

1 **Rapid responses of root traits and productivity to phosphorus and cation additions in a**
2 **tropical lowland forest in Amazonia**

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42 **Total word count:** 6,155
43 **Word count for each section:** Introduction: 1,414 Material and Methods: 1,668; Results: 805;
44 Discussion: 2,268.
45 **Number of figures:** Four figures not coloured.
46 **Number of tables:** One table.
47 **Supporting information:** One file.
48 **Heading:** Fine root responses to nutrient manipulation in Amazonian forests
49 **Social media:** @Lay_Lugli, @amazonfertilisation, @ExeterGeography, @Ascom_Inpa

50 **Summary**

- 51 • Soil nutrient availability can strongly affect root traits. In tropical forests, phosphorus (P)
52 is often considered the main limiting nutrient for plants. However, support for the P
53 paradigm is limited, and N and cations might also control tropical forests functioning.
- 54 • We used a large-scale experiment to determine how the factorial addition of nitrogen (N),
55 P and cations affected root productivity and traits related to nutrient acquisition strategies
56 (morphological traits, phosphatase activity, arbuscular mycorrhizal colonisation and
57 nutrient contents) in a primary rainforest growing on low-fertility soils in Central
58 Amazonia after one year of fertilisation.
- 59 • Multiple root traits and productivity were affected. Phosphorus additions increased annual
60 root productivity and root diameter, but decreased root phosphatase activity. Cation
61 additions increased root productivity at certain times of year, also increasing root diameter
62 and mycorrhizal colonisation. P and cation additions increased their element
63 concentrations in root tissues. No responses were detected with N addition.
- 64 • Here we show that rock-derived nutrients determine root functioning in low-fertility
65 Amazonian soils, demonstrating not only the hypothesised importance of P, but also
66 highlighting the role of cations. The changes in fine root traits and productivity indicate
67 that even slow-growing tropical rainforests can respond rapidly to changes in resource
68 availability.

69

70 Key words: Amazon rainforest; arbuscular mycorrhiza; fine root productivity; large-scale
71 nutrient fertilisation experiment; multiple nutrient limitation; phosphatase enzyme; root
72 morphology.

73

Introduction

74 Tropical rainforests are the most diverse and productive terrestrial ecosystem on Earth (Beer
75 *et al.*, 2010) representing a terrestrial carbon (C) sink of 2.89 ± 0.6 Pg C per year (Pan *et al.*,
76 2011), with the Amazon forest alone storing about one quarter of global terrestrial C sinks (Le
77 Quéré *et al.*, 2018). Moreover, tropical net primary production (NPP) may be further stimulated
78 under atmospheric CO₂ enrichment (Kimball & Idso, 1983; Ainsworth & Long, 2004; Norby
79 *et al.*, 2005). Future CO₂ uptake could, however, ultimately be controlled by the amount of
80 available nutrients in the soil to support new growth (Hungate *et al.*, 2006; Fleischer *et al.*,

81 2019) as well as by how efficiently plants can acquire and use nutrients. In temperate forests,
82 nitrogen (N) is usually considered to limit plant growth, whereas phosphorus (P), or other rock-
83 derived elements are considered more likely to be the limiting nutrient in tropical lowland
84 forests (Walker & Syers, 1976; Vitousek & Sanford, 1986; Wardle, 2004). Phosphorus and
85 cations, are supplied to soil predominantly by weathering of the parent material (Walker &
86 Syers, 1976), and are essential in several metabolic process of plants, such as ATP production,
87 stability of cells and enzyme activation (Aerts & Chapin, 1999; Lambers *et al.*, 2006;
88 Hawkesford *et al.*, 2012). Approximately 60% of the Amazonian forests grow in highly-
89 weathered soils, characterised by very low concentrations of rock-derived P and cations, with
90 evidence for P affecting plant growth (Aragão *et al.*, 2009; Quesada *et al.*, 2010, 2012).
91 However, even in tropical forests, N availability may be important in controlling key aspects
92 of forest function (Wright *et al.*, 2011; Wright, 2019), and/or greater N availability could help
93 alleviate limitation by other elements (Chen *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, there remain major gaps
94 in our understanding of the role different elements play in controlling tropical forest function,
95 especially in Amazonia.

96 Plants can adapt their root morphological, physiological, biochemical and molecular
97 properties to optimise nutrient acquisition (Chapin, 1980; Bloom *et al.*, 1985; Aerts, 1999;
98 Raghothama, 1999; Addo-Danso *et al.*, 2020). Because of the low mobility of P in soils, roots
99 usually move towards P, getting thinner and longer to facilitate the exploration of greater soil
100 volume in P patches (Hodge, 2004; Lambers *et al.*, 2008; Metcalfe *et al.*, 2008; McCormack
101 & Iversen, 2019). Alternatively, roots displaying more conservative morphological features
102 (*i.e.* lower specific root length - SRL, greater diameter) may invest more in mycorrhizal
103 associations to meet nutrient demands (Hodge, 2004; Comas *et al.*, 2014; Eissenstat *et al.*,
104 2015; Liu *et al.*, 2015; Kong *et al.*, 2016; Ma *et al.*, 2018). The very fine hyphal network typical
105 of arbuscular mycorrhizas (AM) allows the fungi to forage for P away from P-depleted zones
106 around roots, resulting in high inorganic P uptake in exchange for photosynthetically fixed C
107 from the host plant (Hodge, 2004; Smith & Read, 2010; Eissenstat *et al.*, 2015). There is also
108 evidence for the role of AM in acquiring other elements, such as Ca, Mg, K and sulphur
109 (Siqueira *et al.*, 1998; Zangaro *et al.*, 2003) and micronutrients such as zinc and copper (Smith
110 & Read, 2010). The main source of P in low-fertility tropical soils is, however, bound in organic
111 compounds or occluded in secondary minerals (Walker & Syers, 1976; Cross & Schlesinger,
112 1995; Quesada *et al.*, 2010) and, consequently, they need to be degraded before being

113 assimilated by roots (Lambers *et al.*, 2006). The hydrolysis of organic P happens mainly
114 through the activity of phosphatase enzymes released by microbes and plant roots (Hinsinger,
115 2001; Treseder & Vitousek, 2001; Vance *et al.*, 2003; Olander & Vitousek, 2004). Therefore,
116 strong investment in the production of phosphatase enzymes that can become bound to root
117 surfaces or released into the soil matrix may be necessary to mine organic P in these forests
118 (Liu *et al.*, 2015; Kong *et al.*, 2016; Lugli *et al.*, 2020).

