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To:The Editors (Dr. Sönke Zaehle), BiogeosciencesDate:18 August 2015Subject:Re-submission following minor revisions

Dear Dr. Zaehle,

Please find the attached file containing our revised manuscript for publication in Biogeosciences, *Soil microbial nutrient constraints along a tropical forest elevation gradient: a belowground test of a biogeochemical paradigm* (bg-2015-76). We have revised the manuscript according to our comments in the Biogeosciences 'Interactive discussion'. Below we provide a detailed list of these minor changes, including where in the manuscript we have addressed the points raised by reviewer #2 on pages C4022, C4023 and C4024 of the interactive discussion.

Yours Sincerely,

Andrew Nottingham

Revisions to the manuscript

Reviewer #1 comments

Reviewer comment:

The text could clarified better why and for whom the studied hypothesis is important.

Author response:

We added a sentence to the opening paragraph in the introduction to clarify why the study is important (Lines 62-64) as follows:

"It is important to identify nutrient constraints to soil microbial process in tropical forests to understand how anthropogenic alteration of biogeochemical cycles will impact C storage in these ecosystems."

Reviewer comment:

Fig 1 presents results of global meta-analysis for comparison. A discussion in the text would be appreciated.

Author response:

We now refer to this meta-analyses comparison in our discussion. The most interesting comparison was the relatively low microbial C:P ratios in our samples compared to the global data set reported in Cleveland and Lipzin (2007). This is discussed in the context of mechanisms by which microbes might maintain homeostasis (e.g. nutrient acquisition and immobilisation) in the face of changing resource availability (Lines 409-411).

Reviewer comment:

Fig 3 presents total mineralized N using log scale. I get the impression that it does not change. However, the actual significant decrease is one of the main arguments for increasing N limitation with elevation.

Author response:

We agree with the reviewer, and have placed the total mineralized N and *N*-acetyl glucosaminidase activity on different y-axes. The significant decrease with elevation is now much clearer (and further supported by statistics in Table 1).

Reviewer comment:

Figure caption of Fig. 4 states "maximum potential enzyme activities determined" What is the meaning of the "maximum"?

Author response:

Maximum potential activity refers to V_{max} of enzymatic activity, whereby enzyme activities were determined under saturating substrate. We have simplified the caption to refer simply to enzyme activity, which is commonly used in the literature to refer to maximum potential activity.

Reviewer #2 comments

Reviewer comment:

The statement 3) is not clear to me: which ratio are you talking about? Why should it be enzymes involved in the release of N AND P? given you are talking about the decreasing N availability and increasing P availability with increasing elevation, I would expect an increase investment in enzymes releasing N only.

Author response:

We thank the reviewer for identifying a poorly worded and ambiguous statement. We have changed the statement to clarify the hypothesis as follows:

"increased ratios of enzymes involved in the degradation of compounds containing N and P" has been changed to: "increased activity of enzymes involved in the degradation of compounds containing N relative to those containing P (increased N:P enzymatic ratio)"

Reviewer comment:

Quantifying enzyme activities with only one measurement time and not in kinetics is not advisable (though it's usual in soil science). Have you checked that the substrate was still in excess at the end of incubation?

Author response:

With regards to making measurements at one time only: If the reviewer is referring to measuring activity at a single time during the assay and at a single substrate concentration, we can confirm that we checked linearity of enzyme activity with time during the assay, and that we checked that we measured activity at saturating substrate concentration (therefore substrate still in excess at the end of the incubation). We have added the following statement in the methods to make this clear, lines 252-255:

"For a sub-set of samples we measured enzyme activities using substrate concentrations ranging from $10 - 1000 \mu$ I MU to check that the substrate remained in excess at the end of the incubation in our main analyses."

If the reviewer is referring to a measuring activity at a single seasonal time point, because there is no significant seasonal temperature variation in the tropics we predict variation due to seasonality of rainfall only. Therefore, we were careful to make our measurements during the wet season for all sites. It is possible that there was seasonal variation in enzyme activity relating to rainfall, but soil moisture measurements (Zimmermann et al 2010) have shown that none of the sites appear to suffer significant seasonal moisture stress, suggesting that our sampling, though limited by access to a remote location, will be representative of the prevailing conditions at other times of the year. We have made this point clearer in lines 183-190.

"Any seasonal variation in our measured soil and microbial properties, would most likely be driven by seasonality of rainfall at low elevation sites (Turner and Wright, 2014). However, December is in the rainy season for all of these sites (Rapp and Silman, 2012), therefore our assessments were made during a relatively constant period of active decomposition when moisture was not limiting. Furthermore, soil moisture measurements have shown that none of the sites appear to suffer significant seasonal moisture stress (Zimmermann et al., 2010), suggesting that our sampling is representative of the prevailing conditions at other times of the year."

Reviewer comment:

I disagree with the fact that enzyme activities need to be normalized by soil organic C (it's not clear whether you are talking about C stock or C concentrations, this should be clarified). It is well known that a large part of SOC is not accessible to microbes and does not fuel enzymatic activities: SOC can be linked to minerals or occluded in soil pore not accessible to microbes, some SOC compounds are too poor in energy to sustain microbial activity. . . This "normalization" can lead to important biases since the amounts of SOC vary substantially between sites. If you wish to conserve this way of presenting data, non-normalized activities must also be presented and must not challenge your main statements.

Author response:

We normalized enzyme activities to SOC to avoid bias, because SOC contents vary widely among sites. Although the SOC is not entirely accessible to microbes, the total SOC concentration correlate strongly with 'bio-available' soil C along this gradient; total SOC is strongly correlated with the relative abundance of C in particulate organic fractions and in O-alkyl groups (Zimmermann, M. et al. 2012. Biogeochemistry **107**:423-436.). Presumably for this reason, enzyme activity is commonly standardized to soil C concentration in the literature (e.g. Sinsabaugh, R. L et al., Ecol Lett, 11, 1252-1264, 2008.)

We have made it clearer in our methods section that we normalized enzyme activities to soil organic C concentrations as follows (lines 266-268):

"Enzyme activities were expressed on the basis of soil organic C (nmol MU g C⁻¹ min⁻¹), to allow for direct comparisons among our sites with widely different organic C concentrations."

We can also refer the reviewer to the magnitude of difference in enzyme activities along this gradient (~500 fold) compared to the magnitude of difference in SOC concentration along this gradient (~30 fold) – indicating that the patterns we found and our conclusions are unaffected by normalization of enzyme data to SOC. Finally, and importantly, we note that our main conclusions are drawn from ratios of enzyme activities, which remain unchanged regardless of whether (and to what) enzyme activities are normalized.

