

**Adaptive root foraging strategies along a boreal-temperate forest gradient**

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Key Words:	boreal and temperate forests, fine and ectomycorrhizal root biomass, root foraging, root morphology, soil and rhizosphere bacteria, soil C:N ratio, climate gradient, ectomycorrhizal mycelium

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# 1 Adaptive root foraging strategies along a boreal-temperate forest gradient

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3 Running head: Root foraging strategies

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 31 root morphology, ectomycorrhizal mycelium, soil and rhizosphere bacteria, soil C:N ratio,  
 32 climate gradient

33

### 34 Summary

35

- 36 • Tree root-mycorrhizosphere plays a key role in resource uptake, but also in adaptation of  
 37 forests to changing environments.
- 38 • Adaptive foraging mechanisms of ectomycorrhizal (EcM) and fine roots of *Picea abies*,  
 39 *Pinus sylvestris* and *Betula pendula* were evaluated along a gradient from temperate to  
 40 subarctic boreal forest (38 sites between latitudes 48°N and 69°N) in Europe. Variables  
 41 describing tree resource uptake structures and processes (absorptive fine root biomass and  
 42 morphology, N concentration in absorptive roots, extramatrical mycelium (EMM)  
 43 biomass, community structure of root-associated EcM fungi, soil and rhizosphere  
 44 bacteria) were used to analyse relationships between root system functional traits and  
 45 climate, soil and stand characteristics.
- 46 • Absorptive fine root biomass per stand basal area increased significantly from temperate  
 47 to boreal forests, coinciding with longer and thinner root tips with higher tissue density,  
 48 smaller EMM biomass per root length and with a shift in soil microbial community  
 49 structure. Soil C:N ratio was found to explain most of the variability in absorptive fine

50 root and EMM biomass, root tissue density, N concentration, and rhizosphere bacterial  
51 community structure.

- 52 • We suggest a concept of absorptive fine root foraging strategies involving both qualitative  
53 and quantitative changes in the root-mycorrhiza-bacteria continuum along climate and  
54 soil C:N gradients.

55

## 56 **Introduction**

57 Fine root foraging for water and mineral nutrients is of primary importance for ecosystem  
58 productivity and relies on a range of specific root traits to achieve this function. Characteristics  
59 such as the biomass of absorptive fine roots (Helmisaari *et al.*, 2009; Ostonen *et al.*, 2011), root  
60 tip morphology (Adams *et al.*, 2013; Ostonen *et al.*, 2013; Eissenstat *et al.*, 2015), predisposition  
61 to ectomycorrhizal symbiosis (Trocha *et al.*, 2010) and associations with rhizosphere bacterial  
62 communities (Kuzyakov & Blagodatskaya, 2015) are all critical to resource capture by trees.  
63 Despite the growing understanding of the importance of fine roots and their associated  
64 mycorrhiza and bacterial communities in the rhizosphere for carbon (C) and nutrient cycling in  
65 forests (Kuzyakov & Xu, 2013), studies of the functioning and adaptability of “the root-  
66 mycorrhiza-bacteria continuum” to a range of environmental conditions are still in their infancy.  
67 Fine roots are not homogenous; significant anatomical, morphological and physiological  
68 differentiation is present within this root category (Saljajev, 1959; Eshel & Waisel, 1996;  
69 Ostonen *et al.*, 1999; Hishi, 2007; Zadworny *et al.*, 2016). Following McCormack *et al.*, (2015),  
70 we consider fine roots as (i) absorptive roots of first and second order or mostly mycorrhizal  
71 short roots with an intact cortex and (ii) transport roots commonly defined as thin woody roots.  
72 Fine root biomass (FRB) of both absorptive and transport roots has been found to be very similar  
73 in boreal and temperate forest ecosystems (Finér *et al.*, 2007, 2011a). However, the amount of  
74 absorptive root tips per stand basal area can vary more than tenfold between these two forest  
75 biomes (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011). There are known differences between the absorptive and transport  
76 fine roots in lifespan (Guo *et al.*, 2008), nutrient uptake and ability to establish fungal symbiosis  
77 (Ostonen *et al.*, 2007ab; Zadworny & Eissenstat, 2011; Ouimette *et al.*, 2013; McCormack *et al.*,  
78 2015). These two functional fine root groups are rarely evaluated separately in current carbon-  
79 cycle models (Deckmyn *et al.*, 2014; Warren *et al.*, 2015).

80 Root tips with their symbiotic fungi and associated bacterial communities are metabolically  
81 active, making many of their traits good indicators of root system adaptability. The magnitude  
82 and the velocity of changes of morphological root traits indicate the level of root system  
83 plasticity and the adaptation potential of fine root foraging (Ostonen *et al.*, 2013; Eissenstat *et al.*,  
84 2015). A majority of trees in temperate and boreal forests extend their nutrient acquisition  
85 capacity by extending fresh carbohydrate supply to ectomycorrhizal fungi (Read, 1992) and to  
86 the rich communities of bacteria in the rhizosphere (Kuzyakov & Blagodatskaya, 2015).  
87 Extraradical mycelia of EcM fungi increase nutrient supply by exploring root-free soil  
88 pores/compartments and by translocating organic C to stimulate bacterial activity (Marupakula *et*  
89 *al.*, 2016).

90 Functioning of the root–mycorrhiza–bacteria continuum is critical to optimal performance of the  
91 root system (McNickle *et al.*, 2009). Depending on the relative contribution of roots and  
92 microbionts to tree resource supply, fine root foraging strategies (Löhmus *et al.*, 2006; Ostonen *et*  
93 *al.*, 2007a; Ostonen *et al.*, 2011) have been described as (i) *an extensive fine root foraging*  
94 *strategy* with a predominance of absorptive fine root biomass, surface area and length, requiring  
95 greater C allocation to root formation, and (ii) *an intensive fine root foraging strategy* with a  
96 smaller investment to absorptive fine root biomass, but a greater reliance on the root-mycorrhiza-  
97 bacteria continuum. The latter strategy, recently termed as *acquisitive resource economics*  
98 *strategy* (Weemstra *et al.*, 2016), implies greater dependence on interactions between roots,  
99 mycorrhizas and soil bacteria, possibly resulting in higher efficiency of the root system in terms  
100 of resource capture per unit C invested. However, experimental verification of this concept at the  
101 field scale is still lacking and little is known about the functional role of bi- and trilateral shifts in  
102 the root-mycorrhiza-bacteria continuum along climatic and environmental gradients.

103  
104 In this study, we explore the potential of extending the concept of adaptive fine root foraging  
105 described in a Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) Karst.) forest gradient (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011) to  
106 other tree species: Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and silver birch (*Betula pendula* Roth.). Our  
107 main objective is to construct a conceptual, multidimensional framework applicable to the  
108 description and analysis of resource capture strategies employed by the root-mycorrhiza-bacteria  
109 communities in forest soils. We consider the adaptation potential of fine root foraging against the  
110 backdrop of a range of environmental conditions along a boreal to temperate forest gradient. We

111 hypothesize that: (i) the pattern of absorptive fine root biomass allocation is not tree species-  
112 specific, but rather driven by environmental factors and (ii) there is a causal trilateral relationship  
113 between absorptive fine roots and the associated communities of ectomycorrhizal fungi and soil  
114 bacteria. We aim to link the biomass and the number of absorptive fine root tips and the changes  
115 in the community structure of colonizing ectomycorrhizal fungi, and soil and rhizosphere bacteria  
116 to earlier fine root longevity estimates in our study sites to advance the concept of adaptive fine  
117 root foraging strategies.

118

## 119 **Material and methods**

120

### 121 ***Forest stands***

122

123 A set of 38 forest stands along a climate gradient representing boreal, hemi-boreal and temperate  
124 forests was used in this study; comprising 13 Scots pine, 10 silver birch and 15 Norway spruce  
125 forests covering a latitudinal range from 69° to 48° N (Fig. 1, Table S1). The IUSS Working  
126 Group WRB (2014) soil classification criteria were used to describe soils at each site (Table S2).  
127 Topsoil C:N ratio (organic layer + mineral soil up to 20 cm of soil depth) was used to describe  
128 site quality with respect to nutrient availability (Callesen *et al.*, 2007; Lehtonen *et al.*, 2015). We  
129 classified boreal sites as N-limited forests when N in throughfall was  $< 10 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  and  
130 hemi-boreal and temperate sites as N-enriched when N in throughfall exceeded  $10 \text{ N kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ,  
131 following Gundersen *et al.* (2006). Stand characteristics such as mean tree height (m) and stand  
132 basal area (BA, the area of breast-height cross sections of all the trees in a stand per area unit,  $\text{m}^2$   
133  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ) were either obtained from published data (Borken *et al.*, 2007; Helmisaari *et al.*, 2007;  
134 Vanguelova *et al.*, 2007; Merilä *et al.*, 2014; Varik *et al.*, 2015) or measured at the time of root  
135 sample collection (Table S2). Climate, N-deposition, stand and soil characteristics correlated with  
136 latitude as well as with each other (Table S3).

137

### 138 ***Root traits***

139

140 FRB on 25 sites, and total root tip number and N concentration on 23 sites were established prior  
141 to this study (Ostonen *et al.*, 2005; Borken *et al.*, 2007; Helmisaari *et al.*, 2007, 2009;

142 Vanguelova *et al.*, 2007; Leppälammii-Kujansuu *et al.*, 2014a,b; Varik *et al.*, 2015). On 10 of the  
143 remaining sites, FRB and tip number from the organic layer and the 0–20 cm mineral soil layer  
144 were determined from 10 to 15 soil cores per site following Ostonen *et al.* (2005). Fine root  
145 longevity data for Norway spruce were obtained by soil core and minirhizotron methods (Table  
146 2; Ostonen *et al.*, 2005; Gaul *et al.*, 2009; Leppälammii-Kujansuu *et al.*, 2014a,b).

