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Nottingham, AT orcid.org/0000-0001-9421-8972, Hicks, LC, Meir, P et al. (3 more authors) (2021) Annual to decadal temperature adaptation of the soil bacterial community after translocation across an elevation gradient in the Andes. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 158. 108217. p. 108217. ISSN 0038-0717

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2021.108217

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1	Total words 5170; abstract 292; 1 table; 4 figures
2	Regular paper to Soil Biology and Biochemistry
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4	Annual to decadal temperature adaptation of the soil bacterial community
5	after translocation across an elevation gradient in the Andes
6	
7	Running title: Decadal thermal-adaptation of bacterial growth
8	
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### 25 ABSTRACT

26 The response of soil microbial activity to climate warming has been predicted to have a large 27 destabilising effect on the carbon cycle. However, the nature of this feedback remains poorly 28 understood, especially in tropical ecosystems and across annual to decadal timescales. We 29 studied the response of bacterial community growth to 2 and 11 years of altered temperature regimes, by translocating soil across an elevation gradient in the tropical Andes. Soil cores 30 31 were reciprocally translocated among five sites across 3 km in elevation, where mean annual 32 temperature (MAT) ranged from 26.4 to 6.5°C. The bacterial community growth response to 33 temperature was estimated using a temperature Sensitivity Index (SI): the log-ratio of growth 34 determined by leucine incorporation at 35°C:4°C. Bacterial communities from soil translocated 35 to their original site (controls) had a growth response assumed to be 'adapted' to the original 36 MAT. Translocating soil downslope (warming) resulted in an increased SI relative to their 37 original growth response, and vice versa under cooling, indicating community-level adaptation 38 over the incubation period to the altered MAT. The average level of adaptation (i.e., the extent 39 to which SI converged on the control values) was 77% after 2 years, and was complete after 40 11 years. The adaptive response was greater when soil was warmed rather than cooled: 41 instances of complete adaptation of SI occurred in soils after 2 years when warmed, but only 42 after 11 years when they were cooled. Taken together, our results show that the majority of the 43 growth adaptation to warming by the bacterial community occurs rapidly, within 2 years, whilst 44 growth adaptation to cooling occurs within a decade. Our analysis demonstrates rapid warm-45 adaptation of bacterial community growth, with potential consequences for the temperature sensitivity of soil carbon cycling in response to future climate warming. 46

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48 Keywords: climate warming; microbial community; microbial growth; Ratkowsky model; soil
49 carbon; tropical forest

### 50 **1. Introduction**

51 Climate warming is predicted to stimulate microbial activity, resulting in increased degradation 52 of soil carbon (C) and causing a positive feedback for further climate change (Davidson and 53 Janssens, 2006). However, the magnitude of this feedback depends on changes in the 54 temperature sensitivity of microbial growth - the magnitude of the change in microbial 55 community activity with warming. There is now widespread evidence that both the function 56 and composition of microbial communities change under warming (Bradford, 2013; Romero-57 Olivares et al., 2017; Bååth, 2018; Nottingham et al., 2019b). However, studies of warming 58 effects on soil microbial processes have reported divergent responses that vary across temporal 59 and biogeographical scales (Romero-Olivares et al., 2017) and with scarce information 60 available for tropical ecosystems, despite the very large soil carbon stores in these regions 61 (Jackson et al., 2017; Wood et al., 2019). Our ability to predict the response of the soil C cycle 62 to climate warming is especially limited by a lack of information on the temperature sensitivity 63 of microbial processes across annual-to-decadal timescales and in tropical ecosystems.

64 Here we focus on the characterisation of the temperature response of microbial 65 (specifically, bacterial) community growth, which can be directly determined by laboratory 66 incubations (Bååth, 2018). The temperature response of microbial community growth and 67 respiration follow the square root relationship (Ratkowsky et al., 1982), which can be used to 68 assess the community-level metabolic response to warming (Bååth, 2018). Using this approach, 69 it has been shown that higher mean annual temperature (MAT) results in microbial community 70 growth and respiration better adapted to higher temperatures and vice versa, where 'adaptation' 71 is indicated by relatively faster activity at temperatures closer to MAT, with the minimum 72 temperature of activity (T<sub>min</sub>) increasing with increasing MAT (Rousk et al., 2012; Bååth, 2018; 73 Nottingham et al., 2019a; Li et al., 2021). The mechanisms behind this altered temperature 74 sensitivity of microbial growth may include: i) physiological changes resulting in short-term 75 acclimation by existing microbial taxa, which have been shown across ambient temperature 76 ranges for fungi (Crowther and Bradford, 2013) but not for bacteria other than from heat-shock 77 responses to very high temperatures (Leroi et al., 1994); ii) genetic adaptation resulting in 78 microbial populations with altered genotypes, which has been demonstrated in some instances 79 for bacteria under optimal growth conditions (Bennett et al., 1990), although not in others 80 (Bennett and Lenski, 1997); or iii) species sorting where species inherently adapted to higher 81 temperature conditions will outcompete less well-adapted species (Donhauser et al., 2020) and 82 become dominant in that bacterial community. Irrespective of the underlying mechanism, 83 whether by genotypic or by community compositional change, for this study we use the 84 terminology 'community adaptation', to describe better performance (indicated by relatively 85 faster growth rates) with shifts in temperature, in accordance with terminology used elsewhere 86 (Bradford, 2013; Bååth, 2018).