- 2 Article to: Biogeosciences
- 4 tables and 5 figures (2 tables and 1 figure in supplementary materials)
- **Soil microbial nutrient constraints along a tropical forest**
- elevation gradient: a belowground test of a biogeochemical
- 7 paradigm
- 8
- 9 Andrew T. Nottingham^{1, 2*}, Benjamin L. Turner², Jeanette Whitaker³, Nick Ostle⁴, Niall P.
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- 21
- 22 Keywords:
- ²³ β-glucosidase, *N*-acetyl β-glucosaminidase, phosphomonoesterase, tropical lowland forest, tropical
- 24 montane forest, soil carbon, soil microorganisms, soil extracellular enzymes

25 Abstract

Aboveground primary productivity is widely considered to be limited by phosphorus (P) availability in lowland tropical forests and by nitrogen (N) availability in montane tropical forests. However, the extent to which this paradigm applies to belowground processes remains unresolved. We measured indices of soil microbial nutrient status in lowland, sub-montane and montane tropical forests along a natural gradient spanning 3400 m in elevation in the Peruvian Andes. With increasing elevation there were marked increases in soil concentrations of total N, total P, and readily-extractable P, but a decrease in N mineralization determined by in situ resin bags. Microbial carbon (C) and N increased with increasing elevation, but microbial C:N:P ratios were relatively constant, suggesting homeostasis. The activity of hydrolytic enzymes, which are rich in N, decreased with increasing elevation, while the ratios of enzymes involved in the acquisition of N and P increased with increasing elevation, further indicating a shift in the relative demand for N and P by microbial biomass. We conclude that soil microorganisms shift investment in nutrient acquisition from P to N between lowland and montane tropical forests, suggesting that different nutrients regulate soil microbial metabolism and the soil carbon balance in these ecosystems.

49 <u>1. Introduction</u>

Tropical forests have a major influence on the global carbon (C) cycle, being the most productive 50 ecosystems on Earth and containing 34–55% of the C in forests worldwide (Beer et al., 2010; Pan et 51 52 al., 2011). The exchange of C between the atmosphere and forests is mediated by the availability of mineral nutrients, so there is widespread interest in understanding how plant or microbial 53 metabolic processes are constrained by the deficiencies of specific 'limiting' nutrients (Cleveland et 54 al., 2011; Wright et al., 2011), and how human alteration of these nutrient cycles may impact 55 tropical ecosystems (Hietz et al., 2011; Townsend et al., 2011). Our understanding of nutrient 56 limitation to the tropical forest C cycle is based largely on the responses of aboveground 57 production. In contrast, belowground processes remain relatively under-studied, despite evidence 58 that belowground processes are limited by different nutrients to those limiting aboveground 59 productivity in some ecosystems, including tropical forests (Sundareshwar et al., 2003; Turner and 60 Wright, 2014). It is important to identify nutrient constraints to soil microbial process in tropical 61 forests to understand how anthropogenic alteration of biogeochemical cycles will impact C storage 62 in these ecosystems. 63

Primary productivity is commonly constrained by nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) 64 availability in ecosystems globally (Elser et al., 2007). In lowland tropical forests, primary 65 productivity is widely considered to be limited by P availability (Reed et al., 2011; Vitousek et al., 66 2010), in part because lowland forests are dominated by strongly weathered soils that contain low 67 concentrations of biologically available P and high apparent N availability (Hedin et al., 2009; Reed 68 et al., 2011). In contrast, primary productivity in tropical montane forests is often considered to be 69 limited by the availability of N rather than P (Tanner et al., 1998). This is because soil P depletion in 70 montane environments is countered by the actions of tectonic uplift, erosion and landslide activity 71 (Porder and Hilley, 2010), while N inputs via litter mineralization and biological N fixation can be 72

reduced by low temperatures and fewer legumes (Bruijnzeel et al., 2011). Overall, these processes
 appear to reinforce the pattern of P deficiency in lowland forests and N deficiency in montane
 tropical ecosystems.

76 The notion that there is switch from predominantly P to N limitation of primary productivity between lowland and montane tropical forests is supported by experimental studies in forest 77 communities (Tanner et al., 1998). Also, the widespread existence of P-limitation of primary 78 production in lowland tropical forests (Hedin et al., 2009; Vitousek and Sanford, 1986) is supported 79 by studies in which P fertilization increased the growth of trees and seedlings (Alvarez-Clare et al., 80 2013) and increased litter production (Mirmanto et al., 1999; Wright et al., 2011). Although co-81 limitation by N, P and K of seedling and sapling growth (Santiago et al., 2012; Wright et al., 2011) 82 and N and P co-limitation of tree growth (Fisher et al., 2013) have also been reported. In contrast, 83 above-ground productivity in montane forests appears to be constrained primarily by N, based on 84 responses to N fertilization in growth rates and litter production (Fisher et al., 2013; Tanner et al., 85 1992). 86

It remains unclear whether the pattern of nutrient limitation in montane and lowland 87 forests holds for belowground organisms as it does for plants. The activity of heterotrophic soil 88 microbes is primarily limited by the availability of labile C, but N and P exert important constraints 89 (Wardle, 1992). In lowland tropical forests, there is evidence to suggest that P limits microbial 90 growth (Turner and Wright, 2014) and microbial C mineralization during decomposition (Cleveland 91 et al., 2006; Kaspari et al., 2008), although other nutrients can also limit soil microbial processes 92 (Hattenschwiler et al., 2011; Kaspari et al., 2009; Waring, 2012). In contrast, studies in tropical 93 montane forest have shown a stimulation of soil microbial biomass or respiration by N fertilization 94 (Corre et al., 2010; Cusack et al., 2011b; Fisher et al., 2013; Li et al., 2006), although conclusions 95 remain tentative because many of these montane forest experiments included N additions but not 96

P or K. For example, high phosphatase activity in one of these studies suggests potential P limitation
 of the microbial community in a lower montane forest (Cusack et al., 2011b). We therefore lack
 conclusive evidence to demonstrate the extent to which soil microbial processes are constrained by
 nutrients across gradients of tropical lowland and montane forests.

Soil microbial nutrient limitation is often experimentally defined as a response of microbial 101 growth, metabolism or respiration to nutrient addition (e.g. Cleveland et al., 2006; Cusack et al., 102 103 2011b; Turner and Wright, 2014). However, the establishment of fertilization experiments at multiple sites and across large environmental gradients is challenging. An alternative approach, 104 105 more easily replicated across multiple sites, is the indirect assessment of nutrient limitation by measuring the stoichiometry of nutrients in organisms (Vitousek et al., 2010). Nutrient limitation to 106 plant growth in tropical forests has, for example, been inferred from measurements of nutrient 107 stoichiometry in fresh leaves and litterfall (McGroddy et al., 2004; Vitousek and Sanford, 1986). 108 Elemental stoichiometry can similarly be used to indirectly assess nutrient limitations to microbial C 109 metabolism by evaluating the stoichiometry of nutrients in the soil microbial biomass (Cleveland 110 and Liptzin, 2007). The consistent amounts of N and P required to build and maintain different 111 cellular structures gives rise to the hypothesis that, under optimal growth conditions, the C:N:P 112 ratio in organisms is constrained, while a limiting resource supply will be reflected in an altered 113 C:N:P ratio (Elser et al., 2003; Redfield, 1958). Elemental stoichiometry within organisms can 114 indicate a growth limiting resource, provided that the elemental composition of the organism is 115 116 non-homeostatic (passive regulation; elemental composition reflects resource availability) rather than homeostatic (active regulation; fixed elemental composition) (Sterner and Elser, 2002). 117 The stoichiometry of enzyme activities can provide further indirect evidence of nutrient 118

limitations to microbial C metabolism by indicating investment into resource acquisition
 (Sinsabaugh et al., 2008). The activities of enzymes involved in nutrient degradation indicate the

allocation of microbial resources to the acquisition of specific nutrients, which is often in response 121 to a deficiency of the mineral form of that nutrient (Allison et al., 2010; Sinsabaugh and Moorhead, 122 1994). For example, deficiencies in soil N or P are reflected by higher activity of N-acetyl β-123 124 glucosaminidase or phosphomonoesterase, respectively (Allison et al., 2007; Olander and Vitousek, 2000; Sinsabaugh and Moorhead, 1994; Treseder and Vitousek, 2001). A deficiency in soil N can 125 also reduce the activity of enzymes in general, because proteins are rich in N (Allison and Vitousek, 126 2005; Allison et al., 2010). The activity and stoichiometry of nutrient-degrading enzymes can 127 therefore indicate the relative strength and nature of microbial nutrient demand. 128

