

1 **Title:** Ectomycorrhizas accelerate decomposition to a greater extent than arbuscular mycorrhizas  
2 in a northern deciduous forest

3

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10 **Abstract**

11 It has been proposed that ectomycorrhizal (EcM) fungi slow down decomposition by competing  
12 with free-living saprotrophs for organic nutrients and other soil resources (known as the “Gadgil  
13 effect”), thereby increasing soil carbon sequestration. As such, this Gadgil effect should depend  
14 on soil organic matter age and quality, but this remains unstudied. In addition, the Gadgil effect is  
15 not expected to occur in arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) forests since AM fungi cannot access  
16 directly nutrients from soil organic matter, yet few direct comparisons between EcM and AM  
17 forests have been made. We performed a two-year reciprocal decomposition experiment of soil  
18 organic horizons (litter - L, fragmented - F, humic - H) in adjacent temperate deciduous forests  
19 dominated by EcM or AM trees. Litterbags were made of different mesh sizes allowing or  
20 excluding ingrowth of external fungal hyphae, which are primarily mycorrhizal in these forests  
21 other than for the most-recent superficial litter horizon. As expected, organic matter originating  
22 from deeper horizons and from EcM forests was of lower quality (e.g. higher lignin to nitrogen  
23 ratios) and decomposed more slowly. However, contrary to the Gadgil effect, organic matter  
24 exposed to external fungal hyphae (i.e. primarily mycorrhizal) actually decomposed faster in both  
25 forest types, and this effect was strongest in EcM forests, particularly in the F horizon.  
26 Unexpectedly, organic matter decomposition was faster in EcM than in AM forests, regardless of  
27 organic matter origin. Overall, our study reinforces the view that temperate EcM forests store  
28 greater amounts of soil organic carbon than AM forests, but suggests that this is due to factors  
29 other than the Gadgil effect.

30

31 **Keywords**

32 Organic matter decomposition; carbon cycle, nitrogen cycle, temperate forest, vertical  
33 segregation; Gadgil effect; mycorrhizal fungi; *Acer saccharum*; *Fagus grandifolia*

34

## 35 **Introduction**

36 Forests cover much of the land surface, and represent the largest terrestrial carbon (C) pool  
37 globally (Dixon and others 1994; Baldrian 2017). A majority of that C is stored in forest soils,  
38 especially in northern forests (Lal 2005; Crowther and others 2019). Soil C storage is controlled  
39 by many abiotic and biotic factors such as climate, vegetation, topography and nutrient  
40 availability that interact together (Averill and others 2014; Carvalhais and others 2014;  
41 Wiesmeier and others 2019). However, belowground biotic factors, such as microorganisms, also  
42 play an important role, directly influencing soil C inputs (i.e. litter quantity and quality) and  
43 outputs (i.e. decomposition) (Schimel and Schaeffer 2012). For example, soil microorganisms  
44 such as fungi can produce recalcitrant organic matter that decomposes slowly or they can produce  
45 extracellular enzymes that break down organic matter (Frey 2019). As a result, soil fungi play a  
46 major role in forest C cycling (Kubartová and others 2008; Bardgett and Wardle 2010; Orwin and  
47 others 2011).

48

49 A long-standing hypothesis about the effects of fungi on the soil C cycle is the “Gadgil effect”  
50 (Gadgil and Gadgil 1971; Fernandez and Kennedy 2016). This hypothesis suggests  
51 ectomycorrhizal (EcM) fungi slow down litter decomposition, potentially due to competition  
52 between EcM fungi and free-living saprotrophs for organic nutrients. Because EcM fungi acquire  
53 their C in highly labile form via plant hosts (Smith and Read 2008) in exchange for nutrients such  
54 as nitrogen and phosphorus, they would leave behind C-rich but nutrient-poor organic matter,  
55 potentially favoring soil C accumulation (Read and others 2004; Averill and others 2014). On the  
56 other hand, some EcM fungi have the capacity to oxidize organic matter, directly influencing  
57 decomposition and indirectly influencing saprotrophic organisms (Lindahl and Tunlid 2015;

58 Verbruggen and others 2017). Saprotrophic fungi could also be impacted by EcM fungi through  
59 mycoparasitism, antibiosis and alteration of abiotic conditions (Fernandez and Kennedy 2016; Zak  
60 and others 2019). The Gadgil effect has only been supported by a few studies but seems to be  
61 largely context dependent, for example to litter quality (Smith and Wan 2019) and moisture level  
62 (Koide and Wu 2003). Compared to EcM fungi, it is considered that arbuscular mycorrhizal  
63 (AM) fungi lack the capacity to produce enzymes that break down organic matter (Tisserant and  
64 others 2013; Tedersoo and Bahram 2019). AM fungi would not compete directly with  
65 saprotrophic fungi, therefore it is expected that decomposition would be quicker in AM forests  
66 compared to EcM forests, but this still remains an open question (Fernandez and Kennedy 2016;  
67 Frey 2019). In fact, AM fungi may even enhance directly organic matter decomposition in some  
68 cases via a “priming effect”, promoting the activity of free-living saprotrophs (Hodge 2017; Frey  
69 2019). A better understanding of the roles that different mycorrhizal types play in organic matter  
70 decomposition is thus needed.

71  
72 Because fungal types and taxa differ strongly in their vertical distribution, especially in well-  
73 stratified soil such as podzols (Dickie and others 2002; Rosling and others 2003; Bahram and  
74 others 2015), the strength and direction of the Gadgil effect could vary across soil organic  
75 horizons, yet most previous studies have only considered the uppermost litter layer. Strong  
76 vertical segregation of fungal guilds occurs across podzol profile: saprotrophic fungi dominate  
77 the litter horizon, and can still be abundant in upper organic horizons where mycorrhizal fungi  
78 increasingly dominate (Lindahl and others 2007; Clemmensen and others 2015; Carteron and  
79 others 2020). It is recognized that overlapping niches between different groups of fungi can  
80 generate competition for soil resources (Bödeker and others 2016; Mujic and others 2016).  
81 Therefore, the greatest potential for mycorrhizal fungi to inhibit saprotrophs, and thus slow down

82 organic matter decomposition, should lie just below the layer of fresh litter. It has been suggested  
83 that these interactions might help to explain differences in the amount and vertical distributions  
84 of soil C in EcM systems (Clemmensen and others 2013; Kyaschenko and others 2017) and  
85 between EcM- and AM-dominated forests at different depth or horizons (Phillips and others  
86 2013; Soudzilovskaia and others 2015; Craig and others 2018). By competing with saprotrophs  
87 for organic nutrients, EcM fungi may promote C accumulation more than AM fungi that cannot  
88 directly access these resources. These vertically segregated interactions among fungal guilds need  
89 to be better understood because they play an important role in regulating organic matter  
90 accumulation (Frey 2019).

