1	Arbuscular mycorrhizas in phosphate-polluted soil:
2	interrelations between root colonization and nitrogen
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40 Abstract

Aims: To investigate whether arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) – abundant in a
phosphate-polluted but nitrogen-poor field site – improve plant N nutrition, we carried out a
two-factorial experiment, including N fertilization and fungicide treatment.

Methods: Percentage of root length colonized (% RLC) by AMF and tissue element
concentrations were determined for four resident plant species. Furthermore, soil nutrient
levels and N effects on aboveground biomass of individual species were measured.

47 Results: Nitrogen fertilization lowered % RLC by AMF of Artemisia vulgaris L., Picris 48 hieracioides L. and Poa compressa L., but not of Bromus japonicus Thunb. This – together 49 with positive N addition effects on N status, N:P-ratio and aboveground biomass of most 50 species – suggested that plants are mycorrhizal because of N deficiency. Fungicide treatment, 51 which reduced % RLC in all species, resulted in lower N concentrations in A. vulgaris and 52 P. hieracioides, a higher N concentration in P. compressa, and did not consistently affect 53 Nextee S D is a status.

53 N status of *B. japonicus*.

54 Conclusions: Evidently, AMF had an influence on the N nutrition of plants in this P-rich soil;
55 however – potentially due to differences in their mycorrhizal responsiveness – not all species
56 seemed to benefit from a mycorrhiza-mediated N uptake and accordingly, N distribution.

57

58 Keywords

arbuscular mycorrhiza, Benomyl, element concentrations, nitrogen fertilization, phosphatepollution, root colonization

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62 Abbreviations

63 AM = arbuscular mycorrhiza

64 AMF = arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi

65 % RLC = percentage of root length colonized

67 Introduction

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Arbuscular mycorrhizas (AM) are generally considered to be mutualistic symbioses: The 69 70 fungus supplies its host plant with nutrients, in particular phosphorus, and in return for this 71 receives carbohydrates (Smith and Read 2008). For establishment and functioning of the 72 symbiosis, the nutritional status of the host is important as roots of phosphorus- as well as 73 nitrogen-deficient plants release more exudates into the soil than those of non-deficient plants, 74 which stimulates root colonization by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) (Schwab et al. 75 1991; Harrison 2005; Yoneyama et al. 2007). Further on, a low plant nutrient status positively 76 affects carbon allocation to the fungus within the root (Olsson et al. 2002; Olsson et al. 2005), 77 which in turn increases nutrient uptake by the fungus and transfer to the host (Bücking and 78 Shachar-Hill 2005).

79 Thus, root colonization by AMF, often quantified as percentage of root length colonized 80 (% RLC), usually decreases after nutrient addition; this has frequently been shown for 81 P fertilization, after which plants allocate less C to the fungi (e.g. Daft and Nicolson 1969; 82 Sanders and Tinker 1973; Olsson et al. 2010), and was also found for N fertilization 83 (Chambers et al. 1980; Jensen and Jakobsen 1980; Olsson et al. 2005). However, % RLC may 84 remain high or even increase after fertilization, if a nutrient other than the one added is 85 limiting plant performance. The importance of relative availabilities of N and P in regulating 86 the symbiosis has been demonstrated by showing that root colonization was reduced only 87 when both elements were available in sufficient concentrations for the plants (Sylvia and Neal 88 1990; Johnson et al. 2003; Blanke et al. 2005), because not until then was belowground 89 carbon allocation in plants reduced (Treseder and Allen 2002; Johnson et al. 2010).

Although AMF have been shown to take up and transfer significant amounts of nitrogen to
plants (Govindarajulu et al. 2005; Tian et al. 2010), reports about fungal effects on plant
N status are controversial: In some greenhouse studies, mycorrhizal plants had higher N levels

than non-mycorrhizal plants (e.g. Frey and Schüepp 1993; Tobar et al. 1994; Leigh et al.
2009) but not in others (Hawkins and George 1999; Hawkins et al. 2000). Field studies are
considerably less frequent, but similarly, reductions of AMF abundance by fungicide
treatments have been found to decrease (Dhillion and Gadsjord 2004), increase (Karanika et
al. 2008) or not to change plant N concentrations (Grogan and Chapin 2000).

98 Cost-benefit analyses for natural communities are more complex: Influences of AMF on 99 plants may differ from those found in experiments using single species, since there might be 100 density- or species-dependent effects (Hart et al. 2003). As plant species vary in their 101 mycorrhizal responsiveness (sensu Janos 2007; see also Hetrick et al. 1992; van der Heijden 102 2002; but note that various terms were used in the cited literature), AM can influence 103 interspecific competition by differently affecting individual plant species (Francis and Read 104 1995; Moora and Zobel 1996; Wilson and Hartnett 1998; Hartnett and Wilson 1999; Hart et 105 al. 2003; Scheublin et al. 2007; Cameron 2010). Plant responsiveness to AM has been found 106 to vary between taxonomic groups (Francis and Read 1995), with life history traits (Wilson 107 and Hartnett 1998), and with root system architecture (e.g. Baylis 1975; Newsham et al. 108 1995).

