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Climate change effects on the stability and chemistry of soil organic carbon pools in a subalpine grassland

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32 **Abstract**

33

34 Mountain soils stock large quantities of carbon as particulate organic matter (POM) that
35 may be highly vulnerable to climate change. To explore potential shifts in soil organic matter
36 (SOM) form and stability under climate change (warming and reduced precipitations), we
37 studied the dynamics of SOM pools of a mountain grassland in the Swiss Jura as part of a
38 climate manipulation experiment. The climate manipulation (elevational soil transplantation)
39 was set up in October 2009 and simulated two realistic climate change scenarios. After four
40 years of manipulation, we performed SOM physical fractionation to extract SOM fractions
41 corresponding to specific turnover rates, in winter and in summer. Soil organic matter fraction
42 chemistry was studied with ultraviolet, 3D fluorescence, and mid-infrared spectroscopies. The
43 most labile SOM fractions showed high intra-annual dynamics (amounts and chemistry)
44 mediated via the seasonal changes of fresh plant debris inputs and confirming their high
45 contribution to the microbial loop. Our climate change manipulation modified the chemical
46 differences between free and intra-aggregate organic matter, suggesting a modification of soil
47 macro-aggregates dynamics. Interestingly, the four-year climate manipulation affected
48 directly the SOM dynamics, with a decrease in organic C bulk soil content, resulting from
49 significant C-losses in the mineral-associated SOM fraction (MAOM), the most stable form of
50 SOM. This SOC decrease was associated with a decrease in clay content, above- and
51 belowground plants biomass, soil microbial biomass and activity. The combination of these
52 climate changes effects on the plant-soil system could have led to increase C-losses from the
53 MAOM fraction through clay-SOM washing out and DOC leaching in this subalpine
54 grassland.

55 **Keywords:** Water extractable organic carbon; Particulate organic matter; Mineral associated
56 organic matter; Infrared spectroscopy; 3D Fluorescence spectroscopy

57

58 1. **Introduction**

59 The fate of soil organic matter (SOM), in terms of accumulation and decomposition is an
60 issue of concern, since a small modification of its global stock may alter the atmospheric
61 greenhouse gas concentration at a decadal timescale (Eglin et al., 2010). Several specific,
62 simultaneously operating, mechanisms in soils can protect SOM from microbial
63 decomposition and thus preserve SOM compounds that would otherwise be rapidly degraded
64 (Leifeld et al., 2009; Sollins et al., 2007; Torn et al., 2009; von Lützow et al., 2006): (i) the
65 selective preservation of recalcitrant materials, a key process during the early phase of the
66 decomposition process (i.e. months to years); (ii) the spatial inaccessibility of SOM
67 compounds (e.g. soil aggregate formation, hydrophobicity of SOM compounds), (iii) the
68 adsorption/co-precipitation of SOM on/by mineral surfaces and (iv) pedoclimatic conditions
69 detrimental to SOM mineralization (e.g., soil frost, low soil pH). Depending on the
70 stabilization mechanisms involved, SOM compounds can remain in soils from days to
71 millennia, and can therefore be roughly classified into SOM pools with contrasting turnover
72 rates (Baisden et al., 2002; Leifeld et al., 2009).

73 Many physical and/or chemical SOM fractionation methods have been developed to
74 isolate C pools with contrasting turnover rates (von Lützow et al., 2007). The combination of
75 size and density separation is one of the best methods available to obtain such SOM fractions
76 with specific residence times (Sohi et al., 2001; von Lützow et al., 2007) such as: (i) the water
77 extractable organic C (WEOC, <0.45µm); (ii) the free particulate organic matter (freePOM);
78 (iii) the occluded particulate organic matter (occPOM) and (iv) the mineral associated organic
79 matter (MAOM) fractions. The WEOC fraction could be viewed as a readily available
80 resource for microbial communities (Marschner and Kalbitz, 2003). Although soil WEOC
81 only accounts for a few percent of SOC (ca. 0.05-2%, see the review from von Lützow et al.,
82 2007), some components of this fraction cycle extremely rapidly (ca. 4000 times a year,

83 Boddy et al., 2007) underlining its key functional role in soil. The labile particulate organic
84 matter (POM) fraction consists mainly of weakly decomposed plants debris (Poirier et al.,
85 2005; von Lützow et al., 2007). Particulate SOM fractions could be protected within soil
86 aggregates resulting to a change in its chemistry and its turnover rate. Consequently, the
87 freePOM has a chemistry closer to the one of plant biomass than the occPOM (Helfrich et al.,
88 2006; Kölbl and Kögel-Knabner, 2004; Poirier et al., 2005) and a higher turnover rate (e.g. 6
89 and 22 years for freePOM compared to 28 and 83 for occPOM according to John et al., 2005
90 and Baisden et al., 2002). In cold areas, climate and low pH conditions temporarily stabilize
91 these labile POM fractions. The mean turnover rate of the freePOM fraction was recently
92 estimated within the range 80-90 years in various mountain grassland soils (Budge et al.,
93 2011; Leifeld et al., 2009, Meyer et al, 2012a), representing from 20 to 80 % of total C stocks
94 in the first 10 cm of mineral soils (Leifeld and Kögel-Knabner, 2005; Leifeld et al., 2009;
95 Saenger et al., 2015). The mineral associated organic matter (MAOM) fraction represents the
96 passive/slow cycling C pool, with a low turnover rate (142-250 years in Meyer et al, 2011;
97 534 years in Budge et al, 2011) and a highly microbially processed SOM (low C:N ratio
98 closer to the one of microbial biomass than to the one of plant biomass, and high NMR alkyl-
99 C/O-alkyl-C ratio; Baisden et al., 2002; Budge et al., 2011).

100 Mountain regions are currently experiencing strong climatic changes altering the
101 temperatures, precipitation and the intensity and duration of seasons. Indeed, shorter periods
102 of snow cover, resulting in longer growing seasons, have been reported to coincide with
103 increasing occurrences of summer droughts and winter freeze-thaw cycles in soils (Gobiet et
104 al., 2014). Such climate changes are likely to alter the C dynamics of mountain soils, from the
105 modification of plant C inputs to the alteration of the various mechanisms of SOM protection
106 from microbial decomposition (Groffman et al., 2001; Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Conant
107 et al, 2011). More specifically, the high C stocks of mountain soils, with high proportions of

108 freePOM C protected by current cold climate conditions may be highly vulnerable to climate
109 changes (Sjögersten et al., 2011; Torn et al., 2009). Soil moisture conditions are known to
110 alter the WEOC SOM fraction, especially when soil dry conditions are followed by rapid
111 rewetting (Toberman et al., 2008; Zsolnay, 2003). However a marked gap in the
112 understanding of the WEOC fraction dynamics in soils remains (Embacher et al., 2007). The
113 respective amounts of freePOM and occPOM fractions are mediated by C inputs from plants
114 and by the formation/deformation of soil aggregates. Soil aggregation depends on physical
115 processes such as freeze/thaw and dry/rewetting cycles, as well as biological processes such
116 as the activity of soil fauna and plant roots (Six et al., 2004; Davidson et Janssens., 2006;
117 Erktan et al., 2016) that show a strong seasonal pattern in mountain regions and may be
118 altered by climate changes. However the effects of climate modifications on soil aggregation
119 processes and their consequences on the dynamics of SOM fractions have not been studied in
120 great depth (e.g. Cécillon et al., 2010; Conant et al, 2011). The MAOM fraction response to
121 climate change is also highly uncertain and could depend on the type of chemical association
122 of organic C with minerals (Conant et al, 2011). However, the absolute C-losses from this
123 passive/slow cycling C pool under climate changes are expected to be lower than those from
124 the particulate SOM fractions in mountain soils (Sjögersten et al., 2011).

125 In this study, we investigated the effects of a climate change experiment on the
126 dynamics of SOM pools in subalpine grasslands from the Swiss Jura. We focused on the size
127 and chemistry of four SOM fractions (WEOC, freePOM, occPOM and MAOM fractions) at
128 two sampling dates representing two contrasting seasons: winter and summer. We performed
129 a climate manipulation experiment by transplanting grassland mesocosms along an altitudinal
130 gradient. This four-year climate experiment simulated two climate change scenarios close to
131 current predictions for the 21th century with increased air temperatures ranging between 2 °C

132 and 4 °C and decreased precipitation ranging between 20 % and 40 % (C2SM, 2011; Frei et
133 al., 2006; Meehl et al., 2007).

134 We hypothesized that (i) the POM-C fractions (freePOM + occPOM) would represent
135 a large proportion of total SOC in this historically grazed subalpine grassland, especially in
136 the control plots not affected by the climate manipulation ; (ii) the climate manipulation and
137 the strong seasonal climatic changes would affect the quantity and the chemistry of labile
138 SOM fractions (WEOC, free-POM and occPOM). The climate manipulation may affect labile
139 SOM fractions proportionally to their mean turnover rate: WEOC>freePOM>occPOM. (iii)
140 the climate change manipulation would not affect strongly the most stable C pool, stabilized
141 by mineral interactions (MAOM fraction).

