

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

Article

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

2

3 Running head: Root foraging strategies

4

5 Ostonen I<sup>\*</sup>, Truu M<sup>1</sup>, Helmisaari H-S<sup>2</sup>, Lukac M<sup>3,4</sup>, Borken W<sup>5</sup>, Vanguelova E<sup>6</sup>, Godbold D<sup>7</sup>,  
6 Lõhmus K<sup>1</sup>, Zang U<sup>5</sup>, Tedersoo L<sup>8</sup>, Preem J-K<sup>1</sup>, Rosenvald K<sup>1</sup>, Aosaar J<sup>9</sup>, Armolaitis K<sup>10</sup>, Frey J<sup>1</sup>,  
7 Kabral N<sup>1</sup>, Kukumägi M<sup>1</sup>, Leppälammil-Kujansuu J<sup>2</sup>, Lindroos A-J<sup>11</sup>, Merilä P<sup>11</sup>, Napa Ü<sup>1</sup>, Nöjd  
8 P<sup>11</sup>, Parts K<sup>1</sup>, Uri V<sup>9</sup>, Varik M<sup>9</sup> & Truu J<sup>1</sup>

9

10 <sup>1</sup>University of Tartu, Institute of Ecology and Earth Sciences, Institute of Ecology and Earth  
11 Sciences, University of Tartu, Vanemuise 46, Tartu, 51014, Estonia;

12 <sup>2</sup>University of Helsinki, Department of Forest Sciences, Finland;

13 <sup>3</sup>University of Reading, School of Agriculture, Policy and Development, UK;

14 <sup>4</sup>Czech University of Life Sciences in Prague, Czech Republic;

15 <sup>5</sup>University of Bayreuth, Soil Ecology, Germany;

16 <sup>6</sup>Centre for Forestry and Climate Change, UK;

17 <sup>7</sup>University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences, Institute of Forest Ecology, BOKU, Austria;

18 <sup>8</sup> Natural History Museum and Botanical Garden, University of Tartu, Estonia;

19 <sup>9</sup>Estonian University of Life Sciences, Estonia;

20 <sup>10</sup>Institute of Forestry, Lithuanian Research Centre for Agriculture and Forestry, Lithuania;

21 <sup>11</sup>Natural Resources Institute Finland (Luke), Oulu and Vantaa, Finland

22

23 \*Author for correspondence:

24 *Dr. Ivika Ostonen*

25 *Telephone: +372 51 72 513*

26 *Email: ivika.ostonen@ut.ee*

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29 root morphology, ectomycorrhizal mycelium, soil and rhizosphere bacteria, soil C:N ratio,  
30 climate gradient

31  
32 **Summary**

- 33
- 34 • Tree root-mycorrhizosphere plays a key role in resource uptake, but also in adaptation of  
35 forests to changing environments.
  - 36 • Adaptive foraging mechanisms of ectomycorrhizal (EcM) and fine roots of *Picea abies*,  
37 *Pinus sylvestris* and *Betula pendula* were evaluated along a gradient from temperate to  
38 subarctic boreal forest (38 sites between latitudes 48° N and 69° N) in Europe. Variables  
39 describing tree resource uptake structures and processes (absorptive fine root biomass and  
40 morphology, %N in absorptive roots, extramatrical mycelium (EMM) biomass,  
41 community structure of root-associated EcM fungi, soil and rhizosphere bacteria) were  
42 used to analyse relationships between root system functional traits and climate, soil and  
43 stand characteristics.
  - 44 • Absorptive fine root biomass per stand basal area increased significantly from temperate  
45 to boreal forests, coinciding with longer and thinner root tips with higher tissue density,  
46 smaller EMM biomass per root length and with a shift in soil microbial community  
47 structure. Soil C:N ratio was found to explain most of the variability in absorptive fine  
48 root and EMM biomass, root tissue density, %N, and rhizosphere bacterial community  
49 structure.

- 50       • We suggest a concept of absorptive fine root foraging strategies involving both qualitative  
51       and quantitative changes in root-mycorrhizosphere along climate and soil C:N gradients.

52

### 53 **Introduction**

54 Fine root foraging for water and mineral nutrients is of primary importance to ecosystem  
55 productivity and relies on a range of specific root traits to achieve its function. Characteristics  
56 such as the biomass of absorptive fine roots (Helmisaari *et al.*, 2009; Ostonen *et al.*, 2011), root  
57 tip morphology (Adams *et al.*, 2013; Ostonen *et al.*, 2013; Eissenstat *et al.*, 2015), predisposition  
58 to ectomycorrhizal symbiosis (Trocha *et al.*, 2010) and associations with rhizosphere bacterial  
59 communities (Kuzyakov & Blagodatskaya, 2015) are all critical to resource capture by trees.  
60 Despite the growing understanding of the importance of fine roots and their associated  
61 mycorrhiza and bacterial communities in the rhizosphere to carbon (C) and nutrient cycling in  
62 forests (Kuzyakov & Xu, 2013), studies of functioning and adaptability of the “root-mycorrhiza-  
63 bacteria continuum” to a range of environmental conditions are still in their infancy.