147 Absorptive root morphology, EcM fungal colonisers and (birch) rhizosphere microbiology were  
148 assessed by analysing 8–10 samples taken randomly from the topsoil (cutting area 225 cm<sup>2</sup>, depth  
149 of 20 cm) of all stands at the end of the growing season (September–October) once during the  
150 period from 2008 to 2012 (Table S4). Root tips were cleaned and counted under a microscope.  
151 Two or three first and second order root segments with about 20–30 tips were collected from each  
152 soil sample. The total number of root tips sampled and analysed per stand ranged from 234 to 949  
153 in spruce, from 185 to 1330 in pine and from 239 to 1306 in birch.

154 Root tips were scanned at 400 dpi and analysed with WinRHIZO™ Pro 2003b image analysis  
155 system (Regent Instruments Inc. 2003) to establish diameter, length and projected area. Air-dried  
156 roots were further desiccated at 70 °C for 2–3 h to constant weight and weighed. Root tissue  
157 density (RTD, kg m<sup>-3</sup>), specific root area (SRA, m<sup>2</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup>) and specific root length (SRL, m g<sup>-1</sup>)  
158 were calculated as described in Ostonen *et al.* (1999). Root branching intensity was expressed as  
159 the number of root tips per 1 mg of dry mass.

160 Absorptive fine root biomass (aFRB, g m<sup>-2</sup>) was calculated by multiplying mean root tip weight  
161 by root tip number per m<sup>2</sup>. Carbohydrate allocation to absorptive roots was established as the  
162 ratio of aFRB to total fine root biomass (FRB, g m<sup>-2</sup>). Absorptive fine root biomass per stand BA  
163 (aFRB/BA, kg m<sup>-2</sup>) was used as a proxy describing the functional relationship between the  
164 above- and belowground parts of a forest stand. Root area index (m<sup>2</sup> m<sup>-2</sup>) of absorptive roots was  
165 calculated as specific root area of absorptive roots multiplied by their biomass.

166

### 167 ***EcM fungal community analysis***

168

169 Root tips from three additional fine root fragments (5–7 cm in length) from each root sample  
170 were sorted into morphotypes on the basis of colour and fungal mantle, hyphae and rhizomorph  
171 texture. Non-mycorrhizal root tips were found in 7 of 10 birch stands and in 2 conifer stands  
172 only, however, their proportion of the total was very low (Table S5). Dominating morphotypes,



173 defined as those exceeding 20% of all tips in a sample, were identified and scored. Three  
174 randomly selected individual root tips of each morphotype per sample were abscised and  
175 immersed into CTAB lysis buffer [100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1.4 M NaCl, 20 mM EDTA, 2%  
176 cetyl-trimethylammonium-bromide], maintained at room temperature until molecular analysis  
177 and subjected to a sequence analysis of the nuclear rDNA Internal Transcriber Spacer (ITS)  
178 region. DNA was extracted using a Qiagen DNeasy 96 Plant Kit (Qiagen, Crawley, UK) as per  
179 manufacturer's instructions. Primers, PCR conditions, product purification, sequencing and  
180 sequence processing are described in Tedersoo *et al.* (2010). Sequences were assigned to species  
181 based on a 97% ITS barcoding threshold (Tedersoo *et al.*, 2003), except for *Cortinariaceae* and  
182 *Hydnangiaceae* where 99% threshold was used. For species-level identification, representative  
183 sequences of each species were subjected to a bulk megablast search against International  
184 Nucleotide Sequence Databases (INSD) as implemented in the PlutoF work-bench of the UNITE  
185 database (Abarenkov *et al.*, 2010a,b). All morphotypes were also assigned to EcM exploration  
186 types (i.e. contact, short-distance, medium-distance smooth and fringe and long-distance types;  
187 cf. Agerer, 2001).

188

### 189 ***Ectomycorrhizal extramatrical mycelia biomass***

190

191 Extramatrical mycelium (EMM) biomass per EcM root tip ( $\mu\text{g cm}^{-1}$  EcM root tip<sup>-1</sup>) of each stand  
192 was calculated using biomass coefficients for different exploration types (calculations in Weigt *et al.*  
193 *et al.*, 2011; Weigt *et al.*, 2012a,b) and frequency of dominating EcM morphotypes (percent of root  
194 samples colonised). Additional colonisation frequency data for EcM roots were acquired from the  
195 literature (Toljander *et al.*, 2006; Twieg *et al.*, 2007; Børja & Nilsen, 2009; Cox, 2010; Jones *et al.*  
196 *et al.*, 2010; Deslippe *et al.*, 2011; Peay *et al.*, 2011; Kluber *et al.*, 2012; Pickles *et al.*, 2012;  
197 Karlinski *et al.*, 2013) to compare estimates of EMM biomass from different stands across the  
198 latitudinal gradient. EMM biomass was considered an indicator of (i) carbohydrate allocation to  
199 mycelia and (ii) area explored by EcM. All characteristics used in this study are presented in  
200 Table S4.

201

### 202 ***Soil and root chemistry***

203

204 Bulk soil samples for microbiological (stored in a -20 °C) and chemical analyses (pH-KCl, N,  
205 soluble P, Ca, Mg, K, loss of ignition; methods described in Table S2) were taken from the same  
206 soil core as the root samples. Root fragments were gently shaken to separate the rhizosphere  
207 fraction from the soil particles adhering to roots. Total C and N content in the absorptive roots  
208 were determined using a CHN analyzer (Perkin Elmer 2400/SII).

209

### 210 ***Bacterial community analyses***

211

212 In order to assess the role of soil bacterial community in fine root foraging strategy, a pilot study  
213 was conducted in birch stands. PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (Mo Bio Laboratories, Inc., USA,  
214 manufacturer's protocol) was used to extract DNA from bulk and rhizosphere soil samples. The  
215 only modification was at the cell lysis and homogenisation step, which was performed for 20 s at  
216 5,000 rpm using homogenizator Precellys 24 (Bertin Technologies). The abundance of bulk soil  
217 bacterial communities was evaluated by 16S rRNA gene fragment copy numbers and applying  
218 quantitative PCR (qPCR). The forward (5'-GAACGCGARGAACCTTACC-3') and reverse (5'-  
219 ACAACACGAGCTGACGAC-3') primers were used to amplify a bacteria-specific V6  
220 hypervariable region of the 16s rRNA gene (Gloor *et al.*, 2010). All amplifications and  
221 calculations were performed as described by Ligi *et al.* (2015).

222 Bacterial community profiling was performed using Illumina® HiSeq 2000 (Illumina Inc., San  
223 Diego, CA, USA) by sequencing combinatorial sequence-tagged PCR products using the same  
224 primers as described in qPCR. The forward and reverse primers with 6 bp length barcodes were  
225 used in PCR. Sample PCR reaction conditions and library preparation for sequencing are  
226 described by Ligi *et al.* (2014).

227 The paired-end reads were assembled into composite reads using PEAR (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). The  
228 total initial number of sequences after assembling paired-end reads was 3,934,542. The  
229 assembled reads were analysed using Mothur version 1.33.3 (Schloss *et al.*, 2009), following  
230 modified standard operating procedure guidelines, apart from the clustering step which was  
231 carried out with the external programme CROP (Hao *et al.*, 2011). Low quality sequences  
232 (containing ambiguous bases or more than six homopolymers, minimum read length of 70 bp, or  
233 an average sequencing quality score less than 35 over a 25-bp sliding window) were discarded. In  
234 total 3,667,727 usable reads were obtained (the total of unique reads was 268,673). The

235 remaining sequences were aligned to the SILVA-compatible reference alignment (Pruesse *et al.*,  
236 2007) to screen out overlapping sequences from resulting multiple sequence alignment for  
237 clustering.

238 The sequences were also classified using Mothur's internal version of RDP classifier (Wang *et al.*,  
239 2007) using Greengenes (DeSantis *et al.*, 2006) reference database and these sequences that  
240 remained unclassified at kingdom or phylum level, or were classified as other than bacterial  
241 sequences, were removed. Suitable sequences (3,006,517 – 47,988 of them unique) were  
242 clustered with CROP into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at 95% similarity level. In the  
243 final step the samples were normalised to the smallest sample size (29,635 reads) by random re-  
244 sampling to make them statistically comparable with each other in Mothur. The taxonomic  
245 identity of each phylotype was determined by referring to the Greengenes reference database. All  
246 assembled reads were deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive under the accession number  
247 PRJEB12905.

248

#### 249 ***Statistical analyses***

250

251 Variables describing EcM root traits were tested for normality of distribution using Lilliefors and  
252 Shapiro–Wilk tests, homogeneity of variance was tested using F and Levene tests. Multiple  
253 comparisons of means were carried out using Tukey's test for unequal sample sizes with 95%  
254 confidence intervals. Forward selection simple regression models were used to analyse  
255 relationships between root traits and environmental factors (n=38). Spearman rank correlation  
256 coefficients were used to describe EcM exploration types (ranked from 1 to 5 starting from  
257 contact type, n=372 for pine, n=317 for birch) as affected by root traits and environmental factors  
258 (STATISTICA 7.0: StatSoft, Sweden). GLM (Type III SS) was used to assess the effect of tree  
259 species and forest zone (boreal, hemi-boreal, temperate forests) on root traits; climate, soil and  
260 stand factors were used as covariates.

261 Redundancy analysis (RDA, CANOCO; ter Braak & Šmilauer, 2002) was used to describe  
262 relationships between root morphological characteristics and sites and morphotypes as  
263 descriptive factors separately for all tree species. Significance of RDA results was tested with a  
264 permutation test ( $p < 0.01$ ).

265 Inverse Simpson Indexes (ISI) for bacterial communities of the bulk soil and rhizosphere were  
266 calculated from OTU data. Kendall rank correlation coefficients were calculated to test the  
267 relationships between bacterial community diversity parameters (OTU number and ISI) and soil  
268 and root morphology parameters and to test the relationship between the OTU abundances and  
269 stand geographic location (distance from equator).

