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### *Mulching has negative impact on fungal and plant diversity in Slovak oligotrophic grasslands*

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1 **Mulching has negative impact on fungal and plant diversity in Slovak**  
2 **oligotrophic grasslands**

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22 **Highlights**

23 Overall fungal species richness and diversity do not change with management in  
24 oligotrophic grasslands, but mulching has a negative effect on richness and diversity of  
25 CHEGD fungi.

26 The effect of mulching on CHEGD fungi and on vascular plants is similar but these  
27 two groups have contrasting seasonal responses.

28           The results suggest that mulching affects vascular plant diversity directly by changing  
29 their reproductive and competitive ability, but fungal diversity is altered indirectly by changes  
30 in soil properties caused by decomposition of dead plant biomass.

## 31 **Abstract**

32           Mulching (cutting of vegetation without removal of clippings) is used as a low-cost  
33 method for maintaining remote or abandoned grasslands in Slovakia. The likely consequence  
34 of mulching is seasonal nutrient enrichment resulting from decomposition of plant litter by  
35 saprotrophic organisms. The potential changes in biodiversity of the ecosystem caused by  
36 long-term application of mulching are to date only very poorly understood. In order to  
37 examine the impact of mulching on soil mycobiota, we compared six different grassland  
38 management regimes applied over nine years on a sub-montane oligotrophic *Nardus* pasture  
39 in the Central Slovakia. The diversity of soil fungi was assessed using DNA metabarcoding of  
40 the ITS2 regions of the nrRNA locus performed by Illumina MiSeq.

41           We focused on a particular group of macrofungi which is characteristic of traditionally  
42 managed and undisturbed European grasslands, and which are often the dominant soil fungi in  
43 these habitats. These are collectively known as CHEGD fungi (the acronym of the constituent  
44 taxa: Clavariaceae, Hygrophoraceae, Entolomataceae, Geoglossaceae and *Dermoloma*). We  
45 compared the relative abundance and diversity of CHEGD fungi with the total fungal and  
46 plant diversity. CHEGD fungi were dominant across all treatments. Although there were no  
47 statistical effects of treatments on total fungal richness and diversity, CHEGD fungi and  
48 vascular plants diversity and richness were lower on plots where mulching or no management  
49 were imposed, suggesting that such management regimes would have a negative impact on  
50 grassland fungi. However, no single treatment covered the total CHEGD diversity of the  
51 study, indicating that the localized use of mulching in addition to traditional managements can  
52 enhance overall diversity of grasslands in the area. Our results also suggest that the impact of  
53 mulching depends on the season when the grassland is mulched and it might be reduced by  
54 combination with other management treatments. The high relative abundance and sensitivity  
55 of CHEGD fungi in oligotrophic grasslands to management treatments makes them excellent  
56 indicators of grassland natural quality and is consistent with the ecological importance of this  
57 fungal group.

58 **Keywords:** soil metabarcoding, managements, trophic interactions, functional diversity,  
59 biomass degradation, Clavariaceae, Hygrophoraceae, *Entoloma*, Geoglossaceae, *Dermoloma*

## 60 **Introduction**

61 Grasslands are recognised as important European habitats highly dependent on  
62 agricultural practices (Halada et al. 2011). Grazing and mowing were common traditional  
63 management strategies applied in the Western Carpathians, but the dramatic decline of cattle  
64 numbers after the political changes in 1989 in Eastern and Central Europe resulted in frequent  
65 management cessation (Kanianska et al. 2014). Traditional management, which has  
66 maintained grasslands of high conservation value in the Western Carpathians, has become  
67 rare (Meyer et al. 2015). Mulching (cutting of vegetation without removal of clippings) is  
68 used as a low-cost method for maintenance of abandoned grasslands in Central Europe  
69 (Mašková et al. 2009). The purpose is to control scrub encroachment and establishment of  
70 trees, which is required for farmers to receive subsidy support from the Common Agricultural  
71 Policy of the European Union (Gaisler et al. 2013). Mulching differs from traditional  
72 managements (mowing and grazing) in that phytomass is not removed but rather left to  
73 decompose *in situ*. As a consequence, it can modify soil properties, for example contribute to  
74 maintain phosphorus (P) nutrition (Oelmann et al. 2017), reduce nitrogen (N) requirements  
75 (Qian et al. 2003) and/or stabilize carbon (C) sequestration (Werth et al. 2005).

76 The general purpose of mulching and various traditional management regimes on  
77 grasslands is the prevention of succession. Mulching has some similar effects to traditional  
78 cutting for hay or sheep/cattle grazing, since taller vegetation is removed, but their effects on  
79 functional diversity and community structure may be very different (Moog et al. 2002,  
80 Römermann et al. 2009, Doležal et al. 2011). Recent studies suggest that mulching does not  
81 substitute for traditional management treatments and may lead to plant diversity decline  
82 (Gaisler et al. 2019), change of local ant species composition (Wiezik et al. 2013), butterfly  
83 population decline (Schmitt, 2003) as well as a decrease in microbial biomass and microbial  
84 metabolic efficiency (Uhlířová, Šimek & Šantrůčková 2005). Mulching of biomass in  
85 grasslands of Central Europe is a relatively recent and regionally specific phenomenon that is  
86 poorly understood and urgently deserves a study because of possible consequences linked to  
87 ecosystem services and conservation concern.

88 Plant-driven changes in soil properties are strongly associated with the compositional  
89 turnover of fungi (Yang et al. 2017, Anthony et al. 2019, Oriol et al. 2019). Specific soil fungi  
90 play their particular roles in grassland ecosystems and plant species richness does not affect  
91 their diversity directly (Navrátilová et al. 2018). However, individual plant species have  
92 different associated endophytic or mycorrhizal fungi (Wearn et al. 2012), suggesting that  
93 compositions of fungal soil communities changes with changes in plant community structure.  
94 The functions of fungi in soil ecosystem are different from other organisms, for example  
95 under mowing management, they play a more important role in nitrogen (N) mineralization  
96 than bacteria (Li et al. 2017). Diverse fungal groups with different dispersal mechanisms are  
97 able, under changing environmental condition of newly forming soil, to establish diverse  
98 communities in a relatively short time (Detheridge et al. 2018). This makes soil fungi a  
99 potentially useful indicator group for the study of microbial responses to grassland  
100 management practices.

101 Among fungi occurring in semi-natural grasslands of Europe, macrofungi collectively  
102 referred as CHEGD fungi (an acronym of Hygrophoraceae, Entolomataceae, Clavariaceae,  
103 Geoglossaceae and *Dermoloma*) are well known to be typically associated with undisturbed,  
104 unfertilised grasslands (Griffith et al. 2013). Natural abundance of <sup>15</sup>N, <sup>14</sup>C and <sup>13</sup>C isotopes in  
105 basidiomata of Hygrophoraceae, as well as <sup>13</sup>C pulse label experiments, further suggest that  
106 these fungi are not saprotrophs but rather biotrophic endophytes and possibly mycorrhizal  
107 symbionts (Halbwachs et al. 2018). The metabarcoding analyses of fungal microbial diversity  
108 shown that CHEGD fungi are often the most abundant group in oligotrophic grasslands  
109 (Detheridge et al. 2018, Hay, Thorn & Jacobs 2019). Another clue to identify the trophic  
110 strategy of CHEGD fungi is proof that *Cuphophyllus* (formerly *Hygrocybe*) *virgineus* is a  
111 systemic endophyte of *Plantago lanceolata* (Tello et al. 2014).