We tested the hypothesis that the nutrient status of the soil microbial biomass switches 129 from greater relative demand for P in lowland tropical forest to greater relative demand for N in 130 montane tropical forest. To do this, we measured soil nutrient availability, soil microbial nutrient 131 stoichiometry, and the activity and stoichiometry of soil enzymes along a 3400 m elevation gradient 132 under tropical forest in the Peruvian Andes. We estimated microbial nutrient status using three 133 approaches. First, we determined soil N and P availability along the gradient. Second, we assessed 134 135 relative differences in the stoichiometry of C, N and P in the microbial biomass, whereby a greater C-to-nutrient ratio indicates increased limitation to microbial growth. Third, we determined the 136 relative differences in the stoichiometry of C, N and P- degrading enzyme activities, whereby a 137 decreased C-to-nutrient enzymatic ratio indicates increased nutrient limitation to microbial 138 metabolism and microbial investment into enzymes for acquisition of that nutrient. This approach 139 allowed indirect assessment of microbial nutrient limitation across a large geographic gradient, but 140 was limited by the assumption that nutrient limitation to microbial growth and metabolism is the 141 sole constraint on elemental stoichiometry in the microbial biomass (assuming non-homeostasis) 142 and on the stoichiometry of enzyme activities. We hypothesized that increasing P availability and 143 decreasing N availability with increasing elevation would lead to changes in indicators of microbial 144

nutrient stress, including: (1) increased concentrations of extractable inorganic phosphate, but
 decreased concentrations of N turnover; (2) decreased N:P ratio in the soil microbial biomass; (3)
 increased activity of enzymes involved in the degradation of compounds containing N relative to P
 (increased N:P enzymatic ratio); and (4) decreased activities of all enzymes (indicating increasing N
 limitation).

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151 **2. Methods**

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153 **2.1** Study Sites

We used thirteen study sites situated along an elevation gradient on the Eastern flank of the 154 155 Peruvian Andes (Whitaker et al., 2014). The sites range in elevation from 194 to 3400 m a.s.l. (above sea level) and have continuous forest cover, which ranges from lowland Amazonian 156 rainforest to upper montane cloud forest. The transect from 1000 to 3400 m a.s.l. is 35 km in length 157 and the two lowland sites are a further 230 km down the valley. Mean annual temperature 158 decreases with increasing elevation (26 to 8 °C) and mean annual precipitation ranges from 1700 to 159 3199 mm yr⁻¹, peaking at 1000 m a.s.l. near the base of the mountains, then decreasing with 160 elevation. Although mean annual precipitation is generally lower at higher elevation (Table 1), 161 evidence to date indicates that soils at higher elevation are rarely moisture limited over the 162 seasonal cycle, due in part to limited evapotranspiration and fog deposition within the cloud 163 immersion zone (between 1500 and 3400 m a.s.l.) (van de Weg et al., 2014; van de Weg et al., 164 2009; Zimmermann et al., 2010). 165

The sites are situated predominantly on Paleozoic (~450 Ma) meta-sedimentary mudstones, with plutonic intrusions (granite) underlying the sites between 1500 and 2020 m a.s.l. (Carlotto et al., 1996; Clark et al., 2013). The soils at sites above 2520 m have been classified as Umbrisols

according to FAO World Reference Base classification (Inceptisols according to USDA Soil 169 Taxonomy). In contrast, the soils from 1000 to 2020 m have been classified as Cambisols 170 (Inceptisols) and the soils at the two lowland sites have been classified as Haplic Allisols (Ultisols) 171 172 (194 m a.s.l.) and Haplic Cambisols (Inceptisols) (210 m a.s.l.) (Quesada et al., 2010). The soils at higher elevations are shallower and have a deeper organic layer (e.g. 22.8 cm at the 3030 m a.s.l. 173 site compared to 0.7 cm at the 194 m a.s.l. site; Table 1). Further descriptions of the soils (Quesada 174 et al., 2010; Whitaker et al., 2014), climate (Rapp and Silman, 2012), aboveground productivity and 175 floristic composition (Asner et al., 2013; Feeley et al., 2011; Girardin et al., 2010) are reported 176 elsewhere. 177

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179 **2.2** Soil sampling and analyses for total nutrients

Soils were sampled in December 2010 from five systematically distributed sub-plots within a 180 1 ha permanent sample plot at each study site at a standardized 0-10 cm depth. For each sub-plot, 181 soil was removed from a 40 × 40 cm area. Soils were sealed in plastic bags and stored at 4 °C for up 182 to 4 weeks until analysis. Given that temperature does not seasonally vary in our study sites, any 183 seasonal variation in our measured soil and microbial properties would most likely be driven by 184 seasonality of rainfall (Turner and Wright, 2014). However, December is in the rainy season for all 185 of these sites (Rapp and Silman, 2012), therefore our assessments were made during a relatively 186 constant period of active decomposition when moisture was not limiting. Furthermore, soil 187 moisture measurements have shown that none of the sites appear to suffer significant seasonal 188 moisture stress (Zimmermann et al., 2010), suggesting that our sampling is representative of the 189 prevailing conditions at other times of the year. 190

Total C and N were determined on dried (at 105 °C) and ground soil samples using a TruSpec CN Elemental Analyzer (LECO, USA). Total P was determined by ignition (550 °C, 1 h) followed by

extraction in 1 M H₂SO₄, with phosphate detection in neutralised extracts at 880 nm by automated molybdate colorimetry using a Lachat Quikchem 8500 (Hach Ltd, Loveland, CO). Soil pH was determined in water in a 1:2 soil to solution ratio using a calibrated glass electrode. Bulk density was determined by drying a known volume of soil (taken in a cylinder) for 24 h at 105 °C to constant mass. Gravimetric moisture content at the time of sampling and water holding capacity (in saturated soils) were calculated according to the amount of water remaining in the soil after being left to drain for 12 hours (Whitaker et al., 2014).