119 Plant trait-based approaches are especially useful tools to increase understanding of plant
120 function in species-rich environments, such as tropical forests. Although tropical trees may use
121 a range of complementary adaptations to optimise P-uptake (Zemunik *et al.*, 2015; Lugli *et al.*,
122 2020), it remains uncertain how plastic these strategies are in response to short-term changes
123 in the availability of different nutrients. Root functional traits are considered to represent a
124 balance between maximising the acquisition of limiting resources and minimising the costs of
125 root tissue construction and maintenance (Bloom *et al.*, 1985; Aerts & Chapin, 1999;
126 Wurzburger & Wright, 2015; McCormack & Iversen, 2019). For example, about 20% of plant
127 C could be transferred to AM fungi associates, whilst root exudates (*i.e.* organic acids,
128 enzymes) can represent up to half of belowground C allocation (Bago *et al.*, 2003; Lynch *et*
129 *al.*, 2005; Parniske, 2008). Therefore, trade-offs between uptake strategies are likely, with plant
130 investment in root biomass and nutrient uptake strategies usually increasing with decreasing
131 supply of the limiting nutrient (Bloom *et al.*, 1985). In naturally P-poor soils in Central
132 Amazon, Lugli *et al.* (2020) demonstrate that due to the different levels of soil P availability in
133 different pools (*i.e.* organic and inorganic P), plants need to invest in multiple P-uptake
134 mechanisms.

135 Nutrient manipulation experiments greatly contribute to directly testing for nutrient
136 limitation in terrestrial ecosystems (Cleveland *et al.*, 2011; Sullivan *et al.*, 2014; Wright *et al.*,
137 2018). Although the hypothesis of P-limitation in tropical forests is widely accepted, clear
138 evidence from large-scale experiments is variable and limited (Yavitt *et al.*, 2011; Mirabello *et*
139 *al.*, 2013; Wurzburger & Wright, 2015; Alvarez-Clare & Mack, 2015; Wright, 2019). In a
140 recent meta-analysis, Wright (2019) compiled data from 48 nutrient manipulation experiments
141 in tropical forests and concluded that N and P limitation are widespread, but no evidence was
142 found for a greater role for P than N, and it is uncertain how other nutrients, including cations,
143 affect these ecosystems. Furthermore, root responses are particularly poorly understood, with
144 nutrient addition experiments in Central America tending to have not measured productivity

145 responses and having observed contrasting changes in standing stocks and root traits. For
146 example, after two years of nutrient addition, root biomass (<2 mm diameter) decreased with
147 K addition but increased with P addition for thicker roots (2-5 mm diameter) in Panama (Yavitt
148 *et al.*, 2011), and no root biomass responses were detected in Costa Rica (Alvarez-Clare &
149 Mack, 2015). In these same experiments, changes in fine root morphology following P addition
150 were observed in Panama, with roots becoming less dense and with greater specific root length
151 (Wurzburger & Wright, 2015), whilst increased root nutrient concentrations were detected in
152 Costa Rica (Alvarez-Clare & Mack, 2015). However, current experiments in Neotropical
153 forests are located on natural soils with total P concentrations ranging from 400-1,600 mg kg⁻¹
154 (Wright *et al.*, 2011; Alvarez-Clare *et al.*, 2013). In contrast, in the dominant soil type across
155 Amazonia, the world's largest tropical forest, total P ranges from 100-200 mg kg⁻¹ (Quesada *et*
156 *al.*, 2010). Given the range of responses observed in these Neotropical studies and the differing
157 soil fertilities, we clearly cannot extrapolate to how fine root traits and productivity are
158 controlled by soil nutrient status in Amazonian forests.

159 We used the first large-scale nutrient manipulation experiment installed in Central
160 Amazonian forests (the Amazon Fertilisation Experiment; AFEX) to determine whether key
161 nutrient uptake mechanisms adopted by fine roots were altered by the factorial addition of N,
162 P and cations (Ca, Mg and K) in low-fertility soils. Our study quantified the short-term
163 responses in the first year of manipulations, thus investigating how rapidly roots can respond
164 to the addition of the different nutrients. We hypothesized that given the low availability of P
165 in soils at our site, there would be a strong and immediate effect of P addition on root traits and
166 productivity, but that N addition would have limited impacts. This is based on the high C-costs
167 of production and maintenance of fine roots as well as allocation towards nutrient uptake
168 strategies. Thus, we expected that fertilisation would decrease plant investment in such traits.
169 Consequently, we predicted that with P addition alleviating belowground P limitation, there
170 would be decreased root productivity, together with a reduction in root phosphatase activities
171 and AM colonisation, with morphological changes reflecting shifts from acquisitive to more
172 conservative traits, decreasing, for example, SRL and SRA and increasing tissue density and
173 mean diameter. Furthermore, due to the very low concentrations of cations in Central
174 Amazonian soils, we also expected that cations would trigger changes in root traits, shifting
175 from acquisitive to more conservative morphological traits, but with no effect on root
176 phosphatase activity.

177

Material and methods

178 Site description and experimental design

179 This study was carried out within the AFEX experiment in Central Amazonia, installed ca. 70
180 km north of Manaus/Amazonas, Brazil in the area of the Biological Dynamics of Forest
181 Fragments Project (BDFFP) Reserve at ZF-3, a collaborative project between the National
182 Institute for Amazonian Research (INPA) and the Smithsonian Institute (STRI). Mean air
183 temperature is 26 °C and mean annual precipitation is 2,400 mm (Araújo *et al.*, 2002). The
184 vegetation is an old growth, lowland *terra firme* forest, associated with clay-rich (75%)
185 Ferralsols and very low total P content (~ 85 mg kg⁻¹ for the 0-30 cm soil depth). AFEX is
186 composed of thirty-two 50 m x 50 m plots separated at least 50 m from each other and
187 distributed in four blocks. Each of the four blocks (installed at least 300 m apart) includes eight
188 plots representing seven nutrient addition treatments and one control applied in a factorial
189 design: control (with no addition of nutrients), N, P, cations (Ca, Mg, K), N+P, N+cations,
190 P+cations, and N+P+cations. All plots (n=4 for each treatment and control) were established
191 in areas with similar soil, vegetation, and terrain, being restricted to plateaus.

192 Nutrient additions are split into three equal applications over the course of each wet
193 season, with nutrients added every year since 2017 at the following total rates: (1) N: 125 kg
194 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ as Urea; (2) P: 50 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ as triple superphosphate, and (3) Cations: 160 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹
195 as dolomitic limestone for Ca and Mg, plus 50 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ as potassium chloride for K. Aiming
196 to make our data comparable to other nutrient fertilisation experiments, the amount and rates
197 of nutrients added to our site follow rates proposed by Wright *et al.* (2011) in Panama. Dry
198 fertilisers were applied to the soil surface by hand covering the whole plot area (50 m x 50 m),
199 including the surface of the ingrowth cores. Our results represent the root responses to the first
200 year of nutrient additions, and thus also investigate how rapidly trees can respond to changes
201 in soil fertility.

202

203 Fine root productivity

204 Key monitoring measurements were limited to the central 30 m x 30 m (900 m² area) of each
205 plot. In each plot (n=32), five 12 cm-diameter, 30 cm-deep, root-free ingrowth cores (2 cm
206 plastic mesh) were installed in August 2017 in the central 30 m x 30 m plot area. Ingrowth
207 cores were collected every three months after installation and the five core replicates were

208 homogenised in the field by plot and by soil depth (0-10 and 10-30 cm; $N=64$) in each
209 collection. Fine roots (< 2mm in diameter living roots) produced in the first year of nutrient
210 addition (four ingrowth core campaigns from August 2017-September 2018) were used to
211 determine productivity. All fine roots from the two soil depths were manually extracted during
212 a period of 60 minutes in four intervals of 15 minutes and root-free soil reinserted into the
213 existing holes (Metcalfé *et al.*, 2007). After sampling, roots were washed and cleaned by gently
214 brushing to remove soil particles. The cumulative root biomass sampled at each time point (one
215 sample for every 15 minutes = four samples) was used to estimate the amount of roots that
216 would be sampled after the 60 minutes sampling collection (Metcalfé *et al.*, 2007). We tested
217 four different types of curves (logarithmic curve, Michaelis-Menten asymptotic curve, power
218 law curve and asymptotic exponential curve) to extrapolate to the amount of roots that would
219 be sampled during 180 minutes, choosing the curve that resulted in the best model fit
220 (Michaelis-Menten asymptotic curve; Equation 1).