87 The overall microbial growth response to temperature, or 'community adaptation' to temperature, depends on both the duration and the magnitude of temperature 88 89 change. Large and long-term temperature gradients (e.g. across gradients in MAT) have been 90 related to large changes in the minimum and optimum temperatures of bacterial community 91 growth in soil (T<sub>min</sub> and T<sub>opt</sub>, respectively) (Bååth, 2018). For example, these growth responses 92 have been demonstrated across a latitudinal gradient of -4°C to 9°C in MAT in the Antarctic 93 (Rinnan et al., 2009) and an elevation gradient of 6.5°C to 26.4°C in MAT in the tropics 94 (Nottingham et al., 2019a). However, it remains unclear how rapidly microbial activity-95 temperature relationships respond to changing thermal regimes. Short-term laboratory studies 96 suggest a lag in the microbial community temperature adaptation with warming, if the 97 incubation temperature is below T<sub>opt</sub>. For example, no increase in T<sub>min</sub> for growth was found 98 after one to two months at 25°C compared to 5°C, while increasing temperature to levels near 99 or higher than T<sub>opt</sub> for growth (around 30°C), resulted in rapid community adaptation to 100 temperature (Bárcenas-Moreno et al., 2009; Birgander et al., 2013). On the other hand, four 101 years of 5°C in situ warming in a temperate climate zone resulted in increased T<sub>min</sub>, indicating 102 that temperature adaptation can occur under field conditions and over a longer time period 103 (Rousk et al., 2012). With smaller temperature increases under field conditions, however, 104 community adaptation to temperature has not been detectable for bacterial growth (Rinnan et 105 al., 2009; Rinnan et al., 2011; Birgander et al., 2018) or respiration (Schindlbacher et al., 2015; 106 Carey et al., 2016). The direction of the temperature change, whether increasing or decreasing, 107 may also be of importance. Higher temperatures may result in a faster turnover of the bacterial 108 community compared to lower temperatures; such a response has been used to explain more 109 rapid community adaptation during warmer conditions in laboratory studies (Diaz-Raviña and 110 Bååth, 1996; Ranneklev and Bååth, 2001). The same response can also explain earlier findings 111 that microbial growth adaptation is determined by peak summer temperatures rather than cooler 112 winter temperatures (van Gestel et al., 2013).

113 The effect of warming on the soil C cycle and microbial communities is 114 especially poorly understood in tropical forest ecosystems (Wood et al., 2019). Tropical soils 115 account for a third of global C stocks (Jackson et al., 2017), which together with rapid C 116 turnover due to high temperatures result in a substantial contribution of tropical soils to the 117 global terrestrial C cycle (Pan et al., 2011). Recent experimental evidence suggests a high 118 sensitivity of lowland tropical forest soil carbon to two years of warming (Nottingham et al., 119 2020), but it remains unclear whether and how microbial communities modulate this response 120 across annual-to-decadal time-scales. Studies of elevation gradients in tropical and subtropical 121 forests have shown that long-term (i.e. >1000 yrs) temperature differences can drive changes 122 in the microbial community (Looby et al., 2016; Nottingham et al., 2018), although for many sites elevation-related variation in other factors such as rainfall, geology and plants are more 123 124 important for determining community composition (Geml et al., 2014; Singh et al., 2014;

125 Selmants et al., 2016). The experimental translocation of soil across tropical elevation 126 gradients, to impose temperature change (Tito et al., 2020), has also been shown to change the 127 microbial community composition after 10 months (Looby and Treseder, 2018) and five years 128 (Nottingham et al., 2019b); whether these community shifts under short to medium term (e.g. 129 1-10 yrs) temperature change are associated with altered growth-adaptation of the community 130 is not yet clear. While the *in situ* microbial community growth response is adapted to long-term 131 differences in temperature (Nottingham et al., 2019a; Donhauser et al., 2020), there has been 132 no test of the microbial growth response to temperature changes across annual to decadal time 133 scales, a timescale particularly important in the context of expected rate of temperature change 134 this century (Mora et al., 2013).

135 We studied the bacterial community growth response ('community-adaptation') 136 to 2 and 11 years of  $\pm$  20°C temperature change by reciprocal translocation of soil cores to both 137 warmer and cooler conditions along an elevation gradient in Peru, from the Andes to western 138 lowland Amazonia. We expected that the 'control' soil bacterial communities translocated at 139 their site of origin would be adapted to local temperature conditions - for example, relatively 140 faster growth at warmer temperatures for sites with higher MAT - similar to that found earlier 141 for undisturbed soils along this elevation gradient (Nottingham et al., 2019a). We then 142 hypothesized that: 1) bacterial communities from soil cores transferred from low 143 temperature/high elevation sites, to high temperature/low elevation sites, will become 144 increasingly well adapted over time to higher temperature conditions and vice versa; 2) the 145 bacterial community growth adaptation to temperature will be greater following 11 years 146 compared to 2 years of temperature change; and 3) transferring soil cores from low to high 147 temperature environments will change the temperature sensitivity of the bacterial community more rapidly than moving from high to low temperature. 148

