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Microbial “hotspots” of organic matter decomposition in temperate peatlands are driven by spatial heterogeneity in abiotic conditions and not by vegetation structure

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Please find enclosed our article entitled “**Microbial “hotspots” of organic matter decomposition in temperate peatlands are driven by spatial heterogeneity in abiotic conditions and not by vegetation structure**” submitted as a Research article to *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*.

Peatland soils are major global stores for carbon and whether they will release or build up these stores under climate change is a question of global significance. The role of soil biota and its interactions with the above-ground diversity in controlling soil carbon is absolutely critical, but remains totally ignored in current studies and models. Crucially, most of our understanding on the effects of climate changes on C stores comes from studies performed in the Arctic where non-vascular plants (namely, *Sphagnum* mosses) dominate. However, temperate peatlands (with other peat forming plant species) are currently undergoing a much more rapid retreat and pose serious risks in terms of GHG contribution than their northern counterparts due to their longer and warmer growing seasons.

Here we specifically tested if abiotic factors (soil temperature and soil moisture) are the major drivers of microbial community structure (PLFA) and C cycling in peatlands, while above-ground vegetation composition (plant functional types) acts as secondary modifier. We found that peat microbial communities were more strongly linked to local abiotic conditions than to the dominant above-ground vegetation and their responses determined C transformation pathways: the more aerobic and warmer conditions under shrubs accelerated fungal driven decomposition and CO₂ emissions, whereas decreases in Gram-negative bacteria under grasses promoted C losses as DOC. In the absence of these operating drivers, more C was retained (i.e. under mosses and sedges). Therefore, our study reveals that temperate peatlands should be considered ‘ecosystem sentinels’ for climate changes, acting as early-warnings indicators for climate-mediated impacts on the carbon cycle.

This knowledge is essential to gain a better understanding of the ecological linkages between above-ground and belowground communities (e.g. Bardgett & van der Putten 2014), and to decipher the mechanisms involved so we can build more realistic predictions on the direction and magnitude of the responses of these vulnerable ecosystems.

Sincerely,

Prof. M.J.I. Briones
On behalf of all co-authors

Highlights

- Peat microbial communities were more strongly linked to microclimatic conditions than to vegetation
- More aerobic and warmer soils under shrubs accelerated fungal driven decomposition and CO₂ emissions
- Decreases in Gram-negative bacteria under grasses promoted C losses as DOC
- In the absence of these operating drivers, more C was retained (i.e. under mosses and sedges)
- We propose temperate peatlands as 'ecosystem sentinels' for climate-mediated impacts on the C cycle

1 **Title: Microbial “hotspots” of organic matter decomposition in temperate**
2 **peatlands are driven by spatial heterogeneity in abiotic conditions and not by**
3 **vegetation structure**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Climate change is triggering rapid shifts in plant communities and alterations in soil abiotic
24 conditions in peatlands, with cascading effects on belowground decomposers and ecosystem C
25 turnover. However, elucidating the dominant causal relationships between plant communities,
26 soil biota and C fluxes in these vulnerable ecosystems requires a better understanding of the
27 spatial-temporal variability of abiotic and biotic drivers. In this study we investigated the effects
28 of biotic (plant functional types, PFTs) and abiotic factors (soil temperature and soil moisture) in
29 determining dynamic patterns of soil microbial community structure and C cycling. Four
30 representative temperate peatland habitats were selected based on their peat forming
31 vegetation – an Atlantic wet heathland, two active blanket bogs with herbaceous plants (*Molinia*
32 *caerulea* and *Eriophorum angustifolium*), and a transition mire dominated by *Sphagnum* mosses
33 located along an altitudinal gradient to include the natural variations in soil temperature and
34 water content regimes. We found that peat microbial communities were more strongly linked
35 to local abiotic conditions than to the dominant above-ground vegetation. Aerobic conditions
36 and warmer temperatures accelerated fungal driven decomposition and CO₂ emissions under
37 shrubs, whereas decreases in Gram-negative bacteria promoted increased C losses under
38 *Molinia*. These findings suggest that small spatial differences in abiotic conditions create local
39 “hotspots” of organic matter decomposition under different PFTs. We propose that temperate
40 peatlands should be considered as ‘ecosystem sentinels’ for climate change, acting as early-
41 warning indicators of climate-carbon feedbacks.

42

43 **Keywords:** carbon, climate change, microbial communities, peatland habitats, plant functional
44 type, spatio-temporal patterns

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 The majority of the world's peatlands occur in boreal and temperate parts of the Northern
48 Hemisphere where they cover around 3.5 million km² of land and store about 455 Gt of carbon
49 (C), representing around 25% of all the soil C stored on earth (Moore, 2002). They are complex
50 ecosystems, consisting of habitat mosaics containing plant species that form peat under high
51 precipitation-low temperature climatic regimes that restrict decomposition, leading to carbon
52 accumulation. Their plant communities are dominated by different functional types (PFTs) as
53 defined by their growth forms (e.g. vascular woody plants, herbaceous forbs and graminoids and
54 non-vascular plants including bryophytes; Dorrepaal, 2007). The PFTs supply a wide range of food
55 sources (as litter and root exudates) to below-ground decomposers with cascading effects on
56 ecosystem C turnover (De Deyn et al., 2008; Ward et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2016). In addition to
57 nutrient inputs, the abiotic conditions are also key abiotic regulators of decomposer activities,
58 with soil temperature and moisture determining anaerobic and aerobic processes (Cobb et al.,
59 2017; Morton and Heinemeyer, 2019), and temperature defining the activation energy of
60 biochemical reactions (Davidson and Janssens, 2006).

61 Consequently, climate change is expected to cause profound alterations in peatland hydrology
62 that will increase rates of decomposition (Ise et al., 2008; Waddington et al., 2015). In addition,
63 some projections forecast a functional shift in peatlands plant communities to favour vascular
64 plants over mosses (e.g., Gallego-Sala and Prentice, 2013; Dieleman et al., 2015), which could
65 exacerbate C losses (Walker et al., 2016; Robroek et al., 2016; Malhotra et al., 2020). As a result,
66 concerns have risen about these critical C reservoirs becoming the largest natural global sources
67 of C, with temperate peatlands being more likely to have a greater greenhouse gas contribution
68 than their northern counterparts due to their longer and warmer growing seasons (Limpens et
69 al., 2008; Teh et al., 2011).

70 When analysing the temperature sensitivity of peat C decomposition and potential feedbacks to
71 climate change, the interactions between abiotic and biotic factors have been recognised as
72 regulators of C cycling in these ecosystems (Briones et al., 2014; Armstrong et al., 2015; Juan-
73 Ovejero et al., 2020). However, linking abiotic and biotic drivers of peatland C dynamics is
74 challenged by the variability in plant-soil interactions even at small spatial scales. For example, in
75 the particular case of peatlands, decomposition will vary through acrotelm and catotelm layers
76 (Lunt et al., 2019), and as a result, the above- and below-ground phenologies are often
77 unparallel (Schwieger et al., 2019). This could explain the contradictory responses reported in
78 the literature, where certain PFTs have been found to strongly influence carbon dioxide (CO₂)

79 fluxes (Ward et al., 2013; Armstrong et al., 2015), whereas other studies concluded that abiotic
80 factors are the main drivers of CO₂ production irrespective of PFTs (Preston et al., 2012; Haynes
81 et al., 2015). Similarly, while some studies have detected correlative relationships between
82 different PFTs and DOC (Armstrong et al., 2012), others have concluded that plant control on
83 DOC release is indirect through their influence on soil fauna (Carrera et al., 2009; Juan-Ovejero
84 et al., 2020).

