

1 Herbivory effects on soil fungi communities across the 2 Arctic

3 Cole G. Brachmann^{*1,2}, Martin Ryberg³, Brendan R. Furneaux⁴, Anna Rosling⁵, Tingna Li⁶, Alf
4 Ekblad⁶, Isabel C. Barrio⁷, M. Syndonia Bret-Harte^{8,9}, Hannu Fritze¹⁰, Laura Gough¹¹, Robert D.
5 Hollister¹², Ingibjörg S. Jónsdóttir¹³, Oula Kalttopää¹⁴, Elin Lindén¹⁵, Päivi Mäkitalo¹⁶, Johan
6 Olofsson¹⁵, Rauni Partanen¹⁴, Kirsten A. Reid¹⁶, Aleksandr Sokolov¹⁷, Svetlana A. Dulmanova¹⁷,
7 Maija S. Sujala¹⁴, Maja K. Sundqvist¹⁸, Otso Suominen¹⁹, Craig E. Tweedie²⁰, Amanda Young⁹,
8 and Robert G. Björk^{1,2}

9 ¹Department of Earth Sciences, University of Gothenburg, SE-415 30 Gothenburg, Sweden.

10 ²Gothenburg Global Biodiversity Centre, University of Gothenburg, SE-405 30 Gothenburg,
11 Sweden.

12 ³Department of Organismal Biology, Uppsala University, SE-752 36 Uppsala, Sweden.

13 ⁴Department of Biological and Environmental Sciences, University of Jyväskylä, FI-40014
14 Jyväskylä, Finland.

15 ⁵Department of Ecology and Genetics, Uppsala University, SE-752 36, Uppsala, Sweden.

16 ⁶School of Science and Technology, Örebro University, Örebro, Sweden.

17 ⁷Faculty of Environmental and Forest Sciences, Agricultural University of Iceland, Árleynir 22,
18 Reykjavík, Iceland.

19 ⁸Department of Biology and Wildlife, University of Alaska Fairbanks, 99775 Fairbanks, Alaska,
20 USA.

21 ⁹Toolik Field Station, Institute of Arctic Biology, University of Alaska Fairbanks, 99775 Fairbanks,
22 Alaska, USA.

23 ¹⁰Natural Resources Institute Finland, Latokartanonkaari 9, 00790 Helsinki, Finland.

24 ¹¹Department of Biology, Towson University, Towson, MD 21252 USA.

25 ¹²Department of Biology, Grand Valley State University, Allendale, MI 49504 USA.

26 ¹³Institute of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Iceland, 102 Reykjavík, Iceland

27 ¹⁴Kilpisjärvi Biological Station, University of Helsinki, FI-99490, Kilpisjärvi, Finland.

28 ¹⁵Department of Ecology and Environmental Science, Umeå University, SE90187 Umeå,
29 Sweden.

30 ¹⁶Department of Geography, Memorial University of Newfoundland and Labrador, St. John's,
31 NL, A1B 3X9.

32 ¹⁷Arctic research station of Institute of plant and animal ecology, Ural branch, Russian academy
33 of sciences, 629400, Zelenaya Gorka Str., 21, Labytnangi, Russia.

34 ¹⁸Department of Forest Ecology and Management, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences
35 (SLU), Umeå, 901 83 Sweden.

36 ¹⁹ Biodiversity Unit, Kevo Subarctic Research Institute, FI-20014 University of Turku, Finland.

37 ²⁰Department of Biological Sciences and the Environmental Science and Engineering Program,
38 The University of Texas at El Paso, El Paso, Texas 79968, USA.

39 *Corresponding author: Cole G. Brachmann, cole.brachmann@gu.se

40 ORCIDs

41 Cole G. Brachmann; 0000-0001-8345-3141

42 Martin Ryberg; 0000-0002-6795-4349

43 Brendan R. Furneaux; 0000-0003-3522-7363

44 Anna Rosling; 000-0002-7003-5941

45 Tinghai Ou; 0000-0002-6847-4099

46 Alf Ekblad; 0000-0003-4384-5014

47 Isabel C Barrio; 0000-0002-8120-5248

48 M. Sydonia Bret-Harte; 0000-0001-5151-3947

49 Hannu Fritze; 0000-0003-4347-4444

50 Laura Gough; 0000-0002-9312-7910

51 Robert D. Hollister; 0000-0002-4764-7691

52 Ingibjörg S. Jónsdóttir; 0000-0003-3804-1077

53 Elin Lindén; 0000-0002-4060-011

54 Päivi Mäkiranta; 0000-0002-9592-2775

55 Johan Olofsson; 0000-0002-6213-1218

56 Rauni Partanen; 0009-100-7544-5192

57 Kirsten A. Reid; 0000-0002-8373-336X

58 Aleksandr Sokolov; 0000-0002-1521-3856

59 Svetlana Abdumanova; 0000-0001-5506-3824

60 Maija S. Sujaia; 0009-0003-2101-7709

61 Maja Sundejvič, 0000-0001-5947-839X

62 Otseli Silomänen; 0000-0002-7209-6078

63 Craig E. Tweedie; 0000-0002-3409-8881

64 Amanda Young; 0000-0002-3580-8603

65 Robert G. Björk; 0000-0001-7346-666X

66 **Abstract**

67 Plants form symbiotic relationships with mycorrhizal fungi, which are vital for soil carbon and
68 nutrient cycling. In the Arctic, one of the most soil carbon rich biomes of the world, herbivores
69 can strongly influence vegetation, but their impacts on mycorrhizal fungi communities and
70 subsequently on soil carbon and nutrient cycling are uncertain. We collected soils from 15 sets
71 of herbivore exclusion fences across the Arctic. We sequenced across both ITS regions and
72 partial SSU region with two sets of amplicons to determine the composition of soil mycorrhizal
73 fungi communities and how these are impacted by herbivory, climate, and edaphic properties.
74 Herbivore exclusion had an overall weak effect on the arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi
75 community across the tundra, but the effect was variable across sites. pH differences among
76 sites were correlated with changes in AM composition. Ectomycorrhizal fungi had the highest
77 number of species, followed by AM. Consistent Arctic wide differences observed in mycorrhizal
78 fungi communities were generally tied to edaphic and climatic properties, whereas herbivores
79 seem to influence mycorrhizal species predominantly at individual sites. Soil carbon storage is
80 affected by the composition of mycorrhizal fungi and shifts in the proportion of mycorrhizal
81 types will have subsequent impacts on carbon in Arctic soils.

82 Key words: Amplicon sequencing; Arbuscular mycorrhiza; Arctic; Ectomycorrhiza; Ericoid
83 mycorrhiza; Herbivory

84 **1. Introduction**

85 Large mammalian herbivores can modify plant communities through selective foraging
86 which may allow herbivores to impact future carbon (C) and nutrient cycling in the Arctic
87 (Olofsson et al., 2009; Vowles et al., 2017a; Sundqvist et al., 2019; Lindén et al., 2021). For
88 instance, herbivores may give evergreen shrubs a competitive advantage as herbivores
89 preferentially consume deciduous shrubs, forbs, and graminoids (Christie et al., 2015; Vowles
90 and Björk, 2019). By altering dominance patterns among plant functional groups, herbivores
91 can indirectly affect mycorrhizal fungi communities (Vowles et al., 2018; Vowles and Björk,
92 2019; Ahonen et al., 2021; Ylänné et al., 2021; Castaño et al., 2023). Trampling and waste
93 deposition by herbivores may also benefit mycorrhizal fungi by increasing soil temperature and
94 nutrient availability (Wang et al., 2018, 2023; Yan et al., 2018; Ylänné et al., 2018; Kytöviita and
95 Olofsson, 2021). The magnitude of herbivore impact has been shown to be sensitive to local
96 climate, where for instance herbivores have the largest effect on shrub radial growth at
97 intermediate Arctic air temperature ranges (Vuorinen et al., 2022). Herbivory mediated changes
98 in the dominance of different plant functional groups will affect their associated types of
99 mycorrhizal fungi, where deciduous shrubs primarily associate with ectomycorrhizal fungi
100 (EcM), ericaceous shrubs which are predominantly evergreen associate with ericoid mycorrhizal
fungi (ErM), and grasses and forbs primarily associate with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AM)

102 (Smith and Read, 2008; Vowles and Björk, 2019). The proportion of different plant functional
103 types and their associated mycorrhizal fungi can alter soil properties which feedback onto the
104 dominant vegetation and mycorrhizal fungi (Clemmensen et al., 2015, 2021; Castaño et al.,
105 2023). These multi-trophic interactions between herbivores and soil fungi may be important for
106 Arctic ecosystems as climate change continues (Vowles and Björk, 2019; Ylänne et al., 2021),
107 however, they have not been evaluated across the Arctic.

108 Soil fungi are likely to respond to herbivory-driven shifts in vegetation and soil properties,
109 as they generally have close connections to the plant species comprising the community (Parker
110 et al., 2022). These soil fungi, including both saprotrophic and mycorrhizal fungi, play a key role
111 in the cycling of soil C and nutrients globally (Read and Perez-Moreno, 2005; Högberg and Read,
112 2006; Orwin et al., 2011; Averill et al., 2014), including in nutrient-poor ecosystems
113 (Clemmensen et al., 2021; Parker et al., 2021) such as most Arctic communities (Shaver and
114 Chapin, 1991; Schulze et al., 1994; Jonasson et al., 2001; Clemmensen et al., 2006). Mycorrhizal
115 fungi function as a C sink in soils, as they receive photosynthates from their host plant, and as a
116 result are less C limited than saprotrophic fungi and can thereby outcompete free living
117 microbes for organic nitrogen (N) (Högberg and Read, 2006; Orwin et al., 2011; Averill et al.,
118 2014). Different mycorrhizal groups, such as ecto-, orbiza, ericoid mycorrhiza and arbuscular
119 mycorrhiza have been linked to different degrees of recalcitrance of soil organic material where
120 shifts in mycorrhizal dominance along a gradient from AM-EcM-ErM corresponds to slower C
121 turnover and subsequently higher C storage in the soil (Phillips et al., 2013; Clemmensen et al.,
122 2015, 2021; Parker et al., 2021; Fani et al., 2022). Thus, clarifying the distribution of different
123 mycorrhizal groups is important for understanding the Arctic's future C storage potential
124 (Dahlberg and Bültmann, 2013).