### 150 2. Materials and Methods

### 151 2.1. Soil translocation experiment and soil sampling

152 Intact soil cores were reciprocally translocated among five sites along a tropical elevation 153 gradient situated on the eastern flank of the Peruvian Andes, spanning a MAT range of 20°C 154 (6.5 - 26.4°C; Table 1) (Nottingham et al., 2015). The lower four sites are under continuous 155 forest cover, from the lowland Amazon rainforest (site TAM at 210 m above sea level; m asl) 156 to upper montane cloud forest (site WAY at 3025 m asl). The upper site is above the timberline, 157 in high elevation grassland (site TC at 3650 m asl) (Table 1). MAT decreases with increasing 158 elevation across the gradient, exhibiting little seasonal variation in temperature (Rapp and 159 Silman, 2012). Mean annual precipitation (MAP) peaks at mid-elevation, 5302 mm year<sup>-1</sup> at 160 1500 m. Precipitation is distinctly seasonal across the gradient, with a dry season from May-161 September and a wet season from November-March (Rapp and Silman, 2012). Despite distinct 162 wet and dry seasons, there is little seasonal variation in soil moisture (Girardin et al., 2013), 163 and evidence to date indicates that plants and soils at all sites are rarely moisture limited over 164 the seasonal cycle (Zimmermann et al., 2010; van de Weg et al., 2014). Further description of 165 soil, climate and floristic composition at these sites are reported elsewhere (Girardin et al., 166 2010; Rapp and Silman, 2012; Jankowski et al., 2013; Oliveras et al., 2014; Nottingham et al., 2018). 167

Soil cores were translocated in two sets, with translocation downslope imposing an experimental warming treatment and translocation upslope an experimental cooling treatment. The first set were translocated in 2008 and sampled 11 years later in 2019 (11-year treatment). The second set were translocated in 2013 and sampled two years later in 2015 (2year treatment). At each site, twelve intact monoliths of mineral soil (10 cm diameter and 50 cm depth for the 10-year treatment and 30 cm depth for the 2-year treatment) were excavated. Soil cores were re-installed at sites across the gradient, by carefully inserting the cores into 175 holes cut into the soil using a hand auger. This included soil cores re-installed at the same 176 elevation (i.e. at their site of origin) to control for any disturbance effects. The cores were 177 located in three separate subplots situated outside the perimeter of 1 ha permanent study plots 178 at each site, with the exception of the 3650 m site, where translocated cores were situated in 179 three subplots within a smaller fenced area (approximately 8 m x 8 m) to protect from 180 disturbance. These subplots acted as individual spatial replicates, such that twelve cores were 181 re-installed at each elevation site (4 soils x 3 replicates). The same sites were used for both sets 182 of translocation treatments, except that for the 2-year translocation study we replaced the 1000 183 m site with a higher site at 3650 m in order to increase the temperature range (Table 1).

Soil cores were collected in October 2015 (2-year translocation) and December 2019 (11-year translocation). Soil was removed from the cores and mixed before subsamples from each core were collected. These samples were then stored in a dark/cool (~15°C) room until transportation to the laboratory (Lund, Sweden). The soil was then stored for up to 2 weeks at 17°C until analyses.

189

# 190 2.2. Bacterial community growth adaptation to temperature

191 The temperature adaptation of the bacterial community growth was determined by measuring 192 instantaneous growth rates at different temperatures (Pietikäinen et al., 2005; Rinnan et al., 193 2009), using the leucine (Leu) incorporation method (Bååth et al., 2001). The method provides 194 an estimate of community growth at different temperatures, providing a standardised 195 comparison across treatments and studies. Soil (1 g dry weight) was mixed with 20 ml 17°C 196 distilled water, vortexed for 3 min and centrifuged at 15°C for 10 min. The supernatant, with 197 an extracted bacterial suspension, was transferred (1.5 ml) into microcentrifugation vials, 198 which were pre-incubated in water baths for 1h (at 4°C) or 0.5h (at 35°C) before 2µl <sup>3</sup>H-leucine (1-[4,5-<sup>3</sup>H] leucine, 37 MBq ml<sup>-1</sup> and 5.74 TBq mmol<sup>-1</sup>, Perkin-Elmer, USA) together with 199

unlabelled Leu was added (resulting in 275 nM in the bacterial suspension). After 6.5 h (4°C)
or 2 h (35°C), trichloroacetic acid was added to terminate growth. Washing of bacteria and
measurement of radioactivity was conducted following Bååth et al. (2001). All samples for
each replicate were processed on the same day.