109 In the present study, we investigated the interrelation between % RLC by AMF and 110 N concentration of several plant species growing at a site that had been polluted by emissions 111 of phosphate fertilizer production, and thus, is characterized by exceptionally high 112 phosphorus levels. Therefore, plants should be abundantly supplied with P, without recourse 113 to mycorrhizas. Nevertheless, most species at the site are strongly colonized by AMF, 114 although fungal diversity is low compared to similar but unpolluted field sites within the same 115 region (Renker et al. 2005). In a previous N fertilization experiment, we found evidence that 116 root colonization of the resident plant Artemisia vulgaris was positively correlated with the 117 degree of nitrogen deficiency (Blanke et al. 2005). In this extended follow-up study, we used

- 118 four resident plant species and combined N fertilization with application of the fungicide
- 119 Benomyl in a full factorial design to address the following two questions:
- 120 (1) Do well-developed arbuscular mycorrhizas suppressed by the fungicide actually
- 121 improve plant N status at the field site?
- 122 (2) Do the four plant species two forbs and two grasses react similarly to fertilization and
- 123 fungicide application or are there species-specific differences?
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127 Field site

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129 The Steudnitz field site, a south-east facing calcareous slope with thin-layered rendzina soil, 130 located 13 km north of Jena (Thuringia, Germany) on the western side of the Saale River 131 Valley (51°01' N, 11°41' E), was exposed to emissions of a nearby phosphate fertilizer 132 factory from 1960 to 1990. Alkaline dust deposition strongly enriched the site's topsoil with 133 phosphorus, sodium, calcium, cadmium and fluorine, and caused soil pH to increase up to 10. 134 As a result, the slope was largely devoid of vegetation from ca. 1980 onwards, and most 135 nitrogen was lost from the ecosystem, resulting in a low soil nitrogen level (0.1-0.2%), which 136 has persisted to the time of this study. (Metzner et al. 1997; Heinrich et al. 2001; Blanke et al. 137 2005; Held and Baldwin 2005)

138 After decommissioning of the factory in 1990, ecosystem regeneration set in very quickly 139 (Heinrich et al. 2001). Within a few years, the main contaminants were either leached out (Na, 140 F) or immobilized (Cd) due to the high regular pH (~ 8) of the calcareous soil (Langer and Günther 2001; Wagner 2004a). However, total soil P (up to 120 g kg⁻¹; Metzner et al. 1997; 141 142 Langer and Günther 2001) and P availability (CAL (calcium-acetate-lactate)-method; 4 to 12 g kg⁻¹ soil; Wagner 2004a; Blanke et al. 2005; Held and Baldwin 2005) were still 143 144 markedly raised at the time of this study. Vegetation by then had become relatively diverse, 145 consisting of ca. 60 species, mostly ruderal herbs and grasses, with woody plants only slowly 146 gaining ground (Wagner et al. 2006). For a more detailed review of the regeneration of this 147 ecosystem see Blanke et al. (2007).

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149 Experimental design

151 To investigate the influence of plant nitrogen status on the percentage of root length colonized by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and vice versa, we carried out a two-factorial experiment 152 153 combining N fertilization and fungicide application. In 2000, six experimental blocks had 154 been set up (Wagner 2004b), each containing an unfertilized control plot (-N plots) and an N-fertilized plot (+N plots) with plot sizes of 2 m x 2 m. Every year +N plots received 155 8.5 g N m⁻², applied in March in form of slow-release pellets containing ammonium nitrate 156 (OsmocoteTM). In 2004, each plot was divided into two subplots of 1 m x 2 m and from March 157 158 onwards, one of them was treated biweekly with the fungicide Benomyl (Methyl 1-159 (butylcarbamoyl)-2-benzimidazole carbamate; Benlate, DuPont Iberica, Barcelona, Spain), applied as a soil drench (-N+B and +N+B subplots). For application to 1 m^2 , 3 g Benomyl 160 161 (active ingredient) were dissolved in 5 litres water (slightly modified from Smith et al. 1999; 162 Grogan and Chapin 2000). Untreated subplots (-N-B or +N-B) received the same amount of 163 water to prevent confounding of fungicide and moisture effects.