64 Fine roots are not homogenous; significant anatomical, morphological and physiological  
65 differentiation is present within this root category (Saljajev, 1959; Eshel & Waisel, 1996;  
66 Ostonen *et al.*, 1999; Hishi, 2007; Zadworny *et al.*, 2016). Following McCormack *et al.*, (2015),  
67 we consider fine roots as (i) absorptive roots of first and second order or mostly mycorrhizal  
68 short roots with an intact cortex and (ii) transport roots commonly defined as thin woody roots.  
69 Fine root biomass (FRB) of both absorptive and transport roots has been found to be very similar  
70 in boreal and temperate forest ecosystems (Finér *et al.*, 2007, 2011a). However, the amount of  
71 absorptive root tips per stand basal area can vary more than tenfold between these two forest  
72 biomes (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011). There are known differences between the absorptive and transport  
73 fine roots in lifespan (Guo *et al.*, 2008), nutrient uptake and ability to establish fungal symbiosis  
74 (Ouimette *et al.*, 2013; Ostonen *et al.*, 2007ab; McCormack *et al.*, 2015; Zadworny & Eissenstat,  
75 2011). These two functional fine root groups are rarely evaluated separately in current carbon-  
76 cycle models (Deckmyn *et al.*, 2014; Warren *et al.*, 2015).

77 Root tips with their symbiotic fungi and associated bacterial communities are metabolically  
78 active, making many of their traits good indicators of root system adaptability. The magnitude  
79 and the velocity of changes of morphological root traits indicate the level of root system  
80 plasticity and the adaptation potential of fine root foraging (Ostonen *et al.*, 2013; Eissenstat *et al.*,

81 2015). A majority of trees in temperate and boreal forests extend their nutrient acquisition  
82 capacity by expanding fresh carbohydrate supply to ectomycorrhizal fungi (Read, 1992) and to  
83 rich communities of bacteria in the rhizosphere (Kuzyakov & Blagodatskaya, 2015). Extraradical  
84 mycelia of EcM fungi increase nutrient supply by exploring root-free soil pores/compartments  
85 and by translocating organic C to stimulate bacterial activity (Marupakula *et al.*, 2016).

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

99  
100 In this study, we explore the potential of the concept of adaptive fine root foraging described in  
101 Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) Karst.) forests gradient (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011) to extend to other  
102 tree species, such as Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and silver birch (*Betula pendula* Roth.). Our  
103 main objective is to construct a conceptual multidimensional framework applicable to the  
104 description and analysis of resource capture strategies employed by fine root-mycorrhiza-bacteria  
105 communities in forest soils. We consider the adaptation potential of fine root foraging against the  
106 backdrop of a range of environmental conditions along a boreal to temperate forest gradient. We  
107 hypothesize that: (1) the pattern of absorptive fine root biomass allocation is not tree species-  
108 specific, but rather driven by environmental factors and (2) there is a causal trilateral  
109 relationships between absorptive fine roots and associated communities of ectomycorrhizal fungi  
110 and soil bacteria across an environmental gradient from northern boreal to temperate forests. We  
111 aim to link the biomass and the number of absorptive fine root tips and changes in community

112 structure of colonizing ectomycorrhizal fungi, and soil and rhizosphere bacteria to earlier fine  
113 root longevity estimates in our study sites to advance the concept of adaptive fine root foraging  
114 strategies.

115

## 116 **Material and methods**

117

### 118 ***Forest stands***

119

120 A set of 38 forest stands along a climate gradient representing boreal, hemi-boreal and temperate  
121 forests was used in this study; comprising 13 Scots pine, 10 silver birch and 15 Norway spruce  
122 forests covering a latitudinal range from 69° to 48° N (Fig. 1, Table S1). IUSS Working Group  
123 WRB (2014) soil classification criteria were used to describe soils t each site (Table S2). Topsoil  
124 C:N ratio (organic layer + mineral soil up to 20 cm of soil depth) was used to describe site quality  
125 with respect to nutrient availability (Callesen *et al.*, 2007; Lehtonen *et al.*, 2015). We classified  
126 boreal sites as N-limited forests when N in throughfall was less than 8-10 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> and  
127 hemi-boreal and temperate stands as N-enriched when N in throughfall exceeded 8-10 N kg ha<sup>-1</sup>  
128 y<sup>-1</sup>, following Gundersen *et al.* (2006). Stand characteristics such as mean tree height (m) and  
129 stand basal area (BA, the area of breast-high cross sections of all the trees in a stand per area unit,  
130 m<sup>2</sup> ha<sup>-1</sup>) were either obtained from published data (Borken *et al.*, 2007; Helmisaari *et al.*, 2007;  
131 Merilä *et al.*, 2014; Vanguelova *et al.*, 2007; Varik *et al.*, 2015) or measured at the time of root  
132 sample collection (Table S2). Climate, N deposition, stand and soil characteristics correlated  
133 strongly with latitude, as well as with each other (Table S3).

