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Microbial carbon and nitrogen cycling responses to drought and temperature in differently managed mountain grasslands

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1	Title: Microbial carbon and nitrogen cycling responses to drought and temperature in
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21 efficiency, grassland, drought, temperature response

22 Abstract

Grassland management can modify soil microbial carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) cycling, 23 affecting the resistance to extreme weather events, which are predicted to increase in 24 25 frequency and magnitude in the near future. However, effects of grassland management on microbial C and N cycling and their responses to extreme weather events, such as droughts 26 and heatwaves, have rarely been tested in a combined approach. We therefore investigated 27 whether grassland management affects microbial C and N cycling responses to drought and 28 temperature manipulation. We collected soils from *in situ* drought experiments conducted in 29 an extensively managed and an abandoned mountain grassland and incubated them at two 30 temperature levels. We measured microbial respiration and substrate incorporation, as well as 31 gross rates of organic and inorganic N cycling to estimate microbial C and N use efficiencies 32 (CUE and NUE). The managed grassland was characterized by lower microbial biomass, 33 lower fungi to bacteria ratio, and higher microbial CUE, but only slightly different microbial 34 NUE. At both sites drought induced a shift in microbial community composition driven by an 35 36 increase in Gram-positive bacterial abundance. Drought significantly reduced C substrate respiration and incorporation by microbes at both sites, while microbial CUE remained 37 constant. In contrast, drought increased gross rates of N mineralization at both sites, whereas 38 gross amino acid uptake rates only marginally changed. We observed a significant direct, as 39 well as interactive effect between land management and drought on microbial NUE. 40 41 Increased temperatures significantly stimulated microbial respiration and reduced microbial CUE independent of drought or land management. Although microbial N processing rates 42 showed no clear response, microbial NUE significantly decreased at higher temperatures. In 43 44 summary in our study, microbial CUE, in particular respiration, is more responsive to temperature changes. Although N processing rates were stronger responding to drought than 45 to temperature microbial NUE was affected by both drought and temperature increase. We 46

47 conclude that direct effects of drought and heatwaves can induce different responses in soil
48 microbial C and N cycling similarly in the studied land management systems.

49

50 **1. Introduction**

Socioeconomic changes in mountain regions have altered grassland management and 51 increasing proportions of previously agriculturally managed grasslands have become 52 abandoned (Tappeiner et al., 2008). Land management change is affecting plant community 53 composition and associated plant traits (Fontana et al., 2017; Grigulis et al., 2013), net 54 ecosystem gas exchange (Harris et al., 2018; Schmitt et al., 2010), soil microbial community 55 composition (Fuchslueger et al., 2014b; Grigulis et al., 2013; Legay et al., 2016), as well as 56 soil C sequestration, soil structure, soil organic matter stocks (Meyer et al., 2012), and soil 57 microbial N turnover and related functional genes (Legay et al., 2016; Szukics et al., 2019). 58

Microbial C and N cycling in soil are tightly coupled and, amongst other factors, regulated by 59 environmental conditions (Allison et al., 2010; Creamer et al., 2015; Frey et al., 2013; 60 Hagerty et al., 2014; Keiblinger et al., 2010; Manzoni et al., 2012; Six et al., 2006; 61 Zechmeister-Boltenstern et al., 2015). Land management can strongly modify soil microbial 62 C and N cycling and influence the resistance and resilience to extreme weather events (De 63 Vries et al., 2012; Fuchslueger et al., 2014b; Ingrisch et al., 2017; Karlowsky et al., 2018), 64 which are projected to occur at higher intensity and frequency in mountain regions in the near 65 future (IPCC, 2012). An improved mechanistic understanding of soil microbial C and N 66 cycling (Wieder et al., 2015), as well as its interaction with land management is urgently 67 68 needed to accurately represent soil microbial feedbacks in ecosystem models to improve predictions of grassland responses to projected climate change scenarios. 69

70 Substrate stoichiometry and availability, as well as microbial nutrient demand affect the efficiency with which microbes convert available substrates into biomass, as opposed to the 71 release of C or N as enzymes, exudates, or as CO₂ or inorganic N, i.e. the microbial C or N 72 use efficiency (CUE or NUE, respectively). High microbial CUE denotes a greater potential 73 for soil organic C storage, and lower losses of soil organic C through microbial respiration 74 per unit of C processed (Manzoni et al., 2012; Mooshammer et al., 2014; Sinsabaugh et al., 75 2016), and has been found to decrease with N deficiency (Keiblinger et al., 2010; Spohn et 76 al., 2016). Likewise, high microbial NUE indicates efficient incorporation of N into microbial 77 biomass, and concomitant low mineralization (i.e. release of inorganic N as NH_4^+ and NO_3^-) 78 into the environment (Mooshammer et al., 2014). In addition, microbes can take up small 79 organic N forms, such as amino acids; although their production and breakdown is considered 80 a key step in soil N cycling in many systems, their role for soil N dynamics is often 81 overlooked (Schimel and Bennett, 2004; Wild et al., 2013). 82

Soil C and N cycling is sensitive to changes in soil moisture (Moyano et al., 2013). Low 83 water and osmotic potential and reduced substrate diffusion during drought can reduce 84 microbial growth, increase microbial mortality, induce microbial dormancy and shifts in 85 active microbial community composition (Blagodatskaya and Kuzyakov, 2013; Lennon and 86 Jones, 2011; Moyano et al., 2013; Schimel et al., 2007). Simultaneously, drought reduces 87 microbial activity indicated for example by reduced respiration (Moyano et al., 2013). Effects 88 of drought on microbial N cycling are less clear: drought can reduce extracellular enzyme 89 activity involved in protein depolymerization (Sanaullah et al., 2011). However, drought 90 effects on gross amino acid uptake and production by microbes have rarely been determined. 91 While drought can favor microbial strategies to conserve N, such as production of N-92 containing osmolyte compounds (Moyano et al., 2013; Schimel et al., 2007), drought effects 93 on N mineralization, and nitrification seem to strongly depend on ecosystem type and land 94

management (Auyeung et al., 2013; Fuchslueger et al., 2014b; Hartmann et al., 2013;
Homyak et al., 2017; Larsen et al., 2011).