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165 Soil parameters

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In June 2004, 20 soil cores of 2 cm diameter and 10 cm depth were taken in each subplot,
pooled and air-dried. Samples were analyzed according to DIN (Deutsches Institut für
Normung)- and TGL (Technische Güte- und Liefervorschriften)-instructions (VDLUFA
1991). Total concentrations of P, Na, K, Mg, Ca and Cd were determined from an aqua regia
digestion and total N according to Hendershot (1985). Soil acidity (pH) was measured in H₂O.

173 Plant material

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175 Concurrent with the soil cores, we collected samples from four plant species, *Artemisia*176 *vulgaris* L. (Asteraceae, perennial hemicryptophyte), *Picris hieracioides* L. (Asteraceae,

177 biennial hemicryptophyte), Poa compressa L. (Poaceae, perennial hemicryptophyte) and 178 **Bromus** *japonicus* Thunb. (Poaceae, annual; Schmeil and Fitschen 1993: 179 http://www.ecoflora.co.uk/), to determine tissue element concentrations and % RLC by AMF. 180 Two individuals per species were sampled in each subplot. Aboveground plant parts for 181 element analyses – complete shoots of *P. compressa* and *B. japonicus* and pooled samples 182 consisting of one basal, one intermediate and one apical leaf of A. vulgaris and 183 *P. hieracioides* – were washed with tap water and stored at -80°C. Root systems were fixed in 184 FAA (formaldehyde-acetic-acid: 6.0% formaldehyde, 2.3% glacial acetic acid, 45.8% ethanol, 185 45.9% H₂O (v/v)) for determination of % RLC (Schmitz et al. 1991).

As fine roots, where AMF are active and were examined, are short-lived (<1 year, Hodge et al. 2009), we can assume that regardless of plant phenology, most of them – and accordingly colonization by AMF – were newly formed during the experiment, which started in the beginning of the growing season. This is important, because Benomyl inhibits fungal cell division and growth (Kahiluoto and Vestberg 2000), but does not kill fungi already present. Moreover, arbuscules – sites of nutrient transfer to the plant – have a short turnover time (around one week, Smith and Read 2008), which means that their growth was surely affected.

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194 Percentage of root length colonized by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi

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For staining of fungal structures, fixed roots were incubated in 10% KOH for 2 x 15 min. at
90°C, rinsed with tap water, acidified with 3.7% HCl for 10 min., and dyed in lactophenol
blue solution (Merck 113741) for 90 min. For decolourization of plant cells and storage, roots
were washed several times with and stored in 50% lactic acid (Phillips and Hayman 1970;
modified after Schmitz et al. 1991).

201 Percentage of RLC was determined with a Zeiss Axioplan light microscope using a magnified
202 intersections method (McGonigle et al. 1990; modified after Schmitz et al. 1991) and was

assessed separately for entire internal mycelium, arbuscules and vesicles. For each root
sample, a minimum of 300 fields of view were counted.

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206 Plant element concentrations

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208 Frozen plant samples were freeze-dried, weighed and finely ground in a pebble mill. To 209 determine N content, 2 mg subsamples of the homogenized material were analyzed with a 210 Carbon-Hydrogen-Nitrogen-Sulfur-Determinator (Type Leco CHNS-932). For а 211 determination of P, Na, K, Mg, Ca and Cd, 200 mg subsamples were digested in a microwave 212 autoclave (1200 mega, MLS, Leutkirch, Germany) using 6 ml HNO₃ and 4 ml H₂O₂, and 213 analyzed in an ICP-OES (Inductively Coupled Plasma with Optical Emission Spectrometer; 214 Type IRIS Intrepid, Thermo Elemental, Franklin, MA, USA) with CID (charge injection 215 device) semiconductor detectors.

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217 Biomass data

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Standing biomass of the vegetation at control and N-fertilized plots was determined annually from 2000 to 2003. Every July, plants from alternating 0.33 m² areas in each plot were cut at ground level, biomass was sorted to species and dried to constant weight at 80°C. Here, we only present data for *A. vulgaris*, *P. hieracioides*, *P. compressa* and *B. japonicus*.

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224 Data analyses

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Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 13.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA), R 2.1.0
(R Development Core Team 2005) or PASW 18 (IBM Corporation, Somers, NY, USA). Data
collected from the two individuals per plant species sampled in each subplot in 2004 were

229 averaged to avoid pseudoreplication, tested for normal distribution using the Kolmogorov-230 Smirnov test and for variance homogeneity with Levene tests. When necessary, data were 231 square-root or power transformed to achieve variance homogeneity. Linear mixed-effects 232 models (LMEs) with nitrogen fertilization and fungicide treatment as fixed factors and block 233 identity as random factor were fitted to assess nitrogen and fungicide effects on soil and plant 234 element concentrations and on % RLC. A subsequent ANOVA tested whether model terms 235 were significant. In case of a significant (P < 0.05) fungicide effect on plant N or P 236 concentrations, Spearman correlations were calculated between % RLC by arbuscules and the 237 respective element concentration in individual plants across all treatments. For significant 238 correlations regression curves were fitted with % arbuscules as independent variable and 239 tissue N concentration as dependent variable, followed by ANOVAs testing for model significance. Significant regression models with the highest R^2 were chosen to reflect the 240 241 relation between the respective data.