125 Climatic conditions can affect regional processes of mycorrhizal fungi distribution, but do
126 not necessarily describe finer scale patterns (Mikryukov et al., 2023). However, soil conditions,
127 which are more variable than climate at the site level, may have stronger effects on mycorrhizal
128 fungi communities, in some cases acting as stronger drivers than vegetation (Dumbrell et al.,
129 2010; Grau et al., 2017; Bennett and Classen, 2020). The amount of nutrients in the soil and the
130 form they take, e.g. organic or inorganic, impact the abundance and production of mycorrhizal
131 fungi (Avolio et al., 2009; Nicolás et al., 2019). EcM fungi are lower in abundance when
132 inorganic C is high (Kjøller et al., 2012) potentially due to the benefit of the mycorrhizal
133 relations to the plant host decreases under such conditions and the plants subsequently
134 reduce the investment into mycorrhizal symbionts. The proportion of fungi can also be
135 impacted by the differences in soil C as saprotrophs are less competitively excluded when labile
136 C is abundant (Bödeker et al., 2016; Marañón-Jiménez et al., 2021). Likewise, soil temperature
137 and precipitation can affect the balance of mycorrhizal types in the soil as fungi have different
138 optimal growth conditions (Ruotsalainen and Kytöviita, 2004; Kytöviita, 2005). As soils warm,

139 productivity and subsequently microbial activity may increase in the tundra, with the strength
140 of this change connected to soil moisture (Geml et al., 2015).

141 Arctic regions have experienced approximately 2-4 times greater warming since 1970
142 than the rest of the globe (Rantanen et al., 2022). This warming trend has led to vegetation
143 shifts (Myers-Smith et al., 2011; Elmendorf et al., 2012a, 2012b; Bjorkman et al., 2015, 2020),
144 which have resulted in aboveground productivity increases and a general greening trend in
145 Arctic communities (Myers-Smith et al., 2020). Increasing productivity has the potential to
146 decrease the long-term C storage in tundra soils (Hartley et al., 2012), which currently account
147 for nearly 50% of global terrestrial belowground C pool (Schuur et al., 2015; Crowther et al.,
148 2016; Van Gestel et al., 2018; Bjorkman et al., 2020). In addition, shifting plant abundance and
149 composition potentially impact decomposition rates, C turnover and nutrient cycling as
150 microbial communities shift concomitantly (Ekblad et al., 2013). The ongoing climate-driven
151 shifts in tundra vegetation (Elmendorf et al., 2012b; Bjorkman et al., 2018), are expected to
152 trigger changes in soil fungal communities as well. For instance, shrub species are expanding
153 and becoming more prevalent (Myers-Smith et al., 2011), which should correspond to increases
154 in ECM and EM depending on shrub type (Vowles et al., 2018; Vowles and Björk, 2019;
155 Clemmensen et al., 2021; Parker et al., 2022); whereas tundra communities with a greater
156 proportion of grass and forb species, which may become more prevalent under high intensity
157 grazing, should correspond with an increase in AM fungi (Walker et al., 2006; Berner et al.,
158 2020; Betway-May et al., 2022). Thus, the dominance of functionally distinct shrub or graminoid
159 vegetation in the landscape may be a major determinant of the fungal community in tundra
160 ecosystems (Vowles and Björk, 2019).

161 Tundra ecosystems are comprised of multiple community types, such as heath and
162 meadow communities, which have different dominant mycorrhizal types according to their
163 dominant vegetation (Martínez-García et al., 2015; Sizonenko et al., 2020; Clemmensen et al.,
164 2021; Defrenne et al., 2023). Thus, factors that influence the proportion of plant functional
165 types, such as herbivory, will affect the proportion of different mycorrhiza types in the soil as
166 well (Dahlberg and Bülthuus, 2013; Martínez-García et al., 2015; Grau et al., 2017). These
167 community types are partially determined by the strength of herbivory at each location, where
168 no or low herbivory may allow for easier expansion of deciduous shrubs (Myers-Smith et al.,
169 2011; Parker et al., 2021), moderate herbivory could give ericaceous shrubs an advantage by
170 consuming highly competitive deciduous shrubs (Vowles et al., 2017a), and high herbivory
171 promotes grass and forb species (Olofsson and Post, 2018). Although AM fungi form
172 associations with almost 80% of terrestrial plant species globally (Smith and Read, 2008), AM
173 fungi are generally limited in distribution in Arctic communities due to their low tolerance to
174 cold (Wang et al., 2002; Ruotsalainen and Kytöviita, 2004; Kytöviita, 2005; Kilpeläinen et al.,
175 2016). However, AM fungi species may respond quickly to climate warming if their host-species

176 become more prevalent and climate conditions for AM fungi improve (Olsson et al., 2004;
177 Hollister and Flaherty, 2010; Gao et al., 2016; Newsham et al., 2017; Bennett and Classen,
178 2020).

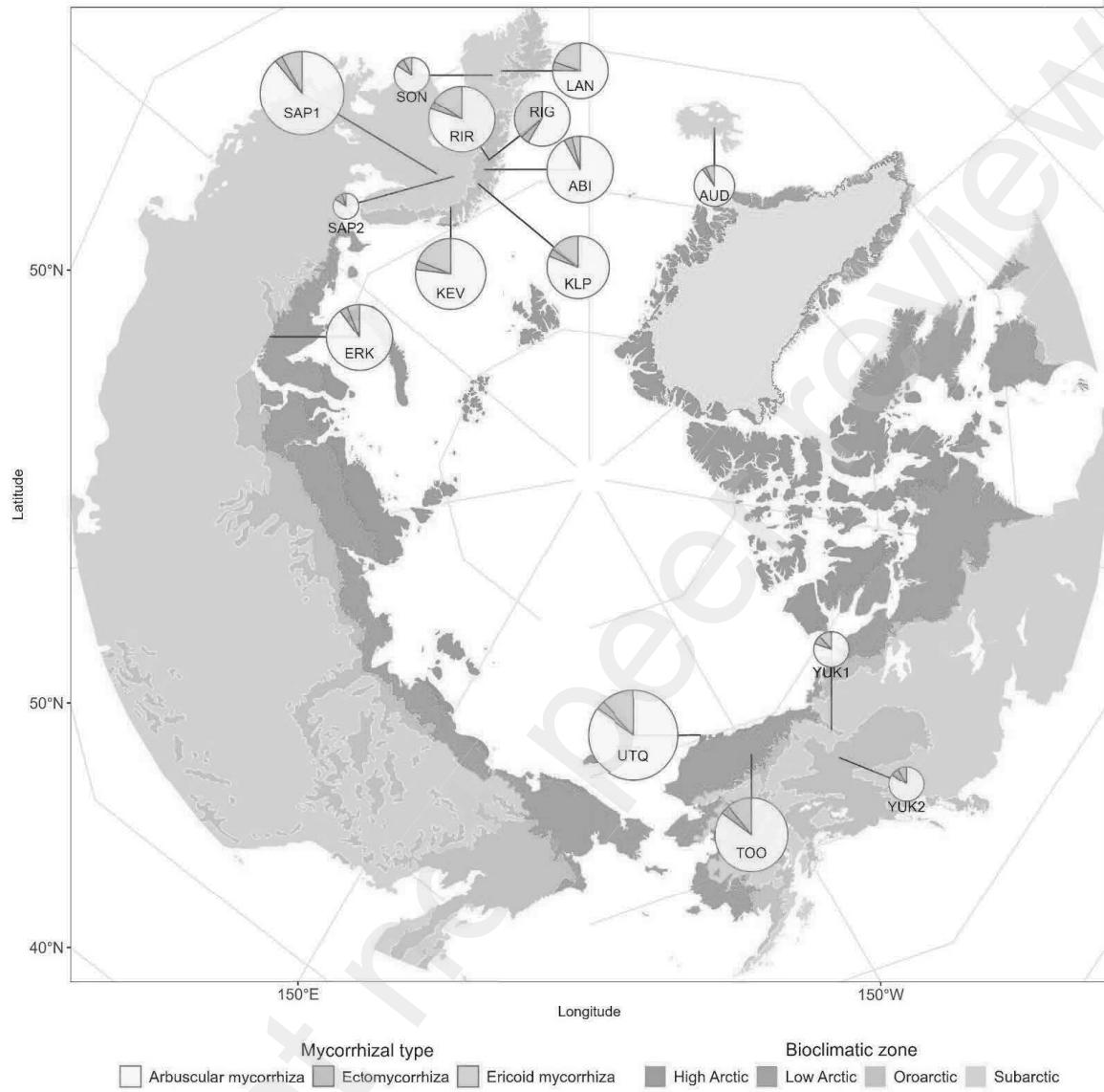
179 Our study aims to investigate the effect of large mammalian herbivores on mycorrhizal
180 fungal communities across multiple Arctic sites. We use a network of large mammalian
181 herbivore exclosures to evaluate the effect of herbivores on mycorrhizal fungi composition and
182 the proportion of mycorrhizal types, alongside edaphic and climate properties and vegetation
183 dynamics. We hypothesise that i) large mammalian herbivores will impact mycorrhizal fungi
184 community composition through soil property and vegetation community changes as a
185 response to the combined effects of selective foraging, waste deposition, and trampling.
186 However, we predict that the observation of this effect will likely be site-specific due to the
187 differences between Arctic community types and the magnitude of herbivory pressure. We also
188 hypothesise that ii) mycorrhizal fungi communities will shift across the Arctic due to differences
189 in climate and vegetation. We predict ErM will be most species rich under dominant ericaceous
190 shrub cover, EcM under dominant deciduous shrub cover and AM under dominant grass and
191 forb vegetation. Furthermore, iii) we hypothesise a greater richness of ErM species when
192 herbivores are present, but only in sites where herbivore exclusion significantly alters
193 mycorrhizal fungi community composition, as evergreen ericaceous shrubs may increase when
194 deciduous shrubs are suppressed by herbivores. Finally, iv) we also predict that soil properties,
195 such as pH and soil C and N, will influence the proportion of each mycorrhizal type, where non-
196 acidic, low C:N ratio soil conditions benefit AM species the most.

