

1 **Ectomycorrhizal communities on the roots of two beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) populations**  
2 **from contrasting climate differ in nitrogen acquisition in a common environment**

3 Running title: Soil microbes and beech nitrogen uptake

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22

23 **Abstract**

24 Beech (*Fagus sylvatica*), a dominant forest species in Central Europe, competes for nitrogen  
25 with soil microbes and suffers from N limitation under dry conditions. We hypothesized that  
26 ectomycorrhizal communities and the free living rhizosphere microbes from beech trees of  
27 two contrasting climatic conditions exhibit differences in N acquisition that contribute to  
28 differences in host N uptake and are related to differences in host below-ground carbon  
29 allocation. To test these hypotheses young trees from the natural regeneration of two  
30 genetically similar populations, one from dryer conditions (SW) and the other from cooler,  
31 moist climate (NE) were transplanted into a homogeneous substrate in the same environment  
32 and labelled with  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$  and  $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ . Free living rhizosphere microbes were characterized by  
33 marker genes for the N cycle, but no differences between the rhizosphere of SW or NE trees  
34 were found. Lower  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment was found in the ectomycorrhizal communities of NE  
35 compared with the SW communities, whereas no significant differences were observed for  
36 non-mycorrhizal root tips of SW and NE trees. Neither ectomycorrhizal communities nor non-  
37 mycorrhizal root tips showed differences in  $^{13}\text{C}$  signatures between the NE and SW origins.  
38 Because  $^{15}\text{N}$  accumulation in fine roots and transfer to leaves were lower in NE compared to  
39 SW trees, our data support that ectomycorrhizal community influence N transfer to their host  
40 and demonstrate that the fungal community from the dry condition was more efficient in N  
41 acquisition when environmental constraints were relieved. These findings highlight the  
42 importance of adapted ectomycorrhizal communities for forest nutrition in a changing  
43 climate.

44

45 **Introduction**

46 In Europe, forests are often confined to N-limited soils (1), where ectomycorrhizal fungi  
47 (EMF) are key players for tree nutrition (2). Thus, not surprisingly many studies have  
48 analyzed the composition of ectomycorrhizal communities and identified abiotic factors such  
49 as drought as well as the quality and amount of host carbon allocation to roots as important  
50 drivers for the structure of the ectomycorrhizal community (3–7). The control of EMF on N  
51 flux is complex because on the one hand decreased host carbon supply results in decreased N  
52 delivery by EMF, whereas high N availability leads to enhanced C transfer to the EMF (8–  
53 10). On the other hand, EMF are instrumental to maintain host N supply under drought stress  
54 and for the access to organic N from leaf litter (11, 12).

55 It has been realized that besides EMF the plant root interface including the rhizosphere is also  
56 heavily colonized by bacteria and archaea. The same holds true for the mycorrhizal mantle  
57 (13, 14). Besides other functions, these prokaryotes are able to catalyze the mineralization of  
58 organic matter. Other microbes like nitrifiers and denitrifiers compete with the plants for  
59 nitrogen. Thus, bacteria and archaea also determine the nutrient supply of plants to a large  
60 extent. Their community composition and activity pattern responds rapidly to changes in the  
61 physiology of host plant both as a result of different plant developmental stages and shifts in  
62 environmental conditions (15–18). For instance, microbial communities colonizing the root –  
63 soil interface of beech changed their composition within few days after exposure of the plants  
64 to elevated CO<sub>2</sub> probably as the result of an increased flow of plant derived assimilates into  
65 the root and the surrounding soil (19). In another study where young field-grown beech trees  
66 were transplanted from moist or dry environments to common edaphic and climatic  
67 conditions, significant shifts in the abundance of transcripts coding for microbial genes  
68 driving nitrification and denitrification were observed (19). Rapid changes in microbial  
69 communities in response to shifts in the environmental conditions could be the reason why

70 beech trees grown on similar soil type and N availability, but under different climatic  
71 conditions exhibited differences in N uptake (20, 21). However, it is also obvious that due to  
72 the highly complex network of interacting microbes in the rhizosphere predictions how  
73 nutrient supply of the plants is influenced by differing environmental conditions are currently  
74 not possible, mainly because individual members of these networks may respond differently  
75 to changes and steer the complete network in unexpected directions.

76 The main goal of the present study was to elucidate whether functional differences for N  
77 acquisition exist in ectomycorrhizal or rhizosphere microbial communities of trees from two  
78 field sites with contrasting climatic conditions and whether these differences are related to  
79 differences to N uptake of trees or microbes. In the present study we planted young, field-  
80 grown beech trees, which were obtained from two contrasting sites with warm and dry or cool  
81 and moist conditions, into the same soil. The plants were cultivated for two month under one  
82 climatic scenario and then labelled with  $^{15}\text{N}$  to determine N utilization and allocation between  
83 soil, free microbes, EMF and plants. This treatment was chosen to improve our understanding  
84 on the response pattern of the complete holobiont, i.e. the plant with its associated  
85 microbiome, towards changes of the abiotic environment. As previous studies using the same  
86 settings have shown that under common conditions, the community structures of bacteria at  
87 the plant soil interface were comparable regardless the origin of the tree populations after two  
88 month (19), we anticipated no differences in the microbial biomass and  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment, if  
89 there were no functional differences. In contrast to free microbes, differences in the species  
90 composition of ectomycorrhizal communities were expected because the lifetime of  
91 ectomycorrhizal roots lasts several months (22). We hypothesized that ectomycorrhizal  
92 communities of trees originating from the dry forest are functionally divergent from those of  
93 the moist forest and, therefore, differ in  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in a common environment. Because  
94 preceding field studies showed reduced N uptake of trees at the dry site (21), we anticipated  
95 reduced  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in the ectomycorrhizal communities of trees originating from the dry

96 forest compared with those from the moist forest even after two month of incubation under  
97 comparable conditions. We have previously shown that  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in ectomycorrhizal  
98 root tips is proportional to the flux of  $^{15}\text{N}$  into the plant (12, 23). Therefore, we hypothesized  
99 in addition that reduced  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in ectomycorrhizal communities results in reduced  
100  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in plant tissues and reduced whole-plant N uptake.

101 As the productivity of beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.), a wide-spread, dominant forest species of  
102 great economic value and ecological importance in Central Europe (24), is especially sensitive  
103 to N limitation under environmental stress (25), we used this plant species for our  
104 experiments. The path of N into different abiotic and biotic fractions was traced by using  
105  $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ . Because differences in photosynthesis and below-ground carbon allocation influence  
106 the root-associated biota, soil respiration was measured and the distribution of novel  
107 assimilated carbon in beech trees from the dry and moist forest was monitored after a 48h-  
108 pulse of  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ .

109

## 110 **Materials and Methods**

### 111 **Plant origin and plant cultivation**

112 Young beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) trees were collected from two 80 to 90-year-old beech-  
113 dominated forests in the Swabian Jura near Tuttlingen (longitude  $8^{\circ}45'\text{E}$ , latitude  $47^{\circ}59'\text{N}$ ,  
114 South West Germany). The forests are located on the North East (NE) and the South West  
115 (SW) exposure of a narrow valley (Krähenbachtal) with steep slopes ( $23^{\circ}$ - $30^{\circ}$ ) (26). The  
116 genetic structures of young plants from the natural beech regeneration that were used for this  
117 experiments, did not differ in NE from those in the SW forest (27). The mean long-term  
118 annual regional air temperature (1961-1990) is  $6.6^{\circ}\text{C}$  and the mean annual precipitation is  
119  $810\text{ mm}$  (20). Because of the higher irradiance on the SW site the soil temperature at  $10\text{ cm}$   
120 depth is  $0.8^{\circ}\text{C}$  higher and the soil water potential generally more negative than on the NE

121 site (28). The gravimetric soil water content, expressed as percentage of the maximum soil  
122 water holding capacity was  $54.1 \pm 5.3\%$  and  $38.8 \pm 3.4\%$  in the mineral soil of the NE and  
123 SW sites, respectively. On both sites, the soil type is a shallow Rendzic Leptosol (skeletal)  
124 (29) developed on limestone and marls of the jurassic Malm formation (30). Soil pH (water)  
125 is 5.7 in the organic layer and 7.5 at 0.6 m depth (20). The concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ranged from  
126 0.6 to 1.2  $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$  dry soil and the concentration of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  from 3.0 to 3.8  $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$  dry soil.  
127 Significant differences of the soluble N compounds between the soils of the NE and SW sites  
128 were not observed. The organic carbon concentrations in the organic layer were similar with  
129  $46.0 \pm 0.7\%$  at the SW and  $43.5\% \pm 0.8$  at NE site (26). The organic carbon concentrations  
130 were higher in the mineral soil of SW than in that of NE ( $11.2 \pm 0.8\%$  vs  $8.5 \pm 0.6\%$ ), with  
131 both soils ranging at very high levels of SOC content (26).

132 Forty-five trees of stem heights of about 0.5 m were collected on each site. The collection  
133 took place in July 2010 during the active phase of the season. The trees were excavated with  
134 intact roots in their soil compartment and transported to a nursery (Forest Botanical Garden,  
135 University of Göttingen, longitude  $9^\circ 57' \text{E}$ , latitude  $51^\circ 33' \text{N}$ ). The root systems were carefully  
136 cleaned under running water to remove adhering soil. The beech trees were planted separately  
137 in 5 l containers (17 x 17 x 17 cm) in a homogenous mixture of coarse sand (0.7 – 1.2 mm  
138 diameter, Melo Schwimmbadtechnik, Göttingen, Germany; 4.5 parts), fine sand (0.4-0.8 mm  
139 diameter, Melo Schwimmbadtechnik; 4.5 parts) and peat (Torfwerk Zubrägel, Vechta,  
140 Germany; 1 part). The sand was washed with tap water before use to remove small particles.

141 To match stand light conditions the trees were shaded with a 65 % shading net (Herrmann  
142 Meyer KG, Rellingen, Germany) and placed outdoors. Each plant was watered daily with 50  
143 ml tap water. Not all trees survived the transplantation, leaving 32 trees per site for the further  
144 treatments. After one month, the beech trees were transferred into a greenhouse with 50 % air  
145 humidity, an air temperature of 20 °C and long day conditions [16 h light achieved by  
146 additional irradiation with MT 400 DL/BH lamps (Eye Iwasaki Electric Co. Ltd., Tokyo,

147 Japan), resulting in a photosynthetically active radiation of  $150 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  quantum flux  
148 density as determined by a photometer Li-185B equipped with a quantum sensor Li-190SB  
149 (LiCor INC., Lincoln, USA). This light intensity is typical at tree height of young beech trees  
150 in beech forests (31). Trees were cultured under these conditions for one month and watered  
151 daily with 50 ml of a Hoagland-based nutrient solution (pH 5.7), which contained 0.4 mM  
152  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  as sole nitrogen source in addition to 0.05 mM  $\text{NaSO}_4$ , 0.1 mM  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$ , 0.06 mM  
153  $\text{MgSO}_4$ , 0.13 mM  $\text{CaSO}_4$ , 0.03 mM  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 0.005 mM  $\text{MnSO}_4$ , 0.005  $\text{FeCl}_3$ , 5  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{H}_3\text{BO}_3$ ,  
154 0.13  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{NaMoO}_4$ , 0.18  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{ZnSO}_4$  and 0.16  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{CuSO}_4$  (adapted after (32)). Two days  
155 before experimental labeling, root collar diameters at soil level, and heights of all trees were  
156 measured.

157

#### 158 **$^{13}\text{C}$ and $^{15}\text{N}$ labeling**

159 The beech-soil systems were labeled with  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$  and  $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ . Continuous  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$  (1.5 %  $^{13}\text{C}$ ,  
160 Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Andover, USA) fumigation started on the 4.10.12 at 8 am  
161 and ended after 48 h. During this time the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration was continuously recorded and  
162 exhibited a mean  $1091 \pm 193$  ppm (UNOR 610  $\text{CO}_2$  analyzer, Mairhak, Hamburg, Germany).

163 For homogenous distribution, the  $^{13}\text{C}$  labeled air in the greenhouse was intensively mixed by a  
164 fan (SF16R, SMC, Hong Kong, China).

165  $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  (0.4 mmol, 99 %  $^{15}\text{N}$ , Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Andover, USA) was applied  
166 daily on seven consecutive days starting on 4.10.12 at 8 am. To achieve homogenous  $^{15}\text{N}$  soil  
167 labeling, the nutrient solution was injected by syringes (1.5 ml) applying a total of 50.7 ml by  
168 39 injections of 1.3 ml of  $^{15}\text{N}$ -solution at depths of 0, 5 and 10 cm per container. This  
169 treatment corresponds to a daily amount of 0.337 mg  $^{15}\text{N}$  in excess of the natural abundance.