85 Therefore, elucidating the dominant causal relationships between PFTs, soil biota and C fluxes
86 in these ecosystems requires spatially and temporally extensive assessments of biotic and
87 abiotic factors in field environments. Previous studies have shown that temporal variations of
88 soil abiotic conditions across different PFTs result in profound alterations of soil mesofauna
89 community structure as a consequence of their different ecophysiological adaptations to water
90 table drawdown (Juan-Ovejero et al., 2019). However, there is a distinct lack of data on similar
91 temporal changes in microbial community responses in such microhabitats, and the potential
92 implications for the C sink/source function (see review by Zhong et al., 2020).

93 In this study, we aimed to disentangle the effects biotic (PFTs) and abiotic drivers (soil
94 microclimatic conditions) on temperate peatland microbial community structure and C cycling.
95 We selected four representative temperate peatland habitats based on their peat forming
96 vegetation (Atlantic wet heathland (*Erica mackayana* and *Calluna vulgaris*), two active blanket
97 bogs with herbaceous plants (*Molinia caerulea* and *Eriophorum angustifolium*), and a transition
98 mire dominated by *Sphagnum* mosses) located at different elevations to include the natural
99 altitudinal gradient in soil temperature and water content regimes (Bragazza et al., 2015). We
100 hypothesized that distinct microbial communities will be associated with different PFTs (i.e.,
101 vascular vs. non-vascular), irrespective of their spatial location, in agreement with other studies
102 linking peatland habitats to specific microbial taxa (Chroňáková et al., 2019). However, based on
103 microbial responses to abiotic factors (e.g., Bragazza et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2019), we also
104 hypothesised that greater seasonal variations in temperature and moisture will determine
105 changes in microbial community structure over time disregarding PFT. Finally, in addition to
106 microclimatic conditions, litter quality differences among PFTs also drive microbial
107 decomposition processes and accordingly, we expected a higher C turnover under a greater
108 supply of more decomposable plant litter. *Sphagnum* mosses and shrubs have large
109 concentrations of high molecular weight polyphenolic compounds they are very resistant to
110 microbial attack (Hattenschwiler and Vitousek, 2000; Fenner and Freeman, 2011). Similarly, the
111 cotton-grass *Eriophorum angustifolium* produces litter that is low in nutrient content than other
112 vascular species and hence, its decomposition rates are similar to those of shrubs (Trinder et al.,

113 2008). In contrast, the graminoid *Molinia caerulea* is a fast growing grass that produces nutrient-
114 rich litter (Certini et al., 2015; Kaštovská et al., 2018), proving a much greater supply of labile C
115 to decomposers. Since previous modelling exercises have shown that C exports in these systems
116 are abiotically mediated via direct and indirect effects on the mesofauna populations (Juan-
117 Ovejero et al., 2020), we assessed if abiotic factors are also the major drivers of microbial
118 decomposition, while above-ground vegetation composition acts as secondary modifier.

119

120 **2. Materials and Methods**

121 *2.1. Peatland habitats*

122 The study area is located in “Serra do Xistral” (NW of the Iberian Peninsula) within the Atlantic
123 Biogeographical Region. Data from the nearest meteorological station (Fragavella 43° 27' 16.56"
124 N, 7° 26' 46.5" W; 710 m a.s.l.) indicate that the area is characterised by an oceanic climate,
125 with a mean annual temperature of 10.5 °C (ranging from 6.0 °C in February to 16.0 °C in August)
126 and annual rainfall of 1533 mm (spread throughout the year, but with lower rainfall between
127 May and September (52-92 mm per month, on average) and a wet period between autumn and
128 winter (134-227 mm per month, on average) in the 17 years prior to sampling. Similar
129 temperature records were observed during the two years of study (2016 and 2017). However,
130 2017 was drier than 2016, with 25% less precipitation falling throughout the year (Fig. S1). This
131 was due to the contrasting extreme rainfall values recorded in January of both years and the low
132 precipitation records observed in July, September and October of 2017 compared with 2016
133 (Fig. S1).

134 Four different peatland habitats with functionally different plant communities (*sensu* Dorrepaal,
135 2007) were selected. Two of them were active blanket bogs (Nat-2000 7130) with herbaceous
136 vascular plants: one dominated by the common cotton grass *Eriophorum angustifolium* and the
137 endemic species of the Iberian NW *Carex durieuii* belonging to the Cyperaceae family (sedges)
138 (43° 30' 12" N, 7° 33' 02" W; 970 m a.s.l.) and the other by the deciduous *Molinia caerulea*, a
139 true grass belonging to the Poaceae family (43° 27' 36" N, 7° 34' 12" W; 960 m a.s.l.). The other
140 two habitats were located in a valley (43° 26' 56" N, 7° 33' 61" W; 714 m a.s.l.): an Atlantic wet
141 heathland Nat-2000 4020) where *Erica mackayana* but also *Calluna vulgaris* (woody vascular
142 plants) colonize the drier fringes, and a transition mire (Nat-2000 7140) represented by pioneer
143 communities associated with the existence of areas that receive a certain inflow of water, on
144 which discontinuous tapestries of *Sphagnum* spp. are established (non-vascular) together with
145 other hygrophilic plants (e.g. *Drosera* sp., *Rynchospora alba*). These sites, located in the north

146 west of Spain, represent the most southernmost location of these habitats within the Atlantic
147 Biogeographic Region and hence, likely to be most threatened by environmental changes. The
148 selection is also justified by the amount of exhaustive background information in the form of
149 flora inventories and habitat maps that is available (e.g. Izco Sevillano and Ramil-Rego, 2001;
150 Ramil-Rego and Izco, 2003; Rodríguez-Gutián et al., 2009; Cillero et al., 2016).

151

152 *2.2. Field sampling*

153 Intact peat samples were collected every two months at each peatland habitat during 2016 and
154 2017 (January to November; 12 samplings in total).

155 On each sampling occasion, to determine soil moisture at each habitat ten intact soil cores (PVC
156 pipes, 10 cm diameter x 10 cm depth) were randomly taken and oven-dried at 105 °C for 48 h
157 or until constant weight on re-weighing. Another subsample of fresh soil from each core was
158 freeze-dried and sieved (< 2 mm) and the total C and nitrogen contents determined by means
159 of a LECO elemental analyser (CN-2000, LECO Corp., St Joseph, MI).

160 Hourly soil temperature was recorded at 5 cm soil depth in each habitat for the duration of the
161 study using a temperature data logger (UA-002-08 HOBO). Due to temporal data acquisition
162 failures, 8% of temperature data were gap filled by triangulating temperature data from the
163 three nearest meteorological stations (for full details of the extrapolation procedure see Juan-
164 Ovejero et al., 2019).

165 Soil respiration was measured by inserting five PVC cylindrical collars (10 cm diameter × 10 cm
166 depth) into the soil (to a depth of 8 cm and approximately 2 cm remaining above the soil surface)
167 at each habitat on the first sampling occasion (January 2016), which remained in place for the
168 entire investigated period. We did this to avoid an overestimation of the soil CO₂ efflux
169 associated with perturbations due to the insertion of the PVC collars (Heinemeyer and
170 McNamara, 2011; Jovani-Sancho et al., 2017). We measured respiration rates ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)
171 every two months (since March 2016) from all cores using a LI-8100 automated soil CO₂ flux
172 system (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA) connected to a 10 cm survey chamber.