197 2. Materials and Methods

198 2.1. Site descriptions

199 The study was conducted at 15 sites across the tundra; five sites in Sweden, four in
200 Finland, two in USA, two in Canada, one in Iceland, and one in Russia (Fig. 1; Tab. 1). The site
201 designations listed in Tab. 1 will be used throughout the paper to refer to those sites. Most of
202 the sites had three herbivore exclusion fences paired with three ambient plots of equal size,
203 except for SAP1 and 2 (which had one large fence and ambient plot for each), ERK (which had
204 15 0.25 m² fences and 15 ambient plots), UTQ (which had 12 1 m² fences and 12 ambient plots),
205 and YUK1 and 2 (which had three replicate 1 m² fences and three ambient subplots for each of
206 the two sites; Fig. S1). Sites that had large fences and ambient plots (i.e. > 1 m²) were sampled
207 from five subplots (approx. 1 m²) within each plot, while sites with small fences (i.e. ≤ 1 m²)
208 were sampled once within each plot. The term herbivory used throughout this manuscript is
209 specifically referring to the effects of large mammalian herbivores including foraging, trampling
210 and waste deposition, events that all interact to influence vegetation and soil properties.

211 Herbivory effect is used to denote the effects of excluding these herbivores from the fenced
212 plots.



213
214 **Fig. 1.** Map of site locations with pie charts showing proportion of mycorrhiza types with the size of the pie charts
215 scaled to the number of unique mycorrhizal fungi species within sites. The bioclimatic zones for Subarctic, Oroarctic,
216 Low Arctic, and High Arctic are included (Berner et al., 2024).

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Table 1. Description of each site contributing to the data. SAP and YUK both consisted of two subsites that were initially sampled as replicates. # fences and paired ambient plots refer to the number of fences at the site and therefore also the number of paired ambient plots, i.e. ABI has three fences and three ambient plots. Two of the KLP fences covered an area of 1994 m², while the third fence covered an area of 562 m². SAP fences were also different sizes, so they are treated as separate sites. Soil moisture class is an approximation of moisture conditions at each site.

# Composite soil samples	Year fences established	Experiment duration (years)	Vegetation surveyed	MAT (°C)	MAP (mm)	Soil moisture class	Dominant plants	Dominant large mammal herbivore	References
6	1998	22	Yes	-1.6	637	Dry	<i>Empetrum nigrum</i> , <i>Betula nana</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Lindén et al. 2021
6	1995	25	Yes	0.0	840	Dry	<i>Empetrum nigrum</i> , <i>Vaccinium myrtillus</i> , <i>V. vitis-idaea</i> , <i>Calluna vulgaris</i> , <i>Betula nana</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Vowles et al. 2017b, Sundqvist et al. 2019
6	1995	25	Yes	-3.4	719	Wet	<i>Deschampsia cespitosa</i> , <i>D. flexuosa</i> , <i>Carex aquatilis</i> , <i>Betula nana</i> , <i>Empetrum nigrum</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Vowles et al. 2017a, Sundqvist et al. 2019
6	1995	25	Yes	-3.5	847	Dry	<i>Empetrum nigrum</i> , <i>Betula nana</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Vowles et al. 2017b, Sundqvist et al. 2019
6	1995	25	Yes	-1.5	773	Dry	<i>Empetrum nigrum</i> , <i>Deschampsia flexuosa</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Sundqvist et al. 2019
6	1970	50	Yes	-2.0	481		<i>Empetrum nigrum</i> , <i>Deschampsia flexuosa</i> , <i>Vaccinium myrtillus</i> , and <i>V. vitis-idaea</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Lehtonen and Heikkilä 1995
6	2020	0	No	-2.3	553	Dry	<i>Betula nana</i> , <i>Empetrum nigrum</i> , <i>Vaccinium myrtillus</i> and <i>V. vitis-idaea</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	N/A
2	2001	19	No	0.4	567	Wet	<i>Eriophorum vaginatum</i> , <i>Carex</i> sp. <i>Andromeda polifolia</i> , <i>Vaccinium myrtillus</i> , <i>Betula nana</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Meinander et al. 2020
2	2017	3	No	-0.9	592	Wet	<i>Carex rostrata</i> , <i>Menyanthes trifoliata</i> , <i>Comarum palustre</i> , <i>Betula nana</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Meinander et al. 2020
6	1996	24	Yes	-8.8	245	Moist	<i>Eriophorum vaginatum</i> , <i>Betula nana</i> , <i>Rubus chamaemorus</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Lindén et al. 2021
24	1959	61	No	-11.1	211	Dry-Wet	Deciduous shrubs and graminoids	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Johnson et al. 2011
6	2016	4	Yes	2.8	708	Dry	<i>Betula nana</i>	<i>Ovis aries</i>	Mulloy et al. 2021
30	2014	6	Yes	-6.1	561		Dwarf shrubs and sedges	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	Baubin et al. 2016
2	2019	1	Yes	-16.8	207		<i>Betula nana</i> , <i>Eriophorum vaginatum</i> , and <i>Empetrum nigrum</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	N/A
2	2019	1	Yes	-6.36	326		<i>Betula nana</i> , <i>Eriophorum vaginatum</i> , and <i>Empetrum nigrum</i>	<i>Rangifer tarandus</i>	N/A

Country	Site name	ID	Coordinates	# Fence and ambient plots	Fence area (m ²)	# Soil cores
Sweden	Abisko	ABI	68° 19' 23" N, 18° 51' 57" E	3+3	64	25 / plot
Sweden	Långfjället	LAN	62° 06' 53" N, 12° 16' 30" E	3+3	625	25 / plot
Sweden	Ritsem meadow	RIG	67° 49' 35" N, 17° 43' 02" E	3+3	625	25 / plot
Sweden	Ritsem shrub heath	RIR	67° 46' 33" N, 17° 32' 22" E	3+3	625	25 / plot
Sweden	Sonfjället	SON	62° 16' 55" N, 13° 28' 21" E	3+3	625	25 / plot
Finland	Kevo	KEV	69° 42' 28" N, 27° 04' 55" E	3+3	400	25 / plot
Finland	Kilpisjärvi	KLP	69° 02' 35" N, 20° 48' 22" E	3+3	1994/56 2	25 / plot
Finland	Sodankylä	SAP1	67° 22' 02" N, 26° 39' 02" E	1+1	5000	25 / plot
Finland	Pallas	SAP2	67° 59' 49" N, 24° 12' 42" E	1+1	2000	25 / plot
USA	Toolik lake	TOO	68° 37' 27" N, 149° 36' 36" W	3+3	100	25 / plot
USA	Utqiagvik	UTQ	71° 18' 49" N, 156° 36' 11" W	12+12	1	5 / plot
Iceland	Auðkúluheiði	AUD	65° 12' 0" N, 19° 42' 0" W	3+3	144	25 / plot
Russia	Erkuta	ERK	68° 12' 21.6" N, 69° 11' 2.4" E	15+15	0.25	5 / plot
Canada	Yukon sites - North	YUK1	66° 36' 12" N, 136° 17' 13.2" W	3+3	1	5 / plot
Canada	Yukon sites - south	YUK2	64° 55' 49" N, 138° 16' 23" W	3+3	1	5 / plot

2.2. Soil sampling

Soil samples were collected at each site during the 2020 growing season using a 2 cm diameter soil corer to a depth of 10 cm, with five cores retrieved per subplot. Since the fenced area varies between sites, three separate sampling schemes were followed depending on site configuration (Table 1, Fig. S1). Soil samples were immediately put in a bag with silica gel, and frozen at -20 °C as soon as possible before being shipped to the University of Gothenburg, Sweden, where they were stored at -20 °C until processed. Each soil sample was sieved at 2 mm and freeze-dried for 24 hours to be dry stored until further analyses. All soil samples within a fence or ambient plot were homogenized into a single composite soil sample for DNA extraction. In total, there were 116 soil samples across all sites.

2.3. Extraction and sequencing

The Qiagen DNeasy PowerSoil Pro extraction kit was used to isolate environmental DNA from the processed soil samples following the manufacturer's protocol. DNA was extracted

236 from approximately 250 mg of soil from each sample. The samples were then checked using
237 Qubit dsDNA High Sensitivity Assays for the presence and concentration of DNA in the sample
238 prior to PCR and stored in -20 °C until further analyses.

239 Two sets of PCR were performed using two pairs of primers targeting different regions of
240 the fungal genome. ITS1, IT2, and partial LSU regions were amplified using a ITS1m–LR5 primer
241 pair (ITS1m: 5'-TCCGTAGGTGAAACCTGC-3'; LR5: 5'-TCCTGAGGGAAACTTCG-3') to capture general
242 fungal groups (Eshghi Sahraei et al., 2022). Partial SSU region was amplified using a
243 SSU515Fngs–AML2 primer pair (SSU515Fngs: 5'-GCCAGCAACCGCGGTAA-3'; AML2: 5'-
244 CCCAAACACTTGGTTCC-3') to target AM fungi specifically. A reaction volume of 50 µL was
245 used for PCR with 5 µL each of template DNA, forward and reverse primer and 0.5 µL of
246 Phusion High-Fidelity DNA polymerase. Thermocycling conditions for the ITS1m–LR5 region
247 were an initial denaturation at 98 °C for 30 s followed by 25 cycles of denaturation at 98 °C for
248 10 s, annealing at 59 °C for 45 s and extension at 72 °C for 45 s, with a final extension for 10
249 minutes after the final cycle. Thermocycling conditions for the SSU515Fngs–AML2 primer pair
250 were an initial denaturation at 98 °C for 30 s followed by 30 cycles of denaturation for 10 s,
251 annealing at 58 °C for 30 s and extension at 72 °C for 30 s and a final extension for 7 minutes
252 after the final cycle. A total of 232 PCR products were cleaned using Agencourt AMPure XP
253 magbeads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA) and quantified using Qubit dsDNA High Sensitivity
254 Assays prior to pooling for equimolar concentrations. A maximum volume of 48 µL was used for
255 samples with too low concentration. Samples were then sequenced by Uppsala Genome Centre
256 (UGC, Science for Life Laboratory, Div. of Immunology, Genetics and Pathology, Uppsala
257 University, BMC, Box 815, SE-752 37 UPPSALA) in Uppsala, Sweden using two SMRT cells on the
258 Sequel platform (Pacific Biosciences, Menlo Park, CA, USA).

