Title Long-term warming effects on the microbiome and nitrogen fixation of a common moss species in sub-Arctic tundra

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Abstract

1. Bacterial communities form the basis of biogeochemical processes and determine plant growth and health. Mosses, an abundant plant group in Arctic ecosystems, harbour diverse bacterial communities that are involved in nitrogen fixation and carbon cycling. Global climate change is causing changes in aboveground plant biomass and shifting species composition in the Arctic, but little is known about the response of moss microbiomes.

2. Here, we studied the total and potentially active bacterial community associated with *Racomitrium lanuginosum*, in response to 20-year *in situ* warming in an Icelandic heathland. We evaluated the effect of warming and warming-induced shrub expansion on the moss bacterial community composition and diversity, *nifH* gene abundance and nitrogen-fixation rates.

3. Warming changed both the total and the potentially active bacterial community structure, while litter abundance only affected the total bacterial community structure. The relative abundance of Proteobacteria increased, while the relative abundance of Cyanobacteria and Acidobacteria decreased. *NifH* gene abundance and nitrogen-fixation rates were negatively affected by litter and *Betula nana* abundance, respectively. We also found shifts in the potentially nitrogen-fixing community, with *Nostoc* decreasing and non-cyanobacterial diazotrophs increasing in relative abundance. Our data suggests that the moss microbial community including the potentially nitrogen-fixing taxa is sensitive to future warming.

4. *Synthesis.* Long-term warming led to a shift in moss-associated bacterial community composition, while the abundance of nitrogen-fixing bacteria and nitrogen-fixation rates were negatively affected by increased litter and *Betula nana* abundance respectively. Warming and increased shrub abundance as a result of

26   warming can affect moss-associated bacterial communities and nitrogen fixation

27   rates in tundra ecosystems.

Keywords

29   Moss, microbiome, climate change, tundra, nitrogen fixation, shrub expansion

Introduction

Temperature in high-latitude regions is rising twice as fast as elsewhere (IPCC, 2019), which is predicted to have large impacts on Arctic ecosystems, for instance by altering species distributions and interactions (Van der Putten, 2012; Wookey et al., 2009). One such interaction that might be affected by warming is the association between mosses and bacterial communities as well as related ecosystem processes such as pedogenesis, carbon (C) cycling, and nitrogen (N) cycling.

Bryophytes, mosses in particular, comprise a large component of the vegetation in many high-latitude ecosystems (Longton, 1992). They play important roles in biogeochemical cycles by forming a C sink via their slow decomposition rates, by accounting for up to 7% of terrestrial net primary productivity and by supporting up to half of the terrestrial N_2-fixation (Cornelissen et al., 2007; 2012; Porada et al., 2013; Turetsky, 2003; Turetsky et al., 2012). Most mosses consist of a upper living segment with photosynthetic tissue and a lower decaying dead segment and thus link above-ground and belowground processes (Whiteley & Gonzalez, 2016). Mosses provide a habitat for a range of microbiota, microfauna and mesofauna (Lindo & Gonzalez, 2010). These moss-associated microorganisms are involved in the decomposition of dead moss tissue (Kulichevskaya et al., 2007) and some of them are active diazotrophs (Chen et al., 2019). N_2-fixation by moss-associated Cyanobacteria, the best studied of these diazotrophs, was shown to directly increase moss growth rates (Berg et al., 2013) and thereby control C sequestration in moss tissues. Moss-associated diazotrophy is also an important source of new available N in boreal and Arctic ecosystems (DeLuca et al., 2002; Rousk et al., 2017). In order to understand the implications of climate change for the role of mosses in ecosystem C and N cycling, we need to understand how moss-associated microbial communities react to elevated temperatures.

The bacterial community composition of mosses is species specific and influenced by

environmental factors such as pH and nutrient availability (Bragina, Berg, et al., 2012;

Holland□Moritz et al., 2018; Tang et al., 2016). While Cyanobacteria have received most of

the attention for their N_2-fixing capability (Berg et al., 2013; Gentili et al., 2005; Ininbergs et

al., 2011; Lindo et al., 2013; Rousk et al., 2013; Stewart, Lamb, et al., 2011; Warshan et al.,

2016, 2017), mosses harbour diverse bacterial communities. Commonly found phyla

associated with mosses include Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, Armatimonadetes,

Bacteroidetes, Cyanobacteria, Planctomycetes, Proteobacteria and Verrucomicrobia (Kostka

et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2016), and their potential functions include N_2-fixation (Bragina,

Maier, et al., 2012), anoxygenic phototrophy (Holland□Moritz et al., 2018) and freeze

protection (Raymond, 2016). The bacterial community composition of mosses has primarily

been studied for peat and feather mosses, but we know little about the bacterial communities

of other moss species. For instance, little is known about the bacterial community associated

with ecologically important moss species such as *Racomitrium lanuginosum* (Hedw.) Brid.

This moss species has a wide distribution at high altitudes in temperate regions of the

Northern and Southern Hemisphere and at low altitudes in the Arctic (Jonsdottir et al., 1995;

Tallis, 1995). It is a dominant species in many Icelandic ecosystems, forming dense mats

where conditions are favourable for colonisation and growth (Bjarnason, 1991;

Ingimundardóttir et al., 2014; Tallis, 1958).