204

# 205 2.3. Calculations and statistics

The log ratio incorporation of Leu at 35°C and 4°C, respectively, was used as a temperature Sensitivity Index (SI) of the degree of bacterial community adaptation to temperature, where:

208  $SI = \log$  (Leu incorporation at 35°C/ Leu incorporation at 4°C) (eq. 1) 209 Higher ratios indicate relatively faster growth at higher temperatures (i.e. better adaptation) 210 and vice versa. We used linear regression to test the response of temperature change 211 (translocation) on SI, given that a previous study demonstrated a strong linear relationship between SI and temperature ( $R^2 = 0.88$ , P < 0.001; Nottingham et al. (2019a). A similar 212 213 temperature sensitivity index for bacterial growth was previously shown to correlate closely 214 with T<sub>min</sub> for bacterial growth for the elevation gradient studied here (Nottingham et al., 2019a). 215 We calculated  $T_{min}$  for soil bacterial growth by using the linear relationship between  $T_{min}$  and MAT demonstrated in the same previous study (Fig. 2a in Nottingham et al. (2019a);  $R^2 = 0.89$ , 216 217 *P* < 0.001), where:

218

$$T_{min} (^{\circ}C) = -10.0 + 0.33 * MAT (^{\circ}C)$$
 (eq. 2)

We used this relationship (MAT =( $T_{min}$ +10.0)/0.33) to estimate  $T_{min}$  values corresponding with empirically-determined SI values for control soils translocated to the site of origin (Fig. 1) following 2-years (SI=0.38+0.067\*MAT; rearranged, MAT=(SI-0.38)/0.067; thus combined with eq. 2 and solved for  $T_{min}$ ,  $T_{min} = 4.93*SI-11.87$ ) and 11-years (SI=0.51+0.068\*MAT; rearranged, MAT=(SI-0.51)/0.068; thus combined with eq. 2 and solved for  $T_{min}$ ,  $T_{min}$ =4.85\*SI-12.47) (see upper axis, Fig. 1; second y-axes, Figs 2 and 3). To examine the average level of change in SI across all soils, and under both warming and cooling, we used relative response (RR) quotients. The use of RR quotients enabled us to compare relative temperature responses across all soil types, minimizing variation from any indirect effects of temperature on other covarying properties among soils (e.g. substrate availability), and to compare responses across different translocation durations (2 yrs and 11 ys).

231

The RR of SI was determined by:

232 RR of SI = log [SI at destination (i=1-3) / SI at origin (i=1-3)] (eq. 3)

233 Errors were determined based on the standard error (SE) of the three replicates, whereby each 234 translocated soil core (i=1-3 replicate core at destination site) was paired with a control core 235 (i=1-3 replicate core at origin site). To evaluate whether temperature change affected the RR 236 of SI, we used linear models of RR of SI against the temperature shift (temperature at 237 destination minus temperature at origin). We used models including warming and cooling 238 responses together and warming and cooling separately. To evaluate whether the change in RR 239 of SI with temperature change under warming or cooling was different after the different time 240 periods (2 years, 11 years) and for soils at origin ('fully adapted' controls), we used ANCOVA. 241 All analyses were performed in R (version 4.0.2).

242

## 243 **3. Results**

The original bacterial community was assumed to be adapted to the prevailing temperature regime across the elevation gradient. This assumption was supported by a linearly-increasing temperature Sensitivity Index (SI) of bacterial growth with increasing MAT for soil cores kept at their original site both after 2 and 11 years ( $R^2 = 0.89$  and 0.83, respectively, Fig. 1). At the high elevation site (MAT 6.5°C) the SI was around 0.9 and increased to 2.2 at the low elevation site (MAT 26.4°C). This is equivalent to an increase in T<sub>min</sub> for bacterial growth from around - 8°C to -1°C (calculated from eq. (2)) across this elevation gradient with 20°C difference in
MAT. Both sampling events resulted in approximately the same slope (2 years, 0.067; 11 years,
0.068; Fig. 1) for the dependence of SI on MAT.

Cooling - by translocation of soil upslope - generally resulted in bacterial growth adapted to lower temperatures (i.e. denoted by a decreased SI relative to SI at origin), while warming by translocation of soil downslope generally resulted in growth adapted to higher temperatures (i.e. denoted by an increased SI relative to SI at origin). For all soils, the SI was correlated with MAT of the new sites following translocation (Figs. 2 and 3).

258 To illustrate the effect of two years of warming on the temperature sensitivity (SI 259 or T<sub>min</sub>) of growth, soil from the high elevation site (TC, MAT 6.5°C) translocated to the lowest 260 elevation site (TAM, 26.4°C MAT) had a SI for bacterial growth that increased from 0.9 to 261 around 2.2 (refer to end of solid line in Fig. 2A where MAT of new site = 26.4°C; equivalent 262 to T<sub>min</sub> increasing from -8°C to approximately 0°C). The SI of TC soil translocated to the two 263 sites with intermediate MAT (WAY, 11.1 and SP, 17.4°C) also increased from the SI value at 264 origin (TC), but to a lesser extent (solid line in Fig. 2A where MAT of new sites = 11.1 and 17.4 °C). 265

To illustrate the effect of two years of cooling, for the soil from the lowest elevation site (TAM, MAT 26.4°C) translocated to the highest elevation site (TC, MAT 6.5°C), the SI decreased from approximately 2.0 to 1.3, indicating bacterial community adaptation to cooler conditions (Fig. 2D). Similarly, for the two sites with intermediate MAT (WAY and SP, Fig. 2B, C), translocation to sites with higher MAT usually resulted in higher SI (adaptation to warmer conditions) and *vice versa*.