259 2.4. Bioinformatics

260 Circular consensus sequence (CCS) reads (218,250 total, Table S1) were demultiplexed
261 and primers removed for the ITS1m-LR5 samples using cutadapt v4.4 (Martin, 2011). Reads
262 were checked in both directions and any reads where primers were detected in the reverse
263 direction were reverse complemented prior to downstream filtering. The SSU515Fngs–AML2
264 samples were received demultiplexed from Uppsala Genome Centre, so only primers had to be
265 removed. Reads from all samples were pooled for the two primers sets and analysed with the
266 DADA2 pipeline (version 1.26.0). Amplicons were filtered using the filterAndTrim function with
267 default parameters except for maxEE = 2, minLen = 50, and rm.Phix = TRUE, denoised with
268 DADA2 function using default parameters, and chimeras removed using the removeBimera
269 function. Denoised ASVs for the ITS1m–LR5 primer reads were taxonomically assigned with
270 PLuMFISH matching v2.0.0 (Abarenkov et al., 2010) which performs open-reference clustering
271 with the UNITE database (v9.0; Nilsson et al., 2019) at thresholds from 97% - 99% sequence
272 similarity. The 97% threshold was selected for downstream statistics as it limited duplication of

273 species assignments for species hypotheses (SH) (although duplication was still high;
274 approximately 70%). After taxonomic assignment, 1837 unique SH's that were taxonomically
275 assigned to family or below were sorted into functional guilds using FUNGuild (Nguyen et al.,
276 2016) and 539 SHs corresponding to mycorrhizal fungi were selected for further analysis. 539
277 identified as orchid mycorrhiza were removed from further analysis. All mycorrhizal
278 referred to throughout the paper refer to fungi not plants, unless otherwise specified. A
279 species is used to refer to the generated SHs. It is important to note that the 'guild' assignments,
280 much like the SHs themselves, are tentative and an SH can be assigned into multiple potential
281 guilds depending on the level of taxonomic assignment. ErM fungal species are especially
282 difficult as they are often facultative and do not necessarily form mycorrhizas, unless conditions
283 are right. Indeed, all SHs assigned as ErM were also co-assigned to EcM but were retained as
284 ErM only in the analyses. SHs identified as EcM were manually assigned to exploration type
285 following Agerer (2001). Taxonomy was assigned for the SSU515ngs–AML2 ASVs using the
286 assignTaxonomy function from DADA2 with default setting, using a local download of the
287 MaarjAM database as the reference (Öpik et al., 2010). SSU515ngs–AML2 ASVs which could
288 not be assigned to order were removed from further analysis. Additionally, all ASVs assigned
289 were compared to the ITS1m–LR5 assignments and all ASVs overlapping in assignment at
290 species level were removed from the AM fungal sequence dataset. All of the 26 identified
291 species from the SSU515ngs–AML2 dataset represent AM species. A final total community
292 dataset was produced by combining the ITS1m–LR5 SH's assigned to taxonomy and identified
293 as mycorrhizal fungi, with the SSU515ngs–AML2 SH's taxonomically assigned as
294 Glomeromycota across all samples (Table S1). All three datasets used species presence/absence
295 data and not relative abundance differences between sites due to low sequencing depth, unless
296 otherwise stated for a specific test (Fig. 13).

297 2.5. Soil and climate properties

298 All soil samples were also analysed for pH, soil organic matter (SOM) content, total C,
299 total N, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. First, pH was measured after adding 50 ml water to 10 g soil (except for
300 SAP and YUK samples which used 150 ml to 5 g and 50 ml to 5 g, respectively as they contained
301 a higher amount of organic material) and allowing to settle overnight before measuring with a
302 pH meter (Mettler, 591 pH meter). A second pH measurement was performed after adding 0.5
303 ml (1.5 ml for SAP and YUK) 2M KCl to reach a final concentration of 0.02 M KCl, which removes
304 any potential effect of soil electrolyte concentration on the measurements (Kome et al., 2018).
305 SOM was measured using Loss-on-Ignition method where the soil was heated at 550 °C for 8
306 hours with mass loss approximating the mass of organic material in the sample. Total C, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$,
307 total N and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ were analysed on an elemental analyser (GSL, Sercon Ltd., Crewe, UK) coupled
308 to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (20-22, Sercon Ltd., Crewe, UK).

309 Daily mean near-surface air temperature and precipitation data were retrieved from
310 CHELSA-W5E5 downscaled climate data for the period 1979-2016 for each site (version 1.1·
311 Karger et al., 2017). The CHELSA-W5E5 v1.1 has a horizontal resolution of 1km, which is a
312 downscaled product of its previous version, W5E5 v1.0, using the CHELSA V2.0 algorithm
313 (Karger et al., 2017, 2022). These data were used to determine mean annual temperature
314 (MAT), maximum annual temperature, minimum annual temperature, mean growing season
315 temperature, maximum growing season temperature, minimum growing season temperature,
316 mean annual precipitation (MAP) and mean growing season precipitation across the sites.

317 2.6. Vegetation data

318 Plant species abundance was evaluated previously for eleven of the sites using point
319 intercept method (Goodall, 1952) on subplots within all exclosures and their paired controls
320 across our study system. For LAN, RIG, RIR, and SON a total of 24 subplots were used (Sundqvist
321 et al., 2019), KEV used 12 subplots, ABI and TOO used 8 subplots (Lindén et al., 2021), and AUD
322 used 24 subplots (Kushbokov et al., 2023). In each subplot, species abundance was determined
323 by lowering pins at 25–100 pins at even spacing and counting the number of times that the
324 vegetation intercepted the pins. All data were normalized to 100 pins per subplot and averaged
325 per plot (Väistönen et al., 2014). These data were further used to calculate the abundance of
326 plant functional groups (grasses, sedges, forbs, evergreen and deciduous dwarf shrubs, and tall
327 deciduous shrubs).

328 2.7. Statistics

329 All data analyses were carried out with R (version 4.2.2, (R Core Team, 2022). The
330 phyloseq package (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013) was used for handling bioinformatic data, and
331 relevant functions from the vegan and ecodist packages (Goslee and Urban, 2007; Oksanen et
332 al., 2022) were used for community dissimilarity ordinations. The mycorrhizal fungi
333 communities were split into three main datasets: EcM/ErM species (from the ITS1m - LR5
334 primer pair sequences), AM species (from the SSU515Fngs - AML2 primer pair sequences), and
335 total mycorrhizal community (both datasets merged); hereafter referred to as EcM/ErM, AM,
336 and total community in the results. Mycorrhizal fungi species presence/absence (P/A) data was
337 used for ordinations, as we had low sequence sampling depth for relative abundance
338 differences between our sites.

339 To investigate the impact of herbivory and soil conditions on mycorrhizal fungi
340 community composition between plots we use Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) as a
341 constrained ordination according to mycorrhizal species composition dissimilarity based on
342 presence/absence matrices, using Bray-Curtis distances, against soil properties and treatment.
343 Variable selection was performed by correlation matrix and variance inflation factor tests to
344 reduce multicollinearity in the resulting independent variables. The final model for the CCA

345 ordinations was the community dissimilarity matrix against Site, Treatment, pH, total C, C:N
346 ratio, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. A follow-up Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was also performed to
347 evaluate the effect of the independent variables on the mycorrhizal fungi community. A
348 Permutational Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) was also performed to evaluate the
349 dissimilarity of mycorrhizal fungi communities between plots, after using the `ordiR2`
350 function from `vegan` for forward model selection as the models were overfit with `all`
351 parameters (Tab. S3). For the EcM/ErM and total mycorrhizal fungi communities, Site and total
352 N were selected, and for the AM community, Site, Treatment, C:N, and Precipitation were
353 selected. Treatment was added to all models as it is the parameter of interest.

354 The differences between sites in mycorrhizal community composition were evaluated
355 against mean air temperature and precipitation using a separate CCA. An ANOVA was
356 performed to evaluate the effect of these climate properties on the dissimilarity in mycorrhizal
357 fungi composition between sites.

358 Another CCA was used to evaluate community dissimilarity influenced by vascular plant
359 functional types (deciduous tall shrubs, deciduous dwarf shrubs, evergreen dwarf shrubs,
360 grasses, sedges/rushes, and forbs) for the eleven sites with vegetation data available, as plant
361 community is expected to be a major driver of mycorrhizal community composition. Differences
362 in soil properties between treatments, fenced and unfenced plots, were calculated using
363 Student's t-test for each site individually.