Since drought periods often coincide with heat waves, an understanding of water and 97 temperature interactions on soil C and N cycling is crucial (Auyeung et al., 2013; Bloor et al., 98 2010). Temperature generally increases microbial activity (growth), but also maintenance 99 costs and microbial energy demand (Allison et al., 2010; Frey et al., 2013). If more C is 100 allocated to respiration as opposed to microbial biomass growth, microbial CUE is reduced 101 (Dijkstra et al., 2015; Manzoni et al., 2012), which can result in overall losses of soil C 102 (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Melillo et al., 2017). Higher temperatures allow a 103 thermodynamically faster extracellular enzymatic breakdown of proteins into organic N 104 105 forms suitable for microbial uptake and thereby stimulate microbial growth (Wallenstein et al., 2011), though they might also accelerate enzyme inactivation (Alvarez et al., 2018). 106 Microbial N mineralization and nitrification have been found to more strongly increase with 107 temperature than inorganic N uptake causing a net increase of inorganic N in soils (Larsen et 108 al., 2011; Niboyet et al., 2011; Shaw and Harte, 2001; Verburg et al., 1999). Overall, the 109 temperature response of microbial N cycling and consequently of microbial NUE remains 110 unclear. 111

Both microbial CUE and NUE are metrics attempting to integrate and characterize the 112 physiological potential of an established microbial community. Microbial CUE, which is 113 better studied than microbial NUE, can vary among ecosystems, land management systems 114 (Bölscher et al., 2016; Lee and Schmidt, 2014; Zheng et al., 2019), with climatic conditions 115 and incubation temperatures (Devêvre and Horwáth, 2000; Steinweg et al., 2008). However, 116 responses of microbial C and N cycling and CUE and NUE to extreme weather events have 117 to our knowledge never been tested in a combined approach. The aim of this study was 118 therefore to evaluate the responses of soil microbial C and N cycling to drought and to short 119

120 term temperature increases in two differently managed mountain grasslands. We assessed microbial C cycling by measuring the partitioning of ¹³C-labelled substrate into microbial 121 biomass and respired CO_2 and soil microbial N cycling by ¹⁵N pool dilution approaches, in a 122 managed and an abandoned mountain grassland that were part of an *in situ* drought 123 experiment. We collected soil samples from controls and drought treated plots at peak 124 drought and tested the temperature response of soil C and N cycling rates under controlled 125 laboratory conditions. We hypothesized that (i) drought reduces microbial C and N uptake as 126 well as mineralization rates, and that microbial CUE and NUE consequently remain 127 unchanged. We further expected that (ii) short-term temperature increases stimulate 128 mineralization processes stronger than microbial growth, and thereby reduce microbial CUE 129 and NUE. As drought would reduce the temperature sensitivity of mineralization processes 130 (Suseela et al., 2012), we expected to find less pronounced temperature effects on CUE and 131 NUE in drought treated soil. Since the resistance of soil C and N cycling to extreme weather 132 events should decrease with increasing grassland management intensity (De Vries et al., 133 2012; Karlowsky et al., 2018), we hypothesized (iii) that the drought and temperature 134 response of microbial C and N cycling will differ in managed and abandoned grassland. 135

136

137 **2. Material and Methods**

138 2.1 Site description and soil sampling

Soil samples were collected from two grasslands with different land management histories located in the Austrian Central Alps near Neustift, Stubai Valley (47°07'N, 11°19'E). Both grasslands are characterized by a temperate, seasonal cool, humid climate (mean annual temperature of 3°C; mean annual precipitation of 1097 mm); the predominant growing (snow-free) season is from March/April to September. Samples were taken from a grassland (referred to as 'managed grassland'; 1850 m a. s. l.), where total aboveground plant biomass

is cut and harvested once a year (Bahn et al., 2006), and from an abandoned grassland, where
all management activities were terminated in 1983 and which has since then undergone the
initial states of natural succession (referred to as 'abandoned grassland', 1900 m a.s.l.,
Schmitt *et al.*, 2010; Ingrisch *et al.*, 2017).

The grasslands differed in the amount of cumulative organic matter input. At the managed 149 grassland aboveground biomass is regularly cut and removed, and average soil organic matter 150 (SOM) content in the upper 10 cm of soil was 13.3 % ($\pm 0.8\%$ SE), while at the abandoned 151 grassland SOM was higher with 22.5 % (±1.5% SE) (determined by loss on ignition at 550°C 152 (Fuchslueger et al., 2014b)). The plant community composition is described as Trisetetum 153 flavescentis at the managed, and as Seslerio-Cariecetum at the abandoned grassland (Grigulis 154 et al., 2013; Schmitt et al., 2010). At both sites the soil has been characterized as Dystric 155 Cambisol (FAO classification) with a pH of 5.5 in the uppermost 10 cm (determined in 156 CaCl₂). 157

The two sites were part of a multi-year drought experiment in the CARBO-Extreme network. 158 Drought was simulated by excluding precipitation using rain-out shelters equipped with light-159 and UV-B-permeable plastic foil (UV B Window; Folitec GmbH, Westerburg, Germany; 160 light permeability ca. 95%; UV-B permeability >70%). Each shelter covered an area of 3 m x 161 3.5 m. Shelters had been installed over a period of ten weeks during the growing season in 162 2011, as well as for four weeks before sample collection in June 2012. In both grasslands, 163 soil moisture significantly decreased by at least 30% during drought simulations (Table 1; for 164 a detailed experimental description see Fuchslueger et al., (2014b)). Soil samples were taken 165 from the center of each of the drought plots (called 'drought' hereafter), as well as from 166 control plots close to each rain-out shelter exposed to ambient weather conditions (called 167 'control' hereafter, n=4 respectively). Per sample, two soil cores (5 cm x 7 cm) to a depth of 168 10 cm were pooled, sieved to 2 mm, and fine roots were manually removed. Samples were 169

170 stored cool and transferred to the lab on the same day. One set of soil aliquots was immediately processed to determine soil C and N pools and microbial community 171 composition. The remaining soil was split into aliquots for incubations at two temperature 172 levels to test the temperature responses of microbial C and N cycling: 15°C was chosen as it 173 is close to field temperature conditions (ranging between 7.3 and 17.1°C in the week before 174 sampling), and 25°C was chosen to simulate a strong heatwave. All samples were pre-175 incubated at the two temperature levels for 24 h before they were used for C and N cycling 176 measurements. 177

178

179 2.2 Soil parameters and soil C and N pools, microbial community composition

Soil samples were analyzed as described in Fuchslueger et al., (2014b). Soil water content 180 (SWC) was determined gravimetrically by weighing 5 g of fresh soil and drying at 60°C for 181 48 h. Dried soil samples were ground and analyzed for total C and total N using an EA-IRMS 182 (EA 1110, CE Instruments, Italy, coupled to a Finnigan MAT Delta Plus IRMS; Thermo 183 Fisher Scientific, MA, USA). Microbial biomass C and N (C_{mic}, N_{mic}) was determined in 184 fresh soils using the chloroform fumigation extraction method (Vance et al., 1987). 185 Funigated and non-funigated soils (2 g respectively) were extracted with 20 ml of 0.5 M 186 K₂SO₄ and analyzed for extractable organic C (EOC) and total extractable N on a TOC/TN 187 Analyzer (TOC-V CPH E200V/TNM-122V; Shimadzu, Austria); no correction factor was 188 applied to values on C_{mic} and N_{mic} reported (Table 1). Total free amino acid concentrations 189 (TFAA) were analyzed in aliquots of K₂SO₄ extracts fluorimetrically as described by Jones et 190 al. (2002), modified by Prommer et al. (2014). Similarly, NH_4^+ concentrations were analyzed 191 photometrically in K₂SO₄ extract aliquots using a modified indophenol reaction method 192 (Kandeler and Gerber, 1988). Nitrate (NO₃) concentrations were determined in water 193 extracts (2 g of soil with 20 ml of MilliQ water) by chemically suppressed ion-194

195 chromatography (DX500, Dionex, Austria) on a Dionex AS11 column. Extractable organic 196 nitrogen (EON) was calculated by subtracting inorganic N (NH_4^+ and NO_3^-) from total 197 extractable N.