170 Eight trees per site were maintained in another greenhouse without  $^{13}\text{C}$  and  $^{15}\text{N}$  labeling as  
171 non-labeled controls.

172

173 **Soil respiration**

174 On day 2, 3, 4, 6 and 8 after the start of the experimental labeling, soil respiration and soil  
175  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$  evolution were determined using a static chamber approach (33). At 11am, a chamber  
176 (area: 120 cm<sup>2</sup>, height 10 cm) was gently inserted 1 cm into the soil at 3 randomly chosen  
177 containers of the NE and the SW treatment, respectively. Two minutes, 15 min and 30 min  
178 after chamber placement, a gas sample of 20 ml was taken via gastight syringe sampling  
179 through a septum. The air sample was immediately transferred in a septum-capped pre-  
180 evacuated gastight 5 ml vial. For this purpose, the entire sample volume of 20 ml was flushed  
181 from the syringe through the vial by using a second cannula in the septum cap, which was  
182 removed at the end of the flushing procedure, leaving an overpressure of 25% in the sample  
183 vial. Within four days after sampling, sampled air in vials was analyzed for the CO<sub>2</sub>  
184 concentration and the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature of CO<sub>2</sub> using GasBench II coupled to the isotope ratio  
185 mass spectrometer Delta Plus XP (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). We used a  
186 PoraBOND Q column (Agilent, Böblingen, Germany) at 33 °C and a sample loop with 250  
187  $\mu\text{L}$  volume. Samples were calibrated using three standard gases (325 ppm CO<sub>2</sub> with  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -$   
188 8.296 ‰; 340 ppm CO<sub>2</sub> with  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -29.3$  ‰; and 550 ppm CO<sub>2</sub> with  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -14.677$  ‰ in  
189 synthetic air) (Air Liquide, Kornwestheim, Germany). Soil respiration was calculated from  
190 the increase in CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations during the 30 min sampling interval (33). Due to the low  
191 soil respiration rates, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration increase was linear over the 30 minutes period.  
192 The increase in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration over time had to match a quality criterion of  $R^2 > 0.9$ ;  
193 otherwise the respective soil respiration flux was discarded (in one case).

194

195 **Harvest**

196 Eight plant-soil containers per site were harvested 1, 3 and 7 days after the start of  $^{15}\text{N}$   
197 labeling. Eight non-labelled controls per site were harvested at  $d = 0$ . Leaves and above-  
198 ground woody parts (branches and stem) were separated after harvest and weighed



199 immediately. To determine whole plant leaf area, an important parameter for photosynthesis,  
200 five leaves were separately weighed, scanned with a CCD camera KP-C551 (Hitachi, Tokyo,  
201 Japan) and analyzed with ImageJ 1.47v (National Institute of Health, Bethesda, USA). Whole  
202 plant leaf area was calculated as: area of leaves/mass of leaves × mass of all leaves.

203 The roots were slightly shaken to remove loosely adhering soil. Rhizosphere soil, the soil  
204 attached to roots after slight shaking, was sampled by a toothpick from the apical part of the  
205 fine roots. Rhizosphere samples were weighed and immediately frozen on dry ice and stored  
206 at -80°. The remaining root system was then carefully washed under running tap water.  
207 Coarse (> 2 mm diameter) and fine roots (< 2 mm diameter) were separated and weighed.  
208 One g of fine roots from unlabelled beech seedlings was shock-frozen in liquid N<sub>2</sub> for amino  
209 acid determination. Fine root samples were wrapped in moist paper towels and stored in  
210 darkness in plastic bags at 4°C. Dry mass of fine roots was determined after ectomycorrhizal  
211 analysis. All remaining plant parts were weighed immediately after harvest, dried and  
212 weighed after one week at 60°C.

213 The entire soil of each planting container was mixed and a representative sample of 500 g per  
214 container was used for analyses in bulk soil.

215

#### 216 **Soil analyses**

217 Immediately after harvest 300 g of representative bulk soil was weighed and dried at 105°C  
218 for 24 hours. Soil water content (SWC [%]) was determined as:

$$219 \quad SWC = \frac{sfw - sdw}{sdw} \times 100$$

220 with sdw being soil dry weight (g) and sfw soil fresh weight (g).

221 In order to quantify microbial biomass fresh soil aliquots of 60 g were either directly extracted  
222 with 0.5 M K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution at a soil:solution ratio of 1:2 or after 24 hours of fumigation with  
223 chloroform (34). All extracts were filtrated with 0.45 µm syringe filters (Schleicher &  
224 Schuell, Dassel, Germany) and immediately frozen. Aliquots of the soil extracts were used for

225 spectrophotometric determination of ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) and nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) concentrations by  
226 a commercial laboratory (Dr. Janssen GmbH, Gillersheim, Germany) and for total dissolved N  
227 (TN) and total dissolved organic C (DOC) by auto-analyzers as described by (34). Dissolved  
228 organic N (DON) was calculated as the difference between TN in extracts and inorganic N in  
229 extracts. Microbial biomass C and N was calculated from the difference in TN and DOC  
230 between extracts from fumigated and unfumigated soil, without application of correction  
231 factors (34).

232 In addition to N concentrations of the soil microbial biomass,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and DON pools,  
233 their respective  $^{15}\text{N}$  signatures were determined. The approach was based on diffusion of  
234  $\text{NH}_4^+$  via pH increase on acid filter traps prepared for isotope ratio mass spectrometry, after  
235 sequential conversion of all target-N compounds in soil extracts to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  as described in detail  
236 in earlier studies (35). Determination of  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in total extractable N of both  
237 unfumigated control soils and fumigated soils was based on alkaline persulfate oxidation of  
238 all N compounds to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and subsequent  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reduction to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  as described by (36).  
239 Subsequent diffusion of  $\text{NH}_3$  on acid filter traps enabled the quantification of  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment  
240 in microbial biomass as calculated from the difference in N concentration and  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment  
241 in TN between unfumigated control soils and fumigated soils (35). No correction factors were  
242 applied in order to obtain estimates of  $^{15}\text{N}$  uptake into active microbial biomass (37).

243

#### 244 **Identification of ectomycorrhizal fungi**

245 The washed fine roots were spread under a dissecting microscope (205 FA, Leica, Wetzlar,  
246 Germany) and remaining soil particles were removed using fine forceps. Randomly chosen 2  
247 to 3 cm long root fragments were used for mycorrhizal analysis. Four hundred mycorrhizal  
248 root tips per plant were counted and classified as mycorrhizal, non mycorrhizal or dead root  
249 tips. If not enough root material was available to reach 400 mycorrhizal root tips, all available

250 root tips were counted. Aliquots of mycorrhizal, non-mycorrhizal and dead root tips were  
251 collected of each plant and freeze-dried for  $^{15}\text{N}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  measurements.