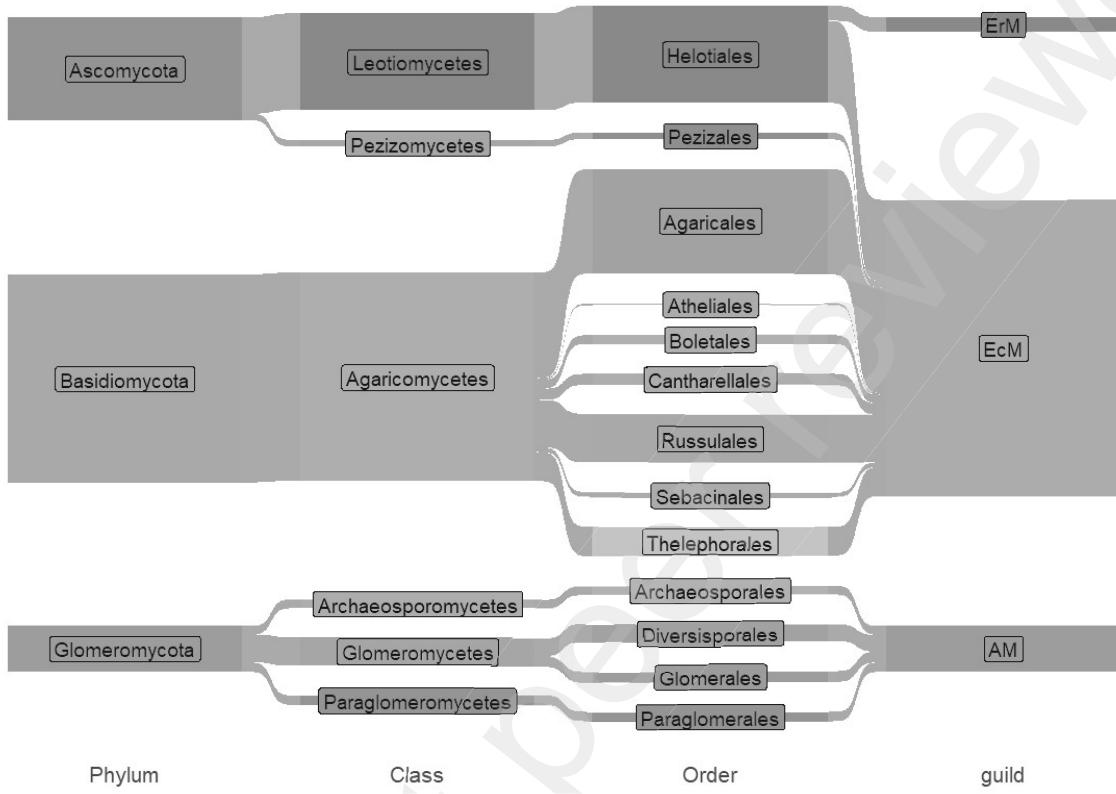
364 All statistics use an alpha of 0.25 and p-values between 0.1 and 0.05 are referred to as
365 marginally significant which may be appropriate due to the low replication in this study.

366 3. Results

367 3.1. Fungal guilds

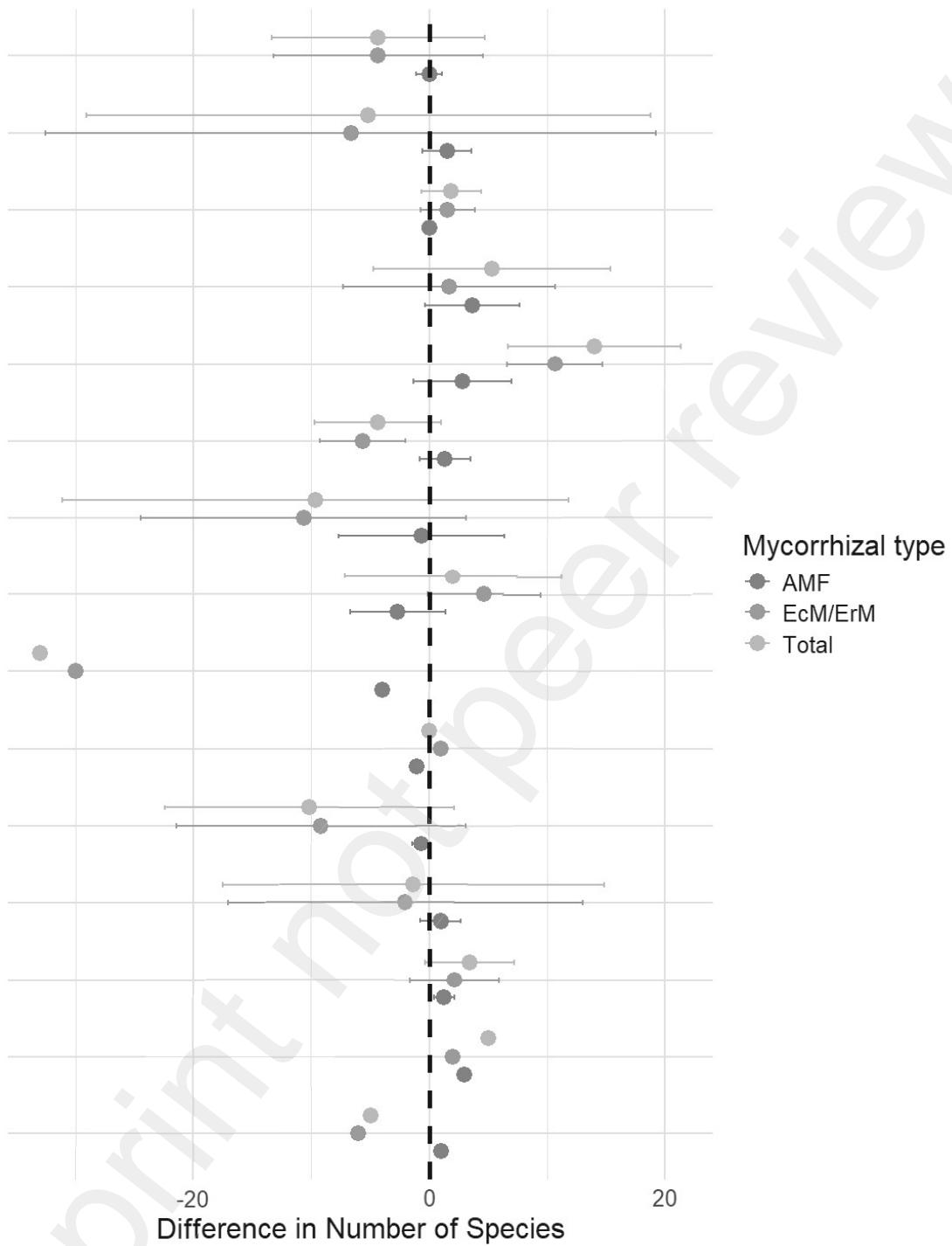
368 Three major types of mycorrhizae were captured by the sequence data: EcM, ErM, and
369 AM (Fig. 1, Fig. 2). Together these corresponded to 38% of the total fungal reads in the dataset.
370 Across all samples 50 unique mycorrhizal fungi species within 3 phyla, 6 classes and 13 orders
371 were captured (Fig. 2). Among these species, EcM accounted for 82%, while ErM comprised 2%
372 and AM contained the remaining 14%. The ErM identified to species were assigned to the
373 phylum Ascomycota, specifically, the order Helotiales. EcM were a mix of Basidiomycota and
374 Ascomycota, across three classes and nine orders. The herbivore exclosure treatment generally
375 did not affect the mean number of species of either total mycorrhizal fungi, or of EcM/ErM, or
376 AM fungi, respectively (Fig. 3). However, the mean number of total mycorrhizal fungi species,
377 and EcM/ErM species, was higher in KLP, EcM/ErM were fewer in LAN, and AM were higher in
378 UTQ in exclosures compared to ambient plots (Fig. S2). Further, the composition of

ectomycorrhizal fungi exploration types at each plot was not affected by exclusion of herbivores (Fig. S3 and S4).



381 Phylum Class Order guild
 382 **Fig. 2.** Overall proportion of unique mycorrhizal species separated into phylum, class, order and guild across all
 383 sites. The height of each rectangle represents the number of species belonging to that group, and connections
 384 between columns indicate the proportion which belongs to both groups. ECM refers to ectomycorrhiza, ErM to
 385 ericoid mycorrhiza, and AM to arbuscular mycorrhiza.

Treatment Effect



387

388 **Fig. 3.** Difference of enclosure from ambient conditions in mean number of species of each mycorrhizal type at each
389 site. Error bars represent 85% confidence intervals around the mean (corresponding to a $\alpha = 0.05$ test; see Payton
390 et al., 2000, 2003). The sites SAP1, SAP2, YUK1, and YUK2 have no error bars as there was one composite sample
391 for the ambient and enclosure condition at each of these sites and so they couldn't be compared.

392 3.2. Mycorrhizal fungi community composition

393 A consistent pattern of differentiation in mycorrhizal fungi communities occurred for all
394 three subsets of mycorrhizal data in the ordination analyses, where the Russian, North
395 American and Icelandic sites (UTQ, ERK, YUK, TOO and AUD) were broadly separated from the
396 Fennoscandian sites (Fig. 4; Fig. S5). Site was significant for all three subsets of mycorrhizal
397 fungi communities (Fig. 4A: $F_{14,83} = 2.196$, $p < 0.001$; B: $F_{14,61} = 2.718$, $p < 0.001$; C: $F_{14,83} = 2.264$,
398 $p < 0.001$).