134

### 135 ***Root traits***

136

137 FRB on 25 sites, and total root tip number and N concentration on 23 sites were established prior  
138 to this study (Ostonen *et al.*, 2005; Borken *et al.*, 2007; Helmisaari *et al.*, 2007, 2009;  
139 Vanguelova *et al.*, 2007; Leppälammii-Kujansuu *et al.*, 2014a,b; Varik *et al.*, 2015). On 10 of the  
140 remaining sites, FRB and tip number from the organic layer and the 0–20 cm mineral soil layer  
141 were determined from 10 to 15 soil cores per site following Ostonen *et al.* (2005). Fine root

142 longevity data for Norway spruce were obtained by soil core and minirhizotron methods (Table  
143 2; Gaul *et al.*, 2009; Leppälammil-Kujansuu *et al.*, 2014a,b; Ostonen *et al.*, 2005).

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

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

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

163

#### 164 ***EcM fungal community analysis***

165

166 Root tips from three additional fine root fragments (5–7 cm in length) from each root sample  
167 were sorted into morphotypes on the basis of colour and fungal mantle, hyphae and rhizomorph  
168 texture. Non-mycorrhizal root tips were found in 7 of 10 birch stands and in 2 conifer stands  
169 only, however, their proportion of the total was very low (Table S5). Dominating morphotypes,  
170 defined as those exceeding 20% of all tips in a sample, were identified and scored. Three  
171 randomly selected individual root tips of each morphotype per sample were abscised and  
172 immersed into CTAB lysis buffer [100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1.4 M NaCl, 20 mM EDTA, 2%



173 cetyl-trimethylammonium-bromide], maintained at room temperature until molecular analysis  
174 and subjected to a sequence analysis of the nuclear rDNA Internal Transcriber Spacer (ITS)  
175 region. DNA was extracted using a Qiagen DNeasy 96 Plant Kit (Qiagen, Crawley, UK) as per  
176 manufacturer's instructions. Primers, PCR conditions, product purification, sequencing and  
177 sequence processing are described in Tedersoo *et al.* (2010). Sequences were assigned to species  
178 based on a 97% ITS barcoding threshold (Tedersoo *et al.*, 2003), except for *Cortinariaceae* and  
179 *Hydnangiaceae* where 99% threshold was used. For species-level identification, representative  
180 sequences of each species were subjected to a bulk megablast search against International  
181 Nucleotide Sequence Databases (INSD) as implemented in the PlutoF work-bench of the UNITE  
182 database (Abarenkov *et al.*, 2010a,b). All morphotypes were also assigned to EcM exploration  
183 types (i.e. contact, short-distance, medium-distance smooth and fringe and long-distance types;  
184 cf. Agerer, 2001).

185

#### 186 ***Ectomycorrhizal extramatrical mycelia biomass***

187

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

198

#### 199 ***Soil and root chemistry***

200

201 Bulk soil samples for microbiological (stored in a -20 C°) and chemical analyses (pH-KCl, N,  
202 soluble P, Ca, Mg, K, loss of ignition; methods described in Table S2) were taken from the same  
203 soil core as the root samples. Root fragments were gently shaken to separate the rhizosphere

204 fraction from the soil particles adhering to roots. Total C and N content in the absorptive roots  
205 were determined using a CHN analyzer (Perkin Elmer 2400/SII).

206

### 207 ***Bacterial community analyses***

208

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

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

224 The paired-end reads were assembled into composite reads using PEAR (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). The  
225 total initial number of sequences after assembling paired-end reads was 3,934,542. The  
226 assembled reads were analysed using Mothur version 1.33.3 (Schloss *et al.*, 2009), following  
227 modified standard operating procedure guidelines, apart from the clustering step which was  
228 carried out with the external programme CROP (Hao *et al.*, 2011). Low quality sequences  
229 (containing ambiguous bases or more than six homopolymers, minimum read length of 70 bp, or  
230 an average sequencing quality score less than 35 over a 25-bp sliding window) were discarded. In  
231 total 3,667,727 usable reads were obtained (the total of unique reads was 268,673). The  
232 remaining sequences were aligned to the SILVA-compatible reference alignment (Pruesse *et al.*,  
233 2007) to screen out overlapping sequences from resulting multiple sequence alignment for  
234 clustering.

