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Home field advantage of litter decomposition in pure and mixed plantations under boreal climate Mathilde Chomel^{1,3}*, Marie Guittonny-Larchevêque², Annie DesRochers³, Virginie Baldy¹

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16	Statement of authorship
17	AD and MGL were leaders of the global project. All authors participated to the design of the

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21 Abstract

Tree species can affect the decomposition process by promoting *mposer* communities 22 adapted both to litter quality and to soil proclimatic conditions. Thus, plant litter could 23 decompose faster when placed in the habitat from which it was derived than in a foreign 24 25 habitat, which has been termed home field advantage (HFA) of litter decomposition. In 26 mixed-plant species environments however, it is not known whether a specific decomposer 27 community under one tree species is affected by the presence of another tree species in the 28 vicinity. To address this question, we tested if spruce and poplar litters showed HFA in mono-29 specific and in mixed species plantations under each tree species by reciprocally transplanting 30 litter in the two plantation types. Decomposition rates, as well as the composition and ability 31 of decomposer communities to degrade the different types of litter, were monitored during 32 two years. Only spruce litter exhibited a faster decomposition rate at home. This HFA could 33 be explained by higher abundance of decomposers. Furthermore, cellulose was less 34 decomposed in this environment, suggesting that soil communities of mono-specific spruce 35 plantations were more able to decompose relatively recalcitrant litter, but they were less able 36 to decomposing more "simple" substrates. In mixed plantations, there was no more HFA, but this "mixed environment" had synergistic effects on decomposition rates under poplar trees. 37 38 These 'tree environment-specific' results highlighted the possible importance of spatial 39 distribution of each litter on decomposition rates in mixed stands. Thus the influence of litter 40 dispersal should be taken into account in future studies.

41 Keywords: litter decomposition, white spruce, hybrid poplar, cellulose, home field
42 advantage, mites, collembola, microorganisms, reciprocal transplant, mixed plantation

43 Introduction

44 Litter decomposition is a key functional process in ecosystems, determined by the interaction 45 between resource quality and decomposers, both controlled by the environment (climatic and 46 soil conditions) (Hobbie et al., 2006). However, mechanisms underlying relationships between the composition of decomposer communities, that carry out specific decomposition 47 48 functions, and plant species that provide specific quality of resources and microenvironmental 49 conditions, remain poorly understood. Evidence is growing that litter tends to decompose 50 more rapidly in the habitat from which it was derived (*i.e.*, home, under the plant species 51 producing the litter) than in other habitats (*i.e.*, away, under another plant species), which has 52 been termed the "home field advantage" (HFA) of litter decomposition (Hunt et al., 1988; 53 Gholz et al., 2000; Ayres et al., 2006; Vivanco and Austin, 2008; Ayres et al., 2009a; Ayres et 54 al., 2009b; Strickland et al., 2009; Veen et al., 2014). Therefore, the composition of soil 55 decomposer communities should differ between areas that are dominated by different plant 56 species due to adaptations, both to local microenvironments of the forest floor (habitat effect) 57 and to the chemical composition of the litter (resource effect) (Wardle and van der Putten, 58 2002; Ayres et al., 2009b; Wang et al., 2013). Low-quality litters that contain highly 59 recalcitrant (as lignin or tannins) or toxic compounds (as secondary metabolites, terpenoids, 60 phenolics), might generate a larger HFA since fewer soil communities would include biota 61 that are able to degrade these compounds, in contrast to higher quality litters (Ayres et al., 62 2009a; Strickland et al., 2009). However, a faster decomposition of litter in its "home" could 63 also be due to an overall greater functional ability of organisms to decompose litter substrate 64 rapidly, regardless of environment and substrates (Keiser et al., 2014).

65 Past studies measuring HFA did not estimate ability of decomposers and so did not

66 disentangle HFA from other factors. Indeed, it is important to separate a real HFA, i.e. the

67 adaptation of organisms to decompose litter at "home", and the ability of organisms to

68 decompose all types of litter. To study the habitat effect (environmental conditions) created 69 by a plant community on litter decomposition, the relative importance of these two mechanisms should be addressed. The ability of organisms to decompose a certain litter type 70 71 in one tree community has been largely explored, but the results are contradictory depending 72 on trees species and quality of the litter (Ball et al., 2008; Vivanco and Austin, 2008). The 73 majority of studies have focused on HFA effect for single-species leaf litter in monospecific 74 forests or in neutral environments (*i.e.* common gardens). However, in mixed tree species 75 environments, it is not clear whether a specific decomposer community found under one tree species in monospecific stand is similar or modified by the presence of another tree species in 76 77 the vicinity. Thus we do not know the relative effect of having more than one species in a 78 stand on HFA and plant-decomposers interactions. Moreover, the few studies that have 79 addressed the effect of mixing plant species on decomposition have used litterbags placed 80 equidistantly from one tree species to another (Chapman and Koch, 2007; Vivanco and 81 Austin, 2008; Wang et al., 2009; Berger and Berger, 2014), neglecting to consider the 82 possibly differing spatial influence of each tree species in the mixture. Thus, we do not know 83 how particular tree species (e.g. broadleaved vs conifers) may affect adaptation or sorting of decomposer communities through differences in litter quality and/or microclimatic conditions. 84 85 Differences in litter quality among tree species can indeed lead to a spatial patterning of soil 86 organisms and processes (Saetre and Baath, 2000; Ettema and Wardle, 2002; De Deyn and 87 van der Putten, 2005). In order to advance our understanding in mechanisms underlying the 88 home field advantage (HFA), we used monospecific and mixed species plantations of poplar 89 and spruce and combine litter decomposition measurements with measures of microbial and 90 mesofauna community composition (including detritivorous and predators) and microbial 91 functioning. Furthermore, we applied the HFA approach in mixed forest stands by accounting 92 for the influence of each species in the mixture. We also calculated for the first time a net