Microbial community composition was determined using phospholipid fatty acids according 198 to the method described by Frostegård et al. (1991) with modifications described by 199 (Fuchslueger et al., 2014a). Briefly, total lipids were extracted with a mixture of chloroform, 200 methanol and 0.15 M citric acid buffer from frozen soils. Neutral lipids and phospholipids 201 were separated on silica columns (Supelco, LC-Si SPE, Bellefonte, PE, USA) using 202 chloroform, acetone and methanol as eluents. After addition of methyl-nonadecanoate (19:0) 203 as an internal standard and the conversion of the phospholipids to fatty-acid methyl esters 204 (FAMEs) by alkaline methanolysis, samples were dried and re-dissolved in isooctane and 205 analyzed on a GC-FID (Trace GC Ultra, Thermo) using a DB23 column (Agilent 60 m x 0.25 206 mm x 0.25 µm). Bacterial and fungal FAME mixtures (bacterial acid methyl ester mix, 207 Supelco, and 37 Comp. FAME Mix, Supelco) were used as qualitative standards. The internal 208 standard 19:0 was used to calculate the concentration of FAMEs. As indicators for Gram-209 positive bacteria we used the i14:0, i15:0, a15:0, i16:0, a16:0, i17:0 and a17:0 fatty acids, 210 while the markers 16:1007, 18:1007, cv17:0, and cv19:0 were used as indicators for Gram-211 negative bacteria. The sum of Gram-positive and Gram-negative markers together with 15:0, 212 17:0, 10Me18:0, 17:1007, and 18:1005 was used as a measure for total bacteria. The 213 biomarkers $16:1\omega 5$, $18:2\omega 6.9$, $18:1\omega 9$ and $18:3\omega 3.6.9$ were used to assess the fungal 214 contribution to the microbial community (Kaiser et al., 2010; Olsson, 2006; Zelles, 1997). 215

216

217 2.3 Microbial C cycling potential and microbial CUE

The microbial C cycling potential was estimated by incubating soil aliquots with a mixture of ¹³C-labelled substrates (sugars, amino sugars, organic acids and amino acids with a C:N ratio

220 of 20, enriched at 10.4 atom%, for a detailed list of compounds see Takriti et al., (2018)). For the assay, 2 g of soil pre-incubated at 15°C or 25°C were placed into 250 ml glass bottles. 221 Each subsample received dissolved C-substrate equaling 40 µg of C and the bottles were 222 sealed with butyl rubber plugs. Immediately after ¹³C label addition 12 ml gas samples were 223 collected using a syringe and transferred to pre-evacuated Exetainer vials. The air removed 224 from the bottles was replaced with air with known CO_2 concentration and ¹³C composition. 225 The samples were then again incubated for 24 h at 15°C and 25°C, respectively. At the end of 226 the incubation further gas samples were taken as described above, and aliquots of soils were 227 used to determine microbial biomass C (C_{mic}) by chloroform fumigation extraction as 228 described in section 2.2. In K₂SO₄ extracts of both fumigated and non-fumigated soils δ^{13} C of 229 EOC was determined by direct injection on an IC system (DX 3000, Dionex Corporation, 230 Sunnyvale, CA, USA) without column and connected through a Finnigan LC IsoLink 231 Interface (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) to a Finnigan Delta V Advantage 232 Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Fisher, Bremen, Germany). Carbon substrate incorporation into 233 microbial biomass was calculated as the difference between ¹³C in EOC of chloroform-234 fumigated and non-fumigated samples. Gas samples were analyzed for their CO₂ 235 concentrations and δ^{13} C signatures by a headspace gas sampler (GasBench II, Thermo Fisher, 236 Bremen, Germany) coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Delta V Advantage, 237 Thermo Fisher, Bremen, Germany). Cumulative respiration (total microbial soil respiration) 238 was calculated correcting for the air replaced at the start of the incubation. Substrate derived 239 ¹³C in CO₂ and EOC was corrected for mean natural abundance of soil by calculating atom 240 percent excess. Microbial CUE was estimated as follows: 241

242

243 CUE=C substrate incorporation/(C substrate incorporation + C substrate respiration)
244 1)

where C substrate incorporation is the ¹³C labelled substrate incorporated into biomass and C
substrate respiration is the CO₂ respired from labelled substrates during the incubation.
Microbial C turnover was calculated by dividing the total microbial biomass pool by the C
substrate incorporation rate:

250

251

252

C substrate turnover (days)=total C_{mic}/C substrate incorporation

2)

253 2.4 Microbial N cycling rates and microbial NUE

254 2.4.1 Microbial gross protein depolymerization and gross amino acid uptake

Gross rates of protein depolymerization and microbial amino acid uptake (AA_{uptake}) were 255 determined following Wanek et al. (2010), with the modifications for soil samples described 256 by Wild et al. (2013). Briefly, 500 µl of a ¹⁵N-labelled amino acid mixture (20 amino acids, 257 $0.25 \ \mu g \ \mu l^{-1}$, >98 atm% ¹⁵N, Spectra and Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) were added to 258 duplicates of 2 g fresh, but pre-incubated soil. Samples were then further incubated at either 259 15°C or 25°C; one of the duplicates was extracted after 10 min, the second after 30 min of 260 incubation with 20 ml 10 mM CaSO₄ containing 3.7% formaldehyde. Extracts were 261 centrifuged, filtered, and loaded on pre-cleaned cation exchange cartridges (OnGuard II H 262 1cc cartridges, Dionex). Amino acids were eluted from the cartridges using 10 ml 3 M NH₃, 263 amended with an internal standard (1 µg nor-valine, nor-leucine and para-chloro-264 phenylalanine each, Sigma-Aldrich), dried under N₂, re-dissolved in 20% ethanol and dried 265 again in a SpeedVac. Blanks and amino acid standards were processed with the samples 266 throughout the procedure. After derivatization with ethyl-chloroformate (Wanek et al., 2010), 267 samples were analyzed with gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (Thermo Trace GC 268 Ultra and ISQ mass spectrometer, Agilent DB-5 column, PTV injection in splitless mode at 269