235 The sequences were also classified using Mothur's internal version of RDP classifier (Wang *et al.*,  
236 2007) using Greengenes (DeSantis *et al.*, 2006) reference database and these sequences that  
237 remained unclassified at kingdom or phylum level, or were classified as other than bacterial  
238 sequences, were removed. Suitable sequences (3,006,517 – 47,988 of them unique) were  
239 clustered with CROP into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at 95% similarity level. In the  
240 final step the samples were normalised to the smallest sample size (29,635 reads) by random re-  
241 sampling to make them statistically comparable with each other in Mothur. The taxonomic  
242 identity of each phylotype was determined by referring to the Greengenes reference database. All  
243 assembled reads were deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive under the accession number  
244 PRJEB12905.

245

### 246 *Statistical analyses*

247

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

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

262 Inverse Simpson Indexes (ISI) for bacterial communities of the bulk soil and rhizosphere were  
263 calculated from OTU data. Kendall rank correlation coefficients were calculated to test the  
264 relationships between bacterial community diversity parameters (OTU number and ISI) and soil

265 and root morphology parameters and to test the relationship between the OTU abundances and  
266 stand geographic location (distance from equator).

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

283

## 284 **Results**

285

### 286 ***Biomass allocation into absorptive roots***

287

288 The proportion of absorptive root biomass (aFRB) out of the total FRB along the latitudinal  
289 gradient increased towards the northern boreal forests in all tree species (Table 1), the rate of  
290 increase did not differ between species (difference test,  $p < 0.05$ ; Fig. S1). The absorptive fine root  
291 biomass per stand BA increased exponentially from the temperate to the boreal zone (Fig. 2),  
292 with a significant forest zone effect on aFRB/BA (GLM;  $F = 74.8$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  $n = 31$ , Fig. 2). An  
293 increase of  $10^\circ$  latitude from temperate to hemi-boreal forests means an increase of aFRB/BA by  
294 9.0, 12.7 and 16.1  $\text{kg m}^{-2}$  in pine, spruce and birch stands, respectively. A further increase of  $10^\circ$   
295 latitude from hemi-boreal to northern boreal forests adds an additional 40.5, 44.7 and 27.9  $\text{kg m}^{-2}$

296 of absorptive FRB per stand BA in pine, spruce and birch stands, respectively (Table 2, Fig. 2).  
297 Stepwise regression analyses comparing climatic, soil and stand factors indicate that aFRB/BA  
298 was related to soil C:N ratio and to mean tree heights ( $y=0.753(\text{C:N})-0.686$  (height);  $R^2=0.81$ ;  
299  $p<0.0001$ ). Root area index was up to 5-fold higher in the northern forests, mainly due to higher  
300 biomass of absorptive roots (Table 2) and was related to soil C:N ratio (stepwise regression  
301 analysis  $R^2=0.69$ ;  $p<0.01$ ,  $n=30$ ).

302

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

304

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

311 Absorptive FRB per stand BA was negatively correlated with nitrogen content (%N) of  
312 absorptive roots both in pine ( $r=-0.66$ ,  $p=0.018$ ,  $n=12$ ) and in spruce ( $r=-0.71$ ,  $p=0.015$ ,  $n=11$ ).  
313 Soil C:N ratio was the main environmental parameter driving absorptive root %N ( $R^2=0.57$ ,  
314  $p<0.000$ ,  $n=34$ ; Fig 3b). The threshold of a root %N at what the drastic change in the absorptive  
315 FRB per stand BA occurs was  $<2.5\%$  for birch and  $<1.5\%$  for conifers (Table 2). Fine root  
316 longevity in the spruce stands was, on average, 1.99 years in the north and 0.66 years in the south  
317 (t-test,  $p=0.012$ ,  $n=4$ ).

