1 Title: Elevated CO₂ enhances decomposition and modifies litter-associated fungal

2 assemblages in a natural *Eucalyptus* woodland

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- 17 **Conflicts of interest:** none to declare

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- 19 **Running title**: Elevated CO₂ affects litter decay and fungi
- 20 Keywords: EucFACE, herbivory, Illumina MiSeq, nitrogen, phosphorus

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26 Acknowledgements

- 27 We thank Steven Wohl, Vinod Kumar, Craig Barton and Craig McNamara for maintaining
- 28 the EucFACE facility; David Ellsworth, Kristine Crous and Remko Duursma for litter
- 29 collections; Gillian Powell and Alicia Harb-Akins for making litter bags; and Kylie Brice for
- 30 technical support. EucFACE is supported by the Australian Commonwealth government in
- 31 collaboration with Western Sydney University. This is part of a Terrestrial Ecosystem
- 32 Research Network SuperSite facility. EucFACE was built as an initiative of the Australian
- 33 government as part of the Nation-building Economic Stimulus Package. JRP acknowledges
- funding from the Australian Research Council (DP130102501 and DP160103765).
- 35

36 Data availability statement

- 37 Raw DNA sequencing data are available at the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under
- 38 BioProject PRJNA1108048. All data and R code used for analyses in this manuscript are
- available at zenodo (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.11108026).
- 40

1 Abstract

Litter decomposition is a key process governing carbon and nutrient cycles in forest
 ecosystems that is expected to be impacted by increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide
 (CO₂) concentrations.

We conducted two complementary field studies to assess the effects of elevated CO₂ on
 Eucalyptus tereticornis litter decomposition processes. First, we used bags of two
 different mesh sizes to assess the effect of macrofauna and elevated CO₂ over 24 months
 on mass loss of litter grown under ambient CO₂. We then assessed the effect of elevated
 CO₂ during decomposition of litter grown under each combination of (i) ambient CO₂ or
 elevated CO₂ and (ii) during a psyllid outbreak that triggered significant canopy loss or
 later in canopy developing when psyllid densities were low.

12 3. Both macrofauna and elevated CO₂ enhanced mass loss at late decay stages in the first study, with no interactive effect. Again, mass loss was greater at elevated CO₂ at late 13 14 decay stages in the second study, particularly for non-psyllid impacted litter grown at elevated CO₂. In both studies, CO₂ concentration during decomposition influenced fungal 15 assemblages and these effects were observed before any effects on decomposition were 16 17 observed, with some fungi linked to saprotrophic guilds being found with higher frequency under elevated CO₂. CO₂ concentrations under which leaves developed and 18 19 whether leaves were psyllid-impacted was also important in shaping fungal assemblages. 4. Synthesis: The positive effect on mass loss at late decay stages are contrary to previous 20 findings where elevated CO₂ generally reduce decomposition rates. Our results show that 21 22 elevated CO₂ effects on decay rates are context specific. Further research is required to establish the mechanisms through which this occurs to better model elevated CO₂ effects 23 24 on global carbon dynamics.

26 Introduction

27 Litter decomposition is a key process in terrestrial ecosystems, with plant litter being a 28 key carbon (C) source for decomposers that break down organic matter and make nutrients available for sustained plant growth (Swift et al., 1979; Bardgett et al., 2005). Litter 29 30 decomposition rates, however, differ substantially among and within biomes, with climate, 31 litter chemistry and decomposer assemblages largely governing the breakdown process 32 (Hättenschwiler et al., 2005; García-Palacios et al., 2013). Climate regulates decomposition through effects on vegetation composition, decomposer assemblage structure and biological 33 34 processes (e.g., metabolism, enzymatic activity, grazer activity; Suseela & Tharayil, 2018), 35 with generally greater rates of litter decomposition in warm and humid ecosystems where biological activity is high (García-Palacios et al., 2013). Plant functional traits have strong 36 effects on decomposability in that litter with high nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) content 37 38 decomposes more rapidly than litter with lower nutrient and high lignin contents (Cornwell et 39 al., 2008). Microbes, particularly fungi, are the primary decomposers while soil fauna contribute both directly as decomposers and through comminution, microbial grazing and 40 modifiers of the soil structure and microenvironment (Hättenschwiler et al., 2005; Nielsen et 41 42 al., 2015).