142

143 2. **Materials and methods**

144

145 2.1. Study site, experimental manipulations, and seasonal sampling

146 The experiment was located in the Swiss Jura mountain range and consisted of a high-to-low
147 elevation soil translocation that, with respect to a disturbance control, simulates a climate
148 warming with an average temperature increase of +2 °C and +4 °C and a precipitation
149 decrease of 20 % and 40 % at the intermediate site and at the lowest the site, respectively.

150 Details about the experimental set-up can be found in Gavazov (2013) and Gavazov (2014a
151 and 2014b). Briefly, in 2009 mesocosm containing turf monoliths of undisturbed soil (30 cm
152 depth) and vegetation, were randomly taken from a mesic grassland grazed by cattle located at
153 1350 m a.s.l. and transplanted to (i) a control site (1350 m a.s.l., Les Amburnex, N 46°54', E
154 6°23'); (ii) an intermediate site (1010 m a.s.l., Saint-George, N 46°52', E 6°26') and to (iii) a
155 low-elevation site (570 m a.s.l., Arboretum d'Aubonne, N 46°51', E 6°37'). Five replicated

156 mesocosms were transplanted per site. The main vegetation consisted of graminoids with few
157 forbs, and the soil could be classified as a Hypereutric Cambisol (IUSS Working Group
158 WRB, 2014) on Jurassic limestone. The aboveground biomass was removed each summer
159 simulating grazing of the pasture to avoid confounding effect of abandonment. During the
160 fourth year of the soil transplantation experiment, two sampling campaigns were performed in
161 winter and summer (February 20th 2013, September 2nd 2013, respectively). Five intact cores
162 of topsoil (5 cm diameter × 10 cm length) per site (one core per mesocosm) were taken at
163 each sampling date (Puissant et al., 2015). Moreover, an additional sampling campaign were
164 performed in summer 2014 to evaluate the soil carbon content along the entire depth of the
165 mesocosm. Five intact soil cores (5 cm diameter × 30 cm length) per site (one core per
166 mesocosm) were taken at the summer 2014 sampling date (Supplementary Fig.S1).

167

168 2.2. Soil microclimate

169 Soil temperature and soil volumetric water content were monitored in all mesocosms over the
170 four-year experimental period (Fig.1). Details of the soil microclimate conditions at the two
171 sampling dates corresponding to winter 2013 and summer 2013 season can be found in
172 Puissant et al. (2015). Briefly, the winter soil temperature was ca. 1 °C at all sites and soil
173 moisture (0-10cm) was ca. 45%. Conversely, soil temperature and moisture showed
174 significant differences between transplantation sites in summer, with a daily mean
175 temperature of 13.2 °C, 16.1 °C, 18.4 °C and a volumetric water content of 33 %, 26 % and
176 21 % for the control, the intermediate and the lowest sites, respectively, for the summer
177 periods of 2009 to 2013. Overall, our climate manipulation increased the mean annual soil
178 temperature by 2 °C and 4 °C (November 2012 to October 2013) at the intermediate (1010m)
179 and at the lowest (570m) sites, respectively. Soil moisture showed a clear decrease throughout
180 the year at the lowest site and a more complex pattern at the intermediate site, depending on

181 the season. Furthermore, the climate manipulation resulted in a longer and warmer plant
182 growing season (with a decrease in snow cover duration) at the intermediate and the lowest
183 sites (Fig.1; Puissant et al., 2015).

184

185 2.3. Basic characterization of bulk soil samples

186 Gravimetric soil water content was measured by drying soil at 105 °C for 48 h according to
187 NF ISO 16586 (2003). For all chemical and texture analyses of bulk topsoils (0-10 cm),
188 samples were dried at 40 °C and sieved (2 mm) following NF ISO 11464 (2006). The particle
189 size distribution (i.e. soil texture) was determined by wet sieving and sedimentation using the
190 Robinson pipette method, according to NF X31-107. Soil pH was measured in H₂O (1:5
191 vol:vol) according to the protocol NF ISO 10390 (2005). Calcareous content was determined
192 following the norm NF ISO 10693 (1995). Soil cations exchange capacity (CEC) was
193 determined according to Metson method described in the protocol NF X 31-130 (1999).
194 Organic C and total nitrogen (N) concentrations were measured by the Dumas dry combustion
195 method after decarbonation (NF ISO 10694, 1995; and 13878, 1995, respectively).

196

197 2.4. Water-extractable organic C fraction

198 To obtain the WEOC fraction, 40 mL of deionized water was added to 10 g of moist sieved (2
199 mm) soil, and shaken for 20 minutes at 250 rpm. Samples were then centrifuged at 10,000 g
200 for 10 minutes, after which the solution was filtered through 0.45 mm Millipore filter and
201 immediately stored at -20 °C until analysis. Soil WEOC content was measured using a total
202 organic carbon analyzer (Shimadzu Inc., Kyoto, Japan). The analyzer was calibrated for total
203 dissolved C (TDC) and dissolved inorganic C (DIC) using a calibration solution of potassium
204 hydrogen phthalate (C₈H₅KO₄) and a solution containing a mixture of sodium hydrogen

205 carbonate (NaHCO_3) and sodium carbonate (Na_2CO_3) for TDC and DIC respectively. WEOC
206 was calculated as the difference between TDC and DIC and expressed in $\text{mg C}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ soil.

207

208 2.5. Soil organic matter density fractionation

209 Three SOM fractions (freePOM, OccPOM and MAOM) were separated by density
210 fractionation of oven dried ($40\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) and sieved ($< 2\text{ mm}$) soil samples following Leifeld et al.
211 (2005, 2009). Briefly, 15 g of soil were placed into a 50 mL centrifuge tube. A sodium
212 polytungstate solution (density = 1.6 g cm^{-3}) was added up to the 50 mL line and the tube was
213 gently inverted several times. After 2 hours, floating materials ($<1.6\text{ g cm}^{-3}$) corresponding to
214 the freePOM fraction, were collected and washed thoroughly with deionized water through
215 $0.45\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ nitrocellulose membrane filters. This first step was repeated four times to obtain all
216 remaining freePOM. Then the remaining pellet was re-suspended in sodium polytungstate and
217 treated with ultra-sonication (22 J mL^{-1} in an ice bath using a Branson 250 calibrated
218 according to Schmidt et al (1999) so as to breakdown all soil macro-aggregates (Leifeld and
219 Kögel-Knabner, 2005). After sonication, samples were centrifuged at $10,000\text{ g}$ for 10 minutes
220 and floating materials (occPOM fraction) were collected and washed thoroughly with
221 deionized water through $0.45\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ nitrocellulose membrane filters. This step was repeated four
222 times to collect all occPOM released by the sonication treatment. The remaining pellet
223 corresponding to the MAOM fraction was centrifuged, re-suspended and washed with
224 deionized water through $0.45\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ nitrocellulose membrane filters several times, until
225 obtaining an electrical conductivity $< 0.50\text{ mS cm}^{-1}$ (Leifeld and Kögel-Knabner, 2005; Meyer
226 et al., 2012a). We used $0.45\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ nitrocellulose membrane filters so as to characterize the SOC
227 fraction until the WEOC size definition. All washed fractions were oven dried at $40\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and
228 weighed. Organic C and total N concentrations of the freePOM, occPOM and MAOM
229 fractions were determined using the same methods as for bulk soil samples (see section 2.3).

230 Organic C and total N concentrations of SOM fractions (expressed as g C or N kg⁻¹ SOM
231 fraction) were then expressed as percent of the SOC and total N contents of bulk soil samples
232 (i.e. SOC and total N distribution in SOM fractions).

233

234 2.6. Chemistry of the soil organic matter fractions

235 2.6.1. Chemistry of the WEOC fraction

236 The chemistry of the WEOC fraction was qualitatively assessed using ultraviolet (UV)
237 spectroscopy. The absorbance of the WEOC fraction at 280 nm was used as an indicator of its
238 aromaticity (Kalbitz et al., 2003). Three dimensions (3D) spectrofluorescence measurements
239 were then performed on the WEOC fraction with a spectrofluorometer (Varian Cary-Eclipse).
240 Placed in a quartz cell (10x10 mm – Hellma Analytics), fluorescence emissions of solutions
241 were recorded between 250 and 500 nm with 5-nm slits (1 nm step) and were excited in the
242 range from 220 to 310 nm with a step of 15 nm. In order to overcome inner filter effects,
243 solutions were diluted until absorbance at 256 was inferior to 0.01. All data were expressed in
244 Quinine Sulfate Units (Fluorescence data were used to characterise the main fluorophore
245 compounds and their distribution in the WEOC). In order to determine the fluorescent
246 protein-like moieties, emission spectra were simulated by the linear combination of log-
247 normal functions which were shown to simulate organic matter fluorescence (Siano and
248 Metzler, 1969). Simulations were performed by a constraint (for center location and width)
249 least square simulation of a set of user-defined bands (number and positions) using a matlab
250 optimisation toolbox. This method is effective in simulating protein-like fluorophores whose
251 emissions are often masked by Rayleigh or Raman scatterings. The bands were ascribed to
252 Tyrosine-like ($\lambda_{exc}/\lambda_{emi}$: 235/310), tryptophane-like (235;295 / 350), fulvic-like
253 (235;295;310 /410) and humic-like (295; 310 /480) compounds.