318

### 319 *Root morphology*

320

321 The total absorptive fine root biomass per stand BA was related to mean SRL and length of root  
322 tips ( $R^2=0.43$ ;  $p<0.001$ ;  $F_{2,29}=10.89$ ), indicating a link between biomass allocation and  
323 morphology of root tips. Morphological traits of absorptive roots varied across the latitudinal  
324 gradient and among tree species (Fig. 4; Table S7). On the basis of the length of correlation  
325 vectors, the highest proportion of variation in root traits was explained by latitude (correlation  
326 matrix is not shown). Tree species and geographical location of the stands explained 41% of the

327 variation in absorptive root morphology ( $p < 0.001$ , RDA, Fig. S2). Root morphology of birch and  
328 pine exhibited similar pattern of increasing SRL towards the north (Fig. 4). The increase in SRL  
329 was mainly determined by the variation of diameter (by 61% in birch and by 52 % in pine;  
330  $p < 0.01$ ). Absorptive roots in spruce adjusted to the environmental gradient by modifying root  
331 branching intensity, which was higher in temperate stands and was determined by a variation of  
332 root tip length (41%; Ostonen *et al.*, 2013). The length of an absorptive root tip in conifers was  
333 positively correlated with latitude ( $r = 0.75$ ;  $p < 0.000$ ); the average absorptive root tip was 2.1  
334 times longer in spruce and 1.7 times longer in pine in the northern sites compared to the southern  
335 forests (Fig. 4; Table S7).

336 Branching intensity and root tip length of birch and pine were not affected by soil chemistry,  
337 while root tissue density, diameter and SRL related significantly to %N ( $R^2$  varied from 0.55 to  
338 0.59;  $p < 0.05$ ) and Mg content ( $R^2$  varied from 0.28 to 0.51;  $p < 0.05$ ) in the soil. RTD was species-  
339 specific (tree sp as random factor) and determined by soil C:N ratio ( $F = 8.29$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). RTD of  
340 absorptive roots (Fig. 4) of all tree species, as well as RTD of non-colonised root tips in birch  
341 (data not shown) was significantly higher (Tukey test,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $n_{\text{bor}} = 6$  and  $n_{\text{temp}} = 7$ ) in northern  
342 low-N forests.

343

#### 344 ***Ectomycorrhiza***

345

346 Community structure of dominating EcM explained most of the morphological variability of  
347 absorptive roots in all tree species. Based on the redundancy analysis, the dominating  
348 morphotypes explained 46.7% of the variation in spruce (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011), 63.2% and 57.0%  
349 of variation in pine and birch absorptive root morphology, respectively (Monte Carlo permutation  
350 test,  $p < 0.05$ ;  $n = 48$  in spruce,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $n = 46$  in pine and  $p < 0.001$ ;  $n = 56$  in birch, respectively).

351 In spruce (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011) and birch forests, the largest number of EcM fungal species was  
352 assigned to contact and short-distance exploration types, while the medium-fringe exploration  
353 type was prevalent in pine forests (Table S5). An increasing presence of long-distance  
354 exploration types was observed in both coniferous species in southern forests, but not in birch  
355 (Table S5; data for spruce from Ostonen *et al.*, 2011).

356

#### 357 ***Biomass of EcM mycelia.***

358  
359 Biomass of EcM extramatrical mycelia (EMM;  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-1}$  EcM root tip<sup>-1</sup>) of dominating  
360 morphotypes varied from 107 to 1417  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-1}$  EcM root tip<sup>-1</sup> in all stands, increased towards  
361 lower latitudes and was similar in all tree species (Fig. 5). EMM biomass of dominating  
362 morphotypes was related to latitude, fine root biomass, absorptive FRB per stand BA and soil  
363 C:N ratio ( $R^2=0.65$ ,  $F_{5,21}=7.74$ ;  $p<0.001$ ;  $n=27$ ), however it was not directly affected by N-  
364 deposition ( $p<0.36$ ).

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

370

### 371 ***Bacterial community structure in soils of silver birch forests***

372

373 The bacterial 16S rRNA gene abundance varied between  $8.26\times 10^9$  and  $8.64\times 10^{10}$  copies  $\text{g}^{-1}$  DW  
374 in the bulk soils of the studied birch stands (Table S8) and this variation was not related to the  
375 distance between the stands or to distance from the equator. The bacterial community diversity  
376 index (ISI) was the lowest in both bulk soil and rhizosphere in the northernmost (Kivalo,  
377 Syktyvkar) and southernmost (Risley Moss) stands (Table S8), with no relationship between  
378 diversity indicators (OTUs numbers, ISI) and stand distance from the equator. The bulk soil  
379 bacterial communities were dissimilar in geographically more distant stands than in closer stands  
380 (Mantle test,  $r=0.51$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Rhizosphere bacterial communities were grouping similarly to the  
381 bulk soil communities (Procrustes analyses,  $r=0.83$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), based on differences in relative  
382 abundances of bacterial groups at different taxonomic level, i.e. phyla *Acidobacteria* and  
383 *Bactroidetes*, classes *Acidobacteria* and *Spartobacteria*, order *Acidobacteriales* (Table S9).  
384 Rhizosphere bacterial communities of the southern-most (Risley Moss) and the northern-most  
385 site (Kivalo) were distinctive from other sites on the NMDS ordination plots (Fig. S3a,b; Table  
386 S9).