112 The likely consequence of mulching is seasonal nutrient enrichment resulting from  
113 decomposition of plant biomass by saprotrophic organisms. Competitive and antagonistic  
114 interactions of saprotrophic microorganisms and changes in available nutrients likely reshape  
115 the fungal community structure of grasslands. We aimed to study changes in the fungal  
116 microbial diversity of Slovak oligotrophic grasslands caused by long-term (eight years)  
117 application of six different grassland management regimes. The results of fungal soil  
118 microbial diversity assessment by metabarcoding are compared with vascular plant diversity  
119 assessed during the ninth year of the experiment. In particular, we want to test the reliability

120 of CHEGD fungi as indicators of ecosystem changes in grasslands. We also aim to compare  
121 the response of CHEGD fungi to various mulching regimes with the responses of vascular  
122 plants.

## 123 **Materials and methods**

### 124 *Study site and sampling*

125 The study area was located in Central Slovakia (48°42'09.57" N, 19°22'00.8" E, 715  
126 m a.s.l.), in the Poľana Mts., a mountainous area of volcanic origin. The experimental  
127 grassland area was traditionally maintained through extensive grazing by sheep and  
128 occasionally also by young cattle (heifers). It is located on south-west-facing slope with an  
129 inclination of 15°. Average daily temperature was 6.5 °C. Average annual precipitation was  
130 852 mm (Cornes et al. 2018). The geological bedrock was classified as ryodacite tufas  
131 (<http://mapserver.geology.sk/gm50js/>) and the soil as a Cambic Umbrisol Endoarenic Skeletic  
132 (Sobocká, 2000). Organic carbon (C<sub>ox</sub>), humus, N and P contents of soil, sampled 7<sup>th</sup>  
133 November 2016, were measured for all individual plots. Organic carbon ranged between  
134 21.58 to 36.92 g/kg, humus 37.2–63.65 g/kg, N 2.69–3.42 g/kg and P 1.59–3.79 g/kg. Only P  
135 content showed significant differences between treatments (Appendix A: Tab. 1). The  
136 vegetation of this sub-montane oligotrophic *Nardus* grassland was classified into the alliance  
137 *Violion caninae* Schwickerath 1944 (Hegedúšová-Vantarová & Škodová 2014).

138 The field experiment was established in 2009 with six management treatments: 1.  
139 grazing (GR) (positive control); 2. traditional mowing by scythe (clippings removed),  
140 combined with grazing (MOGR); 3. mulching in autumn (first half of September) (MUAU);  
141 4. mulching in spring (second half of June – first half of July) (MUSP); 5. grazing combined  
142 with autumn mulching (MUGR) and 6. no management (NM) (negative control). Each  
143 treatment was represented by four randomly distributed replicates (Fig. 1). In total, 24  
144 permanent plots were established, with 12 plots fenced to eliminate grazing. Plots outside the  
145 fencing were extensively grazed by sheep (herd of approximately 600–700 individuals,  
146 stocking density 0.3–0.4 LU/ha) from May to September each year and occasionally also  
147 grazed by young cattle (herd of 80–100 heifers) at the end of summer or in autumn (August to  
148 October). Cut biomass for mulching treatments experiments was evenly distributed across the  
149 plot whereas for mowing treatments the biomass was removed. Each plot was 2 × 2 m and  
150 surrounded by a 1-m buffer zone, maintained the same way as the corresponding core zone.

151 Presence and cover of vascular plants were sampled in  $2 \times 2$  m plots using the percentage  
152 cover estimation. The diversity of vascular plants was recorded in May–June 2018. Soil cores  
153 for DNA metabarcoding were collected on 12 Oct 2017 and 3 May 2018. Five soil cores of  
154 2.5 cm diameter to a depth of 10 cm were sampled per plot (approx. 120–170 g of dry soil),  
155 one from the center and four at a distance of 1 m along the diagonal axis, and samples were  
156 pooled. The organic soil horizon, stones, plant tissues and animal remnants were removed.  
157 Soil samples were stored at  $-80$  °C.

### 158 *DNA amplification and sequencing*

159 Environmental DNA (eDNA) was extracted in three replicates following the modified  
160 cetyl trimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) protocol of Sagová-Marečková et al. (2008). The  
161 diversity of soil fungi was assessed by metabarcoding analysis of the internal transcribed  
162 spacer 2 region of the ribosomal DNA operon (ITS2 rDNA) using primers ITS3F, ITS4R  
163 (White et al. 1990). PCR amplification, library preparation and amplicon sequencing were  
164 performed by Illumina MiSeq using MiSeq reagent kit v2 by SEQme s.r.o. (Dobříš, Czech  
165 republic; [www.seqme.eu](http://www.seqme.eu)), following standard protocols used by the company. Both autumn  
166 and spring samples were sequenced in a single Illumina run. Raw amplicon sequence data are  
167 deposited in NCBI as BioProject PRJNA691143 under accession numbers SAMN17282714–  
168 SAMN17282761.

169

### 170 *Sequence data processing*

171 Amplicon sequence data were processed using the SEED 2.0.1. pipeline (Větrovský,  
172 Baldrian & Morais 2018). Amplicons were shortened to 250 bp prior to pair-ending. Pair-  
173 ended sequences with 20% maximum difference and minimum overlap 20 bp were further  
174 analysed applying recommended settings and automatic chimera removing. Sequences with  
175 average phred score lesser than 30 were discarded.

176 Pair-ended sequences were processed as detailed in Detheridge et al. (2016) with the  
177 USEARCH clustering of molecular operational taxonomic units (MOTUs) at 98.5% identity  
178 and taxonomy assignment by the RDP Naïve Bayesian Classifier (Wang et al. 2007) against a  
179 database built from v 8.0 of UNITE (Abarenkov et al. 2010, UNITE community 2019). The  
180 most abundant sequences of each cluster were checked using Blastn against UNITE v 8.0

181 (Kõljalg et al. 2013) and GenBank databases. Non-fungal sequences were excluded from  
182 further analysis. Fungal amplicon abundances at each plot are listed in Appendix A: Tab. 2.

183 Ecological functions were assigned as described in Detheridge et al. (2018), with eight  
184 main groups: fungi associated with grasslands (CHEGD), plant mutualists forming arbuscular  
185 mycorrhiza (AMF), plant mutualists forming ectomycorrhiza (ECM), dark septate plant  
186 endophytes (DSE), parasitic fungi (PAR), pathogenic fungi (PAT), lichenized fungi (LICH),  
187 and saprotrophic fungi (SAP).