252 The mycorrhizal root tips were assigned to morphotypes, based on morphological features  
253 like color, mantle structure, type of ramification, shape of unramified ends, emanating hyphae  
254 and rhizomorphes (38). All morphotypes were photographed with a DFC420 C camera (Leica,  
255 Wetzlar, Germany) at 10 - 40 x magnification and aliquots were stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  for species  
256 identification by internal transcribed spacer (ITS) sequencing.

257 The molecular identification of ectomycorrhizal fungi was conducted as previously described  
258 in (5, 7)). We selected the abundant morphotypes to reach 90% coverage of the root tips. DNA  
259 of about 20 pooled root tips assigned to one morphotype was extracted (innuPREP DNA Kit,  
260 Analytik Jena, Jena, Germany) as recommended by the manufacturer. The ITS region was  
261 amplified using the PCR primers ITS1F and ITS4 (Eurofins MWG Operon, Ebersberg,  
262 Germany) (39, 40). The obtained PCR products were purified by precipitation (40  $\mu\text{l}$  deionized  
263 water, 5  $\mu\text{l}$  5 M sodium acetate (pH 6.0), 150  $\mu\text{l}$  100 % ethanol) by centrifugation (25 min,  
264 17,900 x g). The precipitate was washed once with 250  $\mu\text{l}$  100 % ethanol. Sequencing was  
265 performed by the Sequencing service of the BÜsgen-Institute, Department Forest Genetics and  
266 Forest Tree Breeding of the Georg August University Göttingen using the Big Dye Terminator  
267 3.1 Cycles Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, USA). The sequences were  
268 assembled with StadenPackage V4.10 and compared with UNITE (<http://unite.ut.ee>) and  
269 NCBI (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>) databases. Species names were accepted when 97 %  
270 identities and a score over 800 bits were achieved. Details have been compiled in Table S1.  
271 All sequences have been deposited in NCBI Genbank with GenBank accession numbers  
272 KF498567-KF498582.

273

274 **C and N measurements and isotope analysis of plant tissues and mycorrhizal root tips**

275 Dry plant tissues were ground with a ball mill (Retsch, Düsseldorf, Germany). Mycorrhizal,  
 276 non-mycorrhizal and dead root tips were processed without milling. Samples were weighed  
 277 (Supermicro S4; Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany) into 5 x 9 mm tin capsules (IVA  
 278 Analysetechnik, Meerbusch, Germany). For leaves 0.8 mg, for stem 5.0 mg, for coarse roots  
 279 3.0 mg, for fine roots 2.0 mg and for mycorrhizal, non-mycorrhizal and dead root tips 0.5-3  
 280 mg of tissue were used.  $^{14}\text{N}$ ,  $^{15}\text{N}$ ,  $^{12}\text{C}$ , and  $^{13}\text{C}$  isotope analyses were conducted at the service  
 281 unit KOSI (Kompetenzzentrum für Stabile Isotope, University Göttingen, Germany) on a  
 282 Delta Plus mass spectrometer (Finnigan MAT, Bremen, Germany; Interface: Conflo III,  
 283 Finnigan MAT, Bremen, Germany; elemental analyzer: NA2500, CE Instruments, Rodano,  
 284 Milano, Italy). APE ( $^{15}\text{N}$  atom-% excess) was determined as:

285  $^{15}\text{N}$  APE = atom-%<sub>sample</sub> - atom-%<sub>natural abundance</sub> with

$$\text{atom} - \% = \frac{^{15}\text{N}}{^{14}\text{N} + ^{15}\text{N}} \times 100$$

286 Plant  $^{15}\text{N}$  uptake ( $\mu\text{g}$ ) was determined as  $1000 * (^{15}\text{N APE}_{\text{fine roots}} * 10 * \text{N}_{\text{fine roots}} * \text{dry mass of}$   
 287  $\text{fine whole-plant fine roots} + ^{15}\text{N APE}_{\text{coarse roots}} * 10 * \text{N}_{\text{coarse roots}} * \text{dry mass of whole-plant coarse}$   
 288  $\text{roots}) \text{ with N (mg g}^{-1} \text{ dry mass}_{\text{tissue}})$ .  $^{15}\text{N}$  in leaves and stem+branches was neglected because  
 289 these tissues contributed only 0.4% and 0.7% to the whole plant uptake. Microbial  $^{15}\text{N}$  uptake  
 290 ( $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  soil) was calculated as  $1000 * (^{15}\text{N APE}_{(\text{MBN})} * 10 * \text{N}) * \text{soil mass in the container, with N}$   
 291  $\text{in mg N g}^{-1} \text{ dry mass}_{\text{soil}}$  and 5520 g as the dry soil mass in the container.

292  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were determined as:

$$293 \delta^{13}\text{C} = \left( \frac{\frac{^{13}\text{C}_{\text{Sample}}}{^{12}\text{C}_{\text{Sample}}}}{\frac{^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}}{^{12}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}}} \right) \times 1000 \text{ with } \text{C}_{\text{VPDB}} = \text{Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite Standard.}$$

294  $^{13}\text{C}$  APE = atom-%<sub>sample</sub> - atom-%<sub>natural abundance</sub> with

$$\text{atom} - \% = \frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C} + ^{13}\text{C}} \times 100$$

295

296 **Quantification of microbes driving N - turnover**

297 DNA was extracted from 0.4 g of rhizosphere soil using the NucleoSpin Soil Kit (Macherey  
298 Nagel, Düren, Germany) and the Precellys 24 Instrument (Bertin Technologies, Montigny-le-  
299 Bretonneux, France). Quantity and quality of the extracted DNA were checked with a  
300 Nanodrop spectrophotometer (PiqLab, Erlangen, Germany) and by gel electrophoresis (41).  
301 The extracts were stored at -20°C until use.