effect of mixing tree species on decomposition (i.e., net effect of the plant community), rather 93 94 than net effect of mixing litters (Wardle et al., 1997; Gartner and Cardon, 2004; Hättenschwiler et al., 2005), allowing us to measure if decomposition is different from that 95 96 expected from the additive decomposition of the species present in the mixture. If decomposer 97 communities from each monospecific tree environment were maintained under each tree 98 species in mixed stands (*i.e.* similar HFA in monospecific and mixed plantations), we should 99 observe non-additive effects of litter decomposition in mixed stands, positive under the 100 corresponding tree species, and negative under the other tree species. Conversely, if 101 decomposer communities are homogenized in mixed stands (i.e. no HFA) and decompose 102 each tree litter at a similar rate than the mean decomposition rate found in monospecific 103 stands, we should observe an additive effect of mixing tree species. This study deals with 104 reciprocal litter transplantation between monospecific and mixed-species plantations of poplar 105 and spruce established ten years ago in three replicate-sites side by side, thereby minimizing 106 differences in climatic and soil parameters (Prescott and Grayston, 2013). The main objective 107 of this study was to compare the effects that poplar and spruce trees exert on soil communities 108 (microorganisms and mesofauna) and on the litter decomposition process in monospecific and 109 mixed plantations. In addition to the HFA measurement for poplar and spruce litter, we 110 measured the overall decomposition 'ability' of soil communities with a "standard litter" (i.e. 111 cellulose) which was placed under and between trees in each plantation type. This substrate 112 was used to measure the decomposition potential of the substrates by soil communities and 113 avoid any home-field advantage (sensu Hunt et al., 1988)

114 The following hypotheses were addressed:

115 H1) There is a HFA for litter decomposition in spruce and poplar mono-specific plantations

116 due to the specialization of soil communities that decompose their "home" litter;

H2) HFA is more pronounced for the low-quality spruce litter compared to higher-qualitypoplar litter (Ayres et al., 2009b);

H3) HFA is maintained in mixed plantations for litter placed under its corresponding tree
species. In this case, we should observe non-additive effect of mixing tree species, positive for
the litter under its corresponding trees, and negative under the other tree species in mixed
stands.

123 H4) Spruce and poplar litters, and a standard substrate (cellulose) decompose more rapidly in

124 the mixed plantations since their decomposer communities are potentially more diverse

125 Methods

126 Site description

127 The study was located in the boreal region of Abitibi-Témiscamingue, Québec, Canada. Three 128 sites were selected for the study: Amos (48°36'N, 78°04'W), Rivière Héva (48°11'N, 129 78°16'W), and Nédelec (47°45'N, 79°22'W). The Amos site was abandoned farmland with a 130 heavy clay soil that was dominated by grasses and sparse patches of alder (Alnus incana [L.] 131 Moench ssp. rugosa [Du Roi] R.T. Clausen), willow (Salix spp.), and trembling aspen 132 (Populus tremuloides Michaux). Rivière Héva was an abandoned farmland site with heavy 133 clay soil, which was also dominated by shrubs, including patches of alder, willow, and 134 trembling aspen. Nédelec had been previously dominated by trembling aspen forest, which 135 was commercially harvested in 2000. This last site was characterized by soils with a sandy 136 loam texture. Based on the 30-year running climate average (1970-2000), Amos and Rivière 137 Héva receive an annual mean 918 mm of precipitation (Amos station) and have a mean 138 temperature of 1.2 °C, while Nédelec has mean precipitation of 916 mm year⁻¹ and a mean 139 temperature of 1.9 °C (Remigny station, Environment Canada 2014). Site preparation was 140 conducted in 2002, where tree stumps were removed and soils were ploughed to a depth of

141 about 30 cm. The plantations were established in 2003, using one hybrid poplar clone 142 (Populus maximowiczii A.Henry x P. balsamifera L., clone MB915319), and an improved 143 white spruce family (Picea glauca [Moench] Voss). These two species were planted in both 144 mono-specific and mixed species plots under two spacings, i.e., 1×1 m and 3×3 m. For the 145 mixed plantation, each row consisted of spruce alternating with poplar. Each experimental 146 unit contained 36 trees (6×6 trees). The experiment was designed as a randomized block 147 design with three blocks (replicates = sites), three plantation types (pure poplar, pure spruce 148 and mixed), and two spacings $(1 \times 1 \text{ m and } 3 \times 3 \text{ m})$. Through this paper, we have divided 149 mixed plantations into mixed-spruce (under spruce trees) and mixed-poplar (under poplar 150 trees) plantations.

151 *Litter decomposition experiment*

152 In late September 2010, spruce needles and poplar leaves were collected from plantations 153 surrounding the study sites. Abscission of needles or leaves in which senescence was 154 complete was aided by shaking the trees, and the fallen needles/leaves were collected on a 155 plastic sheet that was placed on the ground beneath the trees to prevent contamination with 156 soil. Collected leaf material was homogenized and stored at room temperature prior to the 157 experiment. A subsample of each species was oven-dried at 60 °C to establish the 158 relationships between air-dried and oven-dried mass. Seven grams (air-dried) of either poplar or spruce litter were placed in 1-mm mesh litter bags (15 x 15 cm for poplar litter; 10×15 cm 159 160 for spruce litter) to allow colonization by soil mesofauna and microbes, while excluding 161 macrofauna (Swift et al., 1979). We used pairs of litterbags with one bag being used for 162 chemical and microbial measurements and the other for mesofauna extraction. To prevent 163 losses of spruce needles through the net mesh during handling and travel, a sheet of paper was 164 inserted into each litterbag with spruce needles. These paper sheets were removed just before 165 closing the litterbags and placing them on the soil surface. Dimensions of the litterbags

166 containing spruce needles were smaller than those for poplar leaves, to create similar litter167 incubation conditions among litter types and to prevent needle losses.