While our understanding of the influences of these drivers on litter decomposition 43 dynamics has increased substantially over the past few decades, there are still important 44 knowledge gaps, including how increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentrations 45 will interact with these drivers to affect litter decomposition processes and, through this, C 46 dynamics. Elevated CO₂ concentrations (henceforth, eCO₂) can reduce litter decomposition 47 due to reduced litter quality (i.e., reduced N content, increased lignin content) (Norby et al., 48 2001). However, increased rates of mass loss have been observed in some studies indicating 49 that eCO₂ effects are context dependent, potentially moderated by increased saprotroph activity 50

in soil mediated by greater plant water use efficiency (Hall *et al.*, 2006), particularly when water is limiting (e.g., Volk *et al.*, 2000; Blumenthal *et al.*, 2013) and increased root exudation (Phillips *et al.*, 2011). Accordingly, eCO₂ has been shown to increase microbial biomass and the abundance of detritivores (Blankinship et al., 2011), both of which could promote litter decomposition. Adding further complexity, increased abundances of detritivore fauna may also impact litter decomposition due to increased grazing of fungi or through changes in soil decomposer assemblage composition (van der Wal *et al.*, 2013; A'Bear *et al.*, 2014).

58 Besides these effects, eCO₂ may alter herbivory through changes in resource 59 availability and quality to moderate litter decomposition while herbivory itself can also affect 60 leaf chemistry. Several studies have shown that leaf herbivory results in increased leaf N content (Chapman et al., 2003; Hall et al., 2006), which might ameliorate the negative effect 61 of eCO₂ on litter decomposition by counteracting eCO₂-induced reductions in leaf N. 62 Importantly, these factors may interact to moderate eCO₂ impacts, with changes in leaf 63 64 chemistry expected to slow down decomposition whereas increased soil water content and decomposer activity may enhance decomposition processes (Kuzyakov et al., 2019). 65

Decomposition is a dynamic process, an important point to consider when investigating 66 67 eCO₂ effects on the drivers of decomposition. The first substantial meta-analysis of eCO₂ effects on leaf litter chemistry showed reduced N and increased lignin content in leaves (i.e., 68 69 lower quality) but found no consistent associated effects on litter mass loss except for a slight 70 reduction for woody species (Norby et al., 2001). A key finding was that the expected eCO₂induced reduction in leaf N concentration was substantially lower in leaves following N 71 72 resorption at senescence, which would ameliorate eCO₂ driven effects on decomposition. The authors further hypothesized that while reduced N might slow down mass loss early in 73 74 decomposition, impacts on microbial assemblages can increase lignin degradation, resulting in enhanced rates of mass loss at later stages in the decomposition process. Some fungi generally 75

utilize labile carbon sources and available nutrients during the early stages of decomposition
while others break down more recalcitrant plant material and translocate nutrients from other
sources, particularly later during decomposition (van der Wal *et al.*, 2013).

79 We investigated litter decomposition dynamics at ambient and elevated CO₂ (+150 80 ppm relative to ambient) in the Eucalyptus FACE (EucFACE) facility in eastern Australia to 81 provide further insight into the controls on litter decomposition using a standard litter bag 82 approach. Specifically, in two complementary studies, we assessed the independent and interactive effects of eCO₂, macrofauna and herbivory on litter decomposition and associated 83 84 changes in litter chemistry and fungal decomposer assemblage structure. Previous work at the 85 site has shown increased photosynthesis under eCO_2 but not a concurrent increase in ecosystem productivity or C storage, with higher soil respiration contributing to greater 86 ecosystem C losses under eCO₂ indicating greater soil biological activity (Jiang et al., 2020). 87 Moreover, eCO₂ has been found to increase root litter mass loss at late decay stages, possibly 88 89 associated with greater relative abundance and activity of saprotrophic fungi (Castañeda-90 Gómez et al., 2020).