387 The application of Molecular Ecological Network Analyses Pipeline on the OTU data resulted in  
388 two distinct phylogenetic molecular ecological networks (pMEN) for bulk soil and rhizosphere

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

399 Soil characteristics had a strong effect on the bacterial community structure in birch forest soils  
400 (Table 3), describing 47.53% of the bulk soil and 51.06% of the rhizosphere bacterial community  
401 variations ( $p<0.001$  in both cases). pH and P content were the driving soil factors - the numbers  
402 of phylotype (OTUs) and diversity indices (ISI) in both soil fractions were correlated to soil pH  
403 (Kendall correlations  $\tau=0.6$  to  $\tau=0.69$ ;  $p<0.05$  in all cases). Soil C:N ratio correlated significantly  
404 with the number of OTUs in the rhizosphere ( $r=-0.64$ ,  $p=0.044$ ,  $n=10$ ). Soil K content was related  
405 to rhizosphere bacterial community diversity index values (Kendall correlations  $\tau=-0.51$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

406

#### 407 ***Root-mycorrhiza-bacteria continuum in birch forests***

408

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

411 There was a significant correlation between dominant fungal lineages, and the whole rhizosphere  
412 bacterial community structure (Procrustes analysis,  $p<0.05$ ). This relationship was statistically  
413 significant also in case when absorptive root morphology or soil chemical parameters were used  
414 in the analysis as covariables. In addition, diversity and proportions of dominant lineages of EcM  
415 fungi correlated with the structure of rhizosphere phylogenetic molecular ecological network  
416 modules J and M (Fig.S4, Fig 6).

417 The relationship between birch absorptive root morphology and soil bacterial community  
418 structure was stronger in the rhizosphere than in bulk soil. Significant correlations between root  
419 tip weight and bacterial diversity index ( $\tau=-0.51$ ;  $p<0.05$ ), and between root branching intensity



420 and phylotype numbers ( $\tau=0.54$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in rhizosphere were revealed from the analyses. The  
421 structure of rhizosphere pMEN module N was also affected by root tip weight. In bulk soils, the  
422 proportions of bacterial phylotypes in module E were related to root tissue density and tip weight  
423 of absorptive roots (Fig. 6).

424

## 425 **Discussion**

426

### 427 *Fine root foraging strategies*

428

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

443 Response curves of most root traits along the gradient were strongly related to the soil C:N ratio,  
444 which is a good indicator of soil organic matter quality as it determines how much N could  
445 potentially be mineralized per unit of C respired (Lehtonen *et al.*, 2015). Our analysis of bulk soil  
446 bacterial community structure as a function of distance from the equator indicates lower  
447 macromolecules degradation activity potential in soils from northern birch stands. A smaller  
448 proportion of two species belonging to the cellulose degrading family *Chitinophagaceae* (Bailey  
449 *et al.*, 2013) may indicate a slowdown of litter decomposition and a subsequent decrease of  
450 nutrient availability.

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

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

473

#### 474 ***Root morphology and structural shifts of root associated microbial communities***

475

476 Our results for birch suggest a strong relationship between absorptive fine root morphology and  
477 the structure of EcM and bacterial communities in the rhizosphere and bulk soil (Fig. 6). The role  
478 of each associated partner organism in resource uptake is modified by environmental conditions,  
479 e.g. soil C:N ratio across the latitudinal climate gradient. Further, these relationships are linked to  
480 biomass allocation patterns of absorptive roots observed between the northern N-poor and the  
481 southern N-rich forests. Our results are in good agreement with Högberg *et al.* (2007),