168 To optimize the influence of trees on the decomposition process, this experiment was 169 performed in the 1 x 1 m spacing plantations. In November 2010, 12 pairs of litterbags filled 170 with poplar litter and 12 pairs of litterbags filled with spruce litter were randomly deposited 171 around 12 trees in each mono-specific plantation (pure poplar and pure spruce). In mixed 172 plantations, 24 pairs of litterbags of each litter were placed, half under poplar trees and half 173 under spruce trees (Figure 1). The litter bags were placed equidistantly one from each other 174 around trees approximately 15 - 25 cm away from the stem but under the overlapping of tree 175 crowns on the ground where soil accumulation of litter was maximum. This was repeated at 176 the 3 sites (replicates), resulting in a total of 576 litterbags (12 pairs x 2 litter bags x 2 litter 177 species x 4 plantations types x 3 sites). Litterbags were placed on the experimental sites on 9– 178 10 November 2010. Freshly fallen litter was removed from the surface of the forest floor prior to placing the litterbags on the ground surface, and then replaced over the litterbags. 179 180 Litterbags were fixed with one galvanized nail to prevent movement by animals or wind. 181 After 7, 11, 18 and 24 months, 3 pairs (pseudo-replicates) of litterbags were retrieved from 182 around three randomly chosen trees at each site. Sampling dates corresponded to snowmelt 183 and anticipated snowpack development, generally mid-May and early or mid-October, 184 respectively.

Litter bag processing

185

The first litterbag of each pair was used for mesofauna extraction, after which it was ovendried at 60°C for 3 days. An aliquot of fresh material from the second litterbag was used for microbial analysis and the remainder of the sample were freeze-dried (Lyovac GT2®) for chemical analysis. To prevent soil contamination of litter, we wiped needles/leaves

190	thoroughly before analysis. At t_0 , 26 samples of each litter type (7 g air-dried) were used to
191	determine initial litter quality.

192 <u>Mesofaunal extraction</u>

- 193 Mesofauna were extracted from fresh litter using the dry funnel method (Berlese, 1905).
- 194 Animals were stored in 90 % alcohol, counted using a binocular scope, and identified to
- 195 family for Collembola (Gisin, 1960) and to order for Acari (Gamasida, Acaridida, Actinedida,
- 196 Oribatida; (Coineau, 1974). Other invertebrates were separated according to taxa
- 197 (e.g., Arachnida, Diplopoda, Chilopoda, Araneae, Hymenoptera, etc.).

198 <u>Fungal biomass</u>

- 199 Fungal biomass was determined by quantifying ergosterol, a fungal membrane constituent and
- 200 good indicator of living fungal biomass (Gessner and Chauvet, 1993; Ruzicka et al., 2000).
- 201 Samples were frozen and lyophilized to enable more efficient extraction of ergosterol
- 202 (Gessner and Schmitt, 1996). Ergosterol was extracted from 50 mg of needles/leaves with 5
- 203 mL of an alcohol base (KOH/methanol 8 g L^{-1}) for 30 min, and purified by solid-phase
- 204 extraction on a Waters® (Milford, MA, USA) Oasis HLB cartridge (Gessner and Schmitt,
- 205 1996). The extract that was produced was purified and quantified by high-performance liquid
- 206 chromatography (HPLC) on a Hewlett Packard series 1050 system running with HPLC-grade
- 207 methanol at a flow rate of 1.5 mL min⁻¹. Detection was performed at 282 nm, and the
- 208 ergosterol peak was identified based on the retention time of an ergosterol standard.

209 Catabolic profiles of microorganisms

- 210 Microbial (fungal and bacterial) catabolic profiles were assessed using Biolog® EcoPlates
- 211 (Biolog Inc., Hayward, CA, USA) for all sampling dates using a procedure adapted from
- 212 Garland and Mills (1991). To have enough fresh material, the three pseudo-replicates in each
- 213 plantation were pooled, with the three sites remaining as replicates. Briefly, 2 g (dry mass

214 equiv.) of ground litter were stirred in 100 mL of a sterile 0.1% tetra-sodium pyrophosphate 215 solution for 1 h to suspend microbial communities. Each 96-well plate contained 3 replicate 216 blocks of a water blank and 31 of the most useful carbon sources for soil community analysis 217 (for details, see Annexe 1), nine of which are considered as constituents of plant root exudates 218 (Preston-Mafham et al., 2002). A 125 µL aliquot of extract solution, diluted 1:110, was added 219 to all 96 wells in each EcoPlate. The plates were incubated at 30 °C for 7 days, and 220 absorbance was measured at 595 nm on a microplate spectrophotometer (Multiskan GO, 221 Thermo Fisher Scientific). Different microbial communities can exhibit different patterns of 222 substrate use, as revealed by the ensuing colorimetric reactions.

223 Soil temperature and moisture content

At each litterbag sampling date, soil temperature and volumetric water content (VWC) under 6 randomly chosen trees per plantation type and at each site were measured respectively with an Acorn series meter with K probe (Oakton Instruments, Vernon Hills, IL, USA), and a Field Scout TDR 100 with 12 cm-long probe (Spectrum Technologies Inc., Plainfield, IL, USA).

228 Standard substrate decomposition

229 Cellulose decay rates were measured at each plot using Whatman no. 5 filter papers as 230 standard substrates. Two filters (corresponding to 2.44 g dry mass) were enclosed in the same 231 size of litterbags that were used for poplar litter (15 x 15 cm, 1mm mesh). To study the area of 232 tree influence on the decomposition process, these litterbags were placed in 3 x 3m 233 plantations. In October 2011, 4 litterbags were randomly placed beneath 4 trees, and 4 more 234 litterbags were placed between the trees in the mono-specific plantations (poplar and spruce 235 plantations). For mixed plantations, 8 litterbags were placed, half under poplar trees and half 236 under spruce trees, and 4 more litterbags were placed between the trees, equidistantly from 237 spruce and poplar (Figure 1). Since there were 3 replicate sites, this resulted in a total of 84 238 litterbags (3 sites x 28 litterbags = 84). Freshly fallen litter was removed from the forest floor

surface prior to placing the litterbag on the ground. Litterbags were fixed with one galvanized nail to prevent movement by animals or wind. As decomposition rate of cellulose is relatively rapid, all litterbags were removed after one year. Remaining dry mass was determined after oven-drying the litter at 60 °C for 3 days. Mass loss was expressed as the percentage of total initial dry mass.