254

255 2.6.2. Chemistry of the POM fractions

256 The chemistry of the POM fractions (freePOM and occPOM) was assessed using mid-infrared
257 (MIR) spectroscopy. Prior to these analyses, POM fractions were ball-milled (< 0.25 mm
258 using a Retsch ZM 200) and further dried overnight at 40 °C to limit interferences with water,
259 without altering OM chemistry. Crushed samples were analyzed using a Nicolet iS10 FT-IR
260 spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Madison, WI, USA). Spectral acquisition was
261 performed by diamond attenuated total reflectance (MIR-ATR) spectroscopy over the spectral
262 range $4,000$ – 650 cm^{-1} , with spectral resolution of 4 cm^{-1} and 16 scans per replicate (2
263 replicates per sample). All MIR-ATR spectra were corrected for atmospheric interferences
264 (H_2O and CO_2). Spectral data were further processed and analyzed using the hyperSpec
265 (Beleites and Sergo, 2011), signal (signal developers, 2013) and ptw (Bloemberg et al 2010)
266 packages in the R environment, software version 2.14.0 (R Development Core Team 2011).
267 Five spectral regions corresponding to specific C functional groups were chosen for further
268 characterization (1) the saturated hydrocarbons (SAT) region $2,750$ – $3,025$ cm^{-1} corresponding
269 to alkyl C (CH_2 , CH_3 , and CH); (2) the unsaturated (UNSAT) region $1,700$ – $1,760$ cm^{-1} and
270 $1,576$ – $1,618$ cm^{-1} corresponding to $\text{C}=\text{O}$ and aromatic $\text{C}=\text{C}$ bonds respectively; (3) the
271 polysaccharide (POLY) region $1,222$ – $1,287$ cm^{-1} corresponding to O-Alkyl C, and (4) the
272 aromatic CH (AROCH) region 852 – 898 cm^{-1} (Supplementary Fig.S2) . The contribution of
273 minerals (e.g. phyllosilicates) or polytungstate pollution to the intensities of the five
274 waveband-regions was negligible for these POM fractions. The selected wavebands were used
275 to calculate seven proxies of POM chemistry, according to Pengerud et al (2013) and Robroek
276 et al. (2015): (1) SAT/SOC = hydrophobicity index (SAT = saturated hydrocarbons = Alkyl
277 C, and SOC = soil organic carbon content); (2) $\text{C}=\text{O}/\text{SOC}$ (index of oxidation); (3) $\text{C}=\text{C}/\text{SOC}$
278 (aromaticity index); (4) $\text{MI} = \text{C}=\text{C}/\text{UNSAT}$ (maturation index) (5) POLY/SOC
279 (polysaccharide content); (6) $\text{AROCH}/\text{C}=\text{C}$ (condensation index = degree of condensation of

280 aromatics), (7) SAT/POLY to estimate the Alkyl-C/Alkyl-O which is used as an indicator of
281 microbial transformation (Budge et al, 2011).

282

283 2.7. Statistical analyses

284 The effect of climate conditions (soil transplantation and sampling dates) and the effect of
285 SOM pools (i.e. SOM fractions) on SOM chemistry (UV and FLUO and MIR-ATR
286 spectroscopy indices), were assessed by three-way mixed effects ANOVAs (Supplementary
287 Table 1). Fixed factors were the sampling date, the transplantation site and the SOM fraction,
288 while the actual mesocosm was added as a random factor and the sampled core (from which
289 the SOM fraction originates) as a nested factor. Data was log or square root transformed when
290 necessary to respect assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity of the residuals. To test
291 the effect of sampling date (season) on each SOM fraction separately, one-way mixed
292 ANOVAs was performed at each transplantation site with the sampling date as fixed factors
293 and the actual mesocosm as a random factor. To test the effect of the climate change
294 experiment (site effect) on each individual variable (SOM fraction, pH, soil moisture, etc.),
295 one-way ANOVA was performed at each season (winter and summer). When significant
296 ANOVAs were obtained at the 5 % error probability threshold, a Tukey's post-hoc test was
297 applied. All statistical analyses were performed under the R environment software 2.14.0 (R
298 Development Core Team 2011), using the R package NLME (Pinheiro et al., 2014).

299

300 3. Results

301

302 3.1. Basic soil characteristics

303 All soils from the transplanted mesocosms were determined as clay textured soils (USDA
304 texture triangle). An effect of the transplantation on topsoil (0-10 cm) texture was observed,

305 manifested by a significant decrease in clay content at the intermediate site (clay content =
306 40.2 % at 1010 m a.s.l.) compared to the control site (clay content = 52.6 % at 1350 m a.s.l.;
307 p-value = 0.02; Table 1). Clay content at the lowest site (at 570 m a.s.l.) was not significantly
308 different from neither the control site nor the intermediate site (clay content = 44.5 %; p-value
309 = 0.12 and 0.52 respectively; Table 1). SOC content of bulk topsoil showed a similar response
310 to the transplantation, with a significant decrease at the intermediate site in winter and at the
311 lowest and intermediate sites in summer (Table 1). This decrease in SOC content induced by
312 the climate change experiment was confirmed at the summer 2014 sampling date. Whatever
313 the depth sampled, the same trend was observed with a decrease in SOC content at the two
314 transplanted site. The difference in SOC content was not significant in 0-5 cm and in 5-10 cm
315 soil layers but were significant for the intermediate site in 10-15 cm soil layer and for both
316 transplanted sites in 15-30 cm soil layer. This result confirmed the decrease in SOC content
317 and showed that the decrease has been accentuated with increasing the soil depth. Surface
318 SOC content showed a strong correlation with clay content ($r = 0.67$, p-value = 0.006). We
319 did not observe any effect of transplantation on soil pH and CEC (Table 1). A seasonal effect
320 on CEC was observed for the lowest site (570 m a.s.l.) with a lower value in summer (Table
321 1).

322

323 3.2. Distribution and chemistry of organic C in SOM fractions

324 3.2.1. Water extractable organic carbon

325 Climate manipulation did not impact the WEOC content between the sites (Fig.2). In the two
326 recipient sites (570 and 1010 m) WEOC was lower in winter as compared to summer (Fig.2).
327 Regarding chemistry of organic C in the WEOC fraction, its aromaticity measured by UV
328 absorption at 280 nm was significantly higher in summer than in winter, irrespective of site.
329 This seasonal effect on WEOC chemistry was confirmed by many 3D fluorescence indices.

330 Indeed, WEOC was significantly richer in fulvic-like and humic-like compounds compared to
331 tyrosine-like compounds at the summer sampling date. No seasonal change in
332 tryptophan/humic or tryptophan/fulvic indices was observed (Fig.2). Finally the fluorescence
333 ratio WEOC humic/fulvic increased in summer while the ratio tyrosine/tryptophan increased
334 in winter. We observed a significant decrease in the WEOC tryptophan/fulvic fluorescence
335 ratio (in summer and winter) and in the WEOC tyrosine/fulvic fluorescence ratio (summer
336 only) in the lower altitudinal sites, as compared to the control site (Fig.2).

337

338 3.2.2. SOM density fractions

339 The SOM fractionation scheme used in this study was rather conservative, with an average of
340 only 4.7 % losses of total SOC content when summing the organic C contribution of each
341 density fraction. The mean annual distribution of SOC in SOM fractions showed that most
342 SOC belonged to the MAOM fraction (86 % of SOC content) while freePOM and occPOM
343 comprised 6 % and 8 % of total SOC content respectively. WEOC contribution to SOC was
344 very small (i.e. 0.2%).

345

346 3.2.2.1. Free particulate organic matter (freePOM)

347 Even though the organic C content of the freePOM fraction increased significantly in
348 winter compared to the summer sampling date (significant for the control site; Table 2), its
349 contribution to bulk topsoil was greater at the summer sampling date (10.1%) than at the
350 winter sampling date (1.9%) for all sites, representing ca. 6.9 gC kg⁻¹ dry soil in summer and
351 1.2 gC kg⁻¹ dry soil in winter (Fig.3). Under the strongest climate change scenario
352 (transplantation site at 570 m a.s.l.) and at the summer sampling date, the freePOM organic C
353 contribution to SOC bulk content was significantly higher than the two other sites (1010 m
354 and 1350 m a.s.l.). The chemistry of the freePOM fraction was not impacted by the climate

355 manipulation except for the C=O/SOC oxidation index which was significantly lower in
356 winter at the lowest site compared to the control site (Table 2). Conversely, the sampling date
357 (winter vs. summer) strongly affected the chemistry of the freePOM fraction, which was less
358 oxidized (C=O/SOC) and condensed (CI), more aromatic and matured (MI index) in summer
359 than in winter. This significant effect of the sampling date was generally observed at the
360 control site but not at the two other transplantation sites, even if the trend was similar (Table
361 2). The Alkyl-C/Alkyl-O ratio of the freePOM, which can be used as an indicator of its degree
362 of microbial transformation (Baldock et al., 2007; Budge et al 2011), was consistently higher
363 in winter than in summer despite that this trend was significant only for the intermediate site
364 (1010 m a.s.l).

