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1 Running head: Tropical forest fine roots respond to nutrients

2 **Fine root responses to fertilization reveal multiple nutrient limitation in a lowland tropical**  
 3 **forest**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Questions remain as to which soil nutrients limit primary production in tropical forests.  
 10 Phosphorus (P) has long been considered the primary limiting element in lowland forests, but  
 11 recent evidence demonstrates substantial heterogeneity in response to nutrient addition,  
 12 highlighting a need to understand and diagnose nutrient limitation across diverse forests. Fine  
 13 root characteristics including their abundance, functional traits and mycorrhizal symbionts can be  
 14 highly responsive to changes in soil nutrients and may help diagnose nutrient limitation. Here,  
 15 we document the response of fine roots to long-term nitrogen (N), P and potassium (K)  
 16 fertilization in a lowland forest in Panama. Because this experiment has demonstrated that N and  
 17 K together limit tree growth and P limits fine litter production, we hypothesized that fine roots  
 18 would also respond to nutrient addition. Specifically we hypothesized that N, P and K addition  
 19 would reduce the biomass, diameter, tissue density and mycorrhizal colonization of fine roots,  
 20 and increase root tissue nutrient concentration. Most morphological root traits responded to the  
 21 single addition of K and the paired addition of N and P, with the greatest response to all three  
 22 nutrients combined. The addition of N, P and K together reduced fine root biomass, length and  
 23 tissue density, and increased specific root length, while root diameter remained unchanged.

24 Nitrogen addition did not alter root N concentration, but P and K addition increased root P and K  
25 concentration, respectively. Mycorrhizal colonization of fine roots declined with N, increased  
26 with P and was unresponsive to K addition. Although plant species composition remains  
27 unchanged after 14 years of fertilization, fine root characteristics responded to N, P and K  
28 addition, providing some of the strongest stand-level responses in this experiment. Multiple soil  
29 nutrients regulate fine root abundance, morphological and chemical traits, and their association  
30 with mycorrhizal fungi in a species-rich lowland tropical forest.

31

32

33 *Key words: Nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, root functional traits, specific root length, tissue*  
34 *density, mycorrhizal fungi*

35 INTRODUCTION

36 Tropical forests account for a significant portion of global net primary productivity and  
 37 contribute to the regulation of the global climate system (Field et al. 1998). How soil nutrients  
 38 limit productivity across the tropical forest biome is poorly understood, creating uncertainty in  
 39 projections of tropical forest response to CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization and changes in global climate (Gerber  
 40 et al. 2010, Wang et al. 2010, Goll et al. 2012). Phosphorus (P) has long been considered the  
 41 primary limiting element in lowland tropical forests because of leaching losses in highly  
 42 weathered soils (Walker and Syers 1976, Vitousek and Sanford 1986, Vitousek et al. 2010).  
 43 However, recent evidence indicates that substantial heterogeneity exists both among and within  
 44 tropical forests in the way in which soil nutrients regulate primary productivity and other  
 45 ecosystem processes. For example, nitrogen (N), P, potassium (K), calcium (Ca) and trace metals  
 46 either singly or in combination constrain primary production, N<sub>2</sub> fixation and decomposition in  
 47 different forests (Mirmanto et al. 1999, Kaspari et al. 2008, Barron et al. 2009, Wright et al.  
 48 2011, Wurzbarger et al. 2012, Baribault et al. 2012, Alvarez-Clare et al. 2013). The discrepancy  
 49 between the long-standing focus on P limitation and the complex responses of recent studies  
 50 raises new questions about how nutrient limitation arises and how it can be diagnosed among  
 51 diverse tropical forests.

52         The means by which plants acquire soil nutrients are fundamental to the concept of  
 53 nutrient limitation. Fine root form and composition are evolved, adaptive traits that allow plants  
 54 to acquire resources (e.g., water and nutrients) that limit their growth (Aerts and Chapin 2000).  
 55 Root functional traits include a suite of morphological and chemical characteristics whose  
 56 expression represent fundamental trade-offs between maximizing resource acquisition and  
 57 minimizing costs associated with root tissue construction and maintenance. Thus, the concept of

58 a root economic spectrum, similar to that documented for leaves (Westoby and Wright 2006), is  
 59 gaining recognition, where species associated with rapid resource acquisition tend to have fine  
 60 roots with higher specific root length (SRL; cm/g), lower tissue density ( $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$ ), smaller  
 61 diameters, higher N concentrations and shorter lifespans relative to species with a more  
 62 conservative growth strategy (Eissenstat et al. 2000, Comas and Eissenstat 2004, McCormack et  
 63 al. 2012). Indeed, along natural gradients of pedogenesis, community-level root functional traits  
 64 assemble in predictable ways, such that nutrient-poor soils tend to be associated with plant  
 65 species with resource conservative root traits and vice versa (Holdaway et al. 2011).