Despite the importance of microbial communities for plant functioning and ecosystem

processes, the long-term effect of warming on moss microbial communities has received little

attention. Two studies describing the effect of four weeks to two years warming-related

changes in peat moss bacterial community composition, reported a decrease in overall

bacterial and diazotrophic diversity with higher temperatures *in situ* and under laboratory

conditions (Carrell et al., 2019; Kolton et al., 2019). Whether this warming-induced decrease

in diversity also holds for bacterial communities associated with other moss species in high

latitudes is unknown. Moreover, decades-long-warming effects on moss-associated bacterial

communities have yet to be explored.

Nonetheless, the effect of warming on some high-latitude plant communities has been

better documented, where for instance ambient and experimental warming (ranging from 5-43

years) in tundra heaths have resulted in shrub expansion (Bjorkman et al., 2020; Myers-Smith

et al., 2011; Myers☐Smith et al., 2019). The increase in deciduous dwarf shrubs, for example

Betula nana, led to an increase in the quantity of relatively high quality litter, resulting in a

faster turnover of the overall leaf litter C and N (McLaren et al., 2017). This warming-induced

change in litter quality and nutrient cycling might also affect the composition of microbial

communities (Deslippe et al., 2012). Indeed, changing litter inputs can consequently lead to

shifts in moss microbiomes (Jean et al., 2020). The increase in labile shrub litter may lead to

an increase in copiotrophic taxa and decrease in oligotrophic taxa (Fierer et al., 2007;

Wallenstein et al., 2007). Warming might thus also, indirectly, via a change in leaf litter

quality and quantity resulting from increasing shrub biomass, lead to changes in the bacterial

communities associated with the moss layer. Changes in bacterial community composition

could consequently affect N_2-fixation rates (Wu et al., 2020). In addition, N_2-fixation rates

can be expected to increase with temperature, as metabolic process rate in microorganisms

increases with temperature and the enzyme nitrogenase is more active at higher temperatures

than average Arctic temperatures (Houlton et al., 2008). Temperature-induced drought,

however, can inhibit N_2-fixation rates, especially cyanobacterial N_2-fixation (Rousk et al.,

2014, 2015, 2018; Stewart, Coxson, et al., 2011; Stewart et al., 2014; Stewart, Lamb, et al.,

2011; Whiteley & Gonzalez, 2016; Zielke et al., 2005). Indirect effects of temperature on N_2-

fixation rates might also be related to physiological adaptation of diazotrophic communities

(Whiteley & Gonzalez, 2016), or shifts to a species composition better suited to the new

conditions (Deslippe et al., 2005; Rousk et al., 2018; Rousk & Michelsen, 2017). Warming-

induced changes in bacterial species composition could potentially feedback to the

abundance, diversity and/or N_2-fixation activity of diazotrophs, through alteration of biotic

interactions between bacteria e.g. competition and/or cooperation (Ho et al., 2016). The

increase in shrubs might also affect N_2-fixation rates, either negatively via an increase in

shading leading to an decrease in N_2-fixation rates, or either inhibit or promote N_2-fixation

depending on the nutrient content of the litter (Rousk & Michelsen, 2017; Sorensen &

Michelsen, 2011).

In this study we investigated how two decades of experimental warming with open top

chambers impact the bacterial community and N_2-fixation rates associated with the prevailing

moss *R. lanuginosum* (Hedw.) Brid in a subarctic-alpine dwarf shrub heath in northern

Iceland, dominated by *B. nana*.

We hypothesised that long-term warming directly and/or indirectly via the warming-

induced increase in labile *B. nana* litter (1) leads to a shift in bacterial community

composition with a decrease in bacterial diversity and (2) leads to a decrease in oligotrophic

taxa and an increase in copiotrophic taxa. Further, we hypothesised (3) that changes in N_2-

fixation rates will depend on the combination of the direct effect of warming leading to an

increase in N_2-fixation rates and indirect effects of warming. These indirect effects include

shading leading to a decrease in N_2-fixation rates; increased litter leading to an increase or a

decrease in N_2-fixation rates; and/or changes in the bacterial community that could mediate

the effects of warming, shading and/or litter on N_2-fixation rates. To address these

hypotheses, we sampled *R. lanuginosum* in a warming simulation experiment in the northwest

highlands of Iceland that has been running for 20 years (Jonsdottir et al., 2005). We assessed

the associated bacterial community structure by 16S rRNA gene and rRNA amplicon

sequencing, N_2-fixation rates with acetylene reduction assays (ARA), and N_2-fixation

potential using quantitative PCR (qPCR) of the *nifH* gene encoding the iron-protein

component of the nitrogenase.

Methods

Field site and experimental design

The sampling was conducted in permanent plots of a long-term warming simulation

experiment at Auðkúluheiði in the northwest highlands of Iceland (65°16'N, 20°15'W, 480 m

above sea level). The site is a part of the International Tundra Experiment (ITEX; Henry and

Molau 1997) and according to Köppen's climate definitions, the sampling site is situated

within the lower Arctic (Köppen, 1931). The vegetation has been characterized as a relatively

species-rich dwarf shrub heath, with *B. nana* being the most dominant vascular species and

R. lanuginosum and *Cetraria islandica* as the dominating moss and lichen species (Jonsdottir

et al., 2005). The experimental site has been fenced off since 1996 to prevent sheep from

disturbing the experiment.

Ten plot pairs of 75x75 cm were selected and one of the plots in each pair was

randomly assigned to a warming treatment while the other served as a control. Open top

plexiglass chambers (OTCs) were set up in August 1996 and 1997 to simulate a warmer

summer climate and have been in place throughout the year ever since (Hollister & Webber,

2000; Jonsdottir et al., 2005). The temperature in the OTCs was on average 1.4 °C higher in

June 2016 to August 2016 and 0.22 °C higher from August 2018 to June 2019 (Table S1).