365

366 3.2.2.2. Occluded particulate organic matter (OccPOM)

367 Contrary to the freePOM, the contribution of the occPOM organic C to the SOC bulk content
368 (5.5 gC kg⁻¹ dry soil, i.e. 8%) of topsoils was neither impacted by seasons nor by soil
369 transplantation (climate manipulation; Fig.3). A strong sampling date effect on occPOM
370 organic C content was observed whatever the site considered with a more organic C
371 concentrated occPOM in winter than in summer (Table 2).

372 The chemistry of the occPOM fraction was not impacted by the climate manipulation.
373 Conversely, we observed a significant effect of the sampling date on the chemistry of the
374 occPOM fraction. The organic C of the occPOM fraction was less humified (HI), had a lower
375 PI index (polysaccharide), and its aromatic C functional groups were less condensed (CI) at
376 the winter sampling date than at the summer sampling date (Table 2). In contrast to the
377 freePOM, the C-alkyl/O-Alkyl ratio of the occPOM fraction was higher at the summer
378 sampling date than at the winter sampling date, even if this trend was significant only for the
379 lowest site (570 m a.s.l.). Moreover, at the summer sampling date the C-alkyl/O-Alkyl ratio

380 was lower in the freePOM than in the occPOM fraction (significant for the two lowest sites,
381 Table 2). The C/N ratio was higher in freePOM than in occPOM at both sampling dates even
382 if this difference was relatively low and only significant at the summer sampling of the
383 intermediate site (Table 1). We observed an interaction for some IR indices between sites and
384 the chemical differences composition of the fractions. Indeed, the chemical differences
385 between freePOM and occPOM fraction were modulated by the climate change experiment
386 (i.e. site versus fraction effect; Supplementary Table 1).

387

388 3.2.2.3. Mineral associated organic matter (MAOM)

389 We observed a decrease in the MAOM organic C content at the intermediate (1010 m
390 a.s.l., significant in summer and winter) and the lowest site (570 m a.s.l., significant only in
391 summer) compared with the control site (1350 m a.s.l.; Fig.3). The bulk organic chemistry of
392 the MAOM fraction, assessed with the C:N ratio, strongly differed from the chemistry of the
393 freePOM and the occPOM fractions, with a decreasing average C:N ratio from the freePOM
394 (19.3), occPOM (18), to the MAOM (10) fraction. Moreover the SOC content of the MAOM
395 fraction were significantly affected by the climate change manipulation but not by the
396 seasonal change. Indeed, the mean SOC content of the MAOM fraction was significantly
397 lower at the lowest site ($59 \pm 4 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$, p-value =0.003) and at the intermediate site ($52 \pm 4 \text{ g}$
398 kg^{-1} , p-value <0.001) compare to the control site ($70 \pm 2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$).

399

400 4. Discussion

401

402 The majority of the SOC were found in the MAOM-C fraction with low C:N ratio
403 suggesting a rather high biogeochemical stability (and low turnover rate) of SOC in these
404 mountain grassland soils. The contribution of this biogeochemical stable fraction (MAOM)

405 did not change across seasons contrary to the more labile C-pools (WEOC, C-POM) showing
406 high seasonal changes of their respective contributions to total SOC or/and their chemistry.
407 Surprisingly, the decrease in organic C content for the bulk soil induced by the climate
408 manipulation already observed by Puissant et al. (2015) was not explained by C-losses from
409 fast cycling C-pools (WEOC, freePOM or occPOM), but by significant C-losses in the
410 MAOM fraction after four years of climate change experiment. These findings challenged
411 our three main hypotheses and we discuss below their implications regarding the dynamics of
412 SOC pools in our climate change experiment.

413

414 4.1. Weak contributions of labile SOM fractions to total SOC

415 Contrary to our first hypothesis, the POM-C fractions did not represent a large
416 proportion of total SOC in these mountain grassland soils. This result contrasts with those
417 from other studies on mountain soils which found that a large proportion of total SOC
418 consisted of labile POM fractions (Budge et al., 2011; Leifeld et al., 2009; Martinsen et al.,
419 2011; Saenger et al., 2015). Indeed, Martinsen et al. (2011) reported that the POM fraction
420 contained more than 60% of total SOC in the first 5 cm of a low-alpine (1050-1320 m a.s.l.)
421 grasslands soil (with or without sheep grazing) from southern Norway. Similar results were
422 reported by Leifeld et al (2009) in the uppermost layers of high altitude (2200 m a.s.l.)
423 permanent mountain grasslands with more than 80% of total SOC contained in the POM
424 fraction. Saenger et al (2015) recently reported that 38 % of total SOC was found in the POM
425 fraction in a French mesic grassland on limestone at 1567 m a.s.l. grazed by sheep. By
426 combining several studies of Swiss mountain grasslands ranging in altitude from 1210 to
427 1410 m a.s.l. (i.e. similar to the studied grasslands in the Jura mountains), Leifeld et al (2009)
428 reported that the proportion of C-POM in the first 10 cm of soils ranged from ca. 24 to 27 %.

429 These latter results are closer to our findings. Leifeld and Kögel-Knabner (2005) and Meyer et
430 al (2012b) have shown that the land use and the management type could impact the relative
431 proportion of SOM fractions. Here the pasture management (grazing by cattle and then mown
432 during the four years experiment) could partly explain the low proportion of POM-C in these
433 mountain subalpine soils, with large parts of the herbaceous biomass taken up by grazing.
434 Such effect of grazing on POM-C has already been reported (Martinsen et al, 2011, but see
435 Leifeld and Fuhrer, 2009; Meyer et al 2012b). Overall, our results and those from the
436 literature suggest that altitude and grazing may interact to control the POM-C content of
437 mountain subalpine topsoils. The WEOC fraction yielded the smallest contribution to SOC
438 (0.09 to 0.34 %) and this result was consistent to other studies using similar methodologies
439 (see e.g. Rees and Parker, 2005). In this study, SOM consisted mostly of MAOM which has
440 achieved a higher degree of microbial transformation as attested by its low C:N ratio as
441 compared to the freePOM and occPOM fractions. A decrease in C:N ratio from labile (POM)
442 to the MAOM fraction is generally found (Budge et al, 2011; Golchin et al, 1994 ; Baisden et
443 al, 2002). High amounts of MAOM-C with low C:N ratio suggest a rather high
444 biogeochemical stability (and low turnover rate) of SOC in these mountain grassland soils,
445 which contrasts with current knowledge presenting mountain soils as huge reservoirs of labile
446 C (Sjögersten et al., 2011; Leifeld et al., 2009; Saenger et al., 2015).

447

448 4.2. Weak impact of the climate change experiment on the labile SOM fractions and
449 their seasonal dynamics

450 4.2.1. Seasonal dynamics of the labile SOM fractions

451 As we hypothesized, the strong seasonal climatic changes characterized by a winter
452 period with a continuous snow cover at all sites, and a warm and relatively dry summer

453 affected the dynamics of the most labile SOM fractions. Only the occPOM fraction
454 contribution was not affected by the seasonal change.

455 The WEOC fraction considered as the most available substrate for microorganisms
456 was very sensitive to seasonal climatic variations. Both, WEOC abundance and chemistry
457 were strongly impacted by seasonal changes. We observed globally higher WEOC contents in
458 the summer season combined with a more recalcitrant WEOC chemistry (higher UV
459 absorbance at 280nm and higher proportion of aromatic C, fulvic and humic C compared to
460 proteic C). Such temporal dynamics of WEOC content has been previously observed, with
461 higher WEOC content (Yano et al., 2000; Kaiser et al., 2001) and higher humic chemistry in
462 the summer season (Kaiser et al 2001, Qualls and Haines, 1992). However studies specifically
463 characterising the seasonal pattern of WEOC chemistry are few, and contradictory patterns
464 have also been reported (see the review by (Embacher et al., 2007). Our study identifies that
465 this seasonal pattern of WEOC abundance were decoupled from soil microbial abundance and
466 activity (Puissant et al, 2015). This contrasts with several other studies showing positive
467 correlations (Marschner and Bredow, 2002; Marschner and Kalbitz, 2003; Rees and Parker,
468 2005) and could indicate that WEOC abundance may not be the limiting factor for microbial
469 growth which is more affected by summer drought in these subalpine grasslands.

470 The freePOM fraction also showed an important seasonal pattern with a higher
471 contribution to total SOC at the summer sampling date. This result could be linked to the
472 seasonal root dynamics which is a significant component of soil C inputs in grasslands
473 (Gregorich et al., 2006; Hitz et al., 2001). Contrary to the freePOM fractions, the relative
474 contribution of the occPOM fraction to total SOC did not show any seasonal trend,
475 underlining its different biogeochemical reactivity compared to the freePOM fraction, as
476 previously reported by Meyer et al. (2011). Interestingly, the organic chemistry of the
477 freePOM and the occPOM fractions (mid-infrared spectroscopic proxies) showed a seasonal

478 pattern, as well as chemical differences between both POM-C fractions. Our results suggest
479 that fresh OM inputs (low Alkyl-C/Alkyl-O ratio) are incorporated into the freePOM fraction
480 during summer. In winter, elements of the freePOM are incorporated into the occPOM
481 fraction (lower Alkyl-C/Alkyl-O ratio in winter compared with summer for the occPOM
482 fraction). The seasonal difference in the chemistry of the occPOM fraction underlines the
483 ontogeny of plant detritus during the aggregation process on a seasonal timescale (Cécillon et
484 al., 2010; Moore et al., 2004).