188 Special emphasis was given to grassland macrofungi associated with semi-natural  
189 habitats known as CHEGD fungi (Griffith et al. 2013). These include members of  
190 Clavariaceae (i.e. *Clavaria*, *Clavulinopsis*, *Ramariopsis*, *Camarophyllopsis* and *Hodophilus*),  
191 the genus *Hygrocybe* and related genera of Hygrophoraceae (*Cuphophyllus*, *Gliophorus*,  
192 *Neohygrocybe*), *Entoloma* (Entolomataceae), *Dermoloma* (Tricholomataceae), and members  
193 of the family Geoglossaceae (i.e. *Geoglossum*, *Glutinoglossum*, *Trichoglossum*). We also  
194 included genera of the ‘green’ earth tongue fungi *Microglossum* and *Thuemenidium*  
195 (Leotiaceae) because they were previously included in CHEGD fungi and the genus  
196 *Pseudobaeospora* (Tricholomataceae) because of its apparent affinity to grasslands with high  
197 conservation value (Adamčík, Ripková & Kučera 2007).

198 Occurrence of CHEGD MOTUs was transferred into a binary matrix based on a  
199 minimum threshold 0.01% of all amplicons per sample (two to four sequences per sample).  
200 Representative sequences of each CHEGD MOTU from both analyses were aligned within  
201 our CHEGD reference datasets built on relevant phylogenetic studies for Clavariaceae  
202 (Birkebak et al. 2016), Hygrophoraceae (Ainsworth, Cannon & Dentinger 2013, Lodge et al.  
203 2013, Wang et al. 2018), Entolomataceae (Morgado et al. 2013, Morozova, Noordeloos &  
204 Vila 2014), Geoglossaceae (Schoch et al. 2010, Fedosova & Kovalenko 2015, Fedosova et al.  
205 2017) and Tricholomataceae (Sánchez-García et al. 2021). For individual genera, the  
206 alignments were trimmed to ITS2 amplicon size and analysed by ML as fasta files using  
207 RAXML-HPC2 on XSEDE (8.2.12) (Stamatakis 2014) under the GTR + GAMMA model  
208 with 1000 bootstrap iterations. MOTU clustering was reconsidered based on inconsistencies  
209 between automatic clustering and accepted taxonomic concepts supported by the phylogenetic  
210 analysis (ML>75 is considered as significant support).



## 211 *Statistical analysis*

212 Spring and autumn sequence data were pooled and analysed together as one entry per  
213 plot. Diversity indices (Inverse Simpson and Shannon) were calculated from relative  
214 abundance based on amplicon sequence data in PAST version 4.0 (Hammer, Harper & Ryan  
215 2001). All other analyses of CHEGD fungi are based on presence/absence data at four plot  
216 replications (Appendix A: Tab. 3). Average percentage cover data were analysed for vascular  
217 plants (Appendix A: Tab. 4). Post hoc comparisons (Tukey's test) were computed by  
218 Statistica 12 software. One-way PERMANOVA was computed using PAST version 4.0  
219 (Hammer, Harper & Ryan 2001). Species composition of CHEGD fungi and of vascular  
220 plants were evaluated by Principal Components Analysis (PCA) using the program Canoco  
221 for Windows 5 (Šmilauer & Lepš 2014), with plant data logarithmically transformed. Non-  
222 scaled or row-scaled heatmap analysis was plotted under default settings in R version 3.6.1 (R  
223 Core Team 2019) using heatmap.2 function implemented in gplots package (Warnes et al.  
224 2009).

## 225 **Results**

### 226 *Total fungal diversity assessed by metabarcoding analyses*

227 DNA was successfully purified, amplified and sequenced by Illumina MiSeq from all  
228 48 samples (spring and autumn sampling of 24 permanent plots), resulted in an average of  
229 66898 unpaired amplicons per sample. On average 21148 pair-ended fungal amplicons  
230 (ranging from 8293 to 33577) per sample were retrieved after quality check, chimera  
231 detection and elimination of non-fungal sequences. In total, 1191 fungal MOTUs were  
232 retrieved. More than half (666 MOTUs), representing 94.8% of all fungal amplicons were  
233 identified to family level or better. The average number of fungal MOTUs per treatment was  
234 similar across all samples (range 353–402), with species richness highest for MUSP and NM  
235 and no significant differences between treatments resulted in Tukey's test . The highest  
236 diversity according to average Shannon and Simpson indexes showed MOGR to be the most  
237 diverse, followed by NM and GR, with lower values of all mulching treatments.

238 More than 80% of all amplicons were identified as Basidiomycota and Ascomycota  
239 (Fig. 2), with the former group being consistently more abundant. These two groups were  
240 nearly equally represented in GR and MOGR. Glomeromycotina had low relative abundance,

241 ranging from 0.4% to 1%. Blastocladiomycota showed a distinct increase of relative  
242 abundance in NM plots (NM1, NM2, NM4).

243 All treatments showed similar general patterns in relative abundance of groups defined  
244 by ecological function (Fig. 3). CHEGD fungi were the most abundant functional group in all  
245 samples, ranging from 28.8% (NM) to 54.1% (MUAU). On average, NM had the highest  
246 relative abundance of ECM (8.7%), PAR (1.1%) and SAP (7.4%). DSE showed an affinity to  
247 traditional management with more than 50% of all their amplicons retrieved from GR and  
248 MOGR.

### 249 *Diversity of CHEGD fungi*

250 We identified 121 MOTUs belonging to the CHEGD fungi: 51 Clavariaceae, 23  
251 Hygrophoraceae, 30 Entolomataceae, 10 Geoglossaceae, four Leotiaceae and three  
252 Tricholomataceae (Appendix A: Tab. 3). Clavariaceae consistently had the highest species  
253 richness, followed by (depending on treatment) Hygrophoraceae or Entolomataceae (Table 2).  
254 Also frequent were Geoglossaceae with at least three MOTUs present in all treatments. There  
255 were no significant differences in overall CHEGD diversity and richness among treatments,  
256 but some individual groups showed differences. NM had significantly lower Entolomataceae  
257 (similar to MUAU and MUSP), and significantly higher Leotiaceae representation (similar to  
258 MUSP and MOGR). Geoglossaceae were significantly more abundant at MUSP and less  
259 abundant at MORG and MUGR.

260 There were no significant differences in relative abundance of individual groups of  
261 CHEGD fungi nor their total diversity between treatments (Table 2). In terms of relative  
262 sequence abundance, Hygrophoraceae were dominant, ranging from 24.6% (NM) to 42.4% of  
263 all fungal amplicons across all treatments. The second most abundant group were, depending  
264 on treatment, Clavariaceae or Leotiaceae. Both groups exhibited reduced relative abundance  
265 in NM plots, and abundance of Clavariaceae was additionally reduced on MUSP plots.  
266 Entolomataceae had higher relative abundance in traditional managements (GR and MORG)  
267 and was lower in NM.