91 Our main hypothesis was that eCO₂ would enhance leaf litter decomposition rates at 92 this site via increased activity of saprotrophs and detritivores in soil but that the effect would be moderated by i) whether the litter developed under ambient CO₂ (aCO₂) or eCO₂ given 93 expected influences on litter chemistry, ii) whether macrofauna were excluded given potential 94 changes in densities between aCO₂ and eCO₂, and iii) whether the litter was impacted by 95 herbivores given shifts in leaf chemistry. For the latter, we took advantage of an outbreak of 96 97 leaf feeding psyllids occurring at the site throughout 2014 (Gherlenda et al., 2016) comparing decomposition of litter collected during the outbreak and with visible signs of herbivory to 98 99 that of litter collected from canopy that developed after the outbreak, when psyllid 100 populations were much lower. In addition, we used amplicon sequencing to assess fungal

101 assemblages in the litter for each treatment combination at the time point prior to where 102 treatment effects were observed and related this to mass loss at a following time point to 103 better assess whether changes in litter decomposition is related to eCO₂-induced shifts in 104 fungal assemblages, including effects on abundances of saprotrophic fungi.

105

106 Methods and Materials

107 *Site description*

108 EucFACE is located in a mature warm-temperate evergreen forest dominated by 109 Eucalyptus tereticornis, with minimal human disturbance for at least 90 years (Jiang et al., 110 2020). The understory is dominated by native grasses and shrubs. The facility was established in 2012, exposing three experimental plots (25 m diameter circles) to elevated atmospheric 111 CO₂ concentrations at ~150 ppm above ambient conditions through fumigation. Three control 112 plots were established with similar infrastructure but was fumigated with air without CO₂ 113 114 addition. Treatments commenced in September 2012, but CO₂ concentrations were raised incrementally (~30 ppm increase per month), with full-strength treatment concentrations 115 116 reached in February 2013 and then maintained throughout the experimental duration when 117 conditions allowed (Ellsworth et al., 2017). The site is characterised by low-fertility alluvial soil of the Clarendon Formation with high sand content (>75%) and low phosphorus content, 118 with growth considered P-limited. The deeper horizons are sandy clay loam with the presence 119 120 of clay bands that affect site hydrology (Ross et al., 2020). A license or permit was not required for the work as the experiment is on property owned by Western Sydney University. 121 122 Litter bags 123

A standard litter bag approach was used to assess decomposition rates through time,
including the effect of macrofauna exclusion by contrasting rates for bags with different mesh

sizes (see below). Although this approach has been criticised for inducing non-target effects (see Kampichler and Bruckner 2009), more recent assessments indicate that the findings are robust given comparable findings when litter bag studies are contrasted with other means of soil fauna suppression / exclusion (García-Palacios *et al.*, 2013).

130 For the first study, we used E. tereticornis leaves from a fallen branch found outside 131 the main CO₂ treatment plots in 2013 to reduce the effect of environmental and microbial 132 influences associated with litter already in contact with the ground. The litter is considered green leaf material given that the leaves were still attached to the branches. As such, it was 133 134 expected to have higher nutrient content than senesced leaf litter as resorption would not have occurred which is likely to affect the litter decomposition process. These litter bags were 135 deployed in June 2013. For the second study, we used *E. tereticornis* leaves collected in litter 136 traps within the respective CO₂ treatment plots to consider the CO₂ concentration at which the 137 leaves developed. We distinguished litter collected between December 2013 and December 138 139 2014, during the psyllid outbreak (Gherlenda et al., 2016), and litter collected between January 2015 and June 2016, after the psyllid outbreak had ended. All leaf litter was dried at 40 °C to 140 constant weight (Ellsworth et al., 2017) prior to storage in paper bags in an air-conditioned 141 142 room. We only used litter with lerps (produced by the psyllid) collected during the psyllid outbreak to ensure herbivore effects and only litter without lerps for litter collected after the 143 psyllid outbreak. These litter bags were deployed in August 2017. Approximately 2 grams was 144 added to each bag for both studies. 145