66 A critical question remains as to whether fine roots can serve as diagnostic indicators of  
 67 ecosystem nutrient status, such that root abundance and root functional traits respond in  
 68 predictable ways to experimental nutrient addition. Fine root biomass is the most commonly  
 69 studied root response in the context of ecosystem fertilization experiments, and a reduction in  
 70 fine root biomass is typically interpreted as evidence for alleviation of nutrient limitation  
 71 (reviewed in Ostertag 2001). However, fine root length per unit soil volume more accurately  
 72 depicts nutrient acquisition potential at the ecosystem scale (Aerts and Chapin 2000), since  
 73 biomass can manifest as varying amounts of root length, depending on root diameter and root  
 74 tissue density. Experimental manipulations of nutrient or water availability can induce  
 75 intraspecific variability in root functional traits (i.e. SRL, tissue density, root diameter and  
 76 nutrient content) among woody plants (Eissenstaat et al. 2000, Hendricks et al. 2000, Ostonen et  
 77 al. 2007, Freschet et al. 2013); however, the nature and magnitude of these responses vary both  
 78 among species and by functional trait (Einsmann et al. 1999, Freschet et al. 2013, Tobner et al.  
 79 2013).

80 Plant allocation to root symbionts can also serve as an indicator of ecosystem nutrient  
 81 status. Arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi are a common symbiont among land plants and  
 82 facilitate nutrient acquisition and assimilation in exchange for carbon (C) resources from the  
 83 plant. The abundance of mycorrhizal fungi in fine root systems varies widely, and tends to  
 84 decline with increased nutrient availability (Smith and Read 2008 and references therein). In the  
 85 context of root functional traits, AM fungi serve as extensions of the plant root system, and  
 86 therefore, add an additional layer of complexity to the expression of root traits in response to soil  
 87 resources (Muthukumar et al. 2003; Heinemeyer and Fitter 2004). Therefore, quantifying root  
 88 biomass responses to experimental fertilization and concomitant responses in the expression of  
 89 functional traits and the abundance of root symbionts may improve our understanding of  
 90 ecosystem nutrient limitation.

91 In a lowland tropical forest in Panama, we documented fine root characteristics, including  
 92 root abundance, root functional traits and mycorrhizal abundance after 14 years of stand-level  
 93 fertilization. This long-term experiment has demonstrated that additions of N and K together  
 94 stimulate stem growth and additions of P stimulate fine litter production (Wright et al. 2011).  
 95 Since the addition of macronutrients has altered patterns in growth above ground, we anticipated  
 96 that all three nutrients would trigger a response below ground. Indeed, our previous measures of  
 97 standing fine root biomass have shown that K addition has led to a decline of fine root biomass  
 98 (alone or in combination with N; Wright et al. 2011), increases in root turnover rates (Yavitt et  
 99 al. 2011) and declines in seedling root:shoot ratios (Santiago et al. 2012).

100 We anticipated that long-term fertilization with N, P and K would shift allocation away  
 101 from fine root biomass and AM fungi and change the expression of fine root traits. Specifically,  
 102 we hypothesized that nutrient addition would lead to reductions in fine root biomass, diameter

103 and tissue density and the abundance of AM fungal structures. We also predicted that the N, P  
 104 and K concentration of root tissue would increase with the addition of each respective nutrient  
 105 indicating the limitation of forest growth by all three elements. We also evaluated responses of  
 106 fine root length and SRL but made no *a priori* predictions due to mathematical relationships  
 107 among SRL, root biomass, root length and root diameter (see Discussion) and the potential for  
 108 AM hyphae to augment root length.

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110 METHODS

111 *Study site*

112 The 38.4 ha study plot (9° 06' 31" N, 79° 50' 37" W) supports a highly diverse (~300 tree  
 113 species) mature (> 200 years old) forest and is located on the Gigante peninsula in the Barro  
 114 Colorado Nature Monument in the Republic of Panama. The temperature averages 26 °C, and  
 115 annual precipitation averages 2600 mm (Leigh 1999), with a distinct dry season between January  
 116 and April. The soils are derived from a basaltic parent material and have been characterized as  
 117 Endogleyic Cambisols and Acric Nitisols (Koehler et al. 2009).

118 We replicated the eight treatments of a 2x2x2 factorial NPK experiment four times. We  
 119 placed the four replicates perpendicular to a 36-m topographic gradient because soil properties  
 120 (Yavitt et al. 2009) and tree distributions (unpublished data) parallel the gradient. Within each  
 121 replicate, we blocked the N, P, K and NPK treatments versus the NP, NK, PK and control  
 122 treatments (see Wright et al. (2011) Appendix A). This balanced, incomplete-block design  
 123 minimizes uncontrolled error associated with spatial variation, enables evaluation of main effects  
 124 and two-way interactions, but limits power to evaluate the three-way interaction (Winer 1971).

125 The 32 experimental plots each measured 40 by 40 m. The minimum distance between plots was  
 126 40 m, excepting two plots separated by 20 m and a 3-m deep streambed (see Wright et al. (2011)  
 127 Appendix A). All measurements for this study took place within the central 20 by 20 m of each  
 128 plot, with a 5-m wide treated buffer area on all sides. Fertilizer treatments have been applied by  
 129 hand since 1998 in four equal doses each wet season with 6–8 weeks between applications.

130 Annual doses are 125 kg N/ ha-yr as urea, 50 kg P/ha-yr as triple superphosphate and 50 kg K/  
 131 ha-yr as potassium chloride. Fertilization has altered chemical properties of the soils. N  
 132 fertilization reduced soil pH and extractable base cations and increased extractable nitrate and



133 aluminum, P fertilization increased extractable P, and K fertilization increased extractable K  
 134 (Yavitt et al. 2011, Turner et al. 2013).