244 Data analyses

245 Mass loss was expressed as the percentage of total initial dry mass for the full set of litterbags 246 (leaves/needles and cellulose). Litter decomposition rates were determined from poplar and 247 spruce litterbags, by fitting needle/leaf mass loss data to a simple negative exponential model $m_t = m_0.e^{-kt}$, where m_t is needle mass remaining (g) at time t (years), m_0 is initial needle mass 248 (g), and k (year⁻¹) is the exponential decomposition rate coefficient (Olson, 1963). To 249 250 compare litter decomposition rates between plantation and litter types, we log-transformed 251 remaining mass data, and compared slopes of the fitted lines by using the comparison of 252 regression lines analysis (Statgraphics plus 5.1). In order to separate overall ability of 253 organisms to decompose different litter types and a real HFA, we performed the regression 254 approach proposed by Keiser et al. (2014). This statistical approach is based on a least squares 255 regression that explicitly estimates the influence of relative litter quality and soil 256 communities' ability on decomposition, as well as the HFA of each home combination 257 (Keiser et al., 2014). The following model was used:

258
$$Y_{i} = \alpha + \sum_{l=1}^{N} \beta_{l} \ Litter_{li} + \sum_{s=1}^{M} \gamma_{ls} \ Litter_{si} + \sum_{h=1}^{k} \eta_{h} \ Litter_{hi} + \varepsilon_{i}$$

where Y_i is the decomposition for observation *i*, β_l is the ability of litter species *l* (from species *l* to *N*), γ_s is the ability of the soil community *s* (from community *l* to *M*), and η_h is 261 the HFA of h (from home combinations l to K) (see Keiser et al, 2014 for more details). This 262 statistical analysis was done with SAS 9.3 software.

263 To determine whether interactions occurred in mixed compared to pure plantations, predicted 264 mass loss in mixed plantation was calculated based on observed mass losses of the component 265 species in monoculture, which assumes that there are no diversity effects, i.e., the 266 decomposition in mixed species plantations are the additive sums of mass loss in the two 267 mono-specific plantations. According to Wardle et al. (1997), a relative mixture effect can be 268 calculated as the ratio: [(observed - predicted) / predicted]*100. If this ratio differs from zero, 269 it would indicate non-additive effects of mixing tree species on decomposition rate. To test if 270 the observed vs predicted ratios of litter decomposition in mixed plantations differed 271 significantly from zero, we used one-sample Student's t-tests, and associated 95 % confidence 272 intervals.

273 All other statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.1.0 (R Development Core 274 Team 2008). To determine bacterial catabolic diversity and mesofauna community diversity, 275 Shannon indices were calculated. Mean values (soil temperature and humidity, ergosterol, 276 mesofauna abundance, mesofauna diversity and catabolic diversity) were compared among 277 decomposition times and plantation types for each litter type using hierarchical linear mixed-278 effects models using the *lme* function in the *nlme* package (Pinheiro et al., 2014). Site 279 replicates were treated as random effects, and plantation type was nested within site replicates 280 to reflect the structure of our data set. If the effect of treatment was significant, the different 281 treatments were compared with pre-planned linear contrasts (differences are noted in the 282 manuscript as a < b < c). To compare catabolic profiles of microbial communities among 283 samples, non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) was performed to find the best low-284 dimensional representation of the distance matrix (function *metaMDS* of R *Vegan* package, 285 (Oksanen et al., 2012). For catabolic profiles of microorganisms, the data were first

286 normalized. A data matrix of pairwise comparisons among samples was then calculated using 287 Euclidean distance. To evaluate how well (or poorly) the particular configuration produced 288 the observed distance matrix, a stress value was given. The best solution to the dimensional 289 reduction of the data set minimized the stress value associated with the NMDS solution, the 290 smaller the stress value, the better the fit of the reproduced distance matrix to the observed 291 distance matrix. Permutation-based Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) was 292 used to test differences in patterns of the catabolic profiles and those of the mesofaunal 293 community composition among plantations and between litter types, based on 999 294 permutations of the data (function adonis of R package vegan). For mesofaunal abundances, 295 the data were subjected to Wisconsin double standardization, with pairwise dissimilarities 296 calculated among samples using Bray-Curtis indices (Bray and Curtis, 1957). When 297 plantation types were significantly different, SIMPER (similarity percentage) was used to 298 identify the species/compounds that were responsible for dissimilarities between plantations. 299 For all statistical analyses, the significance threshold was set at $\alpha = 0.05$.

300 Results

301 Soil temperature and humidity

302 Across all sampling dates, soil temperature was greater in poplar mono-specific plantations

- 303 and lower in spruce mono-specific plantations with differences of 1.5, 0.6, 1.9, 0.5 °C at each
- 304 respective sampling date (Table 1, linear contrasts, P < 0.05). Soil temperature had
- 305 intermediate values in mixed plantations, regardless of tree species. Soil volumetric water
- 306 content was not significantly different between plantation types (*lme*, $F_{3,6} = 1.38$, P = 0.34).

307 Decomposition rate, home field advantage and ability

- 308 On average, 53 % of poplar and 40 % spruce litter was lost after 2 years. Decomposition rates
- 309 of spruce litter were significantly greater in mono-specific spruce plantations (0.29 year⁻¹)

compared to rates found in mono-specific poplar (0.21 year⁻¹), mixed-spruce (0.22 year⁻¹), or mixed-poplar plantations (0.23 year⁻¹; comparison of slopes, $F_3 = 12$. P < 0.001). Poplar litter decomposition rates were similar (P > 0.05) among the four plantation types (Fig.3), with 0.35 year⁻¹ in spruce, 0.33 year⁻¹ in poplar, 0.34 year⁻¹ in mixed-spruce and 0.36 year⁻¹ in mixed-poplar plantations, respectively.

315 The HFA model indicated that the litter quality index of poplar litter was the highest and 316 spruce litter the lowest, indicating that poplar litter decomposed the fastest and spruce litter 317 the slowest, across all soil communities, while cellulose had an intermediate value (Fig 2). 318 Concerning the ability of soil organisms to decompose all litter types, the HFA model also 319 showed that spruce soil communities (in monospecific or mixed plantations) had less ability 320 to decompose all litter types than soil communities under poplar in monospecific or mixed 321 stands. Parameter estimates and statistical significance of HFA by the model indicated that 322 spruce monospecific soil communities showed greater HFA (P < 0.0001) followed by spruce 323 soil communities in mixed plantations (P = 0.0007) (Fig 2). Conversely, poplar soil communities (in monospecific or mixed stands) showed negative HFA (P < 0.0001; P =324 325 0.0013 respectively).