For both studies, litter bags were deployed in each of four 1 m² subplots in each plot, with bags pegged to the soil surface in each subplot after gently brushing aside existing vegetation and litter, where necessary, and redistributing after the litter bag had been deposited to best simulate natural conditions. In the first study, we deployed litter in bags with two different mesh sizes, with 2 mm mesh bags collected after approximately 3, 6, 9, 12, 18 and 24

months, while 4 mm mesh bags were collected after approximately 3, 6, 12 and 24 months 151 152 only. Given that only one litter type (i.e. 'green leaf') was used in this study, this resulted in a 153 total of 288 litter bags with 2 mm mesh (2 replicates per subplot \times 6 time points \times 4 subplots 154 \times 3 plots \times 2 CO₂ treatments) and 192 with 4 mm mesh (2 replicates per subplot \times 4 time points 155 \times 4 subplots \times 3 plots \times 2 CO₂ treatments). In the second study, all litter bags were of the same 156 mesh size (2 mm, same material as in the first study) to limit the number of experimental units. 157 Bags were collected at four time points across the first 16 months (4, 8, 12 and 16 months) where the treatment effects were observed during the first study. We used a full factorial design 158 159 for CO₂ concentration under which leaves grew prior to senescence ('CO₂ [leaf]'), CO₂ 160 concentration during litter decomposition ('CO₂ [litter]'), and psyllid presence during leaf growth ('psyllid') with one bag per subplot and four subplots per CO₂ treatment area, resulting 161 in 384 experimental units (1 replicate per subplot \times 4 time points \times 4 subplots \times 3 plots \times 2 162 litter CO₂ treatments \times 2 leaf CO₂ treatments \times 2 psyllid treatments). Upon collection of bags 163 the remaining litter was dried at 40 °C until constant weight before the litter was weighed to 164 calculate mass loss. All non-litter material, including mineral soil, that had entered during 165 incubation was removed prior to weighing. 166

Soil temperature and moisture were continuously monitored at multiple locations 167 168 within each plot (but outside of the four subplots) over the course of each study. Soil moisture, as volumetric water content, was monitored using frequency-domain reflectometers 169 170 (CS650 Soil Water Content Reflectometer, Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, USA) installed 171 at a depth of 30 cm at eight locations within each plot. Soil temperature was monitored using 172 temperature probes (TH3-s, UMS GmbH, Frankfurt, Germany) installed at a depth of 5 cm at two locations in each plot. Soil temperature conditions were similar between the two studies 173 174 but soil moisture was much lower in the second study than in the first (Fig. S1), at values less than 5% volumetric water content for much of the second study. We found generally similar 175

176 levels of soil moisture under both aCO₂ and eCO₂ over the duration of both studies (Fig. S2),

177 which is consistent with previous findings at the site (Pathare *et al.*, 2017; Ginemo *et al.*,

178 2018).

179

180 *Litter chemistry*

181 Litter C and N content was determined using a LECO TruMac CN analyser (Leco 182 Corporation, St Joseph, MI, USA) based on the Dumas method after grinding dried material 183 to a fine powder. Litter P content was determined using an Epsilon 4 Benchtop X-ray 184 fluorescence (XRF) spectrometer (Malvern Panalytical, Malvern, UK). Litter C, N and P 185 concentrations were measured on a sub-set of the litter bags chosen in each study to represent stages prior to and following the initiation of CO₂ effects on decomposition. In the first study, 186 this included litter harvested after 6 and 12 months in the 2 mm mesh bags and after 3 and 6 187 months in the 4 mm mesh bags; the litter from the two bags collected from within a subplot 188 189 during each harvest were composited prior to chemical analysis. In the second study, this included psyllid-affected litter harvested after 8 and 12 months and psyllid-unaffected litter 190 191 harvested after 8 and 16 months; there was no compositing of samples here since only one 192 bag of each litter origin was collected from a subplot during each harvest. We also measured C, N and P concentrations on three composite samples of litter that was not deployed in litter 193 bags for each set of initial conditions, of which there was only one in the first study (green 194 leaf litter picked off the fallen branch) and four in the second (relating to previous CO₂ 195 196 condition during growth and collection date relative to the psyllid outbreak). The leaf litter 197 used in the second study had lower concentrations of nitrogen and phosphorus as expected in 198 senesced litter compared with green leaf material used in the first study (Table S1). 199