270°C, 1 ml min⁻¹ helium as carrier, temperature program: 60°C for 1.5 min, first ramp 5°C 270 min⁻¹ to 200°C, second ramp 15°C min⁻¹ to 300°C, 300°C for 4 min). We calculated 271 concentrations of alanine, glycine, isoleucine, leucine, phenylalanine, proline, serine, valine, 272 asparagine & aspartate, and glutamine & glutamate against external standards that were 273 measured interspersed with the samples, and ¹⁵N isotopic compositions of these amino acids 274 from the peak areas of fragments containing ¹⁴N or ¹⁵N as described by Wanek *et al.* (2010). 275 We finally calculated gross rates of amino acid consumption and protein depolymerization 276 based on the equations in Kirkham & Bartholomew (1954); a detailed description is reported 277 in Wild et al., (2018) 278

279

280 2.4.2 Gross N mineralization and NH_4^+ uptake, NO_3^- production and NO_3^- uptake

Gross rates of microbial N mineralization (N_{min}) and NH_4^+ uptake (NH_4^+ uptake) and of NO_3^- 281 production (NO_{3 prod}) and uptake (NO_{3 uptake}) were determined using ¹⁵N pool dilution assays 282 (Kirkham and Bartholomew, 1954). For each assay pre-incubated aliquots of soil samples 283 received in duplicates 500 μ l (NH₄)₂SO₄ (0.125 mM; 10 atm% ¹⁵N) or 500 μ l KNO₃ (0.25 284 mM, 10 atm% ¹⁵N). After ¹⁵N-label additions samples were again incubated at 15°C or 25°C. 285 From each assay one of the aliquots was extracted after 4 h, and the other after 24 h with 20 286 ml 2 M KCl. The extracts were stored frozen until further analyses. Gross N_{min} and $NH_4^+_{uptake}$ 287 rates were determined by microdiffusion of NH₃ from KCl-extracts using acid traps, which 288 were analyzed for total N concentrations and atom-percent excess of ¹⁵N by EA-IRMS (EA 289 1110, CE Instruments, Italy coupled to a Finnigan MAT Delta Plus IRMS, Thermo Fisher 290 Scientific, MA, USA). For analyzing gross NO_3^- production and uptake rates, NH_3 was 291 removed from the extracts by adding MgO before converting NO₃⁻ to NH₃ by adding 292 Devarda's Alloy, trapping NH₃ by microdiffusion and analysis as described before. Gross 293

rates of N_{min} and $NH_4^+_{uptake}$ as well as of NO_3^- production and uptake were calculated as 294 described by Kirkham & Bartholomew (1954). 295 296 Microbial NUE 297 Microbial NUE was calculated based on Wild et al., (2013) 298 299 NUE= $(AA_{uptake}-N_{min})/(AA_{uptake})$ 300 3) 301 where NUE is the ratio of the sum of N taken up by microbes as amino acids (AA_{uptake}) minus 302 N mineralized (N_{min} as NH_4^+) over the sum of N taken up by microbes. Since gross NO_3^- 303 production was occurring in the same range as gross NH₄⁺ uptake we could not separate the 304 two processes and therefore did not consider inorganic N process rates for estimating 305 microbial NUE. The turnover times of N pools (TFAA, NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻) were calculated as 306 follows: 307 308 N pool turnover (hours)=N pool/((N-pool_{production} + N-pool_{uptake})/2) **4**) 309 310 2.5 Data analysis and statistics 311 Effects of land management and drought treatment on soil parameters were assessed by linear 312 mixed effect models with land management and drought treatment as fixed factors and plot 313 identity nested within land management as random factor using the 'nlme' package in R 314 (Pinheiro et al., 2019). The influence of land management and drought treatment on microbial 315 community composition using relative PLFA abundances as a proxy was displayed as a non-316 metric multidimensional scaling plot based on a Bray-Curtis similarity matrix; significant 317

effects were evaluated by permutation ANOVA using the 'vegan'-package in R (Oksanen et 13

al., 2013). Effects of land management, drought treatment and incubation temperature as well as their interactions on microbial CUE and NUE, and on the respective C- and N process rates were also assessed applying linear mixed effect models with plot identity nested as random factor within land management. Variables were tested for normal distribution of residuals. Since many variables showed unequal variances between the two land management systems we used the weights function to fix variance weights. For all process rates Q_{10} values were calculated as follows:

326

 $Q_{10} = (R_{25}/R_{15})^{(10/(25-15))}$

5)

328

where R_{25} and R_{15} are the rates measured in soil incubated at 25°C and 15°C, respectively, and the drought and temperature were assessed with two-way ANOVA in each site individually.

332

333 **3. Results**

334 3.1 Are drought responses of soil microbial C and N cycling depending on land 335 management?

The managed grassland was characterized by a significantly lower total soil C and N concentrations, lower soil C:N ratio, as well as a significantly lower C_{mic} content compared to the abandoned grassland. At both sites the drought treatment significantly reduced soil moisture content and increased microbial C:N ratios, driven by a significant decrease in N_{mic} (Table 1). The managed grassland showed a significantly lower fungi:bacteria PLFA ratio, and a significantly higher Gram-positive:Gram-negative bacteria PLFA ratio than the abandoned grassland. In both sites the drought treatment changed microbial community

343 composition driven by a significant increase of Gram-positive:Gram-negative bacteria (Fig.344 1, Table 1).

Total soil microbial respiration (per g dry mass soil) was not significantly different between 345 the two sites, but specific respiration (i.e., respiration normalized to C_{mic}) was significantly 346 higher in the managed compared to the abandoned grassland (Fig 2, Fig. S1, Table 2, Table 347 S1). Neither microbial C substrate incorporation nor C substrate respiration differed 348 significantly between the two sites; yet the small differences resulted in significantly higher 349 microbial CUE of 0.61 (± 0.03) in the managed, compared to 0.51 (± 0.04) in the abandoned 350 grassland (Fig. 2, Table 2). Microbial C turnover occurred almost three times faster in the 351 managed (11.2 days) than in the abandoned grassland (30.4 days; Table 3). Drought did not 352 affect total microbial respiration rates in either grassland, neither on a dry mass soil basis, nor 353 when rates were normalized to C_{mic} (Fig. 2, Table 2, Fig. S1, Table S1). However, drought 354 significantly reduced both microbial C substrate incorporation and C substrate respiration, 355 which slowed down microbial C turnover, while microbial CUE remained constant (Fig. 2, 356 Tables 2 and 3). 357

The analyzed microbial gross N cycling rates did not significantly differ between the two sites and also microbial NUE was similar in the managed (0.66 \pm 0.06, mean \pm SE) and abandoned grassland (0.69 \pm 0.03, mean \pm SE) (Fig. 3, Table 2). Normalized to C_{mic}, also most microbial gross N-processing rates were comparable. Only NO₃⁻ pool turnover was significantly higher in the managed compared to the abandoned grassland (Table 3).