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2.3 Soil microbial biomass and extractable nutrients

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Soil microbial biomass C and N were measured by fumigation-extraction (Brookes et al., 203 1985; Vance et al., 1987), using ethanol-free chloroform as the fumigant followed by extraction 204 with potassium sulphate (K₂SO₄). Extracts of fumigated and unfumigated soil were analyzed for 205 extractable organic C using a Shimadzu 5000A TOC analyzer (Shimadzu, Milton Keynes, UK). The 206 extracts were analysed for microbial biomass N by colorimetry on a continuous flow stream 207 autoanalyzer (Bran and Luebbe, Northampton, UK), following oxidation with potassium persulphate 208 ($K_2S_2O_8$), by mixing 1.5 ml filtrate with 4.5 ml of 0.165 M $K_2S_2O_8$ then autoclaving for 30 min at 121 209 ^oC (Ross, 1992). Microbial C and N were calculated as the difference in the respective nutrient 210 between fumigated and unfumigated extracts, and corrected for unrecovered biomass using k 211 212 factors of 0.35 for microbial C (Sparling et al., 1990) and 0.54 for microbial N (Brookes et al., 1985). Readily-exchangeable phosphate (extractable P) and microbial biomass P were determined 213 by hexanol fumigation and extraction with anion-exchange membranes (Kouno et al., 1995). 214 Phosphate was recovered from anion-exchange membranes by shaking for 1 h in 50 ml of 0.25 M 215 H₂SO₄, with detection in the acid solution by automated molybdate colorimetry using a Lachat 216

Quikchem 8500 (Hach Ltd, Loveland, CO, USA). Extractable P was determined on unfumigated 217 samples and microbial P was calculated as the difference between the fumigated and unfumigated 218 samples, with correction for unrecovered biomass using a k_p factor of 0.4 (Jenkinson et al., 2004). 219 220 Nitrogen mineralization was derived by extraction with *in situ* cation and anion-exchange resins (Templer et al., 2005). We used the resin-bag method to determine extractable NH₄ and NO₃ 221 because standard methods of extraction of NH₄ and NO₃ from soils (e.g. with KCl) should be 222 performed within 24 hours of soils sampling (Turner and Romero, 2009), which was not possible 223 given the remote location of these sites. The remote location of sites also meant we were only able 224 to determine mineralized N in five of the 14 plots, which were distributed across the gradient (210, 225 1000, 1500, 1750, 3025 m a.s.l.). Mixed-bed cation/anion exchange resin were placed inside nylon 226 bags (4 g resin in each) and installed at 10 cm soil depth in systematically distributed locations in 227 each 1 ha plot (n = 15). Resin bags were deployed for one month during November-December 2011 228 and stored at room temperature until extraction. Resin bags were shipped to the University of 229 Aberdeen, UK, extracted using 2 M KCl (Templer et al. 2005) and concentrations of NH₄ and NO₃ 230 determined colorimetrically using a Burkard SFA2 continuous-flow analyzer (Burkard Scientific Ltd., 231 Uxbridge, UK). Extractable NH₄ and NO₃ (total mineralized N) were calculated from the difference 232 between extracted N from resin deployed in the field and resin not deployed (blanks) and 233 expressed as extractable NH₄-N and NO₃-N per g resin per day. 234

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236 **2.4** Soil enzymes

Three enzymes involved in C, N and P cycling were measured using microplate fluorimetric
 assays with 200 μM methylumbelliferone (MU)-linked substrates as described in Turner and
 Romero (2010): β-glucosidase (degradation of β-1,4-glycosidic bonds between glucose molecules),
 N-acetyl β-glucosaminidase (degradation of *N*-glycosidic bonds in chitin), and

phosphomonoesterase (degradation of monoester-linked simple organic phosphates). The activities
 of these three enzymes have been used to indicate the stoichiometry of microbial C, N and P
 nutrition in global ecosystems (Sinsabaugh et al., 2008). For each soil sample, five replicate micro plates were prepared and incubated at 2, 10, 22, 30 and 40 °C respectively for each enzyme, to
 allow calculation of enzyme activity at mean annual temperature for each site.

For the fluorimetric assays, 2 g soil (dry weight basis) was added to 200 ml of 1 mM NaN₃ 246 solution and dispersed by stirring on a magnetic stir plate. After 5 min and while stirring, 50 µl 247 aliquots of soil suspension were removed using an 8-channel pipette and dispensed into a 96-well 248 microplate containing 50 µl modified universal buffer solution (Tabatabai, 1994) adjusted to pH 4 249 (approximately equivalent to soil pH in all sites; Table 1). Each microplate included assay wells (soil 250 solution plus 100 μ l MU substrate), blank wells (soil solution plus 100 μ l of 1 mM NaN₃) and quench 251 wells (soil solution plus 100 µl MU standard). For a sub-set of samples we measured enzyme 252 activities using substrate concentrations ranging from $10 - 1000 \mu$ l MU to check that the substrate 253 remained in excess at the end of the incubation in our main analyses. A further control plate was 254 prepared with the MU substrates and standards with no soil solution to determine fluorescence 255 from substrates and quenching by soil solution in assay plates. There were eight analytical replicate 256 wells for each assay. Microplates were incubated at each specified temperature in the range 2, 10, 257 20, 30 and 40 °C for a time period of approximately 4, 3, 2, 1.5 and 1 hour(s), respectively. 258 Following incubation, 50 µl of 0.5 M NaOH was added to terminate the reaction and plates were 259 immediately analyzed on a Fluostar Optima spectrofluorometer (BMG Labtech, Offenburg, 260 Germany) with excitation at 360 nm and emission at 450 nm. 261

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263 **2.5** Calculations and statistics

265 2.5.1 The stoichiometry of enzyme activities and microbial biomass

Enzyme activities were expressed on the basis of soil organic C (nmol MU g C^{-1} min⁻¹), to 266 allow for direct comparisons among our sites with widely different organic C concentrations. 267 Enzyme activities were determined at standard temperatures (2, 10, 20, 30 and 40 °C) and 268 calculated for the mean annual temperature at each site (Table 1) by fitting a linear model of 269 activity vs. assay temperature. Hydrolytic enzyme activities, determined using MU substrates, were 270 expressed in nmol MU g C⁻¹ min⁻¹. We determined ratios of C, N and P degrading enzymes to detect 271 relative differences in N and P limitations to microbial activity between the sites (Sinsabaugh et al., 272 2008). Enzyme activity ratios for C:N, C:P and N:P were determined, where C = β -glucosidase, N = 273 *N*-acetyl β -glucosaminidase and P = phosphomonoesterase. Microbial C, N and P and their 274 elemental ratios were expressed as molar values (mmol kg⁻¹), which allowed direct comparison of 275 values with a global meta-analysis (Cleveland and Liptzin, 2007). 276

The indirect assessment of microbial nutrient demand according to variation in enzyme activity requires the assumption that substrate availability is the major influence on variation in enzyme activity, rather than mean annual temperature, soil moisture, soil physical structure and plant community composition. This assumption is supported by our data and elsewhere in the literature (Sinsabaugh et al., 2008) (see supplementary materials for further discussion).

Changes in soil properties and enzyme activities with elevation were analysed using oneway ANOVA, with 'elevation' as the factor and 'soil properties' or 'enzyme activities' as the response variable. Further effects of elevation on soil properties, enzyme activities and enzyme ratios were examined using linear models with soil property, microbial ratio or enzyme activity/ratio as the response variable and elevation as the predictive variable.

To account for the variability along the transect in organic horizon depth and parent material, which may have confounding influences on microbial nutrient cycling, we further examined the

effects of elevation on microbial and enzymatic elemental ratios among sites where organic horizon only was sampled (1500 – 3400 m) and among sites on constant parent material (sites on Paleozoic shales-slates; 2020 – 3400 m). Pair-wise comparisons were performed using Tukey post-hoc analyses. Correlations among normally distributed soil properties and enzyme activities were examined using Spearman's correlations. Data were log-transformed when model residuals were non-normally distributed. Significant interactions were determined at $p \le 0.05$. All statistical analyses were performed using R version 2.15 (R Development Core Team 2012).