270 Hellinger transformation (HTM) was used to transform OTUs relative abundances for both soil  
271 fractions and then used in RDA. The non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS), based on the  
272 HTM, was applied to bulk soil and rhizosphere samples to explore and visualise differences  
273 between studied stands. Phylogenetic molecular ecological networks (pMENs) based on bacterial  
274 OTU data were constructed for birch stand bulk soil and rhizosphere by applying the Molecular  
275 Ecological Network Analyses Pipeline (MENAP) (Deng *et al.*, 2012). Topological properties of  
276 the empirical phylogenetic molecular ecological networks of microbial communities and their  
277 associated random phylogenetic molecular ecological networks for bulk soil and rhizosphere  
278 samples were calculated (Table S6). Relationships of environmental factors (soil variables, root  
279 morphological parameters) with obtained networks modules were analysed using modules HTM  
280 and applying RDA. In case of network modules that were related to the stand distance from the  
281 equator according to Mantel test the correlation of module OTU relative abundances to the stand  
282 distance from the equator was tested using linear regression analysis. Procrustes analyses using  
283 ordinations of the bacterial (whole community and pMEN modules of the rhizosphere and bulk  
284 soil) and EcM fungal community (at functional group level) were applied to explore the  
285 relationships between bacterial and EcM fungal community structure in birch stand soils.

286

## 287 **Results**

288

### 289 ***Biomass allocation into absorptive roots***

290

291 The proportion of absorptive fine root biomass (aFRB) out of the total FRB along the latitudinal  
292 gradient increased towards the northern boreal forests in all tree species (Table 1), the rate of  
293 increase did not differ between species (difference test,  $p < 0.05$ ; Fig. S1). The absorptive fine root  
294 biomass per stand BA increased exponentially from the temperate to the boreal zone (Fig. 2),  
295 with a significant forest zone effect on aFRB/BA (GLM,  $F=74.8$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  $n=31$ , Fig. 2). An

296 increase of 10° latitude from temperate to hemi-boreal forests means an increase of aFRB/BA by  
 297 9.0, 12.7 and 16.1 kg m<sup>-2</sup> in pine, spruce and birch stands, respectively. A further increase of 10°  
 298 latitude from hemi-boreal to northern boreal forests adds an additional 40.5, 44.7 and 27.9 kg m<sup>-2</sup>  
 299 of absorptive FRB per stand BA in pine, spruce and birch stands, respectively (Table 2; Fig. 2).  
 300 Stepwise regression analyses comparing climatic, soil and stand factors indicate that aFRB/BA  
 301 was related to soil C:N ratio and to mean tree heights ( $y=0.753(\text{C:N})-0.686$  (height),  $R^2=0.81$ ,  
 302  $p<0.0001$ ). Root area index was up to 5-fold higher in the northern forests, mainly due to higher  
 303 biomass of absorptive roots (Table 2) and was related to soil C:N ratio (stepwise regression  
 304 analysis  $R^2=0.69$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=30$ ).

305

### 306 ***Absorptive FRB per stand BA in relation to soil C:N ratio and N concentration of root tips***

307

308 Soil C:N ratio was the main factor describing the variability of absorptive FRB per stand BA  
 309 along the climatic gradient (GLM, Type III SS, whole model  $R^2=0.90$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), with a  
 310 significant difference between birch and conifers (Fig. 3a). Soil C:N ratio varied from 12 to 23 in  
 311 birch stands compared to a range of 18 to 49 in coniferous stands (Table S2). In birch, aFRB/BA  
 312 was five times higher at the northern sites, with soil C:N ratio from 19 to 23, than at the southern  
 313 stands where C:N declined below 17.

314 Absorptive FRB per stand BA was negatively correlated with nitrogen concentration (%N) of  
 315 absorptive roots both in pine ( $r=-0.66$ ,  $p=0.018$ ,  $n=12$ ) and in spruce ( $r=-0.71$ ,  $p=0.015$ ,  $n=11$ ).  
 316 Soil C:N ratio was the main environmental parameter driving absorptive root N concentration  
 317 ( $R^2=0.57$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ,  $n=34$ ; Fig 3b). The threshold of root N concentration at which the drastic  
 318 change in the absorptive FRB per stand BA occurs was <2.5% for birch and <1.5 % for conifers  
 319 (Table 2). Fine root longevity in the spruce stands was, on average, 2.0 years in the north and 0.7  
 320 years in the south (t-test,  $p=0.012$ ,  $n=4$ ).

321

### 322 ***Root morphology***

323

324 The total absorptive fine root biomass per stand BA was related to mean SRL and length of root  
 325 tips ( $R^2=0.43$ ;  $p<0.001$ ;  $F_{2,29}=10.89$ ), indicating a link between biomass allocation and  
 326 morphology of root tips. Morphological traits of absorptive roots varied across the latitudinal

327 gradient and among tree species (Fig. 4; Table S7). On the basis of the length of correlation  
328 vectors, the highest proportion of variation in root traits was explained by latitude (correlation  
329 matrix is not shown). Tree species and geographical location of the stands explained 41% of the  
330 variation in absorptive root morphology ( $p < 0.001$ , RDA; Fig. S2). Root morphology of birch and  
331 pine exhibited similar pattern of increasing SRL towards the north (Fig. 4). The increase in SRL  
332 was mainly determined by the variation of diameter (by 61% in birch and by 52 % in pine,  
333  $p < 0.01$ ). Absorptive roots in spruce adjusted to the environmental gradient by modifying the root  
334 branching intensity, which was higher in temperate stands and was determined by a variation of  
335 root tip length (41%; Ostonen *et al.*, 2013). The length of an absorptive root tip in conifers was  
336 positively correlated with latitude ( $r = 0.75$ ,  $p < 0.000$ ); the average absorptive root tip was 2.1  
337 times longer in spruce and 1.7 times longer in pine in the northern sites compared to the southern  
338 forests (Fig. 4; Table S7).

339 Branching intensity and root tip length of birch and pine were not affected by soil chemistry,  
340 while root tissue density, diameter and SRL related significantly to N concentration ( $R^2$  varied  
341 from 0.55 to 0.59,  $p < 0.05$ ) and Mg content ( $R^2$  varied from 0.28 to 0.51,  $p < 0.05$ ) in the soil. RTD  
342 was species-specific (tree sp as random factor) and determined by soil C:N ratio ( $F = 8.29$ ,  
343  $p < 0.01$ ). RTD of absorptive roots (Fig. 4) of all tree species, as well as RTD of non-colonised  
344 root tips in birch (data not shown) was significantly higher (Tukey test,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $n_{\text{bor}} = 6$  and  
345  $n_{\text{temp}} = 7$ ) in northern low-N forests.

346

### 347 *Ectomycorrhiza*

348

349 Community structure of dominating EcM explained most of the morphological variability of  
350 absorptive roots in all tree species. Based on the redundancy analysis, dominating morphotypes  
351 explained 47% of the variation in spruce (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011), 63% and 57% of variation in  
352 pine and birch absorptive root morphology, respectively (Monte Carlo permutation test,  $p < 0.05$ ,  
353  $n = 48$  in spruce;  $p < 0.001$ ,  $n = 46$  in pine;  $p < 0.001$ ,  $n = 56$  in birch, respectively).

354 In spruce (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011) and birch forests, the largest number of EcM fungal species was  
355 assigned to contact and short-distance exploration types, while the medium-fringe exploration  
356 type was prevalent in pine forests (Table S5). An increasing presence of long-distance

357 exploration types was observed in both coniferous species in southern forests, but not in birch  
 358 (Table S5, data for spruce from Ostonen *et al.*, 2011).

359  
 360 ***Biomass of EcM mycelia.***  
 361  
 362 Biomass of EcM extramatrical mycelia (EMM,  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-1}$  EcM root tip<sup>-1</sup>) of dominating  
 363 morphotypes varied from 107 to 1417  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-1}$  EcM root tip<sup>-1</sup> in all stands, increased towards  
 364 lower latitudes and was similar in all tree species (Fig. 5). EMM biomass of dominating  
 365 morphotypes was related to latitude, fine root biomass, absorptive FRB per stand BA and soil  
 366 C:N ratio ( $R^2=0.65$ ,  $F_{5,21}=7.74$ ,  $p<0.001$ ,  $n=27$ ), however it was not directly affected by N-  
 367 deposition ( $p<0.36$ ).

368 Although EMM biomass per length unit of EcM root tip was significantly higher in N-enriched  
 369 southern stands (Fig. 5), taking into account the higher number of longer root tips in the north,  
 370 the estimated extramatrical mycelium was 2-4 times higher in the north than in the south, e.g. 93,  
 371 96 and 113  $\text{g m}^{-2}$  in boreal pine, birch and spruce forests, respectively. Estimates for temperate  
 372 pine, birch and spruce forests were 25, 35 and 62  $\text{g m}^{-2}$ , respectively

373  
 374 ***Bacterial community structure in soils of silver birch forests***

375  
 376 The bacterial 16S rRNA gene abundance varied between  $8.26 \times 10^9$  and  $8.64 \times 10^{10}$  copies  $\text{g}^{-1}$  DW  
 377 in the bulk soils of the studied birch stands (Table S8) and this variation was not related to the  
 378 distance between the stands or to distance from the equator. The bacterial community diversity  
 379 index (ISI) was the lowest in both bulk soil and rhizosphere in the northernmost (Kivalo,  
 380 Syktyvkar) and southernmost (Risley Moss) stands (Table S8), with no relationship between  
 381 diversity indicators (OTUs numbers, ISI) and stand distance from the equator. The bulk soil  
 382 bacterial communities were dissimilar in geographically more distant stands than in closer stands  
 383 (Mantle test,  $r=0.51$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Rhizosphere bacterial communities were grouping similarly to the  
 384 bulk soil communities (Procrustes analyses,  $r=0.83$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), based on differences in relative  
 385 abundances of bacterial groups at different taxonomic level, i.e. phyla *Acidobacteria* and  
 386 *Bacteroidetes*, classes *Acidobacteria* and *Spartobacteria*, order *Acidobacteriales* (Table S9).