221

$$222 \quad y = \frac{\alpha * x}{\beta + x} \quad \text{Equation 1.}$$

223

224 where y is total fine root biomass estimated in each sample after 180 minutes of sampling; x is
225 accumulated time (15 to 180 minutes), α and β are fitted parameters from the equation for each
226 plot and depth.

227 Fine root productivity was calculated as dry mass of roots produced per day for the
228 entire ingrowth core sample and by depth (0-10 and 10-30 cm). Root net primary productivity
229 was calculated summing the biomass of fine roots produced in each ingrowth core census and
230 was expressed in $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$.

231

232 **Root morphology**

233 Subsamples of fine roots from the ingrowth core campaign held in February 2018 (newly
234 produced roots < 3 months old) were used to determine morphological traits. Fine roots from
235 both soil depths (0-10 and 10-30 cm) were cleaned and fresh root samples (<2 mm diameter)
236 were spread homogeneously in a plastic tray with approximately one quarter of the root
237 biomass picked randomly for the subsequent scanning (Holdaway *et al.*, 2011). Roots were
238 scanned at 600 dpi and images analysed using WinRHIZO (WinRHIZO Regular 2015, Regent
239 Instruments, Canada) to provide root mean diameter, total length, area and volume, then

240 samples were dried at 60 °C for 72 hours to determine dry root mass. These were used to
241 determine specific root length (SRL), specific root area (SRA), root tissue density (RTD) and
242 mean root diameter (Metcalf *et al.*, 2008). SRL (cm g^{-1}) was calculated as root length per unit
243 root dry mass, SRA ($\text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$) was calculated as root superficial area per unit dry mass and RTD
244 (g cm^{-3}) was calculated as root dry mass per unit root volume.

245

246 **Root phosphatase activity**

247 Root subsamples collected in February 2018 were analysed for root-surface potential acid
248 phosphomonoesterase activity (phosphatase). Phosphatase was measured within 3 days of root
249 sampling using triplicate subsamples per plot and per soil depth (0-10 and 10-30 cm) using a
250 fluorimetric microplate assay (Turner & Romero, 2010; German *et al.*, 2011) as described in
251 Lugli *et al.* (2020). About 10 mg of the root sample (washed, fresh weight basis) were incubated
252 with Methylumbelliferyl-phosphate (MUF), which was used as an analogue substrate for the
253 enzyme acid phosphomonoesterase. In addition, sample, buffer and substrate blanks were
254 prepared. Samples were incubated for 30 min at ~ 25 °C while gently shaking, then 50 μL of 1
255 M NaOH were added to all samples and standard vials to terminate the reaction. Aliquots of
256 the sample solution were pipetted into a black 96-well microplate and 20 min after termination,
257 fluorescence was read on a fluorometer (Tecan Infinite® 200 PRO, Grödig, Austria), at 365
258 nm excitation and 450 nm emission. Roots were removed from vials, rinsed with Milli-Q water,
259 scanned and subsequently dried at 60 °C for 72 hours. Root phosphatase activity per plot and
260 depth was expressed in $\mu\text{mol MUF g}^{-1}$ root dry mass h^{-1} .

261

262 **Mycorrhizal colonisation**

263 To determine AM colonisation, roots collected in February 2018 were subsampled, cleaned
264 and scanned, and segments were stored in 50% ethanol. Only root fragments from the 0-10 cm
265 soil layer were used for AM analyses. The clearing and staining processes were adapted for
266 tropical roots based on Brundrett *et al.* (1984) and Wurzbürger and Wright (2015). Briefly,
267 roots were cleared using a 2.5% KOH solution and autoclaved at ~ 120 °C for \pm 10 minutes,
268 then placed in alkaline H_2O_2 solution for further bleaching for \pm 30 minutes. Before staining,
269 roots were acidified in 2% HCl solution for 30 minutes and were then added to a beaker with
270 Trypan Blue 0.05% until constantly blue. Roots were rinsed in tap water and ten uniformly
271 stained 1 cm root fragments per plot were mounted on slides to quantify total root length

272 colonised by AM fungi (40 x optical) (McGonigle *et al.*, 1990). Mycorrhizal colonisation was
273 assessed as the percentage of the total root points along the root length that had any mycorrhizal
274 fungi structures.

275

276 **Nutrient concentration in fine roots**

277 To ensure there was enough material for nutrient analysis, root material <2 mm diameter from
278 all four collections spanning the first year of fertilisation (August 2017-September 2018) was
279 bulked. Dried and ground roots from each collection were composited by plot and soil depth.
280 Analyses were performed at the Soil and Plant laboratory (LTSP) at the National Institute of
281 Amazonian Research (INPA) in Manaus, Brazil, and followed established methods that have
282 also been used to characterise variability in the plant and soil variables across the Amazon
283 basin (Quesada *et al.*, 2010). Carbon and N contents were determined using an automatic C
284 and N analyser (VARIO MAX CHN Element Analyzer) (Nelson and Sommers, 1996).
285 Concentrations of P and cations in roots were analysed by nitroperchloric digestion described
286 by Malavolta *et al.*, (1989). Phosphorus concentrations were determined by colorimetry
287 (Anderson and Ingram, 1993), and quantified by spectrophotometry (UV-120-01, Shimadzu,
288 Kyoto, Japan). Ca, Mg and K were determined by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (AAS,
289 1100 B, Perkin-Elmer, Ueberlingen, Germany).

290

291 **Statistical analyses**

292 Linear mixed-effect models were used to test the effect of added nutrients and their interaction
293 in the factorial design N*P*cations. The presence/absence of each of the main nutrients were
294 used as a fixed factor and the four blocks as random factor. All models were run in the R
295 packages 'lme4' and 'lmerTest' (Bates *et al.*, 2014; Kuznetsova *et al.*, 2017). Full factorial
296 models were simplified using backward elimination performed by the *step* function in
297 'lmerTest' package. The significant model was then re-run and only the significant effects of
298 nutrient additions are reported. Since no significant interaction effects were detected between
299 the different nutrients added, results are shown for single nutrient additions only, following
300 Wright *et al.*, (2011). To graphically assess the effect of specific nutrients, all plots where a
301 specific nutrient was not added (*i.e.* -P; n=16) are compared to all plots where that nutrient was
302 added (*i.e.* +P; n=16) (Wright *et al.* 2011). Results are shown for the whole soil core and for
303 both soil depths separately, but since our aim was to detect the effect of the addition of different