Relative humidity was -3 % lower in the OTCs in June 2016 to August 2016 (Table S1).

The vegetation responses were monitored by a detailed vegetation analysis after peak

biomass at a few year intervals using the point intercept method following standard protocols

of the International Tundra Experiment (Molau & Mølgaard, 1996): 100 points per plot, all

hits (intercepts) per species recorded in each point through the canopy; relates to biomass)

(Jonsdottir et al., 2005). In this study we use data from August 2014 on abundance (total

number of hits per plot) for *R. lanuginosum*, *B. nana* and litter to test hypotheses 1-3 (Table

S2). In 2014 the abundance of *R. lanuginosum* was on average 0.8 times lower in the warmed

plots than control plots, but not significantly, while the abundance of *B. nana* was 2.5 times

greater in the warm plots on average and litter was 2.7 times greater (Table S2).

RNA and DNA extraction and sequencing

To assess overall bacterial community structure and bacterial diversity (hypothesis 1

and 2) associated with *R. lanuginosum* we collected moss shoots, extracted DNA and RNA

and used 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. For RNA and DNA extraction we collected

R. lanuginosum moss shoots in June 2017. Per warmed (OTC) and control plot, five moss

shoots were collected with sterile tweezers. In total 50 OTC and 50 control samples were

collected. The moss shoots were immediately soaked in RNAlater (Ambion) to prevent RNA

degradation and kept cool until storage at -80 °C. Prior to extraction, the samples were rinsed

with RNase free water to remove soil particles and RNAlater and ground for six minutes

using a Mini-Beadbeater and two sterile steel beads. RNA and DNA were extracted

simultaneously using the RNeasy PowerSoil Total RNA Kit (Qiagen) and the RNeasy

PowerSoil DNA Elution Kit (Qiagen), following the manufacturer's instructions. DNA and

RNA concentrations were determined with a Qubit Fluorometer (Life Technologies) and

quality was assessed with a NanoDrop (NanoDrop Technologies) and Bioanalyzer (Agilent

Technologies). cDNA was synthesized using the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription

Kit (Thermofisher) following the manufacturer's instructions and quantified on a Qubit

Fluorometer (Life Technologies). All DNA extractions (100 samples) were used for qPCR.

From all DNA and cDNA samples, we selected 48 DNA samples (24 from each treatment)

and 48 cDNA samples (24 from each treatment) for sequencing based on RNA and DNA

quality and quantity. Library preparation and sequencing of the V3-V4 region of the 16S

rRNA gene on an Illumina MiSeq platform (2 x 300 bp) was performed by Macrogen, Seoul,

using MiSeq v3 reagents and the primer pair 337F/805R and the PCR conditions described in

(Klindworth et al., 2013).

Sequence processing

In order to obtain high-resolution data and to better discriminate ecological patterns,

we processed the raw sequences using the DADA2 (version 1.12.1) pipeline (Callahan et al.,

2016, 2017), which does not cluster sequences into operational taxonomic units (OTUs), but

uses exact sequences or amplicon sequence variants (ASVs). Forward reads were truncated at

260 bp and reverse reads at 250 bp. Assembled ASVs were assigned taxonomy using the

Ribosomal Database Project (RDP) naïve Bayesian classifier (Q. Wang et al., 2007) in

DADA2 and the SILVA_132 database (Quast et al., 2013). We removed samples with less

than 10.000 non-chimeric sequences (11 samples) and we removed ASVs assigned to

chloroplasts and mitochondria, singletons, as well as ASVs present in only one sample. In

total, for 85 samples, 3598 ASVs remained with an average read size of 448 bp after DADA2.

To account for uneven sequencing depths, the data were normalised using cumulative-sum

scaling (CSS) (Paulson et al., 2013). The 16S rRNA gene based community is hereafter

sometimes referred to as the 'total bacterial community' and the 16S rRNA (cDNA) based

community is hereafter referred to as the 'potentially metabolically active bacterial

community', acknowledging that 16S rRNA is not a direct indicator of activity but rather

protein synthesis potential (Blazewicz et al., 2013). Raw sequences are available in the

European Nucleotide Archive under accession number PRJEB40635.

Quantitative real-time PCR of nifH and 16S rRNA genes

We used the DNA samples (100 samples (50 control and 50 OTC samples)) for

quantification of *nifH* and 16S rRNA genes (to test hypothesis 3). This was performed by

quantitative PCR (Corbett Rotor-Gene) using the primer set PolF/PolR and 341F/534R

respectively (Poly et al., 2001). The specificity of the *nifH* primers for our samples was

confirmed by SANGER sequencing of 10 clone fragments. Standards for *nifH* reactions were

obtained by amplifying one cloned *nifH* sequence with flanking regions of the plasmid vector

(TOPO TA cloning Kit, Invitrogen). Standard curves were obtained by serial dilutions (E =

0.9 – 1.1, R^2 = > 0.99 for all reactions). Each reaction had a volume of 20 µL, containing 1x

QuantiFast SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Qiagen), 0.2 µL of each primer (10 µM), 0.8 µL

BSA (5 µg/µL), 6.8 µL RNase free water and 2 µL template. The cycling program was 5 min

at 95 °C, 30 cycles of 10 s at 95 °C and 30 s at 60 °C.