The drought treatment differently affected microbial N cycling rates mostly independent of land management. Drought significantly increased gross protein depolymerization, gross N mineralization and gross NH_4^+ uptake and significantly reduced gross NO_3^- production rates at both sites, while gross AA uptake only showed small changes in either site (Fig. 3, Table 2,). The response of N cycling rates normalized to C_{mic} were less pronounced (Fig. S2, Table

S1). Nonetheless, the drought response of microbial NUE depended significantly with land
management and was reduced in the managed, but increased in the abandoned grassland (Fig.
370 3, Table 2).

371

372 3.2 Does drought affect the temperature response of microbial C and N cycling?

The temperature increase significantly stimulated total microbial soil respiration (Q_{10} : 1.8-373 2.2), and C substrate derived respiration (Q_{10} : 1.3-1.4), regardless of land management and 374 drought treatment (Fig. 2, Fig. 4, Table 2). Microbial C substrate incorporation was not 375 significantly affected by temperature, but its temperature response showed a trend to vary 376 with land management (F=3.6, p=0.075. Increased temperatures caused a reduction of 377 microbial CUE (Fig. 2, 4, Table 2), which also seemed to tended to interactively depend on 378 land management (F=3.9, p=0.064) and drought treatment (F=3.7, p=0.070, Fig. 2, Fig. 4, 379 Table 2). 380

Although increased temperatures did not significantly change the measured gross N cycling rates, neither per dry mass nor normalized per C_{mic} (Table 2, Table S1, Fig. 3, Fig. S2), microbial NUE was significantly reduced. Moreover, the temperature response of gross protein depolymerization rates depended on the drought treatment and rates decreased in control and increased in drought treated plots (Table 2, Fig. 3).

386

387 **4. Discussion**

Our study provides experimental evidence that drought and temperature pulses can induce different responses of microbial C and N cycling in grassland soils, and in contrast to our hypothesis independent of land management. Abandonment of agricultural grassland management is known to introduce ecosystem wide changes, from reducing gross primary production, ecosystem respiration and changing overall net ecosystem CO₂ exchange (Harris

et al., 2018; Schmitt et al., 2010) to altering plant litter inputs to the soil, reducing litter quality (wider C/N ratio, increased lignin and lower N content) and labile C inputs into the rhizosphere (Ingrisch et al., 2017; Karlowsky et al., 2018). In line with earlier findings (Karlowsky et al., 2018; Legay et al., 2016), we found that land abandonment increased microbial biomass C and induced a shift in microbial community composition, characterized by an increase in the abundance of fungal PLFAs compared to the managed grassland and shifted gram positive and gram negative PLFA composition.

Despite the difference in microbial community composition, total microbial respiration, C 400 substrate respiration and C substrate incorporation rates were comparable in the two 401 grasslands per dry soil (Table 2, Fig. 2). However, normalized to microbial biomass all C 402 cycling rates were higher, and C turnover occurred faster in the managed grassland indicating 403 a more active microbial community, or a higher proportion of active microbes compared to 404 the abandoned site (Table S1, Fig. S1). Microbial CUE was however significantly higher in 405 the managed compared grassland with lower fungi:bacteria ratio compared to the abandoned 406 grassland (Fig. 2, Table 2). Bacterial growth efficiency has been shown to increase from 407 forest to cropland soils with management intensity (Lee and Schmidt, 2014), and in 408 grasslands microbial CUE has been shown to increase with nutrient availability (Spohn et al., 409 2016). In contrast, Bölscher et al., (2016) reported a higher CUE of microbial communities in 410 forest soils with higher fungal abundances and potential higher CUE of saprotrophic fungi 411 compared to microbial communities in arable land and grasslands. 412

413 Changes in land management can also strongly influence plant and soil N cycling, and the 414 gene abundance of microbial N cyclers and N cycling rates (Hartmann and Niklaus, 2012; 415 Legay et al., 2016; Szukics et al., 2019). Despite of significant lower gross NO₃⁻ production 416 rates at the managed compared to the abandoned grassland, all other measured gross N 417 cycling rates, both per dry weight and normalized by microbial biomass, as well as N

turnover times and microbial NUE were similar at the two sites (Table 2, Fig. 3g). Microbial
NUE was within the range of values reported for mineral soils (Mooshammer et al., 2014),
but lower than in temperate heathland soils (Wild et al., 2018).

We hypothesized that drought reduces microbial C (incorporation and respiration) and N 421 cycling (N uptake and mineralization), and that microbial CUE and NUE consequently 422 remain unchanged. Since earlier studies found that grassland management intensity can 423 modify the resistance of soil C and N cycling to extreme weather events (De Vries et al., 424 2012; Karlowsky et al., 2018), we expected that the drought response differs in the managed 425 and abandoned grassland. However, independent of differences in soil properties and 426 microbial community composition, and in contrast to our hypothesis, the drought response of 427 microbes was similar at the two sites. The simulated drought induced shifts in microbial 428 community composition, characterized by an increase in fungal and Gram-positive PLFA 429 markers in line with earlier findings (Karlowsky et al., 2018). Microbial biomass C remained 430 stable, but our data indicated that the active proportion of the soil microbial community 431 incorporating and mineralizing C substrates, was reduced by drought (Fig. S1). One strategy 432 of microbes to cope with drought is to promote the accumulation of osmolytes within the 433 microbial biomass, which would increase microbial CUE in the short term (Manzoni et al., 434 2012). However, microbial CUE was unaffected, indicating that microbes may have rather 435 switched to dormancy (Schimel, 2018), and that drought did not uncouple respiration from 436 growth independent of observed differences induced by land management. 437

We also show that the responses of microbial N cycling processes to drought were more diverse than C cycling responses. Similarly as for drought effects on C cycling, the direction of drought effects on inorganic microbial N cycling in this experiment was independent of land management, which is in contrast to earlier studies (Fuchslueger et al., 2014b; Hartmann et al., 2013). Drought reduced N concentrations in microbial biomass and increased microbial