326 Ergosterol

327 Regardless of plantation type, ergosterol concentrations were greater in poplar litter than in spruce litter at 11 (330 vs 269 μ g g⁻¹, respectively; *lme*, F_{1,57} = 13.2 *P* < 0.001) and 18 months 328 329 (417 vs 348 μ g g⁻¹, respectively; *lme*, F_{1.56} = 11.2 *P* < 0.01) of decomposition (Fig. 3). Before 330 18 months of decomposition had elapsed for spruce litter and 11 months for poplar litter, 331 ergosterol concentrations were the same under each plantation type. For spruce litter, fungal 332 biomass was greater at home than in poplar plantations after 18 and 24 months of decomposition (Fig. 3, linear contrasts, P < 0.05). For poplar litter after 24 months of 333 334 decomposition, fungal biomass was greater away than at home (Fig. 3, linear contrasts, P <

335 0.05). Fungal biomass in mixed-spruce and mixed-poplar plantations reached similar values 336 during the experiment, except at 18 months of decomposition for spruce litter and at 11 337 months of decomposition for poplar litter, where values were higher under poplar than under 338 spruce in mixed plantations. After 24 months of decomposition, ergosterol concentrations in 339 mixed plantation were intermediate between poplar and spruce mono-specific plantation 340 values (Fig. 3, linear contrasts, P < 0.05). Ergosterol dynamics in the different plantation 341 types suggested that fungal biomass was still increasing in mono-specific spruce plantations 342 for the two litter types after 24 months of decomposition, whereas fungal biomass reached a 343 plateau from 11 months of decomposition onward in mono-specific poplar plantations. In 344 mixed plantations, a decrease of fungal biomass was observed between 18 and 24 months of 345 decomposition (except for spruce litter under spruce trees) (Fig.3, linear contrasts, P < 0.05).

346 Biologs

347 Ordination (NMDS) of the different catabolic profiles that was based on Euclidean distance is 348 presented in Fig. 4. At 7, 11 and 18 months, NMDS globally showed that catabolic profiles of 349 poplar litter communities were more similar than communities associated with spruce litter. 350 NMDS also revealed temporal differences among plantation types, as confirmed by 351 PERMANOVA, which was performed on the spruce and poplar litter datasets separately. 352 Catabolic profiles of microbial communities that were present in spruce litter significantly 353 varied among plantation types at 7 and 11 months of decomposition (Permanova on spruce 354 litter data among plantation type at 7 and 11 months, $F_3 = 2.2$, P = 0.037, and $F_3 = 1.33$, P =355 0.015, respectively), but catabolic profiles for poplar litter remained different among 356 plantation types throughout the experiment (Permanova on poplar litter data among plantation 357 type, $F_3 = 1.68$, P = 0.014). Catabolic diversity of microbial communities, as measured by the Shannon index, was similar in all plantation types (Table 2, lme, F = 2.01, P = 0.21). 358 359 However, microorganisms colonizing spruce litter had lower catabolic diversity (mean of 17

360 compounds used) compared to those colonizing poplar litter (mean of 28 compounds used),

after 7, 11 and 18 months of decomposition (linear contrast, P < 0.001). Microbial catabolic

362 diversity was constant among dates for poplar litter, whereas catabolic diversity increased

363 with time during spruce litter decay (Table 2, *lme*, F = 12, P = 0.0015).

364 Mesofauna

365 During two years of litter decomposition, the composition of mesofauna communities differed 366 among plantation types for spruce and poplar litters (Permanova on spruce and poplar litter 367 data among plantation type, $F_3 = 0.03$, P = 0.02; and $F_3 = 1.76$, P = 0.001, respectively). 368 These differences were mainly due to a greater abundance of oribatids in spruce plantations, 369 Coleoptera larvae in poplar plantations, and Symphypleona and Araneae in mixed plantations. 370 As mesofaunal diversity was not different among plantation types, the results are not shown. 371 Abundance of main groups (detritivorous mites, springtails and predators) of mesofauna are 372 summarized in Fig. 4. Statistical analysis (Lme) showed no significant interactions between 373 the three factors, i.e., time, litter and plantation types for mites and predators. Of the two litter 374 types, mites were significantly more abundant in spruce than in poplar and mixed-spruce 375 plantations throughout the experiment, with mixed-poplar plantations having intermediate 376 abundances relative to the 3 other plantation types (lme, F = 20.1, P = 0.002). Springtails abundance were significantly different between plantation types only at 24 months of 377 378 decomposition, with greater abundance under spruce in each plantation type compared to 379 poplar mono-specific plantation (lme, $F_{3,6} = 6.02$, P = 0.03). Predator abundance was similar 380 among plantation types (lme, $F_{3,6} = 0.68$, P = 0.6, respectively). For these three groups, 381 abundance varied with decomposition time, reaching maxima of 34, 17, and 3 individuals per 382 g of litter after 24 months of decomposition for detritivorous mites, springtails and predators, 383 respectively (linear contrasts, P < 0.05).

384 *Decomposition rate of cellulose and litterbag positioning*

When the litterbags were placed under the trees, the lowest cellulose decomposition rate was measured under spruce in mono-specific plantations (mean of 20 % of mass loss), while the highest decay rate was found under poplar trees, regardless of plantation type (mean 55 % mass loss, lme, P < 0.01, Table 3). However, when litterbags were placed between the trees, plantation type influenced cellulose decomposition rates; decomposition rates decreased from pure poplar to mixed plantations (linear mixed model, P < 0.05), reaching minimum values similar to those found under spruce in mixed plantations. In pure plantations, cellulose was

392 more rapidly decomposed between than beneath trees (lme, $F_{1,42} = 5.17$, P = 0.028).