268 Within the dominant Hygrophoraceae family, the most abundant species were  
269 *Neohygrocybe nitrata*, with average relative abundance per treatment 10.81%, followed by  
270 *Hygrocybe chlorophana* (5.96%) and *H. punicea* (5.38%). These three species were the most

271 abundant taxa across the whole experiment, representing >20% of all the fungal sequences  
272 obtained. The most abundant MOTU of Clavariaceae was *Camarophyllopsis schulzeri*  
273 (1.53%), of Geoglossaceae *Geoglossum barlae* (1.97%), of Leotiaceae *Microglossum* sp. 2  
274 (1.18%), the most abundant Entolomataceae MOTU was *E. cf. bloxamii* (0.3%), of the genus  
275 *Dermoloma* was *D. sp. 2* (0.32%) and there was only one MOTU of the genus  
276 *Pseudobaeospora*, *P. pyrifer* (0.02%).

277 NM and MUSP also showed the lowest total CHEGD species richness per treatment  
278 (Table 2). In addition, both Inverse Simpson and Shannon index showed that NM and two  
279 mulching treatments (MUSP and MUAU) have the lowest diversity of CHEDG fungi. The  
280 relative proportion of total fungal and CHEGD richness was highest in NM and was also high  
281 in MUSP (Appendix A: Fig. 1). GR showed the highest (and consistent at all plots) proportion  
282 of CHEGD fungi compared to total fungal richness.

283 There was no single CHEGD MOTU that occurred in all 24 research plots, but 40  
284 MOTUs were recorded in at least one plot of each treatment (Appendix A: Table 3, Appendix  
285 A: Figs. 3–4). Ten CHEGD MOTUs were recorded only from a single treatment and nine of  
286 them were only present in a single plot.

### 287 *Plant diversity*

288 We recorded 97 taxa of vascular plants. The total species richness per treatment varied  
289 from 61 to 76 and it was highest in grazed treatments (GR, MUGR). The average richness per  
290 plot was higher in GR, MOGR and MUSP treatments and was significantly lower in NM.  
291 Both Shannon and Inverse Simpson indices clearly showed NM as the least diverse treatment  
292 (Table 3, Appendix A: Fig. 2).

293 Plant richness was broadly correlated with CHEGD richness, showing consistently  
294 high taxon numbers for grazing. Plant species diversity decrease in the NM treatment was  
295 even more apparent than in CHEGD fungi.

### 296 *Comparison of fungal and plant communities between different treatments*

297 Pairwise comparison of treatments based on presences of CHEDG fungal MOTUs on  
298 individual plots (Table 4) showed the only significant difference in community structure  
299 between GR and NM (PERMANOVA  $P < 0.05$ ). The same pairwise analyses of plant

300 community structure revealed NM as significantly different from all other treatments except  
301 of MUSP and the only other significant difference show MUAU and MUSP.

302 The PCA analysis comparing all treatments in the ordination space (Fig. 4A) revealed similar  
303 community structure of CHEGD fungi of the NM and MUSP treatments. These two  
304 treatments were correlated with presence of *Hygrocybe citrinovirens*, *H. sp. 1*, *Entoloma*  
305 *prunuloides*, *Neohygrocybe ovina*, *Pseudobaeospora pyriforme* and *Trichoglossum cf.*  
306 *walteri*. The traditional treatments MOGR and GR were placed together in the ordination. GR  
307 was correlated with presence of *Clavaria sp. 3*, *Hygrocybe insipida*, *H. phaeococcinea*,  
308 *Microglossum sp.* and *Ramariopsis sp. 8*. MOGR was correlated with *Clavulinopsis sp. 1*,  
309 *Entoloma griseocyaneum* and *Entoloma cf. bloxamii*. MUAU was grouped with MUGR and  
310 they were correlated with presence of three Clavariaceae MOTUs: *Camarophyllopsis sp. 1*, *C.*  
311 *sp. 2* and *Clavaria fumosa*.

312 The PCA of vascular plant cover showed an isolated position of NM (Fig. 4B). The  
313 first axis was correlated to the left with the gradient of managed *Nardus* grasslands  
314 represented by the species *Festuca ovina*, *Pilosella officinarum*, *Lotus corniculatus* or  
315 *Euphrasia rostkoviana*. To the right was the first axis correlated with unmanaged plots (NM)  
316 represented by tall species typical for such habitats e.g. *Avenula praeusta* and various woody  
317 plants e.g. *Pinus sylvestris*, *Picea abies* that would otherwise be controlled by mowing,  
318 mulching or grazing. The second axis represents the gradient from the low grazed grassland  
319 vegetation (GR) with presence of small species like *Genista pilosa* or *Danthonia decumbens*  
320 to the taller vegetation of MUAU defined by presence of species *Briza media* or *Ranunculus*  
321 *bulbosus*.

322 The hierarchical clustering based on relative abundance (amplicons per treatment  
323 sequence count) showed the isolated position of NM, whereas MUSP and MUAU were  
324 clustered together and all grazing treatments including MUGR form the other cluster  
325 (Appendix A: Figs. 4). This hierarchical clustering based on fungal amplicon relative  
326 abundances did not agree with PERMANOVA and PCA of CHEGD fungi that analysed only  
327 presence/absence data. It should be noted that within the hierarchical clustering, the  
328 treatments are found in three groups based on management style (mulching, grazing and no  
329 management).

## 330 **Discussion**

### 331 *Plant and microbial diversity changes with management*

332           The current biological diversity of grasslands in temperate areas of the Northern  
333 Hemisphere is the result of longstanding traditional practices of stock-moving and grazing. In  
334 this study, we treated GR and MOGR as positive controls, NM as a negative control and we  
335 tested the hypothesis that mulching can be used as an alternative treatment to maintain the  
336 diversity and community structure of grasslands. Our study showed similar overall patterns  
337 for richness and diversity of vascular plants and CHEGD fungi (Appendix A: Figs. 1–2). NM  
338 treatment had the lowest richness and diversity of both plants and CHEGD fungi and it was  
339 clearly different from other treatments. This is in agreement with previous studies  
340 demonstrating decline of general biological diversity in abandoned grasslands (Mariott et al.  
341 2004, Öckinger, Eriksson & Smith 2006). In contrast to the conclusions of Tälle et al. (2016),  
342 we did not find that grazing had a more positive effect than mowing on the diversity of  
343 vascular plants and CHEGD fungi in grasslands.

344           The traditional managements (GR and MOGR) were similar to each other and more  
345 diverse in both CHEGD and vascular plants than other treatments. There was a contrasting  
346 effect of mulching season on the community structure of fungi and plants. While spring  
347 mulching (MUSP) had an effect on CHEGD fungi similar to NM and dissimilar from other  
348 treatments (Fig. 4A), the plant community structure was more strongly affected by autumn  
349 mulching (MUAU) (Fig. 4B). Some studies have found that the amount of plant biomass left  
350 at the end of the season is more important in determining yields in the following year than is  
351 the amount removed by grazing during the season (Willms, Smoliak & Bailey 1986).  
352 Community turnover of fungi is more similar to plant responses than to bacterial communities  
353 (Sayer et al. 2013, Cassman et al. 2016, Egan et al. 2018), and depends only weakly on  
354 edaphic factors (Detheridge et al. 2018). The similar responses of plants and CHEGD  
355 communities to management regimes can be explained by plant-driven changes in soil  
356 properties (Yang et al. 2017, Oriol et al. 2019).