Biomass data of individual species collected yearly from 2000 to 2003 were tested for normal
distribution and variance homogeneity and power transformed to achieve the latter. Fertilizer
and time effects were assessed with LMEs (fixed factors: N fertilization and time, random
factor: block identity), followed by ANOVAs testing for model term significance.

247 **Results**

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249 Percentage of root length colonized by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi

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251 In A. vulgaris, P. compressa and P. hieracioides, N fertilization reduced % RLC by internal 252 mycelium, arbuscules and vesicles (Fig. 1a,b,c), with the reduction being significant except 253 for arbuscules in *P. hieracioides* (Table 1). By contrast, there was no N addition effect on 254 % RLC of Bromus japonicus (Fig. 1d; Table 1). Benomyl application decreased % RLC in all 255 four species, and in most cases (except of vesicles in B. japonicus), we found significant 256 interactions between fertilizer and fungicide addition, with Benomyl effects being smaller in 257 when N was added, and correspondingly, N effects being smaller when the fungicide was 258 applied (Fig. 1; Table 1).

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260 Plant element concentrations

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262 N concentrations in leaves of A. vulgaris were increased by N fertilization and decreased by 263 fungicide application (Fig. 2a; Table 1), and both treatments interacted to affect leaf P and 264 N:P (Table 2). In *P. hieracioides*, N addition significantly increased leaf N:P ratio (Table 2), 265 and fungicide application decreased leaf N (Fig. 2b; Table 1). P. compressa shoot N:P was 266 increased by N addition (Table 2), and shoot N was increased by fungicide application 267 (Fig. 2c; Table 1). P concentrations in this species were reduced by N fertilization and 268 increased by fungicide treatment (Table 2). We found no main treatment effects on N and P concentrations in *B. japonicus* (Table 1; Table 2); however, fertilization and fungicide 269 270 application interacted to affect shoot N (Fig. 2d; Table 1). For treatment effects on tissue 271 concentrations of K, Mg, Ca, Na and Cd see Online Resource 1.

272	In A. vulgaris, P hieraciodes and P. compressa % RLC by arbuscules was significantly
273	correlated to tissue N – positively in the two forbs (Fig. 3a,b) and negatively in the grass
274	(Fig. 3c). Shoot P in P. compressa did not show a significant correlation to arbuscule
275	frequency (Fig. 3d). Subsequent regression analyses indicated a significant dependency of
276	tissue N in these three species from % RLC by arbuscules across all treatments (Fig. 3a,b,c).
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278	Soil parameters
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280	N fertilization significantly increased soil N, whereas it did not affect P and pH (Table 3).
281	Fungicide application did not affect any soil parameter measured, neither on its own, nor in
282	interaction with fertilization.
283	Results from analyses of additional elements (K, Mg, Ca, Na and Cd) are listed in Online
284	Resource 2.
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299 Increased N availability at the P-rich Steudnitz field site led to a decrease in the percentage of 300 root length colonized by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi in Artemisia vulgaris, Picris 301 hieracioides and Poa compressa. This supports the hypothesis that plants at this site are 302 considerably colonized by AMF because of N deficiency, and that, when this is alleviated, 303 root colonization is reduced (Blanke et al. 2005). These results fit well with a model by 304 Treseder and Allen (2002) proposing that, as long as a plant is limited by either P or N, it 305 allocates carbon (C) to the fungi and in turn is provided with the limiting nutrient; when both 306 elements are sufficiently available, C allocation is decreased, which in turn reduces fungal 307 growth. Our results might as well be explained by an extension of the functional equilibrium 308 model (Brouwer 1983), i.e. that if belowground competition for nutrients is reduced, plants 309 allocate less C to roots, including mycorrhizas (Johnson et al. 2008).