Acetylene reduction assays

We used acetylene reduction assays (ARA) to estimate N_2-fixation rate to test

hypothesis 3. We followed the procedure described in DeLuca et al. (2002) and Zackrisson et

al. (2004). We collected three moss shoots of 5 cm length per control plot and OTC in June

and August 2014. The three shoots per plot were analysed separately. The moss shoots were

placed in 20 mL vials with 2 mL deionized water. Moss shoots were acclimated in a growth

chamber for 24 h at 10 °C and 200 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} PAR. 10% of the headspace was replaced by

acetylene. After an additional 24 h of incubation in the growth chamber under the same

conditions, acetylene reduction and ethylene production were measured by gas

chromatography.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed in R (version 3.6.3). Richness (number of

ASVs) and Shannon diversity were calculated with the R packages 'vegan' (version 2.5-4)

(Oksanen et al., 2013) and 'phyloseq' (version 1.28.0) (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013).

Differences in N_2-fixation rates, 16S rRNA and *nifH* gene abundance, ASV richness and

Shannon diversity (hypothesis 1) between the control and warmed plots were assessed with

generalised linear mixed models using a Bayesian method that relies on Markov Chain Monte

Carlo (MCMC) iterations. In these models we treated treatment (control or OTC), *B. nana*

abundance and litter abundance as fixed factors and plot as a random factor to account for

repeated sampling within plots, using the R package 'MCMCglmm' (version 2.29) (Hadfield,

2010). For all models, we used as many iterations as necessary to allow for model

convergence and an effective sample size of at least 1000. Interferences of differences

between the control and warmed estimates were based on the posterior mode estimates and

the 95% Highest Posterior Density Credible Intervals.

We tested the effect of treatment, *B. nana* abundance and litter abundance on the

bacterial community composition with PERMANOVAs (Anderson, 2001). All

PERMANOVAs were based on Bray-Curtis distance matrices and were performed using the

adonis function in the R package 'vegan' (version 2.5-6). We also tested whether samples

taken from the same plot were similar to each other using PERMANOVAs. Plot indeed had a

significant effect on the cDNA-based bacterial community composition, but not on the DNA-

based bacterial community composition (Table S3 and S4). To reduce possible biases related

to samples coming from the same plot, we used plot as *strata* in the PERMANOVAs testing

the effect of treatment, *B. nana* abundance and litter abundance. In this way we controlled for

the variation caused by repeated sampling within plots by limiting permutations within plots.

The relative abundances of taxa on phylum, class and order level between the warmed

and the control samples (hypothesis 2) were tested using Wilcoxon rank-sum tests on plot

averages (samples from the same plot were pooled for this purpose) using the

stat_compare_means function from the R package 'ggpubr' (version 0.2.1) (Kassambara,

2020).

Two methods were used to determine taxa on ASV level sensitive to warming

(hypothesis 2). First, differential abundance of bacterial genera between warmed and control

samples was assessed using the DESeq2 procedure (Love et al., 2014) on the non-CSS

normalised datasets (with pseudoreplicates pooled per plot) with the R package 'DESeq2'

(version 1.24.0) (Love et al., 2014). The adjusted *P*-value cut-off was 0.1 (Love et al., 2014).

Differential abundance analysis only uses ASVs present in both the OTC and control samples.

The second method we used to find taxa sensitive to warming, was the indicator species

analysis. To find bacterial taxa indicative for the warming or the control treatment,

correlation-based indicator species analysis was done with all possible site combinations

using the function *multipatt* of the R package 'indicSpecies' (version 1.7.6) (De Caceres &

Legendre, 2009) based on 10^3 permutations. For this, we pooled all samples originating from

the same plot. The indicator species analysis takes into account ASVs present in both OTC

and control samples, but also ASVs present in only one of the treatments. We combined

results of the DESeq2 and indicator species analysis into a final list of ASVs sensitive to

warming. Data are presented as the number of significant ASVs identified in DESeq2 and/or

indicator species analysis and represented at the genus level.

To test hypothesis 3, we used structural equation modelling to estimate the direct and

indirect effects of warming on the bacterial community and the consequences for N_2-fixation.

The structural equation models were fitted using the R package 'lavaan' (version 0.6-7).

Initial models were constructed using current knowledge and hypotheses of effects of

warming on plant-microbe interactions and on N_2-fixation activities. As variables included in

the model, we used treatment, litter abundance, *B. nana* abundance, 16S rRNA abundance,

nifH abundance, N_2-fixation rates and 'bacterial community structure'. The latter is a latent

variable which consisted of the average of β-diversity and Shannon diversity index per plot

for the combined cDNA and DNA data. β-diversity was derived from the first axis of a PCoA

analysis. All variables were averaged per plot. We tested whether the model has a significant

model fit according to the following criteria: χ2/df < 2, P☐values (*P* > 0.05), root mean

square error of approximation (rmsea) < 0.07 and goodness of fit index (GFI) > 0.9 (Hooper

et al., 2008).

Results

Treatment effect on bacterial diversity and community structure

The richness and Shannon diversity of the DNA-based and the cDNA-based bacterial

communities did not differ significantly between control and OTC samples (Figs 1a-1d, Table

S3). However, we found a negative effect of *B. nana* abundance on the richness and Shannon

diversity of the cDNA-based bacterial community (richness: pMCMC = 0.004; Shannon

diversity pMCMC = 0.01, Figs 1c-1d).

The PERMANOVA showed that treatment significantly influenced the DNA- and the

cDNA-based community compositions of the moss (DNA: R^2 = 0.05, and *P* < 0.001 and

cDNA: R^2 = 0.04, and *P* < 0.001; Table S6 and S7). In addition to the warming treatment,

litter abundance also significantly influenced the DNA-based bacterial community

composition (R^2 = 0.03, *P* = 0.05), but not the cDNA-based bacterial community composition

(Table S6 and S7).