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297 **3. Results**

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3.1 Soil carbon and nutrients

Total soil C, N and P concentrations all increased with elevation across all sites (Fig. 1, Table 300 2; total C and N: $p \le 0.001$; total P: p = 0.05). Total C ranged from 1.70% (at 220 m a.s.l.) to 46.54% 301 (at 3030 m a.s.l.), total N ranged from 0.35% (at 194 m a.s.l.) to 2.49% (at 3400 m a.s.l.) and total P 302 ranged from 0.18 mg g^{-1} (210 m a.s.l.) to 1.44 mg g^{-1} (1750 m a.s.l.). The increase in C was relatively 303 greater than for N or P, resulting in increased C:N (ranging from 6.7 to 19.6) and C:P ratios (ranging 304 from 49 to 521) with elevation (Figs. 1-2; Table 2). Similarly, the increase in total N was relatively 305 greater than the increase in total P, resulting in increased N:P ratios with elevation (ranging from 306 6.7 to 28.2) (Figs. 1-2). Ratios of C:N, C:P and N:P increased significantly with elevation (*p* < 0.001, *p* 307 < 0.01, *p* < 0.05, respectively), although with higher variation for C:P and N:P than C:N (Fig. 2). Total 308 soil C and N across all sites were closely correlated ($R^2 = 0.93$, p < 0.001), in contrast to marginal 309 relationships between total C and P ($R^2 = 0.07$, p < 0.05) and total N and P ($R^2 = 0.10$, p = 0.01) (Fig. 310 1). Soil pH ranged from 3.8 to 4.6 among sites, but did not vary significantly with elevation (Table 311 2). 312

There were major contrasts in the concentrations of total mineralized N and extractable PO₄ with elevation (Table 2, Fig. 3). Mineralized NO₃ decreased with elevation (p < 0.001) from 24.21 µg N g resin⁻¹ d⁻¹ (210 m a.s.l.) to 0.33 µg N g resin⁻¹ d⁻¹ (1750 m a.s.l.), whereas mineralized NH₄ increased with elevation (p < 0.01). However, total mineralized N (NO₃+NH₄) decreased with elevation (R² = 0.61, p < 0.001; Fig. 3). In contrast, extractable PO₄ increased with elevation (p <0.001) from 0.7 mg P kg⁻¹ (at 1000 m a.s.l.) to 223.5 mg P kg⁻¹ (at 3400 m a.s.l.) (Table 2; Fig. 3).

319

320 **3.2** Soil microbial nutrients and C:N:P ratios

Soil microbial C, N and P all increased with elevation and ranged ten-fold among sites (Table 321 3), which approximately corresponded with the increase in organic matter and soil C with elevation 322 (Table 2). The increase was linear and highly significant for microbial C ($R^2 = 0.61$, p < 0.01) and 323 microbial N ($R^2 = 0.35$, p < 0.05), but not for microbial P ($R^2 = 0.16$, p = 0.18), which peaked in mid-324 elevation sites (1850, 2020 m a.s.l.). Microbial C and N were closely correlated among all sites (R^2 = 325 0.62, p < 0.001), in contrast to the less well constrained relationships between microbial C and 326 microbial P ($R^2 = 0.24$, p < 0.001), and microbial N and microbial P ($R^2 = 0.22$, p < 0.001) (Fig. 1). 327 Despite the large differences in microbial nutrients, ratios of microbial C:N, C:P and N:P did 328 not vary with elevation across the entire transect ($R^2 = 0.04$, p = 0.51; $R^2 = 0.07$, p = 0.39; $R^2 < 0.01$, 329 p = 0.77) (Table 3; Fig. 2). However, among sites where only organic horizons were sampled, there 330 was a slight increase in microbial C:N and N:P ratios with elevation, and a greater increase for 331 microbial C:P (Table 4). Similarly, among sites on the same parent material there was an elevation-332

related increase in microbial C:P (Table 4).

334

335 **3.3** Enzyme activities

All enzyme activities decreased significantly with elevation, when determined at standard 336 assay temperature (p < 0.001 for all comparisons; Figure S1 for activity determined at assay 337 temperatures 10 °C and 30 °C) and when determined at the mean annual temperature for each site 338 339 (Fig. 4). To determine enzyme activity at the site mean annual temperature we used linear models of enzyme activity against assay temperature; all of the 42 models (for 3 enzymes and 13 sites) 340 were significant (p < 0.05) and the average R² of all fitted models was 0.80 (SE = 0.01, n = 39; Table 341 S1). After accounting for differences in soil C content among sites, enzyme activities decreased 342 approximately 100-fold with elevation (Fig. 4). The largest decline in enzyme activity with elevation 343 was for phosphomonoesterase and the smallest decline was for N-acetyl β -glucosaminidase (Fig. 4; 344 note log scale for enzyme activity). 345

The enzymatic C:P and N:P ratios increased with elevation (Fig. 5), but not for C:N. The relatively large decrease in phosphomonoesterase activity with elevation compared to other enzymes was reflected by increasing ratios for enzymatic C:P ($R^2 = 0.18$, p < 0.001) and N:P ($R^2 =$ 0.13, p < 0.01) but not for C:N ($R^2 = 0.04$, p = 0.13) (Fig. 5). Among sites where only the organic horizon was sampled the pattern of an elevation related increase for enzymatic C:P and N:P, but not C:N, was also observed (Table 4). Among sites on constant parent material, there was an elevation-related increase for enzymatic N:P and a marginal increase for enzymatic C:P (Table 4).

353

354 **4. Discussion**

355

It has been proposed that tropical forest elevation gradients are gradients of nutrient
 limitation to plant productivity, with P-limitation prevalent in lowland forests (Vitousek and
 Sanford, 1986) and N-limitation prevalent in montane forests (Tanner et al., 1998). The major
 drivers of this shift are considered to be differences in soil nutrient availability along elevation

gradients, caused by changes in rates of soil weathering and turnover, and temperature constraints 360 on decomposition and biological N fixation (Hedin et al., 2009; Reed et al., 2011; Tanner et al., 361 1998). Therefore, it is reasonable to hypothesize that soil microbial processes are constrained by N 362 363 and P in the same manner, which is supported for some lowland (Cleveland et al., 2002; Turner and Wright, 2014) and montane tropical forests sites (Corre et al., 2010; Cusack et al., 2011a). Our 364 findings from a 3400 m tropical forest elevation gradient in the Peruvian Andes provide evidence 365 that this paradigm also applies to soil microorganisms, with a gradual transition in investment into 366 nutrient acquisition from P to N between lowland and montane tropical forests. 367

Evidence that relative microbial investment in nutrient acquisition shifts from P towards N 368 along a tropical elevation gradient can be inferred from differences in nutrient availability and 369 370 enzyme activity. An increasing P constraint on microbial metabolism with decreasing elevation is supported by the significantly lower concentrations of total and extractable P in low elevation soils 371 (Table 2). Phosphomonoesterase activity was strongly correlated with extractable P (Fig. 3), 372 suggesting that increased microbial synthesis of phosphatases at lower elevations was a direct 373 response to low available phosphate. This apparent strong P constraint on microbial processes in 374 low elevation forests is consistent with increased rates of litter decomposition (Kaspari et al., 2008), 375 C mineralization (Cleveland and Townsend, 2006), greater microbial biomass and decreased 376 phosphomonoesterase activity (Turner & Wright 2014) following P addition to lowland tropical 377 forests. 378

Evidence of increasing N constraints on microbial metabolism with increasing elevation included a strong reduction in total mineralized N (the sum of resin NO₃ + NH₄; Table 2, Fig. 3) and increase in the ratio of N:P-degrading enzymes at higher elevations, coupled with an overall decline in the activity of all enzymes, presumably because of the high N requirement for building proteins (Allison et al., 2010; Loladze and Elser, 2011) (Fig. 4). Given that microbial N requirements are

largely determined by the rates of protein synthesis (Loladze and Elser, 2011), there must be a 384 threshold at which N scarcity begins to limit the synthesis of N-acetyl β -glucosaminidase and other 385 N-acquiring enzymes (Olander and Vitousek, 2000). Other studies of tropical montane forests, 386 387 including these sites in Peru, provide evidence that low N availability constrains microbial processes at higher elevation. For example, N-limitation of microbial metabolism was indicated by increased 388 heterotrophic soil CO₂ efflux following N-fertilization at the 3030 m elevation site studied here 389 (Fisher et al., 2013). In other montane tropical forests, N-fertilization stimulated microbial biomass 390 (Corre et al., 2010; Cusack et al., 2011b) and increased the activity of hydrolytic enzymes (Cusack et 391 392 al., 2011b), which supports our finding of N-limitation of microbial synthesis of hydrolytic enzymes in tropical montane forests (Figs. 3, 5). 393

In contrast, microbial nutrient ratios did not vary over the entire gradient (Fig. 2), which 394 does not support the hypothesis of a shift in nutrient constraints on microbial biomass from P 395 towards N with increased elevation. There were slight elevation-related increases in microbial C:N 396 and C:P ratios in organic soils (Table 4), which can be explained by increased dominance of the 397 microbial biomass at higher elevation by fungi (Whitaker et al., 2014), which have wider C:nutrient 398 ratios compared to bacteria (Six et al., 2006). The overall pattern of relatively constant elemental 399 ratios in the microbial biomass despite large differences in nutrient availability (Fig. 2) can be 400 explained by microbial stoichiometric homeostasis. Although non-homeostatic patterns have been 401 found in marine, freshwater and terrestrial autotrophs (Elser et al., 2009; Elser et al., 2007; 402 Redfield, 1958), homeostasis of microbial nutrition has been demonstrated in cultured bacteria 403 (Makino et al., 2003) and is supported in field studies and observations of constrained soil microbial 404 elemental ratios across ecosystems worldwide (Cleveland and Liptzin, 2007; Hartman and 405 Richardson, 2013). For example, despite an order-of-magnitude shift in soil P relative to soil N 406 concentrations across the 120,000 year Franz Josef temperate rainforest chronosequence, 407

microbial N:P ratios remained relatively constant throughout the majority of the sequence $(5.9 \pm$ 408 0.7, compared to 3.3 ± 0.7 in this study) (Turner et al., 2013), while a decade of nutrient addition 409 had no effect on microbial N:P ratios in lowland tropical forest in Panama (Turner and Wright, 410 411 2014). The list of possible mechanisms by which heterotrophs maintain homeostasis includes their capacity to alter soil nutrient availability by synthesising extracellular enzymes (Sinsabaugh et al., 412 2009) and to immobilize large amounts of N and P, resulting in low C:N and C:P ratios compared to 413 total soil nutrients and leaf litter (Cleveland and Liptzin, 2007; McGroddy et al., 2004; Sterner and 414 Elser, 2002; Turner and Wright, 2014). For example, it appears that relatively high microbial P 415 immobilization occurred in these tropical soils, because microbial C:P ratios were low when 416 compared to a global dataset (Fig. 1) (Cleveland and Liptzin, 2007). 417

418 The major drivers of this shift in microbial investment in nutrient acquisition from P towards N appear to be differences in soil weathering, bedrock turnover and temperature. Evidence for a 419 role of pedogenic processes comes from the consistent pattern of increased enzymatic N:P ratios in 420 sites on the same parent material (Table 4) and the greatest P constraints on the microbial biomass 421 422 in the strongly-weathered lowland forest soils, which were depleted of primary minerals (e.g. Haplic Allisols relative to Umbrisols) (Quesada et al., 2010; Reed et al., 2011; Vitousek, 1984) (Table 423 2). The significant tectonic uplift in the upper Andes (Garzione et al., 2008), together with 424 significant landslide activity and erosion rates reported for this gradient (Clark et al., 2013) likely 425 decrease P constraints in soils on steeper slopes at high elevation by replenishing P and other rock-426 derived minerals (Porder and Hilley, 2010). Evidence for a role of low temperatures in promoting N 427 constraints at higher elevation comes from studies suggesting a reduction in biological N fixation 428 and N mineralization in montane forests (Bruijnzeel et al., 2011) (Table 2). Low rates of N 429 mineralization have been reported in montane tropical forests in Costa Rica (Marrs et al., 1988), 430

Panama (Corre et al., 2010), Hawaii (Hall and Matson, 2003) and Ecuador (Arnold et al., 2009; Wolf
et al., 2011).

As with any natural environmental gradient, there are a number of other co-varying factors 433 434 that may influence our conclusions, including differences in parent material, soil development, rainfall patterns and plant community composition (Körner, 2007). In our study we constrained the 435 co-varying influences of organic soil depth and parent material in separate analyses, showing that 436 they did not influence our main finding of a shift from P to N constraints on microbial acquisition 437 with elevation (Table 4). Although mean annual rainfall does not vary linearly with elevation, it is 438 highest in the lowland forest sites (Table 1), which may have strengthened the weathering rate and 439 leaching of available P from these soils. The interactions between plant communities and soils along 440 this gradient more likely re-enforce the shift in nutrient constraints through feedbacks between 441 plant productivity, leaf litter quality and decomposition rates. For example, lower productivity of 442 montane forest plants (Girardin et al., 2010) with lower leaf N:P ratios (van de Weg et al., 2009, 443 2014), may further slow decomposition rates and the supply of bioavailable soil N (Wardle et al., 444 2004). 445

Our understanding of how nutrients may regulate the C cycle in lowland and montane 446 tropical forest is largely based on the responses of aboveground production, whereas the responses 447 of belowground processes remain relatively unknown. Along a 3400 m elevation transect in the 448 Peruvian Andes we provide evidence to support the hypothesis that soil microbial activity, and by 449 inference heterotrophic decomposition and respiration of organic matter, is predominantly 450 constrained by P in lowland forests but by N in montane forests. Despite these constraints, our 451 results suggest that the microbial biomass is relatively homeostatic with respect to nutrients, given 452 the major changes in N and P availability along the elevation gradient. Extrapolating our findings to 453 other sites requires careful consideration of the multiple factors that influence nutrient availability 454

and co-vary with elevation, including differences in parent material and rainfall. Nevertheless these results have important implications for C cycling in tropical ecosystems, because nutrient constraints are important factors in determining how these ecosystems respond to perturbations in climate, atmospheric CO₂ and nutrient enrichment. Acknowledgements This study is a product of the Andes Biodiversity and Ecosystem Research Group consortium (www.andesconservation.org) and was financed by the UK Natural Environment Research Council (NERC), grant numbers NE/G018278/1 and NE/F002149/1 and also supported by an Australian Research Council grant FT110100457 to PM and a European Union Marie-Curie Fellowship FP7-2012-329360 to ATN. We thank the Asociacion para la Conservacion de la Cuenca Amazonica (ACCA) in Cusco and the Instituto Nacional de Recursos Naturales (INRENA) in Lima for access to the study sites. For their logistical support we thank Dr. Eric Cosio and Eliana Esparza Ballón at Pontificia Universidad Católica del Perú (PUCP). For their support in the laboratory we thank Tania Romero and Dayana Agudo. For their support in the field we thank Adan J.Q. Ccahuana, Walter H. Huasco, Javier E. S. Espejo and many others too numerous to mention here.