310 The estimation that plants at the Steudnitz site are N-deficient is supported by comparatively 311 low tissue N concentrations (ca. 0.6%-1.8%) and particularly N:P-ratios (ca. 4-8) (see 312 Marschner 2002; Tessier and Raynal 2003; Güsewell 2004; for a more detailed discussion regarding tissue N and N:P and N limitation at the field site also see Blanke et al. 2005). 313 314 which increased following N-fertilization, as illustrated by leaf N in A. vulgaris and N:P ratios 315 in leaves of P. hieracioides and shoots of P. compressa. Also aboveground biomass of 316 A. vulgaris and P. hieracioides was higher in N-fertilized plots than in controls, which 317 furthermore suggests that N is limiting growth. This assumption is supported by missing 318 effects of additional nutrient treatments (NPK and micronutrients) in the original fertilizer 319 study (Wagner et al. 2004b, data not shown here). Biomass of P. compressa, by contrast, 320 reacted negatively to N fertilization, which is unexpected as N addition tends to favour 321 grasses at the expense of forbs (e.g. Tilman 1987; Bobbink 1991). In our case, the more 322 stress-tolerant P. compressa (SR/CSR strategist sensu Grime et al. 2007) may be less able to

translate increased nutrient supply into higher growth than *P. hieracioides* (R/CSR) or *A. vulgaris* (C/CR), and thus, be out-competed at higher N availability.

325

Benomyl application lowered % RLC by AMF in all four plant species. At the same time, it caused a reduction of leaf N in *A. vulgaris* and *P. hieracioides*, which may suggest that welldeveloped arbuscular mycorrhizas did improve the capability of these species to take up N.

329 Alternatively, Benomyl could have reduced leaf nitrogen levels via stimulation of plant 330 growth, which however was not observed in the field (V. Blanke, personal observation) and 331 the majority of Benomyl studies (e.g. Paul et al. 1989, West et al. 1993, Hartnett and Wilson 332 2002). Furthermore, such a dilution effect would only occur, if not all limiting nutrients were 333 supplied to the plant, i.e. if Benomyl addition alleviated another limiting factor without 334 supplying N. This seems to be very unlikely, as first, in our case the limiting nutrient clearly 335 was N and second, the only fertilization effect of Benomyl sporadically reported is that of N 336 (e.g. Kahiluoto and Vestberg 2000; Chen et al. 2001). Moreover, soil parameters were 337 unaffected by the fungicide treatment, and a direct N effect of Benomyl on plant 338 N concentrations would have resembled that of N fertilizer, which was not the case. Benomyl 339 effects on other fungi than AMF were not analyzed in this study. In the root samples largely 340 AMF structures were visible, so that these – and manipulations of their abundance – most 341 likely had stronger influences on plant performance than other intraradical fungi and 342 alterations in their abundance. Generally, fungicides may lead to an increase of bacteria at the 343 cost of fungi in soil and thus, to increased bacterial activity, N mineralization and N availability (Chen et al 2001). However, this hypothetic N fertilization effect of Benomyl 344 345 has already been excluded.

The assumption that fungicide effects on tissue N concentrations of *A. vulgaris* and *P. hieracioides* are due to reductions in % RLC by AMF is supported by significant positive correlations between leaf N and the frequency of arbuscules, the sites where nutrients are transferred from fungi to plants, and subsequent regressions of leaf N on % arbuscules. The non-linearity of regression curves and relatively low R^2 values are probably based on the fact that there is also an opposite influence of plant N status on root colonization, and that plant N nutrition is not a function of arbuscule frequency alone.

In contrast to leaf N of *A. vulgaris* and *P. hieracioides*, shoot N of *P. compressa* was positively affected by fungicide application, suggesting that AMF had a negative influence on N nutrition of this species. These findings would be consistent with those of van der Heijden et al. (2006) which indicated that total N in the biomass of co-occurring plants in microcosms was not affected by AMF, whereas the distribution of N among species was.

358 An explanation for the opposite response of plant N in different species to a reduction of root 359 colonization by AMF may be provided by possible differences in their mycorrhizal 360 responsiveness. Small, poorly branched root systems and thick roots are more responsive to 361 mycorrhizas, whereas extensive, strongly branched root systems and fine roots are better 362 adapted to direct nutrient uptake and thus less responsive in terms of nutrient aquisition 363 (Baylis 1975; Newsham et al. 1995). Wilson and Hartnett (1998) discovered a positive 364 correlation between responsiveness and root colonization and further, they assumed perennial 365 plants to be more reponsive than biennials or annuals, because they had to develop long term 366 strategies for nutrient competition, like carbon allocation to mycorrhizas, which would apply 367 competitive strategists in general. Correspondingly, they found species adapted to to 368 disturbed sites (i.e. ruderal strategists) to be less responsive. Such differences in mycorrhizal 369 responsiveness can influence competitive interactions within plant communities: more 370 responsive species should benefit more from the presence of AMF than less responsive 371 species, whereas the latter should be superior competitors for nutrients when none of the 372 plants can benefit from mycorrhizas (Moora and Zobel 1996; Hartnett and Wilson 1999; Smith et al. 1999; Scheublin et al. 2007; Stein et al. 2009). 373