443 C:N ratios in both grasslands. This response is in line with previous observations (Jensen et al., 2003; Zeglin et al., 2013), and indicates that drought may have stronger effects on 444 microbial N than C cycling. Independent of land management, drought significantly 445 increased protein depolymerization rates, an extracellular process catalyzed by proteases 446 (Wanek et al., 2014), which is in contrast to dynamics observed in temperate heathland, 447 where protein depolymerization rates were unaffected by drought (Wild et al., 2018). During 448 drought organic compounds can concentrate in the remaining soil solution and may increase 449 substrate availability for enzymatic depolymerization (Fuchslueger et al., 2014b; Tiemann 450 and Billings, 2012). Moreover, extracellular enzymes may be longer active during dry 451 conditions than microbial cells (Steinweg et al., 2013). Drought reduced NO_3^- production 452 and increased NH4⁺ uptake. The reduction in N mineralization led to an overall reduction of 453 microbial NUE. The effects of drought on NUE depended on land management (Table 2), 454 mostly caused by small, but differential changes in gross amino acid uptake rates at the two 455 sites. 456

Drought periods are often accompanied by heat waves, where soil temperatures can quickly 457 rise above the normal range. In line with our hypothesis and earlier findings, microbial CUE 458 decreased with increased temperature (Allison, 2014; Bölscher et al., 2017; Devêvre and 459 Horwáth, 2000; Frey et al., 2013; Li et al., 2014; Steinweg et al., 2008; Walker et al., 2018), 460 with C substrate respiration increasing stronger than C incorporation (Table 2, Fig. 2). Higher 461 temperatures stimulate intracellular metabolic processes (e.g. several steps in glycolysis and 462 the Krebs cycle (Dijkstra *et al.*, 2011)) and stimulate microbial turnover compared to growth 463 efficiency (Hagerty et al., 2014). Moreover, can also stimulate extracellular enzyme rates 464 increasing SOM and substrate turnover (Steinweg et al., 2013). On ecosystem scale the strong 465 temperature dependency of heterotrophic soil respiration can account for large C losses 466 (Walker et al, 2018; Mayer et al., 2017). However, previous field experiments have shown 467

468 that total soil respiration (which includes autotrophic plant root respiration) exhibits lower temperature-sensitivity under drier conditions (Davidson & Janssens, 2006; Suseela et al., 469 2012). In contrary to our expectation, we found that the temperature response of CUE was 470 only marginally interactively affected by land management (p=0.064) or drought (p=0.070), 471 respectively (Table 2). This suggests that the differences in microbial community 472 composition between the two sites and induced by drought may not have been strong enough 473 (yet) to change the responses to increased temperatures. In contrast, the temperature response 474 of C turnover times were significantly interactively affected by both land management and 475 drought driven by only slightly different temperature responses in C substrate incorporation 476 (Fig. 2c). However, microbes can adapt over long times to higher temperatures (Bradford et 477 al., 2008; Rousk et al., 2012), thus the observed temperature sensitivity of microbial CUE 478 could represent a short-term stress response. On the other hand, some long term warming 479 studies showed that even after several years of warming microbes exhibited a high 480 temperature sensitivity (Frey et al., 2013; Schindlbacher et al., 2015; Walker et al., 2018). 481 In contrast to our hypothesis microbial N cycling showed a different, and less pronounced 482 temperature sensitivity than microbial C cycling, independent of land management. In our 483

experiment gross rates of protein depolymerization, N mineralization and NO₃⁻ production 484 remained unchanged at higher temperatures. However, we detected an interactive effect of 485 drought and temperature only on gross protein depolymerization rates, but not on inorganic N 486 cycling and N turnover rates which is in contrast earlier studies (Auyeung et al., 2013; Wild 487 et al., 2018). Microbial NUE did not change at higher temperatures (Table 2, Fig. 3). 488 Although effects of higher temperatures on N turnover might be delayed in their response, 489 several long term warming experiments also found no effect on soil N turnover (Niboyet et 490 al., 2011; Schindlbacher et al., 2015). Our data suggests that soil microbial N turnover is less 491

492 sensitive to short-term temperature changes than C cycling, similar as shown by Koch *et al.*,
493 (2007).

Overall, we conclude that microbial C and N cycling processes respond differently to changes
in environmental conditions. Microbial C cycling was more sensitive to temperature changes,
whereas N cycling was more strongly controlled by water availability. Our results suggest
that alterations on soil N cycling induced by land management could modulate in particular
soil NUE in under future scenarios.

499

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798 **Tables and Figures:**

Table 1: **a)** Soil parameters and soil microbial characteristics (0-10 cm) of control and drought treated plots of the managed and abandoned mountain grasslands (means, \pm SE, n=4). SWC, gravimetric soil water content in % of fresh soil; Total C, total soil C; Total N, total soil N; Soil C:N, mass based soil C:N ratio; EOC, K₂SO₄ extractable organic C; EON, K₂SO₄ extractable organic N; TFAA, total free amino acids; C_{mic}, microbial biomass C; N_{mic}, microbial biomass N; Microbial C:N,mass based microbial biomass ratio) **b**) Effects of land management and drought treatment and their interactive effects on soil and microbial parameters were assessed by linear mixed effect models with plot identity as nested random factor within land management. Significant differences are shown in bold.

																805
	a)		Manageo					d meadow		b)	Lano	l man	Dro	ought		man x ought
		Con		Drought			Control		Drought		_				_	806
		Mean	±SE	Mean	±SE	Mean	±SE	Mean	±SE		F	р	F	р	F	р
SWC (% fresh soil)		37.8	± 0.8	25.1	±4.7	42.9	±1.6	31.3	±5.2		3.8	0.147	17.7	0.006	0.1	0.853
Total C (%)		6.8	± 0.6	6.6	± 0.6	10.5	±1.9	11.5	± 1.8		10.0	0.049	0.0	0.925	0.2	086873
Total N (%)		0.7	± 0.1	0.7	± 0.1	0.9	±0.2	1.0	±0.2		5.5	0.037	0.2	0.680	0.2	0.659
Soil C:N		9.9	±0.2	9.7	± 0.1	11.6	±0.5	11.6	±0.7		13.1	0.036	3.9	0.097	0.0	0.853
EOC (μ g C g ⁻¹ dw)		323.8	± 42.1	304.2	±18.7	442.3	±55.1	371.6	±99.9		2.0	0.250	0.5	0.489	0.2	$^{0}672_{808}_{0.445}$
EON (µg N g ⁻¹ dw)		42.3	± 4.4	46.0	±2.5	60.6	±6.4	49.9	±15.6		1.5	0.307	0.6	0.482	0.7	0.445
TFAA (μ g N g ⁻¹ dw)		3.6	± 0.8	3.7	±0.5	5.2	±1.1	3.9	±1.3		0.7	0.467	0.0	0.852	0.6	0.461
Ammonium (μ g N g ⁻¹ dw)		11.2	± 1.1	15.7	±1.7	18.6	±2.3	20.5	±9.6		1.5	0.314	5.0	0.068	0.1	0.806
Nitrate ($\mu g N g^{-1} dw$)		3.9	±1.7	3.4	±1.5	0.7	±0.2	0.7	±0.4		5.3	0.106	0.0	0.944	0.1	0.819
C_{mic} (mg C g ⁻¹ dw)		1.0	± 0.1	0.8	±0.1	1.9	±0.5	1.9	±0.5		7.6	0.017	0.1	0.738	0.1	0.794
N_{mic} (mg N g ⁻¹ dw)		0.2	± 0.02	0.1	± 0.02	0.3	±0.1	0.2	±0.1		6.7	0.082	15.4	0.008	0.1	0.795
Microbial C:N		5.7	±0.2	9.1	±0.7	6.6	±0.7	8.6	±0.5		0.1	0821	24.7	0.003	1.3	0.297
Fungi:bacteria ratio		0.34	± 0.01	0.34	±0.02	0.37	±0.02	0.39	± 0.01		9.9	0.008	1.0	0.335	3.8	0.076
Gram-pos:Gram-neg ratio		0.46	±0.02	0.49	±0.03	0.32	±0.02	0.50	±0.02		14.5	0.003	19.8	0.004	22.1	0.003