135

136 *Root sampling and analysis*

137 In July of 2011, during the fourteenth year of nutrient addition, we sampled five soil cores (4 cm  
 138 in diameter to a 10 cm depth) from each of the 32 plots. Cores were sampled from the center and  
 139 each corner of the inner 20 by 20 m of each plot. Soil samples were refrigerated (4°C) and  
 140 processed within 5 days of collection. Roots were carefully separated from soils under a gentle  
 141 shower of tap water over 0.5 mm sieves. A test of our root washing procedure showed negligible  
 142 root tissue loss through the sieve. Root collection was conducted during the wet season, when we  
 143 have documented greater availability of nutrients and microbial activity in soils (Turner et al.  
 144 2013, Turner and Wright 2014).

145 We sorted fine roots into two size classes (0-1 mm and 1-2 mm diameter), soaked them in  
 146 distilled water and gently brushed them to remove adhering soil and discarded dead roots. We  
 147 sorted roots based on size class rather than root order because of the difficulty in accurately  
 148 assigning root order to species-rich root samples. The 0-1 mm size class generally represented 1<sup>st</sup>  
 149 to 3<sup>rd</sup> order roots while the 1-2 mm size class represented 3<sup>rd</sup> or 4<sup>th</sup> order roots. We acquired an  
 150 image (300 DPI, CanoScan LiDE210, Canon, U.S.A) of roots in the 0-1 mm size class and then  
 151 separated them into two subsamples: one subsample was scanned a second time, oven dried at  
 152 60°C for a minimum of 72 hours and then weighed, a second smaller subsample was preserved  
 153 in 95% ethanol and refrigerated at 4°C for subsequent mycorrhizal analysis. To ensure equal  
 154 representation, root fragments of each morphological group (potential species) were distributed  
 155 into each of the subsamples. We then acquired an image of the entire root sample in the 1-2 mm

156 size class and the tissues were oven dried. Root images were analyzed with WinRhizo (Regent  
 157 Instruments, Inc., Quebec, Canada). Images were analyzed for length ( $L$ ) and average diameter  
 158 ( $\bar{D}$ ). We also measured the mass of oven dried roots and used  $L$  and core-specific values of SRL  
 159 to estimate dry mass for the subsample of 1-2 mm roots preserved in alcohol. We calculated  
 160 specific root length ( $SRL$ ) exactly as  $L/M$ . And, we estimated tissue density ( $TD$ ) approximately  
 161 as mass per volume or:

$$162 \quad TD = \frac{M}{\pi \cdot (\bar{D}/2)^2 \cdot L} \quad (1)$$

163 Our calculation of  $TD$  is an approximation because total root length ( $L$ ) should be multiplied by  
 164 the average of the squared diameter and not by the average diameter squared. The average  
 165 diameter squared will approximate the average of the squared diameter poorly if the distribution  
 166 of root diameters is skewed.

167 The number of potential independent responses to nutrient addition is limited for two  
 168 reasons. First, AM fungal hyphae extend the reach of roots, which complicates responses  
 169 concerning  $L$ . Second, substituting the definition of SRL into equation 1 yields the following  
 170 relationship among  $SRL$ ,  $TD$  and average diameter ( $\bar{D}$ ) (Ostonen *et al.* 2007):

$$171 \quad SRL = \frac{4}{\pi \cdot \bar{D}^2 \cdot TD} \quad (2)$$

172 For these reasons, although we present the responses of  $L$  and  $SRL$  to nutrient addition, we do not  
 173 make additional predictions concerning  $L$  and  $SRL$ .

174

#### 175 *Elemental analysis of root tissue*

176 To determine the C, N, P and K concentrations of root tissues, all oven-dried root samples were  
 177 homogenized by plot and size class then ground into a fine powder. Total C and N were

178 determined by Micro-Dumas combustion (Carlo Erba Stumentazione). Total P and K were  
 179 determined by double acid extraction of ashed plant material and analyzed via colorimetry  
 180 (Alpkem auto-analyzer) and atomic absorption spectrophotometry (Shimadzu 6800),  
 181 respectively. All analyses were conducted in the Analytical Chemistry Lab of the Odum School  
 182 of Ecology, University of Georgia.

183

184 *Mycorrhizal colonization*

185 Preserved root samples were soaked in deionized water overnight and rinsed three times to  
 186 remove ethanol. Roots were cut into 1 cm sections, cleared in 10% KOH at 70°C for 5-7 hrs,  
 187 acidified briefly in 1% HCl, and stained with 0.05% trypan blue (in a 1:1:1 mixture of lactic acid,  
 188 glycerol and deionized water) for 15 min at 70 °C. Roots were destained in a lactic acid glycerol  
 189 solution for at least 8 hrs prior to observation. We studied roots under a compound microscope  
 190 and quantified the number of mycorrhizal structures (arbuscules, vesicles and hyphae) using a  
 191 random intercept method (McGonigle et al. 1990). Mycorrhizal colonization was calculated as  
 192 the percentage of fine root length and mycorrhizal density as the length of fine root colonized for  
 193 arbuscules, vesicles and hyphae.