374 The same may apply in our study: A. vulgaris and P. hieracioides were characterized by less 375 extensive root systems compared to P. compressa (V. Blanke, personal observation) and 376 strongly colonized by AMF in untreated plots, which suggests that they were more responsive 377 to the fungi. Correspondingly, the two forb species had higher leaf N concentrations in 378 untreated than in fungicide-treated subplots, indicating that they were better able to forage for 379 this nutrient when fully mycorrhizal. Leaf N i appeared to be more closely linked with 380 % RLC by arbuscules in A. vulgaris than in P. hieracioides, suggesting a higher mycorrhizal 381 responsiveness in the former species. This may be due to the perennial life history of 382 A. vulgaris, which is classified by Grime et al. (2007) as a competitive C/CR strategist, 383 whereas the biennial P. hieracioides is a more ruderal R/CSR strategist. P. compressa, another 384 perennial that as an SR/CSR strategist includes both stress-tolerant and ruderal traits in its life 385 history and that possesses the most extensive root system of all four investigated species, was 386 significantly less colonized by AMF under control conditions than the three other species (exact Friedmann-test for plants at untreated (-N-B) subplots; $\chi^2 = 15.8$, 15.0 and 13.8 for 387 388 internal mycelium, arbuscules and vesicles, respectively; in each case P < 0.001; followed by 389 Wilcoxon-tests for pairwise differences). This suggests a lower mycorrhizal responsiveness of 390 this species. Accordingly, shoot N of P. compressa was higher in fungicide-treated subplots, 391 indicating that this species may compete better for nitrogen in the absence of AMF.

It has also been proposed that nutrient transfer from plant to plant via mycorrhizal networks (see e.g. Simard et al. 2002) is directed from less to more responsive species (van der Heijden 2002; Wilson et al. 2006). In this case, nitrogen might have been transferred from *P. compressa* to more responsive species, such as *A. vulgaris* and *P. hieracioides*. Thus, *P. compressa* may have benefited from a destruction of mycorrhizal networks by Benomyl and retained more N. As in the two forb species, tissue N of *P. compressa* was significantly correlated to % RLC by arbuscules – in this case negatively – and shoot N was a regression function of arbuscule frequency, which might indicate that this species is indeed losing N viamycorrhizal networks.

401 If, as in our field site, % RLC by AMF is reduced by N fertilization, species with a low 402 mycorrhizal responsiveness - which often are nitrophilic and tend to allocate relatively more 403 C above- instead of below-ground (Johnson et al. 2008) – should be at an advantage. In this 404 study, however, aboveground biomass of the presumably more responsive species A. vulgaris 405 and P. hieracioides was increased by N fertilization, whereas that of less responsive 406 P. compressa was decreased. Thus, although AM appeared to be important for N nutrition of 407 some plant species, they did not appear to be the driving force behind the observed shifts in 408 plant community composition following N addition, whose main effects on plant performance 409 appear to have been more direct.

410

411 Bromus japonicus was strongly colonized by AMF in spite of its fine, graminoid root system. 412 However, % RLC as well as tissue N did not respond to N fertilization, and there was no clear 413 response in plant N concentration to reduction of mycorrhizal root colonization by the 414 fungicide. This suggests that for *B. japonicus*, N limitation might not be the central reason for 415 investing in mycorrhizas, and that AMF do not contribute to N nutrition of this species at our 416 site. Evidence for a less important role of N limitation for the performance of *B. japonicus* is 417 also provided by the absence of a consistent N fertilization effect on aboveground biomass in 418 several years. This may be due to the recurring need of this annual, ruderal (R/CR-strategist, 419 K. Stephan, unpublished data, according to Hodgson et al. 1999) species to establish from 420 seed, with establishment success likely depending on factors other than nitrogen availability, 421 such as drought stress, tolerance of which may be increased by mycorrhizal root colonization 422 (Al-Karaki 1998).

Soil analyses confirmed that P was still extremely high in 2004, with amounts between 70 and
80 g kg⁻¹ soil. N was still rather low, and it was slightly increased by N fertilization, while a
large part of added N seemed to have been directly taken up by plants.

427 When compared to soil P and standard values in literature, plant P concentrations in our study 428 were not particularly high, ranging from ca. 2100 to 4000 ppm in leaves of the two forbs and 429 from 1000 to 1800 ppm in shoots of the two grasses (Marschner 2002). An explanation for 430 this could be that plants may not take up much P under N-deficient conditions to avoid an 431 overly unbalanced N:P ratio. This would be in line with observations by Smith (1962), 432 showing that critical P concentrations in leaves drop with decreasing N concentrations; and 433 also with Tilman's resource ratio model (e.g. Tilman 1982), suggesting that plants take up 434 nutrients in proportions required, irrespective of the supply ratio.