91  
92 Local adaptation to microbial guilds based on soil properties could also be an important factor  
93 influencing decomposition via what has been termed the “home-field advantage” (HFA; van der  
94 Wal and others 2013) hypothesis. This HFA predicts that litter decomposition is faster in “home  
95 soils” due to adaptation of the decomposer community to the chemical composition of the “home  
96 litter” (Gholz and others 2000; Austin and others 2014). Using published data on mass loss from  
97 125 reciprocal litter transplants, Veen and others (2015) have shown that this HFA increases  
98 decomposition rates by 7.5% on average. However, the strength of the HFA might depend on the  
99 context such as plant identity, litter quality and moisture level (Veen and others 2015; Wang and  
100 others 2020). Some studies suggest that AM litter shows higher HFA than EcM litter (Midgley  
101 and others 2015; Jacobs and others 2018). On the other hand, because EcM litter tends to be more  
102 recalcitrant (Keller and Phillips 2019), it could be expected that EcM litter decays faster in EcM  
103 forest with saprotrophs better adapted to decompose recalcitrant organic matter. In any case,  
104 further investigation is needed to better understand the effect of microbial decomposers driving

105 the HFA depending on litter type and the stage of litter decomposition (Li and others 2020; Lin  
106 and others 2020).

107  
108 The main objective of our study was to assess the impact of EcM and AM strategies on the  
109 decomposition of soil organic matter in organic horizons in northern forests. First, we determined  
110 stocks of C and nutrients in the upper 20 cm of soil in adjacent forest plots dominated by AM or  
111 EcM trees. Then, we performed a litterbag experiment using a reciprocal transplant of organic  
112 matter from AM and EcM forest enabling us to isolate site vs. organic matter quality effects on  
113 decomposition. Litterbags were composed of different mesh size that allowed (44  $\mu\text{m}$ ) or  
114 excluded (1  $\mu\text{m}$ ) ingrowth of fungal hyphae. It is well established that fungal hyphae can move  
115 freely across large pore-size (30-50  $\mu\text{m}$ ) mesh but prevents in-growth of roots, while small pore-  
116 size (0.5-1  $\mu\text{m}$ ) mesh further blocks fungal hyphae (Johnson and others 2001; He and others  
117 2004; Teste and others 2009). Since mycorrhizal fungi development requires association with  
118 living plant roots, only saprotrophs can develop inside the small-mesh litterbags and access  
119 organic matter. Mycorrhizal fungi can colonize organic-rich soil (Lindahl and others 2007; Bunn  
120 and others 2019) and, can even be abundant in organic horizons (this system; see Carteron and  
121 others 2020). Therefore, large-mesh litterbags allow to follow the decomposition of organic  
122 matter in the presence of external fungal hyphae, which are primarily mycorrhizal in these forests  
123 other than for the most-recent superficial litter horizon where saprotrophs dominate (Carteron and  
124 others 2020). Decomposition of the three upper organic horizons (litter - L, fragmented - F,  
125 humic - H) was followed by measuring changes in soil mass, and changes in C and nitrogen (N)  
126 over two years. In addition, the fate of C fractions was followed in decomposing L samples and  
127 potential access of N by mycorrhiza in the F samples. We hypothesized that the impact of  
128 mycorrhizas on organic matter decomposition would differ between AM and EcM forests. More

129 specifically, we expected based on the Gadgil effect hypothesis that EcM forests would store a  
130 higher amount of C in the topsoil and show slower organic matter decomposition due to the  
131 inhibition of saprotrophs by EcM fungi and lower litter quality, whereas these effects would be  
132 smaller in AM forests. In addition, we hypothesized that the slowing down of C cycle by EcM  
133 fungi would be strongest in the fragmented (F) horizon where litter-derived organic materials,  
134 free-living saprotrophs, mycorrhizal fungi and roots coincide (Clemmensen and others 2013;  
135 Cotrufo and others 2015; Carteron and others 2020). Due to microbial adaptations of the  
136 decomposer community, we also hypothesized that litter would decompose fastest in their  
137 “home” forests relative to “away” forests (Veen and others 2015). Specifically, mass loss of  
138 organic matter from AM soil would be highest when incubated in AM forest and mass loss of  
139 EcM organic matter highest in EcM forest.

140

## 141 **Material and methods**

### 142 *Study area and site selection*

143 Our study was conducted in a northern temperate forest at the Université de Montréal’s field  
144 station (Station de biologie des Laurentides, Saint-Hippolyte, Québec, Canada). The mean annual  
145 temperature is 4.3 °C and total annual precipitation is 1195 mm, with ~25% falling as snow  
146 (based on 1981–2010 data, meteorological station #7037310, Saint-Hippolyte). Soils consist of  
147 podzols with moder humus formed from Precambrian anorthosite (Bélanger and others 2004;  
148 Courchesne and others 2005). We selected ten 20 m × 20 m plots from Carteron and others  
149 (2020), either dominated by EcM or AM trees (Table S1), and grouped into five clusters or  
150 “blocks” ( $n = 5$  blocks, each containing one plot of each of the two mycorrhizal types, EcM and  
151 AM). These pairs of EcM-AM sites were clustered together to minimize variation in  
152 environmental conditions (e.g. slope, aspect, elevation) within each block. Previous root

153 colonization and molecular analyses on the same sites showed that forests dominated by EcM  
154 trees had the highest EcM fungal abundances while forests dominated by AM trees had the  
155 highest AM fungal abundances. Carteron and others (2020) also found strong shifts from  
156 saprotrophic to mycorrhizal fungal dominance with increasing soil depth in both forest types,  
157 especially across surface organic horizons.