194

195 *Data analysis*

196 We performed incomplete block, factorial analyses of variance (ANOVA) for each response  
 197 variable. The ANOVA models included main effects for N, P and K; their two-way interactions;  
 198 and spatial terms for replicate and blocks nested within replicates (Winer 1971). We used  
 199 Bartlett's test to evaluate the homogeneity of variance of residuals over the eight factorial  
 200 treatments for each ANOVA. Data transformation was unnecessary; however, one outlier was

201 identified (for plot 28, root tissue density = 0.361 and 0.372 for 0-1 mm and 0-2 mm roots,  
202 respectively). Results were qualitatively similar for analyses performed with and without this  
203 outlier, and results including all data are presented. We performed all analyses with SYSTAT©  
204 11.0 (Richmond, CA).

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205 RESULTS

206 Fine root biomass responded to fertilization (Figure 1). The addition of K significantly reduced  
 207 total fine root biomass (Fig. 1a,  $F_{1,18} = 5.11$ ,  $p = 0.036$ ) and marginally reduced biomass of the  
 208 individual size classes (Appendix A;  $F_{1,18} = 3.75$ ,  $p = 0.069$  for 0-1 mm roots;  $F_{1,18} = 3.99$ ,  $p =$   
 209  $0.061$  for 1-2 mm roots). We also observed a significant interaction between N and P, where the  
 210 addition of both elements together reduced total fine root biomass (Fig. 1b, N x P interaction,  
 211  $F_{1,18} = 6.31$ ,  $p = 0.009$ ) and the biomass of 1-2 mm diameter roots (Appendix A,  $F_{1,18} = 12.97$ ,  $p$   
 212  $= 0.002$ ). For the smaller size class of roots (0-1 mm), N alone reduced root biomass (Appendix  
 213 A,  $F_{1,18} = 4.76$ ,  $p = 0.043$ ). Total fine root biomass declined by 50% in response to all three  
 214 nutrients combined (Fig. 1c).

215 Root tissue density also responded to fertilization (Figure 2). Root tissue density declined  
 216 with the addition of K (Fig. 2a,  $F_{1,18} = 5.88$ ,  $p = 0.026$ ), with similar responses for the individual  
 217 size classes (Appendix B; 0-1 mm roots,  $F_{1,18} = 3.85$ ,  $p = 0.065$ ; 1-2 mm roots,  $F_{1,18} = 5.28$ ,  $p =$   
 218  $0.034$ ). Tissue density also declined with the addition of N and P combined for all fine roots (Fig.  
 219 2b, N x P interaction,  $F_{1,18} = 7.07$ ,  $p = 0.016$ ) and for individual size classes (Appendix B; 0-1  
 220 mm roots, N x P interaction,  $F_{1,18} = 4.62$ ,  $p = 0.045$ ; 1-2 mm roots, N x P interaction,  $F_{1,18} = 5.31$ ,  
 221  $p = 0.033$ ). Tissue density decreased by 25% in response to all three nutrients combined (Fig.  
 222 2c). The mean diameter of fine roots did not respond to N, P or K addition (not shown;  $F_{1,18}$   
 223  $= 0.627$ ,  $p = 0.439$ ;  $F_{1,18} = 2.354$ ,  $p = 0.142$ ;  $F_{1,18} = 0.328$ ,  $p = 0.574$ , respectively), nor to any  
 224 interaction between nutrients.

225 The responses of fine root length depended on the nutrient added. There were no  
 226 significant responses to K addition for all fine roots (Fig. 3a,  $F_{1,18} = 2.19$ ,  $p = 0.156$ ) nor for the  
 227 0-1 and 1-2 mm size classes (Appendix C). In contrast, N addition led to significant decreases in

228 total fine root length (Fig. 3b,  $F_{1,18} = 5.37$ ,  $p = 0.033$ ) and the length of 0-1 mm roots (Appendix  
 229 C,  $F_{1,18} = 4.76$ ,  $p = 0.043$ ). There was also a significant N x P interaction for the length of 1-2  
 230 mm fine roots, with the lowest values when both nutrients were added together (Appendix C, N x  
 231 P interaction,  $F_{1,18} = 7.12$ ,  $p = 0.016$ ). Total fine root length declined by 20% in response to all  
 232 three nutrients combined (Fig. 3c).

233 SRL tended to increase in response to fertilization (Figure 4). SRL did not respond to K  
 234 addition for all fine roots (Fig. 4a,  $F_{1,18} = 3.13$ ,  $p = 0.09$ ) but increased in response to K addition  
 235 for 1-2 mm roots (Appendix D,  $F_{1,18} = 5.59$ ,  $p = 0.030$ ). SRL increased in response to N and P  
 236 combined for all fine roots (Fig. 4b, N x P interaction,  $F_{1,18} = 11.32$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ) and for 0-1 mm  
 237 roots (Appendix D,  $F_{1,18} = 6.03$ ,  $p = 0.026$ ). SRL increased by 50 - 60% in response to all three  
 238 nutrients combined (Fig. 4c).

239 The responses of root nutrient concentrations depended on the nutrient added (Table 1).  
 240 N fertilization did not significantly change the N concentration of root tissue (0-1 mm roots,  $F_{1,18}$   
 241 = 1.70,  $p = 0.21$ ; 1-2 mm roots,  $F_{1,18} = 3.71$ ,  $p = 0.07$ ). In contrast, P addition strongly increased  
 242 the P concentration of roots (0-1 mm roots,  $F_{1,18} = 70.39$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ; 1-2 mm roots,  $F_{1,18} =$   
 243 110.2,  $p < 0.0001$ ) and K addition strongly increased the K concentration of roots (0-1 mm roots,  
 244  $F_{1,18} = 12.72$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ; 1-2 mm roots,  $F_{1,18} = 19.46$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) (Table 1).