Two years after translocation, the average slope of SI against MAT of the translocation site across all soils (Fig 2;  $0.053 \pm 0.006$ ) suggested 77% of adaptation had occurred, although there was an uneven effect of cooling and warming. Warming had a stronger

effect after two years because the slope was steeper for bacterial communities originating from
low temperature conditions translocated to higher MAT (soil from upper two sites with slopes
0.072, 0.053; Fig. 2A, 2B), than for communities translocated from high to low MAT (soil
from lower two sites, with slopes 0.041, 0.044; Fig. 2C, 2D, e.g. compare Fig. 2A and D).

279 Eleven years after translocation, the SI data suggest that the adaptation of 280 bacterial growth to the new temperature regime had increased and was near-complete in all 281 sites. The average slope of SI against the MAT of the translocation site across all soils (0.069 282  $\pm 0.006$ ) was the same as the slope for the controls (0.068  $\pm 0.003$ ) (Fig. 3). For soil from the 283 highest site under forest (WAY) translocated to the low elevation site (TAM) (i.e. warmed by 284 15°C), SI increased from 1.3 to 2.4; the latter being similar to the SI of bacterial growth at the 285 low elevation site (Fig. 3A). Bacterial growth in soil from the low elevation site (TAM) 286 translocated to the high elevation site (WAY) became fully adapted to the new conditions, 287 decreasing SI from around 2.1 to 1.2 (Fig. 3D). The bacterial growth rates from soils of the two 288 intermediate elevation sites also appeared to fully adapt to the new temperature regimes, 289 irrespective of whether MAT was increased or decreased by translocation (Fig. 3B, C). Thus, 290 the slope for soils from the lower warmer elevations (i.e. that had been cooled), had converged 291 on the controls to a greater extent after 11 years compared to after 2 years (compare Fig 2C 292 and 2D with Figs 3C and 3D; slopes changed from 0.041 and 0.440 to 0.062 and 0.062).

To further examine the average response of SI across all soils to warming and cooling, we used relative response quotients (RR). The relative change in the temperature sensitivity of bacterial growth (RR of SI) was correlated with the change in temperature for soils after 2 years and 11 years (Fig. 4, see insert for average response across warming and cooling). The trajectory of the slope over time tended towards the slope for controls (complete adaptation), increasing from 2 years (0.0160  $\pm$  0.0018; R<sup>2</sup> = 0.70, P < 0.001), 11 years (0.0184  $\pm$  0.0017; R<sup>2</sup> = 0.77, P < 0.001) and controls (0.0208  $\pm$  0.0013; R<sup>2</sup> = 0.82, P < 0.001); where a slope of zero represents no adaptation (dashed line, Fig 4) and a slope of 0.0208 represents 100% adaptation ('control' slope, calculated by comparing responses in non-translocated control soils at site of origin). The RR-SI data (combining cooling and warming responses) suggest that  $77\% \pm 14\%$  of adaptation had occurred after 2 years and  $88\% \pm 15\%$  after 11 years (Fig.4 insert; % calculated by the ratio of slopes for respective treatments and controls), which is consistent with our earlier analysis showing 77% of adaptation after 2 years and complete after 11 years (Figs. 2-3).

307 The response of RR-SI to temperature change was different under warming and 308 cooling (Fig. 4). Under warming, the relationship between the RR of SI and temperature change 309 was not dependent on the length of incubation (ANCOVA covariate (time) effect P = 0.62; 310 pairwise comparisons: control vs. 2 years, P = 0.60; control vs. 11 years, P = 0.69). The slope of the relationship under warming was similar after 2 years ( $0.0258 \pm 0.0053$ ; R<sup>2</sup> = 0.57, P < 311 312 0.001), 11 years (0.0192  $\pm$  0.0059; R<sup>2</sup> = 0.40, P < 0.01) and for controls (0.0217  $\pm$  0.0013; R<sup>2</sup> 313 = 0.52, P < 0.001) (see warming responses in Fig. 4). While under cooling, the relationship 314 between the RR of SI and temperature change was dependent on the length of incubation 315 (ANCOVA covariate (time) effect, P = 0.02; pairwise comparisons: control vs. 2 years, P =316 0.07; control vs. 11 years, P = 0.42). Under cooling, the relationship after 2 years (0.0159 ± 0.0059; R<sup>2</sup> = 0.31, P = 0.02) was different from that after 11 years (0.0192 ± 0.0059; R<sup>2</sup> = 0.40, 317 P < 0.01) and controls (0.0211 ± 0.0039;  $R^2 = 0.51$ , P < 0.001). 318

In summary, the temperature response of growth for translocated soils converged towards that of the natural soils found at the destination site of translocation - soil bacteria grew relatively faster at high temperatures if translocated downslope (higher MAT) and *vice versa*. The extent of growth adaptation increased over time and was greater under warming compared to cooling; adaptation was complete (no difference in SI for translocated soils vs. controls) after 2 years of warming but not cooling, and complete after 11 years, both for warming or cooling. By directly comparing the change in slopes for SI, we found 77% of complete adaptation had occurred after 2 years (Fig. 2) and 100% after 11 years (Fig. 3). In a separate analysis using relative response across all soils to warming and cooling together, we found that  $77 \pm 14\%$  had occurred after 2 years and  $88 \pm 15\%$  after 11 years (Fig. 4). Thus, averaging across warming and cooling responses, both analyses supported that most (over 70%) of the adaptation had occurred after 2 years, and this continued to increase, converging towards the controls after 11 years.