158

### 159 *Soil carbon and nutrient stocks*

160 Carbon and nutrient stocks were quantified by measuring C, N, phosphorus (P) concentrations  
161 and thickness for all horizons in the upper 20 cm of soil, as reported in Carteron and others  
162 (2020). Soil bulk density was measured simultaneously for the five horizons in three randomly-  
163 positioned locations replicates per plot using an auger, and values from these locations were  
164 averaged across sites. The horizons considered were litter (L), fragmented (F), humic (H), and  
165 mineral horizons Ae and B.

166

### 167 *Organic matter collection*

168 In each plot, organic matter samples were collected separately from the three organic horizons,  
169 namely: L, F and young H (i.e. most recent layer) from two pits. Samples were homogenized by  
170 horizon within each plot. Samples were collected in July 2016. A subsample from each horizon  
171 by plot was preserved at 4 °C as inoculum (see below). Another subsample was oven-dried at 60  
172 °C for 72 h and ground for chemical analyses. The rest of the organic matter was air-dried before  
173 being used to fill the bags.

174

### 175 *Litterbag design*



176 Litterbags were 15 cm × 15 cm in size and designed to have three compartments (L, F, H; in the  
177 same order in which they occur through the soil profile) separated by 44 µm-pore polyethylene  
178 mesh (PETEX® 07-40/12; Sefar Inc., Buffalo, NY, USA). Our use of 44 µm-pore mesh ensured  
179 that hyphae could grow across compartments within each bag, an important process for  
180 decomposition (i.e. to allow for translocation of nutrients and C across horizons), while still  
181 keeping L, F, and H horizons separate for later retrieval. The outer mesh of the litterbags was  
182 made with either the same 44 µm-pore polyethylene mesh described above or 1 µm-pore mesh  
183 from the same material (PETEX® 07-1/2; Sefar Inc., Buffalo, NY, USA). Large pore size (30-50  
184 µm) mesh has been widely used to assess the effect of mycorrhizal hyphal colonization since  
185 more than a decade ago (Johnson and others 2001), by excluding fine roots but not fungal hyphae  
186 (He and others 2004; Teste 2008). Thus, our litterbags made with 44-µm pore size mesh allow to  
187 study decomposition in the presence of mycorrhizal hyphae (and other saprotrophic fungi located  
188 outside of the bag). By contrast, the small 1-µm pore size mesh prevents most external fungal  
189 hyphae to grow through the litterbag (Teste and others 2006). Because most mycorrhizal hyphae  
190 cannot grow within the bag (as mycorrhizal fungi are obligate biotrophs), this bag design allows  
191 us to study organic matter decomposition in the absence of mycorrhizal fungi. Litterbags of 50  
192 µm-pore size mesh have been found to allow ingrowth of mycorrhizal fungi (i.e. Teste and others  
193 2006; Sterkenburg and others 2018), which are abundant in our F and H horizons of our plots  
194 (Carteron and others 2020). By contrast, free-living saprotrophic fungi should be present in all  
195 bags (of 1-µm and 44-µm pore sizes) since all bags were inoculated with horizon-specific organic  
196 matter from the same plot prior to being installed in the field. For this reason, while we recognize  
197 that the 1-µm mesh bags exclude all external hyphal ingrowth (mycorrhizal and free-living), for  
198 simplicity we refer to this treatment as “mycorrhizal exclusion” hereafter since 1-µm mesh bags

199 exclude this particular fungal guild. Mycorrhizal fungal hyphae should be present in the 44- $\mu\text{m}$   
200 mesh bags, being a very important component of the fungal community in the soil other than for  
201 the L horizon (Carteron and others 2020). Polyethylene mesh was selected over nylon mesh (e.g.  
202 NITEX®, Sefar Inc. Buffalo, NY, USA) because it is much more resistant to degradation when  
203 buried in soil (Colin and others 1981). Microscope observations showed no evidence that the  
204 bags were breached after two years. Previous studies using 0.5  $\mu\text{m}$ -pore size mesh litter bags  
205 found that environmental conditions, particularly moisture levels, were similar inside and outside  
206 the bags (Allison and others 2013) and, that soil water moved freely across the mesh within  
207 minutes (Teste and others 2009). Our own observations confirmed that water moved freely across  
208 membranes of both mesh size via capillary action as long as there was contact between the litter  
209 inside the bag and the membrane itself; such conditions were maintained throughout the field  
210 experiment since the litterbags were buried under the litter layer and secured firmly on the  
211 ground. The 1 and 44  $\mu\text{m}$ -pore size mesh have air permeability values of  $> 95 \pm 15 \text{ l} \cdot (\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{s})^{-1}$  at  
212 200 Pa (provided by Sefar inc.). In total, 160 litterbags were used (Fig. S1), from which 90  
213 prevented most hyphal ingrowth of all external fungi. Each bag was stored within a 1-mm mesh  
214 nylon bag to provide additional physical protection for the less robust 44- or 1- $\mu\text{m}$  PETEX®  
215 mesh.

216

### 217 *Litterbag preparation and collection*

218 Weighed air-dry organic matter was transferred to litterbags (2.85 g for L and 4.75 g for F and H  
219 horizons). Horizon specific fresh inoculum (~5 % of dry-weight equivalent) was added to each  
220 horizon from the receiving plot to ensure that plot-specific microbial biota, including free-living  
221 saprotrophic fungi, could colonize each litterbag. Water content was determined from oven-dried

222 sub-samples at 60 °C for dry-mass inoculum conversion. Filled litterbags were put back *in situ*  
223 October 2016, directly on top of the H horizon (with L horizon facing up) and covered by a thin  
224 layer of fresh litter. Litterbags were secured on the ground with small stakes and tied together  
225 with nylon fishing line to a central stake to facilitate retrieval of bags. Two spatial replicates  
226 within each plot were installed. A total of 160 bags were collected after one and two years of  
227 residence (i.e. field incubation) for 480 samples analyzed (Fig. S1).