245 The responses of AM fungi also depended on the nutrient added (Figure 5). Mycorrhizal  
 246 colonization (fraction of root length) was not significantly affected by N or P addition for  
 247 arbuscules and vesicles (Fig 5a-d); however, N addition led to declines in colonization of hyphae  
 248 (Fig. 5e,  $F_{1,18} = 5.83$ ,  $p = 0.026$ ) and all AM structures (Fig. 5g,  $F_{1,18} = 5.27$ ,  $p = 0.034$ ) and P  
 249 addition led to increases in hyphae (Fig. 5f,  $F_{1,18} = 5.46$ ,  $p = 0.031$ ) and all AM structures (Fig.  
 250 5h,  $F_{1,18} = 9.98$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ).

251 Mycorrhizal root density (length of root colonized per core) consistently declined in  
 252 response to the addition of N across all mycorrhizal structures, including arbuscules ( $F_{1,18} =$   
 253 10.12,  $p = 0.005$ ), vesicles ( $F_{1,18} = 6.75$ ,  $p = 0.018$ ), hyphae ( $F_{1,18} = 10.3$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ) and all  
 254 structures ( $F_{1,18} = 9.92$ ,  $p = 0.006$ ) and increased in response to the addition of P for arbuscules  
 255 ( $F_{1,18} = 5.59$ ,  $p = 0.029$ ), hyphae ( $F_{1,18} = 7.01$ ,  $p = 0.016$ ) and all structures ( $F_{1,18} = 7.73$ ,  $p =$   
 256 0.012) (data not shown). In sum, the addition of N reduced mycorrhizae, the addition of P  
 257 increased mycorrhizae, and the addition of K had no significant effect on mycorrhizae.

258 The responses of fine root biomass and fine root traits to nutrient addition can be  
 259 summarized as follows:

- 260 1. Fine root biomass ( $M$ ) declined substantially in response to K addition and to N plus P  
 261 addition (Fig. 1, Appendix A).
- 262 2. Fine root length ( $L$ ) tended to decline (but insignificantly) with K addition and declined  
 263 significantly with N addition and N plus P addition (Fig. 3, Appendix C).
- 264 3. Average diameter ( $\bar{D}$ ) was largely unaffected by nutrient addition (not shown).
- 265 4. The decreases in  $M$  were quantitatively larger than the decreases in  $L$  (*cf.*, Figs. 1 and 3)
- 266 so that
  - 267 a.  $TD$ , which is proportional to  $M$  and inversely proportional to  $L$ , tended to decrease  
 268 with nutrient addition (Fig. 2, Appendix B) while
  - 269 b. SRL, which is proportional to  $L$  and inversely proportional to  $M$ , tended to  
 270 increase with nutrient addition (Fig. 4, Appendix D).

271

272 DISCUSSION

273 We evaluated fine root responses after 14 years of factorial N, P, and K addition in a lowland  
 274 tropical forest growing on relatively fertile soils in central Panama. Long-lived (decades to  
 275 centuries) trees and lianas dominate plant biomass in lowland tropical forests, and species  
 276 composition did not change in response to 14 years of fertilization (SJW, unpublished data).  
 277 Therefore, stand-level fine root measurements integrate the responses of many long-lived  
 278 individuals of many species. Nonetheless, we predicted that fine root abundance (biomass and  
 279 length), morphological and chemical traits and colonization by symbionts (AM fungi) would  
 280 respond to nutrient addition. We found support for this hypothesis as fertilization reduced fine  
 281 root biomass, tissue density and nutrient content and altered mycorrhizal colonization. Although  
 282 the specific way that N, P and K induced root responses varied, our results demonstrate that the  
 283 alleviation of multiple nutrient limitation affects fine roots in a species-rich lowland tropical  
 284 forest.

286 *Root responses*

287 Fine root biomass and length reflect plant investments in nutrient acquisition and tend to be  
 288 negatively associated with soil fertility (Aerts and Chapin 2000). In tropical forests, standing root  
 289 biomass declines along natural gradients of increasing soil fertility (Ostertag 2001, Powers et al.  
 290 2005, Espeleta and Clark 2007, Jiménez et al. 2009, Powers and Pérez-Aviles 2012, Kochsiek et  
 291 al. 2013) as well as in response to experimental nutrient addition (Fig. 1, Appendix A; Ostertag  
 292 2001). These responses suggest that tropical trees reduce the partitioning of biomass to fine roots  
 293 as nutrient limitation is alleviated. At our site, N, P and K addition reduced standing fine root  
 294 biomass by 50% and fine root length by 20% (Figs. 1c and 3c, respectively). This is consistent



295 with our previous finding that all three nutrients limit some component of above-ground net  
 296 primary production (Wright et al. 2011).