Table 2: Effects of land management, drought treatment, and incubation temperature on microbial CUE (unitless), total and C substrate derived microbial respiration and C substrate incorporation by microbes (given in μ g C g⁻¹ dw soil h⁻¹), as well as on microbial NUE (unitless) and gross N processing rates, such as protein depolymerization, amino acid (AA) uptake, N (nitrogen) mineralization NH₄⁺ uptake, NO₃⁻ production and NO₃⁻ uptake, and on C substrate turnover (days) and N pool turnover (hours) were assessed by linear mixed effects models using land management system, drought treatment and incubation temperature as fixed factor and accounting for paired control and drought plots as nested random effect within land management (*n*=4). Missing data for NO₃⁻ production does not allow to test for drought and drought interactions is marked as na (not available).

	Land man		Dr	ought	Т	emp		d man	Land man		Drought		Land man	
							x Drought		x Temp		x Temp		x Drought	
													x Temp	
Processes	F	р	F	р	F	р	F	р	F	р	F	р	F	р
CUE	9.9	0.050	0.7	0.427	22.3	<0.001	1.6	0.222	3.9	0.064	3.7	0.070	0.2	0.631
Total microbial respiration	4.6	0.121	2.8	0.116	43.9	<0.001	0.1	0.732	0.8	0.388	0.6	0.439	0.1	0.832
C substrate respiration	5.0	0.111	51.7	<0.001	73.1	< 0.001	0.9	0.369	0.4	0.516	2.0	0.175	0.1	0.876
C substrate incorporation	2.2	0.236	4.6	0.046	0.2	0.647	1.7	0.209	3.6	0.075	2.9	0.105	0.1	0.904
C substrate turnover (d)	20.8	0.020	20.0	<0.001	0.6	0.452	1.7	0.209	4.8	0.043	6.0	0.024	1.5	0.230
NUE	7.7	0.070	6.0	0.027	5.0	0.041	4.9	0.044	0.0	0.904	1.7	0.218	0.0	0.973
Gross protein depoly	5.6	0.099	29.6	<0.001	0.0	0.888	1.0	0.334	0.0	0.988	15.3	0.001	0.2	0.673
Gross AA uptake	7.0	0.078	2.7	0.115	0.1	0.747	2.7	0.12	0.0	0.881	0.8	0.388	0.6	0.446
Gross N mineralization	4.6	0.123	12.1	0.003	0.5	0.474	0.0	0.826	0.5	0.485	0.1	0.764	0.0	0.942
Gross NH4 ⁺ uptake	3.1	0.123	5.3	0.034	0.9	0.367	0.2	0.638	0.2	0.655	0.2	0.699	0.0	0.891
Gross NO ₃ ⁻ production	14.0	0.033	7.4	0.014	0.1	0.721	0.2	0.668	0.2	0.653	3.9	0.064	0.1	0.778
Gross NO ₃ ⁻ uptake	0.7	0.457		na	1.5	0.236	1	na	1.3	0.275		na	ı	
TFAA turnover (h)	1.7	0.287	0.3	0.582	0.0	0.998	1.2	0.283	0.1	0.815	0.4	0.535	2.4	0.139
NH_4^+ turnover (h)	0.8	0.450	4.5	0.048	0.0	0.839	3.2	0.092	0.1	0.726	3.4	0.080	3.7	0.070
NO ₃ ⁻ turnover (h)	0.7	0.402	0.5	0.482	0.0	0.974	3.1	0.092	0.1	0.729	6.7	0.016	3.6	0.070

Table 3: Turnover times of labile C substrate, organic N (TFAA), ammonium (NH₄⁺) and 816 nitrate (NO_3) by the microbial biomass given in days (d) and hours (h), respectively, in 817 ambient controls, as well as in response to drought treatment and to temperature increase 818 (means \pm SE, n=4). Microbial C substrate turnover time was calculated as the C_{mic} divided by 819 microbial C substrate incorporation, the turnover times of TFAA, NH_4^+ and NO_3^- were 820 calculated by dividing the N pools by the average of the respective microbial production and 821 822 uptake rates. Due to analytical problems NO₃⁻ turnover times in the managed grassland during drought were not available (na). 823

		Managed	grassland	Abandoned grassland								
	15	°C	25°	°C	15	°C	25	°C				
	Control	Drought	Control	Drought	Control	Drought	Control	Drought				
C substrate turnover (d)	11.9 ± 1.4	17.8 ± 0.3	15.2 ± 1.1	17.1 ± 0.7	30.4 ± 3.6	45.7 ±6.6	30.2 ± 5.2	32.3 ± 6.8				
TFAA turnover (h)	2.1 ±0.5	2.1 ±0.2	2.1 ±0.3	2.1 ±0.4	2.7 ± 1.2	0.7 ± 0.3	2.3 ± 0.9	1.4 ± 0.7				
$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ turnover (h)	20.3 ± 3.0	20.3 ± 3.9	8.8 ± 2.4	9.1 ±3.5	19.4 ± 3.4	18.1 ±6.5	20.4 ± 2.2	24.6 ± 11.4				
NO_3^- turnover (h)	6.2 ± 3.5	na	14.5 ± 8.7	17.4 ± 8.4	0.7 ±0.3	1.8 ± 0.6	1.4 ± 0.5	1.1 ±0.4				

825 Figure captions:

Figure 1: Effects of drought treatment on microbial community composition under ambient temperature conditions displayed as non-metric multidimensional scaling (nmds) plot based on a Bray-Curtis similarity matrix of relative PLFA abundances in control (light green) and drought (dark green) treated soil of a managed (circles) and abandoned grassland (squares). Differences between sites and drought-preconditioning were computed by permutational ANOVA; (mean, \pm SE, n=4)

Figure 2: (a) Total microbial respiration, (b) C substrate derived respiration, (c) C substrate incorporation into microbial biomass, and (d) microbial CUE in control (open bars) and drought treated (hatched bars) soils of a managed and abandoned grassland incubated at ambient temperatures (green bars) and 25°C (red bars); (means, error bars=SE; n=4). Statistical details are given in Table 2.