228

### 229 *Soil analysis*

230 Initial subsamples of ground horizons L, F and H were weighed (5.0, 6.0 and 7.0 mg ± 0.2  
231 respectively) and analyzed to estimate C and N contents by dry combustion in a CN analyzer  
232 (Vario Micro Cube; Elementar, New-Jersey, United States,  
233 [dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.udces2w](https://doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.udces2w)). The concentrations of soluble cell contents (e.g. non-  
234 structural carbohydrates), hemicellulose, cellulose and lignin (% dry weight) were also  
235 determined on these initial samples by sequential digestion (Fiber Analyzer 200; ANKOM  
236 technology, [dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.yinfude](https://doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.yinfude)). After one and two years, organic matter  
237 samples were retrieved from litterbags, oven-dried at 60 °C for at least 72 h and then weighed to  
238 estimate mass loss percentage. These samples were then ground with a cyclone mill (Cyclone  
239 Sample Mills, UDY Corporation, Colorado, United States), using a 2-mm screen. Concentrations  
240 of C and N were also determined using the method described above. Thirty subsamples of the  
241 initial horizons, and all the F horizons after two years of residence were analyzed for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  with a  
242 Micromass model Isoprime 100 isotope ratio mass spectrometer coupled to an Elementar Vario  
243 MicroCube elemental analyser in continuous flow mode.

244

### 245 *Statistical analyses*

246 Differences in organic matter stocks among forest types were evaluated using a linear mixed-  
247 effects model with forest type (AM or EcM as soil provenance) as a fixed factor and block as a  
248 random factor. Horizon was added as fixed factor for the modeling of initial soil chemistry. To  
249 predict the changes in mass (within the litterbags), linear mixed-effects models were also used by  
250 adding as fixed factors outside fungal hyphae (i.e. size of mesh pore) excluded (1  $\mu\text{m}$ ) or not (44  
251  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Finally, forest of residence (AM or EcM forest) and time (one or two years) were added as  
252 fixed factors to compare decomposition in the two forest types including relevant interactions  
253 among fixed factors (see Table S2 for more details). Models were compared using the Akaike  
254 information criterion corrected for small sample size ( $\text{AIC}_c$ ). Validation of the models was done  
255 by visual inspection of the residuals. Spatial replicates within one plot were averaged prior to  
256 analyses. Eleven bags with damaged mesh were removed from the analysis. Statistical analyses  
257 were performed using the R software (R Core Team 2018) and the following packages *dplyr*  
258 (Wickham and others 2017), *emmeans* (Lenth 2019), *ggplot2* (Wickham 2016), *ggpubr*  
259 (Kassambara 2018), *nlme* (Pinheiro and others 2012). Data and R scripts can be found at  
260 [https://github.com/alexiscarter/decompo\\_myco](https://github.com/alexiscarter/decompo_myco).

261

## 262 **Results**

### 263 *Organic matter stocks*

264 Stocks of C were higher in EcM forest stands compared to AM stand within the upper 20 cm of  
265 soil (one-way analysis of variance,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. S2) as observed in the organic horizons (Table  
266 1). Stands dominated by EcM trees stored 14% more C than AM stands in surface soils. The soil  
267 C:N ratio also differed among forest types, with higher values in EcM stands ( $P = 0.024$ ; Fig.  
268 S3). By contrast, there were no differences in soil C:P ratio among forest types (Fig. S4).

269

270 *Initial soil chemistry*

271 Soil C, cellulose and hemicellulose concentrations decreased from L to H horizons in both forest  
272 types, while lignin was highest in the F horizon and in EcM stands overall (23% in AM forest  
273 and 26 % in EcM forest; Table S3). By contrast, soil total [N] increased slightly with soil depth in  
274 both forest types (Table S3). As a result, soil C:N and lignin:N ratios were higher in EcM forest  
275 for the three organic horizons compared to AM forest (Table S3).  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values showed similar  
276 increases from L to H horizons in both forest types but the F horizon in EcM forest was slightly  
277 enriched (but not significantly,  $P = 0.224$ ; Table 1). Horizons tended to be thicker in EcM forest  
278 (Table 1).

279

280 *Effect of residence on decomposition: AM vs. EcM forests*

281 In AM and EcM stands, older (i.e. deeper) horizons decomposed more slowly than younger ones  
282 (Fig. 1). Organic matter loss was slower in the litterbags of 1  $\mu\text{m}$ -pore size mesh in all horizons  
283 of both types of forests. However, the slowing down of decomposition due to mycorrhizal fungal  
284 exclusion was only statistically significant in the F horizons in stands dominated by AM (-3.7 %,  $P = 0.02$ ; Fig. 1a) and EcM (-4.4 %,  $P = 0.019$ ; Fig. 1b). Differences in the effects of the  
285 mycorrhizal exclusion treatments among forest types increased between one and two years of  
286 incubation (Fig. 2). Overall, decomposition was slower in AM compared to EcM stands, ranging  
287 from -0.8% ( $P > 0.05$ ) of mass loss after one year to -3% ( $P < 0.001$ ) after two years of  
288 incubation. After two years, decomposition of organic matter originating from EcM and AM soils  
289 was higher in EcM stands (Fig. 2).

290

291  
292 *Effect of provenance: AM vs. EcM forests*

293 Litter originating from AM stands decomposed more quickly than EcM litter after one year but  
294 this was no longer the case after two years ( $P > 0.05$ ; Fig. S5). While changes in the litter C:N  
295 ratio remained similarly low for both soil origins ( $\sim 1$ , Fig. S6), the EcM litter showed a clear  
296 increase ( $\sim 1.2$ ) suggesting a lower loss in N compared to C. Similarly, changes in lignin:N ratio  
297 were also stronger for EcM litter (Fig. S7).

298

### 299 *Effect of provenance and residence on C fractions and N*

300 Mycorrhizal exclusion did not affect concentrations of soluble contents nor hemicellulose in litter  
301 incubated in AM and EcM stands. Compared to EcM stands, decomposition was slower in AM  
302 stands for litter cellulose ( $-4.12\%$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ; Fig. S8) and lignin ( $-6.56\%$  but  $P > 0.05$ ; Fig. S9).  
303 Mycorrhizal exclusion slowed down decomposition of cellulose ( $-3.79\%$ ,  $P = 0.003$ ) and lignin  
304 ( $-5.13\%$  but  $P > 0.05$ ). Overall, N loss was reduced by mycorrhizal exclusion ( $-2.83\%$ ,  $P <$   
305  $0.001$ ) and reduced in AM stands ( $+2.7\%$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). After two years,  $^{15}\text{N}$  enrichment was  
306 higher in EcM stands (F horizons only,  $P = 0.046$ ) but effect of mycorrhizal exclusion was rather  
307 low (Fig. S10).