393 Net effect of mixed plantations

394 Net effects (NE) of habitat on litter decomposition represent the difference between litter 395 decomposition rates that were expected (mean of the decomposition rates measured in the two 396 mono-specific plantations) and the litter decomposition rate that was measured in mixed 397 plantations, under each tree species. We observed significant synergistic NE for poplar litter and cellulose decomposition under poplar trees in mixed plantations (12 %, t = 2.15, df = 17, 398 P = 0.046, and 53 %, and t = 2.21, df = 11, P = 0.049, respectively). However, antagonistic 399 400 NAE was significant for spruce litter decomposition under poplar in mixed plantations (-16%, t = -2.78, df = 16, P = 0.013). Mean NE for cellulose decomposition between trees 401 402 represented a decrease of 36 % in mixed plantations compared to predicted values (t = -2.66, 403 df = 11, P = 0.022) (Figure 4).

404 **Discussion**

405 The feedbacks between above- and below-ground biota are major ecological drivers in

- 406 terrestrial ecosystems (Wardle and van der Putten, 2002) but are still not completely
- 407 understood. Our study is among the first to observe the home field advantage (HFA) of two

408 tree species in mono-specific and pluri-specific "environments", while separating the 409 influence of each tree species in mixed plantations. By performing litter transplants, we were 410 able to tease apart the mechanisms that contribute to HFA among three distinct levels of the 411 soil food web (microorganisms, ildetiction it is increased and predators), as well as to 412 discriminate the influence of HFA and ability of decomposer communities on the litter 413 decomposition process.

414 **1.** Home field advantage and decomposer ability depending on litter type

415 In monospecific plantations, home field advantage was only found for spruce litter with an 416 increase of 10 % in mass loss of spruce litter at home versus away, in support of our 417 hypothesis that HFA should be greater for recalcitrant litter types than for more labile litters 418 (Ayres et al., 2009b; Strickland et al., 2009). Coniferous species are recognized as having 419 lower quality litter compared to broadleaf species (Perez-Harguindeguy et al., 2000; Cornwell 420 et al., 2008) and our estimate of litter quality index confirmed this statement with a lower 421 quality index for spruce than for poplar litter. The compounds found in labile litters can 422 probably be degraded by many decomposer organisms, whereas the complex compounds 423 found in recalcitrant litters likely require specialized enzymes in order to be decomposed (Wallenstein et al., 2013). Accordingly, cellulose (least recalcitrant litter) decomposition was 424 425 35 % lower in spruce compared to poplar plantations. Furthermore, the spruce soil community 426 showed the lowest, and poplar soil community the highest ability to decompose all litter 427 types. These results confirmed that HFA found for spruce litter in its environment was really 428 due to an adaptation of soil organisms, rather than an overall ability of spruce soil 429 communities to decompose litter (Keiser et al., 2014).

430 **2. Decomposer communities: drivers of the HFA**

431 Globally, microorganisms colonizing spruce litter had lower catabolic diversity compared to 432 those colonizing poplar litter. This result indicates that microbial communities colonizing 433 poplar litter were able to decompose a greater number of compounds, and would be more 434 opportunistic than microbes that were colonizing spruce litter, which were more specialized. 435 In a recent study, HFA effects for recalcitrant litter was mainly explained by specialization of 436 organisms in this "recalcitrant litter environment" to degrade lignin dimers (Wallenstein et al., 437 2013). The greater fungal biomass that was found in spruce plantations could then partially 438 explain HFA for spruce litter in its environment since fungi are better adapted to decompose 439 recalcitrant materials (lignin, cellulose, hemi-cellulose) through their enzymatic activities and 440 given their hyphal growth form (Meidute et al., 2008; Paterson et al., 2008).

441 Moreover, the greater fungal biomass found in spruce monospecific plantations could also 442 explain why mites and springtails were more abundant under mono-specific spruce cover, 443 regardless of litter type. Indeed, among the litter mesofauna taxa, oribatid mites and 444 springtails were typically among the most important fungal feeders (Scheu, 2002; Schneider 445 et al., 2005). This is in accordance with Wardle's (2002) statement that conifers should favour 446 soil communities that are dominated by fungi and fungivorous microarthropods, compared to 447 broadleaved species. Furthermore, fungivores and microbivores (such as mites and 448 springtails) have important indirect regulatory controls on microorganisms through their 449 grazing activities and often stimulate hyphal growth if the grazing is at low intensity 450 (Crowther et al., 2011). Thus, mites, springtails and fungal abundance in mono-specific 451 spruce plantations could be reciprocally linked by a positive feedback that could promote 452 HFA through increased lignin degradation (Wallenstein et al., 2013).

453 This greater abundance of decomposers in spruce monospecific plantations could be attributed

454 to changes in temperature and moisture conditions instead of a real effect of tree species

455 habitat (Prescott and Grayston, 2013). In our study, moisture conditions were similar among 456 plantation types; however, temperatures were higher in poplar compared to spruce plantations, 457 with mean differences of 1.7 °C in May and 0.6 °C in October, respectively. Higher soil 458 temperatures in the boreal region should promote greater abundance and activity of soil 459 organisms. However, in poplar plantations, we observed the lowest abundance of fungi and 460 mites. This result suggested that the differences observed in soil communities were mainly 461 due to the effects of tree species and litter chemistry and not due to changes in environmental 462 heterogeneity.