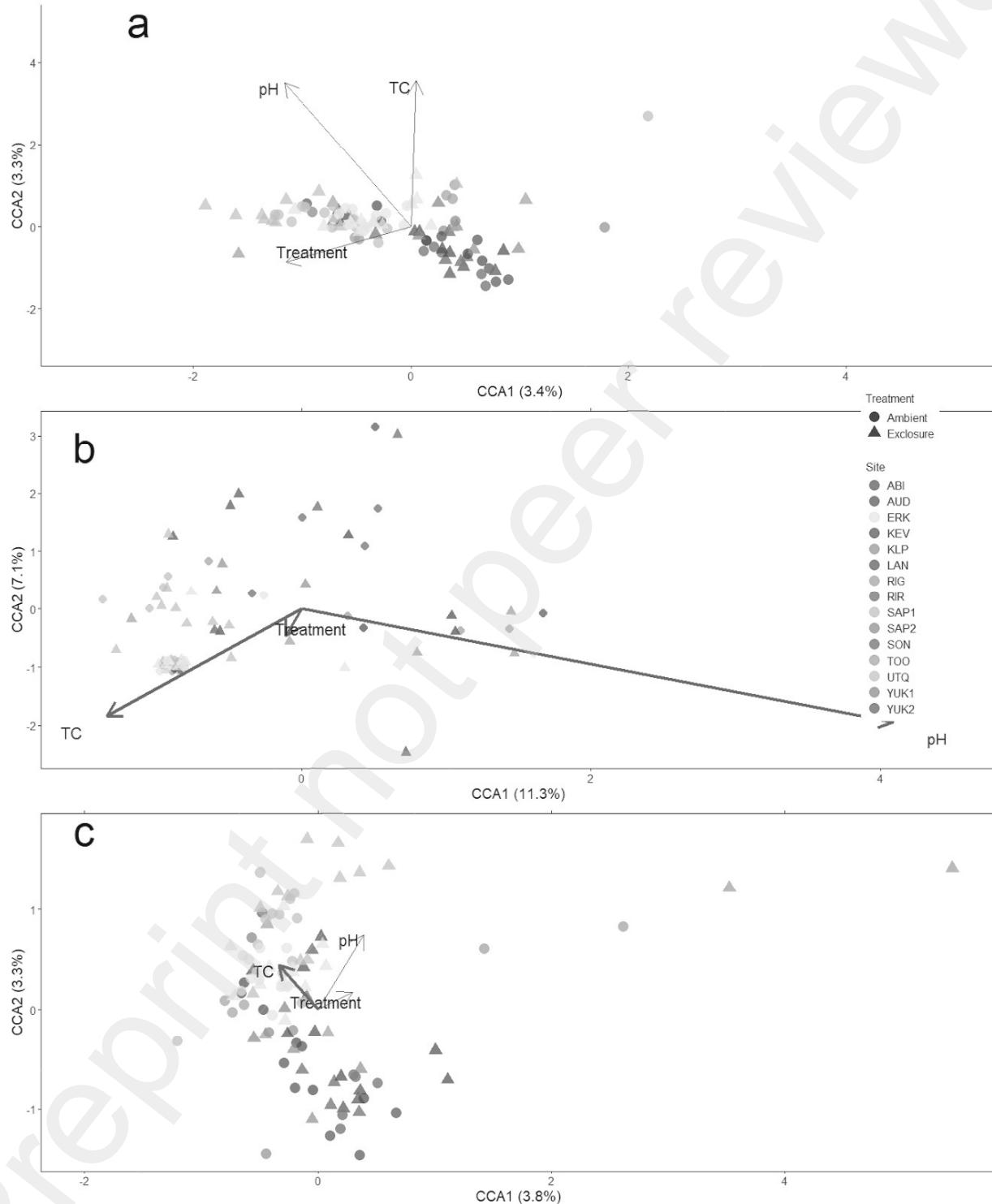
399 The separation of the EcM/ErM community in the cluster with Russian, Icelandic, and
400 North American sites UTQ, ERK, YUK, TOO and AUD, and the Fennoscandian cluster is primarily
401 driven by the genera *Cortinarius*, *Entoloma*, and *Lactarius* being more abundant in
402 Fennoscandia, and *Russula* more abundant in the non-Fennoscandian sites (Fig. S5A).

403 In the AM community dataset CCA, pH was significantly correlated with community
404 composition where the vector pointed primarily towards RIG, as well as some individual plots in
405 KEV, ERK, and ABI (Fig. 4B: $F_{1,61} = 1.917$, $p = 0.046$). The AM genera *Acaulospora*, *Diversispora*,
406 *Glomus*, and *Claroideoglomus* increase with pH along this gradient (Fig. S5B). In addition, total C
407 was marginally significant and increased towards ERK primarily with a tendency of all cold sites
408 moving in the same direction (Fig. 4B: $F_{1,61} = 1.71$, $p = 0.063$). Treatment (removal of
409 herbivores) was also marginally significant and clearly followed the same direction as total C
410 (Fig. 4B: $F_{1,61} = 1.474$, $p = 0.076$) with the AM genus *Ambiospora* showing species specific
411 responses either increasing or decreasing along the total C and treatment gradient (Fig. S5B). In
412 cold sites, the AM genera *Pacispora*, *Pseudoglomus* and *Scutellospora* contributed more species
413 compared to warmer sites (Fig. S5B).

414 Total C was marginally significantly related to the total mycorrhizal community
415 composition and increased along a gradient towards the coldest sites ERK, TOO, UTQ and YUK
416 (Fig. 4C: $F_{1,83} = 1.257$, $p = 0.068$). The separation of the cold sites seems to be driven by
417 increased abundance of *Didymodon* spp. and *Fayodia gracilipes*, as well as a decreased
418 abundance of *Lactarius* spp. and *Polyozellus umbrinus* (Fig. S5C). A few other EcM genera (e.g.
419 *Mycosymbioses*, *Russula*, *Tomentella*) had some mixed species-specific responses along this
420 gradient (Fig. S5C). Another distinct pattern in the total mycorrhizal community is the
421 separation of RIG in the ordination space, driven by the AM genera *Acaulospora*, *Diversispora*,
422 *Glomus*, and *Claroideoglomus*, but also by EcM fungi in the genera *Entoloma* (Fig. S5C).

423 Overall, the soil CCA models accounted for a small proportion of variance within the
424 mycorrhizal data (ranging from 6.7-18.4% in the first two axes). Significant effects on
425 mycorrhizal fungi composition were found for pH and total C, however there were no
426 significant effects of SOM, total N, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ or $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for any mycorrhizal fungi community. Individual
427 site CCAs identified a significant treatment effect in RIG ($F_{1,2} = 1.350$, $p = 0.042$), and marginally

428 significant treatment effects in LAN and TOO (LAN: $F_{1,4} = 1.250$, $p = 0.074$; TOO: $F_{1,4} = 1.215$, $p =$
 429 0.067; Fig. S6). The number of AM fungal species tended to increase in exclosures when
 430 treatment effects were observed (Fig. S6).



431

432 **Fig. 4.** Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) plot of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix based on the presence of
 433 mycorrhizal species for: a) the EcM/ErM community composition, b) the AM community composition (note that no
 434 AM species was found in SON and AUD), and c) the total community composition. Each point corresponds to a
 435 plot's mycorrhizal community ordinated relative to other plots by their dissimilarity in community composition.
 436 Triangles are enclosure plots while circles are ambient plots. Vectors belong to soil property predictors (TC = total
 437 carbon; pH) significant in at least one of the mycorrhizal communities, with thicker vectors indicating the property
 438 is significant at an alpha of 0.1 for that specific community. Altogether the graphs account for 7% - 18% of variance
 439 in mycorrhizal species composition between sites.

440 When evaluating climate variables across the sites, mean air temperature was a
 441 significant explanatory variable for EcM/ErM and total mycorrhizal fungi communities, and
 442 marginally significant for AM fungi communities (Fig. S7A: $F_{1,12} = 1.472$, $p = 0.005$; B: $F_{1,12} =$
 443 2.043 , $p = 0.059$; C: $F_{1,12} = 1.390$, $p = 0.020$), while precipitation was marginally significant across
 444 all mycorrhizal communities (Fig. S7A: $F_{1,12} = 1.254$, $p = 0.058$; B: $F_{1,12} = 1.644$, $p = 0.100$; C: $F_{1,12}$
 445 $= 1.248$, $p = 0.062$). Both mean air temperature and precipitation tended to increase towards
 446 the Fennoscandian and Icelandic sites, and away from the North American and Russian sites.
 447 Overall, the climate CCA models accounted for 21.2-33.4% of the variance within the site-level
 448 mycorrhiza data in the first two axes.

449 The PERMANOVA supported the CCA by indicating site as significant for all three
 450 mycorrhizal community datasets (Tab. 2). Additionally, total N was found to be significant for
 451 the EcM/ErM and total communities, with treatment marginally significant in the total
 452 community. The model for total community accounted for approximately 34% of the variation
 453 within the data, predominantly due to site differences.

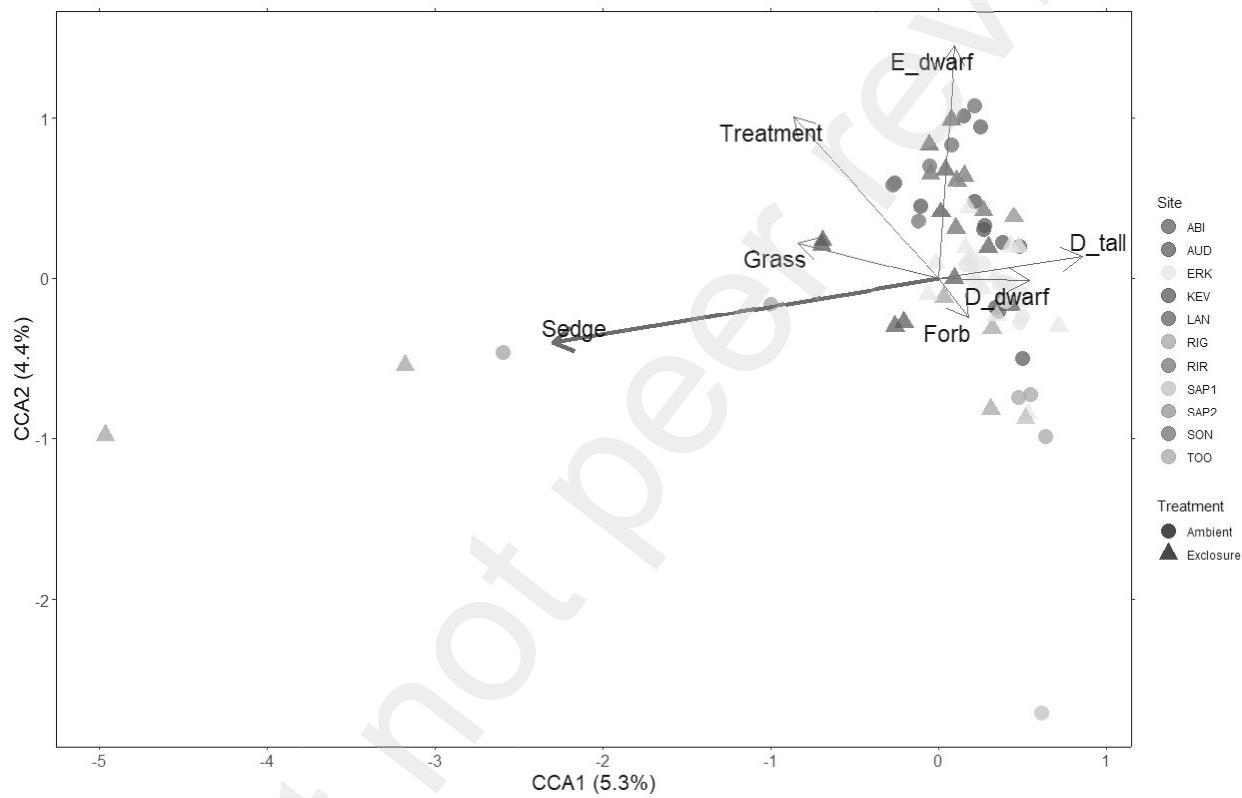
454 **Table 2.** PERMANOVA model output for three subsets of the mycorrhizal community. Model structure was
 455 determined based on forward model selection criteria. TN refers to total N, and C:N ratio is Carbon:Nitrogen ratio.
 456 Bold values indicate significant difference between treatment conditions within the indicated site below alpha 0.1,
 457 bold and italic indicate significance below 0.05.