173 For DOC determinations, three additional intact soil cores of smaller size (PVC pipes, 5.5 cm
174 diameter × 10.5 cm depth) were also collected at each habitat on each sampling occasion. Soil
175 samples were leached by immersion in 200 ml of distilled water and draining under gravity
176 (Anderson and Ineson, 1982). The leachates were filtered (FilterLab® No. 1252, 7–9 μm pore
177 size) and frozen until analysis. Total dissolved organic C in the microbial extracts and leachates

178 was measured with a Shimadzu Total Organic Carbon Analyser (TOC-5000A) equipped with an
179 autosampler ASI-V. The pH of the soil solutions was also measured using a Crison micropH 2000
180 and combination electrode.

181 Another set of three soil cores of the same size as before (PVC pipes, 5.5 cm diameter x 10.5 cm
182 deep) were also taken from each peatland habitat on each sampling occasion, and frozen at -20
183 °C. These were subsequently freeze-dried (Christ alpha 1-4 LD Plus) and then sieved to 2 mm.
184 Stones and roots were removed and the remaining soil was ball milled (Fritsch Planetary Mill
185 Pulviresette 5) to a fine powder. Bulked subsamples of the 0-10 cm freeze-dried ground soil (≈
186 1 g dry weight) were used for PLFA analyses to determine the microbial community structure
187 under each system.

188

189 *2.3. PLFA profiling*

190 PLFA biomarkers were extracted as part of the total lipid extract of freeze-dried soil samples
191 using a modified Bligh-Dyer extraction (White et al., 1979). Briefly, the method included three
192 key steps: (i) lipid extraction using a single-phase chloroform mixture; (ii) lipid fractionation
193 according to polarity (neutral lipids (hydrocarbons, free fatty acids and sterols), glycolipids and
194 polar lipids (phospholipids)); and (iii) mild alkaline methanolysis of phospholipids to produce
195 fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES). Two blanks and two standards (C13:0 and C19:0) were used
196 per batch of 21 samples for quality control assurance purposes.

197 Identification of PLFA's was carried out on a GC (Agilent Technologies 6890) fitted with a mass
198 selective detector (Agilent technologies 5973). The straight-chain saturated fatty acids (14:0,
199 15:0, 16:0, 18:0 and 17:1 ω 8) were considered to be general bacterial markers (Willers et al.,
200 2015). The terminal and mid-chain branched fatty acids 15:0i, 15:0a, 16:0i, 17:0i and 17:0a were
201 used as indicators of Gram-positive bacteria (Whitaker et al., 2014) together with the branched
202 saturated br17:0 and br18:0 (Seifert et al., 2011) and the methyl branched saturated fatty acid
203 7Me-17:0 (Willers et al., 2015). Cyclopropyl saturated (7 cyclic 17:0 and 7,8 cyclic C19:0) and
204 monounsaturated fatty acids (16:1 ω 7, 16:1 ω 7, 18:1 ω 5 and 18:1 ω 7) were used as indicators of
205 Gram-negative bacteria (Rinnan and Baath, 2009). The fatty acids 18:2 ω 6,9 was taken as
206 indicator of fungi (Kaiser et al., 2010). Due to the poor correlation between 18:2 ω 6,9 and 18:1 ω 9
207 that makes the latter biomarker a poor indicator of fungi (Frostegård et al., 2011), this and two
208 other monounsaturated fatty acids (16:1 and 19:1) were assigned to the “unspecific microbial
209 biomarkers” category. Each identified PLFA was quantified as $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dwt soil. Total microbial

210 biomass was taken as the sum of all identified PLFA's (n = 23). See also Table S1 for the full list
211 of PLFA markers used for taxonomic microbial groups and microbial indicators.

212

213 *2.4. Statistical analyses*

214 Data were checked for normality and homogeneity of variances using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov
215 and Levene's tests, respectively, and transformed where necessary before running parametric
216 analyses. We first tested for significant differences in microbial biomarker abundances between
217 different PFTs across the whole study as well as per sampling date using ANOVA (Generalised
218 Linear Model or GLM) followed by the Tukey's Studentized range tests. In addition, we used
219 linear regression analyses to detect any potential relationships between the concentrations of
220 the different PLFA biomarkers and the two independent variables (soil water content and soil
221 temperature values) across PFTs. Both types of analyses were performed using SAS system v9.3
222 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA, 2011).

223 Since biological responses to changes in the environment are nonlinear but unimodal, we also
224 used Detrended Canonical Correspondence Analysis (DCCA) to identify the best set of response
225 variables that explain the observed temporal patterns of variation in microbial community
226 structure (ter Braak, 1986). Therefore, we analysed the relationships between the microbial
227 communities and the environmental gradients in abiotic soil properties and C transformations
228 (soil respiration and DOC exports) at each PFT. For these analyses, we combined existing data
229 from 2016 and 2017 that showed a crucial role of direct and indirect effects of abiotic factors on
230 the release of gaseous and aqueous C across the PFT's at our field sites (Juan-Ovejero et al.,
231 2020; see also Table S2). The ordination result is displayed as a triplot, showing the optimum
232 distribution of the microbial groups (points) along these environmental gradients (arrows) and
233 PFTs as "centroids" (i.e. the (weighted) mean of response variables at a particular habitat). We
234 further checked the variance inflation factor among selected variables to test the independence
235 of the variables in the ordination space. Finally, the statistical significance of the relationship
236 between the species and the whole set of environmental variables was tested using Monte Carlo
237 permutation test. DCCA analyses were performed using the CANOCO software for Windows v4.5
238 (ter Braak and Šmilauer, 2002).

239

240

241 3. Results

242 3.1. Microbial community structure under different PFTs

243 Total PLFA biomarker abundance was significantly higher in the peat samples from the Atlantic
244 wet heathland and the *Sphagnum* site (152.8 ± 5.3 and $140.6 \pm 5.4 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$, respectively) than from
245 the two blanket bogs (*Eriophorum*: 108.7 ± 3.7 and *Molinia*: $105.4 \pm 4.2 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$; Table 1 and Fig. 1a).

246 However, microbial community structure was very similar across habitats, with bacteria being
247 the most dominant group relative to total abundance (79-80%; Fig. 1b), and fungi representing
248 the smallest proportion (< 3%; Fig. 1b). As a result, the Fungal:Bacteria (F:B) ratio was low across
249 all four peatland habitats (0.02-0.03). Among the bacterial groups, Gram-negative biomarkers
250 were significantly more abundant (35.9-40.1% of total PLFAs) than Gram-positive ones (23.6-
251 28.5% of total PLFAs), and with general bacterial markers accounting for 16.2-18.3% of total
252 PLFA concentrations (Fig. 1b). Consistently with total PLFA concentrations, these three PLFA
253 groupings showed significantly lower values at the two blanket bogs (Fig. 1b and Table 1).

254 Further support for this clear distinction between upland and lowland valley bottom areas was
255 found in the PLFA profiles (Fig. 2), which indicated that the concentrations of up to nine
256 biomarkers were significantly higher in the samples from the two valley habitats than from the
257 two blanket bogs, including the most abundant bacterial fatty acids (palmitic acid-C16:0,
258 pentadecanoic acid-C15:0i, C18:1 ω 7, and 7,8Cy-C19:0; > $10 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$). However, the concentrations
259 of other less well represented fatty acids allowed the separation between individual PFTs. Thus,
260 peat samples collected from *Erica* dominated site had significantly higher concentrations of
261 C16:0i, brC17:0, brC18:0, C16:1 ω 7, C17:1 ω 8, C19:1 and the fungal marker 18:2 ω 6,9; *Sphagnum*
262 peat contained significantly more C14:0, C15:0a, and the least of C18:1 ω 5; *Molinia* was best
263 characterised by the lowest concentrations of C15:0a and 7Cy-C17:0; *Eriophorum* had the lowest
264 values of C16:0i, brC17:0, brC18:0, and 18:2 ω 6,9, but the highest ones of C16:1 ω 5 (Fig. 2).