479	Table legends
480	
481	Table 1
482	Summary of site characteristics along the elevation gradient, spanning lowland rainforest (194-210
483	m a.s.l.), premontane (1000 m a.s.l.), lower montane (1500-2020 m a.s.l.) and upper montane cloud
484	forest (2520-3400 m a.s.l.) (Aragao et al., 2009; Asner et al., 2013; Clark et al., 2013; Girardin et al.,
485	2010; Quesada et al., 2010). na = data not available.
486	
487	Table 2
488	Soil nutrients and pH along the elevation gradient. Linear model results (elevation \sim property) are
489	given at the bottom of the table. Values are means with 1 SE (n = 5).
490	
491	Table 3
492	Carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus and their ratios in soil microbial biomass along the elevation
493	gradient. Linear model results (elevation \sim property) are given at the bottom of the table. Values
494	are means with 1 SE (n = 5).
495	
496	Table 4
497	Relationships between elevation and microbial (A) and enzymatic (B) carbon, nitrogen and
498	phosphorus ratios, in organic soils only (sites 1500 – 3400 m a.s.l.) and in soils on constant parent
499	material (sites 2020 – 3400 m a.s.l.). The relationships between elevation and microbial and
500	enzymatic carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus ratios for all sites across the gradient are shown in

figures 3 and 5, respectively. Significant relationships are in bold ($p \le 0.05$).

503	Figure	head	ings

505 Figure 1

The stoichiometry of total soil C, N and P, and soil microbial C, N and P (molar ratios). The points are coloured according to the elevation gradient (194 – 3400 m a.s.l.), with darker points for lower elevation sites and lighter points for higher elevation sites. The solid lines are linear regressions between total and microbial elements (model parameters are reported in the top-right of each panel). The shaded areas represent ± 1 SE. The dashed lines represent the stoichimetric scaling between C:N:P from a recent global meta-analysis of forests (212:15:1 in soils and 74:9:1 in microbial biomass) (Cleveland and Liptzin, 2007).

513

514 **Figure 2**

515 The relationships between soil and microbial C:N:P stoichiometry with elevation (194 – 3400 m

a.s.l.). Total soil C:N, C:P and N:P all significantly varied with elevation (R² = 0.45, 0.36, 0.28,

respectively *p* < 0.05; see Table 2). Microbial C:P, C:N and N:P ratios did not vary with elevation.

Values are means with 1 SE (n =5 replicates, which represents the spatial variation within a 1 ha
 plot).

520

521 Figure 3

⁵²² The decline in phosphomonoesterase activity and incline in resin-extractable P with elevation; and ⁵²³ the decline in *N*-acetyl β -glucosaminidase activity and decline in total mineralized N (NO₃ + NH₄) ⁵²⁴ with elevation. The decline and incline of all properties with elevation were significant. Spearman ⁵²⁵ correlation coefficients are reported in Table 4. Values are means with 1 SE (n =5).

527	Figure 4
528	Enzyme activities of C (β -glucosidase) N (<i>N</i> -acetyl β -glucosaminidase) and P
529	(phosphomonoesterase) - degrading enzymes for 13 sites at elevations ranging from 194 to 3400 m,
530	determined at the mean annual temperature (MAT) for each site (Table 1). Enzyme activity at MAT
531	was determined using linear regression of temperature and enzyme activities determined at 2, 10,
532	22 and 30 $^{\circ}$ C (Table S1). Linear regressions are shown among the forest sites (the grassland site is
533	included in the figure but not in linear model). Values are means with 1 SE (n = 5 replicates, which
534	represents the spatial variation within a 1 ha plot).
535	
536	Figure 5
537	The stoichiometry of C (β -glucosidase), N (<i>N</i> -acetyl β -glucosaminidase) and P
538	(phosphomonoesterase) - degrading enzyme activity along a tropical forest 3400 m elevation
539	gradient. Enzymes activities were determined at the mean annual temperature for each site. Linear
540	models (including all 13 sites) explained the variation in enzymatic ratios with elevation for $C:P_{en}$ (R^2
541	= 0.18, $p < 0.001$) and N:P _{en} (R ² = 0.13, $p < 0.01$), but not C:N _{en} (R ² = 0.04, $p = 0.13$). Values are means
542	with 1 SE (n =5).
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548	References
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 Table 1 Summary of site characteristics along the elevation gradient, spanning lowland rainforest (194-210 m a.s.l.), premontane (1000 m a.s.l.), lower montane

 (1500-2020 m a.s.l.) and upper montane cloud forest (2520-3400 m a.s.l.) (Aragao et al., 2009; Asner et al., 2013; Clark et al., 2013; Girardin et al., 2010;

 Quesada et al., 2010). na = data not available.

Site name	Site code	Elevation (m a.s.l.)	Lat	Long	Mean annual temp (°C)	Annual precipita- tion (mm yr ⁻¹)	Soil organic horizon (cm)	Aspect (deg)	Slope (deg)	Parent material	Soil classification
Explorer's Inn plot 4 (TP4)	TAM-06	194	-12.839	-69.296	26.4	2730	1	169.4	4	Holocene alluvial terrace	Haplic Alisol
Explorer's Inn plot 3 (TP3)	TAM-05	210	-12.830	- 69.271	26.4	3199	2	186.2	6.9	Pleistocene alluvial terrace	Haplic Cambisol
Villa Carmen	VC	1000	-12.866	-71.401	20.7 ± 0.02	3087	4	na	na	na	na
San Pedro 2	SPD-2	1500	-13.049	- 71.537	17.4 ± 1.5	2631	16	143.5	39	Plutonic intrusion (granite)	Cambisol
San Pedro 1	SPD-1	1750	-13.047	- 71.543	15.8 ± 1.3	2631	10	141.9	40.1	Plutonic intrusion (granite)	Cambisol
Trocha Union 8	TRU-08	1850	-13.071	-71.555	16.0 ± 1.3	2472	16	137.0	41.8	Plutonic intrusion (granite)	Cambisol
Trocha Union 7	TRU-07	2020	-13.074	-71.559	14.9 ± 1.1	1827	17	na	na	Paleozoic shales- slates /Granite intrusion	Cambisol
Trocha Union 5	TRU-05	2520	-13.094	-71.574	12.1 ± 1.0	Na	14	na	na	Paleozoic shales- slates	na
Trocha Union 4	TRU-04	2720	-13.107	- 71.589	11.1 ± 1.0	2318	21	189.8	28.6	Paleozoic shales- slates	Umbrisol
Trocha Union 3	TRU-03	3020	-13.109	-71.600	9.5 ± 1.0	1776	17	129.3	37.6	Paleozoic shales- slates	Umbrisol
Wayqecha	WAY-01	3025	-13.190	-71.587	11.1 ± 1.2	1706	23	na	na	Paleozoic shales- slates	Umbrisol
Trocha Union 2	TRU-02	3200	-13.111	-71.604	8.9 ± 1.0	Na	12	na	na	Paleozoic shales- slates	Umbrisol
Trocha Union 1	TRU-01	3400	-13.114	-71.607	7.7 ± 1.1	2555	14	144.3	34.3	Paleozoic shales-	Umbrisol

Table 2

Soil nutrients and pH along the elevation gradient. Linear model results (elevation ~ property) are given at the bottom of the table. Values are

779 means with 1 SE (n = 5).