297 We calculated stand-level mean values for three morphological functional traits ( $TD$ ,  $\bar{D}$ ,  
 298 and  $SRL$ ) of fine roots. Structural integrity increases with  $TD$ , and low root  $TD$  is associated with  
 299 greater susceptibility to herbivory and shorter root lifespans (Aerts and Chapin 2000). Thus, the  
 300 reductions in  $TD$  associated with nutrient additions (Fig. 2, Appendix B) are consistent with the  
 301 more rapid root turnover rates observed with K addition during the first four years of our study  
 302 (Yavitt et al. 2011). These results suggest that fertilization is shifting the expression of root  
 303 functional traits towards short-lived roots suited for rapid resource acquisition and that multiple  
 304 soil nutrients regulate root  $TD$  in this tropical forest. In contrast, stand-level  $\bar{D}$  was insensitive to  
 305 fertilization. There is limited information about root diameter responses to nutrient availability.  
 306 For individual tree species, fine root diameter varies little along gradients of soil fertility  
 307 (Eissenstaat et al. 2000), and is unresponsive or minimally responsive to fertilization (Tingey et  
 308 al. 1997, Ostonen et al. 2007, this study).

309 Mathematical relationships among  $TD$ ,  $\bar{D}$ , and  $SRL$  (equations 1 and 2) complicate the  
 310 interpretation of our findings and may explain inconsistent responses of  $SRL$  to nutrient  
 311 availability in the literature.  $SRL$  increases along gradients of increasing nutrient availability  
 312 (Holdaway et al. 2011, Freschet et al. 2013), increases with fertilization in two experiments (this  
 313 study, Bakker et al. 2009), but decreases with N fertilization in a meta-analysis of 54 European  
 314 experiments (Ostonen et al. 2007). Our understanding of  $SRL$  responses to nutrients could be  
 315 improved with concurrent measures of  $TD$  and root diameter measurements on individual roots  
 316 rather than the stand-level mean values provided by measurements pooled over all roots from  
 317 soil cores.

318 We predicted N, P and K addition would increase concentrations of those elements in  
 319 fine root tissues. N was the only nutrient that did not trigger the predicted increase. In our study  
 320 system, N addition increases N concentrations in fine litter (Kaspari et al. 2008), in seedling  
 321 tissues including root tissues (Santiago et al. 2012), and in sapling leaf tissue with consequences  
 322 for photosynthetic and stomatal physiology (Pasquini and Santiago 2012; Pasquini et al., in  
 323 press). The lack of a stand-level response of fine root tissue N concentrations is therefore  
 324 surprising. We speculate that fine root tissues are maintained at optimal N concentrations in non-  
 325 fertilized conditions and that additional N made available by fertilization is allocated to  
 326 aboveground tissues. The interpretation of responses to N addition is complicated because N  
 327 addition acidified the soil by about 0.7 pH units (Turner et al. 2013). Acidification was  
 328 ameliorated when N was applied in conjunction with P (Turner et al. 2013). An inhibitory effect  
 329 of acidification on tissue N concentrations should therefore be associated with a significant N x P  
 330 interaction. The N x P interaction was insignificant for root tissue N concentrations (Table 1) but  
 331 significant fine root abundance and morphological traits (Figs. 1-4).

332 While our study focuses on soil nutrients as limiting belowground resources, water  
 333 availability can also regulate belowground allocation and the expression of root traits (Metcalf  
 334 et al. 2008). In our seasonally dry tropical forest, as nutrient additions have alleviated constraints  
 335 on plant growth and reduced root biomass, the demand for water may become relatively more  
 336 important and change the expression of root functional traits.

337

338 *Mycorrhizal responses*

339 We observed mycorrhizal responses to the addition of N and P, but not to the addition of  
 340 K or the addition of combinations of nutrients. Nitrogen addition reduced AM colonization (Figs

341 5a, 5c, 5e and 5g). Similar reductions have been documented in several terrestrial ecosystems  
 342 (Treseder 2004, van Diepen et al. 2007), which suggests that plants regulate investment in AM  
 343 fungi as a function of soil N availability or plant N demand. The possibility that soil acidification  
 344 (Turner et al. 2013) might affect AM fungi should be considered as well; however, it is unclear  
 345 what type of response to expect. AM colonization can decline with soil acidification, particularly  
 346 below a pH of 4 (Hutchinson et al. 1999), but colonization can also be unchanged at low soil pH  
 347 and provide enhanced benefit to ameliorating plant stress (Heijne et al. 1996). Soil pH in water  
 348 averaged 4.5 after a decade of N (only) addition in our study system (Turner et al. 2013).

349 Our finding that P addition stimulated AM colonization was unexpected. Across many  
 350 ecosystem types, P fertilization tends to reduce mycorrhizal colonization (Treseder 2004), but  
 351 this response may depend on the P status of the ecosystem (Treseder & Allen 2002). In our study  
 352 system, P regulates microbial biomass; microbial C, N and P; and soil phosphatase activity  
 353 (Turner and Wright 2014). Nonetheless, the addition of P was associated with a significant  
 354 increase in mycorrhizal colonization. Host plants select for fungal community assemblages based  
 355 on local constraints of soil nutrients (Johnson et al. 2010), and because of this, fertilization can  
 356 alter the structure and composition of the AM fungal community (Egerton-Warburton & Allen  
 357 2000, van Diepen et al. 2011) and even lead to a change in fungal composition from mutualistic  
 358 to parasitic forms (Johnson et al. 1997). Therefore, changes in AM colonization after 14 years of  
 359 N or P addition could be the result of complex biotic interactions between plants and a modified  
 360 assemblage of AM fungal taxa.