357           The effect of plants on fungal and microbial diversity and community structure can be  
358 indirect. Navrátilová et al. (2018), for example, found no direct correlation between plant and  
359 soil microbial diversity. Whilst various grassland management regimes affect plants by  
360 changing their reproductive and competitive abilities (Binet et al. 2016), fungi may be more

361 influenced by available biomass and nutrient availability (Detheridge et al. 2016). As a  
362 consequence, the global plant alpha diversity patterns in temperate grasslands are poorly  
363 related to those observed for soil microbial groups, but plant beta diversity (compositional  
364 dissimilarity between sites) is significantly correlated with the beta diversity of bacterial and  
365 fungal communities (Prober et al. 2015).

366 Cessation of stock-moving/grazing causes either dominance of individual herbaceous  
367 plants or succession to scrubland, with both resulting in lower diversity of plants (Binet et al.  
368 2016, Oriol et al. 2019). This is also in agreement with our results (Fig. 4B). The increased  
369 input of cut biomass causes an increase in soil C:N ratio or changes in availability of some  
370 essential elements that are not beneficial to plant diversity maintenance (Xiong et al. 2016,  
371 Oriol et al. 2019).

372 There is a negative correlation between nitrogen levels and diversity of some  
373 functional fungal groups, including CHEGD fungi (Detheridge et al. 2018, Halbwegs et al.  
374 2018). The changes in the abundance and diversity of CHEGD fungi seen between traditional  
375 managements and mulching experiments in this study may be the result of increased N levels  
376 due to elevated N input from cut vegetation (Fang, Xie & Zhang 2007). We found no  
377 significant differences in N content between treatments (Appendix A: Tab. 1) but our  
378 measurements are all from a single timepoint. Soil N can change seasonally in response to  
379 plant uptake and mobilisation of N by soil microbes but it is likely that mulching, especially  
380 in spring when there is high competition for N, would result in a transient increase which  
381 would dissipate rapidly as N release from plant debris was taken up by plants and soil  
382 microbes (Hooper & Vitousek 1998; Jackson et al. 1988). The contribution of plant residues  
383 to available N is linked to the C:N ratio of decomposed plant biomass, and this depends  
384 strongly on plants species (Chen et al. 2014; Hooper & Vitousek 1998).

385 NM and MUGR had significantly reduced P content compared to MOGR and MUAU,  
386 but our analyses of plant and CHEGD fungal community structure (Figs. 6 and 7) did not  
387 support any similarities linked to P content. The less distinct CHEGD diversity loss and  
388 richness of autumn mulching (MOGR, MUGR) was probably also linked to reduced hay  
389 nutrition quality of biomass under delayed treatment (Klink van et al. 2017). ~~Fungi may play  
390 an important role in N mineralization in grassland ecosystems (Li et al. 2017).~~

391 Community structure of CHEGD fungi analysed by hierarchical clustering showed  
392 different patterns for presence/absence data and relative sequence abundances (Appendix A:  
393 Figs. 3–4). The presence/absence clustering was similar to PCA analysis in this study that was  
394 also based on the same dataset and it showed three pairs: NM and MUSP, MUGR and MUAU  
395 and GR and MOGR. The clustering based on relative abundance grouped treatments into  
396 three sets, i.e. no management (NM), grazing (GR, MORG, MUGR) and mulching (MUAU  
397 and MUSP).

398 Amplicon numbers and relative abundance may be influenced by a number of factors  
399 including GC contents, variation in nrRNA operon copy number, and the length of the ITS2  
400 spacer region (Fonseca, 2018; Lofgren et al., 2019) but these will be consistent within a given  
401 experiment and thus not affect comparisons between samples. Our hierarchical clustering  
402 analysis grouped treatments based on grassland management and suggested that a dataset  
403 based on multiple, carefully selected MOTUs of several phylogenetic lineages, based on their  
404 ecology, can yield reliable results (Appendix A: Figs. 3–4).

#### 405 *CHEGD community interactions*

406 Egan et al. (2018) suggested that important functioning of soil microbiota may only be  
407 detected at lower taxonomic levels. Here we demonstrate that CHEGD fungi are a reliable  
408 group to monitor management effects in grassland ecosystems, and especially relevant since  
409 they comprise the majority of the fungal OTUs found in these soils. The high relative  
410 abundance of these fungi in all treatments is consistent with previous grassland fungal  
411 microbial community studies using different metabarcoding loci (Detheridge et al. 2018, Hay,  
412 Thorn & Jacobs 2019). The response of CHEGD species richness to management treatments  
413 was very different from that of total fungal richness, for example CHEGD MOTUs declined  
414 but total fungal MOTUs increased in NM (Fig. 3, Appendix A: Fig. 1).

415 The arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (Glomeromycotina) are often considered to have  
416 special importance for grassland environments (Koziol & Bever 2017). In our experiment,  
417 they were represented by a low relative abundance compared to CHEGD fungi, as has been  
418 reported in various other studies using a range of metabarcoding approaches (Geml et al.  
419 2014, Jumpponen & Jones 2014, Detheridge et al. 2018) but it is possible that despite being  
420 present at low levels in terms of biomass that they are highly active.

421 Ectomycorrhizal fungi, which dominate the soils of forest habitats where relevant host  
422 trees are present (Wei, Song & Jia 2020), were also detected in some plots within our  
423 experiment. In NM plots, saplings of ectomycorrhizal host trees (*Pinus*, *Picea* and *Betula*)  
424 established as the result of succession. However, the relative abundance of ECM fungi was  
425 less than 9%, suggesting that colonization of tree roots by ECM fungi was still at a very early  
426 stage and ecologically these fungal communities are still dominated by fungi from the pre-  
427 existing grassland communities. Toju, Sato and Tanabe (2014) hypothesised that ECM alter  
428 other components of the soil ecosystem where they are present but we did not find evidence to  
429 support of this hypothesis here, since CHEGD fungi remained the dominant group in NM  
430 plots. ECM fungi were also detected at lower levels (<5%) in some other plots, presumably  
431 due to the presence of roots from adjacent trees (Kageyama et al. 2008) or presence of host  
432 tree seedlings (Lynch & Thorn 2006). However, here too we found no effect of ECM on  
433 communities of CHEGD fungi.

#### 434 ***Conservation importance of CHEGD fungi metabarcoding***

435 Our study confirmed that metabarcoding analysis of CHEGD fungi can result in much  
436 higher CHEGD species counts than field surveys (Griffith, Cavalli & Detheridge 2019).  
437 ‘Traditional’ field surveys based on fruitbody collections are highly influenced by seasonality  
438 and weather conditions. Our survey included only two visits of the sampling area (October  
439 2017, May 2018), during which we collected only one *Hygrocybe* species, one *Ramariopsis*  
440 species and one *Clavaria* species. The paucity of fruitbodies was probably due to lack of rain  
441 and humidity in the days preceding our visits. Recording of CHEGD fruiting bodies is  
442 currently the main method for assessment of the conservation value of grasslands (Bosanquet  
443 et al. 2018). However, even with careful planning and repeated visits on collecting sites,  
444 fruitbody data yields fewer species in total and per site, and had larger variance in site  
445 richness compared to the metabarcoding approach (Frøslev et al. 2019).