304 nutrients, depth was not used as a factor in the statistical models and differences between depths
305 themselves are therefore not discussed in detail (Supporting Information; Table S1 and S2).
306 Data were checked for normality and variance homogeneity and the selection for the best model
307 was made based on functions from ‘LMERConvenienceFunctions’ R package (Tremblay &
308 Ransijn, 2015). All analyses were conducted in R version 3.4.4 (R Core Team, 2018).
309

Results

310 Root productivity

311 After one year of nutrient addition, mean fine root productivity across all control plots ($n=4$)
312 was $2.98 \pm 0.33 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ (0-30 cm soil depth). Total root productivity for the 0-30 cm
313 soil depth, significantly increased by 23% in P-addition plots compared to plots without added
314 P (-P: 3.50 ± 0.30 versus +P: $4.31 \pm 0.33 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$; $F_{1,24}=4.67$, $p=0.04$; Fig. 1). The
315 significant increase in mean root productivity with P addition for the whole core was mainly
316 driven by changes in the 0-10 cm soil layer (-P: 2.03 ± 0.15 versus +P: $2.64 \pm 0.20 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$
317 year^{-1} ; $F_{1,24}=6.62$, $p=0.017$), with no significant effect in the 10-30 cm layer with the addition
318 of any nutrient (Fig. 1). No significant effects were found for total root productivity with the
319 addition of N or cations (Fig. 1). Although the addition of cations did not significantly affect
320 annual root productivity, there were short-term effects of cations at certain times of the year.
321 No interactions among nutrient treatments were found for root productivity in any sampling
322 time. When analysing root productivity for the 3-month interval used for our root trait analyses
323 (November 2017 – February 2018), the addition of cations increased fine root productivity by
324 52% for the whole 0-30 cm soil layer ($F_{1,26}=8.28$, $p=0.008$) and this increase was mainly driven
325 by a significant effect detected for the 0-10 cm layer ($F_{1,26}=12.32$, $p=0.002$; Supporting
326 Information Fig. S1).

327

328 Root morphological traits

329 Mean root diameter (0-30 cm) across control plots ($n=4$) was $0.99 \pm 0.03 \text{ mm}$, SRL $1,310 \pm 76$
330 cm g^{-1} , SRA $311 \pm 14 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and RTD $0.15 \pm 0.007 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$. In plots where P was added, root
331 diameter significantly increased in the 0-10 cm soil layer when compared to plots without P
332 addition ($F_{1,26}=4.78$, $p=0.038$; Table 1), with no changes for the full 0-30 cm layer ($F_{1,25}=3.61$,
333 $p=0.07$). The addition of cations increased mean root diameter from 1.03 to 1.12 mm for the

334 whole 0-30 cm soil layer ($F_{1,25}=8.55$, $p=0.007$). The same trend was found for the 0-10 cm
335 ($F_{1,26}=3.78$, $p=0.06$) and 10-30 cm ($F_{1,27}=3.36$, $p=0.08$) soil layer. For mean root diameter, the
336 addition of N did not result in any changes for any soil layer. The addition of N, P and cations
337 separately had no effect on SRL, SRA or RTD (Table 1).

338

339 **Root phosphatase activity**

340 Mean root phosphatase activity across control plots ($n=4$) was $40.80 \pm 6.74 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ for the
341 0-30 cm soil layer. Compared to plots without P, the addition of P significantly decreased root
342 phosphatase activity only in the top 10 cm by 23% (-P: 41.84 ± 2.70 versus +P: 31.97 ± 2.95
343 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$; $F_{1,27}=7.30$, $p=0.01$; Fig. 2). No significant changes in root phosphatase activity
344 were detected with the addition of N, P or cations for the whole core (0-30 cm), although a
345 decline of root phosphatase activity was captured with P addition (-P: 38.90 ± 2.52 versus +P:
346 $33.21 \pm 3.07 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$; $F_{1,27}=3.45$, $p=0.07$; Fig. 2). When analysing soil layers separately,
347 the addition of N or cations did not affect root phosphatase activity.

348

349 **Mycorrhizal colonisation**

350 Mean total root AM colonisation in control plots was $38.46 \pm 4.75\%$ for the 0-10 cm soil layer.
351 The addition of cations increased total AM colonisation from 41.90% in plots where cations
352 were not added to 50.40% with cation addition ($F_{1,27}= 4.57$, $p=0.042$; Fig. 3). Neither the
353 addition of N nor the addition of P significantly affected root AM colonisation. No significant
354 effects of nutrient addition were detected when analysing AM structures separately (Supporting
355 Information; Table S3).

356

357 **Nutrient concentration in fine roots**

358 Mean C and N concentrations in roots growing in control plots were 43.82 ± 0.19 and $0.74 \pm$
359 0.13% , and mean P, Ca, Mg and K concentrations were 0.46 ± 0.02 , 0.92 ± 0.09 , 0.84 ± 0.12 ,
360 $2.80 \pm 0.20 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ for the whole 0-30 cm soil layer. In plots where P was added, concentrations
361 of P and Ca increased in roots growing in the 0-10, 10-30 and for the mean 0-30 cm soil layer
362 (Fig. 4). Concentrations of P in roots more than doubled with P addition ($F_{1,27}= 40.97$,
363 $p<0.001$), whilst Ca concentrations increased by at least 50% ($F_{1,26}= 17.08$, $p=0.0003$). The
364 addition of cations significantly increased Ca, Mg and K concentrations in roots. Ca
365 concentrations increased about 30% in plots where cations were added, being significantly

366 higher only for the 0-10 cm ($F_{1,25}= 4.29, p=0.048$; Fig. 4) and mean 0-30 cm soil layer ($F_{1,26}=$
367 $4.67, p=0.04$; Fig. 4). Mg concentrations increased by more than 50% ($F_{1,26}= 23.81, p<0.0001$
368 for the 0-30 cm layer), with K concentrations increasing by 20-30% with cations addition
369 ($F_{1,27}= 7.02, p=0.013$ for the 0-30 layer; Fig. 4). The addition of N did not significantly affect
370 the concentrations of nutrients in roots one year after fertilisation commenced.

371

Discussion

372 Here we demonstrate experimental support for the hypothesis that rock-derived nutrients play
373 a more important role than N in controlling fine root functional traits in highly weathered,
374 ancient soils, such as those found in most Amazonian forests. Phosphorus addition had major
375 impacts on root productivity and functional traits analysed here, but cation additions also
376 affected root dynamics. The addition of N, as expected, did not affect root productivity or any
377 root trait analysed here. Overall, the results demonstrate that trees in these slow-growing forests
378 show high plasticity in response to shifts in P and cation availability.