332

## 333 4. Discussion

334 Temperature adaptation of bacterial growth following temperature manipulation 335 under field conditions has rarely been studied. Of the studies that have been performed, overall, 336 they support our results by showing that the extent of this adaptive growth response depends 337 on the magnitude of the temperature change and duration of incubation period. Although 338 warming experiments in cold Antarctic or sub-Arctic environments found no community 339 adaptation, this is most likely due to the small temperature increases imposed in the studies -340 for example by 1°C for three years (Rinnan et al., 2009) and by 1-2°C for 17 years (Rinnan et 341 al., 2011) – or due to shorter periods of warming, for example 3°C of winter-warming for only two years (Birgander et al., 2018). In contrast, experimental soil warming by 5°C for 3-4 years 342 343 in a temperate forest resulted in a significantly higher T<sub>min</sub> for bacterial growth, indicative of 344 adaptation to warmer temperatures (Rousk et al., 2012). The present translocation study, which 345 imposed large temperature changes of 4-20°C, found a 0.3°C increase in T<sub>min</sub> per degree 346 warming, which is similar to the 0.2°C increase in T<sub>min</sub> per degree warming in Rousk et al. 347 (2012). The changes in SI following transfer to the next site downslope (i.e. an increase in 348 MAT from 4.6 to 9.0°C) all resulted in increased SI (0.1 to 0.3, equivalent to an increase in 349  $T_{min}$  of 0.7 to 2°C), thereby suggesting that temperature adaptation may occur at annual time

350 scales with temperature changes of 4°C or greater. Our data therefore suggest that these results 351 are well suited to predict soil bacterial growth responses to the 4°C warming expected in 352 tropical regions this century (Mora et al., 2013).

353 The growth adaptation of the bacterial community we observed was most likely 354 to principally result from community compositional shifts rather than genetic changes within 355 species. While it is possible that altered temperature sensitivity of growth could arise from 356 physiological changes through genetic adaptation within species, which can occur over months 357 (e.g. > 200 generations in bacteria, albeit at optimal temperatures for growth) (Bennett et al., 358 1990), other cases of no such adaptation to natural temperature regimes within a species have 359 been found (Bronikowski et al., 2001). One should also bear in mind that in natural soil 360 conditions the growth and turnover for bacterial species during 2 years at low temperatures -361 for example at the TC site with a MAT of 6.5°C - is too slow to allow the hundreds of 362 generations necessary for significant change (Bennett et al., 1990; Bååth (1998) estimated 20 363 generations per year are expected at 10°C). We thus suggest that the growth response resulting 364 from genetic changes within a species would be very minor relative to those arising from 365 community compositional shifts, as discussed by Bárcenas-Moreno et al. (2009). There is 366 substantial evidence showing that warming causes community compositional shifts within 367 months to years, which have been related to changes in microbial growth (Bárcenas-Moreno et 368 al., 2009; Rousk et al., 2012) and respiration (Bradford et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2012). For 369 example, 26 years of experimental soil warming resulted in community compositional shifts 370 alongside changes in biomass and respiration rates (Melillo et al., 2017) and a metanalysis of 371 warming experiments found long-term (>10 year) attenuation of respiration rates and microbial 372 biomass linked to either community shifts, adaptation and substrate depletion (Romero-373 Olivares et al., 2017). Indeed, a previous study of soil from this translocation experiment found 374 a community compositional shift after 5 years of temperature change (Nottingham et al.,

2019b). Although elsewhere there have been exceptions: across a geothermal gradient in subarctic grassland (ambient MAT around  $+5^{\circ}$ C), >50 years of  $+6^{\circ}$ C warming did not result in any adaptive change in community composition or growth (Walker et al., 2018), pointing to a need for further study at long timescales. Taking the consensus of evidence for timescales relevant for our experiments, we suggest a dominant role for community compositional shifts in explaining the adaptive growth change we observed, following both 2 and 11 years of translocation.

382 The temperature response of growth was faster when soil was warmed 383 (translocation downslope) rather than cooled (translocation upslope) after 2 years (compare 384 Figs. 2A and 2B with 2C and 2D, and compare warming and cooling slopes in Fig. 4), which 385 can be explained by higher turnover rates of the bacterial community at higher temperatures. 386 Consistent findings have been shown in terms of soil respiration, where there were larger 387 responses to warming than to cooling following soil translocation across gradients of 3.3°C 388 MAT in temperate forest (Luan et al., 2014) and 10.9°C MAT in Australian tropical forest 389 (Zimmermann et al., 2015). Similar results were also found for the same tropical forest gradient 390 under study here (Zimmermann et al., 2009), although these soil respiration responses may 391 have been confounded by differences in substrate availability, with higher organic matter 392 content in the higher elevation soils (Zimmermann et al., 2009; Zimmermann et al., 2012; 393 Nottingham et al., 2015). Direct evidence supporting our results was presented by Diaz-Raviña 394 and Bååth (1996), who showed that tolerance of microbial communities to metal pollutants 395 developed more rapidly at higher temperatures. This result is further supported by a study in a 396 hot desert ecosystem, showing that the nature of the community temperature adaptation to 397 temperature is more strongly determined by peak seasonal temperature than mean annual 398 temperature (van Gestel et al., 2013). In this latter hot desert ecosystem, bacterial growth was 399 adapted to warm conditions (>40°C) even in winter when temperatures were <10°C, clearly