308

### 309 **Discussion**

310 No evidence of a Gadgil effect in either forest mycorrhizal type was observed. In fact, the  
311 opposite effect was observed, in that decomposition was faster in the presence of EcM or AM  
312 fungi than in their absence. Contrary to our hypothesis, decomposition was faster in EcM- than in  
313 AM-dominated forests. However, as predicted, decomposition was higher in upper horizons (i.e.  
314 “younger” soil), and the net effect of the external fungal network on decomposition was  
315 significant in the fragmented (F) horizons. The F horizon is located just below the litter (L),  
316 where most decomposition studies tend to focus. Our results suggest that the Gadgil effect is not

317 a universal pattern in EcM forests, and that mycorrhizal fungi may actually accelerate rather than  
318 slow down decomposition (Frey 2019). In agreement with these results, we found that  
319 decomposition was faster in EcM forests regardless of organic matter origin, suggesting an HFA  
320 in EcM but not AM forests.

321  
322 Several abiotic and biotic factors can impact litter decomposition, such as climate and soil fauna  
323 (Hättenschwiler and others 2005; Steidinger and others 2019). However, given the importance of  
324 fungi in soil decomposition processes, there has been much interest in exploring the potential  
325 effects of interguild fungal interactions over C and nutrient dynamics (Dighton and others 1987;  
326 Verbruggen and others 2017). Mycorrhizal fungi can inhibit saprotrophs by competing for  
327 nutrients, resulting in slower organic matter decomposition and promotion of C accumulation  
328 (Frey 2019). We took advantage of a natural experiment of co-occurring patches of AM and EcM  
329 trees under similar environmental conditions but distinct fungal communities and soil chemistry  
330 (Carteron and others 2020) to test if contrasting mycorrhizal strategies exerted different control  
331 on organic matter decomposition (Phillips and others 2013; Dickie and others 2014). However,  
332 contrary to the Gadgil effect hypothesis, our results showed that both EcM and AM fungi  
333 accelerate organic matter decomposition in this northern deciduous forest. This might occur if the  
334 overall positive effect of mycorrhizal hyphae and other external fungi on decomposition was  
335 greater than any potential negative impacts of competition with saprotrophs. In addition,  
336 mycorrhizal fungi combined with their local microbial community in EcM forests tended to  
337 degrade cellulose and lignin more quickly compared to AM forests. By isolating the effect of  
338 mycorrhizas, microbial communities and local environmental conditions, our study shows that  
339 decomposition tends to be higher in EcM than AM forests regardless of soil origin and incubation  
340 time. Our results challenge the view that EcM fungi slow down litter and soil decomposition

341 compared to AM fungi (Tedersoo and Bahram 2019 and references therein). They also suggest  
342 that more attention should be paid to priming vs. inhibitory effects of different mycorrhizal types  
343 on the decomposition of organic matter (Kuzyakov 2010).

344  
345 Ectomycorrhizal fungi have traditionally been suggested to slow down litter decomposition via  
346 their negative competitive effects on free-living saprotrophs (Gadgil and Gadgil 1971; Fernandez  
347 and Kennedy 2016). In our field experiment, we have found that EcM fungi in fact accelerated  
348 the decomposition across the three upper organic horizons over two years, particularly in the  
349 fragmented (F) horizon. Fernandez & Kennedy (2016) suggested a number of important  
350 environmental factors that could modulate the inhibiting impact of EcM fungi on free-living  
351 saprotrophs, which might help to explain our results. First, organic matter recalcitrance was  
352 relatively low in this broadleaf forest, with lignin:N ratios below 20. Similarly, the C:N ratio was  
353 below 30, making N less limiting for saprotrophs compared to other studies where a Gadgil effect  
354 was observed (Smith and Wan 2019). Secondly, the studied podzols were well-stratified and  
355 exhibited a strong vertical segregation with distinct fungal communities with strong shifts from  
356 saprotrophic to mycorrhizal fungal dominance with increasing soil depth (Carteron and others  
357 2020), thereby reducing opportunities for interguild competition. Finally, decreased soil moisture  
358 due to EcM fungi can impede decomposition processes (Koide and Wu 2003), but our system is  
359 located in a northern temperate forest characterized by a humid continental climate with  
360 precipitations throughout the year, where water is not thought to be limiting. At least three other  
361 experimental studies have found a positive combined effect of roots and EcM fungi on  
362 decomposition (Zhu and Ehrenfeld 1996; Subke and others 2011; Malik 2019). In our case, it is  
363 worth noting that the strongest positive net effect was observed in the fragmented horizon where  
364 there are: (i) High root colonization by EcM and AM fungi, (ii) high abundance of saprotrophic



365 and mycorrhizal fungi and (iii) high fine root density (Carteron and others 2020). Most studies  
366 that have studied the impact of mycorrhizas on decomposition have focus on the most recent litter  
367 (L) layer, whereas here we show that important processes occur in deeper (organic) horizons. Our  
368 results suggest that vertical stratification should be taken into account to better understand the  
369 effect of mycorrhizas on the decomposition process.

370  
371 Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi are known to produce compounds that can, for example, alter  
372 microbial community or promote soil aggregation thus modulating decomposition rate (e.g.  
373 Hodge and others 2001; Gui and others 2017; Xu and others 2018). Decomposition can even be  
374 reduced by AM fungi, potentially through antagonistic interactions with free-living saprotrophs  
375 (Leifheit and others 2015; Carrillo and others 2016). In our field experiment, we found no  
376 evidence of a Gadgil effect exerted by AM fungi that would counterbalance their positive impacts  
377 on decomposition. As expected, decomposition in the upper three organic horizons in AM forest  
378 was not reduced with the 1- $\mu$ m mesh bags (in which mycorrhizal hyphae were excluded), but in  
379 fact tended to increase. Given that AM fungi lack a strong degradation machinery (Tedersoo and  
380 Bahram 2019), our results support the view that priming of organic matter decomposition might  
381 be an important nutrient acquisition strategy for them (Wurzburger and Brookshire 2017).