Community	Model structure	Site			Treatment			TN			C:N			Precipitation		
		R ²	F	p	R ²	F	p	R ²	F	p	R ²	F	p	R ²	F	p
EcM/ErM	Site + Treatment + TN	0.291	3.151	0.001	0.008	1.081	0.379	0.014	1.828	0.026						
	Site + Treatment + C:N + Precipitation	0.436	4.524	0.001	0.010	1.213	0.308				0.010	1.279	0.264	0.013	1.676	0.146
Total	Site + Treatment + TN	0.316	3.551	0.001	0.012	1.558	0.062	0.013	1.724	0.033						

458 3.3. Vegetation influence

459 The CCA using relative cover of plant functional types (PFT) as predictors was significant
460 for explaining dissimilarity in mycorrhiza data ($F_{17,55} = 1.876$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 5). Site ($F_{10,55} =$
461 2.416 , $p < 0.001$) and percent cover of sedges ($F_{1,55} = 1.790$, $p < 0.027$) were significant factors
462 for explaining difference in mycorrhizal fungi composition. The effect of sedges on mycorrhizal
463 fungi dissimilarity was likely driven primarily by RIG as the vector points almost exclusively
464 towards those plots.

465



466

467 **Fig. 5.** CCA analysis comparing mycorrhizal communities between sites based on percent cover of Plant Functional
468 Types (PFT) at each site with available data. Each point corresponds to a plot's mycorrhizal community ordinated
469 relative to other plots by their dissimilarity in community composition. Triangles are exclosure plots while circles are
470 ambient plots. Vectors belong to percent cover of PFT predictors with thicker vectors indicating the property is
471 significant at an alpha of 0.1. D_tall = Deciduous tall shrub, D_dwarf = deciduous dwarf shrub, E_dwarf = evergreen
472 dwarf shrub. Sedges were the only PFT that showed a significant correlation with the mycorrhizal fungi data.
473 Altogether the PFTs account for 9.7% of the variance in the mycorrhizal fungi community composition.

474 4. Discussion

475 4.1 Mycorrhizal communities across the Arctic

476 EcM comprised the majority of mycorrhiza species in our data as they made up 82% of
477 the species identified. The EcM species in our study were distributed across 34 families with the
478 most species-rich family accounting for 10% of the unique species. A previous study on Arctic
479 EcM found that the majority of sequences belonged to four families indicating a 'big' degree of
480 dominance of a few taxa (Timling et al., 2012). Similar proportions of taxonomic orders to our
481 data were previously found in tundra sites (Blaalid et al., 2014; Geml et al., 2015; Botnen et al.,
482 2020), which also showed more EcM species than ErM, although not to the degree shown in
483 this study. Two ErM species were identified in our data; however, they were ubiquitous across
484 all sites. Previous studies have found more ErM species, predominantly in Helotiaceae and
485 Hyaloscyphaceae (Van Geel et al., 2020; Fanin et al., 2022). However, this difference may be
486 partially attributed to the different biogeographic areas evaluated in the studies, as neither
487 were focused on tundra ecosystems, as well as differences in detection of rare species in the
488 samples as our sequencing depth was low. The most prevalent ErM species in our data,
489 *Pezoloma ericae*, was likewise the most abundant ErM species in a grazing study in northern
490 Fennoscandia (Ylännne et al., 2021). They found that grazing conditions and plant composition
491 influenced the abundance of *P. ericae*. The remaining 14% of species were AM which, while
492 well-known elsewhere, are vastly understudied in tundra communities (Ruotsalainen and
493 Eskelinen, 2011; Větrovský et al., 2023). The large number of AM species hypothesized identified
494 in this study indicates a necessity to adopt protocols to include these species when evaluating
495 soil fungi in the tundra, otherwise community evaluations may be incomplete. This is especially
496 important in communities with a high abundance of grass and forb species (Ravolainen et al.,
497 2020; Gignac et al., 2022; Spitzer et al., 2022), as these species have shown a tendency to
498 increase with warming in some locations (Bjorkman et al., 2020). However, AM fungi have
499 shown variable responses to herbivory, even with increases in their plant partners (Kytöviita
500 and Olofsson, 2021). Better understanding of the drivers of AM community change may aid
501 understanding of the variation in grass and forb community responses in the tundra.

502 4.2 Large herbivore impacts on mycorrhizal fungi composition

503 Large mammalian herbivores had a weak effect on only AM fungal species across our
504 sites, where *An. bispora* spp. seems to be the most sensitive genera to herbivory across Arctic
505 sites. This is in opposition to our hypothesis iii, where we expected herbivory to increase the
506 number of ErM fungi by increasing ericaceous shrubs. Rather, the effect of herbivory on
507 mycorrhizal fungi community composition depends on the dominant vegetation when
508 herbivores are present, the specific site conditions (such as edaphic and climatic properties),
509 and the strength of the herbivory pressure. It is possible that changes in the cover of sedges

510 and differences in pH across the sites contributed to the consistent weak effect on AM fungi.
511 The response of AM fungi to herbivory is not consistent across previous studies (Ruotsalainen
512 and Eskelinen, 2011; Kytöviita and Olofsson, 2021); however, herbivory has been demonstrated
513 to decrease AM colonization of plant roots in acidic, non-fertile sites with the opposite
514 response in non-acidic sites with high soil fertility (Ruotsalainen and Eskelinen, 2011). The
515 difference in the response of AM fungi to herbivory could therefore be tied to local soil
516 conditions, as AM fungi were also impacted by pH in our study. Although, it was also argued
517 that the difference in AM colonization is primarily due to vegetation differences where
518 nutrient-rich non-acidic communities have a higher proportion of graminoids and forbs and
519 nutrient-poor acidic communities have more ericaceous shrubs (Ruotsalainen and Eskelinen,
520 2011). Higher proportion of graminoid vegetation that associates with AM fungi can be
521 observed under heavy grazing conditions (Barthelemy et al., 2017). Our data suggested that the
522 cover of primarily non-mycorrhizal sedges (Muthukumar et al., 2004; Tedersoo, 2017) had the
523 largest correlation with mycorrhizal fungi community composition dissimilarity. This may be
524 due to some sedges being capable of forming AM associations (Muthukumar et al., 2004) while
525 *Kobresia* sp. can form EcM associations (Tedersoo, 2017) which may contribute to the
526 observed dissimilarity in mycorrhizal fungi communities related to differences in sedge cover.
527 The sites where significant herbivory impacts were observed did not have similar vegetation
528 communities, but all showed a greater number of AM species present in the ambient condition.
529 The strength of herbivory pressure applied at a location can shift the current vegetation
530 towards a more graminoid dominated community (Olofsson et al., 2001, 2004; van der Wal,
531 2006; Vowles et al., 2017b), where communities with high grazing pressure increase in AM and
532 saprotrophic fungal abundance (Aulioinen et al., 2021). High grazing pressure also includes
533 increased trampling and snow compaction of a site which can warm the soil during the growing
534 season potentially releasing AM fungi from their cold limitation, although it also makes winter
535 soil temperatures colder (Yaromi et al., 2018; Ylännne et al., 2018; Fischer et al., 2022). Changes in
536 conditions suitable for AM fungi, such as warmer temperatures and grass dominated plant
537 communities, may increase their prevalence in the tundra.

538 In support of the prediction derived from hypothesis i, the herbivory effect was not
539 consistent across the Arctic for EcM/ErM or total mycorrhizal fungi communities. Herbivory had
540 previously been identified as an important driver for Arctic EcM and ErM fungi community
541 composition (Jönsson et al., 2012; Santalahti et al., 2018; Vowles and Björk, 2019; Botnen et al.,
542 2020; Van der Wal et al., 2020; Ahonen et al., 2021), however, these conclusions were for single
543 sites and not across the Arctic. In our data, herbivory had a local scale impact at four sites.
544 Herbivory likely impacts mycorrhizal fungi communities within a site by changing local
545 vegetation and soil conditions; for example, herbivore driven changes in evergreen shrub
546 abundance and differences in C:N ratio had large effects on the total soil fungi community at

547 the Norwegian-Finland border (Ylänné et al., 2021). Abiotic conditions have also been shown to
548 have a large effect on mycorrhizal fungi composition differences (Dumbrell et al., 2010; Grau et
549 al., 2017; Bennett and Classen, 2020), and can be more important for fungal community
550 composition than vegetation composition (Grau et al., 2017). Although many studies indicate a
551 close connection between plant functional types and mycorrhizal types (Vowles et al., 2018;
552 Vowles and Björk, 2019; Ahonen et al., 2021; Ylänné et al., 2021), EcM do not have strong host
553 species specificity in the tundra (Ryberg et al., 2011; Abrego et al., 2020). The ability of
554 individual plants to form multiple types of mycorrhizae, which varies by species and
555 environmental gradient (Abrego et al., 2020), makes the complex relationships between PFTs
556 and mycorrhizal types difficult to elucidate.