482 demonstrating an increase of fungi-to-bacteria ratio and higher C allocation to belowground in N-  
483 limited forests with high soil C:N and with shifts in mycorrhizal and bacterial community  
484 structure. We show an effect of soil organic matter quality on bacterial community structure in  
485 the rhizosphere of birch absorptive roots. Where the number of bacterial phylotypes in the  
486 rhizosphere increased at lower soil C:N ratios, we saw a predominance of a bacterial consortium  
487 (module H) containing *Fluviicola* in soils with higher N content. Bacteria from this genus prefer  
488 rich soils and are able to degrade persistent organic molecules in plant root rhizosphere (Song *et*  
489 *al.*, 2016). Similarly, the share of *Tomentella* sp among the dominating EcM fungal colonisers  
490 increased, whereas *Cortinarius* sp colonization rate decreased towards richer soils of temperate  
491 forests. This is in good accordance with the results of Kranabetter *et al.*, (2009), who showed a  
492 similar pattern of these morphotypes along productivity gradients in a southern boreal forest.  
493 Furthermore, the rate of ammonium uptake of *Tomentella* spp was shown to be over three times  
494 that of *Cortinarius* spp (Kranabetter *et al.*, 2015), supporting our hypothesis of higher efficiency  
495 of absorptive roots in temperate forests. EcM community structure affects root-associated  
496 bacterial communities (Korkama *et al.*, 2007; Simard *et al.*, 2013) and bacteria may assist  
497 mycorrhiza formation as well (Frey-Klett *et al.*, 2007). We found that two bacterial consortiums  
498 in the rhizosphere of birch absorptive roots were related to the diversity of dominating colonizing  
499 EcM fungi. Our study across a gradient of birch forests revealed that bacterial network  
500 consortiums (classified at order level) in both bulk and rhizosphere soil can be linked to various  
501 types of phosphatases and phosphorous transport systems (Bergkemper *et al.*, 2016). *Rhizobiales*,  
502 *Solibacterales*, *Acidobacteriales* and *Rhodospirillales* were all represented in several bacterial  
503 network consortiums, with the structure of some of these (M) directly related to the dominant  
504 EcM community. The presence of the root-mycorrhiza-bacteria continuum discussed in this paper  
505 hints at interactions and feedback between root growth promotion mechanisms (e.g.  
506 phytostimulation via hormones) or direct physiological and metabolic mechanisms (e.g.  
507 production of hydrolytic enzymes and root metabolites) that enable acquisition of soil phosphorus  
508 (Richardson & Simpson, 2011). The role of EcM fungi in P acquisition is well known (Plassard  
509 & Dell, 2010). In temperate spruce (Ostonen *et al.*, 2011) and temperate pine forests, the  
510 proportion of root tips colonised with mycelium-rich EcM fungi forming rhizomorphs with long  
511 exploration morphotypes significantly increased. This supports our hypothesis of higher  
512 efficiency of an average root tip due to the enlargement of the explored soil volume through a

513 mycelium-rich EcM fungal partner (Fig. 5) and related qualitative shift in the soil and rhizosphere  
514 bacterial communities in temperate stands, where a smaller absorptive fine root biomass is  
515 supporting the same forest basal area unit.

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

531 Although fine root lifespan has been shown to be longer in boreal than in temperate forests (Finér  
532 *et al.*, 2011b), existing fine root longevity data are not yet sufficient to evaluate tree species-  
533 specific patterns on a broad spectrum of soil C:N ratios. Some evidence of higher fine root  
534 longevity in soils with high C:N ratio is available for spruce (Ostonen *et al.*, 2005; Gaul *et al.*,  
535 2009; Leppälammil-Kujansuu *et al.*, 2014a,b) and for birch (Varik *et al.*, 2015; Uri *et al.*, 2017).  
536 The observed increase in absorptive root biomass per stand BA towards the north is  
537 complementary with a decrease in N concentration of absorptive roots (Fig. 7), both related to an  
538 increase in soil C:N ratio. %N of roots is asymptotically approaching the physiological limit  
539 (Wang *et al.*, 2014) in low-N subarctic stands matching with the northernmost extension of  
540 studied tree species. Root tip %N might be a good predictor for the absorptive fine root biomass.  
541 A switch to a larger absorptive root biomass occurs when the average N concentration reaches  
542 <1.5% in conifers and <2.5% in birch (Fig. 3b). Trees increase absorptive root biomass to ensure  
543 sufficient nutrient uptake, this often coincides with two- to fourfold increase in the amount of

544 connected mycelia (irrespective of fungal community structure). Although ectomycorrhizal N  
545 uptake is more cost-efficient for the individual trees at low soil N availability, purely mycorrhizal  
546 strategy may cause immobilisation and decline of N in the soil at the stand level (Näsholm et al.,  
547 2013; Franklin *et al.*, 2014). This theory is supported by our results of a low %N level of root tips  
548 and high C investment to root and mycelial biomass in boreal forests. The critical mass of  
549 absorptive roots per stand BA for transition of the foraging strategy in all three studied tree  
550 species seems to be close to 20 kg absorptive roots per m<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 2), despite the difference in  
551 absolute root %N values between conifers and birch.

552 Our concept of fine root foraging strategies puts forward the notion that quantitative differences  
553 in absorptive fine root biomass per stand BA are concurrent with changes in root morphology. At  
554 the same time, a foraging strategy involves a qualitative shift in multitrophic interactions in the  
555 rhizosphere involving host trees, EcM fungi and associated bacteria. The variety of alternatives  
556 within root-mycorrhiza-bacteria continuum enables adaptive root foraging in both northern  
557 subarctic boreal and southern temperate forests. We envisage a trilateral relation between the  
558 morphological traits of absorptive fine roots, exploration types of colonising EcM fungi and  
559 rhizosphere and bulk soil bacterial community structure. Thus, qualitative shifts in roots  
560 associated microbial communities affect biomass partitioning of trees, which in turn can lead to a  
561 switch in the fine root foraging strategy and to a change in belowground C pathways.