382 Greater priming in AM systems may result from AM fungal necromass and the lack of genetic  
383 capacity from AM fungi to directly access organic nutrients (Frey 2019). It is worth noting that  
384 with the 1- $\mu$ m mesh bags, decomposition in AM forests tended to be slower than in EcM forests,  
385 suggesting that their free-living saprotrophic communities have different capacities to degrade  
386 organic matter (see results after two years in Fig. 2). Microbial communities in AM forest might  
387 be less efficient at degrading organic matter due to their more easily-decomposed litter contrary  
388 to what has been observed for other AM systems in microcosm experiments (Taylor and others

389 2016). Evaluating the response of the saprotrophic community using molecular tools over long-  
390 term experiment would be an interesting way to better understand decomposition processes *in*  
391 *situ*, in order to complement studies that focus on laboratory manipulations of mycorrhizal  
392 abundance (Verbruggen and others 2017). It would also allow us to experimentally assess if the  
393 abundance of saprotrophs shifts in deeper horizons when AM and EcM fungi are excluded (e.g.  
394 Lindahl and others 2010; Sietiö and others 2019).

395  
396 Leaf litter decomposition rates are known to be positively linked with initial N concentration and  
397 inversely with lignin (Prescott 2005; Berg and McClaugherty 2014). Overall net effect of  
398 mycorrhizas over decomposition is known to be controlled by substrate quality and local  
399 microbial community composition (Fernandez and others 2019; Smith and Wan 2019). As  
400 expected, we found a strong effect of soil depth with deeper (i.e. “older”) horizons decomposing  
401 more slowly. In general, the litter of EcM-associated trees tend to have a lower quality than AM  
402 trees such as lower C:N and lignin:N ratios (Lin and others 2017), which may drive soil C  
403 accumulation in the short-term. In our field sites, litter in EcM stands had lower quality compared  
404 to AM stands. The EcM stands were mostly composed of American beech. However, American  
405 beech litter is less recalcitrant than many conifers (Moore and others 1999), which may explain  
406 discrepancies with other studies from coniferous EcM forests in which Gadgil effects have been  
407 observed (Fernandez and Kennedy 2016; Smith and Wan 2019). In temperate forests, AM plants  
408 tend to produce leaf litter that decomposes more rapidly *in situ* than that of EcM plants (Keller  
409 and Phillips 2019). Similarly, litter originating from AM patches decomposed more quickly than  
410 EcM litter after one year but interestingly, this was not the case after two years in our experiment.  
411 This is consistent with previous studies showing that sugar maple leaf litter tend to decomposes  
412 more quickly during the first years after senescence (McHale and others 1998; Lovett and others

413 2016), but tends to be more similar to American beech after several years (within standard error  
414 range, see Lovett and others (2016). Community of decomposers in EcM forests may be efficient  
415 at decomposing recalcitrant organic matter (Fernandez and others 2019). Contrary to the results  
416 of Midgley and others (2015) obtained from another study system, we observed HFA in EcM  
417 forests but not in AM forests. The efficiency of the microbial decomposers present in EcM soil  
418 for decomposing organic matter may be high regardless of litter type and quality. Furthermore,  
419 we found no evidence that fragmented (F) and humic (H) horizons in AM stands decomposed  
420 faster than the same horizons in EcM stands (but see Jacobs and others 2018). Taken together,  
421 these results suggest that the significant impact of initial litter chemistry on decomposition  
422 diminishes after the first year of decomposition and that microbial decomposer community may  
423 adapt to “home” substrate quality.

424  
425 Reducing decomposer diversity reduces litter decomposition rate (Handa and others 2014; Li and  
426 others 2020), but this effect is context-dependent and the effect of soil fauna is variable across  
427 focal species (Makkonen and others 2012). Smaller mesh size are known to reduce the potential  
428 diversity of soil fauna that are important for decomposition processes (Hättenschwiler and others  
429 2005). In our study, patches were mainly composed of American beech or sugar maple, and  
430 previous studies indicate that maple litter is generally preferred over beech litter by the soil fauna  
431 (Hättenschwiler and Bretscher 2001; Jacob and others 2010). However, the difference in  
432 decomposition between American beech and sugar maple seems to decrease over time (Lovett  
433 and others 2016) and to be dependent on stand type of incubation (Côté and Fyles 1994). Unlike  
434 most studies, we used litterbags that were designed to follow decomposition of the upper three  
435 organic horizons while avoiding soil trenching and tree girdling which confound the effects of  
436 roots and mycorrhizal fungi (Fernandez and Kennedy 2016). Trenching is the historical and most

437 widely used method to test the Gadgil effect, but it is known to directly affect soil drainage,  
438 increase soil moisture by impeding root water uptake and strongly disturb the system (Gadgil and  
439 Gadgil 1971; Fisher and Gosz 1986; Fernandez and Kennedy 2016). Tree girdling is the most  
440 extreme alternative as it kills trees, also preventing further research on the same site. In our  
441 experiment, the initial disturbance may have increased labile C but the persistence of this effect  
442 after two years was assumed to be rather limited. Furthermore, the observed effects of our  
443 exclusion treatment on mass loss increased between the first and second years of incubation  
444 suggesting persistent biological effects. Decreasing mesh size might have decreased soil moisture  
445 but we observed no impact on litter soluble content losses suggesting a rather low effect caused  
446 by mesh size, at least on the most labile fractions of C. It is possible that the use of litterbags with  
447 small mesh size limited the exposure to biophysical perturbations, which might hamper mass loss  
448 (Prescott 2005; Berg and McLaugherty 2014), but this was common to all treatments. To better  
449 predict soil C processes and stocks, more research may be needed to understand how interaction  
450 between mycorrhizas, soil fauna, plant inputs and variables such as soil moisture, or bulk density  
451 impact decomposition (Lin and others 2017).