Main treatment effects on tissue P were only obvious in *P. compressa*: P concentrations increased in response to fungicide application and decreased after N-addition. Elevated plant P through reduced % RLC may be due to the same mechanisms as hypothesized for N, although the correlation between shoot P and arbuscule frequency was not significant, and it is surprising that plant P levels in this P-rich soil were affected at all. We do not have an explanation for the decrease in shoot P of *P. compressa* following N fertilization.

441

442 Conclusions

443

Results of our study indicate that arbuscular mycorrhizas can indeed improve plant N nutrition in the field, and suggest that, under conditions where N is more limiting to plant growth than P, plant N status can in turn feed back on root colonization by AMF. At the same time it is shown that these findings cannot be generalized for all species, as the fungicide treatment had both positive and negative effects on plant N concentration. These speciesspecific differences might be due to variations in mycorrhizal responsiveness, with more 450 responsive species benefiting from high percentages of mycorrhizal root colonization, and 451 less responsive species being more successful when AMF abundance is reduced. However, 452 reduced root colonization following N fertilization at best appeared to have played only a 453 negligible role in the observed shifts in plant community composition.

454

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456

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654

Fig. 1 Percentage of root length colonized (% RLC) by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) for (a) *Artemisia vulgaris*, (b) *Picris hieracioides*, (c) *Poa compressa* and (d) *Bromus japonicus* in the different treatment combinations (averaged across blocks). % RLC is illustrated separately for internal mycelium, arbuscules and vesicles; means (n = 6) and standard errors of the mean shown. +N = N-fertilized plots, -N = unfertilized plots, +B = fungicide (Benomyl) treated subplots, -B = untreated subplots

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Fig. 2 Nitrogen concentration in leaves of (a) *Artemisia vulgaris* and (b) *Picris hieracioides*, and in shoots of (c) *Poa compressa* and (d) *Bromus japonicus* in the different treatment combinations (averaged across blocks). Means (n = 6) and standard errors of the mean shown. +N = N-fertilized plots, -N = unfertilized plots, +B = fungicide (Benomyl) treated subplots, -B = untreated subplots

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Fig. 3 Tissue N and P concentrations, significantly affected by Benomyl, plotted against the percentage of root length colonized (% RLC) by arbuscules in the respective plant species across all treatments. Spearman's rho correlation coefficients (ρ) and sample size (n) are given, plus regression curves (in case of a significant correlation, % RLC by arbuscules as independent variable and leaf or shoot N as dependent variable), R² and ANOVA *F*-statisctics testing for regression model significance. Asterisks indicate significance levels: * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001



Fig. 1

(created with MS excel and Irfan View)



Fig. 2

(created with MS excel and Irfan View)



Fig. 3

(created with MS excel and Irfan View)

F-statistics	internal mycelium (%)	arbuscules (%)	vesicles (%)	leaf N (%)
Artemisia vulgaris				
n	54.6 ***	35.5 **	44.3 **	7.3 *
b	133.0 ***	316.3 ***	92.0 ***	25.5 ***
n:b	15.7 **	27.3 ***	31.7 ***	1.7
Picris hieracioides				
n	14.8 *	4.2	8.7 *	3.2
b	79.4 ***	103.6 ***	29.9 ***	10.2 **
n:b	12.3 **	9.1 *	10.2 **	0.1
				shoot N (%)
Poa compressa				
n	14.2 *	9.7 *	9.0 *	3.5
b	42.2 ***	32.1 ***	39.8 ***	15.0 **
n:b	12.3 **	9.9 *	11.5 **	0.6
Bromus japonicus				
n	0.01	0.3	0.4	0.4
b	155.2 ***	146.5 ***	28.3 ***	1.8
n:b	7.9 *	7.3 *	1.7	7.6 *

nitrogen concentrations of Artemisia vulgaris, Picris hieracioides, Poa compressa and Bromus japonicus (depicted in Figs. 1 and 2)

Table 1 Statistical results for fertilizer and fungicide effects on percentages of root length colonized by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and on

ANOVA F-statistics following LMEs were used to test for significances of model terms, which are given as follows: n = N-fertilization factor,

b = Benomyl application factor, n:b = interaction factor. Asterisks indicate significance levels: * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001