Figure 3: Gross rates of microbial N cycling and microbial NUE in differently managed 837 grasslands in response to drought and increased temperature; a) Protein deploy refers to gross 838 protein depolymerization, b) AA uptake refers to gross amino acid uptake, c) N mineralization 839 refers to gross N mineralization, d) NH_4^+ uptake refers to gross NH_4^+ uptake, e) NO_3^- 840 production shows gross NO_3^- production, and f) NO_3^- uptake shows gross NO_3^- uptake, as 841 well as g) microbial NUE in control (open bars) and drought treated (hatched bars) soils of a 842 managed and abandoned grassland incubated at ambient (green bars) and 25°C (red bars); 843 (means, error bars=SE; n=4; na: data not available). Results from a detailed statistical 844 845 analysis are shown in Table 2.

Figure 4: Temperature response (Q₁₀) of microbial C and N cycling rates and of microbial CUE and NUE in control (light green) and drought treated soils (dark green) of the **a**) managed and **b**) abandoned grassland. Values higher than 1 indicate an increase, values smaller than 1 indicate a decrease in response to increased temperature. Letters indicate significant temperature responses (T), drought effects (D), or interactive temperature and drought effects (TxD) (two-way ANOVA, level of minimum significance p<0.05, *n*=4).

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Figure 1:

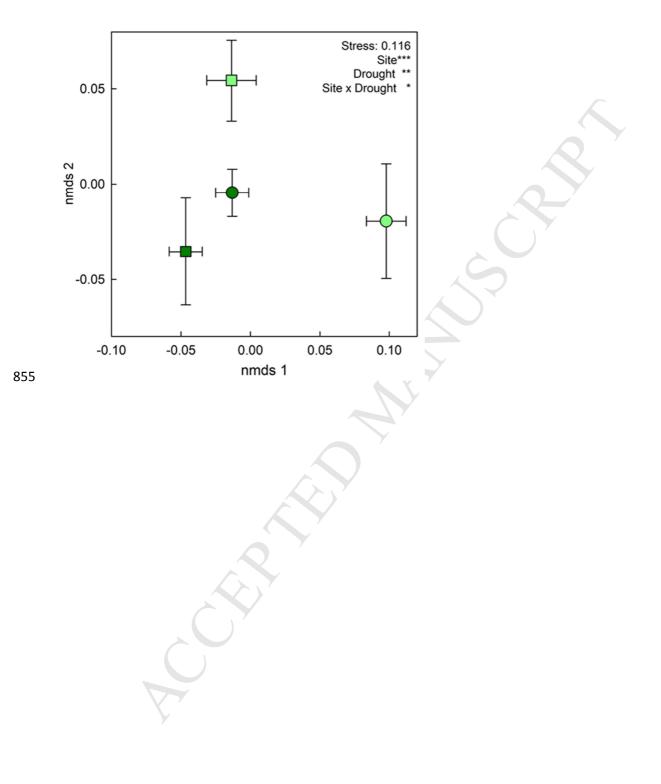
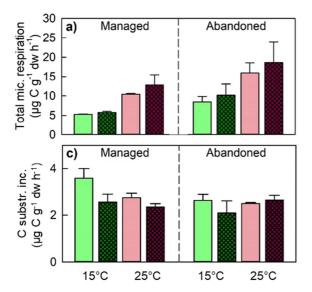


Figure 2:



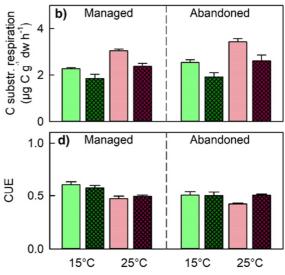


Figure 3:

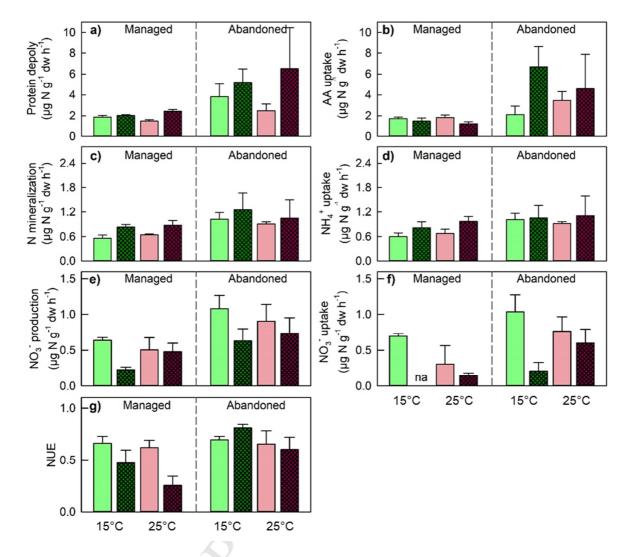
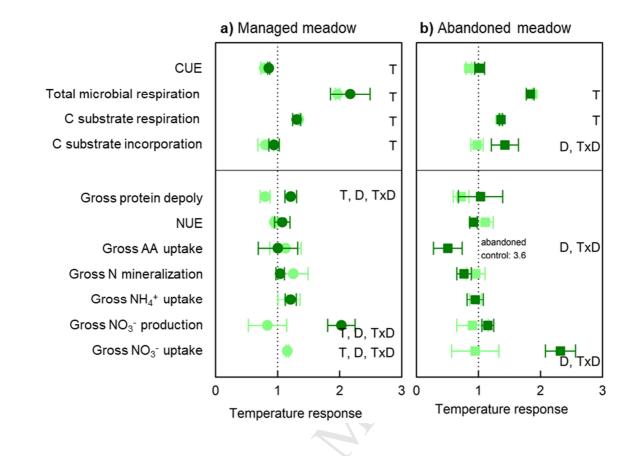


Figure 4:



Highlights:

- Microbial CUE, but not NUE, was higher in managed compared to abandoned grasslands
- Drought reduced microbial C metabolism at constant CUE
- Drought increased gross N mineralization, but affected NUE interactively with land management
- Higher temperatures reduced CUE and NUE.
- Only minimal interactive effects of drought and temperature were observed.

Chillip Marker