387 Rhizosphere bacterial communities of the southern-most (Risley Moss) and the northernmost site  
388 (Kivalo) were distinctive from other sites on the NMDS ordination plots (Fig. S3a,b; Table S9).

389 The application of Molecular Ecological Network Analyses Pipeline on the OTU data resulted in  
390 two distinct phylogenetic molecular ecological networks (pMEN) for bulk soil and rhizosphere  
391 bacterial communities, consisting of eight and nine related modules, respectively (Fig. S4). All  
392 the modules had a unique phylotypic composition (Table S10). A substantial part of phylotypes  
393 from both soil fractions (about 56% in bulk soil and 74% in rhizosphere) were not involved in  
394 these networks. The stand distance from the equator was a significant predictor only in the case  
395 of one bulk soil module (H:  $r=0.58$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). The species from phyla *Actinobacteria* and  
396 *Proteobacteria* dominated (16 and 10 OTUs from 36, respectively), but there were also  
397 representatives from phyla *Acidobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, *Firmicutes*, *Chlamydiae*, *Spirochaetes*  
398 and *Verrucomicrobi*. Relative abundances of four bacterial phylotypes from this module were  
399 negatively related to the distance from the equator; however, two phylotypes in Risley Moss  
400 appeared to be deviant from the general pattern (Table S10; Fig. S5).

401 Soil characteristics had a strong effect on bacterial community structure in birch forest soils  
402 (Table 3), describing 48% of the bulk soil and 51% of the rhizosphere bacterial community  
403 variations ( $p<0.001$  in both cases). pH and P content were the driving soil factors - numbers of  
404 phylotype (OTUs) and diversity indices (ISI) in both soil fractions were correlated to soil pH  
405 (Kendall correlations  $\tau=0.6$  to  $0.69$ ,  $p<0.05$  in all cases). Soil C:N ratio correlated significantly  
406 with the number of OTUs in the rhizosphere ( $r=-0.64$ ,  $p=0.044$ ,  $n=10$ ). Soil K content was related  
407 to rhizosphere bacterial community diversity index values (Kendall correlations  $\tau=-0.51$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

408

#### 409 ***The root-mycorrhiza-bacteria continuum in birch forests***

410

411 Strong relationships between absorptive root morphology, EcM fungal community structure and  
412 bacterial community structure were found in bulk soil and rhizosphere in birch stands (Fig. 6).

413 There was a significant correlation between dominant fungal lineages, and the whole rhizosphere  
414 bacterial community structure (Procrustes analysis,  $p<0.05$ ). This relationship was statistically  
415 significant also in case when absorptive root morphology or soil chemical parameters were used  
416 in the analysis as covariables. In addition, diversity and proportions of dominant lineages of EcM



417 fungi correlated with the structure of rhizosphere phylogenetic molecular ecological network  
418 modules J and M (Fig. S4; Fig. 6).

419 The relationship between birch absorptive root morphology and soil bacterial community  
420 structure was stronger in the rhizosphere than in bulk soil. Significant correlations between root  
421 tip weight and bacterial diversity index ( $\tau=-0.51$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), and between root branching intensity  
422 and phylotype numbers ( $\tau=0.54$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in rhizosphere were revealed from the analyses. The  
423 structure of rhizosphere pMEN module N was also affected by root tip weight. In bulk soils the  
424 proportions of bacterial phylotypes in module E were related to root tissue density and tip weight  
425 of absorptive roots (Fig. 6).

426

## 427 **Discussion**

428

### 429 *Fine root foraging strategies*

430

431 Tree fine root system form a continuum with soil microbial communities for acquiring nutrients  
432 from the soil. Since it is not possible to isolate individual groups of organisms when studying  
433 their contribution to tree nutrition, we propose a multidimensional conceptual framework for fine  
434 root nutrient foraging strategies to advance the ecological gradient-related theory of adaptive  
435 plant economic spectrum (Freschet *et al.*, 2010; Prieto *et al.*, 2015). Birch, spruce and pine all  
436 grow an extensive mass of absorptive roots when growing in the N-poor subarctic soils close to  
437 their northernmost natural distribution limit. At the other end of the N availability scale, however,  
438 their fine root systems appear to switch to intensive foraging, resulting in a smaller absorptive  
439 root biomass per stand BA in temperate forests. The mechanisms employed to optimise the  
440 efficiency of absorptive root foraging are thought to include changes in root morphology, in  
441 mycelial biomass per root tip length unit and shifts in soil and rhizosphere bacterial community  
442 structure. We found significant complementarity in adaptive changes within the continuum of  
443 root-mycorrhiza-bacteria of birch and within the root-mycorrhiza continuum of pine and spruce  
444 driven by similar biomass allocation pattern in all studied tree species (Fig. 7).

445 Response curves of most root traits along the gradient were strongly related to the soil C:N ratio,  
446 which is a good indicator of soil organic matter quality as it determines how much N could  
447 potentially be mineralized per unit of C respired (Lehtonen *et al.*, 2015). Our analysis of bulk soil

448 bacterial community structure as a function of distance from the equator indicates lower  
449 macromolecules degradation activity potential in soils from northern birch stands. A smaller  
450 proportion of two species belonging to the cellulose degrading family *Chitinophagaceae* (Bailey  
451 *et al.*, 2013) may indicate a slowdown of litter decomposition and a subsequent decrease of  
452 nutrient availability.

453 Trees are thought to down-regulate their belowground C allocation in favour of aboveground  
454 growth in response to high N supply as fewer roots are needed to maintain sufficient N uptake  
455 (Vanninen & Mäkelä, 1999). A higher amount of fine roots and EcM tips per needle biomass  
456 (Helmisaari *et al.*, 2007, 2009), or up to 11 times more absorptive root biomass per stand BA  
457 (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011) is needed at higher latitudes ( $> 65^\circ$  N) on sites with high soil C:N ratio. In  
458 this study, absorptive root biomass per unit stand BA in the subarctic stands when compared to  
459 temperate stands was up to 12-times higher in pine and 6-times on birch. Even taking into  
460 account faster fine root turnover in temperate forests, the investment to absorptive root biomass  
461 per stand BA in boreal forests is still more than 4 times higher on average. These results are  
462 consistent with the previously proposed functional equilibrium theory (Brouwer, 1983), optimal  
463 partitioning theory (Bloom *et al.*, 1985), resource economic spectrum (Weemstra *et al.*, 2016), as  
464 well as with the recent development of process-based growth models recognising belowground C  
465 allocation (Mäkelä *et al.*, 2016). All studied tree species preferentially allocate more biomass to  
466 fine roots and EcM under N deficiency, the observed increase in root absorptive area in northern  
467 N-limited forests might be a reflection of that.

468 Our study provides evidence that the morphology of absorptive roots is closely related to biomass  
469 allocation to root tips. Irrespective of tree species, an increase in absorptive root biomass at stand  
470 level coincides with (i) longer and thinner roots with higher root tissue density and (ii) higher  
471 degree of colonisation by short-distance EcM types. Morphological adaptation was shown to be  
472 critical in stressful environments such as the northern boreal forests (Ostonen *et al.*, 2013), tree  
473 species-specific differences in absorptive root morphology were smaller in temperate forests (Fig.  
474 4).

475

476 ***Root morphology and structural shifts of root associated microbial communities***

477

478 Our results for birch suggest a strong relationship between absorptive fine root morphology and  
479 the structure of EcM and bacterial communities in the rhizosphere and bulk soil (Fig. 6). The role  
480 of each associated partner organism in resource uptake is modified by environmental conditions,  
481 e.g. soil C:N ratio across the latitudinal climate gradient. Further, these relationships are linked to  
482 biomass allocation patterns of absorptive roots observed between the northern N-poor and the  
483 southern N-rich forests. Our results are in good agreement with Högberg *et al.* (2007),  
484 demonstrating an increase of fungi-to-bacteria ratio and higher C allocation to belowground in N-  
485 limited forests with high soil C:N and with shifts in mycorrhizal and bacterial community  
486 structure. We show an effect of soil organic matter quality on bacterial community structure in  
487 the rhizosphere of birch absorptive roots. Where the number of bacterial phylotypes in the  
488 rhizosphere increased at lower soil C:N ratios, we saw a predominance of a bacterial consortium  
489 (module H) containing *Fluviicola* in soils with higher N content. Bacteria from this genus prefer  
490 rich soils and are able to degrade persistent organic molecules in plant root rhizosphere (Song *et*  
491 *al.*, 2016). Similarly, the share of *Tomentella* sp among the dominating EcM fungal colonisers  
492 increased, whereas *Cortinarius* sp colonization rate decreased towards richer soils of temperate  
493 forests. This is in agreement with the results of Kranabetter *et al.* (2009), who showed a similar  
494 pattern of these morphotypes along productivity gradients in a southern boreal forest.  
495 Furthermore, the rate of ammonium uptake of *Tomentella* spp was shown to be over three times  
496 that of *Cortinarius* spp (Kranabetter *et al.*, 2015), supporting our hypothesis of higher efficiency  
497 of absorptive roots in temperate forests. EcM community structure affects root-associated  
498 bacterial communities (Korkama *et al.*, 2007; Simard *et al.*, 2013) and bacteria may assist  
499 mycorrhiza formation as well (Frey-Klett *et al.*, 2007). We found that two bacterial consortiums  
500 in the rhizosphere of birch absorptive roots were related to the diversity of dominating colonizing  
501 EcM fungi. Our study across a gradient of birch forests revealed that bacterial network  
502 consortiums (classified at order level) in both bulk and rhizosphere soil can be linked to various  
503 types of phosphatases and phosphorous transport systems (Bergkemper *et al.*, 2016). *Rhizobiales*,  
504 *Solibacterales*, *Acidobacteriales* and *Rhodospirillales* were all represented in several bacterial  
505 network consortiums, with the structure of some of these (M) directly related to the dominant  
506 EcM community. The presence of the root-mycorrhiza-bacteria continuum discussed in this paper  
507 hints at interactions and feedback between root growth promotion mechanisms (e.g.  
508 phytostimulation via hormones) or direct physiological and metabolic mechanisms (e.g.