463 **3. Home field advantage and decomposer ability changes in mixed plantations**

464 Relative HFA and ability of organisms measured by the HFA regression model in mixed 465 plantations were in the same trend but at a lower level than in monospecific plantations. 466 Although spruce litter was not decomposed faster under spruce than poplar in mixed 467 plantations, the relative HFA for spruce litter under spruce indicated that other litters (mainly 468 cellulose and to a less extend poplar litter) were less decomposed under spruce than poplar in 469 mixed stands. This result indicates that HFA is sensitive to accompanying plant communities, 470 but the influence of tree habitat persists in mixed stands. In other words, mixing tree species 471 with different canopy covers promotes spatial separation of specific resources, and associated 472 spatial separation of diverse organisms (Ettema and Wardle, 2002). Concomitantly, we did 473 not find support for our hypothesis that litter would decompose more rapidly in mixed 474 compared to pure plantations, since decomposition rates of the three litter types was not 475 greater in mixed plantations. Therefore, our results do not support the hypothesis that activity 476 and diversity of decomposer communities are stimulated by mixing tree species (McTiernan 477 et al., 1997; Hansen, 2000; Ettema and Wardle, 2002; Wardle, 2006). Under poplar trees in 478 mixed plantations we observed non-additive effects of mixing tree species (positive effects for 479 cellulose and poplar litter, and negative effect for spruce litter), whereas under spruce trees

additive effects were observed for the three litter types. These results indicate that
decomposition rates in mixed plantations under spruce corresponded to the mean
decomposition rate in the two mono-specific plantations, whereas decomposition rates under
poplar were different from this mean. These 'tree environment-specific' results suggests that
in mixed plantations poplar presence influenced the habitat under spruce while spruce
presence had little influence on the habitat under poplar.

486 4. Litter dispersal as a possible driver of the observed changes between mono- and mixed 487 plantations

488 Poplar has high litter dispersal ability, given that it is tall and its leaves have high specific leaf 489 area (SLA), in contrast to spruce height and SLA of needles. During the experiment, poplar 490 litter was collected in litter traps that were placed beneath spruces, whereas the opposite was 491 not observed (Chomel et al., 2014). These observations highlight that within mixed stands, a 492 tree species may have an effect on the forest floor only in a localized way through the spatial 493 distribution of its litter (Saetre et al., 1999; Saetre and Baath, 2000; Aubert et al., 2006). 494 Indeed, litter cover is not homogenous, with spruce litter being restricted to being under 495 spruce whereas poplar litter is more widely spread. In mixed plantations, both litters may be 496 present under the spruce canopy, which could explain the additive effect under spruce trees, 497 whereas the lack of spruce litter under poplar trees induced non additive effects 498 (decomposition rates similar to what was observed in poplar mono-specific plantations). 499 Under our experimental conditions, decomposer communities that were present under spruce 500 in mono-specific plantations were consequently more likely to have been in contact with 501 poplar litter than the reverse. It has been recently demonstrated that soil communities are 502 driven by historical exposure of tree species and the resource history of the soil microbial 503 community appears to influence contemporary functions (Strickland et al., 2009; Keiser et al., 504 2013).Spruce decomposer communities could thus have "learned" to decompose poplar litter.

We could emit the hypothesis that the intensity of home field advantage would be partially controlled by litter dispersal capacity: the greater the litter dispersal, the less intense home field advantage would be. Dispersal ability of litter would thus be an important trait to consider in decomposition studies of mixed species.

509 Concerning the area of influence of a tree on the decomposition process, there was a net 510 effect of cellulose litter bag positioning both under and between the trees. Cellulose was 511 decomposed rapidly in poplar mono-specific plantations, under and between the trees. 512 However, in spruce mono-specific plantations, cellulose was poorly decomposed under spruce 513 trees (20 % mass loss), but rapidly decomposed between the spruce trees (45 % mass loss), 514 showing an important negative effect of spruce canopy on decomposition rates. In mixed 515 plantations, a high decomposition rate was maintained beneath the poplar trees (53 % mass 516 loss), but between the trees cellulose was less decomposed (19 % less mass loss). These 517 results show that the tree canopy has an important effect on the decomposition process. For 518 example, Saetre and Baath (2000) found ranges of 1-3 m for changes in microbial 519 communities in a Picea abies-Betula pubescens forest. Therefore, the positioning of litter 520 bags appears to be rather important when studying the effects of diversity of plant 521 communities on soil processes and should be carefully considered.

522

523 Conclusion

524 Our study showed a home field advantage only for spruce litter in spruce mono-specific 525 plantations, whereas poplar litter was decomposed at a similar rate under all tree species and 526 plantation types. This HFA could be partially explained by greater abundance of fungi, 527 detritivorous mites and springtails, possibly due to positiv piprocal interactions between 528 fungi and fungivorous which stimulates each other. This, in turn, affects positively the spruce 529 litter decomposition. Furthermore, cellulose was less decomposed in spruce plantations, 530 indicating that soil communities of spruce mono-specific plantations were more capable of 531 decomposing relatively recalcitrant litter, while they were less efficient in decomposing more 532 "simple" substrates. We suppose that the intensity of the home field advantage would be 533 partially controlled by litter dispersal capacity: the greater the litter dispersal, the less intense 534 home field advantage would be. Activity and diversity of decomposer communities and, thus, 535 litter decomposition rates, were not stimulated in mixed compared to mono-specific 536 plantations. However, the "mixed environment" had a synergistic effect on decomposition 537 rates (compared to what was predicted from the two mono-specific plantations), but only 538 under poplar trees. These 'tree environment-specific' results may indicate that within mixed stands, spruce trees affected the forest floor but only in a localized way through the limited 539 540 spatial distribution of their needle litter. This knowledge contributes to our understanding of 541 how mixing tree species influences soil processes, and why differences in litter dispersal must 542 be taken into account in future studies.

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re 4









709 Figure captions

Figure 1. Scheme of the experimental design of litterbag disposition within poplar and spruce
monospecific and mixed plantations. Litterbags of poplar are symbolised by poplar leaves,
litterbags of spruce are symbolised by spruce needles and litterbags of cellulose with a white
circle.

714

Figure 2. a) Litter mass remaining (mean ± SE) expressed as a relative fraction of initial mass, and b) ergosterol content for spruce litter (left side) and poplar litter (right side) incubated in litter bags at "home" (black line) or "away" (gray line) in mono-specific plantations (solid line) or mixed-species plantations (dashed line) during decomposition. Significant differences between plantation type according to linear contrasts are indicated by *.

720

Figure 3. Parameter estimates (mean \pm SE) calculated for (a) litter quality index, (b) ability and (c) HFA. Estimates that differ significantly from zero are indicated by * (P < 0.05).