361 The statistically significant response of mycorrhizal colonization to P and N addition was  
 362 modest in comparison to the response of root biomass. Mycorrhizal colonization increased by  
 363 8% and declined by 6% in response to P and N addition (Fig. 5), respectively, while root biomass

364 decreased by 30% in response to K and N plus P and by 50% in response to N, P and K  
 365 combined (Fig. 1). The lowest level of AM colonization observed in any treatment was ~ 60% of  
 366 fine root length (Figs 5g and 5h). The relative abundance of AM fungi after 14 years of  
 367 fertilization suggests that plants have limited control over their investment in AM fungi, or  
 368 alternatively, AM fungi are maintained because they provide benefits other than nutrient  
 369 acquisition (Herre et al. 2007).

370

371 *Conclusions*

372 Tropical forest responses to soil nutrients are diverse (e.g. Mirmanto et al. 1999,  
 373 Newbery et al. 2002, Wright et al. 2011, Baribault et al. 2012, Alvarez-Clare et al. 2013, Condit  
 374 et al. 2013, Kochsiek et al. 2013), reflecting the heterogeneity in soils across the biome (Quesada  
 375 et al. 2009) as well as the variety of biological processes regulated by soil nutrients. The latter is  
 376 captured well in our experiment in an old-growth lowland tropical forest in Panama. Fertilization  
 377 has stimulated a wide range of microbial processes, including microbial biomass and enzyme  
 378 production, decomposition, N<sub>2</sub> fixation, N-oxide emissions (Kaspari et al. 2008, Barron et al.  
 379 2009, Koehler et al. 2009, Turner and Wright 2013). Fertilization has also stimulated stand-level  
 380 plant responses, including increased litter production with P addition and increased wood  
 381 production with N plus K addition (Wright et al. 2011). After 14 years of fertilization, fine root  
 382 biomass is the only stand-level plant tissue pool to decline in response to the addition of N, P and  
 383 K. The addition of N, P and K also induced a shift, at the stand level, towards the production of  
 384 fine roots that are less dense, more nutrient rich and have modified interactions with mycorrhizal  
 385 fungi. Our study demonstrates that fine roots respond strongly to the alleviation of multiple  
 386 nutrient limitations in this lowland tropical forest.

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394

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564

565 ECOLOGICAL ARCHIVES

566 **Appendix A.** Root biomass in 0-1 mm and 1-2 mm size classes.

567 Fine root biomass ( $\text{g/m}^2$ ) in surface soils (0-10 cm depth) for 0-1 mm roots (panels a, c and e)  
 568 and 1-2 mm roots (b, d and f) without or with the addition of K (a and b, respectively), without  
 569 or with the addition of N and P (c and d, respectively), and without or with the addition of NPK  
 570 (e and f, respectively). Values are means  $\pm$  one standard error. Panels a and b contrast 16 -K  
 571 versus 16 +K plots. Panels c and d contrast eight -N-P, eight -N+P, eight +N-P and eight +N+P  
 572 plots. Panels e and f contrast four control versus four +N+P+K plots.

573 **Appendix B.** Root tissue density in 0-1 mm and 1-2 mm size classes.

574 Fine root tissue density ( $\text{g/cm}^3$ ) in surface soils (0-10 cm depth) for 0-1 mm roots (panels a, c  
 575 and e) and 1-2 mm roots (b, d and f) without or with the addition of K (a and b, respectively),  
 576 without or with the addition of N and P (c and d, respectively), and without or with the addition  
 577 of NPK (e and f, respectively). Values are means  $\pm$  one standard error. Panels a and b contrast  
 578 16 -K versus 16 +K plots. Panels c and d contrast eight -N-P, eight -N+P, eight +N-P and eight  
 579 +N+P plots. Panels e and f contrast four control versus four +N+P+K plots.

580 **Appendix C.** Root length in 0-1 mm and 1-2 mm size classes.

581 Fine root length ( $\text{m/m}^2$ ) in surface soils (0-10 cm depth) for 0-1 mm roots (panels a, c and e) and  
 582 1-2 mm roots (b, d and f) without or with the addition of K (a and b, respectively), without or  
 583 with the addition of N and P (c and d, respectively), and without or with the addition of NPK (e  
 584 and f, respectively). Values are means  $\pm$  one standard error. Panels a and b contrast 16 -K

585 versus 16 +K plots. Panels c and d contrast eight -N-P, eight -N+P, eight +N-P and eight +N+P  
 586 plots. Panels e and f contrast four control versus four +N+P+K plots.

587 **Appendix D.** Specific root length in 0-1 mm and 1-2 mm size classes.

588 Fine root specific root length (cm/g) in surface soils (0-10 cm depth) for 0-1 mm roots (panels a,  
 589 c and e) and 1-2 mm roots (b, d and f) without or with the addition of K (a and b, respectively),  
 590 without or with the addition of N and P (c and d, respectively), and without or with the addition  
 591 of NPK (e and f, respectively). Values are means +/- one standard error. Panels a and b contrast  
 592 16 -K versus 16 +K plots. Panels c and d contrast eight -N-P, eight -N+P, eight +N-P and eight  
 593 +N+P plots. Panels e and f contrast four control versus four +N+P+K plots.

594 **Supplement.** All data.

595



596 **Table 1.** Elemental concentration of fine root tissue from the Gigante fertilization experiment.  
 597 Values are means and standard errors in parentheses. P addition increased the P concentration of  
 598 roots (0-1 mm roots,  $p < 0.0001$ ; 1-2 mm roots,  $p < 0.0001$ ) and K addition increased the K  
 599 concentration of roots (0-1 mm roots,  $p = 0.002$ ; 1-2 mm roots,  $p < 0.0001$ ).