509 production of hydrolytic enzymes and root metabolites) that enable acquisition of soil phosphorus  
510 (Richardson & Simpson, 2011). The role of EcM fungi in P acquisition is well known (Plassard  
511 & Dell, 2010). In temperate spruce (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011) and pine forests, the proportion of root  
512 tips colonised with mycelium-rich EcM fungi forming rhizomorphs with long exploration  
513 morphotypes significantly increased. This supports our hypothesis of higher efficiency of an  
514 average root tip due to the enlargement of the explored soil volume through a mycelium-rich  
515 EcM fungal partner (Fig. 5) and related qualitative shift in the soil and rhizosphere bacterial  
516 communities in temperate stands, where a smaller absorptive fine root biomass is supporting the  
517 same forest basal area unit.

518 Absorptive root tissue density was found to correlate with rhizosphere bacterial network  
519 structure, highlighting the direct impact of root physiological traits on rhizosphere bacteria.  
520 Furthermore, significant correlations between bacterial phylotype numbers and root branching  
521 intensity, as well as between bacterial diversity index and root tip weight, suggest that a higher  
522 number of bacterial species were more evenly distributed, particularly around younger root tips  
523 probably due to the better substrate supply from the root (Folman *et al.*, 2001). In birch forests  
524 subjected to the climate change manipulation, the changes in the structure of soil bacterial  
525 community and root morphology were complementary to each other (Truu *et al.*, 2017). Root  
526 tissue density has been shown to correlate with root tip lifespan (Ryser, 1996; Ostonen *et al.*,  
527 2013), and resource uptake rates decline with increasing root age (Yanai *et al.*, 1995). Up to a  
528 1.5-fold increase in RTD of absorptive roots towards the boreal spruce forests coincides with a  
529 threefold increase of fine root longevity. Older mycorrhizal root tips are more likely to support  
530 only limited extramatrical mycelium activity and lowered availability of transferable nutrients in  
531 the fungus (Cairney & Alexander, 1992). This is consistent with our hypothesis of absorptive  
532 roots with lower resource uptake efficiency in the north.

533 Although fine root lifespan has been shown to be longer in boreal than in temperate forests (Finér  
534 *et al.*, 2011b), existing fine root longevity data are not yet sufficient to evaluate tree species-  
535 specific patterns on a broad spectrum of soil C:N ratios. Some evidence of higher fine root  
536 longevity in soils with a high C:N ratio is available for spruce (Ostonen *et al.*, 2005; Gaul *et al.*,  
537 2009; Leppälammil-Kujansuu *et al.*, 2014a,b) and for birch (Varik *et al.*, 2015; Uri *et al.*, 2017).  
538 The observed increase in absorptive root biomass per stand BA towards the north is  
539 complementary with a decrease in N concentration of absorptive roots (Fig. 7), both related to an

540 increase in soil C:N ratio. The concentration of N of roots is asymptotically approaching the  
541 physiological limit (Wang *et al.*, 2014) in low-N subarctic stands matching with the northernmost  
542 extension of studied tree species. Root tip N concentration might be a good predictor for the  
543 absorptive fine root biomass. A switch to a larger absorptive root biomass occurs when the  
544 average N concentration reaches <1.5% in conifers and <2.5% in birch (Fig. 3b). Trees increase  
545 absorptive root biomass to ensure sufficient nutrient uptake, this often coincides with two- to  
546 fourfold increase in the amount of connected mycelia (irrespective of fungal community  
547 structure). Although ectomycorrhizal N uptake is more cost-efficient for the individual trees at  
548 low soil N availability, purely mycorrhizal strategy may cause immobilisation and decline of N in  
549 the soil at the stand level (Näsholm *et al.*, 2013; Franklin *et al.*, 2014). This theory is supported  
550 by our results of a low N level of root tips and high C investment to root and mycelial biomass in  
551 boreal forests. The critical mass of absorptive roots per stand BA for transition of the foraging  
552 strategy in all three studied tree species seems to be close to 20 kg absorptive roots per m<sup>2</sup> (Fig.  
553 2), despite the difference in absolute root N values between conifers and birch.  
554 Our concept of fine root foraging strategies puts forward the notion that quantitative differences  
555 in absorptive fine root biomass per stand BA are concurrent with changes in root morphology. At  
556 the same time, a foraging strategy involves qualitative shifts in multitrophic interactions in the  
557 rhizosphere involving host trees, EcM fungi and associated bacteria. The variety of alternatives  
558 within the root-mycorrhiza-bacteria continuum enables adaptive root foraging in both northern  
559 subarctic boreal and southern temperate forests. We envisage a trilateral relation between the  
560 morphological traits of absorptive fine roots, exploration types of colonising EcM fungi and  
561 rhizosphere and bulk soil bacterial community structure. Thus, qualitative shifts in root  
562 associated microbial communities affect biomass partitioning of trees, which in turn can lead to a  
563 switch in the fine root foraging strategy and to a change in belowground C pathways.

564

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566

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581

### 582 **Author contributions**

583

584 I.O., M.T., J.T. and K.L. designed the study with contributions from H-S. H. (Finland), W.B. and  
585 U.Z. (Germany), D.L.G. and E.V. (UK), K.A. (Lithuania); M.T., J.T., J-K. P. carried out the  
586 analyses of soil and rhizosphere bacteria, I.O. morphotyped and L.T. carried out molecular  
587 analysis of EcM fungi; I.O., K.R., K.P., M.K., U.Z, performed morphological studies and  
588 determined fine root biomass for some of the stands; D.L.G. and M.L. conducted field work in  
589 Syktyvkar and Risley Moss; J.A., M.V. and V.U. were responsible for measuring stand  
590 characteristics in Estonia and P.N. for Finland; A-J.L., P.M., Ü.N., J.F., N.K., K.A. were  
591 responsible for climatic and soil characteristics in Finnish, Estonian and Lithuanian stands. J. L-  
592 K. conducted field work and provided data for Flakaliden. I.O., K.L., J.T., L.T. and J-K.P. carried  
593 out statistical analyses. All authors discussed the results; I.O. oversaw the study and drafted the  
594 manuscript; I.O., M.L., M.T., J.T., H-S.H., E.V., W.B., D.L.G., K.R. and L.T. co-wrote the paper.

595

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879 **Legends of the Figures**

880 **Fig. 1** Study sites in European boreal and temperate *Picea abies* (red dots), *Pinus sylvestris*  
881 (green), *Betula pendula* stands (yellow). Blow-up box shows sites in Estonia due to their close  
882 proximity.

883 **Fig. 2** The absorptive fine root biomass per stand basal area (aFRB/BA,  $\text{kg m}^{-2}$ ) in birch, pine and  
884 spruce stands along the latitudinal gradient.

885 **Fig. 3** The relationship between (a) absorptive fine root biomass of birch, pine and spruce stands  
886 and respective soil C:N ratio and (b) %N of absorptive roots in birch (open circles), pine  
887 (triangles) and spruce (filled circles) stands along the soil C:N ratio gradient.

888  
889 **Fig. 4** (a) Mean diameter (mm), (b) mean length (mm) of absorptive root tips and (c) root tissue  
890 density (RTD,  $\text{kg m}^{-3}$ ), (d) root branching intensity (No of tips  $\text{mg}^{-1}$ ) and specific root length  
891 (SRL,  $\text{m g}^{-1}$ ) of the absorptive roots in birch (open circles), spruce (filled circles) and pine  
892 (triangles) stands along the latitudinal gradient.

893  
894 **Fig. 5** The change of specific ectomycorrhizal extramatrical mycelial biomass (EMM biomass;  
895  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-1}$  EcM root tip $^{-1}$ ) of dominating morphotypes along the latitudinal gradient for all stands;  
896 open circles represent data calculated from the literature.

897  
898 **Fig. 6** A scheme showing statistically significant relationships between the structure of  
899 rhizosphere and bulk soil bacterial communities, dominant ectomycorrhizal (EcM) fungal  
900 community and absorptive root morphology in studied birch stands soils. Capital letters denote  
901 modules of bacterial phylogenetic molecular ecological networks (pMENs). Arrows indicate  
902 RDA relationships direction, bacterial community or morphology variation percentages explained  
903 by factors variations within the groups are shown above the arrows. Procrustes relationships are  
904 indicated by simple lines with p values indicated by asterisks (\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ ).  
905 The relationships between whole community and particular subunits or factor sets are indicated  
906 with solid lines. The information about exploration types of EcM fungi and OTUs taxonomy are  
907 given in Tables S5 and S10, respectively. Abbreviations for absorptive root morphological

908 characteristics: RTD - root tissue density,  $\text{kg m}^{-3}$ , SRL and SRA - specific root length,  $\text{m g}^{-1}$  and  
909 area,  $\text{m}^2 \text{kg}^{-1}$ .