485 4.2.2. Evolution of the labile SOM fractions induced by the climate manipulation

486 Contrary to our second hypothesis, the climate change manipulation did not strongly
487 affect the respective contributions of labile SOC pools (WEOC, freePOM and occPOM) to
488 total SOC. The only labile SOM fraction impacted by the climate manipulation experiment
489 was the freePOM fraction. A minor increase in the relative contribution of freePOM-C to total
490 SOC was observed at the lowest site (570m, only significant at the summer sampling date).
491 Here, the freePOM fraction could accumulate under climate manipulated conditions because
492 of the decreased microbial activity (enzyme pools and soil respiration) observed on the same
493 plots, probably due to the effect of water limitation at lower transplantation sites (Mills et al.,
494 2014; Puissant et al, 2015; Gavazov et al, 2014a). As a consequence, the effect of the climate
495 manipulation on the contribution of the labile SOM fractions (small increased contribution of
496 freePOM-C to total SOC) could not explain the overall losses in bulk SOC observed after four
497 years of experiment. Interestingly, the chemical differences between the freePOM and the
498 occPOM fractions were modulated by the climate manipulation (Supplementary Table 1),
499 suggesting a climate change induced modification of soil macro-aggregates dynamics. Other
500 studies have shown that physical occlusion of OM within soil aggregates could be affected by
501 the climate conditions like freeze-thaw cycles (Sollins et al., 1996). The modification of soil

502 macro-aggregates dynamics under climate change could have potentially important
503 repercussions on the long term soil C dynamics.

504

505 4.3. Large C-losses from the MAOM fraction under the climate change
506 manipulation

507 Contrary to our third hypothesis, significant C-losses from the MAOM fraction, the most
508 biogeochemically stable fraction, were observed after four years of climate change
509 manipulation. These C-losses coincided with the decrease in organic C content for the bulk
510 soil already observed in the same experiment (Puissant et al, 2015) in the topsoil, which was
511 even more pronounced at greater soil depth (10-15 cm and 15-30 cm; Fig.S1). This climate-
512 induced modification on MAOM-C content was also linked to an important textural change,
513 with a decrease in clay content at the lower transplantation sites.

514 In order to understand this climate-induced modification of SOC content, it is necessary to
515 frame the observed SOM dynamics in an ecosystem context, considering both soil C inputs
516 and outputs. Previous investigations of the same soil transplantation experiment revealed the
517 following effects of the climate manipulation on SOM dynamics: (i) a significant decrease in
518 SOM outputs through respiration (Mills et al., 2014), which was confirmed by a decrease in
519 soil enzyme pools and soil microbial biomass (Puissant et al, 2015); (ii) an increase in SOM
520 outputs through dissolved organic matter leaching (+ 9.9 mg C L⁻¹ at the lowest site and + 4.2
521 mg C L⁻¹ at the intermediate site relative to high elevation controls; Gavazov, 2013); (iii)
522 irregular changes of aboveground SOM inputs (aboveground biomass production) depending
523 on the year (Table 3); (iv) a strong decrease in belowground SOM inputs through a huge
524 decrease of root biomass (Table 3).

525 In combination with these results, our present study illustrates that climate-manipulation
526 caused C losses through a reduction in belowground plant C inputs together with enhanced
527 leaching processes. The intense C-leaching may itself be linked to several observed changes
528 of soil parameters under the climate manipulation. Indeed, decreased root biomass and
529 microbial biomass and activity could have resulted in changes of soil structure and its
530 resistance to climate events such as precipitation events. Root biomass has been shown to be
531 an important factor controlling soil erosion and leaching (Gyssel et al, 2005). Moreover, the
532 microbial products of decomposition, reduced under the climate manipulation, are the main
533 precursors of stable SOM by promoting SOM formation, aggregation and association to
534 mineral matrix (Cotrufo et al, 2013, Malik et al, 2016). The observed modification of soil
535 macro-aggregates dynamics under climate change further coincide with this hypothesis. In
536 fact, such changes in soil structure could have increased clay dispersion which has then led to
537 a vertical migration of clay colloids down the mesocosms.

538 The important MAOM-C losses following the climate change manipulation may thus be
539 explained by washing out of clay-SOM associations leading to the strong difference in soil
540 texture and the increase in C-leaching observed (Gavazov, 2013). Losses of organic C through
541 leaching has been shown to be an important factor within the C cycle of grasslands (5 to 98 %
542 of C net ecosystem exchange; Kindler et al., 2011). However in our study, losses of clays and
543 associated MAOM-C following the climate change manipulation may have been artificially
544 enhanced by the use of mesocosms of 30 cm depth. In real grassland ecosystems, migration of
545 clay colloids and C-leaching could be stabilized at a greater soil depth, but it is likely that
546 some of the destabilized clay-SOM associations would be lost.

547

548 **Conclusion**

549

550 Our study shows that most of the SOC content of these subalpine grazed grassland soils
551 was contained in the stable MAOM fraction. As expected, the most labile C pools (WEOC
552 and freePOM) showed a high intra-annual dynamics (amounts and chemistry) mediated via
553 the seasonal changes of fresh plant debris inputs and confirming their high contribution to the
554 microbial loop. The amount of OM occluded into soil macro-aggregates was constant between
555 seasons and sites, whereas its chemistry changed. Such results confirmed the relatively short
556 turnover time of soil macro-aggregates and suggest an effect of the climate change
557 manipulation on soil macro-aggregate dynamics. Four years of reduced precipitation and
558 higher mean annual temperature led to a decrease of total SOC concentration due to a
559 decrease of SOC content in the MAOM fraction. The combined effects of the reduction in
560 plants inputs, roots biomass, microbial biomass and activity could have led to change the soil
561 structure and its resistance to climate events. The decrease in clay content and the increase in
562 DOC leaching under climate change manipulation support the hypothesis of C-losses from
563 MAOM fraction through clay-SOM washing out and DOC leaching in this subalpine
564 grassland. We ask for more studies to understand possible environmental cascade reactions
565 impacting the soil carbon cycle under a warming world. Our results highlight the importance
566 of (i) quantifying the seasonal dynamics of labile SOM pools and (ii) considering SOM
567 outputs linked with processes such as erosion or C-leaching so as to understand the fate of soil
568 carbon change under climate change.