Site code	elevation (m a.s.l.)	Total C (%)	Total N (%)	Total P (mg P g ⁻¹)	Total C:N	Total C:P	Total N:P	Resin NO ₃ (μg N g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Resin NH ₄ (μ g N g ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Extractable PO ₄ (mg P kg ⁻¹)	Soil pH
TAM-06	194	2.38 (0.32)	0.35 (0.03)	0.49 (0.07)	6.7	48.6	7.1	-	-	3.3 (0.8)	4.6 (0.1)
TAM-05	210	1.70 (0.25)	0.23 (0.03)	0.18 (0.03)	7.1	94.4	12.8	24.21 (2.94)	3.38 (0.45)	2.7 (0.2)	3.8 (0.1)
VC	1000	16.2 (1.6)	1.34 (0.12)	0.73 (0.05)	11.5	222.3	18.4	14.25 (1.94)	9.64 (1.23)	0.7 (0.1)	3.8 (0.1)
SPD-2	1500	10.3 (1.8)	0.91 (0.12)	1.36 (0.37)	11.2	76.0	6.7	14.11 (3.22)	13.06 (0.68)	44.7 (20.1)	4.0 (0.1)
SPD-1	1750	26.0 (10.0)	1.56 (0.50)	1.44 (0.09)	14.7	180.3	10.8	0.33 (0.08)	13.91 (1.02)	19.0 (3.0)	3.9 (0.1)
TRU-08	1850	31.1 (4.6)	1.86 (0.21)	0.76 (0.06)	16.5	409.2	24.5	-	-	14.4 (3.7)	3.9 (0.1)
TRU-07	2020	37.0 (4.8)	2.00 (0.24)	0.71 (0.10)	18.6	520.6	28.2	-	-	16.3 (4.7)	4.0 (0.1)
TRU-05	2520	25.8 (5.7)	1.73 (0.34)	0.98 (0.14)	14.7	263.6	17.7	-	-	53.1 (8.6)	3.9 (0.1)
TRU-04	2720	28.6 (5.0)	1.64 (0.25)	0.87 (0.19)	17.0	329.0	18.9	-	-	56.0 (12.8)	3.9 (0.1)
TRU-03	3020	27.1 (5.5)	1.57 (0.21)	0.92 (0.13)	16.6	294.6	17.1	-	-	59.7 (20.7	3.8 (0.1)
WAY-01	3025	46.5 (2.1)	2.39 (0.12)	1.09 (0.08)	19.6	427.0	21.9	0.47 (0.21)	11.87 (0.88)	82.0 (23.3)	4.1 (0.1)
TRU-02	3200	44.8 (1.8)	2.42 (0.20)	0.91 (0.02)	18.9	492.6	26.6	-	-	72.8 (12.9)	4.1 (0.7)
TRU-01	3400	42.1 (3.1)	2.49 (0.17)	1.09 (0.09)	17.0	386.1	22.9	-	-	223.5 (33.0)	4.0 (0.2)
	R ²	0.79	0.80	0.30	0.80	0.55	0.38	0.73	0.12	0.51	0.13
	F	40.76	42.98	4.61	45.21	13.27	6.75	154.92	8.06	11.3	1.66
	Р	<0.001	<0.001	0.05	<0.001	<0.01	0.03	<0.001	<0.01	<0.01	0.22

784 **Table 3**

- 785 Carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus and their ratios in soil microbial biomass along the elevation gradient. Linear model results (elevation ~
- property) are given at the bottom of the table. Values are means with 1 SE (n = 5).

Site code	Elevation (m a.s.l.)	Microb (mmol ł	Microbial C (mmol kg ⁻¹)		Microbial N (mmol kg ⁻¹)		Microbial P Microbial (mmol kg ⁻¹)		Microbial C:N		oial C:P	Microbia	al N:P
TAM-06	194	32.1	(3.5)	2.6	(0.9)	1.18	(0.24)	31.1	(20.1)	33.7	(9.1)	2.9	(1.1)
TAM-05	210	20.5	(3.3)	2.2	(0.7)	1.40	(0.28)	13.8	(5.1)	21.5	(8.9)	2.6	(1.5)
VC	1000	13.8	(2.2)	8.9	(0.9)	0.94	(0.10)	1.6	(0.2)	16.2	(3.9)	10.1	(1.7)
SPD-2	1500	66.2	(9.8)	11.6	(1.2)	7.50	(1.26)	5.9	(0.8)	11.5	(4.4)	1.8	(0.5)
SPD-1	1750	103.7	(35.4)	18.9	(7.7)	7.98	(1.78)	6.1	(0.9)	18.1	(7.4)	2.8	(0.9)
TRU-08	1850	159.3	(27.7)	21.9	(6.7)	11.26	(0.47)	8.7	(1.8)	13.9	(2.0)	1.9	(0.6)
TRU-07	2020	138.6	(17.5)	21.1	(3.9)	11.89	(0.69)	6.9	(0.9)	11.6	(1.8)	1.8	(0.4)
TRU-05	2520	94.2	(14.9)	16.2	(4.7)	8.37	(0.70)	10.9	(4.8)	11.5	(1.8)	2.0	(0.6)
TRU-04	2720	98.5	(32.8)	13.2	(4.9)	5.87	(1.00)	7.8	(0.7)	23.9	(12.5)	3.2	(1.8)
TRU-03	3020	114.8	(12.3)	16.0	(3.5)	5.74	(0.95)	10.4	(4.2)	22.9	(5.0)	3.3	(1.0)
WAY-01	3025	188.4	(26.7)	26.6	(2.9)	8.81	(1.04)	7.1	(0.8)	24.0	(6.5)	3.4	(0.9)
TRU-02	3200	114.3	(17.0)	7.0	(1.7)	5.85	(0.71)	22.9	(7.1)	20.4	(3.0)	0.9	(0.3)
TRU-01	3400	151.5	(18.8)	17.1	(4.8)	2.71	(0.45)	11.1	(2.4)	62.4	(10.7)	6.5	(1.6)
	R ²	0.61		0.35		0.16		0.04		0.07		<0.01	
	F	16.95		5.88		2.06		0.46		0.80		0.09	
	p	< 0.01		< 0.05		0.18		0.51		0.39		0.77	

788 **Table 4**

Relationships between elevation and microbial and enzymatic carbon (C), nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) ratios, in organic soils only (sites 1500 – 3400 m a.s.l.) and in soils on constant parent material (sites 2020 – 3400 m a.s.l.). The relationships between elevation and microbial and enzymatic carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus ratios for all sites across the gradient are shown in figures 3 and 5, respectively. Significant relationships are in bold ($p \le 0.05$).

	Microbial C:N	Microbial C:P	Microbial N:P	Enzymatic C:N	Enzymatic C:P	Enzymatic N:P
1500 – 3400 m	Constant organic	horizon				
Slope	28	576	78	-142	730	990
R^2	0.09	0.22	0.07	-0.02	0.09	0.15
F	5.70	14.33	4.63	0.13	5.82	9.52
Р	0.02	< 0.001	0.04	0.72	0.02	< 0.01
2020 – 3400 m	Constant parent	material				
Slope	12	10	49	-212	427	757
R^2	0.06	0.28	0.10	0.02	0.11	0.25
F	1.97	12.30	3.51	0.56	3.97	11.02
p	0.17	0.001	0.07	0.46	0.055	< 0.01

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