910  
911 **Fig. 7** A conceptual scheme of fine root foraging strategy related to latitudinal climate and soil  
912 C:N gradient from boreal to temperate forests. Soil C:N ratio increases from left to right, from N-  
913 rich temperate forests to N-poor northern boreal forests. Foraging strategies are based on  
914 adaptation of biomass allocation to absorptive fine roots associated with fine root turnover rate,  
915 fine root morphology and changes of root associated EcM fungi and rhizosphere bacterial  
916 communities. EXTENSIVE strategy refers to investment in larger absorptive fine roots biomass  
917 per forest stand basal area ( $\text{kg m}^{-2}$ ), while INTENSIVE strategy denotes the tendency to establish  
918 smaller absorptive root biomass, associated with functional changes in root morphology and a  
919 larger reliance on EcM and bacterial communities in the rhizosphere. Note that the presented  
920 trends for root tip number, absorptive fine root biomass and morphology, %N and EcM  
921 mycelium are based on data of all three studied tree species, while trend in fine root turnover is  
922 based on spruce stands data and supported by literature data for birch stands (Varik *et al.*, 2015;  
923 Uri *et al.*, 2017) and for general tendencies along biomes (Finér *et al.*, 2011b). The trilateral  
924 relationships between roots, EcM fungi and soil and rhizosphere bacteria and trend in number of  
925 bacterial phylotypes from boreal to temperate forests are based on pilot study across birch forests.  
926

927 **Table 1** The proportion of ectomycorrhizal absorptive fine root biomass (aFRB) in the total fine  
 928 root biomass (FRB) (% ,  $\pm$  SE) for Norway spruce, Scots pine and silver birch forests in different  
 929 forest zones. Different letters denote significant differences between forest zones (Tukey test,  
 930  $p < 0.05$ ).

Forest zone/tree sp	Spruce (n=15)	Pine (n=12)	Birch (n=6)
<b>Boreal</b>	$28 \pm 2^a$	$23 \pm 2^a$	$17 \pm 8^a$
<b>Hemi-boreal</b>	$18 \pm 5^{ab}$	$23 \pm 3^a$	$12 \pm 2^a$
<b>Temperate</b>	$11 \pm 3^b$	$9 \pm 3^b$	$7^a$

931

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933 **Table 2** Absorptive fine root biomass (aFRB), root area index and N concentration (%) and C:N  
 934 ratio of absorptive roots (first and second order, mostly ectomycorrhizal roots) in Norway spruce,  
 935 silver birch, Scots pine forests across a latitudinal gradient (from 69° to 48° N). \* aFRB, root area  
 936 index, %N and C:N ratio have been published in Ostonen *et al.*, 2011. Fine root longevity  
 937 estimations are published in: a – Leppälampi-Kujansuu *et al.*, 2014b; b- Leppälampi-Kujansuu  
 938 *et al.*, 2014a; c – Ostonen *et al.*, 2005; d - Gaul *et al.*, 2009.

Stand	aFRB, g m <sup>-2</sup>	Root area index, m <sup>2</sup> m <sup>-2</sup>	%N	C:N of root tips	Longevity, yr
<i>Picea abies</i>					
Pallasjärvi*	69.9	3.69	1.30	38.3	-
Kivalo*	132.1	4.07	1.59	31.7	1.85 <sup>a</sup>
Flakaliden	138.1	6.73	-	-	2.13 <sup>b</sup>
Uusikaarlepyy*	58.0	2.35	1.77	26.8	-
Juupajoki*	65.2	2.44	1.63	28.7	-
Tammela*	57.2	2.94	1.30	37.0	-
Voore*	20.3	0.84	2.79	17.1	0.63 <sup>c</sup>
Saarejärve	94.7	-	-	-	-
Tõravere	19.9	1.02	-	-	-
Järvselja*	-	-	1.79	24.8	-
Waldstein*	15.9	0.74	2.14	23.0	0.80 <sup>d</sup>
Goldkronach*	20.1	0.86	2.25	21.9	-
Flössenburg*	49.8	2.06	1.95	25.4	-
Höglwald*	26.9	1.51	2.15	22.5	-
Altötting*	24.1	1.09	2.50	20.0	-
<i>Betula pendula</i>					
Kivalo	96.9	5.23	2.27	21.2	-
Syktyvkar 1	-	-	1.82	26.7	-
Syktyvkar 2	-	-	1.86	25.2	-
Syktyvkar 3	-	-	1.62	28.5	-
Punkaharju	-	-	2.77	16.8	-

Olkiluoto	19.7	0.97	2.10	22.8	-
Alatskivi 1	8.2	0.50	3.00	14.7	-
Alatskivi 2	27.7	1.42	2.54	18.4	-
Erastvere	40.8	1.84	2.39	19.6	-
Risley Moss	2.7	0.15	3.12	15.2	-
<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>					
Sevettijärvi	71.1	3.76	1.37	36.1	-
Kivalo	99.5	5.72	1.29	38.8	-
Ylikiiminki	77.1	5.24	1.21	41.1	-
Juupajoki	33.2	2.15	1.65	28.7	-
Tammela	29.1	1.86	1.77	27.6	-
Saarejärve	54.7	2.67	1.69	29.4	-
Vilsandi	52.4	2.45	2.86	16.6	-
Sömerpalu	30.1	1.95	1.65	30.1	-
Kačerginē	70.4	3.71	1.94	25.4	-
Thetford	21.2	1.39	2.68	18.6	-
Alice Holt	-	-	2.72	18.0	-
Altdorf	11.6	0.56	2.08	23.7	-
Dinkelsbühl	8.4	0.38	1.61	31.2	-

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941 **Table 3** Statistically significant relationships between bulk soil and rhizosphere bacterial  
 942 phylogenetic molecular ecological network' (pMEN) modules and soil chemical parameters  
 943 according to RDA analysis. Percentages of bacterial community variations explained by  
 944 individual chemical parameters are given in brackets. \*p<0.05; \*\* p<0.01; \*\*\*p<0.001

<b>Module</b>	<b>Soil chemical parameters</b>	<b>Variation explained %</b>
<i>Bulk soil</i>		
All	pH(33.1%)+P(47.5%)* ** *	47.5
B	P(35.9%)+pH(23.8%)* ** *	49.8
C	P**	33.7
D	P**	26.2
E	pH(43.7%)+K(6.8%)* **	59.9
F	pH(50.7%)+Mg(20.8%)+Ca(14.4%)+P(33.5%)* ** *	84.8
G	pH	31.2
H	pH(27.8%)+P(23.2%)* ** *	49.8
<i>Rhizosphere</i>		
All	pH(33.9%)+P(30.7%)* ** *	51.1
I	C/N(20.7%)+K(19.5%)* **	42.7
J	pH**	31.5
K	P*	33.4
L	pH(38.2%)+ P(17.1%)* **	62.1
M	P(27.6%)+N(16.8%)* **	45.5
N	pH**	33.3
O	pH**	48.7
Q	P(24.6%)+N(19.8%)* ** *	45.6
R	pH(38.8%)+P(38.0%)* ** *	56.3

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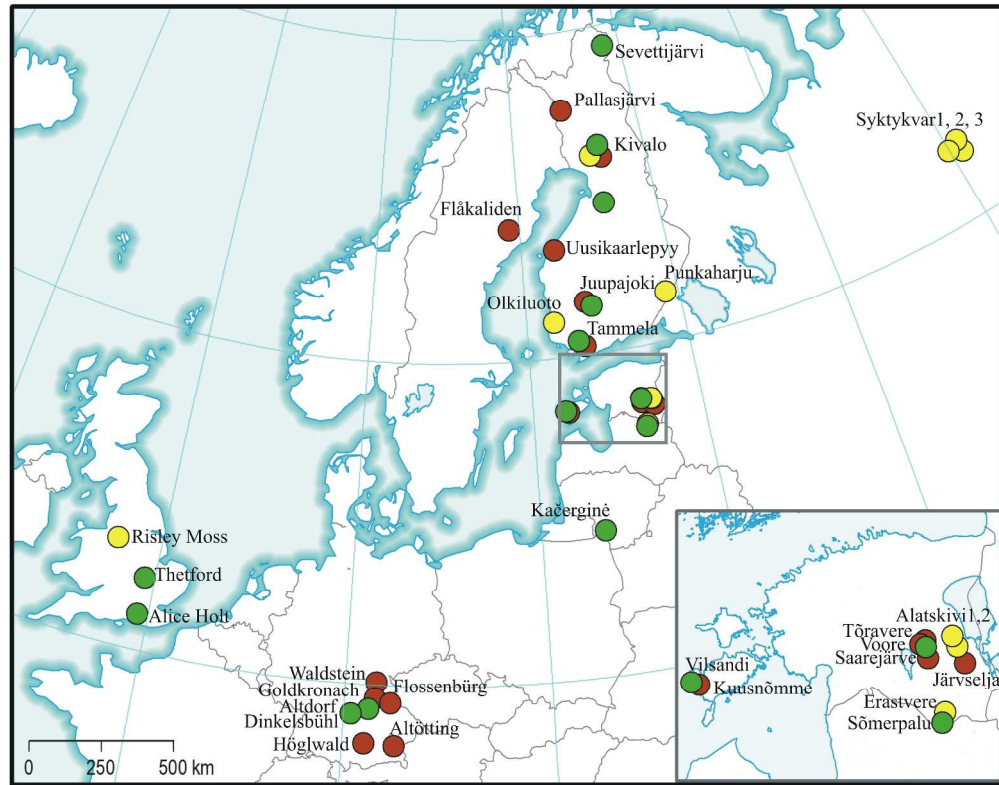


Fig. 1 Study sites in European boreal and temperate *Picea abies* (red dots), *Pinus sylvestris* (green), *Betula pendula* stands (yellow). Blow-up box shows sites in Estonia due to their close proximity.