indicating that cold conditions during winter did not affect temperature adaptation at the same
rate as warm temperatures during summer. Collectively, these results suggest that the bacterial
community adaptation response to warmer temperatures is equivalent to the response to cooler
temperatures but over longer-periods of time. Under warmer temperatures, the rate of microbial
community turnover is higher, providing more opportunities for changes in the community to
occur.

406 To better understand the consequences of these results for the temperature 407 response of the soil carbon balance requires further study of fungal community growth. Fungal 408 growth has been reported to have a lower T<sub>min</sub> than bacterial growth (Pietikäinen et al., 2005; 409 Birgander et al., 2018) and increased ratios of bacterial to fungal growth rates have been 410 reported at temperatures above 30°C (Pietikäinen et al., 2005). However, the opposite pattern 411 was shown in a previous study of this Peruvian elevation gradient, which found evidence for 412 long-term microbial growth adaptation – for both bacteria and fungi – to the prevailing local 413 temperature regime with the ratio of bacterial to fungal growth decreasing at higher 414 temperatures (Nottingham et al., 2019a). Further study is required to resolve these opposing 415 results on bacterial to fungal growth relationships, especially across warmer temperature 416 ranges.

417 Our study has demonstrated the use of translocation experiments as a powerful 418 approach to assess the nature and dynamics of microbial temperature adaptation in soil. 419 Translocation experiments may be used as a powerful complement to in-situ warming 420 experiments in order to understand the response of tropical soils to future climate change. 421 However, *in-situ* warming experiments will of course be needed to enable improved prediction 422 of the consequences of future climate warming; especially for lowland sites with high MAT, 423 where translocations to sites with higher MAT cannot be used to test responses to warming. 424 Our result of more rapid adaptation under warming than cooling also demonstrates that, for 425 experiments that aim to measure the temperature sensitivity of community activity without 426 incurring compositional changes, cooling rather than warming manipulations may be 427 preferable (Karhu et al., 2014).

428 The square-root model on which our findings are based (Ratkowsky et al., 1982), 429 and alternative models (e.g. Macromolecular Rate Theory, Hobbs et al. (2013); (Alster et al., 430 2018)), improve on predictions solely based on  $Q_{10}$  functions and Arrhenius kinetics. Arrhenius 431 theory accurately predicts simple chemical reactions and enzyme kinetics and can be useful to 432 describe relative differences in apparent temperature sensitivities of soil processes across 433 standard temperature ranges (Davidson et al., 2006). However, the theory can fail to predict 434 more complex biologically-mediated soil processes in field experiments (e.g. Nottingham et 435 al. (2020)). The relationships between microbial growth temperature sensitivity (e.g.  $T_{min}$ ) and 436 temperature change reported here - and in related work (Bååth, 2018; Nottingham et al., 2019a) 437 - offer a starting point for better representation of microbial growth responses in models, and 438 thus to improve our understanding of how terrestrial ecosystems interact with climatic change.

In summary, we provide new evidence in support of adaptation of microbial growth to warming and go further to demonstrate that these changes occur relatively quickly, and more rapidly under warming compared to cooling. We show that, for bacteria, 11 years was enough to achieve the same community adaptation as in the original local soils, and that most of this adaptation had occurred after just two years. Together, our results point towards an important role for microbial temperature responses in mediating changes in the carbon cycle under warming, and importantly, occurring within annual-to-decadal time-scales.

446

## 447 Acknowledgements

This study was led with support from the UK Natural Environment Research Council (NERC),
NE/G018278/1 and NE/D01185X/1 to PM and also by an Australian Research Council (ARC)

450 grant DP170104091 to PM, a NERC studentship NE/K500835/1 and an additional grant from 451 Derek and Maureen Moss to LCH, and a European Union Marie-Curie Fellowship FP7-2012-452 329360 to ATN. We thank the Asociacion para la Conservacion de la Cuenca Amazonica 453 (ACCA) in Cusco and the Instituto Nacional de Recursos Naturales (INRENA) in Lima for 454 access to the study sites. For their logistical support we thank Dr. Eric Cosio and Eliana Esparza 455 Ballón at Pontificia Universidad Católica del Perú (PUCP). For field support we thank Walter 456 H. Huasco and Adan J. Q. Ccahuana. This study an output of the Andes Biodiversity and 457 Ecosystem Research Group consortium (www.andesconservation.org) and part of LUCCI 458 (Lund University Centre for studies of Carbon Cycle and Climate Interactions).