Taxonomic composition R. lanuginosum-associated bacterial communities

In the control samples, where bacterial communities were under ambient

environmental conditions, the most abundant phyla in the DNA and cDNA samples included

Proteobacteria (44% and 40% average relative abundance across all control DNA and cDNA

samples respectively), followed by Acidobacteria (DNA: 29%, cDNA: 23%), Actinobacteria

(DNA: 8%, cDNA: 15%), Cyanobacteria (DNA: 7%, cDNA: 2%), Planctomycetes (DNA:

4%, cDNA: 2%), Bacteroidetes (DNA: 4%, cDNA: 4%), Verrucomicrobia (DNA: 2%,

cDNA: 3%) and Armatimonadetes (DNA: 2%, cDNA: 2%) (Fig. 2a). The most abundant

Proteobacterial class were Alphaproteobacteria (DNA: 29%, cDNA: 31%) (Fig. 2b).

Acetobacterales (DNA: 15%, cDNA: 21%), Myxococcales (DNA: 12%, cDNA: 7%),

Caulobacterales (DNA: 6%, cDNA 3%) and Rhizobiales (DNA: 6%, cDNA 5%) were the

most abundant orders of the Proteobacteria (Fig. S1). The order Acetobacterales was

dominated by the genus *Acidiphilium* (DNA: 5%, cDNA 8%), the order Myxococcales was

dominated by the genus *Haliangium* (DNA: 4%, cDNA 3%) (Fig. S2).

The Acidobacteria were dominated by the orders Acidobacteriales (DNA: 17%, cDNA

16%) and Solibacterales (DNA: 11%, cDNA: 7%) (Fig. S1). The Acidobacteriales were

dominated by the genus *Granulicella* (DNA: 11%, cDNA: 7%). The Solibacterales were

dominated by the genera *Bryobacter* (DNA: 5%, cDNA 2%) and *Candidatus* Solibacter

(DNA: 6%, cDNA: 5%) (Fig. S3).

Actinobacteria mainly comprised the orders Solirubrobacterales (DNA: 5%, cDNA:

8%) and Frankiales (DNA: 2%, cDNA: 4%) (Fig. S1).

Cyanobacteria were dominated by the genera *Nostoc* (DNA: 5%, cDNA: 2%) and

Stigonema (DNA: 1%, cDNA 0.1%) (Fig. S4).

Treatment effect on the relative abundances of bacterial taxa on phylum, class and order

level

We compared the relative abundances of taxa on phylum, class and order level in the

controls with the warmed samples from the OTCs (Fig. 2 and Fig. S1). On phylum level,

Acidobacteria (Wilcoxon rank-sum test, $P = 0.008$), Cyanobacteria ($P = 0.03$) and

Gemmatimonadetes ($P = 0.02$) decreased in relative abundance with warming, while

Proteobacteria ($P = 0.04$) increased in relative abundance in the DNA-based bacterial

communities (Fig. 2a). We did not detect significant changes in the cDNA-based bacterial

communities on phylum level.

On class level, Acidobacteriia ($P = 0.01$), Gemmatimonadetes ($P = 0.02$), and

Oxyphotobacteria ($P = 0.03$) decreased in relative abundance under warming in the DNA-

based bacterial communities, while Gammaproteobacteria ($P = 0.04$) increased in relative

abundance in the DNA- and the cDNA-based bacterial communities (Fig. 2b).

At the order level, Betaproteobacteriales (DNA: $P = 0.04$, cDNA: $P = 0.005$) and

Micrococcales (DNA: $P = 0.007$, cDNA: $P = 0.0007$) had a higher relative abundance in the

warmed DNA- and cDNA-based bacterial communities (Fig. S1). Acidobacteriales (DNA: P

$= 0.03$, cDNA: $P = 0.04$) showed a lower relative abundance in the warmed DNA- and

cDNA-based bacterial communities (Fig. S1). In addition, in the DNA-based bacterial

communities, Sphingobacterales ($P = 0.05$) and Cytophagales ($P = 0.02$) increased in relative

abundance under warming. Nostocales ($P = 0.03$) decreased in relative abundance under

warming. In the cDNA-based bacterial communities, the orders Sphingomonadales ($P = 0.02$)

and Rhizobiales ($P = 0.02$) increased in relative abundance under warming, while

Acetobacterales ($P = 0.05$) decreased in relative abundance under warming (Fig. S1).

Treatment related shifts in the relative abundance of ASVs

For the bacterial communities in the DNA-based analysis, DESeq2 and indicator

species analysis combined revealed 23 ASVs significantly higher in relative abundance under

warming and 122 ASVs with higher relative abundance in the controls (Table S8). The

strongest indicator species for the control plots corresponded to the taxa that were more

abundant in the control plots according the DESeq2 analysis. ASVs with increased relative

abundance in the warmed samples belonged to the genera *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-*

Pararhizobium-Rhizobium,   Nitrobacter   (Alphaproteobacteria),   and   *Galbitalea*

(Actinobacteria). ASVs with increased relative abundance in the controls belonged to the

genera *Acidipila*, *Bryocella*, *Bryobacter*, *Candidatus* Solibacter and *Granulicella*

(Acidobacteria), *Acidiphilium*, *Endobacter,* and *Bradyrhizobium* (Alphaproteobacteria),

Nostoc (Cyanobacteria), and *Conexibacter* (Actinobacteria) (Fig. 3 and Table S8).