452  
453 Our sampling design allowed us to spatially distinguish decomposition processes in the upper  
454 three horizons and assess the fate of young to older organic matter overcoming some limits of  
455 short-term experiments. The overall net effect of mycorrhizas on decomposition was positive  
456 regardless of mycorrhizal type, but varied throughout the soil profile. Further analyses would  
457 allow us to better understand if the greater decomposition could be due to higher microbial  
458 biomass inside the 44  $\mu\text{m}$ -pore mesh bags, leading to higher enzymatic activities. As expected  
459 from previous studies (e.g., Averill and others 2014; Soudzilovskaia and others 2019), C stocks  
460 were greater in EcM stands compared to neighboring AM stands in this northern temperate forest

461 even though decomposition was greater in EcM soils, and positively influenced by the broader  
462 fungal network. This indicates the potential importance of others factors such as litter quantity,  
463 soil fauna and moisture level in regulating C dynamics. The quality and composition of litter is  
464 important for short-term C release, but the microbial community, including root-associated fungi  
465 and mycorrhizal-associated organisms (Netherway and others 2020), potentially have a strong  
466 impact on a longer-term which is important for C sequestration (Cotrufo and others 2015).  
467 Overall, our study shows that forests dominated by different mycorrhizal strategies have distinct  
468 impacts in soil organic matter dynamics. The EcM forests store higher soil organic C but support  
469 microbial decomposer communities that are more efficient at degrading organic matter than those  
470 of adjacent AM forests, rejecting the Gadgil effect as a driver of C accumulation in the northern  
471 temperate forests.

472

### 473 **Acknowledgements**

474 We would like to thank the staff from the Station de biologie des Laurentides (SBL) of Université  
475 de Montréal for facilitating the field work. Funding, including scholarships to AC, was provided  
476 by Discovery Grants to EL (RGPIN-2014-06106, RGPIN-2019-04537) by the Natural Sciences  
477 and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC) as well as a “Nouveau Chercheur” grant  
478 (2016-NC-188823) by the Fonds de recherche du Québec sur la Nature et technologies (FRQNT).  
479 AC would like to sincerely thank the following institutions for providing generous scholarships:  
480 FRQNT (Dossier 272522), Institut de recherche en biologie végétale, Centre de la science de la  
481 biodiversité du Québec, Centre d'étude de la forêt and Université de Montréal through the  
482 "Bourse d'excellence Hydro-Québec".

483

484 **Authors' contributions**

485 EL and AC conceived the ideas and designed methodology; AC and FC collected and analyzed  
486 the data; AC and EL interpreted the results; AC led the writing of the manuscript. All authors  
487 contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

488

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744

745 **Conflict of Interest**

746 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

747 **Table legends**

748

749 **Table 1.** Initial soil chemistry characteristics: C:N ratio, lignin:N ratio,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , thickness and  
750 carbon stocks of the upper three horizons (litter - L, fragmented - F, humic - H) of arbuscular  
751 mycorrhizal (AM) and ectomycorrhizal (EcM) forest. Means and standard deviation are shown ( $n$   
752 = 5).

	Horizon	AM-dominated forest	Standard deviation	EcM-dominated forest	Standard deviation
C:N ratio	L	22.71	2.53	27.36	1.81
	F	20.50	1.01	22.32	1.36
	H	18.41	0.85	20.09	1.48
lignin:N ratio	L	9.68	1.40	13.05	1.74
	F	10.70	1.69	12.57	0.99
	H	8.62	1.30	10.50	1.50
$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰)	L	-3.26	0.36	-3.16	0.63
	F	-2.48	0.40	-1.96	0.48
	H	-0.72	0.59	-0.74	0.36
Thickness (cm)	L	0.71	0.22	0.81	0.30
	F	2.36	0.68	3.44	0.65
	H	4.21	0.95	7.19	2.73
Carbon stock (kg.m <sup>2</sup> )	L	0.89	0.28	1.05	0.43
	F	2.68	0.76	4.24	0.86
	H	2.97	0.67	6.99	4.00

754 **Figure legends**

755

756 **Figure 1.** Percentage of mass loss of the three upper horizons incubated for two years in forests

757 dominated by (a) arbuscular mycorrhiza (AM) or (b) ectomycorrhiza (EcM) in litterbags with

758 pore mesh size of 1  $\mu\text{m}$  (grey bars) and 44  $\mu\text{m}$  (white bars). Means  $\pm$  1 SE are shown ( $n = 20$ ).

759 Multiple comparison using Tukey's honestly significant difference post-hoc test, different letters

760 within each panel indicates significant differences ( $P$ -value  $< 0.05$ ).

761

762 **Figure 2.** Percentage of mass loss after one and two years of incubation in forests dominated by