Table 2 Tissue P concentrations and N:P-ratios of Artemisia vulgaris, Picris hieracioides, Poa compressa and Bromus japonicus for the different

tissue elements		-N-B mean	SEM	-N+B mean	SEM	+N-B mean	SEM	+N+B mean	SEM	n F=	b F=	n:b F=	
Artemisia vulgaris leaves													
F	0	(ppm)	2758	± 219	2129	± 101	2271	± 93	2604	± 231	0.001	1.1	11.8 **
1	I:P		6.52	± 0.48	6.83	± 0.31	8.05	± 0.42	6.56	± 0.45	1.6	3.6	8.5 *
Picris hieracioides leaves													
F	0	(ppm)	4063	± 300	3483	± 570	3381	± 197	3119	± 305	2.3	2.2	0.3
١	I:P		3.62	± 0.23	3.62	± 0.33	4.94	± 0.40	4.50	± 0.43	22.5 **	0.9	0.9
Poa compressa shoots		oressa S											
F	0	(ppm)	1230	± 48	1405	± 68	1083	±72	1310	± 55	6.8 *	18.7 **	0.3
1	N:P		4.57	± 0.10	6.12	± 0.57	6.82	± 0.41	7.13	± 0.94	11.7 *	3.8	1.7
Bromus japonicus shoots		ponicus S											
F	0	(ppm)	1563	± 54	1584	± 97	1790	± 124	1599	± 137	0.9	1.0	1.5
1	I:P		4.03	± 0.14	4.90	± 0.49	4.08	± 0.32	4.34	± 0.29	0.4	2.9	0.1

treatment combinations (averaged across blocks)

Element concentrations were determined for leaves of *A. vugaris* and *P. hieracioides* and for shoots of *P. compressa* and *B. japonicus*. Means (n = 6) and standard errors of the mean (SEM) shown. +N = N-fertilized plots, -N = unfertilized plots, +B = fungicide (Benomyl) treated subplots, -B = untreated subplots. ANOVA *F*-statistics following LMEs were used to test for significances of model terms, which are given as follows:

n = N-fertilization factor, b = Benomyl application factor, n:b = interaction factor. Asterisks indicate significance levels: * <math>P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01,

*** *P* < 0.001

soil parameters		-N-B mean	SEM	-N+B mean	SEM	+N-B mean	SEM	+N+B mean	SEM	n F=	b F=	n:b F=
Р	(g kg⁻¹)	73.1	± 6.8	80.1	± 9.4	78.2	± 7.3	78.5	± 6.6	0.1	0.5	0.4
Ν	(%)	0.19	± 0.011	0.17	± 0.007	0.20	± 0.007	0.20	± 0.008	8.4 *	3.3	3.3
pН		7.5	± 0.12	7.6	± 0.13	7.5	± 0.13	7.5	± 0.13	0.01	4.7	0.9

Table 3 Soil data for the different treatment combinations (averaged across blocks). Parameters include total P and N and soil acidity (pH)

Means (n = 6) and standard errors of the mean (SEM) shown. +N = N-fertilized plots, -N = unfertilized plots, +B = fungicide (Benomyl) treated subplots, -B = untreated subplots. ANOVA *F*-statistics following LMEs were used to test for significances of model terms, which are given as follows: n = N-fertilization factor, b = Benomyl application factor, n:b = interaction factor. Asterisks indicate significance levels: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001

Table 4 Aboveground biomass data for Artemisia vulgaris, Picris hieracioides, Poa compressa and Bromus japonicus from 2000 to 2003 averaged

across blocks

biomass (g m ⁻²)		2000 -N	+N	2001 -N	+N	2002 -N	+N	2003 -N	+N	n F=	time F=	n:time <i>F</i> =
Artemisia vulgaris	mean ± SEM	14.8 ± 8.1	18.3 ± 13.4	7.1 ± 4.3	102.4 ± 34.4	7.9 ± 5.4	36.1 ± 22.5	3.5 ± 2.7	19.3 ± 8.0	6.2 *	1.3	4.8 **
Picris hieracioides	mean ± SEM	51.1 ± 14.1	94.8 ± 28.3	63.0 ± 14.4	95.8 ±21.6	45.9 ± 8.6	39.3 ± 9.3	17.7 ± 4.0	64.1 ±21.3	370 ***	4.0 *	6.1 **
Poa compressa	mean ± SEM	11.6 ± 6.6	8.5 ± 7.5	35.3 ± 14.3	11.6 ± 5.3	32.6 ±14.0	13.0 ± 6.5	17.1 ± 10.3	5.8 ±2.9	9.8 *	2.9	0.6
Bromus japonicus	mean ± SEM	2.5 ±1.3	0.5 ± 0.2	15.4 ± 8.6	15.4 ±7.8	7.7 ±2.4	129.1 ± 33.1	3.1 ± 1.5	11.6 ± 4.6	0.1	41.4 ***	16.8 ***

Means (n = 6) and standard errors of the mean (SEM) shown. +N = N-fertilized plots, -N = unfertilized plots. ANOVA *F*-statistics following LMEs were used to test for significances of model terms, which are given as follows: n = N-fertilization factor, time = time factor, n:time = interaction factor. Asterisks indicate significance levels: * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001