For the bacterial communities in cDNA-based analysis, we detected 54 potentially

active ASVs with higher abundance in the control plots and 14 potentially active ASVs more

abundant in the warmed plots (Fig. 3, Table S9). ASVs more abundant in the control plots

belonged to the genera *Acidipila*, *Bryocella*, *Granulicella* (Acidobacteria), *Nostoc*

(Cyanobacteria) and *Acidiphilium* (Alphaproteobacteria). ASVs more abundant under

warming belonged to the genera *Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium*,

Nitrobacter, *Sphingomonas* (Alphaproteobacteria), *Galbitalea* (Actinobacteria), and

Rhizobacter (Gammaproteobacteria) (Fig. 3, Table S8).

Treatment effect on 16S rRNA gene and nifH gene copy numbers and nitrogen fixation

rates

No significant difference was found in the 16S rRNA gene and *nifH* gene abundance

between the control and warmed samples (Figs 1e-1f, Table S3). However, litter abundance

negatively affected *nifH* gene abundance (pMCMC = 0.04, Fig. 1f) and *B. nana* abundance

tended to positively influence 16S rRNA gene abundance (pMCMC = 0.072, Fig. 1e).

We did not find any differences between N_2-fixation rates (expressed as produced

ethylene) in the control and warmed plots in June or August 2014 (Figs 1g-1h, Table S3).

However, N_2-fixation in control and warmed plots in August was significantly lower

(pMCMC < 0.001) than in June (Fig. 1i). We also found a significant negative correlation

between *B. nana* abundance and N_2-fixation activities measured in August (pMCMC = 0.04,

Fig. 1h).

Relationships between treatment, plant biomass, bacterial community structure and N$_2$-

fixation

To explore the direct and indirect linkages between warming, *B. nana* and litter

abundance, bacterial community structure and N$_2$-fixation, we constructed a structural

equation model (SEM) (Fig. 4, Table S10). We found that warming was directly associated

with changes in bacterial community structure and positively correlated with increased of *B.*

nana abundance. The direct effect of *B. nana* was stronger than the direct effect of treatment

on the bacterial community (-1.2 versus 0.79 standardized regression coefficients). Changes

in the bacterial community structure were also indirectly associated with warming through

variation in *B. nana* abundance.

The strongest positive effect detected was warming treatment on the bacterial

community structure and the strongest negative effect was *B. nana* abundance on bacterial

community structure (Fig. 4, Table S10).

Discussion

Mosses form an important C and N sink in high latitudes and their associated bacterial

communities are, to a large extent, responsible for N inputs and organic matter decomposition

in these environments. Elucidation of the effect of warming on moss-associated bacterial

communities will help to understand how climate change affects C and N cycling driven by

the bacterial component of mosses in high-latitude ecosystems. We assessed the effect of

long-term (20 years) warming by open-top chambers (OTCs) on bacterial communities and

N$_2$-fixation associated with the moss *R. lanuginosum* at a tundra site in the highlands of

Iceland. Overall, our results suggest that moss-associated bacterial communities are sensitive

to long-term experimental warming and the associated plant community change, which

caused changes in structure and composition. The abundance of bacteria and diazotrophs

however, appeared to be unaffected by warming and, consistent with this finding, no effect on

N_2-fixation rates was observed. However, bacterial taxa that benefitted from the warming

treatment almost exclusively belonged to groups involved in N-cycling, which might indicate

changes in N turnover and usage of this important nutrient for Arctic ecosystem productivity.

Effect of warming on the moss-associated bacterial community structure

The average temperature increase induced by the OTCs may seem small (1-2°C), but a

temperature increase in this range can affect microbial growth rate, respiration, C uptake and

turnover (Walker et al., 2018). In addition, the effect of the OTC treatment is a long-term (20-

year) disturbance, which has shown a clear effect on the vegetation structure and biomass

(Jonsdottir et al., 2005) and thereby also leads to indirect effects of warming on the microbial

community.

The richness and Shannon diversity of the total and potentially metabolically active

bacterial community were not significantly affected by 20 years of warming. These results

contrast with our first hypothesis and with trends of decreasing richness and diversity in

Sphagnum moss observed by Carrell et al. (2017) and by Kolton et al. (2019). *R. lanuginosum*

has a much lower water holding capacity than *Sphagnum* (Elumeeva et al., 2011), a different

physiology and grows in heathlands and therefore *R. lanuginosum* might react differently to

warming. In addition, while our study describes the effect of 20 years warming *in situ*, those

previous studies on *Sphagnum* were much shorter such as a four week laboratory (Kolton et

al., 2019) and two years *in situ* experimental warming study (Carrell et al., 2019).

Nevertheless, we found that warming altered the bacterial community structure, even though

only a small part of the variation could be directly explained by the warming treatment.

Warming correlated with an increase in shrub and litter abundance and a decrease in moss

abundance, as already observed in the site after 3-4 years of warming (Jonsdottir et al., 2005).

Indeed, a small part of the variation of the total bacterial community could be attributed to

litter abundance, which also negatively affected the richness and diversity of the potentially

active bacterial community. In addition, the SEM showed that the bacterial community

structure was indirectly correlated with warming via changes in *B. nana* abundance, and

indirectly via the combined effect of *B. nana* and litter abundance. The effect of the increase

in *B. nana* abundance as result of warming was stronger than the direct effect of warming on

the bacterial community structure.

