.62 ± 0.48	17.85 ± 2.47	0.12 ± 0.01 <sup>*</sup>	1.50 ± 0.29 <sup>ab</sup>
	10	0	100.30 ± 38.56 <sup>*</sup>	1.48 ± 0.33 <sup>*</sup>	16.74 ± 5.44	0.11 ± 0.01 <sup>*</sup>	1.74 ± 0.19 <sup>ab*</sup>
	0	10	45.87 ± 21.92 <sup>*</sup>	1.97 ± 0.77 <sup>*</sup>	39.49 ± 17.56	0.07 ± 0.02 <sup>*</sup>	1.87 ± 0.28 <sup>b*</sup>
	10	10	133.81 ± 87.67	2.19 ± 0.47	27.75 ± 14.93	0.13 ± 0.01 <sup>*</sup>	1.20 ± 0.03 <sup>ab</sup>

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14



15 **Table 3:** Multiple regression analysis after backward stepwise selection for identification of environmental controls on microbial respiration, net  
 16 nitrogen (N) mineralization, and non-symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation in 0-15 cm depth. The initial model contained soil pH, total organic carbon (TOC), total  
 17 N (TN) contents, dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and dissolved N (DN) concentrations, DOC:DN ratio, prokaryotic and fungal community  
 18 composition (based on first axis of principal coordinates analysis), and plant biomass and diversity. Displayed is the first model with a p-value  
 19 below 0.05 and the highest number of remaining variables to show the influence of several variables. Variance inflation factors were used to check  
 20 for multicollinearity and highly collinear variables were dropped.

	Variable	Coefficient	p-value	% explained	Multiple R <sup>2</sup> (model)	Adj. R <sup>2</sup> (model)	p-value (model)
Respiration	(Intercept)	14.4002	0.010		0.43	0.31	0.044
	DOC:DN ratio	0.3424	0.008	15.74			
	Plant diversity	-6.1142	0.031	21.41			
	DN	0.0700	0.255	5.75			
Net N mineralization	(Intercept)	-0.1944	0.335		0.77	0.60	0.014
	DN	0.0030	0.114	42.93			
	Fungal comm.	0.0859	0.095	8.95			
	DOC	0.0110	0.117	18.77			
	Plant diversity	0.0697	0.344	0.62			
	Plant biomass	0.0001	0.392	3.09			
	TN	-0.0528	0.412	2.26			
	Prok. comm.	0.0014	0.969	0.00			
Non-symbiotic N <sub>2</sub> fixation	(Intercept)	-0.9078	0.254		0.59	0.42	0.038
	Plant diversity	0.6933	0.037	0.42			
	DOC:DN ratio	-0.0115	0.219	17.31			

TOC	0.0227	0.128	24.16
Plant biomass	0.0006	0.089	9.34
Prok. comm.	-0.2140	0.166	7.47