446 The system for scoring grassland fungi is often based only on the presence of  
447 *Hygrocybe* species (Griffith et al. 2013), including other Hygrophoraceae genera recognised  
448 by recent phylogenetic studies and previously classified in this genus (Lodge et al. 2013).  
449 From our eDNA analyses, we identified a total of 23 Hygrophoraceae MOTUs which  
450 correspond to *Hygrocybe* in the traditional broad sense. This number is higher than the best  
451 Slovak *Hygrocybe* site scored so far based on a field survey (Adamčík & Kautmanová 2005).  
452 Based on Hygrophoraceae species number, our small research area of 16 × 24 m is placed in a



453 category of international importance (Boertmann, 2010). Clearly this scoring system has to be  
454 reconsidered and adapted to eDNA metabarcoding datasets (Griffith, Cavalli & Detheridge  
455 2019).

456 One usual feature of our plots was the high abundance of *Neohygrocybe nitrata*. In  
457 western Europe, where CHEGD fungi have been more intensively studied, this species is very  
458 rare, and only very occasionally found in eDNA metabarcoding studies (Griffith et al., 2019).  
459 It is globally rare, being classed as Vulnerable by IUCN (Jordal, 2019). It is however more  
460 commonly recorded in Scandinavia (<https://www.gbif.org/species/2538440>), possibly  
461 indicating that this species favours high altitude/latitude habitats with very low winter  
462 temperatures.

463 Metabarcoding can also recover cryptic diversity of fungi, since sequence-based  
464 identifications are more accurate than morphological ones (because of phenological  
465 variation), but the species delimitation depends on reliable reference sequence database which  
466 can be problematic in the case of closely related taxa (Rees & Cranston 2017). Our study  
467 shows how insufficient taxonomic knowledge in combination with seasonality and cryptic  
468 diversity affects the results of field fruiting body-based surveys. Many field surveys reported  
469 *Hygrocybe* (in a broad sense) and Entolomataceae as the richest and the dominant grassland  
470 fungi (Newton et al. 2003, Genney et al. 2009, McLay, 2016). However, our study detected  
471 Clavariaceae as the richest group of CHEGD fungi, in agreement with other studies dealing  
472 with metabarcoding of soil fungi in pastures (Marí et al. 2020) and even in successional  
473 agricultural grasslands which were previously tilled (e.g. Lynch & Thorn 2006). The total  
474 MOTU richness of Clavariaceae recovered in our study was more than twice that of  
475 Hygrophoraceae and more than 50% higher than that of Entolomataceae. The majority (79%)  
476 of Clavariaceae MOTUs were not identified to species rank, in contrast to only 28% of  
477 Hygrophoraceae MOTUs. This is due to poor knowledge of diversity and systematics of the  
478 group. Phylogenetic study of agaricoid Clavariaceae members of the genus *Hodophilus*  
479 revealed much higher diversity of agaricoid members and suggests urgent need of taxonomic  
480 research of clavaroid lineages (Adamčík et al. 2020). Cryptic diversity, low mycelial biomass  
481 and difficulties with identification due to taxonomic problems are probable reasons why  
482 Clavariaceae were previously overlooked or underrepresented in field surveys.

483 In this study, we did not recover any sequences of *Hodophilus* spp. a genus of the  
484 family Clavariaceae with currently 16 well-defined species in Europe (Adamčík et al. 2020).

485 The genus *Dermoloma* was represented only by two MOTUs in our study, but the diversity of  
486 the genus in Europe is higher than 15 species (Sánchez-García et al. 2021). The genus  
487 *Pseudobaeospora* represented in our study by a single MOTU has 20 accepted species known  
488 from Europe (Adamčík & Jančovičová 2011). Absence or low representation of some  
489 taxonomic groups typical for grasslands indicates that there might be higher CHEGD  
490 community variation between different and distant grassland habitats. Members of  
491 Hygrophoraceae have probably a special function in grassland ecosystems. Their relative  
492 abundance is very high compared to other groups and 25 MOTUs detected in this study  
493 represent a relatively high proportion of the known diversity of the group which includes  
494 approximately 50 species in *Hygrocybe* s.l. in Northern Europe (Boertmann, 2010).

495 Several of the CHEGD species recorded during our study are known to be rare and are  
496 included in national Red Lists of several countries (<https://www.nationalredlist.org>), e.g.  
497 *Camarophyllopsis schulzeri*, *Cuphophyllus flavipes*, *Entoloma prunuloides*, *Microglossum*  
498 *olivaceum*, *Neohygrocybe ovina* or *Ramariopsis crocea*. Some rare species were correlated  
499 with MUSP and NM, for example *Hygrocybe citrinovirens*, *N. ovina*, *E. prunuloides*,  
500 *Pseudobaeospora pyrifer* and *Trichoglossum* cf. *walteri*. All the above-mentioned species  
501 occurred on all six or at least five treatments and it seems that some of them may benefit from  
502 available plant biomass substrate. However, in the long term, the change of ecosystem to  
503 forest dominated by ECM trees will probably cause their decline. The research area is situated  
504 in a large pasture maintained by traditional forms of management for a long time and this has  
505 probably played an important role in the relatively high diversity of CHEGD fungi in all  
506 research plots and insignificant decline of richness and diversity with mulching.

## 507 **Conclusion and future perspectives**

508 Mulching is not a suitable substitute to replace traditional managements and maintain  
509 natural ecosystems of oligotrophic *Nardus* grasslands. Total soil fungal richness of mulching  
510 treatments was lower than in traditional and no-management treatments, while vascular plant  
511 richness of mulched treatments was similar to traditional treatments. However, even mulching  
512 and no-management treatments contributed some unique CHEGD fungi, and some other  
513 CHEGD species increased under these treatments. This suggests that combining of all the  
514 management regimes within the area would enhance overall levels of CHEGD diversity in  
515 these grasslands.

516 CHEGD fungi proved to be a reliable group to explain the impact of management on  
517 changes in soil ecosystem. They showed similar richness patterns to vascular plants, with a  
518 decline in NM and an increase in GR. CHEGD fungi showed a more distinctive effect of  
519 mulching than vascular plants when compared to traditional treatments. The timing of  
520 mulching had contrasting effects on plants and fungi, with spring mulching (MUSP) affecting  
521 CHEGD fungi diversity (relative to traditional treatments) and autumn mulching (MUAU)  
522 having a greater effect on plants. We hypothesize that changes in fungal community structure  
523 and functional group representations may be induced by changes in soil chemistry driven by  
524 decomposition of biomass. Future studies should focus on correlation of fungal soil diversity  
525 with levels of bioavailable essential elements.

526 Mulching (often referred to as grasscycling) is also widely practised in amenity  
527 grassland (Harivandi & Gibeault 1999, Hartin, Henry & Harivandi 2001), as evidenced by the  
528 many varieties of “mulch mower” that can be purchased. Often it is claimed that the return of  
529 nutrients is beneficial to the sward (e.g. <https://wildseed.co.uk/page/management-of-lawns>).  
530 However, the harmful effects of eutrophication are not appreciated by the wider public and  
531 the evidence from our study suggests that such policies should be reconsidered since they  
532 cause reduction in the diversity of both soil fungi and higher plants.