379

Fine root productivity was stimulated by short-term P addition

380 Due to the high costs of construction and maintenance of fine acquisitive roots (McCormack
381 *et al.*, 2015), we expected that P addition would decrease fine root productivity as a sign of
382 alleviation of P limitation. Our results demonstrate that in the short-term, P addition increased
383 root productivity by 23%, suggesting that, contrary to what we expected, the construction costs
384 of short-lived acquisitive roots might be less than the maintenance costs of long-lived fine
385 roots. The increase in root productivity in our study is not consistent with the lack of responses
386 (Alvarez-Clare & Mack, 2015) and declines in root biomass (Yavitt *et al.*, 2011) observed in
387 previous fertilisation experiments in tropical forests, nor observed variation in root productivity
388 between soil types with contrasting fertility in the Colombian Amazon (Jiménez *et al.*, 2009),
389 but are in more agreement with the study of Waring *et al.*, (2019) in a tropical dry secondary
390 forest. The response also contrasts with the reductions in root productivity and C allocation
391 belowground following alleviation of N limitation in temperate and boreal forests (Janssens *et*
392 *al.*, 2010; Peng *et al.*, 2017). However, our results are actually consistent with large-scale
393 spatial patterns observed within Amazonia; higher fine root productivity has been observed in
394 more fertile soils of the Western Amazon basin than in low-fertility soils in the Central portion
395 of the basin (Aragão *et al.*, 2009). The agreement between our results and the broader spatial
396

397 patterns in Amazonia (Aragão *et al.*, 2009) may suggest a common response to greater P and
398 cation concentrations across natural gradients and in response to experimental manipulation.
399 At this stage, however, it is not clear if the increase in root productivity in our study site after
400 one year of P additions is transient and could change with chronic nutrient enrichment and how
401 these responses, together with turnover rates, will affect partitioning of plant biomass allocation
402 and stocks between above and belowground compartments (Ostertag, 2001; Jiménez *et al.*,
403 2009; Wurzbürger & Wright, 2015). Nonetheless, our results demonstrate a rapid change in
404 productivity rates in response to P additions in Central Amazonia, pointing to an increased role
405 of direct root nutrient uptake in a more P-fertile system.

406 A trend towards greater root productivity with cation addition was also observed, with
407 the increase in productivity being greater in some of the sampling points but not overall. In
408 Panama, four years of K additions elicited changes in fine root dynamics, decreasing root
409 stocks while increasing root turnover (Yavitt *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, despite its potential
410 importance, it remains less clear the extent to which the availability of specific cations controls
411 root productivity in tropical forests and how such responses would change in the short and
412 longer term.

413

414 **Phosphorus and cations additions cause rapid increase in average root diameter**

415 Together with other factors, soil fertility is expected to control the expression of fine root
416 morphological traits (Valverde-Barrantes *et al.*, 2013, 2017; Freschet *et al.*, 2017; Addo-Danso
417 *et al.*, 2020). Hence, we hypothesised that the addition of nutrients would alleviate limitation,
418 resulting in a shift from acquisitive to more conservative root traits, decreasing, for example,
419 SRL and SRA and increasing RTD and mean diameter. Root diameter increased ~10% with
420 cation and P addition, but no responses were detected for SRL, SRA and RTD in our
421 fertilisation experiment. The direct effect of P addition on root diameter is, however, not
422 conclusively demonstrated in our study, since our P fertiliser (triple superphosphate) includes
423 ~15% of Ca in its composition and root diameter also increased in plots where we added
424 cations. Therefore, we cannot exclude the possibility that the responses in both treatments were
425 driven by Ca. Contrary to our findings, Wurzbürger & Wright, (2015) reported root
426 morphological traits shifting toward more acquisitive roots with K, P and NPK additions, with
427 lower tissue density and higher specific length after 14 years of nutrient manipulation in
428 Panama. Such contrasting responses compared to our study could also be attributed to

429 differences in root age, with our results representing < 3 month old fine roots, whilst
430 Wurzburger & Wright, (2015) studied mixed-age roots sampled from standing stocks.

431 The addition of P and cations could have favoured the root production of some species
432 with naturally thicker roots in our study site, but since our measurements refer to the
433 community-level, we cannot determine the species-specific effect in our results. Also, roots
434 can maximize nutrient uptake employing very contrasting root morphologies (Chen *et al.*,
435 2016) diluting the signal at the community level. Although small diameter roots are more
436 efficient in exploring larger soil volumes in terms of plant biomass investment per unit volume
437 of soil (Bates & Lynch, 2001; Hodge, 2004; Liu *et al.*, 2015), the increase in root diameter
438 detected here could also provide increased mechanical protection against pathogens and
439 herbivores (Laliberté *et al.*, 2015; Valverde-Barrantes *et al.*, 2017) and increased number or
440 size of root cortical cells which could consequently increase levels of mycorrhizal colonisation
441 (Brundrett, 2002; Guo *et al.*, 2008; Comas *et al.*, 2014). Since nutrient concentrations in root
442 tissues increased following fertilisation, thicker diameter roots could be related to increased
443 nutrient uptake through AM networks, either as a result of greater nutrient delivery per unit
444 root length colonised or due to greater AM colonisation (see below; Eissenstat & Yanai, 1997;
445 Eissenstat *et al.*, 2000; McCormack & Iversen, 2019).

446

447 **Reduction in fine root phosphatase activity with P addition**

448 A strong line of evidence for the role of P in controlling nutrient uptake strategies used by
449 plants in our study is the significant decrease in root phosphatase activity with short-term P
450 addition. A previous study demonstrated that root-surface phosphatase potential activity was a
451 prevalent mechanism adopted by fine roots in Central Amazonian forests (Lugli *et al.*, 2020).
452 Our results, therefore, support the idea that the exudation of phosphatase by plants is an
453 important avenue for P acquisition in soils with low P availability in Central Amazonia
454 (Guilbeault-Mayers *et al.*, 2020; Lugli *et al.*, 2020), and its rapid reduction suggests that this is
455 indeed a resource-costly strategy. Together with the increase in fine root productivity captured
456 here, the decrease in phosphatase potential activity point to a possible shift in soil P sources in
457 our system, from organic to inorganic P, benefiting root foraging (*i.e.* direct root nutrient uptake
458 or AM colonisation) over mining strategies. In soils with low P concentrations, plants tend to
459 be efficient in acquiring P, which is usually accompanied with higher root phosphatase activity
460 (Raghothama & Karthikeyan, 2005; Kitayama, 2013). However, the negative relationship

461 between root-surface phosphatase potential activity and P availability captured in previous soil
462 gradient studies (e.g. Kitayama, 2013; Nasto *et al.*, 2014; Ushio *et al.*, 2015) could also be a
463 result of differences in plant species composition and soil physical properties. By controlling
464 such factors in our large-scale experiment, we demonstrate that plants can rapidly detect
465 increased P availability, changing their investment in key root traits. The addition of N and
466 cations, on the other hand, did not affect root-surface phosphatase potential activity rates,
467 suggesting there had been no increase in P limitation following the addition of other nutrients.