200 Fungal assemblages

DNA was extracted from approximately 200 mg of each of the samples that were analysed 201 202 for litter chemistry. The samples were ground into a fine powder with 5 mm steel beads in a 203 TissueLyser II (Qiagen), then 1 ml of CTAB buffer (0.1 M Tris-HCL, 1.4 M NaCl, 0.02M 204 EDTA, 20 g.l-1 of cetyltrimethyl ammonium bromide with 4% (w/v) polyvinylpyrrolidone) 205 was added to each sample. The samples were digested at 65 °C with mixing at 1000 rpm for 1 206 hour. The samples were then spun for 7 minutes at 16 000 rpm, following which 500 µl of the 207 supernatant was transferred to a new tube and 500 µl of chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (24:1) 208 added. The samples were mixed by inversion for 5 minutes and spun at 16 000 g for 7 209 minutes, after which up to 450 µl of the upper aqueous phase was then transferred to a new 210 tube. The DNA was precipitated by addition of 0.08 volumes of cold 7.5M ammonium acetate and 0.54 volumes of cold isopropanol, followed by 30 minutes at -20 °C. The samples 211 were spun at 16 000 g for 3 minutes and the supernatant removed. The DNA was then 212 washed with 700 µl of 70 % cold ethanol, followed by 700 µl of cold 95% ethanol. The 213 214 samples were spun at 16 000 g for 1.5 minutes after each wash and the ethanol removed. The samples were dried for 30 minutes at 65 °C and then re-suspended in 100 µl of TE buffer (10 215 mM Tris-HCL, 1 mM EDTA). 216

217

Many of the raw extracts were darkly coloured. To remove polyphenolic compounds,
humic/fulvic acids, tannins and other PCR inhibitors from the raw DNA extracts, the samples
were treated using the Zymo OneStepTM PCR Inhibitor Removal Kit according the
manufacture's protocol. Twenty-four samples were subsequently checked for successful
amplification of the ITS gene by PCR following the protocol of Gourmelon *et al.* (2016)
using the MyTaq PCR system (Bioline). Three samples did not successfully amplify. These
samples remained darkly coloured after inhibitor clean-up. All darkly coloured samples were

then checked for successful PCR amplification at template concentrations of 100, 20 and 1 ng/ μ l. All samples at a concentration of 1 ng/ μ l successfully amplified.

227

228 For sequencing of clear DNA samples, concentrated samples were generally diluted to 10 229 $ng/\mu l$ while samples with concentrations of less than 15 $ng/\mu l$ were left neat. The darkly 230 colours samples were diluted to 1 ng/µl prior to sequencing. DNA samples were submitted to 231 the Ramaciotti Centre for Genomics (University of New South Wales, Sydney, NSW, 232 Australia). Amplicons were generated using fITS7 (5'-GTGARTCATCGAATCTTTG-3'; 233 Ihrmark et al. 2012) and ITS4 (5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'; White et al. 1990). All 234 amplicons were purified using the Agencourt AMpure XP system (Beckman Coulter, Lane 235 Cove, NSW, Australia) and genomic libraries were prepared using the Nextera XT Index Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Paired-end (2 x 251 bases) sequencing was performed on 236 the Illumina MiSeq platform. Raw DNA sequencing data are available at the NCBI Sequence 237 238 Read Archive under BioProject PRJNA1108048.

239

240 To process the DNA sequencing data, we used the approach described by Bissett et al. 241 (2016) with a few modifications. Contigs were generated from paired-end reads using the 'fastq mergepairs' command in VSEARCH (version v2.3.4; Rognes et al., 2016) using a 242 minimum overlap of 30 base pairs. Initial quality filtering removed DNA sequences 243 containing ambiguous bases and/or homopolymers greater than eight bases in length. 244 Sequences were kept for further analysis if they were within 200-470 base pairs in length and 245 246 contained fewer than 0.5 expected errors. De novo operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at 247 97% sequence similarity were initially picked using numerically dominant sequences (observed at least two times) using the '-cluster smallmem' command in VSEARCH. All 248 quality-filtered sequences were mapped at 97% sequence similarity against representative 249