569

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571

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584

585

586

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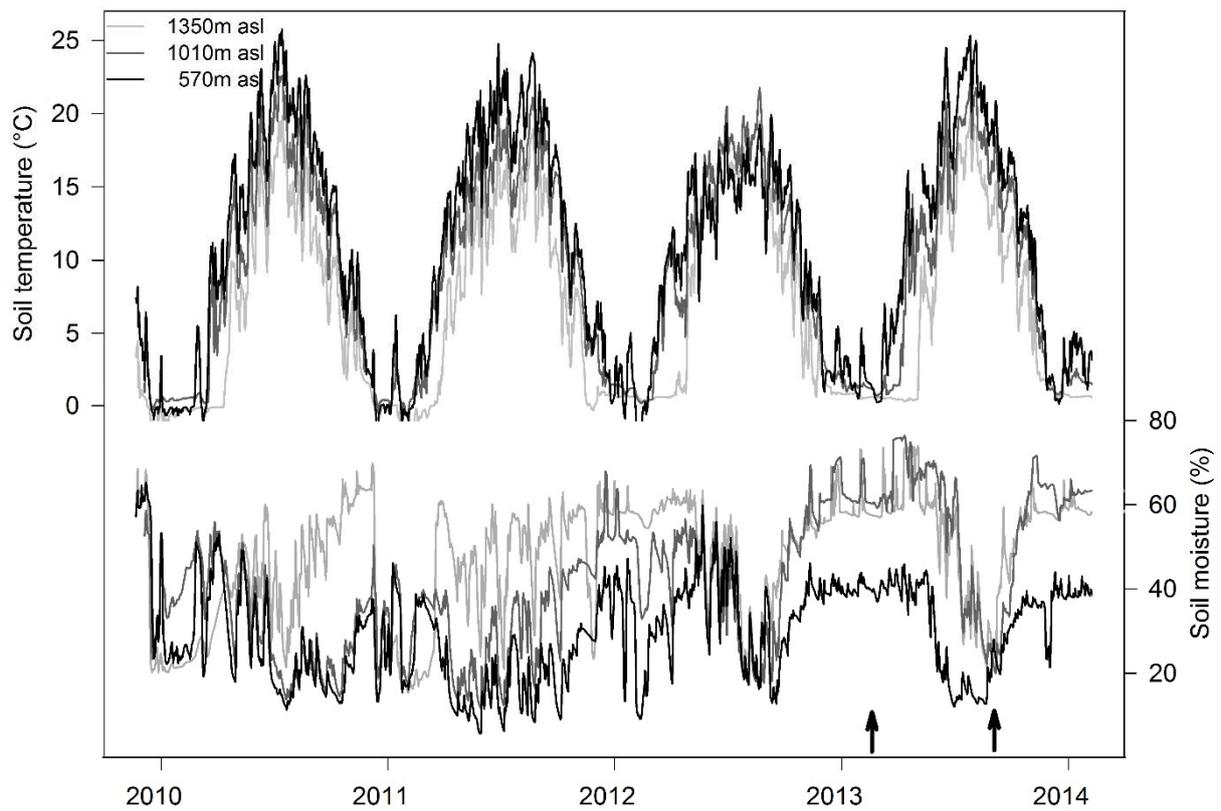
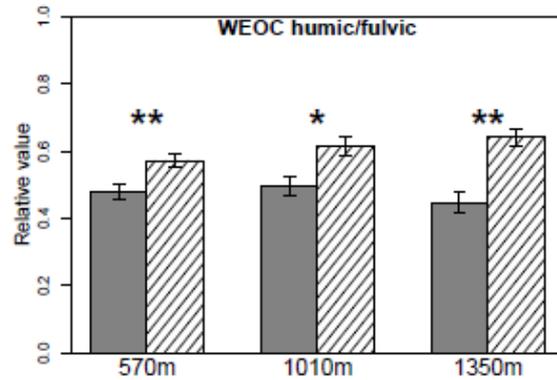
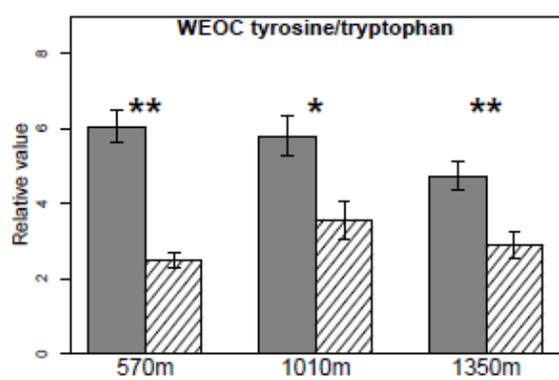
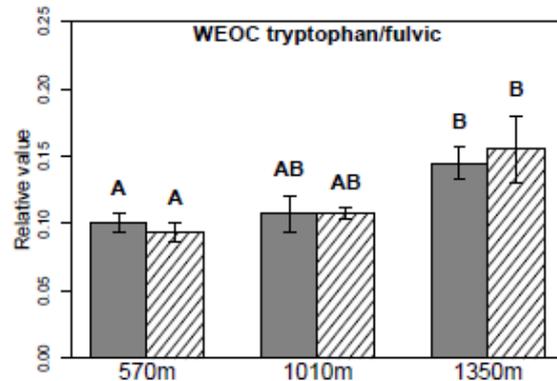
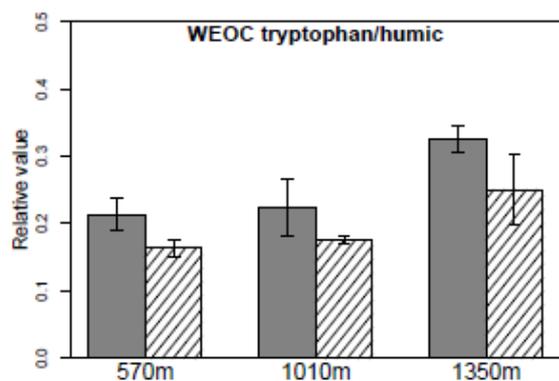
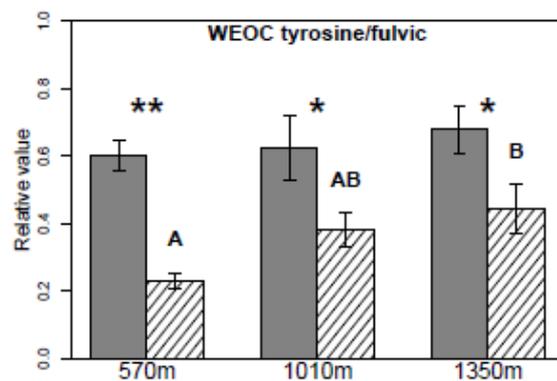
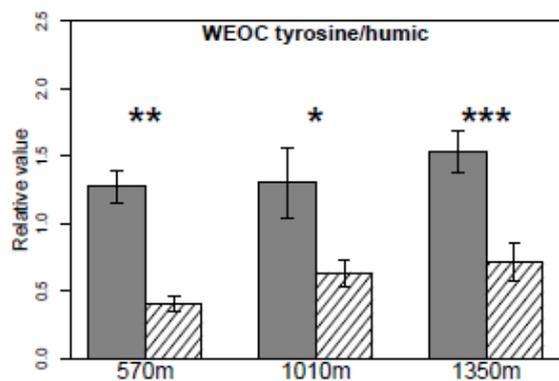
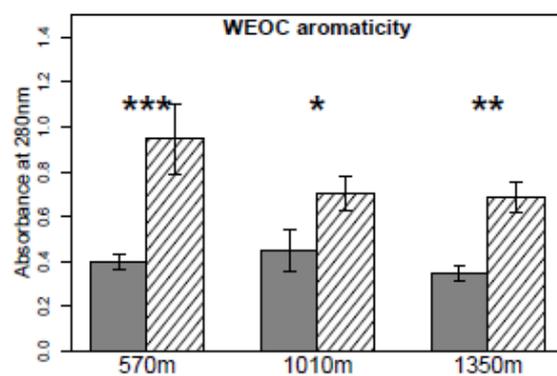
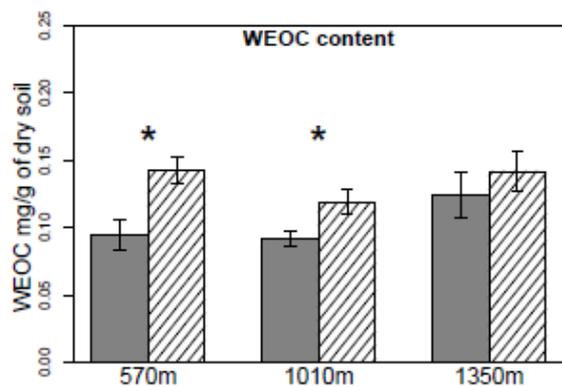


Fig.1. Daily mean soil temperature and moisture of soil mesocosms at each site from the beginning of the experiment (2009) to the year 2014. Control site (1350 m a.s.l.) in light grey line intermediate site (1010 m a.s.l.) in grey line; lowest site (570 m a.s.l.) in dark line. The two black arrows indicate the winter and summer dates of soil sampling in 2013.



■ winter 2013 ▨ summer 2013

Fig.2. Water extractable organic carbon (WEOC) abundance and chemistry (UV absorbance and fluorescence). Protein-like fluorophores for tyrosine, tryptophane, fulvic and humic compounds were simulated (see methods). Control site (1350 m a.s.l.); intermediate recipient site (1010 m a.s.l.); lowest recipient site (570 m a.s.l.). Asterisk symbols indicate significant differences between winter and summer season at each site (* for $p < 0.05$, ** for $p < 0.01$; *** for $p < 0.001$). Uppercase letters indicate significant differences between transplantation sites (climate manipulation) at each sampling date (season) ($p < 0.05$, climate manipulation effect)

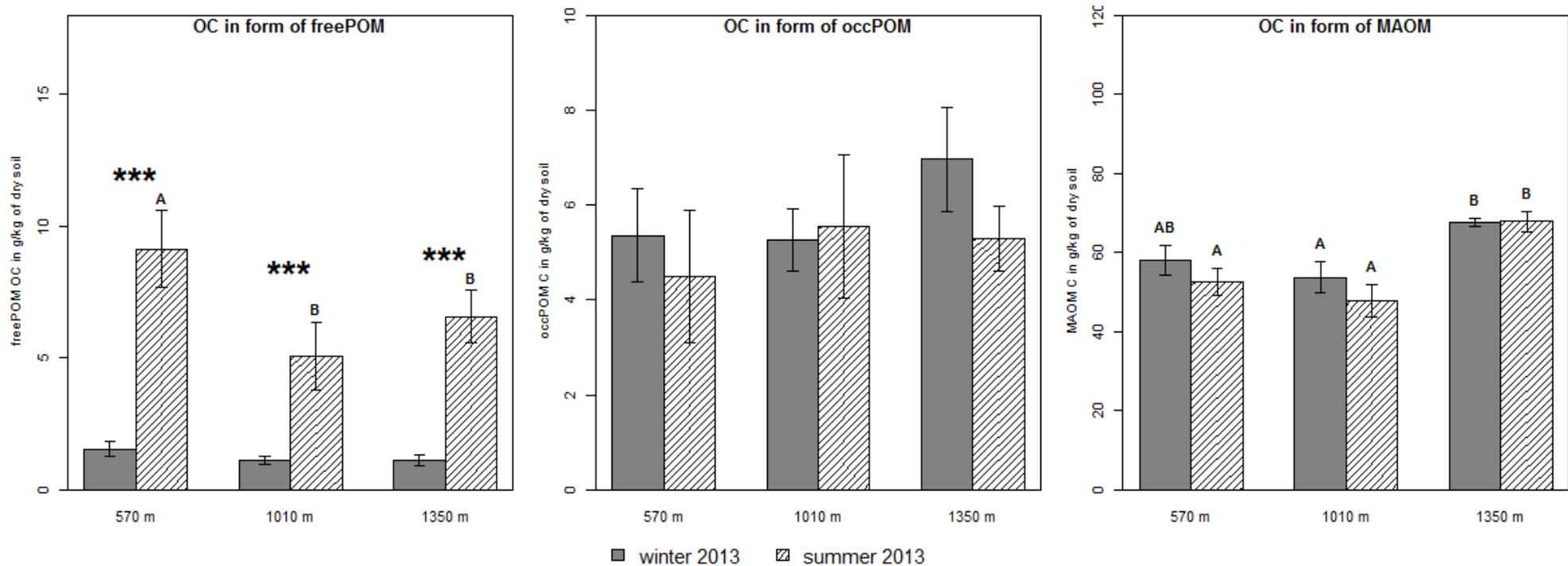


Fig.3. Contribution of freePOM, occPOM and MAOM SOC fractions to bulk soil (gC / kg dry bulk soil). Control site (1350 m a.s.l.); intermediate site (1010 m a.s.l.); lowest site (570 m a.s.l.). Post hoc HSD tests are represented with different bold letters to indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$). Uppercase letters indicate significant differences between transplantation sites for each sampling date (winter or summer). Asterisk symbols indicate significant differences between winter and summer season at each site (* for $p < 0.05$, ** for $p < 0.01$; *** for $p < 0.001$)