468

469 **Increase in AM colonisation with cations addition**

470 We expected that the addition of nutrients would decrease root AM colonisation levels, under
471 the assumption that with greater nutrient availability, plants would not invest as much in the
472 fungal symbiosis to acquire nutrients. In contrast, we observed AM colonisation increasing
473 with cation additions, suggesting that plants could be relying on the association with AM fungi
474 to acquire cations or other nutrients. Long-term addition of P, but not K, increased AM
475 colonisation in standing-stock roots growing in forests in Panama (Wurzburger & Wright,
476 2015). Although the major benefit of AM fungi symbiosis has been considered the
477 translocation of P to the host plant (Smith & Read, 2010), AM fungi also have been shown to
478 acquire other macro and micronutrients such as N, Ca, Mg, K and S in pioneer and early
479 successional tree species (Siqueira *et al.*, 1998; Zangaro *et al.*, 2003). Moreover, the higher
480 levels of AM colonisation found here could be related to thicker root diameter detected in plots
481 where cations were added (Table 1; Supporting Information Fig. S2). Trees with thicker
482 absorptive roots would benefit more from AM fungi increasing their nutrient foraging capacity
483 (Eissenstat *et al.*, 2015; Liu *et al.*, 2015; Kong *et al.*, 2016; Chen *et al.*, 2016). In contrast, trees
484 with with thinner roots may take up nutrients directly from the soil solution or rely on
485 phosphatase activity, thus using complementary mechanisms to acquire nutrients (Lugli *et al.*,
486 2020). Nevertheless, the higher investment in AM fungi with cation addition detected in this
487 Central Amazon forest, could also suggest AMs benefit plants by increasing the uptake of other
488 macro and micronutrients. Alternatively, it has been suggested that greater investment in AM
489 fungi can alter the microbial community in the rhizosphere and decrease plant susceptibility to
490 pathogens (Koide, 1991; Herre *et al.*, 2007; Laliberté *et al.*, 2015).

491

492 **Stimulation of fine root nutrient concentrations**

493 The addition of P and cations increased the concentrations of most elements in fine roots. Due
494 the chemical composition of the fertiliser used in our P treatment (triple superphosphate: about
495 45% of P₂O₅ and 15% of Ca), the addition of P not only increased P concentrations in fine roots
496 but also of Ca (Wright, 2019). It is important to highlight that even with no changes in AM
497 colonisation and lower levels of root-bound phosphatase activity, the addition of P increased
498 both P and Ca concentrations in roots. This points to either i) a greater role of direct root
499 nutrient uptake or ii) increased nutrient uptake efficiency per unit AM and/or per unit
500 phosphatase exuded in our study site. Such trends are likely due to higher nutrient availability
501 in the soil solution after fertilisation and a change of P source from primarily organic to
502 inorganic P. The higher concentrations of Ca, Mg and K in fine roots after cations addition,
503 demonstrates that we successfully increased cation availability and could also be a result of the
504 higher levels of AM colonisation detected in our study site (Siqueira *et al.*, 1998; Zangaro *et*
505 *al.*, 2003). The addition of N, however, did not affect the concentration of N or any other
506 element in fine roots, suggesting that the extra N added to these already N-rich soils was not
507 taken up by plants and/or that N concentrations in the root could be already at their optimal
508 levels, with N being retranslocated to other plant tissues (Wurzburger & Wright, 2015).
509 Therefore, plants growing in this Central Amazon forest strongly respond to the alleviation of
510 rock-derived nutrient limitation and increase nutrient uptake, with a potential role for AM fungi
511 driving some of these responses.

512

513 **Implications for root functioning in Amazonian forests**

514 By analysing a range of key root traits and root productivity, our study supports the hypothesis
515 that P availability controls root functioning in Central Amazon forests, but the responses to
516 cations also suggests that the role of rock-derived elements other than P has previously been
517 underestimated. We found partial support for our hypothesis that nutrient addition would shift
518 root traits from an acquisitive to a more conservative strategy. With P addition, we did find
519 evidence for reduced investment in P acquisition, with reduced investment in mining P via
520 phosphatases, and there was equivocal evidence for increases in root diameter. On the other
521 hand, in contrast to our hypothesis, total root productivity increased suggesting direct root
522 foraging for available P had become a more important strategy. With cations, we did observe
523 a shift towards more conservative root traits with greater average root diameter, but AM

524 colonisation increased suggesting a change in nutrient acquisition strategy rather than an
525 overall shift to less acquisitive root traits. Direct comparisons with other studies in tropical
526 forests are complicated because there is limited information on root productivity responses to
527 nutrient manipulation, and traits have tended not been measured on roots of a known age.
528 However, previous tropical nutrient manipulation experiments, installed in relatively more
529 fertile soils in Central America, did not find strong support for P controlling root traits and fine
530 root biomass, and only one studied the effect of cations (K, only) (Yavitt *et al.*, 2011;
531 Wurzburger & Wright, 2015; Alvarez-Clare & Mack, 2015). Based on the different responses
532 among fertilisation experiments, we suggest that soil nutrient availability may be even more
533 important in determining fine root dynamics in Amazonian forests than Central American
534 forests. Nevertheless, we stress the importance of continuous monitoring in long-term
535 manipulation experiments, to determine whether responses persist with chronic nutrient
536 addition. Overall, our findings increase understanding of the plasticity of belowground plant
537 traits and the factors controlling these responses, demonstrating that multiple nutrients shape
538 belowground processes in Central Amazonian forests and that even slow-growing tropical
539 rainforest in low fertility soils can respond very rapidly to nutrient additions. Phosphorus and
540 cation availability, and changes in resource allocation to nutrient acquisition by Amazonian
541 trees, thus, will likely play a key role in determining responses to future environmental change
542 in these forests.

543

Acknowledgments

544 The authors would like to thank Jefferson “Pedrinho” Cruz, Alexandre dos Santos and Benedito
545 Sergio da Silva for helping in the field sampling and Adriana da Conceição for helping
546 processing root samples, Cilene Palheta and the Laboratorio Tematico de Microscopia Optica
547 e Eletronica (LTMOE), Laboratorio Tematico de Plantas e Solos (LTSP) at INPA, Manaus and
548 the BDFFP (Biological Dynamics of Forest Fragments Project) for their help during the field
549 campaign and lab analyses. We are very thankful to Bruno Takeshi for his help with the project
550 logistics. This research was supported by the Brazilian National Council for Scientific and
551 Technological Development (CNPq) through the Science Without Borders Program grant
552 number 206826/2014-1 and UK’s Natural Environment Research Council (NERC), grant
553 number NE/L007223/1; C. A. Q. acknowledges the support from CNPq/LBA 68/2013 research
554 grant 458020/2013-3. P. M. also acknowledges support from ARC, DP170104091 and L. F.

555 acknowledges the support of the European Research Council grant ERC-SyG-2013-610028.

556 This paper is number 801 on the BDFFP series.

557

Author Contributions

558 LFL, KMA, LMM and IPH designed the research; LFL, JSR, RVA, MP, RLA, KMA, ALC,

559 HFVC, RP, LF, JLC, NPM, ACMM, STS and KJS performed the research, assisting with field

560 sampling, logistics and/or laboratory analyses; IPH, LMM, CAQ, LEOCA, LFL and PM and

561 wrote the grants that funded this research; LFL, KMA and JSR analysed the data; LFL, IPH,

562 KMA, LMM, RLA, ALC, HFVC, LF, JLC, LEOCA, PM, OJVB, and CAQ commented on the

563 manuscript. All authors approved the manuscript.

564

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Tables

813 **Table 1** Mean root diameter, specific root length (SRL), specific root area (SRA) and root
 814 tissue density (RTD) \pm standard errors with and without the addition of N, P and cations in two
 815 soil depths (0-10 cm and 10-30 cm) and for the mean 0-30 cm depth. $n= 16$ per treatment per
 816 depth. Significant effects of the N, P and cations by depth (e.g. -P versus +P) are indicated by
 817 * and **, representing probability at the 5 and 1 % levels, respectively.