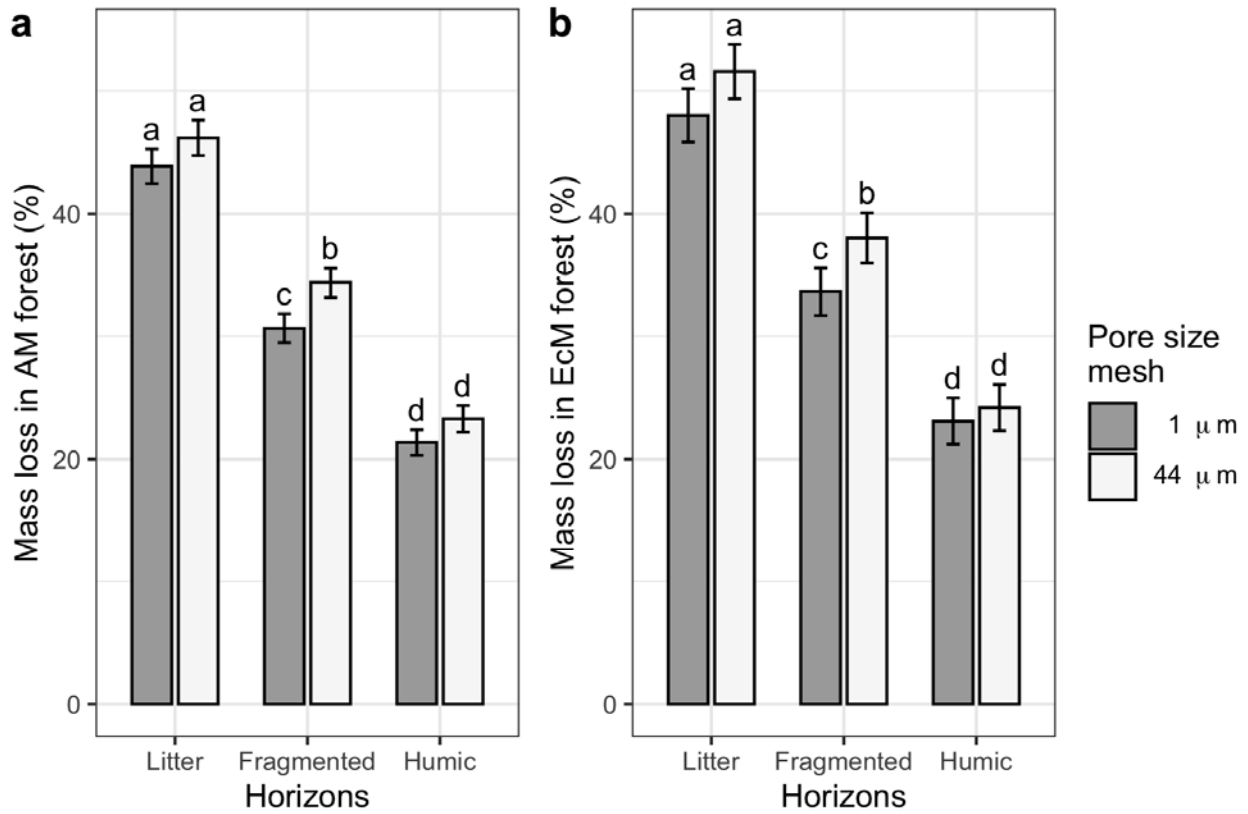
763 arbuscular mycorrhiza (AM) or ectomycorrhiza (EcM) in litterbags with pore size mesh of 1  $\mu\text{m}$

764 (top panels) and 44  $\mu\text{m}$  (bottom panels) and organic matter provenance from AM and EcM.

765 Means  $\pm$  1 SE are shown ( $n = 30$ ). Multiple comparison using Tukey's honestly significant

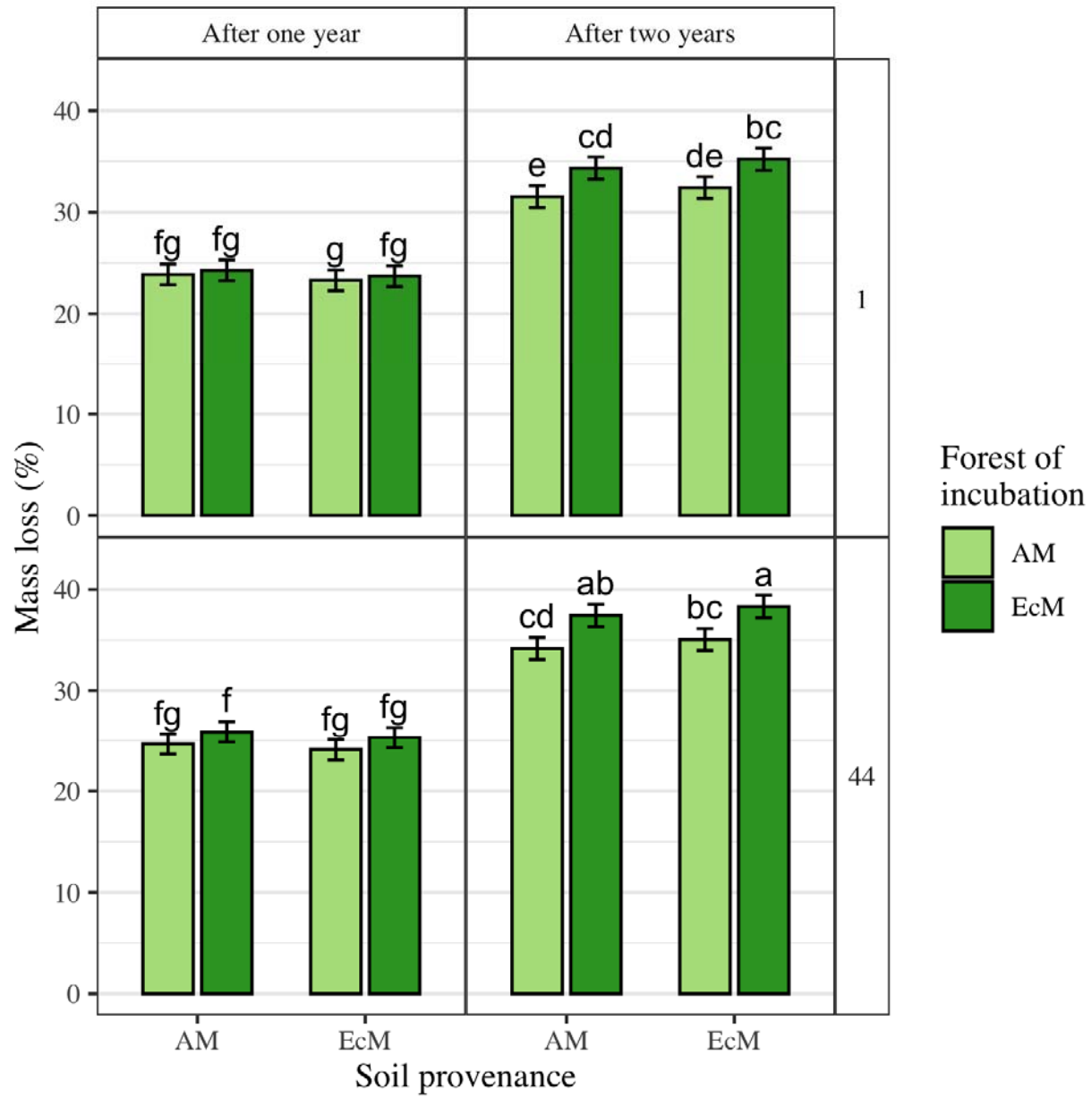
766 difference post-hoc test, different letters indicates significant differences ( $P$ -value  $< 0.05$ ).

767 **Figure 1**



768

769 **Figure 2**



770