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- 632

634	Table 1.	Site	characteristics and	soil	properties	(MAT =	= mean	annual	temperature,	MAP =
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635	mean annual precipitation). Data represent mean (SE within parenthesis; n=3).	
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	Translocation	Elevation	MAT	MAP	Soil pH
	duration	(m asl)	(°C)	(mm yr <sup>-1</sup> )	
Tambopata	2 and 11 yrs	210 m	26.4	1900	4.0 (0.05)
(TAM)					
Tono (TON)	11 yrs	1000 m	21.0	3100	3.8 (0.10)
San Pedro (SP)	2 and 11 yrs	1500 m	17.4	5302	4.3 (0.06)
Wayqecha	2 and 11 yrs	3025 m	11.1	1560	4.4 (0.21)
(WAY)					
Tres Cruces	2 yrs	3650 m	6.5	760 <sup>a</sup>	4.9 (0.03)
(TC)					

636 a) Measured at Ajanaco, 3450 m asl (Oliveras et al., 2014)

## 638 Legends

639 Fig. 1. Bacterial community growth adaptation in native soils (controls) along an elevation 640 transect in the Andes. Community adaptation was expressed as a temperature Sensitivity Index 641 (SI) (eq. 1), where a higher value indicates a bacterial community adapted to higher temperature 642 conditions and vice versa. Only soil cores incubated at their original site (controls) are shown, 643 which reflect the inherent community adaptation to MAT at that site. Filled symbols and solid 644 line = control soils corresponding to the 2 years translocation study, open symbols and stippled 645 line = control soils corresponding to the 11 years translocation study (bars indicate SE, n = 3). 646 T<sub>min</sub> for growth given on the top x-axis was calculated from Nottingham et al. (2019a) according 647 to  $T_{min} = -10.0 + 0.33 * MAT$ , see Materials and Methods.

648

649 Fig. 2. Bacterial community growth adaptation 2 years after translocating soil cores along an 650 elevation transect in the Andes. Community adaptation was expressed as a temperature 651 Sensitivity Index (SI) (eq. 1), where a higher value indicates a bacterial community adapted to 652 higher temperature conditions and vice versa. Open symbols and stippled lines indicate 653 temperature sensitivity of bacterial communities of soil cores incubated at their original site 654 (controls, given in each graph, from Fig. 1), while closed symbols and solid lines indicate soil 655 cores transferred to different sites (bars indicate SE, n = 3). The solid lines are coloured 656 according to the soil origin: A) TC (black; MAT 6.5°C), B) WAY (red; 11.1°C), C) SP (blue; 657 17.4°C), D) TAM (green; 26.4°C); for abbreviations, see Table 1. The thin horizontal line in 658 each panel shows the temperature sensitivity of soil cores extracted and re-installed at their 659 original or 'origin' site. T<sub>min</sub> for growth was calculated from Fig. 1., see Materials and 660 Methods. We predicted that under 'no adaptation' the solid regression line for translocated 661 soils would follow the horizontal line, while under 'complete adaptation' the solid line would 662 follow the stippled line.

663 Fig. 3. Bacterial community growth adaptation 11 years after translocating soil cores along an 664 elevation transect in the Andes. Community adaptation was expressed as a temperature 665 Sensitivity Index (SI) (eq. 1), where a higher value indicates a bacterial community adapted to 666 higher temperature conditions and vice versa. Open symbols and stippled lines indicate the temperature sensitivity of bacterial growth in soil cores incubated at their original site (controls, 667 668 given in each graph, from Fig. 1), while closed symbols and solid lines indicate soil cores 669 transferred to different sites (bars indicate SE, n = 3). The stippled lines are coloured according 670 to the soil origin: A) WAY (black; MAT 11.1°C), B) SP (red; 17.4°C), C) TON (blue; 20.7°C), 671 D) TAM (green; 26.4°C); for abbreviations, see Table 1. The thin horizontal lines in each panel 672 show the temperature sensitivity of soil cores transferred to their original site. T<sub>min</sub> for growth was calculated from Fig. 1., see Materials and Methods. We predicted that under 'no adaptation' 673 674 the solid line would follow the horizonal line, while under 'complete adaptation' the solid line 675 would follow the stippled line.

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677 Fig. 4. The average response of the temperature Sensitivity Index SI (RR-SI: relative response 678 quotient of SI) across all soils and under both warming and cooling together. Points represent 679 pair-wise comparison between the SI of bacterial growth in soil at the destination site relative 680 to soil at the site of origin (eq. 3), where for controls, the SI at destination is based on 681 comparison of SI among non-translocated control soils. The lines are linear regressions of RR-682 SI against temperature shift between destination and origin sites, with 95% confidence intervals. 683 The dashed line (at RR-SI = 0) represents the response in RR-SI if no adaptation occurred. The 684 rate of adaptation over time depended on whether soils were cooled or warmed: there was an 685 effect of translocation time on the RR-SI under cooling (P = 0.02) but there was no effect under 686 warming (P = 0.61; ANCOVA, Table S1). Based on the average slope under warming and

687	cooling together, the adaptive changes increased from 2 years (blue line) < 11 years (red line)
688	< controls (black line) (insert).
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Fig. 1.



724 Fig. 2





744 Fig. 3.