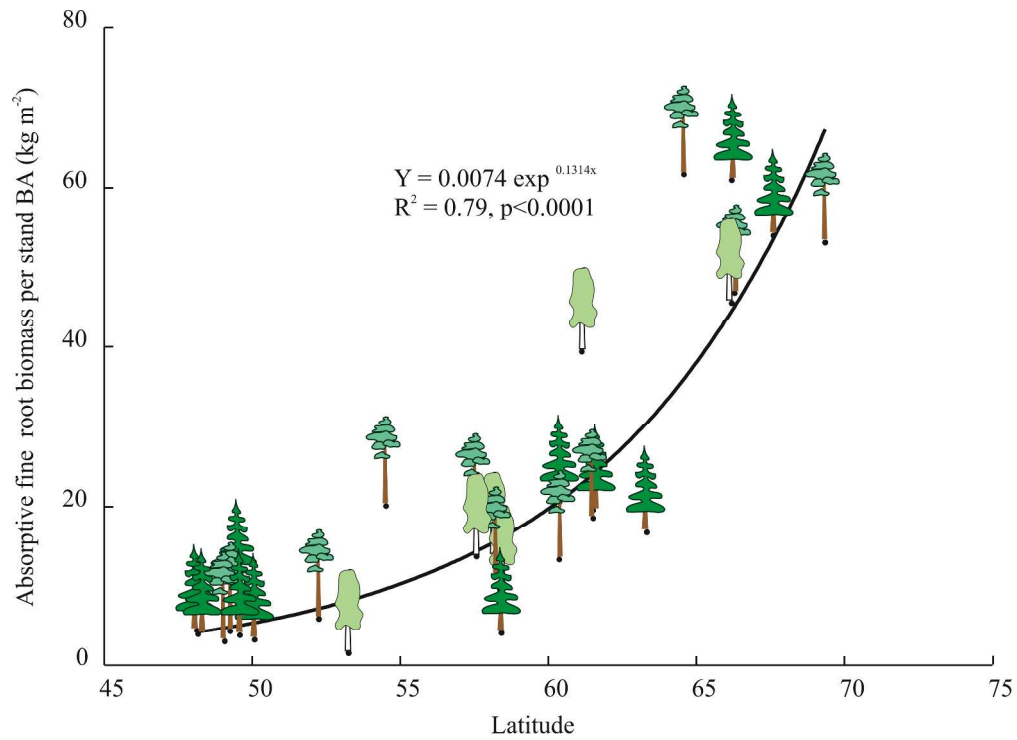


Fig. 2 The absorptive fine root biomass per stand basal area (aFRB/BA, kg m<sup>-2</sup>) in birch, pine and spruce stands along the latitudinal gradient.

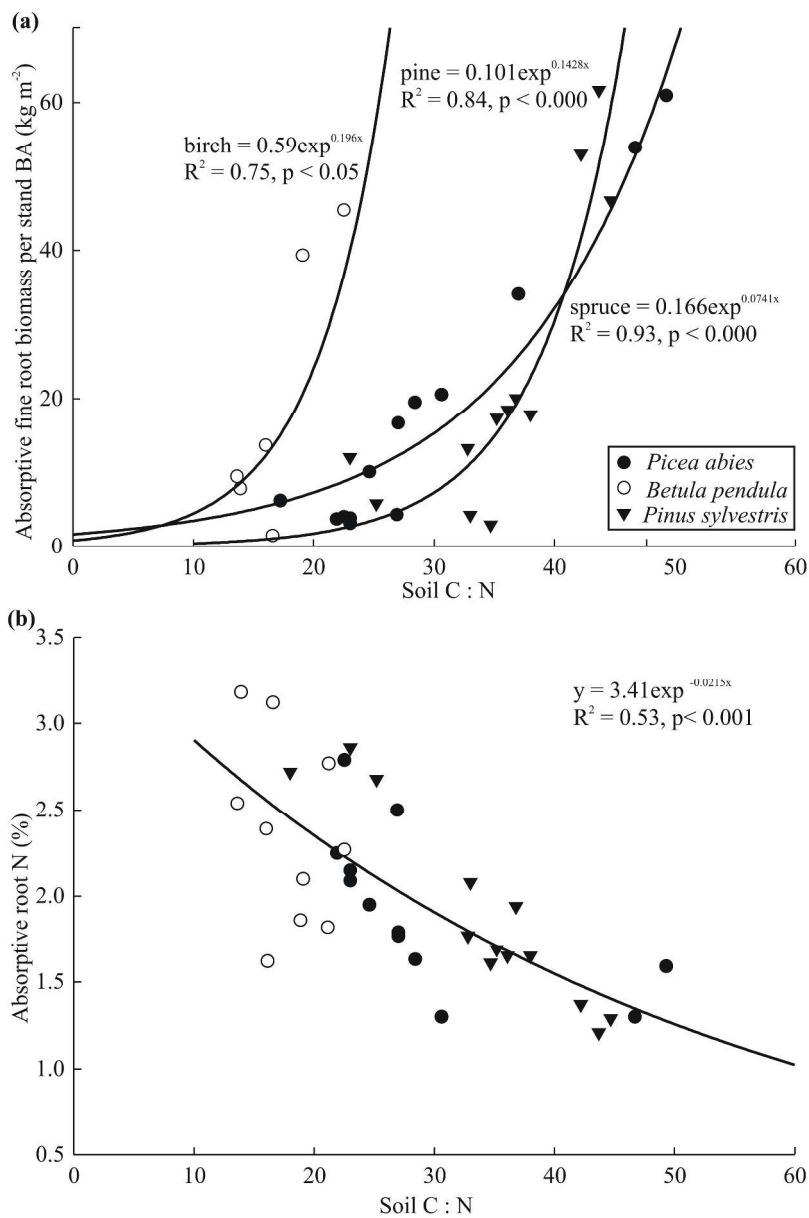


Fig. 3 The relationship between (a) absorptive fine root biomass of birch, pine and spruce stands and respective soil C:N ratio and (b) %N of absorptive roots in birch (open circles), pine (triangles) and spruce (filled circles) stands along the soil C:N ratio gradient.

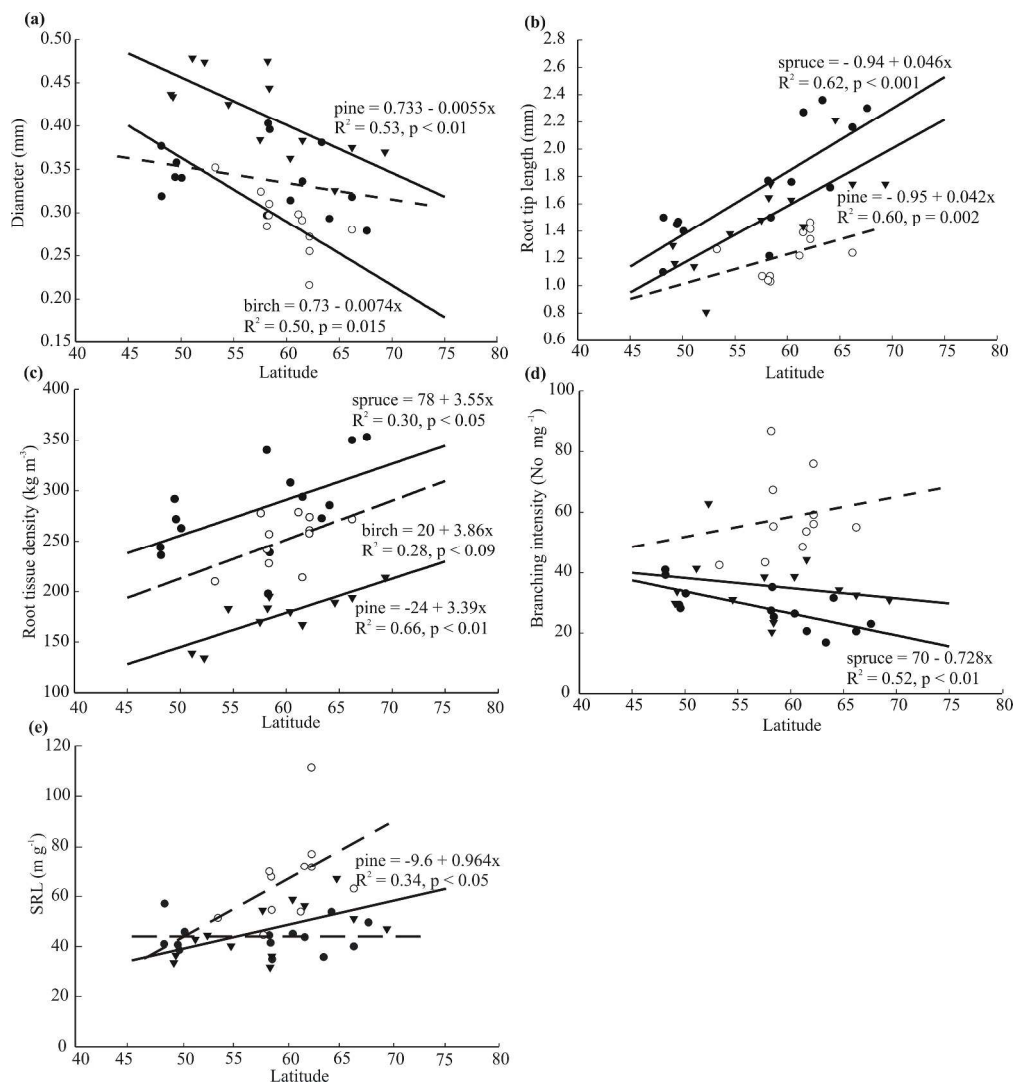


Fig. 4 (a) Mean diameter (mm), (b) mean length (mm) of absorptive root tips and (c) root tissue density (RTD,  $\text{kg m}^{-3}$ ), (d) root branching intensity (No of tips  $\text{mg}^{-1}$ ) and specific root length (SRL,  $\text{m g}^{-1}$ ) of the absorptive roots in birch (open circles), spruce (filled circles) and pine (triangles) stands along the latitudinal gradient.