265

266 3.2. Abiotic regulation of microbial communities

267 Monthly concentrations of total PLFAs indicated that, although the two valley habitats showed
268 the highest PLFA concentrations during the 2 years-field study, the differences with the other
269 two peatland habitats were mainly noticeable in 2017, in particular for the period from May to
270 September (Fig. 3a). Despite the fact that a similar dry spell was observed from May to October
271 of both sampled years at the study area (i.e. higher temperatures were coincidental with lower
272 rainfall values), warmer ambient temperatures (above 12 °C) were recorded during those

273 months in 2017 than in 2016 (Fig. S1). Consequently, the peat soil was also significantly warmer
274 at the two valley habitats (15.8 °C on average) than at the two upland ones (13.7°C) in 2017 (Fig.
275 S2). Similarly, the hot soil temperatures recorded in July 2016 at these two sites (19-20 °C; Fig.
276 S2) also explain the significant increases in total PLFA concentrations observed in the peat
277 samples collected from the lowest elevation (Fig. 3a). This finding was further supported by the
278 significant positive relationship between total PLFA concentrations and soil temperature (Linear
279 regression; $p= 0.0104$), which was not detected in the case of soil moisture.

280 A similar temporal pattern was observed for the Gram-positive bacteria (Fig. 3b), with the *Erica*
281 site consistently showing the highest abundance of this bacterial group and the habitat
282 dominated by *Molinia* the lowest values during the two investigated years. Interestingly, and for
283 most of 2016, the peat under *Sphagnum* had concentrations of this bacterial group that were
284 more similar to those recorded at the two blanket bogs than to those of the heathland (Fig. 3b).
285 This was related to higher soil moisture contents being measured at these three sites compared
286 to the heathland (Fig. S2); however, the negative relationship between Gram-positive bacteria
287 and soil water content was only marginally significant (Linear regression; $p = 0.0567$).

288 In contrast, the abundance of Gram-negative bacteria showed a more variable pattern over
289 time at all four habitats (Fig. 3c), and although the two blanket bogs were typically associated
290 with lower concentrations of this PLFA grouping, the two other habitats showed marked
291 fluctuations, especially in 2017. In particular, under *Sphagnum* mosses, significantly lower
292 abundances of Gram-negative bacteria were observed in September of both years (Fig. 3c) that
293 were mainly driven by decreases in the concentrations of the monosaturated fatty acid C16:1 ω 7
294 in response to increases in soil water content (Linear regression; $p < 0.0001$).

295 More marked abundance fluctuations with time were observed in the case of the fungal
296 biomarker C18:2 ω 6,9, and even more so in the case of the two valley habitats (Fig. 3d). Unlike
297 bacterial biomarkers, fungal abundances under *Sphagnum* were very similar to those measured
298 under sedges except for September 2016, when the concentrations of this PLFA biomarker
299 peaked and reached similar values to those observed in the heathland (Fig. 3d). Across the whole
300 investigated period, the highest fungal abundance was observed in the drier and warmer soils
301 from the *Erica* site, and significantly higher concentrations of this biomarker were found on most
302 sampling occasions, when compared with the other three habitats, albeit few exceptions (i.e.
303 January-2016, March and September of both years and November-2017; Fig. 3d). These rapid
304 responses to changes in local abiotic conditions can be attributed to the strong negative
305 relationship between fungi and soil moisture (Linear regression; $p < 0.0001$).

306

307 3.3. Above-ground vegetation, below-ground microbial communities and C cycling

308 The output from the canonical multivariate analysis (Fig. 4) revealed the existence of positive
309 relationships between PFTs, certain microbial PLFA groupings and indicators, and C turnover at
310 these four peatland habitats. The first ordination axis explained 50.2% of the species-
311 environment relation variance and was significant (Monte Carlo test: F-ratio = 8.452, P-value =
312 0.032). It confirmed the similarities between the two the valley habitats based on the microbial
313 community structure, by showing the highest bacterial dominance, and more specifically
314 Gram-negative bacteria, than the two upland habitats (*Molinia* and *Eriophorum*).

315 The second canonical axis accounted for 26.2% of the variance and revealed that the *Erica* site,
316 and to a less extent the *Molinia* habitat, could be differentiated from the other two peatland
317 habitats in terms of microclimatic conditions and C transformations. Accordingly, the warmer
318 and drier peat soils at the heathland, with the highest abundance of fungi and Gram-positive
319 bacteria, emitted more C as CO₂, whereas the soils under *Molinia* grasses with higher F:B and
320 Gpos:Gneg ratios were exporting C mainly as dissolved organic carbon (DOC). This contrasted
321 with the wetter soils under *Eriophorum* and *Spagnum* mosses that produced less acidic soil
322 solutions and retained more C (i.e., higher C:N ratio and lower C release; Fig. 4).

323

324 4. Discussion

325 4.1. Linking habitat properties to below-ground microbial community structure

326 The two-year field study showed that microbial communities were more strongly linked to local
327 soil abiotic conditions than to the dominant above-ground vegetation. These results contradict
328 previous studies concluding that different vascular plants are inhabited by unique microbial
329 communities (Chroňáková et al., 2019), but agree with those observations in tropical peatlands
330 where contrasting plant communities supported similar microbial communities (Girkin et al.,
331 2020).

332 The four peat soils investigated here had very similar edaphic characteristics (low bulk density,
333 high C content, low soil pH), but the peat under mosses had higher porosity (with the majority
334 being macropores) than the other three peat soils (Juan-Ovejero et al., 2019). This means that
335 water is able to move more freely within the peat matrix under the non-vascular plant
336 community but is more efficiently retained under the vascular vegetation, creating localised

337 differences in hydrology. In addition, the location of study sites at different altitudes provides
338 an additional set of microclimatic conditions that shape these habitats. Accordingly, the two
339 blanket bogs located at 960-970 m a.s.l. are subjected to more frequent precipitation and
340 upslope fogs (Ramil-Rego et al., 2017), making them the most ombrotrophic habitats
341 investigated. In contrast, the two habitats at the lowest elevation experienced slightly warmer
342 soil temperatures (≈ 1.7 °C, on average across the two years) and more variable patterns in soil
343 moisture due to greater microtopographical heterogeneity (i.e., the *Erica* heath colonises the
344 drier hummocks and hence, are more disconnected from the water table, whereas the transition
345 mire consisted of wetter flat lawns that are occasionally inundated).

346 Because of these microclimatic differences, a greater spatial dissimilarity in microbial
347 community structure was expected across investigated sites. A shift in soil microbial community
348 structure with altitude has been previously observed, with fungi, relative to bacteria, being less
349 abundant at higher elevations (Bragazza et al., 2015) and, in agreement with this study, we also
350 found an increasing abundance of fungi with improved soil oxygenation. This has been explained
351 by the sensitivity of fungi to anoxic conditions (Jaatinen et al., 2007; Peltoniemi et al., 2009;
352 Kwon et al. 2013; Lamit et al., 2017), which was corroborated by the negative relationship
353 between fungi and peat water content observed here and in previous studies (Bragazza et al.,
354 2015; Girkin et al., 2020). Fungal communities were low at all four investigated sites compared
355 to other PLFA biomarkers, in particular when compared to bacteria, in agreement with previous
356 observations (Briones et al., 2014); however, those habitats that experienced more often drier
357 spells created more favourable conditions for their communities. This was the case of the
358 Atlantic wet heath but also the blanket bog dominated by *Molinia caerulea*, where soil water
359 contents below 75% were recorded on several months of both sampled years (Fig. S2).