302 Quantitative real-time PCR (RT-PCR) was performed using an ABI 7300 Cycler (Applied  
303 Biosystems, Foster City, USA) to assess the abundance of selected marker genes which were  
304 used as proxy for microbes involved in different steps of the nitrogen cycle with the following  
305 assay reagents: DMSO and BSA (Sigma Aldrich), primers listed in Table S1 (Metabion,  
306 Germany) and 2x Power SYBR Green master mix (Life Technologies, Darmstadt, Germany).  
307 The respective 25 µl reaction mixtures for quantification of the genes [*nifH* (nitrogenase),  
308 *amoA* AOA (ammonia monooxygenase in ammonia oxidizing archaea), *amoA* AOB (ammonia  
309 monooxygenase in ammonia oxidizing bacteria), *narG* (nitrate reductase), *nirS* (nitrite  
310 reductase), *nirK* (nitrite reductase), were composed as follows: 12.5 µl SYBR Green master  
311 mix, 5 pmol of each primer, 0.5 µl 3% BSA and 2 µl DNA template. For the amplification of  
312 *narG*, *nirK*, and *nirS* genes, 0.5 µl DMSO was added. Primer sources and measuring  
313 conditions are summarized in Table S2.

314 For quantification, serial dilutions ( $10^1$  to  $10^6$  gene copies  $\mu\text{l}^{-1}$ ) of plasmid DNA containing  
315 PCR products of the respective genes listed in Table S2 were used to calculate standard  
316 curves. The PCR detection limit was assessed to 10 gene copies according to manufacturer's  
317 instruction. To avoid PCR inhibition, the optimal dilution for each amplification assay was  
318 determined in advance by dilution series of randomly chosen DNA extracts. The RT-PCR  
319 assays were performed in 96-well plates (Life Technologies) for all target genes as described  
320 in Table S2. All PCR runs started with a hot start at 95°C for 10 minutes. To confirm the  
321 specificity of the SYBR Green-quantified amplicons, a melting curve analysis and a 1.5%

322 agarose gel were performed after each PCR run. The amplification efficiency was calculated  
323 as  $Eff = [10^{(-1/slope)} - 1]$  and resulted in the following average efficiencies (standard deviation  
324 less than 5% of mean): *nifH*, 87%, *amoA* AOA, 92%, *amoA* AOB, 86%, *narG*, 92%, *nirK*,  
325 94%, *nirS*, 93%.

326

### 327 **Data analysis**

328 Data were analyzed with Origin Pro 8.5 (OriginLab Corporation, Northampton, USA) using  
329 Students' t tests for normal distributed data sets. Normal distribution was tested with the  
330 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. If data did not show normal distribution, they were log-  
331 transformed to meet the requirement of normality. General Linear Models (GLM) were  
332 applied to investigate the main factors (time, site) and their interactions (Statgraphics  
333 Centurion XVI Version 16.2.03 (Statpoint Technologies, Warrenton, USA). In tables and  
334 figures data are shown as means  $\pm$  standard error (SE). Differences between means were  
335 considered significant at  $P \leq 0.05$ . Species richness of ectomycorrhizal communities  
336 (bootstrap of 200), ANOSIM (based on Morisita dissimilarity index), non-metric  
337 multidimensional scaling (NMDS) and rarefaction curves were calculated with PAST 2.17c  
338 (42).

339

### 340 **Results**

341

#### 342 **Ectomycorrhizal communities at the plant-soil interface of beech trees originating from** 343 **two contrasting field sites after cultivation under common environmental conditions**

344 The root tips of young beech trees from NE and SW forests that were selected on the basis of  
345 similar stem heights and diameters were about 30 to 38% colonized by EMF after two months  
346 growth in a peat-sand-mixture in the same environment (Table 1). The ectomycorrhizal  
347 fungal colonization of the NE roots was slightly higher than that of SW trees, while species

348 richness was higher on the SE roots (Table 1, rarefaction curve: Fig. S1). The fungal species  
349 composition (shown in the supplement Table S1) was typical for the beech forest where the  
350 young plants had been collected (6) (Fig. S2). The abundances of the ectomycorrhizal fungal  
351 species differed between NE and SW trees (Table S1) resulting in significantly different  
352 community structures ( $P$  of ANOSIM = 0.026). The ascomycete *Cenococcum geophilum* was  
353 the most frequent fungal species on all trees and occurred twice as frequent on roots of  
354 beeches from SW than on those from NE (Table S1). High abundances of *C. geophilum* were  
355 also observed in previous field studies (6, 34).

356 About 55% of the root tips in our experiment were non-mycorrhizal and vital (Table 1),  
357 whereas non-mycorrhizal roots were barely found on young trees directly after excavation  
358 from their native soils (fraction of ectomycorrhizal root tips at NE and SW:  $99.3 \pm 0.4\%$ ,  $P_{\text{site}}$   
359 = 0.859).

360

361 **Carbon allocation pattern into the mycorrhizosphere of beech trees originating from**  
362 **two contrasting field sites after cultivation under common environmental conditions**

363 The beech trees from the NE and SW forest were labeled in a greenhouse for 48h with  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ .  
364 During the labeling period neither microbial biomass nor the concentrations of organic and  
365 inorganic soluble N compounds differed in the soil containing beeches from NE or SW (Table  
366 S3).

367 To investigate carbon allocation of NE and SW trees, we determined the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature in  
368 leaves, roots and soil respiration as an integrative indicator for water availability and carbon  
369 allocation (43). No significant differences of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signatures were detected in beech leaves  
370 from NE and SW before the start of the labeling ( $t = 0$ , Table 2). Therefore we have no  
371 evidence for acute drought periods during their growth under field conditions prior to the  
372 transfer to the greenhouse.  $^{13}\text{C}$  pulse labeling did not indicate differences in photosynthetic  
373 performance because the leaves from NE and SW beeches showed the same changes in the

374  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature in leaves in response to the  $^{13}\text{CO}_2$  labeling pulse at 8d (Table 2). However,  
375 allocation of recent photosynthetate to fine roots was stronger in SW than in NE trees, evident  
376 from a higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature in SW than in NE fine roots at 8d (Table 2).

377 The  $^{13}\text{C}$  signatures of the ectomycorrhizas did not show differences between plants of SW or  
378 NE origin (Table 2). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signatures of the non-mycorrhizal root tips were much higher  
379 than those of the ectomycorrhizas and any other tissue, but did not show an influence of plant  
380 origin (Table 2). The signature of  $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$  in soil respiration was also not significantly different  
381 between NE and SE beech containers (Table S3), suggesting similar belowground utilization  
382 of newly acquired photosynthetates. However, total soil respiration, which is the result of  
383 microbial and root respiration, was higher in the soil from the NE than in the soil from SW  
384 beeches (Table S3). The NE containers contained similar microbial biomass but higher root  
385 biomass (Table S3). Furthermore, the fraction of dead root tips was lower on the NE than on  
386 the SW plants and thus, root vitality of NE plants higher than that of the SW plants (Table 1).  
387 Therefore, the increased respiration was most likely cause by the roots. Differences in root  
388 vitality of the young trees with higher numbers of dead root tips at the SW than at the NE site  
389 were also found on the roots of the mature trees at the field sites (fraction of dead root tips at  
390 NE:  $11 \pm 2\%$  and SW =  $35 \pm 7\%$ ,  $P_{\text{site}} = 0.004$ ).