0-1 mm root tissue

Treatment					
Plot	C (%)	N (%)	C:N	P (ppm)	K (ppm)
Control	46.9 (0.4)	1.68 (0.06)	28.1 (1.2)	0.68 (0.02)	4.69 (0.28)
N	48.0 (1.3)	1.79 (0.28)	27.2 (3.6)	0.56 (0.05)	4.08 (0.46)
P	47.6 (1.2)	1.62 (0.06)	29.4 (1.2)	1.52 (1.2)	4.76 (0.78)
K	46.9 (0.8)	1.78 (0.19)	26.5 (3.1)	0.66 (0.09)	5.48 (0.78)
NP	46.9 (1.3)	1.85 (0.20)	25.6 (2.8)	1.58 (0.36)	4.42 (0.71)
NK	47.4 (1.5)	1.77 (0.06)	26.8 (1.2)	0.62 (0.08)	5.07 (0.42)
KP	46.9 (1.2)	1.85 (0.22)	25.6 (3.7)	1.58 (0.38)	4.42 (1.4)
NPK	46.4 (1.2)	1.72 (0.18)	27.2 (3.4)	1.37 (0.52)	5.35 (0.69)

1-2 mm root tissue

Treatment					
Plot	C (%)	N (%)	C:N	P (ppm)	K (ppm)
Control	47.6 (0.39)	1.19 (0.04)	40.2 (1.6)	0.47 (0.03)	4.20 (0.48)
N	47.9 (1.5)	1.24 (0.11)	38.8 (2.5)	0.38 (0.01)	3.86 (0.37)
P	47.6 (0.79)	1.07 (0.08)	44.6 (4.2)	1.87 (0.36)	4.31 (1.4)
K	48.1 (4.1)	1.16 (0.07)	41.6 (3.8)	0.47 (0.05)	5.66 (0.47)

NP	48.9 (2.4)	1.25 (0.32)	40.5 (7.4)	1.29 (0.31)	4.03 (0.74)
NK	47.3 (1.6)	1.30 (0.20)	36.3 (1.8)	0.48 (0.05)	6.18 (2.2)
KP	48.9 (6.9)	1.25 (0.19)	40.5 (6.5)	1.29 (0.44)	4.03 (0.89)
NPK	47.1 (1.7)	1.34 (0.47)	38.1 (11)	1.67 (0.69)	5.55 (1.9)

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602 FIGURE LEGENDS

603 **Figure 1.** Total fine root (0-2 mm) biomass ( $\text{g/m}^2$ ) in surface soils (0-10 cm depth) in  
 604 fertilization plots, a) without or with the addition of K, b) without or with the addition of N and  
 605 P, and c) without or with the addition of NPK. Values are means  $\pm$  one standard error. Panel a  
 606 contrasts 16 -K versus 16 +K plots. Panel b contrasts eight -N-P, eight -N+P, eight +N-P and  
 607 eight +N+P plots. Panel c contrasts four control versus four +N+P+K plots.

608 **Figure 2.** Total fine root (0-2 mm) tissue density ( $\text{g/cm}^3$ ) in surface soils (0-10 cm depth) in  
 609 fertilization plots, a) without or with the addition of K, b) without or with the addition of N and  
 610 P, and c) without or with the addition of NPK. Values are means  $\pm$  one standard error. Panel a  
 611 contrasts 16 -K versus 16 +K plots. Panel b contrasts eight -N-P, eight -N+P, eight +N-P and  
 612 eight +N+P plots. Panel c contrasts four control versus four +N+P+K plots.

613 **Figure 3.** Total fine root (0-2 mm) length ( $\text{m/m}^2$ ) in surface soils (0-10 cm depth) in fertilization  
 614 plots, a) without or with the addition of K, b) without or with the addition of N and P, and c)  
 615 without or with the addition of NPK. Values are means  $\pm$  one standard error. Panel a contrasts  
 616 16 -K versus 16 +K plots. Panel b contrasts eight -N-P, eight -N+P, eight +N-P and eight +N+P  
 617 plots. Panel c contrasts four control versus four +N+P+K plots.

618 **Figure 4.** Total fine root (0-2 mm) specific root length ( $\text{cm/g}$ ) in surface soils (0-10 cm depth) in  
 619 fertilization plots, a) without or with the addition of K, b) without or with the addition of N and  
 620 P, and c) without or with the addition of NPK. Values are means  $\pm$  one standard error. Panel a  
 621 contrasts 16 -K versus 16 +K plots. Panel b contrasts eight -N-P, eight -N+P, eight +N-P and  
 622 eight +N+P plots. Panel c contrasts four control versus four +N+P+K plots.

623 **Figure 5.** Arbuscular mycorrhizal root colonization (percent root length colonized by  
 624 mycorrhizal structures) in fertilization plots, a) and b) arbuscules, c) and d) vesicles, e) and f)  
 625 hyphae, g) and h) total colonization, without or with the addition of N (panels a, c, e and g) and  
 626 without or with the addition of P (panels b, d, f and h). Values are means +/- one standard error.  
 627 Panels a, c, e and g contrast 16 -N versus 16 +N plots. Panels b, d, f and h contrast 16 -P versus  
 628 16 +P

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