360 The greatest bacterial dominance at the investigated sites is typical of temperate peatlands
361 (Gilbert and Mitchell, 2006; Andersen et al., 2013; Briones et al., 2014; Chroňáková et al., 2019).
362 Both Gram-positive and Gram-negative as well as general bacterial PLFA biomarkers were
363 significantly more abundant in the peats under *Erica* and *Sphagnum* than in the two blanket
364 bogs, which is in agreement with the suggestion that their abundance tends to decrease along
365 the minerotrophic-ombrotrophic gradient (Jaatinen et al., 2007). Prokaryotes have been
366 observed to respond more to local edaphic properties associated to specific habitats than fungi
367 (Chroňáková et al., 2019), with pH, N and water table being the most influential factors
368 controlling their communities (Waldrop et al., 2012; Kaštovská et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2019).

369 Due to the great similarities in soil pH and N content across our investigated sites, microclimatic
370 conditions might have played a more determinant role in structuring soil bacteria communities
371 under the different PFTs. The marked temporal variability shown by bacterial abundances during
372 the investigated period indicates that their populations are strongly influenced by intra- and
373 inter-annual fluctuations in soil temperature and moisture. Accordingly, the observed negative
374 relationship between peat water content and Gram-negative bacteria has been previously
375 reported (Balasooriya et al., 2008), whereas warmer peat temperatures seemed to decrease the
376 abundance of Gram-positive bacteria (Bragazza et al., 2015), which suggest a better adaptability
377 of the latter group to anaerobic soil conditions (e.g. Actinomycetes, the most abundant Gram-
378 positive group are facultative anaerobes). However, their consistently greater abundance at the
379 warmest and driest site during the investigated period does not support this latter conclusion.
380 Furthermore, it has been suggested that the abundance of monounsaturated and saturated
381 PLFAs in peat samples are indicative of the presence of aerobic and anaerobic eubacteria,
382 respectively (Sundh et al., 1997) and, in our samples, monosaturated PLFAs were the most
383 abundant biomarkers (46%), suggesting that aerobic bacteria dominated bacterial community
384 composition at these sites. The fact that these changes in relative abundance of soil bacteria are
385 context-dependent and driven by one or a few taxa (Naylor and Coleman-Derr, 2017) could also
386 explain these discrepancies with the published literature.

387

388 4.2. Linking microbial community structure to C fluxes across different habitats

389 Because the four dominant plant species differed in their litter quality, we anticipated higher
390 decomposition rates under vascular plants than under mosses, in agreement with previous
391 studies (Ward et al., 2013; Walker et al., 2016), but more so under graminoids than under sedges
392 and shrubs, due to higher N and lower polyphenolic contents in the litters (Ward et al., 2009,
393 2015; Bragazza et al. 2013) and enhanced microbial priming effects (Dieleman et al., 2017). Our
394 results partly confirmed these findings with more DOC released from the peat under *Molinia*,
395 and the highest respiration rates measured under *Erica*. This can be attributed not only to a
396 more favourable abiotic environment for microbial activities (i.e. warmer temperatures and oxic
397 conditions) at the Atlantic heathland, but also to the fact that the association of ericoid
398 mycorrhizas to the hair roots of ericaceous shrubs can increase the supply of labile C to
399 decomposers (Trinder et al., 2008). Furthermore, it has been shown that, in peatlands, increased
400 aerobic conditions favour CO₂ over DOC as a metabolic end product (Freeman et al., 2004).
401 Increased oxygen concentrations in the rhizosphere also remove the enzymatic latch preventing

402 C decomposition (Freeman et al., 2001, 2004; Fenner and Freeman, 2011; Dunn and Freeman,
403 2018) and together with warmer soil temperatures enhancing both microbial and root
404 respiration could explain the higher CO₂ emissions observed under shrubs. From this, it is
405 possible to anticipate that the expansion of shrubs in peatlands might not prevent microbial
406 decomposition as suggested by some studies (Wang et al., 2015; Ward et al. 2015).

407 Interestingly, the larger C exports from shrub and graminoid dominated systems were also
408 associated with increased abundances of fungi and Gram-positive bacteria under shrub and to
409 higher F:B and Gpos:Gneg ratios under *Molinia*, suggesting that these three microbial groups
410 and their relative abundances play a critical role in peatlands C cycling. High F:B ratios have been
411 associated with the greatest temperature sensitivity of soil respiration (Briones et al., 2014) and
412 consequently, under shrubs increased peat aeration led to a greater abundance of fungi relative
413 to bacteria, whereas under graminoids the higher values of this ratio were caused by the overall
414 decrease in total bacterial abundances. Similarly, the higher Gpos:Gneg ratio observed under
415 shrubs and graminoids compared with the other habitats was a reflection of a higher abundance
416 of Gram-positive bacteria in the case of the *Erica* site, but of a decreasing abundance of
417 Gram-negative bacteria in the peat under *Molinia*. The lower abundances of Gram-negative
418 bacteria correlated with increased DOC production, which contradicts previous observations
419 (Bragazza et al., 2015). In addition, Fanin et al. (2019) suggested that Gpos:Gneg ratio has
420 potential as a useful indicator of the relative C availability for soil bacterial communities in
421 organic soils and accordingly, this ratio increases with decreasing labile C availability. This is
422 because Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria use older C and fresh plant material,
423 respectively, as substrates (Börjesson et al., 2012). Consequently, Gram-positive bacteria are
424 more resilient under environmental stresses than Gram-negative bacteria and their numbers
425 tend to increase in response to drought (Naylor and Coleman-Derr, 2019) and in nutrient-poor
426 soils (Connon et al., 2007; Yuste et al., 2014; Mohammadipanah and Wink, 2016; Hartmann et
427 al., 2017). Indeed, the Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria distinction overlaps with that
428 of oligotrophic-copiotrophic since Gram-negative bacteria rely on labile C compounds,
429 preferably in the form of plant root exudates (Balasooriya et al., 2014). However, in this study,
430 higher Gpos:Gneg ratios did not correlate well with higher C:N ratios, which contradicts previous
431 studies in boreal peatlands comparing a *Carex*-dominated fen and a *Sphagnum*-dominated fen
432 (Lyons and Lindo, 2020) and the predictions from the proposed indicator (Fanin et al., 2019).

433 On the other hand, it has been shown that the anteiso fatty acids promote a more fluid
434 membrane structure than the iso fatty acids, and that the bacteria producing these fatty acids
435 modify their iso:anteiso ratio in response to temperature and pH stress (Zhang and Rock, 2008),

436 and anaerobic conditions (Weijers et al., 2006). The Gram-positive bacteria recorded in this
437 study showed higher values of the iso:anteiso ratio at the shrub and graminoid dominated
438 habitats than at the other two sites (with the lowest values being measured under *Sphagnum*
439 mosses; results not shown), indicating that no substantial amounts of anteiso fatty acids were
440 necessary for their growth at the two former habitats. Since soil temperature and pH cannot
441 explain these differences, less aerobic conditions is the most likely factor driving these
442 responses. The two habitats dominated by mosses and sedges were the wettest ones, with very
443 little soil moisture fluctuations during the investigated period. Their plant species are well
444 adapted to nearly constant waterlogging conditions, unlike shrubs and *Molinia caerulea* that
445 better develop in well-oxygenated soils, conditions favoured by local topography (i.e.,
446 hummocks for the shrub vegetation and the leeward orientation of the *Molinia* bog; Juan-
447 Ovejero et al., 2019).