Warming-induced changes in environmental factors such as lower moss layer

thickness, higher soil organic matter content, lower soil moisture (Björnsdóttir, 2018;

Jonsdottir et al., 2005), or other not measured variables such as leaf nutrient content (Koyama

et al., 2018; Sayer et al., 2017; Vandenkoornhuyse et al., 2015) could also contribute to the

variation in bacterial communities between moss shoots.

We did not find an effect of warming on the 16S rRNA gene abundance, but *B. nana*

abundance was correlated with an increase in 16S rRNA gene abundance. However, as we are

not sure about the degree of bias towards chloroplast and mitochondrial DNA of the 16S

rRNA gene primers in our samples, we cannot conclude that the bacterial load is indeed

affected by *B. nana* abundance.

Effect of warming on moss-associated bacterial taxa

The total and potentially active bacterial community of *R. lanuginosum* was dominated by

Proteobacteria and Acidobacteria, whereas Actinobacteria, Cyanobacteria, Planctomycetes,

Bacteroidetes and Verrucomicrobia were present in lower abundances. In agreement with the

bacterial community composition of boreal moss species (Holland□Moritz et al., 2018) and

Sphagnum species (Bragina, Berg, et al., 2012), *R. lanuginosum* also showed a high

abundance of the Proteobacterial order Acetobacerales and the Acidobacterial order

Acidobacteriales.

We analysed changes in relative abundances in several ways to better understand the

warming response of the moss bacterial community. This revealed changes in the relative

abundances of taxa on phylum, class, order and ASV levels. We hypothesized that the

warming-induced increase in labile *B. nana* litter (Jonsdottir et al., 2005) would lead to a

decrease in slow-growing, more oligotrophic taxa, while fast-growing copiotrophic taxa

would increase in relative abundance. Our data show indications for a decrease in the relative

abundance of oligotrophic taxa in response to warming, such as Acidobacteria (and more

specific ASVs of the genera *Granulicella*, *Solibacter*, *Bryocella*, *Bryobacter* and *Acidipila*)

(Dedysh & Sinninghe Damsté, 2018; Fierer et al., 2007) and the Alphaproteobacterial genus

Acidiphilium (Hiraishi & Imhoff, 2015). Acidobacteria often dominate tundra soils (Männistö

et al., 2013), especially environments with high concentrations of phenolic compounds, (for

instance in *Sphagnum* peat (Pankratov et al., 2011) and *Empetrum* heath (Gallet et al., 1999;

Männistö et al., 2013)). In shrub tundra dominated by *B. nana* and *Salix* species,

Proteobacteria dominate the soil bacterial community (Wallenstein et al., 2007). In our study,

the increase in the relative abundance of Proteobacteria (more specifically the genera

Rhizobacter, *Nitrobacter* and *Rhizobium*) associated with *R. lanuginosum* in the warmed plots

could thus be due to the increase in dwarf shrub biomass and labile litter, selecting for

copiotrophic taxa, such as Rhizobiales (Starke et al., 2016). Some oligotrophic taxa with

increased abundance in the warmed conditions such as Sphingomonadales and ASVs of the

Caulobacterales (Garrity et al., 2015) could be involved in degradation of more recalcitrant

plant organic matter (McGenity, 2019; Starke et al., 2016). Caulobacterales has for instance

been shown to be able to degrade lignin (Wilhelm et al., 2019), which can be found in high

concentrations in *B. nana* roots and leaves (McLaren et al., 2017). An increase in *B. nana*

litter likely increases the rate of C fluxes (Parker et al., 2018), and this may partly be due to a

shift towards faster growing copiotrophic bacterial taxa, at least in the moss layer.

While the overall warming-induced changes in bacterial phylotypes for the total and

the potentially active bacterial community were similar, we found that the total bacterial

community reacted more strongly to warming than the potentially active bacterial community

in terms of changes in relative abundance of the number of phyla, classes and ASVs. This

difference may be explained by a difference in drivers for the total and potentially

metabolically active bacteria, with changes in total bacterial community structure reflecting

long-term drivers, while the active bacterial community may reflect short-term differences

between OTC and controls (Y. Wang et al., 2020).

Implications of warming for the moss bacterial community involved in N-cycling

Our results of the bacterial structure and composition revealed that warming induced

changes in relative abundances of several taxa potentially involved in N-cycling. Here, it

appears that these taxa involved in the first steps of the N-cycle (entrance of new N through

N_2-fixation and production of nitrate from nitrite) are altered by warming. Although we did

not explicitly target the N_2-fixing or nitrifying community by sequencing in this study, we

found indications for changes in the relative abundance of potentially N_2-fixing and nitrifying

taxa. In particular, the relative abundance of Cyanobacteria decreased. At the genus level, this

was characterized by the lower abundance of the genus *Nostoc*. The vast majority of taxa that

exclusively increased in abundance and had a higher potential metabolic activity under

warming belong to groups capable of N_2-fixation (*Sphingomonas*, *Allorhizobium-*

Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium, *Rhizobacter*) and nitrification (*Nitrobacter*).