562

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564

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579

#### 580 **Author contributions**

581

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

593

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876

877 **Legends of the Figures**

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

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

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

886  
887 **Fig. 4** (a) Mean diameter (mm), (b) mean length (mm) of absorptive root tips and (c) root tissue  
888 density (RTD, kg m<sup>-3</sup>), (d) root branching intensity (No of tips mg<sup>-1</sup>) and specific root length  
889 (SRL, m g<sup>-1</sup>) of the absorptive roots in birch (open circles), spruce (filled circles) and pine  
890 (triangles) stands along the latitudinal gradient.

891  
892 **Fig. 5** The change of specific ectomycorrhizal extramatrical mycelial biomass (EMM biomass;  
893 µg cm<sup>-1</sup> EcM root tip<sup>-1</sup>) of dominating morphotypes along the latitudinal gradient for all stands;  
894 open circles represent data calculated from the literature.

895  
896 **Fig. 6** A scheme showing statistically significant relationships between the structure of  
897 rhizosphere and bulk soil bacterial communities, dominant ectomycorrhizal (EcM) fungal  
898 community and absorptive root morphology in studied birch stands soils. Capital letters denote  
899 modules of bacterial phylogenetic molecular ecological networks (pMENs). Arrows indicate  
900 RDA relationships direction, bacterial community or morphology variation percentages explained  
901 by factors variations within the groups are shown above the arrows. Procrustes relationships are  
902 indicated by simple lines with p values indicated by asterisks (\*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001).  
903 The relationships between whole community and particular subunits or factor sets are indicated  
904 with solid lines. The information about exploration types of EcM fungi and OTUs taxonomy are  
905 given in Tables S5 and S10, respectively. Abbreviations for absorptive root morphological



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

908  
909 **Fig. 7** A conceptual scheme of fine root foraging strategy related to latitudinal climate and soil  
910 C:N gradient from boreal to temperate forests. Soil C:N ratio increases from left to right, from N-  
911 rich temperate forests to N-poor northern boreal forests. Foraging strategies are based on  
912 adaptation of biomass allocation to absorptive fine roots associated with fine root turnover rate,  
913 fine root morphology and changes of root associated EcM fungi and rhizosphere bacterial  
914 communities. EXTENSIVE strategy refers to investment in larger absorptive fine roots biomass  
915 per forest basal area ( $\text{kg m}^{-2}$ ), while INTENSIVE strategy denotes the tendency to establish  
916 smaller absorptive root biomass, associated with functional changes in root morphology and a  
917 larger reliance on EcM and bacterial communities in the rhizosphere. Note that the presented  
918 trends for root tip number, absorptive fine root biomass and morphology, %N and EcM  
919 mycelium are based on data of all three studied tree species, while trend in fine root turnover is  
920 based on spruce stands data and supported by literature data for birch stands (Varik *et al.*, 2015;  
921 Uri *et al.*, 2017) and for general tendencies along biomes (Finér *et al.*, 2011b). The trilateral  
922 relationships between roots, EcM fungi and soil and rhizosphere bacteria and trend in number of  
923 bacterial phylotypes from boreal to temperate forests are based on pilot study across birch forests.  
924

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

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

929

930

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

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

Olkiluoto	19.7	0.97	2.10	22.8	-
Alatskivi 1	8.2	0.50	3.00	14.7	-
Alatskivi 2	27.7	1.42	2.54	18.4	-
Erastvere	40.8	1.84	2.39	19.6	-
Risley Moss	2.7	0.15	3.12	15.2	-

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*Pinus sylvestris*

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Sevettijärvi	71.1	3.76	1.37	36.1	-
Kivalo	99.5	5.72	1.29	38.8	-
Ylikiiminki	77.1	5.24	1.21	41.1	-
Juupajoki	33.2	2.15	1.65	28.7	-
Tammela	29.1	1.86	1.77	27.6	-
Saarejärve	54.7	2.67	1.69	29.4	-
Vilsandi	52.4	2.45	2.86	16.6	-
Sömerpalu	30.1	1.95	1.65	30.1	-
Kačerginè	70.4	3.71	1.94	25.4	-
Thetford	21.2	1.39	2.68	18.6	-
Alice Holt	-	-	2.72	18.0	-
Altdorf	11.6	0.56	2.08	23.7	-
Dinkelsbühl	8.4	0.38	1.61	31.2	-

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

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

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