sequences of these OTUs using the '-usearch global' command in VSEARCH. Non-mapped 250 251 sequences were subjected to a second round of de novo OTU picking, as above but only 252 using sequences observed at least two times. All initially non-mapped sequences were then mapped against these newly picked OTUs, as above. Non-mapped sequences at this step 253 254 represent singleton OTUs and were excluded from further analysis. Sequence read counts that 255 were less than ten within individual samples were removed to reduce the likelihood of 256 sequence reads being assigned to samples incorrectly. As a result of this, as well as the high 257 level of sequencing depth across all samples (between 12122 and 41536 reads per sample in 258 the first study, between 16619 and 58666 reads per sample in the second study), coverage 259 was estimated to be high (Good's coverage = 100) in all samples. Therefore, we did not rarefy 260 the OTU table before further analysis.

261

262 Putative taxonomic identities for fungal OTUs were generated using BLAST (v.2.6.0,

Altschul *et al.*, 1990) to compare representative sequences for each OTU to a reference

264 database of gene sequences and taxonomic annotations (UNITE version 8.3,

sh_general_release_dynamic_s_10.05.2021; Abarenkov *et al.*, 2021). Fungal ITS2 sequences

were extracted using ITSx (Bengtsson-Palme et al., 2013, v1.1.3) for use during BLAST.

267 Trophic modes and guilds of fungal OTUs that were assigned to taxa were then inferred using

FUNGuild (Nguyen et al., 2016).

269

270 Replication Statement

Scale of inference	Scale at which the factor of	Number of replicates at the	
	interest is applied	appropriate scale	
Atmospheric CO ₂	Plot	Three plots for each of two	
concentration		CO ₂ levels	
Local soil microenvironment	Subplot	Four subplots within each	
		plot	
Decay agent (mesh size;	Litter bags	Two bags per mesh	
experiment 1)		treatment within each plot	

		for each harvest timepoint (total = 48 per harvest)
Litter origin (CO ₂ and psyllid conditions; experiment 2)	Litter bags	One bag per combination of litter conditions within each plot for each harvest timepoint (total = 24 per harvest)

271

272 Data analyses

All data analyses were performed using R v.4.1.2 (R Core Team, 2021). All data and R code

used for analyses in this manuscript are available at zenodo

275 (<u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.11108026</u>; Powell, 2024). We tested for main and interactive

effects of CO₂ treatment during litter decay, mesh size and months of decay (study 1) or CO₂

treatment during litter decay, during leaf development, psyllid presence and months of decay

278 (study 2) on litter decomposition using linear mixed effects models, treating 'plot' and

279 'subplot within plot' as random effects ('lme4' package; Bates et al., 2015). Months of decay

280 was treated as an ordered factor in both models. Litter decomposition was represented in the

model as the proportion of the original mass that remained following incubation and applying

the arcsine-square root transformation (Sokal and Rohlf, 1995) to account for the distribution

being bounded at both ends (0 and 1). The same models were used to assess responses of

284 litter nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations, except we only analysed one timepoint so did

not include months of decay.

286

For relevant interactive effects, we estimated the effect size of CO₂ treatments on

288 decomposition based on log-response ratios (LRRs) calculated using the model prediction of

the mean response under each of the two CO₂ treatments, i.e., log(response_{elevated CO2} /

290 response_{ambient CO2}). Standard errors for LRRs were also calculated from model predictions

291 according to Hedges *et al.* (1999), i.e., square root((se_{elevated CO2}² / mean_{elevated CO2}²) + (se_{ambient}

292 $CO2^2$ / mean_{ambient} $CO2^2$)). LRRs were considered significant when the confidence interval of the

mean (+/- two standard errors) did not overlap zero. Model predictions were obtained using
the 'ggemmeans' function from the 'ggeffects' package (Lüdecke, 2018). We also used the
'pairs' and 'emmeans' functions from the 'emmeans' package (Lenth, 2024) to obtain Pvalues associated with effect sizes for CO₂ treatments for relevant interactive effects.