533 Our study demonstrated high relative abundance of some CHEGD fungi in  
534 oligotrophic grassland and our ordination analyses showed interesting links of individual  
535 fungal MOTUs to different treatments. This information strongly suggests an important role  
536 of CHEGD fungi for the function of oligotrophic grassland ecosystems.

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## 544 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

545 Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at  
546 XXXXX.

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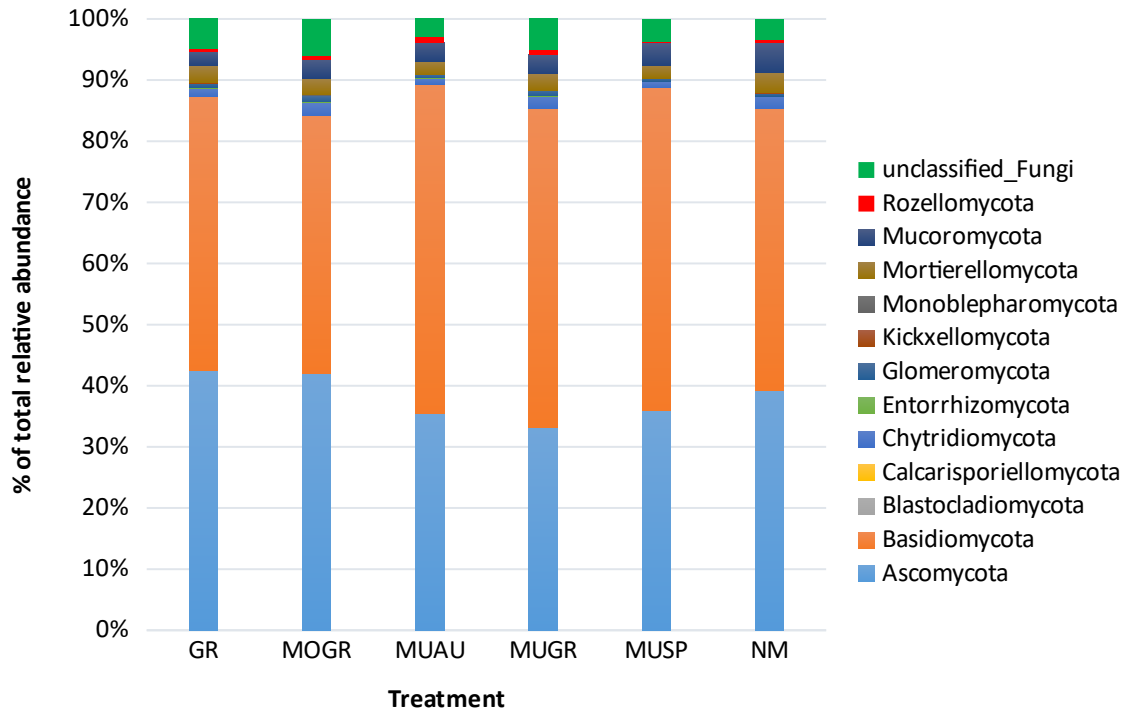
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865 **Figures**

866 Fig. 1. Study design showing arrangement of permanent plots and sampling

867 Fig. 2. Stacked bar chart showing relative abundance of the different fungal phyla at the  
868 different treatments (mean of four plot replications).



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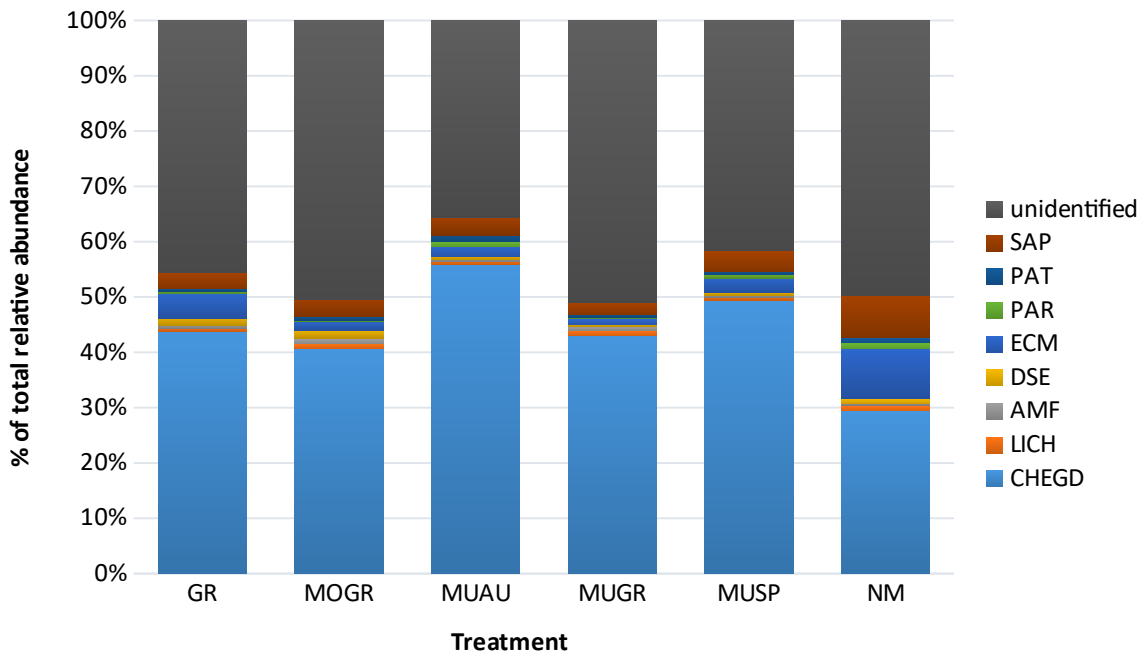
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880 Fig. 3. Stacked bar chart showing relative abundance of the different ecological functional  
 881 groups at the different treatments (mean of four plot replications). Ecological functions: SAP -  
 882 saprotrophic fungi, PAT - pathogenic fungi, PAR - parasitic fungi, ECM - plant mutualists  
 883 forming ectomycorrhiza, DSE - dark septate plant endophytes, AMF - plant mutualists  
 884 forming arbuscular mycorrhiza, LICH - lichenized fungi, CHEGD – fungi associated with  
 885 grasslands.



886

887 Fig. 4. Community structure of CHEGD fungi and vascular plants analysed by PCA. (A)  
 888 Ordination diagram of CHEGD fungi based on cumulative numbers of MOTU presences at  
 889 four plot replications per treatment (Appendix A: Tab. 3). (B) Ordination diagram of vascular  
 890 plants community based on data are represented as average percentage cover of the four  
 891 replications (Appendix A: Tab. 4).

892

893 Table 1. Fungal relative abundance, MOTU richness and diversity within the treatments.  
 894 Given values are averages of spring and autumn sampling from four replicate plots per  
 895 treatment. Values in parentheses are standard errors.