391

392 **Nitrogen dynamics in different compartments of beech trees originating from two**  
393 **contrasting field sites after cultivation under common environmental conditions**

394 During the labeling period with  $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ , a significant time-dependent enrichment of  $^{15}\text{N}$  was  
395 found in all soil and plant fractions analyzed ( $P_{\text{time}}$  in the GLM for all data in Fig. 1 < 0.001).  
396 Because the N concentrations of the soil, microbial and plant fractions did not change during  
397 the time course of the experiment, the enrichment in  $^{15}\text{N}$  also reflected  $^{15}\text{N}$  accumulation in  
398 those fractions. As expected, a strong  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment appeared in the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  soil solution (Fig.  
399 1a), but  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and microbial biomass also showed strong  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichments indicating microbial



400 uptake and nitrification (Fig. 1b, d). In contrast, the  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in DON was about an  
401 order of magnitude lower than in  $\text{NO}_3^-$  or soil microbes (Fig. 1c). Notably, the  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment  
402 was significantly higher in inorganic N compounds and in microbial N in the containers with  
403 beeches from SW than in those with beeches from NE (Fig. 1a, b, d). The greatest difference  
404 was found for  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , where the  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment was about twice higher in containers with SW  
405 trees than in those with NE trees after one week of labeling (Fig. 1b).

406 We also found stronger  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichments in fine roots and leaves of the SW than of the NE  
407 beech trees (Fig. 1e, f). Overall, we recovered at day 8 of the  $^{15}\text{N}$  treatment  $262 \pm 131 \mu\text{g } ^{15}\text{N}$   
408 and  $337 \pm 135 \mu\text{g } ^{15}\text{N}$  in NE and SW plants ( $P = 0.06$ ) and  $316 \pm 111 \mu\text{g } ^{15}\text{N}$  and  $451 \pm 159$   
409  $\mu\text{g } ^{15}\text{N}$  in the microbial biomass in NE and SW containers ( $P = 0.09$ ), which correspond to  
410 49% and 59% of the applied  $^{15}\text{N}$  to the NE and SW plant-soil systems, respectively.

411 Because N acquired by the plant is taken up by the ectomycorrhizas and by the active zone of  
412 the non-mycorrhizal root tips, we measured the  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichments in these tissues (Fig. 1g, h).  
413 The  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in non-mycorrhizal root tips was very strong and exceeded that of  $^{15}\text{N}$  in  
414 the microbial fraction ( $P = 0.004$ ), but without any significant differences between the NE and  
415 SW trees (Fig. 1g).

416 In contrast to non-mycorrhizal roots tips, the ectomycorrhizas showed significant differences  
417 in  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment between SW and NE trees with stronger enrichment in SW than in NE trees  
418 (Fig. 1h). The enrichment rate in the SW ectomycorrhizas was also stronger (slope: 0.63) than  
419 in the microbes in the bulk soil of SW trees (slope: 0.31,  $P_{\text{slope}} = 0.019$ ), whereas the  
420 accumulation rates of  $^{15}\text{N}$  in NE ectomycorrhizas and NE bulk soil microbes were slower  
421 (slopes 0.24 for ectomycorrhizal and 0.29 for microbes) and not different ( $P = 0.407$ ). The  
422 difference in  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment between the NE and SW ectomycorrhizal communities was  
423 unlikely to result from differences in host carbon supply because the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signatures in the  
424 NE and SW communities did not differ (Table 2).

425

426 **Abundance of microbes which drive the N turnover in the rhizosphere of beech trees**  
427 **originating from two contrasting field sites after cultivation under common**  
428 **environmental conditions**

429 To investigate whether microbial and plant N enrichment in the plant-soil system of NE and  
430 SW originating trees were associated with functional differences in free living microbial  
431 communities we determined the abundance of microbes driving nitrification, denitrification  
432 and nitrogen fixation in rhizosphere soil based on marker genes (Fig. 2) As expected during  
433 the pre-incubation period of the plants under common environmental conditions the  
434 differences in the abundance pattern of the investigated microbial communities in N cycling,  
435 which could be observed at the natural sites (SW and NE; data not shown) leveled out and no  
436 significant differences could be observed between rhizosphere samples from trees of both  
437 sites (Fig. 2). The only exception was the abundance of bacterial ammonia oxidizers, which  
438 were significantly higher in rhizosphere samples from trees originating from the SW forest at  
439 day 1 of the incubation experiment (Fig. 2b). However this effect disappeared at later time  
440 points of the experiment. The application of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and the transient increase in atmospheric  
441  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations in the first 48h obviously triggered an increase of microbes involved in  
442 denitrification, as the abundance of indicator genes for both nitrate and nitrite reducers (*narG*  
443 respectively *nirK*) increased from day 0 (before application) to day1 and was then constant  
444 over the complete experimental period (Fig. 2c,d). As a result of the increased levels of  
445 nitrogen and carbon present in the rhizosphere bacterial ammonia oxidizers dominated over  
446 archaeal ammonia oxidizers (*amoA* AOA) by one order of magnitude independent from the  
447 sampling time point and the origin of the trees (data not shown). A similar observation was  
448 made for nitrite reducers harboring the *nirK* respectively *nirS* genes. Here again, a dominance  
449 of *nirK* harboring nitrite reducers was found in all samples (data not shown).

450

451 **Root performance, N uptake and ectomycorrhizal communities**

452 To find out whether the differences in ectomycorrhizal communities between SW and NE  
453 plants were related to N nutrition and plant performance such as N uptake, biomass and root  
454 tip characteristics we conducted NMDS. The ordination illustrated the separation of the  
455 ectomycorrhizal communities on SW and NE roots (Fig. 3). The correlation coefficients of the  
456 variables are shown as vectors (Fig. 3). This analysis revealed that the separation of  
457 ectomycorrhizal communities of SW and NE trees were related to plant  $^{15}\text{N}$  uptake, microbial  
458  $^{15}\text{N}$  uptake, the frequencies of dead root tips and ascomycota for the SW community and to  
459 plant biomass and the fraction of ectomycorrhizal root tips for the NE fungal community (Fig.  
460 3).