723

Figure 4. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination of catabolic profiles of
microbial communities of both litter type and plantation type based on Euclidean distance at 7
(a), 11 (b), 18 (c) and 24 (d) months of decomposition. Stress = 0.15, 0.21, 0.21 an
respectively. Samples are grouped (dashed lines) by plantation type and the centroid of each
group is indicated.

Figure 5. Abundance dynamics of mesofauna functional groups in spruce litter (a) and poplar
litter (b) in the different plantations.

732

733	Figure 6. Net effects (mean \pm SE) of mixed plantations on decomposition of cellulose, poplar
734	and spruce litter under spruce or poplar trees. NAE (Non-additive effect) that are significantly

735 different from zero, according to one-sample Student's *t*-tests, are indicated by * (P < 0.05).

737 Table 1. Soil moisture and soil temperature.

	Variables	Plantation types				
Sampling dates		Poplar	Spruce	mixP	mixS	
May 2011	Temp	11.6 ± 0.1 (c)	10.1 ± 0.1 (a)	10.4 ± 0.1 (b)	10.8 ± 0.2 (b)	
	VWC	$15.1 \pm 0.6 \text{ (ns)}$	$13.0 \pm 0.4 \ (ns)$	$15.3 \pm 0.9 \ (ns)$	$15.5 \pm 0.9 \ (ns)$	
October 2011	Temp	11.9 ± 0.1 (b)	11.3 ± 0.1 (a)	11.5 ± 0.1 (a)	11.8 ± 0.2 (b)	
	VWC	$9.7 \pm 0.5 \; (ns)$	$7.7 \pm 0.3 \; (ns)$	$9.2 \pm 0.6 \ (ns)$	8.0 ± 0.8 (ns)	
May 2012	Temp	8.9 ± 0.2 (c)	7.0 ± 0.2 (a)	8.2 ± 0.1 (b)	8.0 ± 0.1 (b)	
	VWC	18.8 ± 1.1 (ns)	14.1 ± 0.7 (ns)	$17.6 \pm 0.5 \text{ (ns)}$	$17.4 \pm 1.1 \text{ (ns)}$	
October 2012	Temp	8.1 ± 0.1 (b)	7.7 ± 0.1 (a)	8.0 ± 0.1 (ab)	7.8 ± 0.1 (ab)	
	VWC	18.7 ± 1.0 (ns)	16.2 ± 1.3 (ns)	18.8 ± 0.7 (ns)	$15.7 \pm 0.8 \ (ns)$	

738 Note: mixP= mixed-poplar plantation, mixS= mixed-spruce plantation,

Litter type	Plantation type	Decomposition time (months)			
Litter type	I failtation type	7	11	18	24
Spruce	Spruce	1.47 ± 0.25	2.36 ± 0.31	1.64 ± 0.55	2.88 ± 0.06
	Mixed-spruce	0.90 ± 0.17	1.68 ± 0.60	1.58 ± 0.41	2.73 0.08
	Mixed-poplar	1.59 ± 0.68	2.50 ± 0.17	1.76 ± 0.28	2.73 ± 0.12
	Poplar	2.45 ± 0.26	2.45 ± 0.33	1.72 ± 0.23	2.69 ± 0.05
Poplar	Spruce	2.8 ± 0.02	2.95 ± 0.05	2.58 ± 0.27	2.89 ± 0.08
	Mixed-spruce	2.61 ± 0.08	2.77 ± 0.01	2.58 ± 0.10	2.72 ± 0.01
	Mixed-poplar	2.64 ± 0.04	2.79 ± 0.07	2.57 ± 0.05	2.80 ± 0.05
	Poplar	2.75 ± 0.07	2.84 ± 0.06	2.56 ± 0.09	2.83 ± 0.02

740	Table 2. Microbial	catabolic diversity	associated to litter.
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Table 3. Mass loss of cellulose beneath or between the trees.

Species	Under	Between
Poplar	$55.2\pm9.1\ b$	62.6 ± 8.3 b
Spruce	$19.7\pm3.5\ a$	$44.7\pm8.3\ ab$
Poplar	$54.1\pm7.5~b$	$35.2 \pm 7.6.2$
Spruce	$35.9 \pm 10.4 \text{ ab}$	55.2 ± 7.0 a
	Species Poplar Spruce Poplar Spruce	Species Under Poplar 55.2 ± 9.1 b Spruce 19.7 ± 3.5 a Poplar 54.1 ± 7.5 b Spruce 35.9 ± 10.4 ab

747 **Table captions**

- 748 Table 1. Soil moisture expressed as volumetric water content (VWC, %) and soil temperature
- 749 (Temp, °C). Mean ± SE from May 2011 to October 2012 for each plantation type. Significant
- 750 differences (pairwise contrasts) between plantation types within each row are presented with
- 751 different letter.
- 752
- Table 2. Catabolic diversity (Shannon index, mean ± SE) of microorganisms colonizing
 different litter and plantation types along decomposition time.
- 755

Table 3. Mass loss of cellulose (%, mean \pm SE) beneath or between the trees (poplar or spruce) in pure or mixed plantations. Across litterbag positioning, different letters within each plantation type represent a significant difference between means according to linear contrast.

760 Annexe 1

Familly	Carbon source
Amides	phenyl ethylamine
	Putrescine
Amino acids	L-Arginine
	L-Asparagine
	L-Phenylalanine
	L-Serine
	L-Threonine
	Glycyl-Lglutamic acid
Carboxylic acids	D-Galactonic acid y-lactone
	D-Galacturonic acid
	Pyruvic Acid methyl ester
	γ-Hydroxybutyric acid
	D-Glucosaminic acid
	Itaconic Acid
	α-ketobutyric acid
	D-Malic acid
Carbohydrates	β-Methyl-DGlucoside
	D-Xylose
	i-Erythritol
	D-Mannitol
	N-Acetyl-DGlucosamine
	Glucose-1-phosphate
	D,L α-glycerol phosphate
	D-cellobiose
	a-D-Lactose
Phenolic	2-Hydroxy Benzoic acid
compounds	4-Hydroxy Benzoic acid
Polymers	Tween 40
	Tween 80
	α-Cyclodextrin
	Glycogen