448 Furthermore, improved peat aeration also influences the pH of the soil solution, with peat
449 oxidation decreasing the pH in the aerobic layer, and reductive reactions increasing the pH in
450 the anaerobic layer (Adamson et al. 2001; Loeb et al. 2008). In agreement with this finding, it
451 has been observed that warmer temperatures produce more acid soil solutions, whereas
452 increased peat wetness has the opposite effect (Carrera et al., 2011). Because less acid leachates
453 are linked to higher C exports as DOC (Jansen et al., 2003, 2005; Carrera et al., 2009, 2011), it is
454 possible to conclude that hydrology plays a crucial role in controlling C fluxes in these temperate
455 peatland soils.

456

457 **Conclusions**

458 Research to find common mechanisms that shape the diversity of above- and below-ground
459 plant-soil organisms have shown that community structure is governed by many interacting
460 factors (Bardgett and van der Putten, 2014). In temperate peatlands, local abiotic factors (such
461 as microtopography, soil temperature and pH, water and pore space availability, etc.) and
462 differences in local plant communities are expected to have a strong influence on soil
463 communities and C cycling. Despite the high heterogeneity in the peatland habitats included in
464 our study, we did not find that peat botanical origin was the main driver structuring microbial
465 communities, in contradiction with other studies (Girkin et al., 2020). Instead, changes in the
466 local abiotic environment, even at small spatial scales (namely, peat temperatures and aeration),
467 exerted a stronger influence on microbial community composition and temporal shifts in their
468 relative dominance. However, we could not confirm the contrasting relationships between

469 Gram-positive and Gram-negative with altitude (Bragazza et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2019), nor
470 between Gram-negative bacteria and labile C availability (Balasooriya et al., 2014; Lyons and
471 Lindo, 2020), as observed patterns were better explained by their different ecological
472 requirements and stress tolerance to environmental changes.

473 Importantly, our results confirmed that certain microbial indicators, such as the F:B and
474 Gpos:Gneg ratios, are reliable proxies for C transformations in peatlands (Briones et al., 2014;
475 Fanin et al., 2019); however, careful interpretation of the changes in the abundances of both
476 fraction terms is required. While aerobic conditions and warmer temperatures accelerate fungal
477 driven decomposition and CO₂ emissions, decreases in Gram-negative bacteria might trigger
478 increased C losses in the soil solution, and hence creating local “hotspots” of organic matter
479 decomposition. Since it has been suggested that lowered water tables may pose more serious
480 risks to temperate peatlands than warmer temperatures under projected future climate
481 changes (Urbanová et al., 2013; Morton and Heinemeyer, 2019; Tiang et al., 2020), we propose
482 that these high sensitive systems should be considered as ‘ecosystem sentinels’ for climate
483 change-mediated impacts on the C cycle.

484

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492

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782

783 **Table 1.** Results from ANOVA for the temporal changes in PLFA biomarker abundance ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$
784 dwt soil) at the investigated peatland habitats (Atlantic wet heath-*Erica mackayana*, transition
785 mire-*Sphagnum* mosses, blanket bog-*Molinia caerulea* and blanket bog-*Eriophorum*
786 *angustifolium*) during the investigated period (field sampling every two months in 2016 and
787 2017). Significance multivariate test on each factor and the interactions is Tukey's Studentized
788 range test.

Source	DF	F	P
Total PLFA			
YEAR	1	62.73	<0.0001
MONTH	5	9.86	<0.0001
HABITAT	3	56.17	<0.0001
YEAR*HABITAT	3	3.56	0.0171
MONTH*HABITAT	15	1.77	0.0495
YEAR*MONTH*HABITAT	20	3.72	<0.0001
Fungi			
YEAR	1	0.05	0.8232
MONTH	5	7.59	<0.0001
HABITAT	3	99.16	<0.0001
YEAR*HABITAT	3	0.59	0.6244
MONTH*HABITAT	15	2.48	0.0041
YEAR*MONTH*HABITAT	20	4.11	<0.0001
Bacteria			
YEAR	1	68.81	<0.0001
MONTH	5	13.56	<0.0001
HABITAT	3	66.02	<0.0001
YEAR*HABITAT	3	2.87	0.0405
MONTH*HABITAT	15	2.07	0.0181
YEAR*MONTH*HABITAT	20	3.27	<0.0001
Gbacteria			
YEAR	1	64.5	<0.0001
MONTH	5	13.02	<0.0001
HABITAT	3	74.29	<0.0001
YEAR*HABITAT	3	4.96	0.0030
MONTH*HABITAT	15	2.23	0.0100
YEAR*MONTH*HABITAT	20	5.92	<0.0001
Gram positive			
YEAR	1	109.2	<0.0001
MONTH	5	16.48	<0.0001

HABITAT	3	110.92	<0.0001
YEAR*HABITAT	3	5.16	0.0024
MONTH*HABITAT	15	2.25	0.0094
YEAR*MONTH*HABITAT	20	3.81	<0.0001

Gram negative

YEAR	1	37.44	<0.0001
MONTH	5	11.93	<0.0001
HABITAT	3	38.25	<0.0001
YEAR*HABITAT	3	1.52	0.2132
MONTH*HABITAT	15	3.26	0.0002
YEAR*MONTH*HABITAT	20	3.42	<0.0001

Unspecific

YEAR	1	26.03	<0.0001
MONTH	5	2.74	0.0235
HABITAT	3	3.01	0.0340
YEAR*HABITAT	3	2.43	0.0700
MONTH*HABITAT	15	4.34	<0.0001
YEAR*MONTH*HABITAT	20	5.91	<0.0001

Fungal:Bacteria ratio

YEAR	1	0.94	0.3336
MONTH	5	7.93	<0.0001
HABITAT	3	80.21	<0.0001
YEAR*HABITAT	3	0.77	0.5156
MONTH*HABITAT	15	2.39	0.0057
YEAR*MONTH*HABITAT	20	3.85	<0.0001

G+ve:G-ve ratio

YEAR	1	12.11	0.0008
MONTH	5	6.84	<0.0001
HABITAT	3	38.05	<0.0001
YEAR*HABITAT	3	5.63	0.0013
MONTH*HABITAT	15	8.84	<0.0001
YEAR*MONTH*HABITAT	20	10.16	<0.0001

790 **Figure legends**

791 **Figure 1.** Total PLFA concentrations (a) and PLFA assigned to functional groups relative to total
792 values (b) in the peat samples collected at the four peatland habitats dominated by different
793 functional plant types (PFTs). Box plot charts show the median and quartiles (25th and 75th).
794 Different letters indicate significant differences between PFTs per PLFA grouping.

795 **Figure 2.** PLFA biomarker abundance at the four peatland habitats dominated by different
796 functional plant types (PFTs). Values are means \pm standard errors and different letters indicate
797 significant differences between PFTs per biomarker.

798 **Figure 3.** Temporal changes in the abundance of (a) total PLFA, (b) Gram-positive bacteria, (c)
799 Gram-negative bacteria and (d) fungal biomarkers at each peatland habitat dominated by
800 different functional plant types (PFTs) during the investigated period. Values are means \pm
801 standard errors and different letters indicate significant differences between PFTs per sampling
802 time.