461

## 462 Discussion

### 463 Tree origin does not impede N uptake

464 Previous genetic and physiological studies with beeches from sites differing in water  
465 availability revealed significant differences in tree performance suggesting that adaptation to  
466 the environmental conditions may have occurred (44–47). Field studies, at the sites from  
467 which the trees of the present study originated, showed that attached roots exposed to  $^{15}\text{N}$   
468 containing soil solutions exhibited lower N uptake for the SW than for the NE beeches (21,  
469 48). Because soil structure and soil N availability were similar in the NE and SW forest, it  
470 was speculated that beech trees at drier sites might be physiologically or genetically impeded  
471 for N uptake compared with beech populations from moist conditions (21). However,  
472 population analysis with neutral genetic markers in the natural beech regeneration from the  
473 dry SW and the moist NE sites did not show pronounced differentiation between the tree  
474 origins (27). Furthermore, our results demonstrate no significant differences in whole-plant N  
475 uptake when environmental constraints were relieved by culturing the NE and SW plants  
476 under the same edaphic and climatic conditions. Therefore, our initial hypothesis that beech  
477 trees from the dry forest are impaired in N uptake must be rejected.

478 In contrast to our expectation, beech trees from dry conditions showed even a higher N  
479 enrichment in roots than those from the moist conditions. During the time course of our study  
480 whole-plant N uptake was mainly confined to roots (98%). As the SW trees had significantly  
481 less root biomass and more dead root tips than the NE trees, the flux of N into the SW trees  
482 must have been higher than that into NE trees. This assumption is also supported by our  
483 finding that the SW ectomycorrhizal community showed higher  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment than the NE  
484 assemblage. Therefore, the current results underpin that limited N uptake of the beech under  
485 field conditions in the SW forest was caused by biotic or abiotic environmental factors.

486 Plant carbon allocation to the root-rhizosphere system has been identified as an important  
487 control for plant N provision (10, 34). However, higher carbon utilization as indicated by  
488 higher respiration occurred in soil from NE than in that from SW trees. This might have been  
489 due to the larger root system of NE trees or to higher turn-over of soil microbes. It is likely  
490 that soil respiration in this experiment was dominated by the roots, because soil microbial  
491 biomass was one to two orders of magnitude smaller than in forest soil under field conditions  
492 (26, 30). The gross soil respiration was apparently fueled by stored carbon because the  
493 signature of  $^{13}\text{C}$  coming from new photosynthetate was unaffected. Overall, we have no  
494 evidence that higher  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment required higher instantaneous photosynthetic C  
495 allocation to root tips, but the slightly higher  $^{13}\text{C}$  signature in fine roots of SW trees suggests  
496 that increased N nutrition may lead to C trade-offs in the long run.

497 Our results do not support that higher  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in the fine roots of SW compared with  
498 NE trees was due to more efficient N uptake systems of the plants because no differences  
499 were found for the non-mycorrhizal root tips of NE and SW trees. Internal  $^{15}\text{N}$  reallocation  
500 from ectomycorrhizal to non-mycorrhizal root tips is unlikely because previous studies  
501 showed higher N uptake of non-mycorrhizal than of ectomycorrhizal beech trees (Pena et al.  
502 2013b) and that  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in non-mycorrhizal root tips of mycorrhizal trees was similar

503 to that of non-mycorrhizal root tips of non-mycorrhizal trees (12). Assuming that the  $\text{NO}_3^-$   
504 and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  levels per kg of dry soil found in the present study were completely dissolved in the  
505 soil solution, the N concentrations were 290 to 360  $\mu\text{M}$  for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and 39 to 44  $\mu\text{M}$  for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in  
506 the substrate of NE and SW trees. These  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations are in the optimal to excess  
507 range for non-mycorrhizal beech roots (49) and in the saturation range of mycorrhizal roots of  
508 field grown beeches (21), whereas  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is rather in the limiting range. Because of the  
509 relatively high fraction of non-mycorrhizal root tips, which exhibited the highest  $^{15}\text{N}$   
510 enrichment of all fractions regardless the plant origin, the overall influx into the roots might  
511 have been higher than under field conditions, where the roots of the natural regeneration were  
512 almost 100% mycorrhizal. However, the enhanced N uptake of non-mycorrhizal plants was  
513 more vulnerable under stress than that of ectomycorrhizas (12).

514 It is further notable that non-mycorrhizal root tips exhibited the highest  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature of the  
515 analyzed tissues, suggesting that they are strong sinks for energy, although we cannot exclude  
516 that the extramatrical hyphae of the ectomycorrhizas were also strong C sinks. Preferential C  
517 allocation to reward more cooperative symbionts of plants compared with less efficient ones  
518 has been demonstrated for arbuscular mycorrhizas (50, 51). It is possible that this mechanism  
519 also works for the non-mycorrhizal root tips, which were more  $^{15}\text{N}$ -enriched than  
520 ectomycorrhizas, but in ectomycorrhizas a relationship between  $^{15}\text{N}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  enrichment was  
521 not found (23). In conclusion, our findings do not support that the differences in N enrichment  
522 between the trees from the moist or the dry site were related to genetic differences of uptake  
523 systems in non-mycorrhizal root tips or differences in below-ground carbon allocation of the  
524 trees.

525

526 **Mycorrhizal and bacterial contributions to beech N supply**

527 The  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in the roots of the SW compared to the NE beeches was remarkable  
528 because this finding suggests that N delivery by mycorrhizal and rhizosphere processes were  
529 enhanced or that the competition by soil microbes was suppressed for the SW trees. In the  
530 rhizosphere of SW and NE trees no evidence for differences in N cycling of the free living  
531 microbes was found suggesting that pre-culture of the SW and NE trees in the same substrate  
532 resulted in similar adjustments of microbial communities to the edaphic conditions. Under  
533 field conditions, soil microbes are significant competitors for N (34, 35, 52) and acquire  
534 soluble N faster than EMF (11). But here, the  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment rates in microbes were similar  
535 (NE) or even lower (SW) than those of the corresponding ectomycorrhizal communities, not  
536 supporting competition under our conditions. Microbial competition was neither relevant  
537 under N mass balance considerations due to an extremely low microbial activity in our soil  
538 system compared to field conditions (here: 3 mg microbial N  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  dry soil *versus* 100 to 300  
539 mg microbial N  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  dry soil in Tuttlingen forest soil (30, 34). The finding that about 20 % of  
540 the added  $^{15}\text{N}$  was recovered in soil microbial biomass and about 13% in the beech trees  
541 further supports that microbial competition for N was relieved in our system because under  
542 field conditions N uptake by microbial biomass is by more than one magnitude larger than by  
543 young beech trees of the natural regeneration (35).