Sampling dates		Winter			Summer		
		(February 20 th , 2013)			(September 2 nd , 2013)		
Site	m a.s.l.	570	1010	1350	570	1010	1350
Soil moisture	%	43 ± 2A	44 ± 2A	50 ± 2A	21 ± 1B a	26 ± 2B a	33 ± 1B b
Soil temperature	°C	1,2 ± 0,4A	1,2 ± 0,2A	0,6 ± 0,2A	18,4 ± 0,4B a	16,1 ± 0,1B b	13,2 ± 0,2B c
pH	-	5,7 ± 0,2A	5,9 ± 0,2	5,7 ± 0	5,4 ± 0,2B	5,7 ± 0,2	5,6 ± 0,1
Calcareous	g.kg ⁻¹	2,6 ± 0,2	2,2 ± 0,2	2,2 ± 0,4	3,6 ± 1,1	2,4 ± 0,2	1,8 ± 0,2
CEC	cmol.kg ⁻¹	33,9 ± 3,7A	32,2 ± 4,5	38,4 ± 1,5	26,2 ± 2,3B	29 ± 4	36,6 ± 1,7
SOC	g.kg ⁻¹	66,5 ± 4,3ab	60,7 ± 4,6b	77,5 ± 2,1a	69,8 ± 6,7a	57,2 ± 5,3a	81,1 ± 4,1b
Soil total nitrogen	g.kg ⁻¹	6,1 ± 0,4ab	5,7 ± 0,5a	7,4 ± 0,2b	5,8 ± 0,4a	5,2 ± 0,5a	7,5 ± 0,4b
C/N		10,8 ± 0,2	10,7 ± 0,2	10,5 ± 0,1	12 ± 0,8	10,9 ± 0,2	10,8 ± 0,1
Clay	g.kg ⁻¹		-		445 ± 40ab	402 ± 22a	526 ± 9b
Silt	g.kg ⁻¹		-		280 ± 16	283 ± 14	291 ± 6
Sand	g.kg ⁻¹		-		275 ± 56	315 ± 30	182 ± 10

Table 1: Basic soil characteristics for winter and summer sampling dates in the experimental sites. The highest elevated site (1350 m a.s.l.) corresponds to the control site, and the two sites at 1010 and 570 m a.s.l. to the transplanted recipient sites. Values represent the mean (n=5) with the associated standard error (SE). Post hoc HSD tests are only represented with different bold letters to indicate significant differences (p<0.05). Uppercase letters indicate significant differences between sampling dates (winter/summer) at each site. Lowercase letters indicate significant differences between sites (manipulation effect) at each sampling date.

Sampling dates	Winter			Summer		
	(February 20 th 2013)			(September 2 nd 2013)		
Site (meters)	570	1010	1350	570	1010	1350
OC content (g.kg of dry fraction)						
free POM	267 ± 14a	285 ± 15	309 ± 14A	243 ± 11	256 ± 6	256 ± 4B
occluded POM	329 ± 6b A	294 ± 8A	307 ± 8A	258 ± 3B	247 ± 18B	231 ± 11B
C/N						
free POM	19 ± 1a	19 ± 2a	19 ± 1a	19 ± 1a	20 ± 1a	19 ± 1a
occluded POM	18 ± 0a	18 ± 1a	18 ± 0a	17 ± 0a	18 ± 1b	18 ± 0a
MAOM	10 ± 0c	10 ± 0c	10 ± 0c	10 ± 0c	10 ± 0c	10 ± 0c
HI index (humification)						
free POM	6.1 ± 0.2	6.5 ± 1	7 ± 0.6	5.4 ± 0.3a	6.2 ± 0.5a	5.7 ± 0.2
occluded POM	6 ± 0.3	6.1 ± 0.6A	5.6 ± 0.6	8.1 ± 0.9b	8.7 ± 0.8b B	7 ± 0.5
C=O/SOC (oxidation)						
free POM	9.8 ± 0.9A α	12.8 ± 2.9a αβ	18.8 ± 2.7a A β	4.7 ± 0.9B	7.6 ± 1.6	7.4 ± 0.6B
occluded POM	7.3 ± 0.9	6.1 ± 0.7b	5.9 ± 1.2b	6.8 ± 1	7.4 ± 1.1	5.9 ± 0.7
C=C/SOC (aromaticity)						
free POM	3.3 ± 0.4	2.7 ± 0.6	1.7 ± 0.6A	3.3 ± 0.2	3.5 ± 0.5	3.9 ± 0.2B
occluded POM	3.1 ± 0.3	2.9 ± 0.3	3.9 ± 0.3b	3 ± 0.4	3.2 ± 0.7	3.6 ± 0.2
MI Index (maturation)						
free POM	2.5 ± 0.4	2.1 ± 0.6a	1 ± 0.5aA	4.3 ± 0.7	3.3 ± 0.6	3.5 ± 0.2B
occluded POM	3 ± 0.4	3.3 ± 0.5b	4.2 ± 0.5b	3.2 ± 0.6	3.1 ± 0.8	3.9 ± 0.5
PI index (polysaccharide content)						
free POM	8.5 ± 0.4	7.6 ± 0.7	9.8 ± 0.8	8 ± 0.2	9.5 ± 0.9	9.5 ± 0.3
occluded POM	8.2 ± 0.3	8 ± 0.7	8.1 ± 0.6A	8.5 ± 0.4	9.5 ± 0.6	10 ± 0.6B
CI Index (condensation)						
free POM	6.3 ± 1.5	10.9 ± 4.6	15.6 ± 3.1a A	3.3 ± 0.7a	6 ± 0.9a	4.1 ± 0.5a B
occluded POM	2.5 ± 0.8A	5 ± 1.4A	3.1 ± 0.8b A	12 ± 1.6b B	18.5 ± 5.9b B	13.6 ± 2.8b B
Alkyl-C/Alkyl-O (microbial transformation)						
free POM	7.2 ± 0.7	7.6 ± 0.1A	7.1 ± 0.2	6.7 ± 0.4a	6.6 ± 0.4a B	6 ± 0.2
occluded POM	7.3 ± 0.3A	7.6 ± 0.1	6.9 ± 0.4	9.6 ± 1.2b B	9.2 ± 1.2b	7 ± 0.3

Table 2: Chemical characteristics of freePOM, occPOM and MAOM

fractions of SOC. Organic content of the fractions expressed in g Kg⁻¹ of SOC, CN ratios and proxies of POM bulk chemistry calculated from MIR analysis are given. Mean values (n=5) with the associated standard error (SE) are given. Post hoc HSD tests are represented with different bold letters to indicate significant differences (p<0.05). Uppercase letters indicate significant differences between sampling dates (winter/summer) at each site and for each fraction. Lowercase letters indicate significant differences between fractions at each sampling date and site. Greek letters indicate significant differences between transplantation sites

Sampling year	Biomass	Unity	Site			Comparison to control site (%)		Reference
			1350 m	1010 m	570 m	1010 m	570 m	
2010			416	375	295	-10	-29	Gavazov et al., 2013
2011	Aboveground		250	240	95	-4	-62	Gavazov et al., 2014b
2012		<i>g.m²</i>	233	368	414	58	78	Gavazov 2013
2014			426	561	505	32	19	<i>unpublished</i>
2014	Belowground		1890	967	751	-49	-60	<i>unpublished</i>

Table 3: Mean aboveground and belowground biomass (g.m²) per year at each transplanted site.