However, neither *nifH* gene abundance nor N_2-fixation rates were directly affected by

warming. This is in agreement with the general response of N_2-fixation and abundances of

nifH genes to warming in cold ecosystems (Salazar et al., 2019), where N_2-fixation and

abundances of *nifH* genes are unresponsive and nitrification rates increase under warming

treatments. The apparent lack of response in N_2-fixation rates to warming may be due to a

combination of several direct and indirect effects of warming on N_2-fixation rates

counterbalancing each other: the shift in the potentially N_2-fixing community towards taxa

better adapted to the new environment and thereby compensating for the decrease in

Cyanobacteria in our study, the negative effect of drier conditions due to the warming

treatment (Rousk et al., 2018; Whiteley & Gonzalez, 2016), the direct positive effect of

warming (Rousk & Michelsen, 2017) and the negative effect of shading due to increasing

shrub cover (Sorensen et al., 2012) and the positive or negative effect of fertilization by shrub

litter (Rousk & Michelsen, 2017; Sorensen & Michelsen, 2011). The SEM however did not

indicate any links between the warming treatment, the bacterial community structure, litter

and *B. nana* abundance to *nifH* gene abundance or N_2-fixation rates. One reason for this could

be that a degree of functional compensation occurs through the shift in the diazotrophic

community with warming. Nevertheless, the findings are supporting hypothesis 3, and *nifH*

gene abundance was negatively affected by litter abundance and N_2-fixation rates in August

were negatively affected by *B. nana* abundance, indicating the presence of indirect effects of

warming on N_2-fixation. N_2-fixation rates in August were also lower than in June in both

OTCs and control plots, maybe due to an increase of the effect of shading in August as

indicated by the effect of *B. nana*. It may also have been drier in August, or it could be due to

a seasonal shift in the N_2-fixing bacterial community (Warshan et al., 2016).

Finally, it is important to note that *R. lanuginosum* biomass tends to decrease in the

warmed plots (Björnsdóttir, 2018; Jonsdottir et al., 2005, Table S2). Thus considering that in

our study N_2-fixation rates are expressed per gram moss, warming would consequently lead to

a reduction of the total amount of N_2 fixed per unit area in this tundra ecosystem.

Our study is among the first to assess the effect of long-term (20 years) experimental

warming with OTCs on the bacterial part of a moss microbiome. Our results showed no direct

response of N_2-fixation rates and *nifH* gene abundance to warming. However, long-term

warming led to changes in the bacterial community composition. On ASV level, these

changes were characterized by a decrease in the relative abundance of Cyanobacteria and an

increase in abundance and potential metabolic activity of non-cyanobacterial diazotrophs,

which may explain the lack of response of N_2-fixation to warming. Our results also showed

that warming-induced changes in the surrounding vegetation structure can affect moss-

associated bacterial communities, thus underlining the importance of indirect effects of long-

term warming. The bacterial community associated with the moss might thus be sensitive to

future warming, with potential implications for N_2-fixation rates, moss growth and C

sequestration.

Funding

This work was supported by the MicroArctic Innovative Training Network grant supported by the European Commissions's Horizon 2020 Marie Sklodowska-Curie Actions program [grant number 675546] and the Energy Research Fund [grants to ISJ, numbers 08-2013, NÝR-09-2014].

Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. Ólafur S. Andrésson, Dr. Marie-Charlotte Nilsson, and Dr. Matthias Zielke for help and advice on the RNA and DNA extractions and the ARAs. We would also like to thank Quentin J.B. Horta-Lacueva for advice on the statistical analysis.

Competing Interests

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any conflict of interest.

Author contributions

IJK, AJRC, ISJ and OV designed the study. IJK, AJRC and CK performed the research. IJK analysed the data and wrote the paper with input from AJRC, CK, DW, ADJ, ISJ and OV.

Data availability

Raw sequences are available in the European Nucleotide Archive under accession number PRJEB40635.

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Figure 1 Fixed effect structure of the linear mixed-effect models testing the effect of treatment (warmed and control), *Betula nana* abundance and litter abundance on a) DNA-based richness and b) Shannon diversity, c) cDNA-based richness and d) Shannon diversity, e) 16 rRNA gene abundance, f) *nifH* gene abundance, N_2-fixation rate g) in June, h) in August and i) fixed effect structure of the linear mixed-effect model testing the difference between N_2-fixation rates in June and August. Non-overlapping 95% High Posterior Density Credible Interval (95% CrI) are used to detect significant differences between effects. Parameters with 50% CrI overlapping 0 are indicated by open circles. Parameters with 50% CrI not overlapping 0, but with 95% CrI overlapping 0 are indicated by closed black circles. Thick lines represent 50% CrI and thin lines represent 95% CrI.

Figure 2 Boxplots of the relative abundances of (A) phyla and (B) classes in DNA and cDNA based bacterial communities associated with the moss *R. lanuginosum*. Boxplots represent minimum values, first quartiles, medians, third quartiles and maximum values. Significance levels (* < 0.05, ** < 0.01) are based on Wilcoxon rank sum tests.

Figure 3 Number of ASVs (amplicon sequence variants) per genus sensitive to warming for DNA and cDNA based bacterial communities associated with the moss *R. lanuginosum*. Sensitivity was determined by differential abundance analysis (DESeq2) and indicator species analysis. ASVs not assigned to genus level are labelled 'NA' and 'Allo-Neo-Para-Rhizobium' refers to 'Allorhizobium-Neorhizobium-Pararhizobium-Rhizobium'.

Figure 4 Structural equation model of relationships between warming, *Betula nana* and litter abundance, moss-associated bacterial community and N_2-fixation. A latent variable (bacterial community structure) was computed to represent β-diversity and Shannon diversity index for each plot. χ2 = 2.896, *P*-value = 0.894, df = 7, GFI = 0.982, RMSEA = 0, TLI = 1.202. Positive significant effects are represented in black and negative significant effects in red. The strength of the effect is visualized by the width of the arrow. The R^2-value represents the proportion of total variance explained for the specific dependent variable. Dash□line arrows indicate non-significant effects. Standardized path coefficients are presented in Table S3.