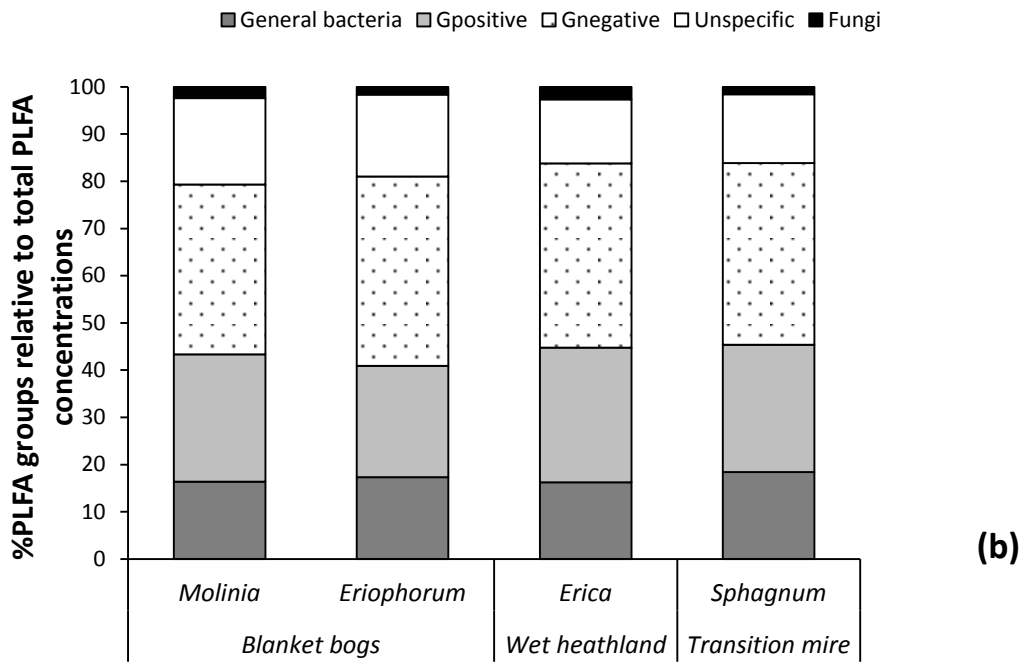
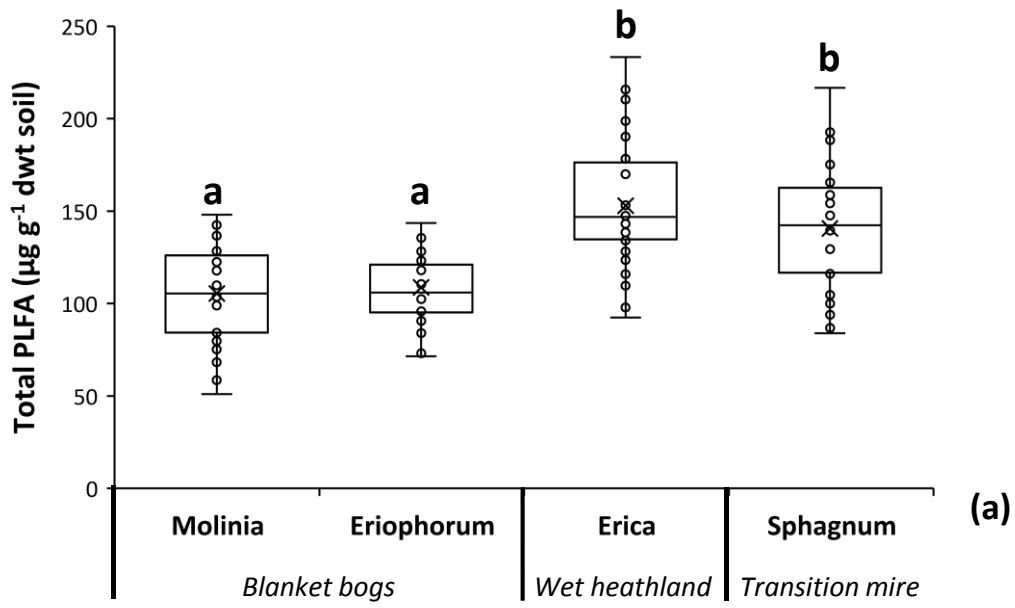
803 **Figure 4.** Detrended Canonical Correspondence Analysis (DCCA) triplot of microbial groupings
804 and indicators (small black filled circles), environmental (arrows) and categorical variables
805 (squares filled with different patterns to indicate peatland type (i.e. blanket bog, wet heathland
806 and transition mire)) for the soil samples collected during the whole investigated period.
807 Abbreviations: Total PLFAs (total PLFA), Total bacterial PLFAs (TBacteria); fungi PLFA (Fungi);
808 Gram-positive bacterial PLFAs (Gpositive); Gram-negative bacterial PLFAs (Gnegative); General
809 bacterial PLFAS (Gbacteria); Non-specific PLFAs (Unspecific), fungal to bacteria ratio (FB ratio),
810 Gram-positive to Gram-negative ratio (G+:G- ratio), soil temperature (Soil T), soil moisture
811 (Moisture), pH of the soil solution (pH leachates), carbon content (Carbon), CO₂ production
812 (CO₂), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), ratio of C to N (C/N).