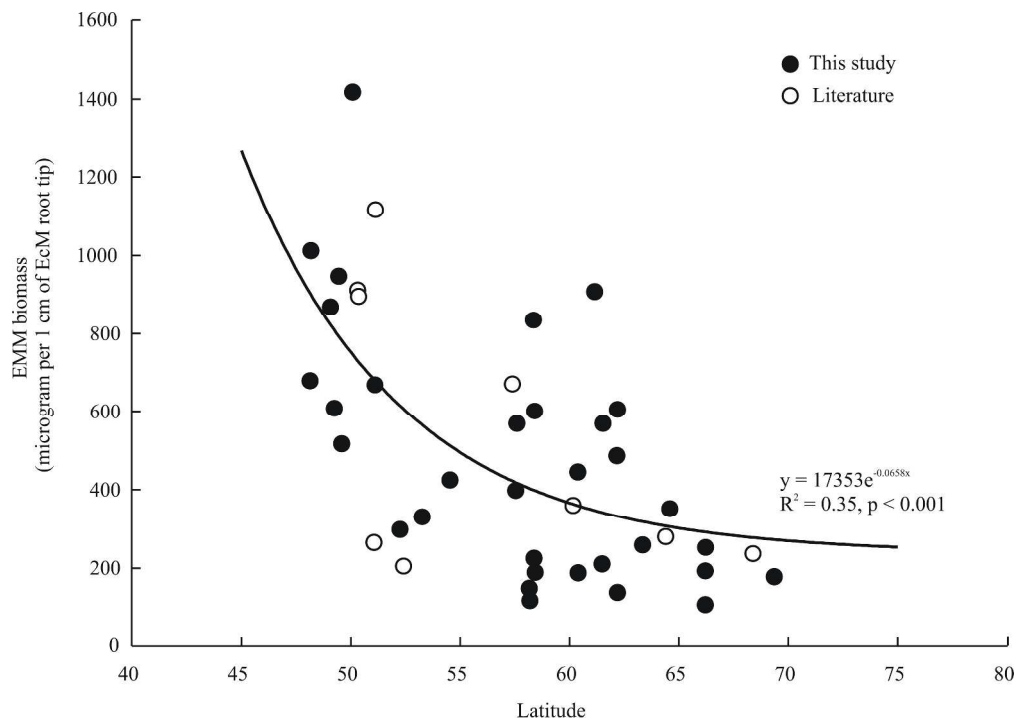


Fig. 5 The change of specific ectomycorrhizal extramatrical mycelial biomass (EMM biomass,  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-1}$  EcM root tip $^{-1}$ ) of dominating morphotypes along the latitudinal gradient for all stands; open circles represent data calculated from the literature.

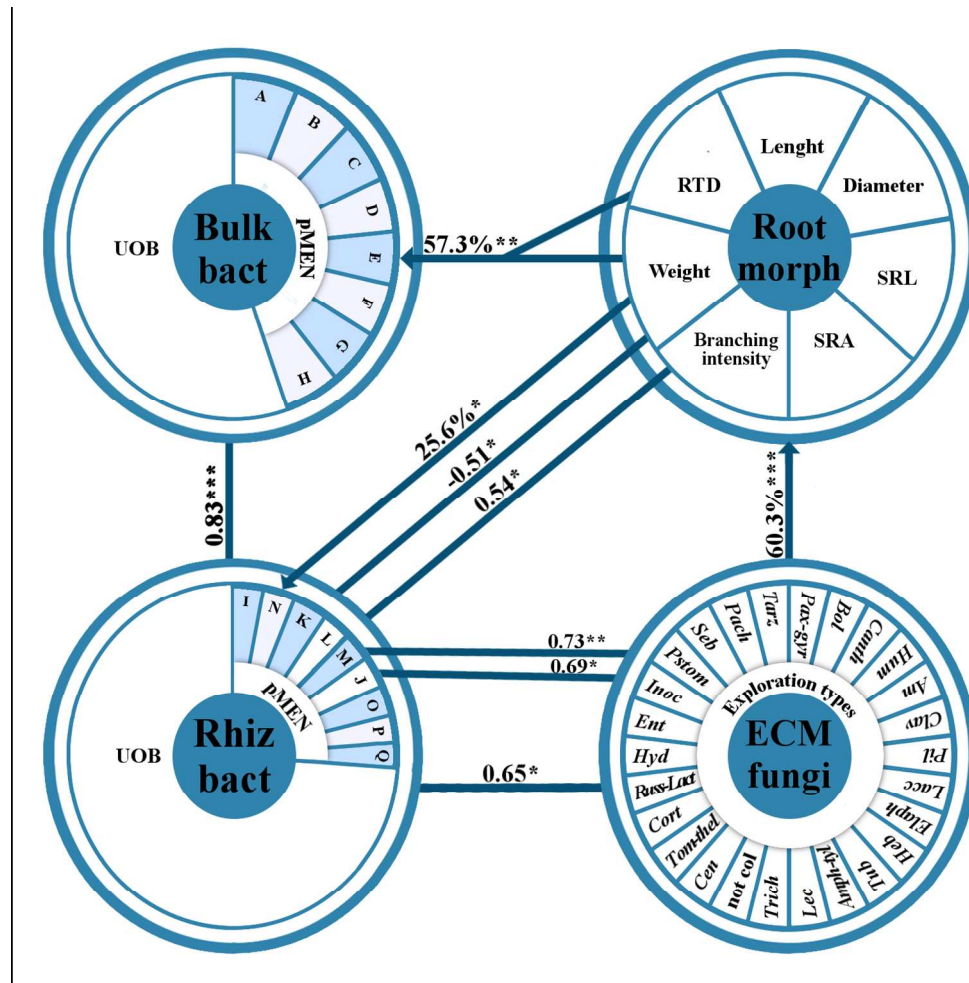


Fig. 6 A scheme showing statistically significant relationships between the structure of rhizosphere and bulk soil bacterial communities, dominant ectomycorrhizal (EcM) fungal community and absorptive root morphology in studied birch stands soils. Capital letters denote modules of bacterial phylogenetic molecular ecological networks (pMENs). Arrows indicate RDA relationships direction, bacterial community or morphology variation percentages explained by factors variations within the groups are shown above the arrows. Procrustes relationships are indicated by simple lines with p values indicated by asterisks (\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ ). The relationships between whole community and particular subunits or factor sets are indicated with solid lines. The information about exploration types of EcM fungi and OTUs taxonomy are given in Tables S5 and S10, respectively. Abbreviations for absorptive root morphological characteristics: RTD - root tissue density,  $\text{kg m}^{-3}$ , SRL and SRA - specific root length,  $\text{m g}^{-1}$  and area,  $\text{m}^2 \text{kg}^{-1}$ .

557x546mm (72 x 72 DPI)

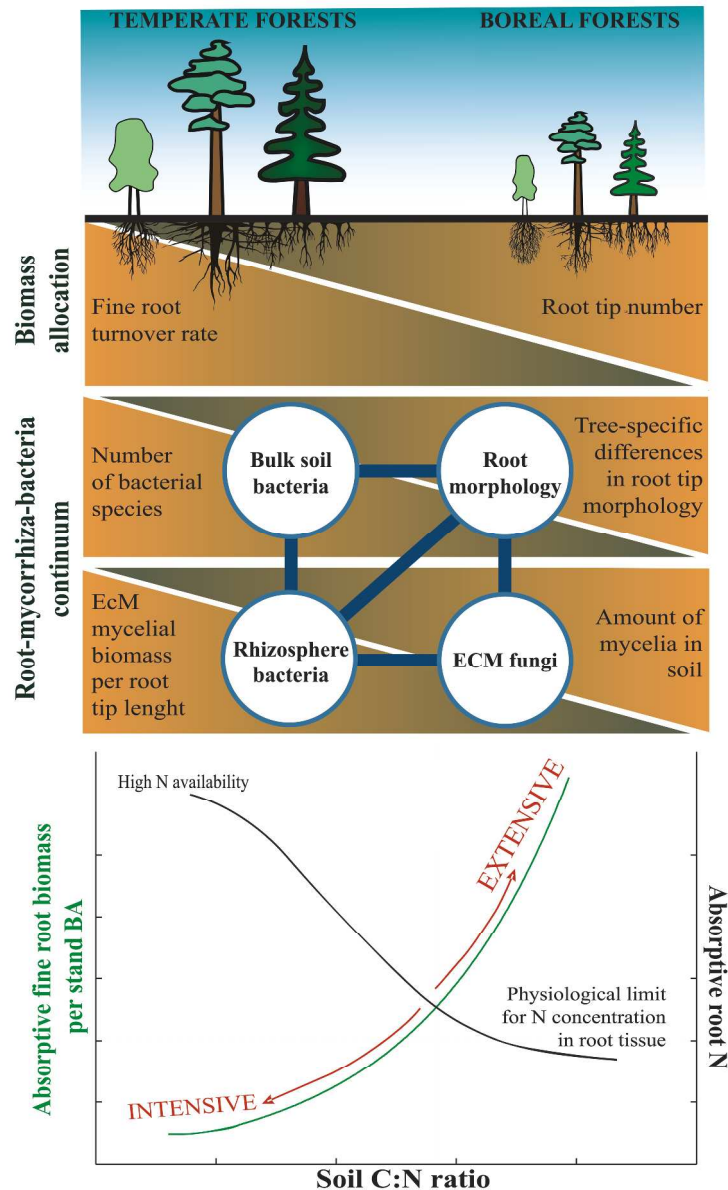


Fig. 7 A conceptual scheme of fine root foraging strategy related to latitudinal climate and soil C:N gradient from boreal to temperate forests. Soil C:N ratio increases from left to right, from N-rich temperate forests to N-poor northern boreal forests. Foraging strategies are based on adaptation of biomass allocation to absorptive fine roots associated with fine root turnover rate, fine root morphology and changes of root associated EcM fungi and rhizosphere bacterial communities. EXTENSIVE strategy refers to investment in larger absorptive fine roots biomass per forest stand basal area ( $\text{kg m}^{-2}$ ), while INTENSIVE strategy denotes the tendency to establish smaller absorptive root biomass, associated with functional changes in root morphology and a larger reliance on EcM and bacterial communities in the rhizosphere. Note that the presented trends for root tip number, absorptive fine root biomass and morphology, %N and EcM mycelium are based on data of all three studied tree species, while trend in fine root turnover is based on spruce stands data and supported by literature data for birch stands (Varik et al., 2015; Uri et al., 2017) and for general tendencies along biomes (Finér et al., 2011b). The trilateral relationships between roots, EcM fungi and soil and rhizosphere bacteria and trend in number of bacterial phylotypes from boreal to temperate

forests are based on pilot study across birch forests.

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