544 In contrast to free rhizosphere microbes, the common soil and climatic conditions did not  
545 unify the ectomycorrhizal community composition. Ectomycorrhizal root tips have a lifespan  
546 from months up to several years (53–55). Therefore, the observed dissimilarity of the fungal  
547 communities still reflects differences of the SW and NE sites. The SW assemblage exhibited  
548 higher ectomycorrhizal fungal species richness and stronger  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment than the NE  
549 assemblage. These superior features corresponded to higher  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment in the fine roots  
550 of SW trees and higher transport to the leaves and therefore support that the ectomycorrhizal  
551 communities influence N delivery to the host. Apparently, the structures of divergent

552 ectomycorrhizal communities can play decisive roles in the observed variations in beech N  
553 uptake and this may have resulted in differences in N uptake under field conditions (56). The  
554 finding that divergent *in situ* ectomycorrhizal communities exhibit functional diversity is an  
555 important result, because variation in ectomycorrhizal fungal species composition and  
556 abundance has often been interpreted to reflect the adaptation of the fungi to fluctuations of  
557 the external conditions, but the consequences for the host were unknown. The correlation of  
558 plant <sup>15</sup>N uptake with the ectomycorrhizal community of SW trees and not with the higher  
559 plant biomass of the NE trees supports that the SW fungal assemblage was more active in N  
560 acquisition.

561 In conclusion, among the different components of the experimental soil-mycorrhizosphere-  
562 plant system, the composition of the ectomycorrhizal community was related to host N  
563 acquisition, whereas evidence for physiological differences as the result genetic adaptation or  
564 long lasting acclimation due to plant origin was not observed. Our findings highlight that the  
565 associated ectomycorrhizal communities of beech from the two contrasting environments  
566 exhibit important differences in N acquisition in the soil-plant system. How different  
567 ectomycorrhizal communities interact with the complex rhizosphere net of microbes under  
568 field conditions and how a wider range of climatic effects impacts the functional composition  
569 of ectomycorrhizal communities needs to be studied in future. To counteract the predicted  
570 negative consequences of climate change for forest productivity (57), the identification of  
571 drought tolerant beech provenances for the establishment of resistant forests has been  
572 suggested (47, 58). Our results suggest that this strategy will be insufficient when not  
573 combined with the application of adapted microbial communities, in particular  
574 ectomycorrhizal communities, because these communities impact on tree N supply, and  
575 therefore are crucial for forest productivity in N limited ecosystems.

576

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585



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- 747

748 **Table 1. Characteristics of root tips of young beech trees (*Fagus sylvatica*) originating from**  
 749 **dry (SW) and moist (NE) beech forests.** Trees from the natural regeneration collected on the  
 750 south west and the north east slope in beech forests were cultured for two months in a sand-peat  
 751 mixture and fertilized regularly. Trees were harvested regularly within the experimental week  
 752 (n = 8 per site and sampling date). Data show means  $\pm$  SE of all sampling dates per site. P-  
 753 values of General Linear Models for the factor “Site” are shown, because the factor “Time” had  
 754 no significant effect ( $P_{\text{time}} > 0.05$ ). \* p value of the permutation test calculated with 1000  
 755 permutation matrices. P-values  $< 0.05$  are highlighted in bold letters.

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	NE	SW	$P_{\text{site}}$
Mycorrhizal root tips [%]	38.08 $\pm$ 2.38	30.36 $\pm$ 2.55	<b>0.03</b>
Species richness	32	36	<b>0.001*</b>
Dead root tips [%]	6.57 $\pm$ 0.93	12.87 $\pm$ 1.94	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Non mycorrhizal root tips [%]	55.34 $\pm$ 2.51	56.77 $\pm$ 2.48	0.69



790 **Figure legends**

791

792 **Figure 1.  $^{15}\text{N}$  accumulation kinetics in soil N compounds, microbial biomass,**  
793 **ectomycorrhizas, and plant tissues.** Natural beech regeneration was transplanted into a  
794 sand-peat mixture, grown with regular fertilizer application for two months under identical  
795 conditions and labeled for 8d with  $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ . Data are means ( $n = 8, \pm \text{SE}$ ) in atom-% excess  
796 (APE) for ammonia (a), nitrate (b), DON (dissolved organic nitrogen, c) and microbial  
797 biomass (d) in soil as well as for leaves (e), fine roots (f), non mycorrhizal root tips (g), and  
798 mycorrhizal root tips (h). Note different scales. NE: closed circles, SW: open circles, Data  
799 were compared by General Linear Models with “Time” and “Site” as fixed factors. P-values  
800 for the factor “Site” are indicated in the figure. All P values for the factor “Time” were  
801 significant at  $P < 0.05$ .

802

803 **Figure 2. Abundance of functional genes involved in the nitrogen cycle (a: nifH, b: amoA**  
804 **AOB, c: narG, d: nirK) in the rhizosphere soil of trees originating from NE (grey) and**  
805 **SW (white) forests.** Copy numbers of genes are shown before (day 0) and at day 1, 3, and  
806 after labelling ( $n=8$ ). Differences were considered to be significant when  $p < 0.05$ .

807

808 **Figure 3. Non-metric multidimensional scaling for ectomycorrhizal communities.** The  
809 abundance based Morisita index was used as similarity measure to calculate a two-  
810 dimensional NMDS based on the abundances of the ectomycorrhizal species. N (blue) and S  
811 (red) refer to NE or SW treatments and 0, 1, 3, and 8 to the sampling dates where the  
812 ectomycorrhizal species composition was determined. Information for the species  
813 composition of ectomycorrhizal communities is shown in Table S1. Explanatory variables  
814 (green vectors) were the frequencies of dead roots (Mort), ectomycorrhizal-colonized root tips  
815 (EM), and non-mycorrhizal roots (NM), the frequencies of ascomycota, basidiomycota and



- 816 unknown fungal divisions, plant biomass (PBM), microbial biomass (MBN), plant  $^{15}\text{N}$  uptake  
817 ( $^{15}\text{Nup\_plant}$ ) and microbial  $^{15}\text{N}$  uptake ( $^{15}\text{Nup\_MB}$ ). Stress: 0.215.