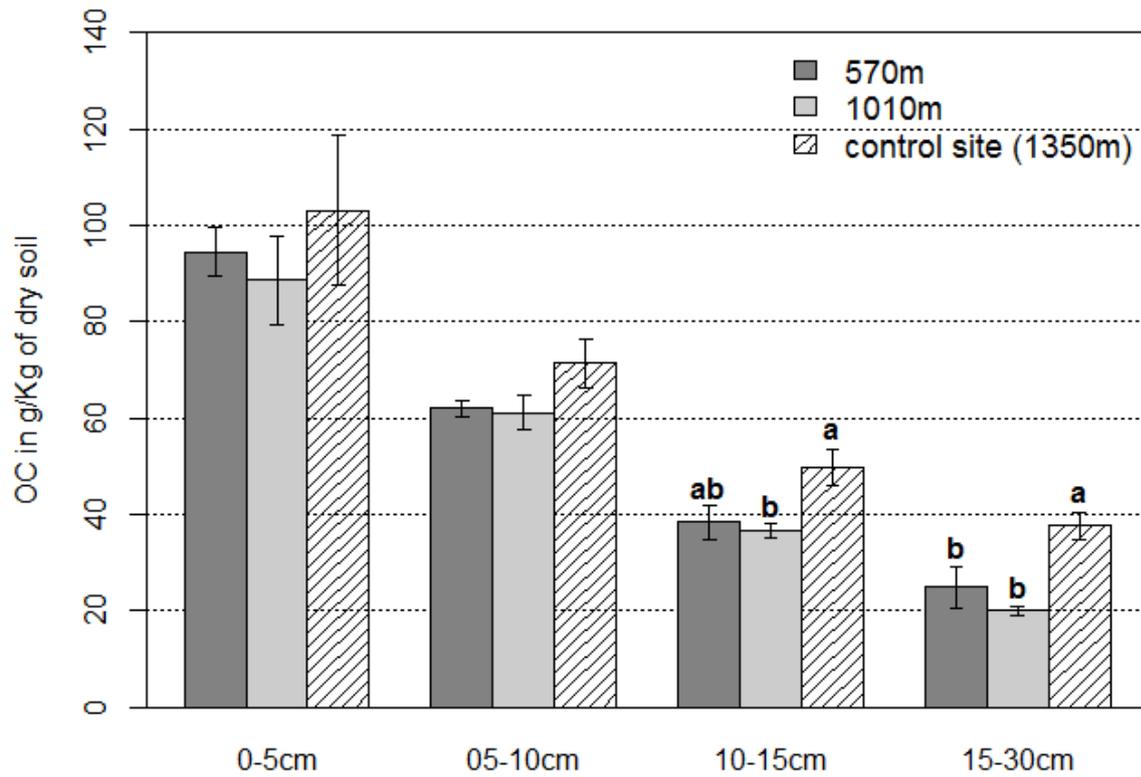


Figure S1. Soil organic carbon content for the four soil depths sampled in summer 2014. Error bars represent the standard errors of the mean values ($n = 5$). Lower case letters indicate significant differences between transplantation sites (climate manipulation) at each soil depth.

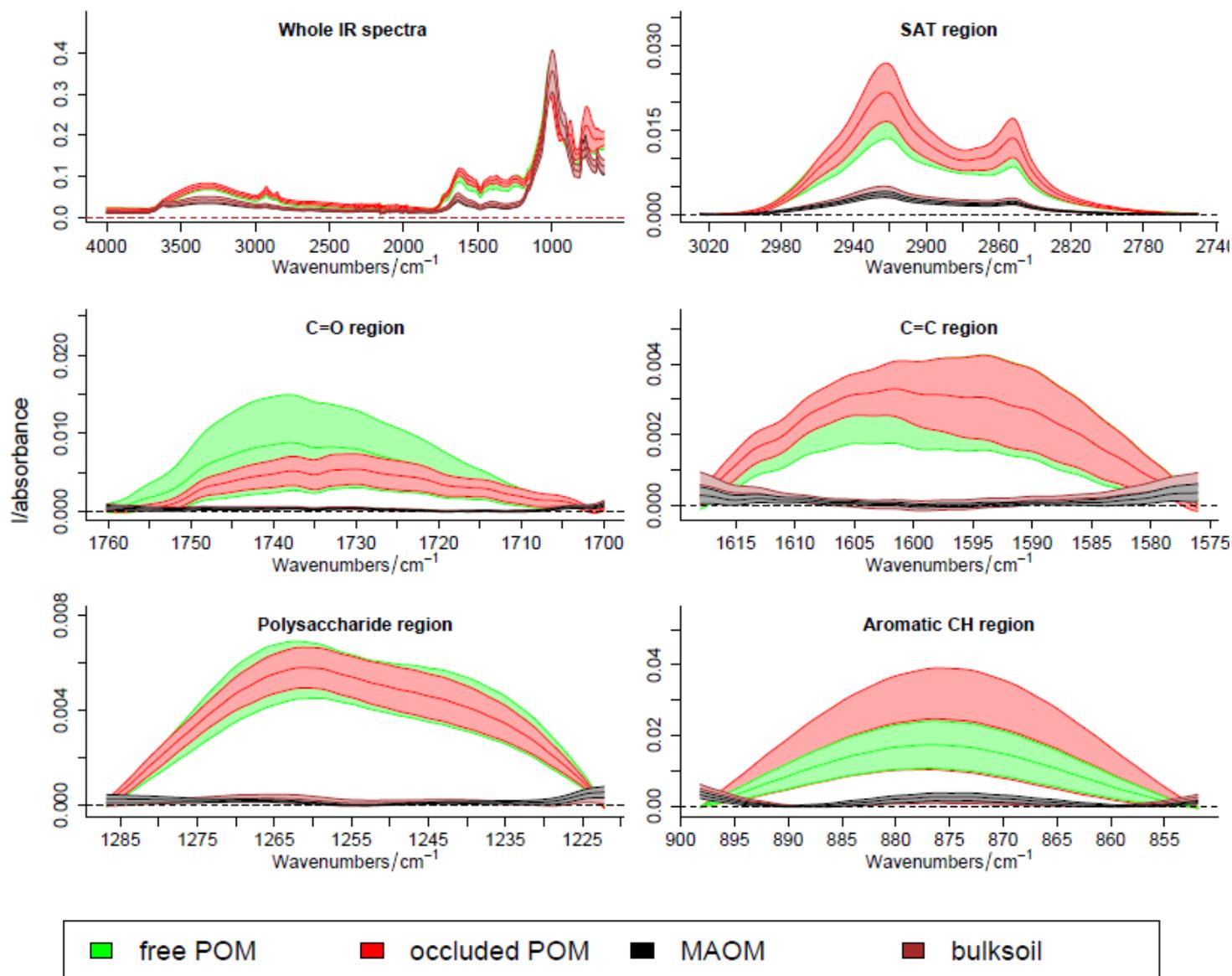


Figure S2. Spectral regions of mid-infrared spectroscopy selected for building specific C functional indices. The whole spectra chart indicates a highly different IR signal between POM fractions (free and occluded) and both MAOM fraction and bulk soil.

Mixed models and P values	F	season		site		fraction		season:site		season:fraction		site:fraction	
		F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
IR indices (freePOM and occPOM)													
HI		3.96	0.07	0.43	0.66	5.15	*	0.77	0.49	20.50	***	1.92	0.17
C=O/SOC		19.38	***	0.59	0.57	22.93	***	1.49	0.26	28.26	***	9.64	***
C=C/SOC		3.89	0.07	0.08	0.92	2.46	0.13	1.45	0.27	13.98	**	7.35	**
MI		12.54	**	0.12	0.89	12.54	**	0.62	0.55	25.27	***	10.39	***
PI		9.63	**	1.58	0.25	0.21	0.65	3.67	0.06	2.83	0.11	0.87	0.43
CI		7.43	*	1.66	0.23	0.05	0.83	0.93	0.42	48.55	***	0.91	0.42
Alkyl-C/Alkyl-O		0.07	0.78	3.33	0.07	15.95	***	2.76	0.08	29.13	***	1.53	0.23
3D fluorescence indices (WEOC)													
Tyrosine/Humic		94.70	***	1.64	0.24	---	---	2.28	0.14	---	---	---	---
Tyrosine /Fulvic		49.70	***	3.03	0.09	---	---	3.49	0.07	---	---	---	---
Tryptophane/ Humic		7.90	*	6.00	*	---	---	0.20	0.80	---	---	---	---
Tryptophane / Fulvic		0.00	0.99	11.03	**	---	---	0.24	0.79	---	---	---	---
Tyrosine / Tryptophane		76.14	***	1.80	0.20	---	---	3.20	0.07	---	---	---	---
Humic / Fulvic		70.03	***	0.30	0.74	---	---	3.54	0.06	---	---	---	---

Supplementary Table 1: Effects of sampling date, climate manipulation, fraction and interactions of these three factors on C-POM and WEOC bulk chemistry. Definition of the IR indices: (1) SAT/SOC = hydrophobicity index (SAT = saturated hydrocarbons = Alkyl C, and SOC = soil organic carbon content); (2) C=O/SOC (index of oxidation);

(3) C=C/SOC (aromaticity index); (4) MI = C=C/UNSAT (maturation index) (5) POLY/SOC (polysaccharide content); (6) AROCH/C=C (condensation index = degree of condensation of aromatics), (7) SAT/POLY to estimate the Alkyl-C/Alkyl-O. Definition of the 3D Fluorescence indices: Tyrosine-like ($\lambda_{exc}/\lambda_{emi}$: 235/310), tryptophane-like (235;295 / 350), fulvic-like (235;295;310 /410) and humic-like (295; 310 /480) compounds. *Significance codes for ANOVA's are (***) $p < 0.001$; (**) $p < 0.01$; (*) $p < 0.05$.*