813

814

815

816 **Figure 1**



817

818

819

Figure 2

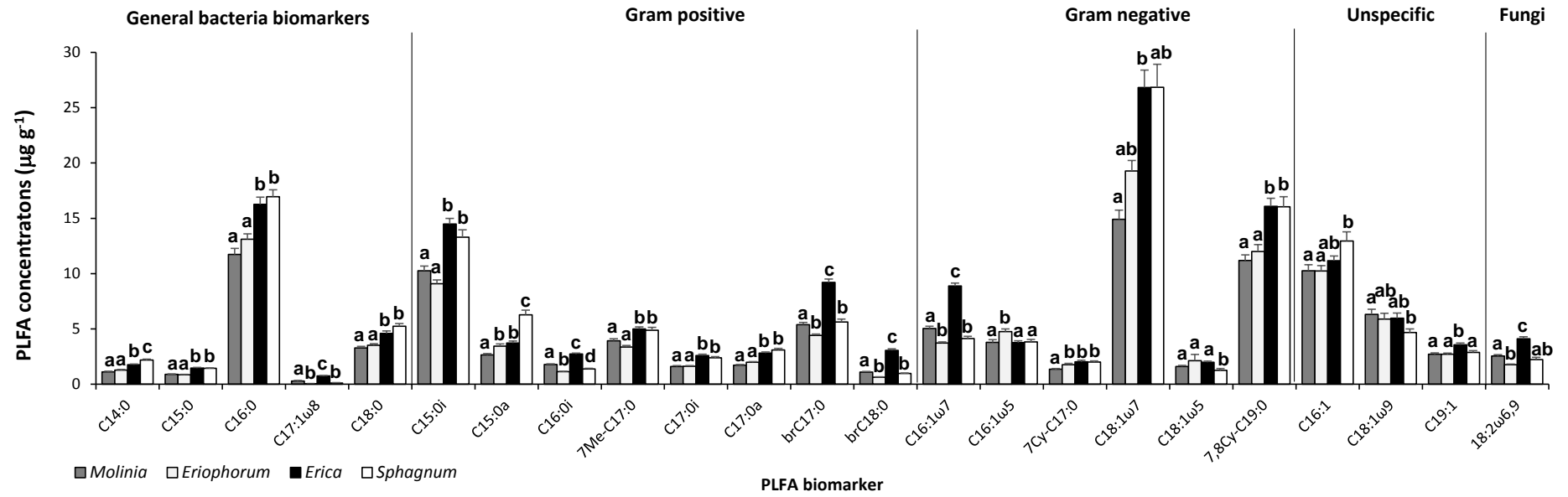


Figure 3

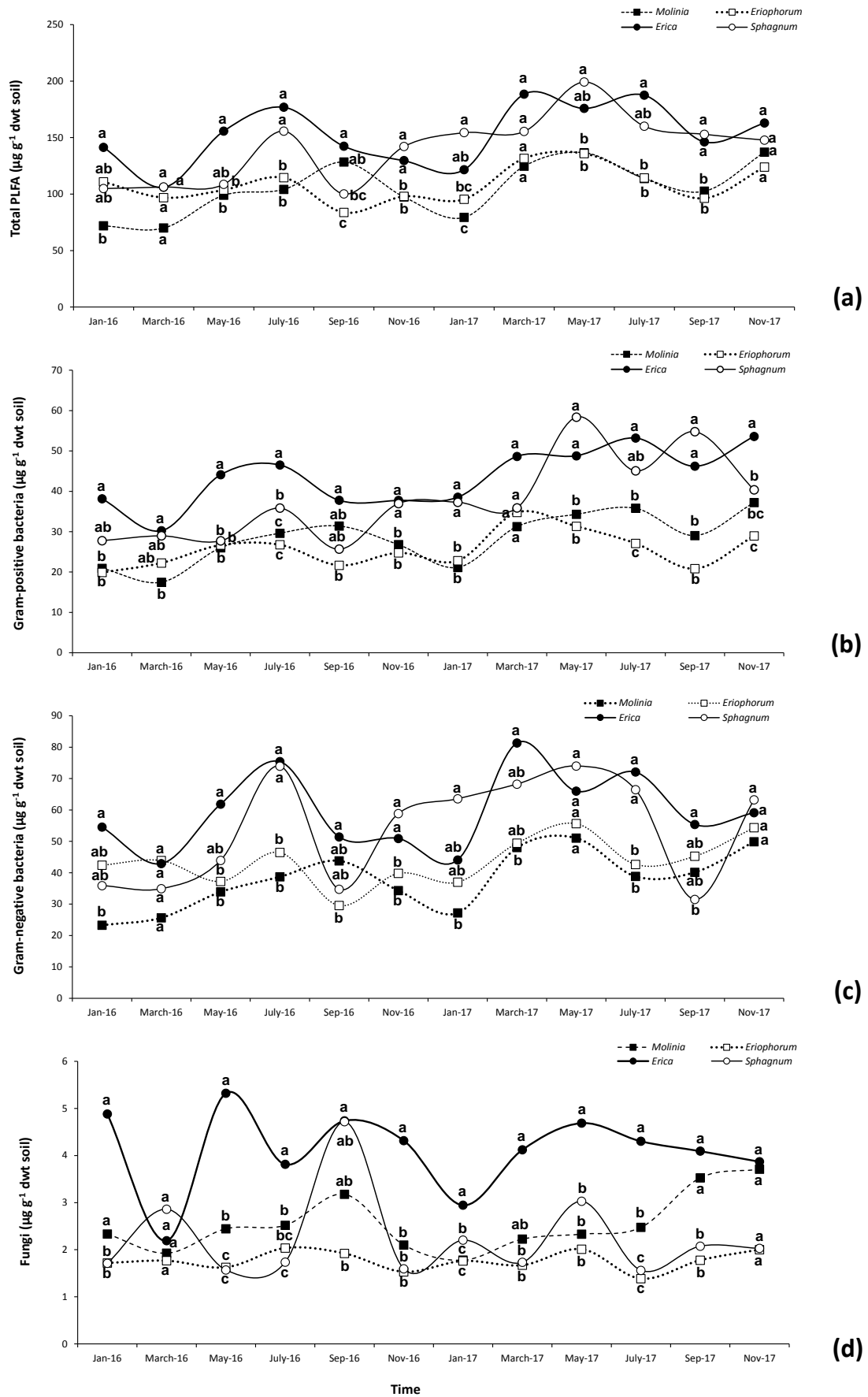
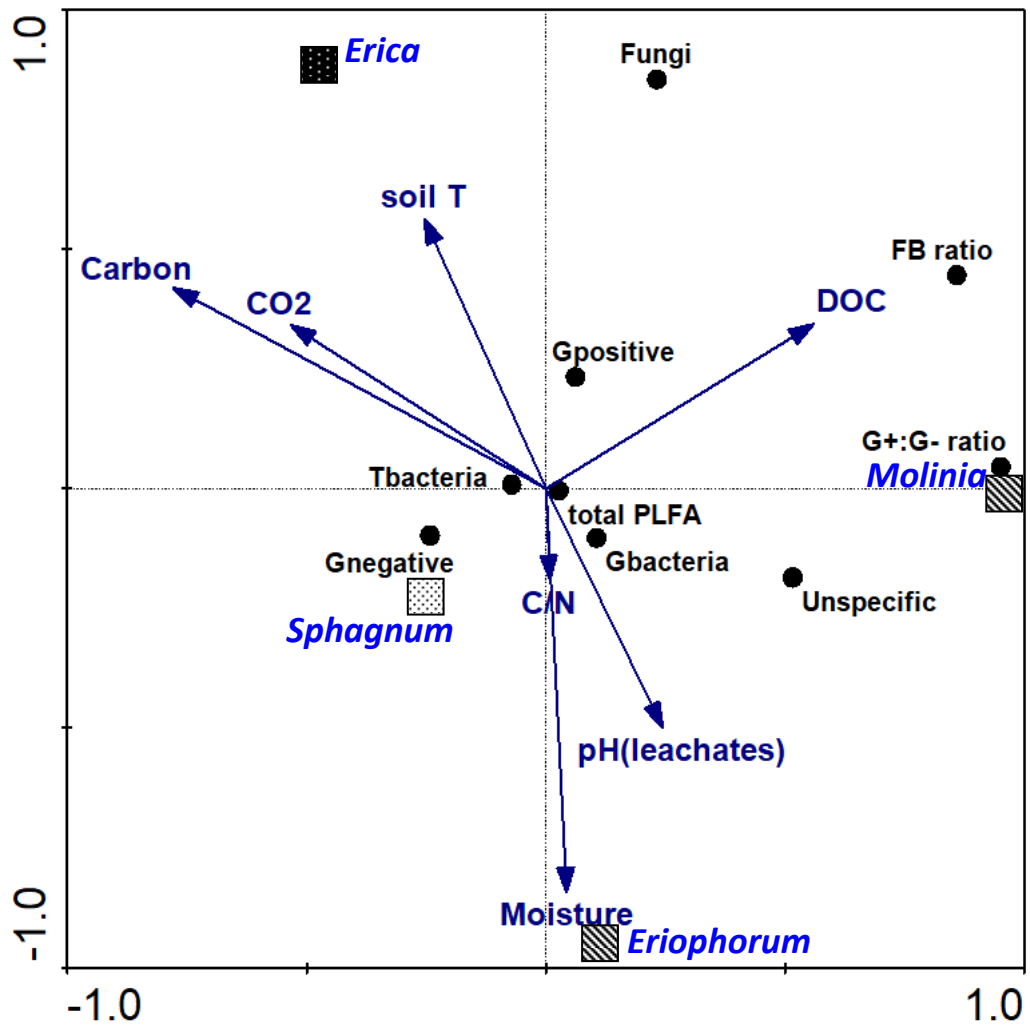


Figure 4





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The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: