

1 **Effects of drought on nitrogen turnover and abundances of**
2 **ammonia-oxidizers in mountain grassland**

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1 **Abstract**

2 Future climate scenarios suggest an increased frequency of summer drought periods in the
3 European Alpine Region. Drought can affect soil nitrogen (N) cycling, by altering N
4 transformation rates, as well as the abundances of ammonia-oxidizing bacteria and archaea.
5 However, the extent to which drought affects N cycling under *in situ* conditions is still
6 controversial. The goal of this study was to analyse effects of drought on soil N turnover and
7 ammonia-oxidizer abundances in soil without drought history. To this end we conducted rain-
8 exclusion experiments at two differently managed mountain grassland sites, an annually
9 mown and occasionally fertilized meadow and an abandoned grassland. Soils were sampled
10 before, during and after drought and were analysed for potential gross rates of N
11 mineralization, microbial uptake of inorganic N, nitrification, and the abundances of bacterial
12 and archaeal ammonia oxidizers based on gene copy numbers of the *amoA* gene (AOB and
13 AOA, respectively).

14 Drought induced different responses at the two studied sites. At the managed meadow
15 drought increased NH_4^+ immobilization rates and NH_4^+ concentrations in the soil water
16 solution, but led to a reduction of AOA abundance compared to controls. At the abandoned
17 site gross nitrification and NO_3^- immobilization rates decreased during drought, while AOB
18 and AOA abundances remained stable. Rewetting had only minor, short-term effects on the
19 parameters that had been affected by drought. Seven weeks after the end of drought no
20 differences to control plots could be detected anymore. Thus, our findings demonstrated that
21 in mountain grasslands drought had distinct transient effects on soil nitrogen cycling and
22 ammonia-oxidizers, which could have been related to a niche differentiation of AOB and
23 AOA with increasing NH_4^+ levels. However, the effect strength of drought was modulated by
24 grassland management.

25

26

1 **1 Introduction**

2 Soil water availability is a key factor for physiological processes determining plant
3 productivity and the activity of soil microorganisms (Knapp et al., 2002; Moyano et al., 2013;
4 Stark and Firestone, 1995). Increasing frequencies of drought periods and heavy rainfall
5 events, as predicted for the European Alpine Regions (Gobiet et al., 2013; IPCC, 2007; IPCC,
6 2012; Schär et al., 2004; Seneviratne et al., 2006), will lead to strong soil water imbalances
7 and can therefore affect ecosystem nutrient cycling, such as the nitrogen (N) turnover in the
8 soil. Nitrogen is the major growth limiting nutrient in most non-fertilized terrestrial
9 ecosystems (LeBauer and Treseder, 2008), and its turnover in soils is mainly controlled by
10 microbial processing, such as fixation of atmospheric N, decomposition of organic N sources,
11 as well as uptake and release of ammonium (NH_4^+) and nitrate (NO_3^-) during mineralization
12 and nitrification processes (Booth et al., 2005; Schimel and Bennett, 2004). These individual
13 steps in soil N cycling occur on different temporal and spatial scales (Schimel and Bennet,
14 2004) and have been shown to strongly differ in their response, both direction and magnitude,
15 to drought (e.g., Auyeung et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2011; Emmett et al., 2004; Gleeson et al.,
16 2010; Stark and Firestone, 1996).

17 Nitrogen mineralization and microbial immobilisation of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- can be
18 termed as ‘broad’ processes combining multiple distinct pathways performed by a wide range
19 of microorganisms covering a large spectrum of ecophysiological optima (Schimel and
20 Schaeffer, 2012). ‘Broad’ processes could therefore be more stable to drought, than ‘narrow’
21 ones, such as nitrification (Allison and Martiny 2008; Schimel and Schaeffer 2012).
22 Nitrification, the oxidation of ammonia (NH_3) via nitrite (NO_2^-) to nitrate (NO_3^-) has long
23 been expected to be solely performed by a highly specialized group of autotrophic bacteria
24 (Kowalchuk and Stephen, 2001; Schimel et al., 1989), but also archaea of the phylum
25 thaumarchaeota conduct the first step of nitrification, the conversion of NH_3 to hydroxylamine
26 (NH_2OH) (Könneke et al 2005). This step is catalysed by the enzyme ammonia-

1 monooxygenase (AMO), of which the subunit A (*amoA*) is highly conserved encoded in
2 ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) and archaea (AOA) (Treusch et al., 2005). As both AOB
3 and AOA can contribute to ammonia-oxidation, however still unclear to which extent (Prosser
4 and Nicol, 2012), they can be considered as potentially, functionally redundant (Leininger et
5 al., 2006; Schauss et al., 2009). They have however been shown to differ in physiology and
6 ecology (Erguder et al., 2009). In many soils archaeal *amoA* genes are more abundant than
7 their bacterial counterparts (Alves et al., 2013; Leininger et al., 2006; Prosser and Nicol,
8 2008), but AOB seem to outcompete AOA and dominate nitrification in agricultural soils (Jia
9 and Conrad, 2009), N-rich grasslands (Di et al., 2009), and at high levels of NH_4^+
10 (Brankatschk et al., 2010; Di et al., 2010; Verhamme et al., 2011). Archaeal AMO, in turn,
11 appears to have a higher affinity, and lower inhibition constant for ammonia (Martens-
12 Habbena et al., 2009; Prosser and Nicol, 2012), which could be advantageous at low ammonia
13 concentrations.

14 Whereas dynamics of AOB and AOA to ammonia are well studied, much less is
15 known about responses of ammonia-oxidizers, specifically of AOA, to drought and rewetting
16 under *in situ* conditions. Generally, AOB and AOA feature different physiological
17 prerequisites (Schauss et al., 2009), presumably also leading to different responses of AOB
18 and AOA to soil drying and rewetting. During drought periods nutrient concentrations in the
19 soil solution increase, forcing microbes to balance the increasing osmotic potential by
20 accumulating or producing osmolytes (Roeßler and Müller, 2001), which could lead to large
21 amounts of N tied up in the microbial biomass (Schimel et al., 2007). Rainfall events in turn,
22 introduce a water pulse causing a sudden decrease of the osmotic soil potential; microbes
23 release accumulated osmolytes to avoid lysis (Schimel et al., 2007, Roeßler and Müller, 2001)
24 and are triggered back from low activity or dormant states (Barnard et al, 2013; Placella and
25 Firestone, 2013) resulting in peaks of carbon and N mineralization (Birch, 1958; Fierer and
26 Schimel, 2002; Evans and Wallenstein, 2012), and of nitrification (Fierer and Schimel, 2002).

1 Thus, both drying and rewetting could lead to high ammonium concentrations in the soil
2 solution, which has been shown to adversely affect AOA, but not AOB abundances in non-
3 drought adapted grassland soils, likely related to a niche differentiation of AOB and AOA
4 (Thion and Prosser 2014).

5 Most studies on effects of drought and rewetting on grassland N-cycling and on
6 ammonia-oxidizer abundances originated either from seasonal dry sites (e.g. Fierer and
7 Schimel, 2002; Gleeson et al., 2010; Placella et al., 2013), or from soil mesocosm incubation
8 studies (Thion and Prosser, 2014). However, well water-supplied ecosystems, such as many
9 grasslands in mountainous areas, will be experiencing a higher frequency of drought and
10 heavy rainfall events (Gobiet et al., 2013; IPCC 2012). These grasslands, which are often in
11 transitions from land-management to abandonment, play a pivotal role in nutrient retention
12 and erosion protection with repercussions on densely populated watersheds downstream.
13 Thus, there is an urgent need to study possible effects of such climate extremes on soil N cycling
14 in situ.

15 The aim of this study therefore was to investigate effects of drought and subsequent
16 rewetting on gross N mineralization, gross nitrification, and the abundances of ammonia-
17 oxidizers of mountain meadows under different land-management levels, an extensively
18 managed meadow and an abandoned grassland site in the Austrian Central Alps. At both sites
19 we conducted rain-exclusion experiments to simulate drought and subsequent rewetting,
20 which allowed us to examine effects of drought in soils with different preconditions, such as
21 soil organic matter content (Meyer et al., 2012), organic and inorganic N availability
22 (specifically NH_4^+), and with potentially different abundances of bacterial and archaeal
23 ammonia-oxidizers. We hypothesized that the phylogenetically 'broad' process of N
24 mineralization is less affected by drought than the more 'narrow' process of nitrification. We
25 expected AOB and AOA to respond differentially to drought; more specifically, that archaeal
26 *amoA* abundances will decrease as a consequence of rising ammonium concentrations in the

1 soil solution. Additionally, we hypothesized that the impact of drought on N-turnover and
2 ammonia-oxidizer abundances will be stronger on the managed meadow than on the
3 abandoned site, as the higher soil organic matter content at the abandoned site could act as
4 buffer against soil drying (Brady and Weil, 2002; Franzluebbers et al., 2002).

5

6 **2 Material and Methods**

7 **2.1 Study sites**

8 The two studied grasslands are located in the Austrian Central Alps near Neustift, Stubai
9 Valley (47°07'N, 11°19'E) and are characterized by a mean annual temperature of 3°C and a
10 mean annual precipitation of about 1100 mm. Drought simulations were conducted on a
11 typical extensively-managed mountain meadow (will be referred to as 'meadow', 1850 m
12 a.s.l.) and on an abandoned meadow site (will be referred to as 'abandoned site' 1900 m a.s.l.).
13 At both sites soils were characterized as dystric cambisols (FAO classification) with a pH in
14 the uppermost 10 cm soil depth of 5.5 (determined in CaCl₂). At the meadow total
15 aboveground plant biomass is cut and harvested once a year; parts of the meadow are slightly
16 grazed by cattle in spring and autumn, and fertilized with manure every two to three years
17 (Bahn et al., 2006). The meadow is characterized by high plant primary production (Schmitt
18 et al., 2010), by higher soil respiration rates (Bahn et al., 2008), as well as by lower soil
19 organic matter (SOM), total carbon (C_{tot}) and nitrogen (N_{tot}) contents compared to the
20 abandoned site (Table 1, and Meyer et al., 2012). At the abandoned site all management
21 activities were terminated in 1983. The dominant plant community was determined as
22 Trisetetum-Flavescentis at the meadow, and as Seslerio-Carietum at the abandoned site
23 (Schmitt et al. 2010).

24

25 **2.2 Experimental set-up and soil sampling**

1 At both the meadow and the abandoned site, four drought and corresponding control plots
2 were established in spring 2011 in a paired plot design. Drought was simulated by installing
3 rain-out-shelters, covering an area of 3.0 x 3.5 m, for 10 weeks starting on 31 May 2011. The
4 shelters were equipped with light- and UV-B-permeable plastic foil (UV-B Window, Foiltec
5 GmbH, Germany, light-permeability ca. 95%, UV-B permeability >70%) to exclude any
6 precipitation. To maintain the traditional land-management, the total area of the meadow was
7 mown (i.e. aboveground biomass was cut and removed) during the drought period (2 August
8 2011), while there was no land-management activity at the abandoned site. After 10 weeks of
9 drought (10 August 2011) all plots received previously collected rainwater over a time period
10 of 3 min to simulate a short heavy rainfall event of 20 mm; subsequently rain-out shelters
11 were removed and all plots were again exposed to natural precipitation.

12 Soils were sampled one week before the onset of drought simulation, then every two
13 to three weeks during drought, one day and seven weeks after rewetting (Figure1). For each
14 sample two soil collars (5x7 cm, 10 cm depth) were pooled after the uppermost litter layer had
15 been removed. Then soil collars were homogenized and sieved to 2 mm. Aliquots of soil were
16 immediately frozen at -80 °C for molecular analyses, the remaining samples were stored at 4
17 °C until further processing.

18

19 **2.3 Soil parameters and N pools**

20 For both sites maximum soil water holding capacity (WHC_{max}) was determined by adding
21 excess amounts of deionized water to aliquots of soil samples and leaving them for 48 h over
22 water to allow maximum saturation. Then 2 g of water saturated soils were dried for 48 h at
23 60°C. Soil water content (SWC) was measured gravimetrically by drying of 5 g of fresh soil
24 for two days at 60 °C in a drying oven and calculated relative to WHC_{max} . Total carbon (C_{tot})
25 and N (N_{tot}) content were determined from dried and ground soil samples by EA-IRMS (EA
26 1110, CE Instruments, Italy, coupled to a Finnigan MAT Delta Plus IRMS, Thermo Fisher

1 Scientific, MA, USA). Total extractable N was determined from K_2SO_4 extracts (2 g of soil
2 were extracted with 20 ml 0.5 M K_2SO_4) using a TOC/TN analyser (TOC-V CPH
3 E200V/TNM-122V; Shimadzu, Austria). NH_4^+ was measured photometrically from K_2SO_4
4 extracts using a modified indophenol reaction method (Kandeler and Gerber, 1988). NO_3^- was
5 determined from water extracts (2 g of fresh soil were extracted with 20 ml of MilliQ water)
6 by chemically suppressed ion-chromatography (DX500, Dionex, Austria) on a Dionex AS11
7 column. Extractable organic nitrogen (EON) was calculated by subtracting inorganic (NH_4^+
8 and NO_3^-) from total extractable N.

9

10 **2.4 Potential gross N transformation rates**

11 Potential gross NH_4^+ and NO_3^- transformation rates were determined using a ^{15}N pool dilution
12 techniques described by Kaiser et al. (2011). For determination of microbial gross N
13 mineralization and NH_4^+ immobilization fresh aliquots of soil (2 g in duplicates) received 0.5
14 ml $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ (0.125 mM; 10 atom% ^{15}N). For determination of gross nitrification and
15 microbial NO_3^- uptake (NO_3^- immobilization) 2 g of fresh soil samples (in duplicates)
16 received 0.5 ml KNO_3 (0.25 mM, 10 atom% ^{15}N). Labelled samples were incubated for 4 and
17 24 h at room temperature and finally extracted with 20 ml 2 M KCl. Both control and drought
18 treated soils received solute ^{15}N label, which could have altered the conditions, specifically in
19 drought treated soils (Chen et al., 2011). Therefore, the reported rates should be considered as
20 the N-turnover potential of the soil microbial community.

21 Potential gross N mineralization and NH_4^+ immobilization rates were determined by
22 microdiffusion of NH_3 from KCl-extracts into acid traps, which were analysed for nitrogen
23 concentrations and atom-percent excess of ^{15}N by EA-IRMS (EA 1110, CE Instruments, Italy,
24 coupled to a Finnigan MAT Delta Plus IRMS, Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA, USA). For
25 potential gross nitrification and NO_3^- immobilization rates NH_3 was removed from the
26 extracts, before converting NO_3^- to NH_3 by adding Devarda's Alloy. Again, NH_3 was trapped

1 and analysed for N concentration and atom-percent excess of ^{15}N . Potential gross N
2 mineralization, gross NH_4^+ immobilization, as well as potential gross nitrification and gross
3 NO_3^- immobilization rates were calculated as described in detail by Wanek et al.(2010).

4

5 **2.5 Nucleic acid extraction**

6 DNA was extracted from 0.35 g of soil using the FastDNA[®] SPIN Kit for Soil (MP
7 Biomedicals, CA, USA) and the Precellys24 Instrument (Bertin Technologies, France). After
8 extraction, the DNA was tested in quantity and quality with a spectrophotometer (Nanodrop,
9 PeqLab, Germany) and stored at -20°C until further processing.

10

11 **2.6 Quantitative Real-Time PCR**

12 The abundances of the bacterial and archaeal ammonia-monooxygenase gene (*amoA*) served
13 as proxy for ammonia-oxidizers and were detected by quantitative Real-Time PCR, which
14 was carried out on a 7300 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Germany) using
15 SYBR green as fluorescent dye. The PCR was performed in 96-well plates (Applied
16 Biosystems, Germany) for all investigated genes. The reaction mixes were performed
17 according to Töwe et al.(2010), the thermal profiles of the PCRs are given in Table 2. In a
18 preliminary test dilution series of the DNA extracts were tested to avoid inhibition of PCR,
19 resulting in an optimal dilution of 1:128 for all samples (2-5 ng DNA μl^{-1} per sample). Serial
20 plasmid dilutions of the respective functional genes ranging from 10^6 to 10^1 gene copies μl^{-1}
21 were used as standards for the determination of the gene abundances of each sample (Table
22 2). To confirm the specificity of the amplicons after each PCR run, a melting curve and a 2%
23 agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide were conducted. The efficiencies (Eff) of the
24 amplification were calculated from the standard curve with the formula $\text{Eff} = [10^{(-1/\text{slope})} - 1]$
25 * 100% and resulted in the following values: *amoA* of ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA)

1 83.4% to 91.8% ($R^2 = 0.997$) and *amoA* of ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) 94.8% to
2 95.4% ($R^2 = 0.999$).

3

4 **2.7 Statistics**

5 To determine site specific differences all available parameters were compared by repeated-
6 measures ANOVA using only the controls of both sites. As we found significant differences
7 between sites, we subsequently tested for effects of drought by comparing control samples
8 from each study site with drought plots over the course of the experiment by repeated-
9 measures ANOVA, using the plot number as within-factor. To test for differences between
10 drought and control samples at single sampling time points we used paired t-tests with
11 Bonferroni-adjusted levels of significance. All data were tested for normality by Shapiro-Wilk
12 test and for homoscedasticity by Levene's test. If data did not meet ANOVA assumptions
13 they were log-transformed or rank-normalized. All data, including SWC, C_{tot} , N_{tot} , all N pools
14 and potential N-turnover data, as well as ammonia-oxidizer gene abundances were subjected
15 to principal component analyses (PCA), after they were transformed to meet PCA
16 assumptions. To determine differences between sites and drought on the distribution of the
17 samplings along the PC-axes, we conducted a two-way ANOVA. All statistical analyses were
18 performed using R 2.15.2 (R Core Team, 2012).

19

20 **3 Results**

21 **3.1 Effects of drought on soil parameters and soil N pools**

22 During drought simulation, in total 358 mm of precipitation were excluded, equalling one
23 third of mean annual precipitation. This led to a significant decrease of SWC to 16.9%
24 ($\pm 1.4\%$) at the meadow, and to 21.2% ($\pm 3.5\%$) at the abandoned site (Table 1, Fig. 1).
25 However, the initial maximum soil water holding capacity (WHC_{max}) was significantly lower
26 at the meadow than at the abandoned site (Table 1), thus the amount of water remaining in

1 meadow soils was lower during drought as compared to the abandoned site. At both sites,
2 rewetting had no immediate effects on the SWC in drought-treated plots, but seven weeks
3 after the end of drought the SWC-levels had approximated those of controls (Fig. 1).

4 At both sites drought had no significant effect on the N pools (Table 2, Fig. 2) when
5 concentrations were calculated per gram dry soil, although the meadow was characterized by
6 significantly lower EON and NH_4^+ , but higher NO_3^- concentrations compared to the
7 abandoned site (Table 1, Fig.2). However, when N concentrations were calculated per g soil
8 water after five weeks of drought, EON and NH_4^+ concentrations were significantly increased
9 at both sites, and remained on a higher level until one day after rewetting (Table 1, Fig 3). In
10 particular at the meadow, drought induced five-fold increases of NH_4^+ concentrations, while
11 at the abandoned site NH_4^+ concentrations at most tripled. In contrast, NO_3^- concentrations in
12 the soil solution were not affected by drought, but strongly increased one day after rewetting
13 at the meadow, while at the abandoned site no clear effect of drought was detected (Table 1,
14 Fig 3). Whereas at both sites seven weeks after the end of drought EON and NH_4^+
15 concentrations were similar in drought and control plots, only in soils of the meadow NO_3^-
16 concentrations in drought treated soils were significantly increased (Table 1, Fig. 3).

17

18 **3.2 Effects of drought on microbial N transformation rates**

19 Potential gross rates of microbial N mineralization and NH_4^+ immobilization were similar at
20 both sites (Table 1, Fig. 4). However, only at the meadow drought significantly increased
21 potential gross NH_4^+ immobilization rates, which consequently decreased the mean residence
22 time (MRT) of NH_4^+ (per g dw) from $27.4 \pm 6.8\text{h}$ to $14.4 \pm 1.3\text{h}$. At the abandoned site, in
23 contrast, potential gross N mineralization and immobilization, as well as the MRT of NH_4^+
24 ($50.8 \pm 10.5\text{ h}$) were not affected by drought (Table 3, Fig. 4). At neither site potential N
25 mineralization, nor NH_4^+ immobilization responded to rewetting (Fig. 4).

1 Potential gross rates of nitrification and microbial NO_3^- immobilization were
2 significantly lower and the NO_3^- pool turned over much slower (30.3 ± 9.9 h) at the meadow
3 than at the abandoned site (2.2 ± 0.7 h Table 1, Fig. A1). At both sites potential nitrification
4 and microbial NO_3^- immobilization rates were influenced by sampling time indicating a
5 strong seasonal variability (Table 1, Fig. 4). At the meadow drought affected neither potential
6 nitrification, nor potential NO_3^- immobilization rates. At the abandoned site, in contrast,
7 drought significantly altered both potential nitrification and NO_3^- immobilization rates, which
8 showed less variance compared to controls (Table 3, Fig. 4). One day after rewetting at both
9 sites potential nitrification and NO_3^- immobilization rates slightly increased in drought treated
10 plots, but seven weeks after rewetting, the rates were again similar to the controls (Fig. 4).

11

12 **3.3 Effects of drought on the abundance of ammonia-oxidizers**

13 The abundance of archaeal *amoA* genes (as a proxy for AOA) was similar at both sites,
14 ranging from 8.1×10^5 to 3.2×10^6 copies g^{-1} DW soil at the meadow and from 5.2×10^5 to
15 3.7×10^6 copies g^{-1} DW soil at the abandoned site. At the meadow bacterial *amoA* gene copies
16 (as a proxy for AOB), ranging from 2.5×10^5 to 1.7×10^6 copies g^{-1} DW soil, were as abundant
17 as archaeal *amoA* gene copies, thus AOA:AOB ratios ranged between 1 and 10. At the
18 abandoned site, in contrast, AOB numbers ranged from 8.0×10^4 to 7.8×10^5 copies g^{-1} DW soil,
19 which was significantly lower, consequently AOA:AOB ratios were significantly higher
20 (ranging between 10 and 100) than at the meadow (Table 1, Fig 5).

21 At the meadow drought significantly decreased archaeal *amoA* gene copy numbers,
22 while the abundance of bacterial *amoA* remained unaffected, thus the ratio of AOA:AOB
23 significantly decreased compared to the controls (Table 3, Fig. 5). At the abandoned site, in
24 contrast, drought affected neither AOA, nor AOB abundances.

25

26 **3.4 Drought effects in relation to site-specific differences**

1 To summarize and illustrate drought effects in relation to site-specific differences, a principal
2 component analysis (PCA) was conducted, including all studied parameters. In total, three
3 factors with eigenvalues >1 were identified and accounted for 68.9% of the total variance. In a
4 biplot showing the first two factors (PC1 and PC2, accounting in total for 55.1% of the
5 variance) on PC1 samples were separated (34.9%) according to sampling site (two-way
6 ANOVA with factor loadings: ($F(1)=102.4$; $p<0.001$) and drought treatment ($F(1)=5.9$;
7 $p<0.05$, interaction: ns). PC2 explained 20.1% and primarily displayed drought effects ($F(1)=$
8 9.1 ; $p<0.01$), but was not affected by site ($F(1)= 0.9$; $p=ns$; interaction: ns). The main
9 parameters responsible for the separation along PC1 were higher EON and
10 NH_4^+ concentrations, as well as higher potential gross nitrification and gross NO_3^-
11 immobilization rates at the abandoned site, which were in contrast to higher abundances of
12 AOB and NO_3^- concentrations that were dominating at the meadow (Fig. 6). This pattern was
13 supported by positive correlations between EON and NH_4^+ concentrations in controls of both,
14 the meadow ($R=0.59$, $p<0.001$) and the abandoned site ($R=0.57$, $p<0.01$). Moreover, in
15 controls of the meadow NO_3^- correlated negatively with EON concentrations ($R=-0.67$,
16 $p<0.001$), but positively with AOB abundances ($R=0.42$, $p<0.05$). Only in controls of the
17 abandoned site EON correlated with gross N mineralization ($R=0.60$, $p<0.001$) and with SWC
18 ($R=0.60$, $p<0.001$). PC2 separated the drought treatment from the controls, although this
19 effect was stronger for the meadow than for the abandoned site. SWC was distributed along
20 PC2 opposing the vectors for potential gross N mineralization and gross NH_4^+ immobilization
21 (Fig. 6). Specifically in soil samples from the meadow subjected to drought the potential gross
22 NH_4^+ immobilization rates correlated negatively with SWC ($R=-0.62$, $p<0.001$).

23

24 **4 Discussion**

25 **4.1 Effects of drought on soil N dynamics and ammonia-oxidizer abundances**

1 In our study the potential of the microbial community to mineralize organic nitrogen to
2 ammonium was not affected by drought irrespectively of site-specific differences related to
3 land-management. Thus, this comparably 'broad' soil process remained stable and could show
4 that N mineralization may have been dominated by drought tolerant microbial generalists like
5 e.g. fungi (Allison and Martiny 2008, Schimel and Schaeffer, 2012). Only in soils of the
6 managed meadow potential gross rates of microbial NH_4^+ immobilization and therefore NH_4^+
7 turnover increased during drought. This points to a potentially increased microbial N demand
8 to facilitate the synthesis of nitrogenous osmolytes to balance the osmotic potential between
9 the soil solution and microbial cells (Schimel et al., 2007). At the abandoned site, however,
10 the microbial NH_4^+ uptake potential remained unaffected by drought, which suggests a high
11 stability of this process, or a microbial community that might use other than N-containing
12 substrates for osmolyte production (Schimel et al. 2007).

13 As microbial nitrification appears to be a more 'narrow' process than microbial N
14 mineralization (Schimel and Schaeffer, 2012), we expected nitrification rates to respond
15 sensitive to dry conditions. In the presented study, however, responses of potential
16 nitrification to drought were diverging between the studied sites. In accordance with other
17 studies, where grassland and heathland sites had been subjected to drought (Hartmann et al.,
18 2013; Larsen et al., 2011), the microbial nitrification potential was not affected by drought at
19 the managed meadow. At the abandoned site, in turn, drought reduced the dynamics of
20 potential nitrification and NO_3^- immobilization, which was also shown e.g. for forest soils
21 (Chen et al., 2011), or grassland under oak forest (Stark and Firestone, 1996). Thus, responses
22 of potential nitrification rates to drought seem to be strongly context dependent and may not
23 be generalized.

24 Drought distinctly affected bacterial and archaeal *amoA* gene copy numbers, which
25 were used as proxy for the abundance of AOB and AOA. As expected, AOB were stable and
26 not affected by drought at both sites. The observed decrease of AOA in response to drought at

1 the managed meadow in our study was similar to results reported by Thion and Prosser
2 (2014), where the observed decrease of archaeal *amoA* abundance during drought was likely
3 related to strong increases of NH_4^+ during drought. In our study soil NH_4^+ concentrations
4 calculated per gram dry soil were not affected during drought at either site, similar to the
5 study of Hartmann et al. (2013) in subalpine grassland soils. When NH_4^+ concentrations were
6 calculated per g soil water however, five-fold increases at the meadow and up to three-fold
7 increases at the abandoned site were observed. Thus, it is likely that the stronger increase of
8 NH_4^+ in the soil solution of the meadow could have induced the decrease of archaeal *amoA*
9 genes. Thus, our findings corroborate that responses of archaeal *amoA* abundances to drought
10 could be rather driven by changes in soil NH_4^+ concentrations as a consequence of decreasing
11 water content than by decreasing soil water content alone (Thion and Prosser, 2014; Delgado-
12 Bazquerizo et al., 2013).

13 Overall, these findings partly support the hypothesis that the impact of drought on the
14 abandoned site could be stronger at the meadow than at the abandoned site. In contrast to the
15 managed meadow, where aboveground plant biomass is annually removed and harvested, at
16 the abandoned site a thicker litter layer (Meyer et al., 2012), and higher SOM content were
17 accumulated, which might have protected the soil from drying out (Brady and Weil, 2002;
18 Franzluebbers, 2002; Knapp et al., 2008).

19

20 **4.2 Effects of rewetting and recovery dynamics**

21 Rewetting after drought has been shown to induce short term increases of N
22 mineralization in soil, which are likely caused by microbial release of accumulated osmolytes
23 to avoid lysis, but also by re-connecting soil pores and increasing the nutrient availability for
24 microbes (Evans and Wallenstein, 2012; Fierer and Schimel, 2002; Saetre and Stark, 2005).
25 We therefore expected a strong increase of N mineralization rates in the soils after rewetting,
26 but at both sites one day after rewetting neither gross N mineralization, nor NH_4^+

1 immobilization rates responded to water addition, which is similar to findings by Chen et al.
2 (2011). Due to the described short-term character of N mineralization peaks after rewetting
3 we might have missed a possible increase.

4 The potential rates of nitrification, as well as of NO_3^- immobilisation were increased at
5 both sites one day after rewetting, while neither AOB, nor AOA gene copy numbers were
6 affected. Placella and Firestone (2013) detected strong increases in the transcript abundances
7 of both bacterial and archaeal *amoA* within two hours after rewetting at constant gene copy
8 numbers, accompanied by increases in nitrification rates, which suggests an activity pulse of
9 ammonia-oxidizing organisms (Fierer and Schimel 2002). In non drought-adapted grassland
10 soils, however, AOB were found to have benefited from the flush of NH_4^+ after rewetting and
11 to be more tolerant and resilient after drought than AOA (Thion and Prosser, 2014).
12 Nonetheless, rewetting after long dry periods may initially rather stimulate microbial activity,
13 and DNA-based methods could underestimate potential dynamics (Barnard et al., 2013).

14 In spite of the fact that effects of drought were very diverse and divergent between
15 sites, seven weeks after termination of drought all determined parameters, (except NO_3^-
16 concentrations at the meadow), were similar to undisturbed controls, which indicates a high
17 resilience of the studied grasslands after drought. Moreover, we detected a strong temporal
18 variability of organic and inorganic N concentrations in soils at both sites that might be
19 related to overall seasonal microclimatic fluctuations, and indirectly to altered levels of plant
20 N demand and plant phenology (see eg. Kaiser et al., 2011).

21

22 **5. Summary and conclusions**

23 Our study showed that experimental drought under in situ conditions distinctly
24 affected N cycling and gene abundances of ammonia-oxidizers in soils of differently managed
25 mountain grassland sites. Potential N mineralization was less affected by drought than the

1 nitrification potential. However, we could not detect a link between the potential nitrification
2 rates and abundances of bacterial and archaeal ammonia-oxidizer, as was reported by Meyer
3 et al. (2013) for intensively managed agricultural soils. This lack of correlation could indicate
4 that the ammonia oxidizers may not have fully exploited their nitrification potential (Prosser
5 and Nicol, 2012). Alternatively, they may have down-regulated their transcriptional activity
6 (Barnard et al., 2013 Placella et al., 2013) or that heterotrophic nitrification by bacteria or
7 fungi could have contributed to NO_3^- production (e.g, Pedersen et al., 1990). It might also hint
8 to functional and structural differences of AOA (Alves et al., 2013) and AOB populations
9 between the studied sites (Gleeson et al., 2010).

10 The distinct responses of ammonia-oxidizer in the studied grasslands, specifically of
11 AOA, could likely be related to increases of NH_4^+ in the soil solution rather than to decreases
12 of soil water content *per se*, but our results only partially confirmed this idea. Generally,
13 impacts of drought were more pronounced at the managed as compared to the abandoned
14 grassland, which could have been caused by beneficial effects of a thicker litter layer and
15 higher soil organic matter content on soil moisture at the abandoned grassland. In addition,
16 differences found in the prevalent N-pools, nitrification rates, as well as abundances of
17 ammonia-oxidizing organisms between the two grasslands suggest that effects of drought on
18 soil N dynamics could have been modulated by the level of land-use.

19

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1 **Tables**

2 Table 1. Soil parameters, nitrogen pools ($\mu\text{g N g}^{-1}\text{DW soil}$ and in $\mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ soil water: *water*
 3 *sol.*), nitrogen turnover rates ($\mu\text{g N g}^{-1}\text{DW soil d}^{-1}$), mean residence times (MRT) of
 4 ammonium and nitrate (h), as well as microbial abundances (gene copies $\text{g}^{-1}\text{DW soil}$) in soils
 5 of the meadow and the abandoned site ($n=28$; means \pm standard error). Effects of site and
 6 sampling time, as well as their interaction were assessed by repeated-measures ANOVA for
 7 non drought-treated controls. Asterisks mark levels of significance: $^{\circ}=\leq 0.1$; $^*=\text{p}<0.05$;
 8 $^{**}=\text{p}<0.01$; $^{***}=\text{p}<0.001$ (1 differences between sites for WHC_{max} ; $n=16$, and SOM content
 9 $n=12$ were analysed by t-tests).

10

	Meadow	Abandoned site	Site		Time		Site x Time	
	Mean (\pm SE)	Mean (\pm SE)	F(1)	p	F(6)	p	F(1,6)	p
SOM content (%)	13.3 (\pm 0.8)	22.5 (\pm 1.5)		*** ¹				
WHC_{max} (g $\text{H}_2\text{O g}^{-1}\text{DW}$)	1.5 (\pm 0.1)	2.0 (\pm 0.3)		*** ¹				
SWC (% of WHC_{max})	44.2 (\pm 1.7)	45.4 (\pm 1.8)	0.8		5.2	***	2.6	*
C_{tot} (%)	7.0 (\pm 0.2)	11.2 (\pm 0.7)	33.0	***	1.5		0.9	
N_{tot} (%)	0.7 (\pm 0.1)	0.9 (\pm 0.1)	15.2	***	1.3		0.8	
$\text{C}_{\text{tot}}:\text{N}_{\text{tot}}$	10.1 (\pm 0.1)	12.0 (\pm 0.2)	73.7	***	1.3		0.2	
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) <i>bulk soil</i>	-26.5 (\pm 0.2)	-25.6 (\pm 0.1)	44.1	***	0.9		1.4	
$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) <i>bulk soil</i>	4.9 (\pm 0.2)	4.1 (\pm 0.2)	11.2	**	1.4		0.9	
EON	31.4 (\pm 1.5)	55.6 (\pm 5.5)	33.5	***	2.1		2.9	*
NH_4^+	5.7 (\pm 0.6)	11.1 (\pm 0.9)	42.7	***	2.1		2.8	*
NO_3^-	2.2 (\pm 0.6)	0.4 (\pm 0.1)	14.2	***	1.1		3.6	**
$\text{MRT}_{\text{NH}_4^+}$	27.4 (\pm 6.8)	33.3 (\pm 6.1)	1.7		2.2	$^{\circ}$	1.3	
$\text{MRT}_{\text{NO}_3^-}$	30.3 (\pm 10.0)	2.2 (\pm 0.7)	29.4	***	1.8		2.5	*
EON <i>water sol.</i>	51.3 (\pm 3.4)	60.6 (\pm 4.6)	3.8	$^{\circ}$	3.9	*	2.5	*
NH_4^+ <i>water sol.</i>	9.2 (\pm 0.8)	12.0 (\pm 0.7)	12.0	**	2.3	$^{\circ}$	2.0	$^{\circ}$
NO_3^- <i>water sol.</i>	3.3 (\pm 0.9)	0.5 (\pm 0.1)	20.1	***	0.7		4.0	**
Gross N Min	8.5 (\pm 1.0)	11.1 (\pm 2.0)	0.1		0.9		1.4	
Gross NH_4^+ Immo	8.1 (\pm 0.8)	13.4 (\pm 1.7)	1.1		0.5		1.4	
Gross Nit	5.9 (\pm 0.7)	11.1 (\pm 1.4)	12.4	**	2.9	*	1.7	
Gross NO_3^- Immo	4.6 (\pm 0.9)	12.4 (\pm 1.1)	47.4	***	4.7	***	2.9	
AOA	1.79×10^6	1.82×10^6	0.0		0.5		0.5	
AOB	8.68×10^5	2.25×10^5	37.2	***	1.3		0.4	
AOA:AOB ratio	2.8 (\pm 0.6)	26.3 (\pm 13.2)	27.0	***	0.4		0.7	

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1 Table 2. Thermal profiles and primers used for real-time PCR quantification of functional
 2 genes of ammonia-oxidation.

Target gene	Thermal profile	No. of cycles	Primer	Source of standard
<i>amoA</i> AOA	95°C-10 min 94°C-45 s/55°C-45 s/ 72°C-45 s	40	<i>amo19F</i> , <i>CrenamoA16r48x</i> (Leininger et al., 2006; Schauss et al., 2009)	Fosmid clone 54d9
<i>amoA</i> AOB	95°C-10 min 94°C-60 s/58°C-60 s/ 72°C-60 s	40	<i>amoA1F</i> , <i>amoA2R</i> (Rotthauwe et al., 1997)	<i>Nitrosomonas</i> sp.

3

1 Table 3. Effects of the drought simulation and sampling time on all measured soil parameters
 2 and microbial abundances for the meadow and the abandoned site assessed by repeated-
 3 measures ANOVA ($n=28$), within-factor was plot identity ($n=4$); asterisks mark levels of
 4 significance: $^{\circ}=p<0.1$; $*=p<0.05$; $**=p<0.01$; $***=p<0.001$.

	Meadow						Abandoned site					
	Drought		Time		Drought x Time		Drought		Time		Drought x Time	
	<i>F</i> (1)	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i> (6)	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i> (1,6)	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i> (1)	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i> (6)	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i> (1,6)	<i>p</i>
SWC	175.2	***	5.5	***	7.7	***	69.2	***	4.4	**	8.5	***
C _{tot}	3.3		1.4		1.0		2.2		3.8	**	2.1	$^{\circ}$
N _{tot}	2.7		1.3		1.0		1.8		3.5	**	1.9	$^{\circ}$
C _{tot} :N _{tot}	2.2		1.5		0.6		6.4	*	6.2	***	1.9	
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) <i>bulk soil</i>	3.6	$^{\circ}$	1.1		0.7		3.9	$^{\circ}$	1.9		0.3	
$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) <i>bulk soil</i>	14.9	***	3.6	**	1.8		<0.1		2.8	*	1.0	
EON	2.9	$^{\circ}$	4.4	**	3.4	**	1.1		11.3	***	1.1	
NH ₄ ⁺	0.4		2.0	$^{\circ}$	2.3	$^{\circ}$	<0.1		4.0	**	1.3	
NO ₃ ⁻	0.2		2.8	*	3.6	**	0.1		0.6		1.2	
MRT _{NH4+}	3.7	$^{\circ}$	1.4		1.6		1.8		2.0		2.8	
MRT _{NO3-}	<0.1		1.0		2.3		0.6		1.3		0.4	
EON <i>water sol.</i>	82.2	***	5.1	***	6.0	***	66.1	***	15.0	***	4.0	**
NH ₄ ⁺ <i>water sol.</i>	47.6	***	4.3	**	4.7	**	42.2	***	5.7	***	3.2	*
NO ₃ ⁻ <i>water sol.</i>	4.2	*	2.2	**	1.8		4.0		0.8	$^{\circ}$	2.7	*
Gross N Min	1.9		3.6	**	1.2		<0.1		2.8	*	0.9	
Gross NH ₄ ⁺ Immo	4.5	*	2.8	*	1.5		<0.1		0.3		0.5	
GrossNit	0.1		1.2		0.6		4.9	***	3.6	$^{\circ}$	4.1	**
Gross NO ₃ ⁻ Immo	1.1		1.5		3.3	**	7.5	**	8.6	***	2.2	$^{\circ}$
AOA	10.8	**	0.8		0.7		0.1		1.1		0.4	
AOB	2.4		1.6		0.8		0.1		0.5		1.2	
AOA:AOB	19.9	***	1.1		1.0		2.5		1.1		0.4	

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6

1 Figures

2 Figure 1. Precipitation (a) and soil water content (b, SWC) calculated as percentage of the
3 respective WHC_{max} . Grey bars indicate precipitation (in $mm\ d^{-1}$). Filled symbols represent
4 controls of the meadow (triangles) and abandoned site (circles), open symbols show the
5 respective drought treated plots (error bars indicate standard error, $n=4$). Asterisks indicate
6 differences between controls and drought treatments at single sampling points (levels of
7 significance Bonferroni-corrected; * $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$, symbols without parentheses refer to
8 the meadow; symbols in parentheses to the abandoned site). The period of drought treatment
9 is marked as grey background.

10 Figure 2. Soil N concentrations per g^{-1} dry soil over the course of the experiment at the
11 meadow (left panels) and the abandoned site (right panels) in controls (black bars) and
12 drought treated plots (grey bars). (a,b) Extractable organic N (EON), (c, d) ammonium (NH_4^+)
13 and (e, f) nitrate (NO_3^- , note the different scaling!). The grey background indicates the period
14 of drought treatment. Differences between control and drought at single sampling points were
15 assessed by t-tests with Bonferroni corrected levels of significance ($n=4$, respectively, bars
16 show means; error bars indicate standard error). Effects of drought and sampling time were
17 assessed by two-way repeated measures ANOVA, for further details see Table 3.

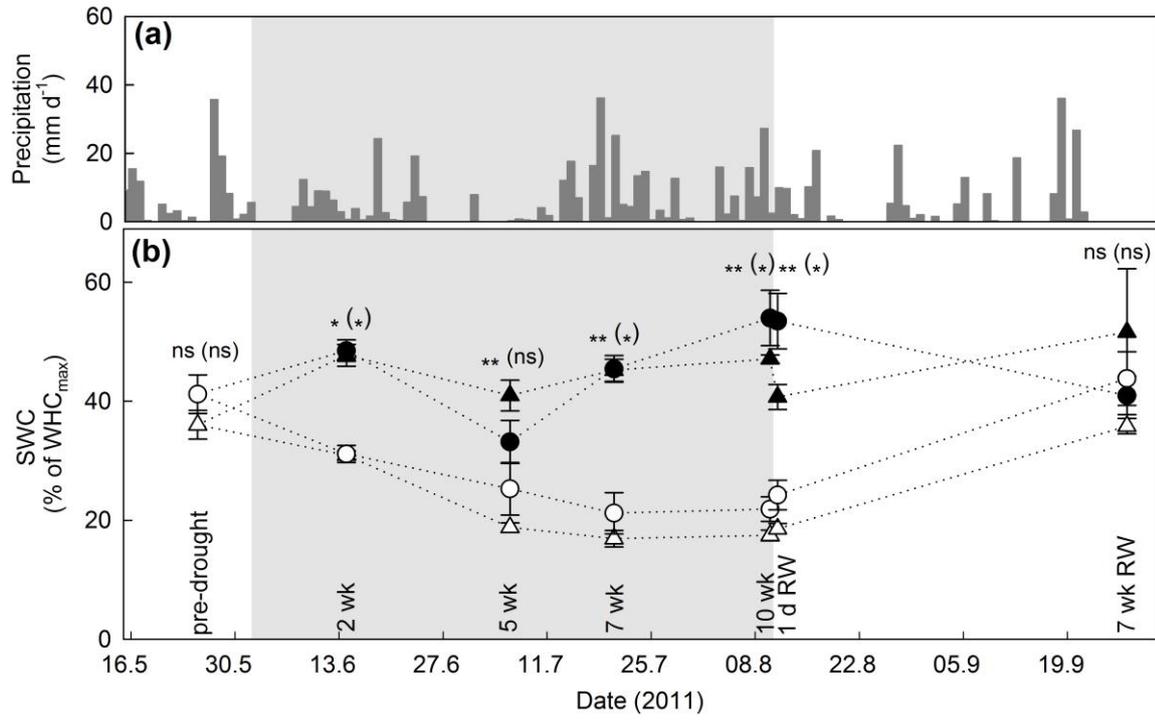
18 Figure 3. Soil N concentrations per g^{-1} soil water over the course of the experiment at the
19 meadow (left panels) and the abandoned site (right panels) in controls (black bars) and
20 drought treated plots (grey bars). (a,b) Extractable organic N (EON), (c, d) ammonium (NH_4^+)
21 and (e, f) nitrate (NO_3^- , note the different scaling!). The grey background indicates the period
22 of drought treatment. Differences between control and drought at single sampling points were
23 assessed by t-tests with Bonferroni corrected levels of significance; ° $p<0.1$; * $p<0.05$;
24 ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$, ($n=4$, respectively, bars show means; error bars indicate standard
25 error). Effects of drought and sampling time were assessed by two-way repeated measures
26 ANOVA, for further details see Table 3.

27 Figure 4. N transformation rates over the course of the experiment at the meadow (left panel)
28 and the abandoned site (right panel) in control (black bars) and drought treated plots (grey
29 bars). (a,b) gross N mineralization (upper part) and gross microbial NH_4^+ immobilization rates
30 (lower part); (c,d) gross nitrification (upper part) and gross microbial NO_3^- immobilization
31 rates (lower part). The grey background indicates the period of drought treatment. Differences
32 between control and drought treated plots at single sampling points assessed by t-tests with
33 Bonferroni corrected levels of significance ($n=4$, respectively, error bars indicate standard
34 error). Effects of drought and sampling time were assessed by two-way repeated measures
35 ANOVA, for further details see Table 3.

36 Figure 5. Gene copy numbers of ammonia oxidizers at the meadow (left panel) and
37 abandoned site (right panel) over the course of the experiment. (a, b) display archaeal (*amoA*
38 AOA) and (c, d) bacterial (*amoA* AOB) *amoA* gene copy numbers, and (e, f) the ratio of
39 AOA:AOB gene copy numbers. Black bars show controls, grey bars drought treatments ($n=4$,
40 error bars indicate standard error). The grey background indicates the period of drought

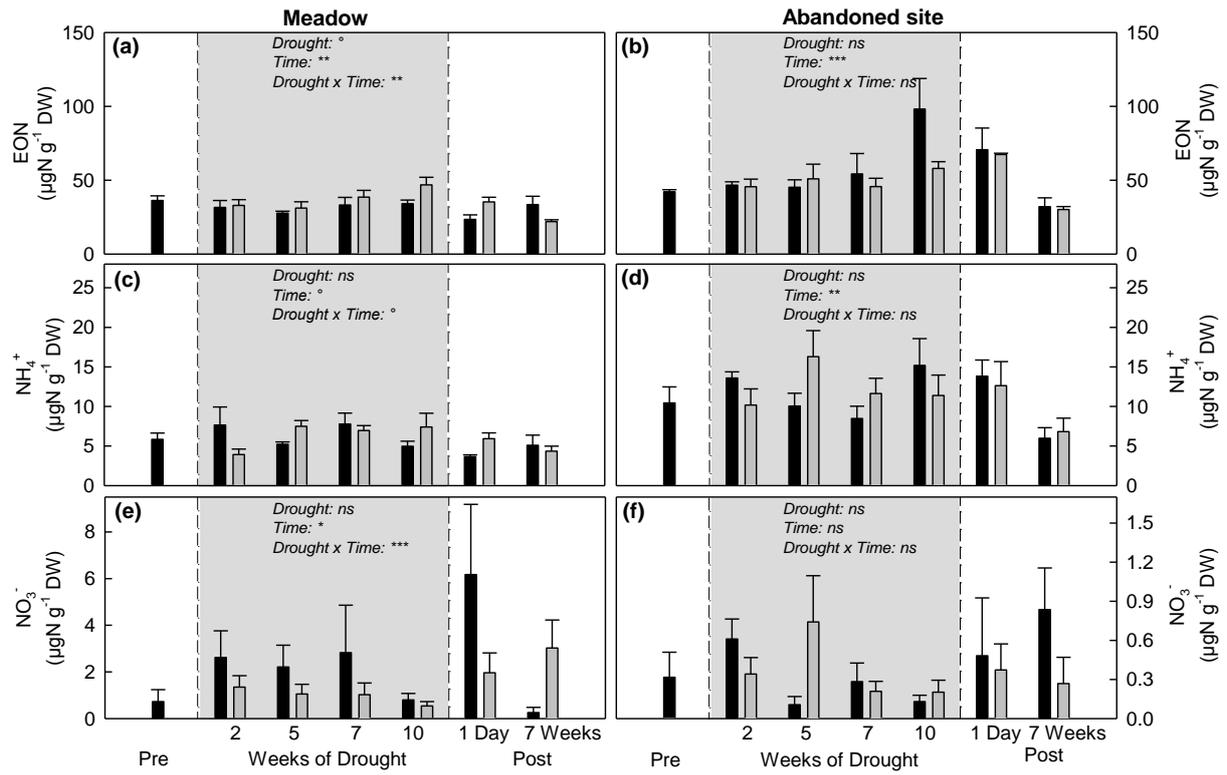
1 treatment. Differences between control and drought treated plots at single sampling points
2 assessed by t-tests with Bonferroni corrected levels of significance. Effects of drought and
3 sampling time were assessed by two-way repeated measures ANOVA, for further details see
4 Table 3.

5 Figure 6. Biplot, displaying PC1 and PC2 derived from principal component analysis. Filled
6 symbols represent control plots at the meadow (triangles) and the abandoned site (circles),
7 open symbols show the drought treatment of the respective sites. Vectors display the variables
8 contributing to PCA (C_{tot} =total carbon, N_{tot} = total nitrogen, for further abbreviations see
9 results).



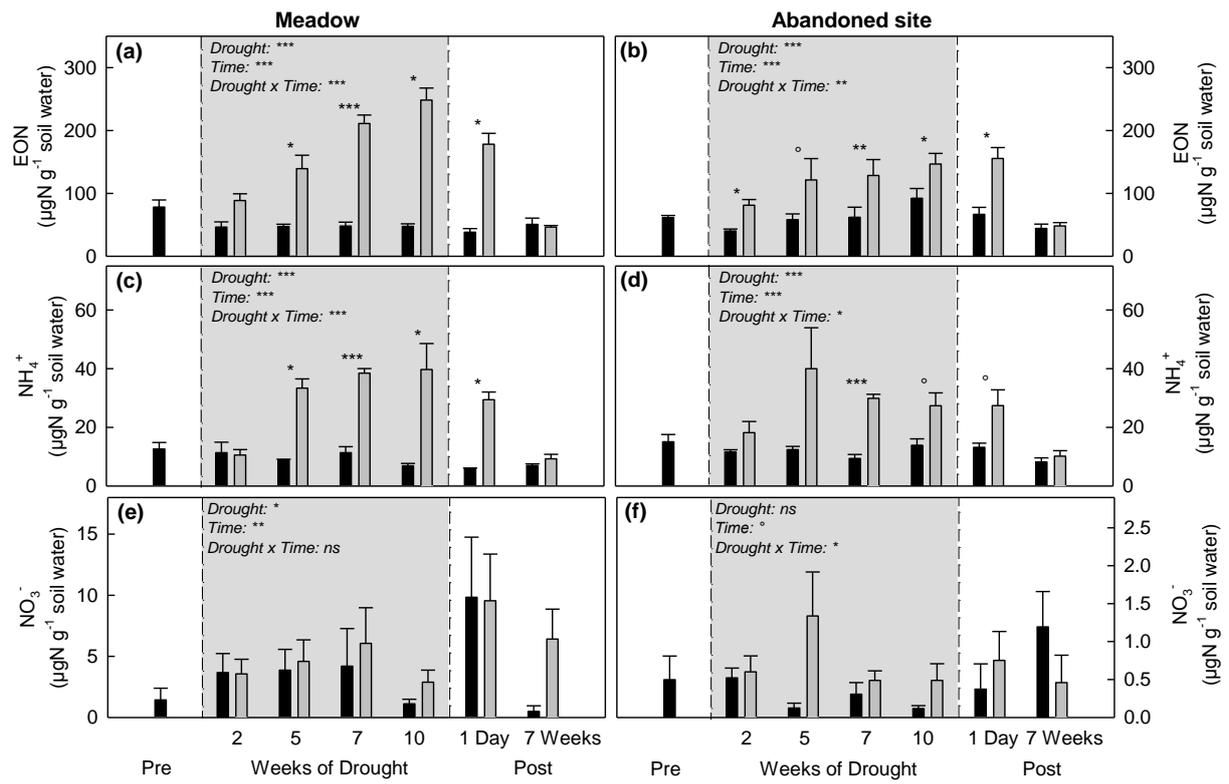
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2 Figure 1



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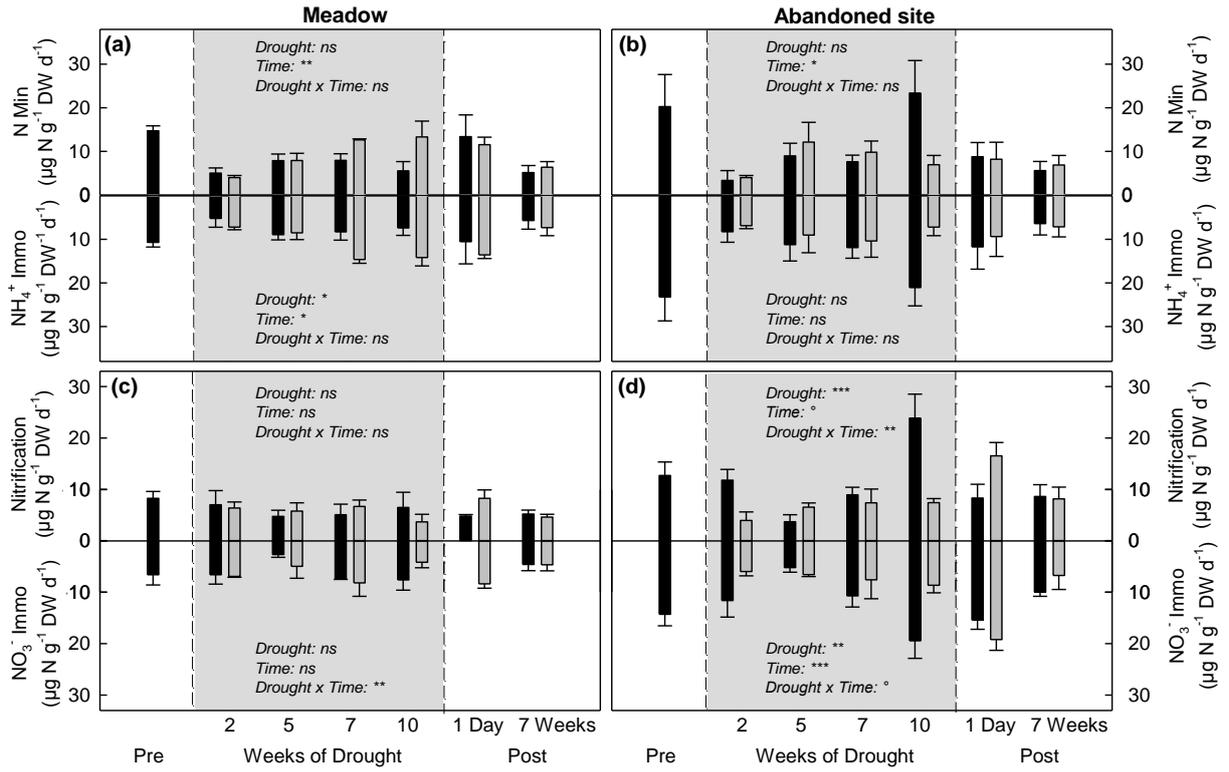
2 Figure 2



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3 Figure 3

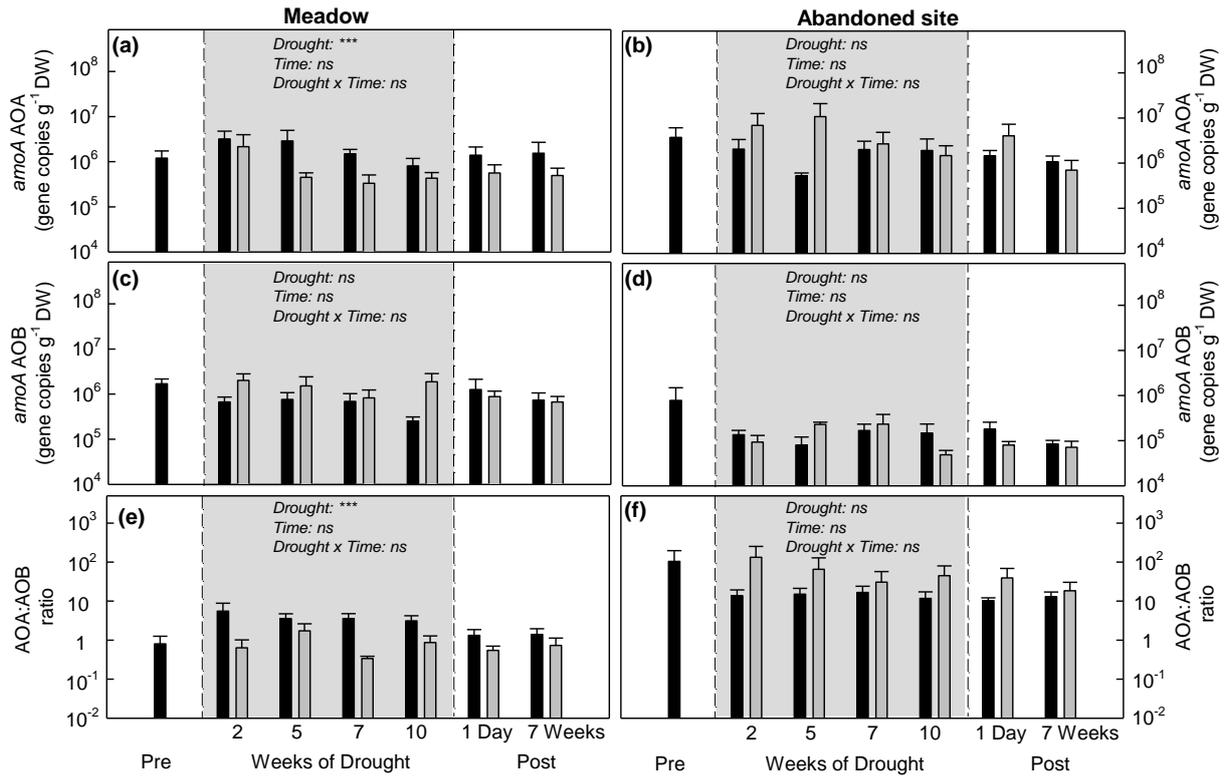
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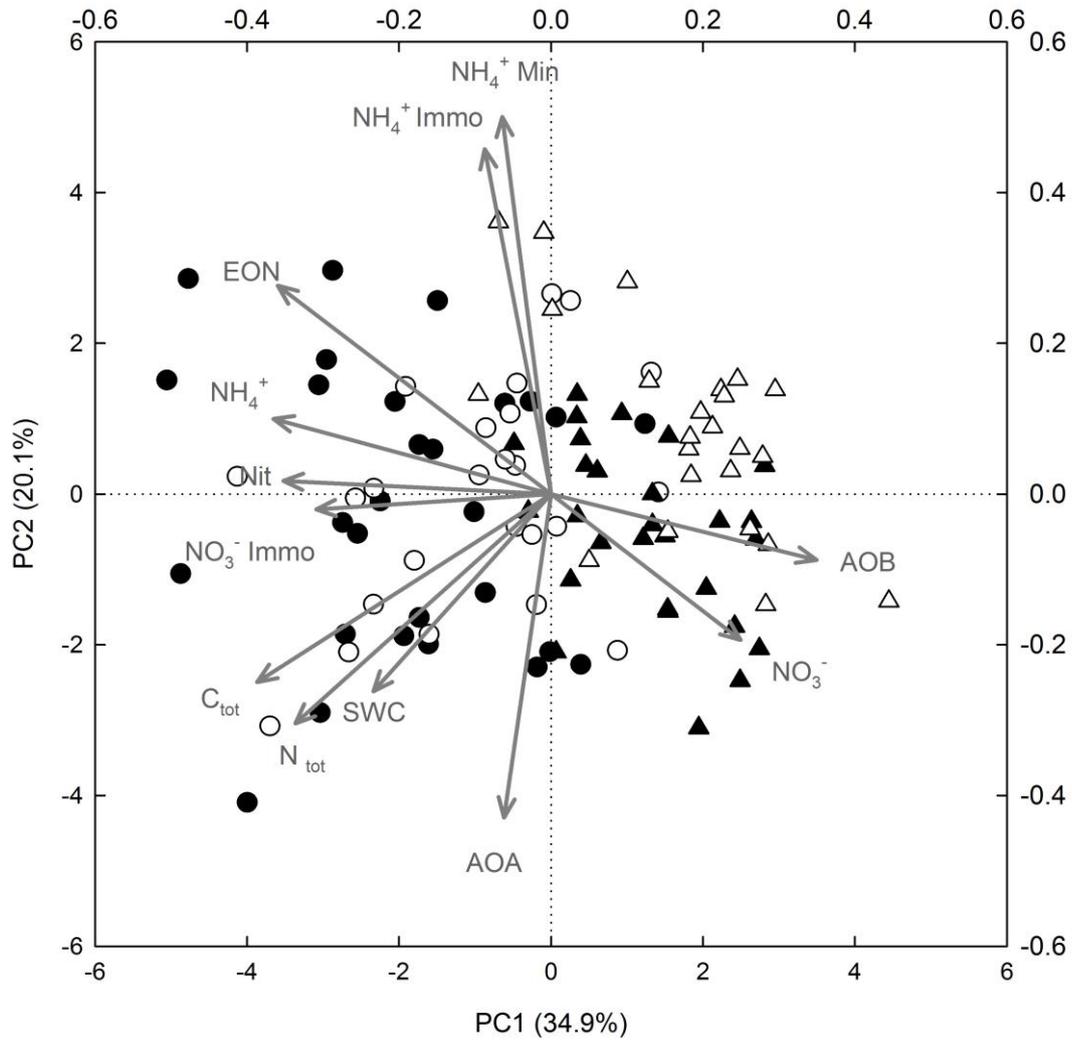
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2 Figure 6

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