Nutrient	Depth	Diameter	SRL	SRA	RTD
		(mm)	(cm g ⁻¹)	(cm ² g ⁻¹)	(g cm ⁻³)
-N	0-10 cm	1.05 \pm 0.03	1,150 \pm 56	290 \pm 11.14	0.16 \pm 0.005
	10-30 cm	1.06 \pm 0.03	1,260 \pm 69	308 \pm 10.01	0.15 \pm 0.004
	0-30 cm	1.05 \pm 0.02	1,200 \pm 53	299 \pm 9.30	0.15 \pm 0.004
+N	0-10 cm	1.09 \pm 0.03	1,310 \pm 102	320 \pm 18.68	0.15 \pm 0.004
	10-30 cm	1.11 \pm 0.03	1,220 \pm 82	308 \pm 16.19	0.15 \pm 0.007
	0-30 cm	1.10 \pm 0.02	1,267 \pm 64	313 \pm 11.01	0.15 \pm 0.003
-P	0-10 cm	1.02 \pm 0.04	1,250 \pm 94	304 \pm 15.89	0.16 \pm 0.005
	10-30 cm	1.07 \pm 0.03	1,220 \pm 61	305 \pm 10.66	0.15 \pm 0.005
	0-30 cm	1.05 \pm 0.02	1,240 \pm 60	304 \pm 9.71	0.15 \pm 0.005
+P	0-10 cm	1.11 \pm 0.02*	1,210 \pm 75	306 \pm 15.81	0.15 \pm 0.005
	10-30 cm	1.09 \pm 0.03	1,260 \pm 88	310 \pm 15.74	0.15 \pm 0.006
	0-30 cm	1.10 \pm 0.02	1,230 \pm 58	308 \pm 10.94	0.15 \pm 0.004
-Cations	0-10 cm	1.03 \pm 0.03	1,260 \pm 83	308 \pm 14.63	0.15 \pm 0.005
	10-30 cm	1.04 \pm 0.03	1,330 \pm 68	322 \pm 13.20	0.14 \pm 0.005
	0-30 cm	1.03 \pm 0.03	1,290 \pm 57	315 \pm 10.60	0.15 \pm 0.004
+Cations	0-10 cm	1.11 \pm 0.03	1,200 \pm 87	302 \pm 16.95	0.15 \pm 0.006
	10-30 cm	1.13 \pm 0.03	1,150 \pm 76	293 \pm 12.61	0.15 \pm 0.006
	0-30 cm	1.12 \pm 0.02**	1,180 \pm 57	297 \pm 9.57	0.15 \pm 0.003

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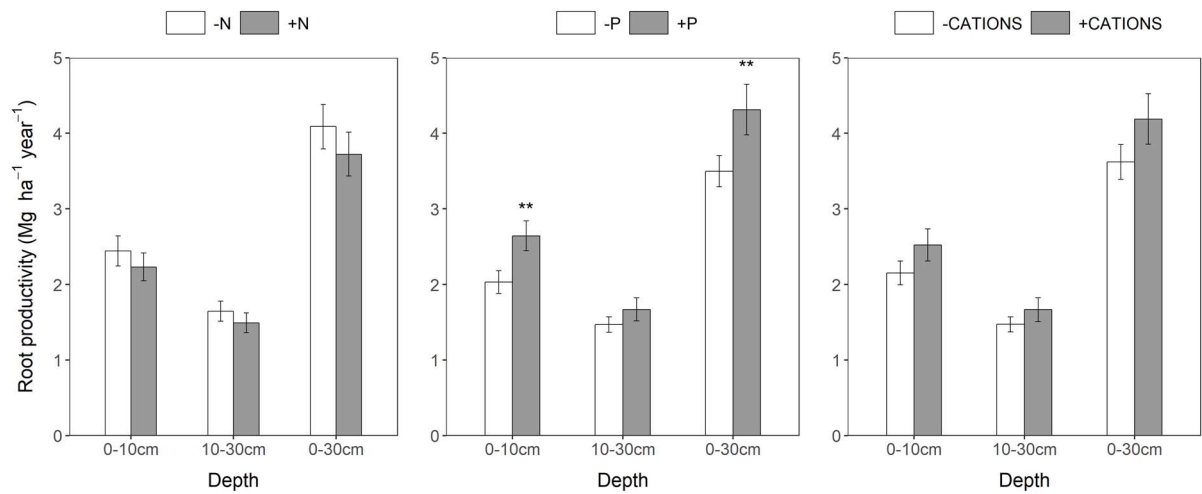
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825 **Figures**

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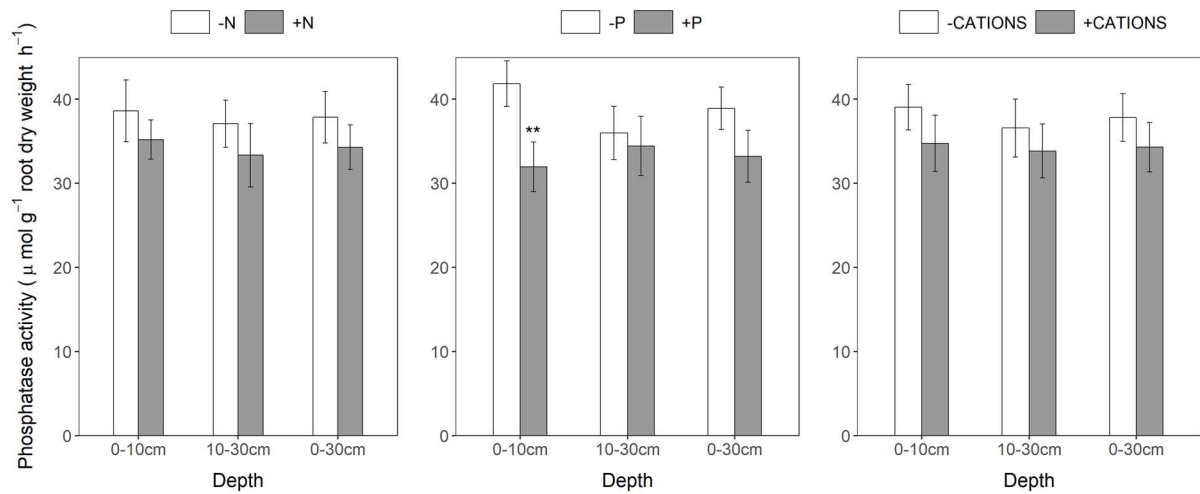
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830 Fig. 1. Fine root productivity in Mg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ for the 0-10 and 10-30 cm soil depths and sum
831 of the whole soil core (0-30 cm) with and without the addition of N, P and cations in a lowland
832 tropical forest in Central Amazon, Brazil. Each panel contrasts 16 plots with and without the
833 addition of nutrients in each depth. Means ±1SE (n=16) are presented. Significant effects of
834 the N, P and cations are indicated by ** representing probability at the 1% level.