	<b>GR</b>	<b>MOGR</b>	<b>MUAU</b>	<b>MUGR</b>	<b>MUSP</b>	<b>NM</b>	<b>Average all plots</b>
<b>Fungi identified to family [%]</b>	94.7 (2.4)	94.0 (1.8)	94.8 (3.1)	95.1 (1.2)	95.2 (2.9)	95.1 (1.9)	94.8 (2.3)
<b>Fungi identified to genus [%]</b>	94.3 (2.7)	93.4 (1.7)	94.6 (3.2)	94.7 (1.2)	94.9 (3)	94.8 (2)	94.4 (2.5)
<b>Fungi identified to species [%]</b>	86.7 (5.2)	84.2 (4.3)	89.5 (4.8)	88.6 (2.5)	90.6 (4.8)	89.3 (2.8)	88.2 (4.7)
<b>Shannon Index</b>	3.88 (0.49)	4.21 (0.55)	3.49 (0.73)	3.71 (0.62)	3.52 (0.66)	4.05 (0.6)	3.81 (0.67)
<b>Inverse Simpson Index</b>	17.84 (12.43)	23.59 (13.05)	12.03 (9.09)	13.02 (11.48)	11.25 (13.58)	21.88 (13.17)	16.6 (13.15)
<b>Average fungal MOTU richness</b>	353.1 (47.2)	372.3 (83.9)	358.1 (56.5)	385.3 (54.6)	402 (46.8)	401.5 (74.5)	378.7 (65.1)

896



897 Table 2. MOTU richness / relative abundance of individual groups of CHEGD fungi per  
 898 treatment. Given values are averages of spring and autumn sampling from four replicate plots  
 899 per treatment. In the last three rows; Inverse Simpson index, Shannon index and average of  
 900 CHEGD MOTU richness are followed by standard errors in parenthesis. If there are any  
 901 statistically significant differences between treatments resulted from Tukey's test, they are  
 902 labelled by lowercase letters .

	<b>GR</b>	<b>MOGR</b>	<b>MUAU</b>	<b>MUGR</b>	<b>MUSP</b>	<b>NM</b>	<b>Average all plots</b>
<b>Clavariaceae</b>	18.3/6.7	22.8/7.8	21.5/6.1	21.5/7.3	15/3.1	17.8/2.8	19.5/5.7
<b>Hygrophoraceae</b>	14.5/25.7	12.5/28.7	11.8/40.5	11.3/30.6	13.8/42.4	11.8/24.6	12.6/32.2
<b>Entolomataceae</b>	12.3b/2.4	14b/2.4	11.3ab/0.7	12.8b/1.2	11ab/0.5	6.8a/0.5	11.3/1.3
<b>Geoglossaceae</b>	4.8ab/3.7	3.5a/2.8	5ab/2.0	3.3a/2.6	6.3b/2.5	4.3ab/1.4	4.5/2.5
<b>TRICHOLOMAT ACEAE</b>	1.8/0.5	1/0.3	1.5/0.6	1.3/0.3	2/0.1	1.8/0.2	1.5/0.3
<b>Leotiaceae</b>	2.8a/5.9	2.3ab/0.8	3.25a/5.3	3a/1.8	2.3ab/0.7	1.3b/0.1	2.5/2.4
<b>Shannon Index</b>	2.74 (0.23)	2.64 (0.35)	2.11 (0.19)	2.53 (0.16)	1.78 (0.09)	2.15 (0.12)	2.33 (0.19)
<b>Inverse Simpson Index</b>	8.39 (1.59)	7.17 (0.87)	4.63 (0.54)	7.0 (0.36)	2.94 (0.29)	4.32 (0.45)	5.74 (0.68)
<b>Average CHEGD MOTU richness</b>	54.25 (1.79)	56 (8.8)	54.25 (7.56)	53 (4.18)	50.25 (3.49)	43.25 (1.5)	51.88 (6.73)

903

904

905 Table 3. Species richness and diversity of vascular plants per treatment. Given values are  
 906 averages of spring and autumn sampling from four replicate plots per treatment. Values in  
 907 parentheses are standard errors. Statistically significant differences between treatments  
 908 resulted from Tukey's test are labelled by lowercase letters

	<b>GR</b>	<b>MOGR</b>	<b>MUAU</b>	<b>MUGR</b>	<b>MUSP</b>	<b>NM</b>	<b>Average all plots</b>
<b>Shannon Index</b>	3.13b (0.17)	3.25b (0.09)	3.15b (0.22)	3.32b (0.15)	3.16b (0.16)	2.37a (0.23)	3.06 (0.36)
<b>Inverse Simpson Index</b>	14.21ab (3.81)	15.62ab (2.39)	12.50ab (5.48)	15.40ab (4.11)	14.74b (4.05)	5.31a (2.11)	11.21 (5.25)
<b>Average plant species richness</b>	50.8b (1.5)	50b (4.5)	45ab (3.2)	54ab (2.4)	45b (6.7)	35.8a (2.5)	46.8 (7)

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910

911 Table 4. Results of one-way PERMANOVA comparisons of plant and CHEGD communities  
 912 between pairs of treatments. Significant values ( $p < 0.05$ ) are labelled with asterisk (\*).

		CHEGD					
PLANTS	<b>GR</b>	0.8791	1	0.8778	0.2002	0.0256*	
		<b>MOG</b>					
		0.7501	<b>R</b>	0.8516	0.7153	0.3709	0.1138
		0.0592	0.1849	<b>MUAU</b>	1	0.5804	0.0541
				0.0297	<b>MUG</b>		
		0.12	0.2542	*	<b>R</b>	0.4814	0.0583
		0.2306	0.2852	0.9374	0.1099	<b>MUSP</b>	0.0571
		0.0291	0.0287		0.0326		
		*	*	0.029*	*	0.0583	<b>NM</b>

913 **Appendix A: Supplementary materials**

914 Appendix A: Table 1. Inorganic composition of the soil at the studied plots

915 Appendix A: Table 2. List of fungal MOTUs retrieved at all 24 permanent plots arranged  
 916 based on cumulative relative abundance

917 Appendix A: Table 3. Presence of CHEGD MOTUs at individual permanent plots

918 Appendix A: Table 4. Average percentage cover of vascular plants at individual permanent  
 919 plots recorded in the last (9th) year of the research

920 Appendix A: Fig. 1. Species richness and diversity of fungi at the different treatments. The  
 921 large pie chart compares CHEGD (in blue) and all fungi (in red) richness at individual  
 922 plots. The small pie charts below show species richness, Inverse Simpson and Shannon  
 923 indices of CHEGD fungi at the individual treatments.

924 Appendix A: Fig. 2. Species richness and diversity of CHEGD fungi and vascular plants at the  
 925 different treatments. The large pie chart compares CHEGD fungi (in blue) and vascular  
 926 plants (in green) richness at individual plots. The small pie charts below show species  
 927 richness, Inverse Simpson and Shannon indices of vascular plants at the individual  
 928 treatments.

929 Appendix A: Fig. 3. Heatmap showing hierarchical clustering of treatments based on  
 930 presence/absence of CHEGD fungi.

931 Appendix A: Fig 4. Heatmap showing hierarchical clustering of treatments based on relative  
 932 abundances of CHEGD species.

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