557 4.3 Soil properties influence mycorrhizal fungi community composition

558 In support of hypothesis iv, soil properties were found to coincide with mycorrhizal fungi
559 composition where total C varies along with the total mycorrhizal fungi community, and pH and
560 total C shifts with AM fungi community. Soil C can be differentially affected by different types of
561 mycorrhizal fungi (Wurzburger and Brookshire, 2017) due to differences in their resource
562 acquisition strategies and their response to increases in organic N (Kjøller et al., 2012;
563 Wurzburger and Brookshire, 2017; Averill et al., 2021). Mycorrhizal fungi community
564 composition was correlated with the total soil C content which pointed primarily towards the
565 North American and Russian sites. Increases in soil C have been linked to higher cover of EcM
566 forming tundra plants and relative abundance of EcM fungi corresponding to heath
567 communities (Clemmensen et al., 2021). Conversely, AM plants reduced soil C relative to soil-
568 only controls while EcM plants did not (Wurzburger and Brookshire, 2017). pH has been
569 identified as an important driver of fungal community composition; however, it was argued as a
570 correlative property and not the main driver of fungal community change (Ruotsalainen and
571 Eskelinen, 2011; Hewitt et al., 2013). Previous studies have also found impacts of warming on
572 fungal communities (Geml et al., 2015, 2021; Shi et al., 2021), but these effects differed
573 between tundra habitats, primarily related to soil moisture. Warming impacts on fungal
574 community composition were stronger in moist communities than dry (Geml et al., 2021) and
575 may decrease the mycorrhizal component of the fungal community (Geml et al., 2015);
576 however, there was no response to warming in an AM community (Shi et al., 2021). Our data
577 show an impact of air temperature on all mycorrhizal fungi communities, but that may be due
578 to the large gradient in air temperature among sites. In addition, our data showed a significant
579 precipitation gradient among the sites that was consistently correlated to mycorrhizal fungi
580 community composition, but not for AM fungi specifically. The large gradient in precipitation
581 and air temperature that our study sites span account for at least 20% of the variance among
582 the sites in mycorrhizal fungi composition. Overall, large scale changes in water and C
583 availability and acid-stress are likely regional drivers for mycorrhiza composition.

584 Overall, herbivory is likely acting locally on mycorrhizal fungi communities while large-
585 scale patterns coincide with climatic gradients in the Arctic. The variation in vegetation
586 communities across the tundra likely influences how readily mycorrhizal fungi types will ~~ear~~
587 adapt to altered biotic or abiotic conditions. The simultaneous interaction between bottom-up
588 processes by climate and edaphic properties and top-down processes by herbivores and biotic
589 interactions on vegetation communities determines the species likely to comprise the
590 mycorrhizal fungi community in an area. Additionally, it is important to evaluate both EcM/ErM
591 and AM fungi species in tundra ecosystems as AM species were found to be more sensitive to
592 changes in herbivory and constitute a substantial portion of the mycorrhizal fungi community.
593 Thus, changes in the balance between AM-EcM-ErM in the tundra will most likely have
594 associated consequences on total soil C, and may influence the capacity of the tundra soils to
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606 The authors declare no competing interests.

607 Author contributions

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628 Data availability

629 Data and code will be submitted to a repository upon acceptance of the manuscript.

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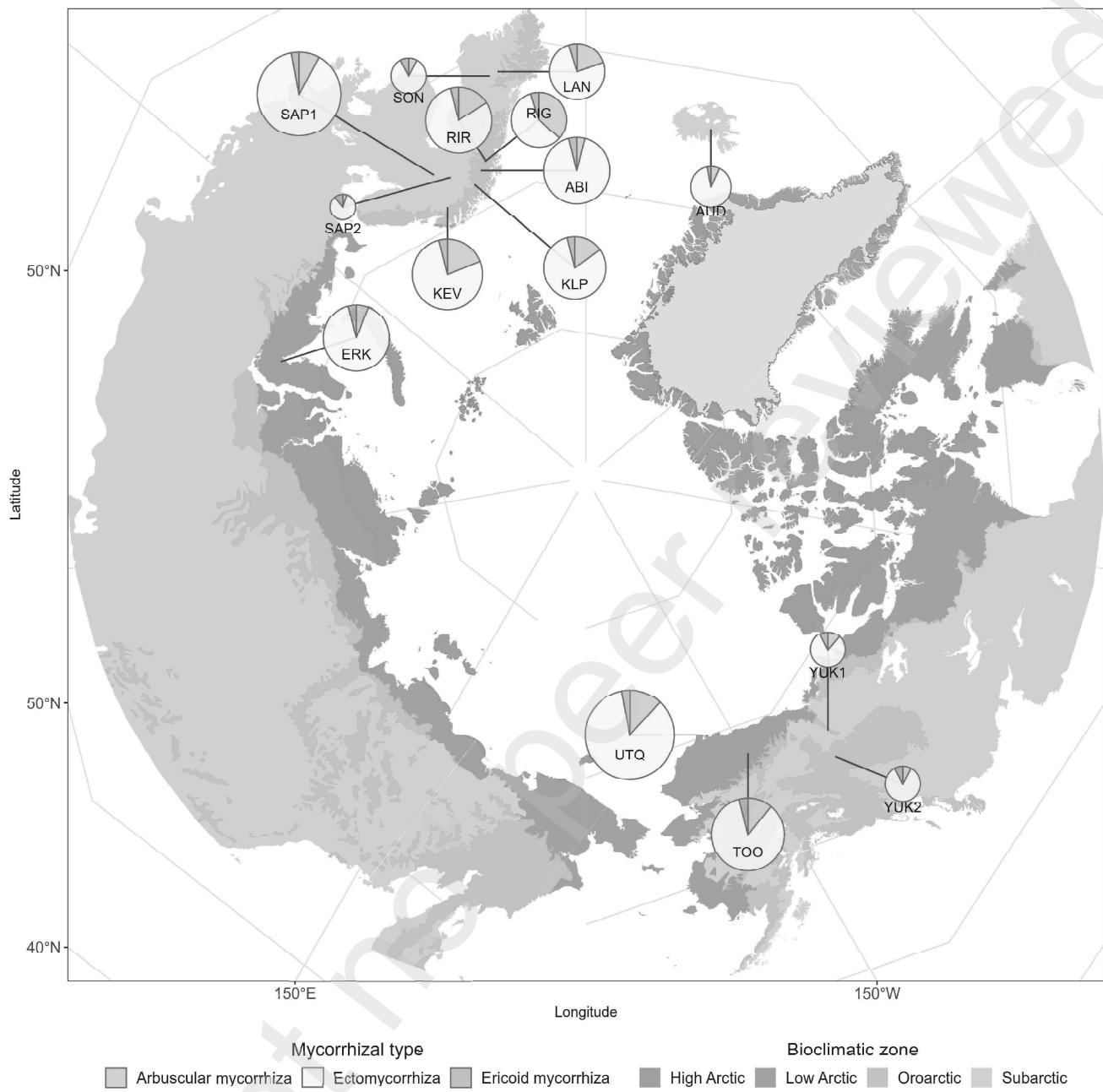
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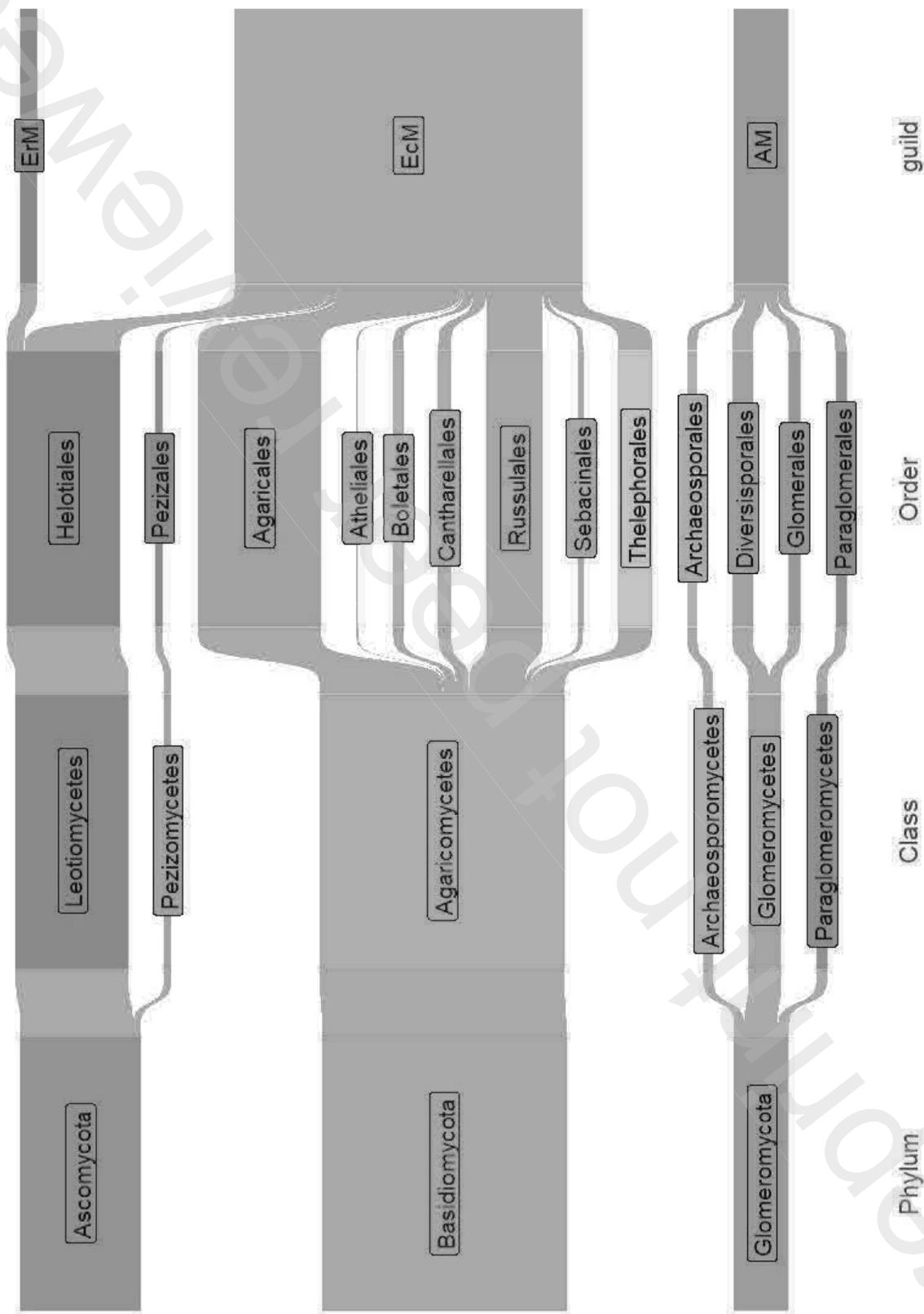
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1107





guild

Order

Class

Treatment Effect