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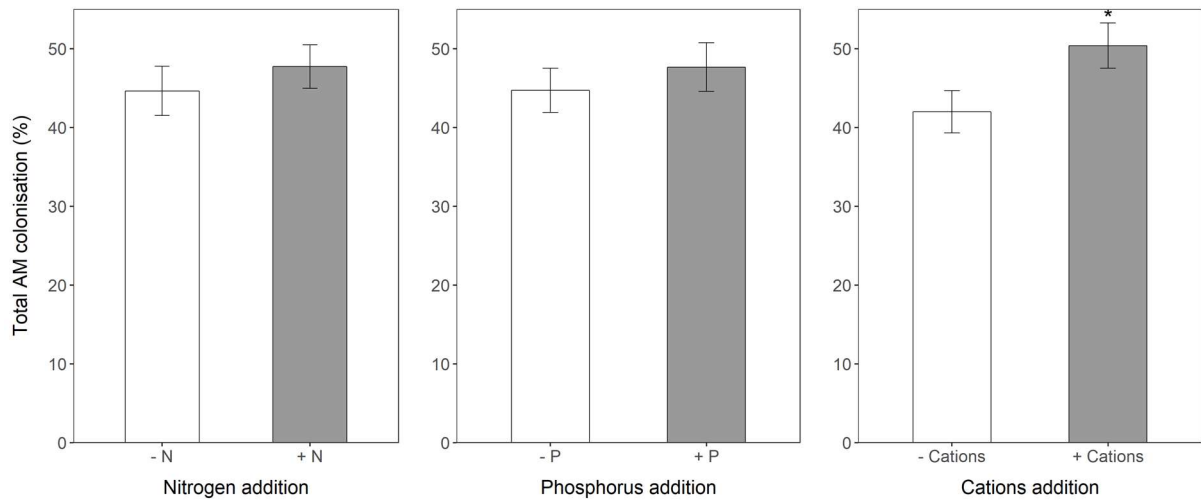
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839 Fig. 2. Mean root phosphatase activity in $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ root dry weight hour $^{-1}$ for the 0-10 and 10-
 840 30 cm soil depths and mean of the whole soil core (0-30 cm) with and without the addition of
 841 N, P and cations in a lowland tropical forest in Central Amazon, Brazil. Each panel contrasts
 842 16 plots with and without the addition of nutrients in each depth. Means $\pm 1\text{SE}$ ($n=16$) are
 843 presented. Significant effects of the N, P and cations are indicated by ** representing
 844 probability at the 1% level.

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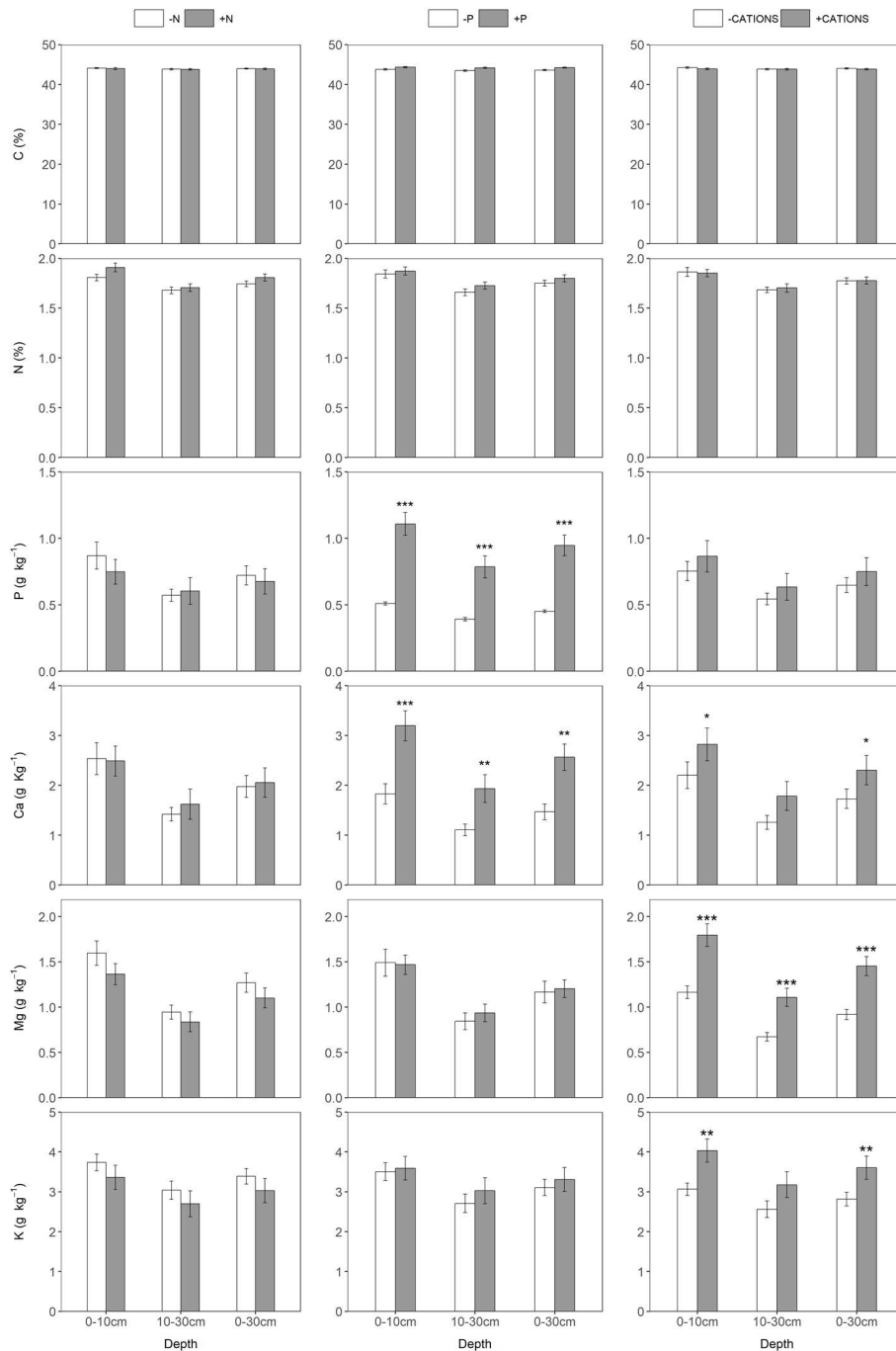
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849 Fig. 3. Total root arbuscular mycorrhizal colonisation in % root length for roots from the 0-10
 850 cm soil layer with and without the addition of N, P and cations in a lowland tropical forest in
 851 Central Amazonia, Brazil. Each panel contrasts 16 plots with and without the addition of
 852 nutrient. Means ± 1 SE (n=16) are presented. Significant effects of the N, P and cations are
 853 indicated by * representing probability at the 5% level.

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857 Fig. 4. Element concentrations in fine root tissues for the 0-10 and 10-30 cm soil depths and
 858 mean of the whole soil core (0-30 cm) with and without the addition of N, P and cations in a
 859 lowland tropical forest in central Amazon, Brazil. Concentrations of C and N are given as %
 860 and concentrations of P, Ca, Mg and K are given in g kg⁻¹. Each panel contrasts 16 plots per
 861 depth with and without the addition of nutrient. Means ±1SE (n=16) are presented. Significant
 862 effects of the N, P and cations are indicated by *, **, and ***, representing probability at the
 863 5, 1, and 0.1 % levels, respectively.