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Figure 2  
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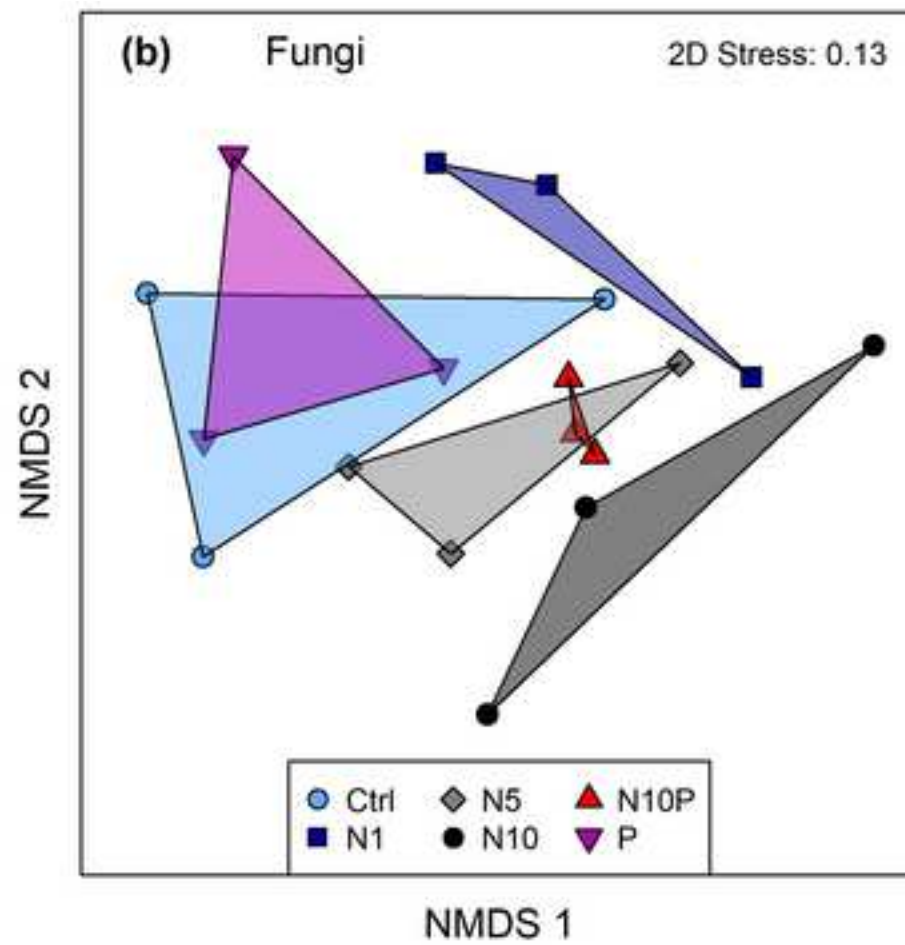
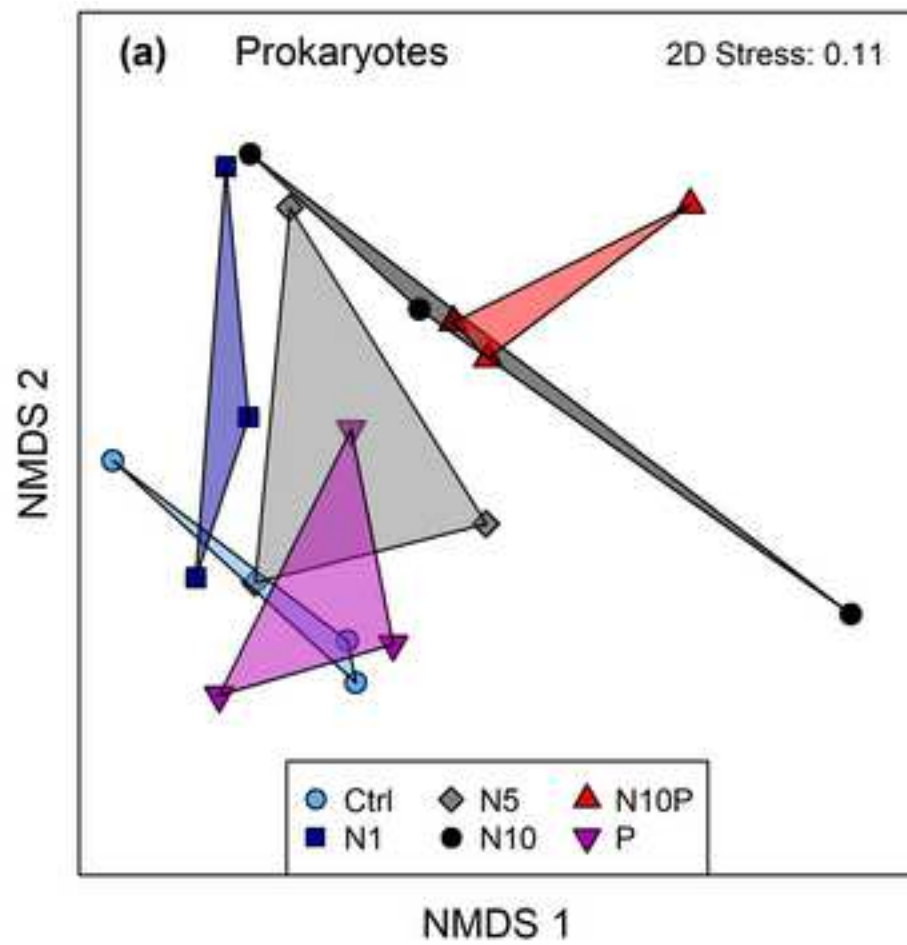


Figure 4  
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