297

298 Variation in fungal assemblages for both studies was visualised using principal coordinates 299 analysis based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities, after Hellinger-transformation of each OTU 300 table, using functions from the 'vegan' package (Oksanen et al., 2022). We also performed 301 further analysis of fungal assemblages sampled at the time point prior to the observation of 302 CO₂ effects on decomposition in each study. For this, we first performed PerMANOVA to assess the significance and effect size of all of the main effects and interactions associated 303 with each study, again using Bray-Curtis dissimilarities after Hellinger transformation. Then 304 we visualised these patterns using constrained analysis of principal coordinates (CAP), 305 306 including each main effect in the constraint. Finally, we performed multi-level pattern analysis using the 'indicspecies' package (De Caceres and Legendre, 2009) to identify OTUs 307 308 indicative of groups within relevant treatments; for this analysis we used a conservative cut-309 off of P < 0.01 to identify indicators so as to identify those taxa that were most strongly associated with each treatment. 310

311

312 **Results**

Effects of macrofauna exclusion, CO₂ concentration at leaf development, eCO₂ and herbivory
on decomposition through time

In the first study, both mesh sizes resulted in a median value of less than 10% mass remaining after 12 months (Figure 1a). Mesh size had a significant effect on litter mass loss ($P_{mesh} < 0.001$) with higher loss in the large mesh size bags (Figure 1a), and this varied

through time as indicated by the time:mesh interaction ($P_{time:mesh} < 0.001$; Table 1). In 318 319 addition, mass loss was greater in the eCO₂ treatment at late decay stages as indicated by the time:treatment interaction (P_{time:treatment} < 0.001; Table 1) and confidence intervals for LRRs 320 321 barely overlapping zero at 12 ($P_{treatment} = 0.096$) and 18 ($P_{treatment} = 0.068$) months with 2 mm 322 mesh (Figure 1b), when the median mass remaining in the eCO₂ treatment was between 5 and 323 10%. All other eCO₂ contrasts were clearly nonsignificant ($P_{treatment} > 0.19$). eCO₂ effect sizes 324 were consistent across both mesh sizes ($P_{time:treatment:mesh} = 0.31$; Table 1; Figure 1b). The eCO₂ effect appeared greater in the large mesh size bags (Figure 2) but this was not 325

326 significant ($P_{treatment:mesh} = 0.41$; Table 1).

327 In the second study, decomposition occurred more slowly and all but one treatment combination resulted in a median value of more than 50% mass remaining after 16 months 328 (Figure 2a). Here, we observed that concurrent CO₂ treatment effects again tended to appear 329 during later decay stages ($P_{time:treatment} = 0.001$), but the timing of this effect was inconsistent 330 331 depending on whether the litter was impacted by psyllids and the number of months of decay ($P_{time:treatment:psyllid} = 0.02$; Figure 2b). For litter impacted by psyllids, we observed an 332 ephemeral increase, after 12 months, in decomposition for litter derived from leaves that 333 334 developed under elevated CO₂ relative to those developing under ambient CO₂. For litter unimpacted by psyllids, we observed this same pattern but not until 16 months into the study. 335 Additional effects on litter decomposition were observed in the second study that 336 were dependent on the condition that leaves developed under but were independent of the 337 CO_2 treatment during decay ($P_{time:previousTreatment:psyllid} = 0.02$; Figure 2c). This was due to an 338 339 ephemeral increase in decomposition after eight months for litter from leaves developing under elevated CO₂, relative to those developing under ambient CO₂, but only in the absence 340 of the psyllid outbreak. 341

343 Differences in fungal assemblages, but not litter chemistry, existed prior to observed CO₂

344 effects on litter decomposition

345 We observed strong compositional variation in fungal assemblages in the first study when 346 comparing fresh leaves, litter collected prior to the observation of CO₂ effect on 347 decomposition and litter collection after the observation of this effect (Figure S3). When 348 focussing only on assemblages in litter collected prior to that effect (Figure 3; Table S2), we 349 observed significant effects of CO₂ treatment (PerMANOVA, P < 0.05; $R^2 = 0.039$) and mesh size (P = 0.001; $R^2 = 0.151$) but no interaction between those terms (P > 0.9). This is despite 350 our observation that litter N and P concentrations were similar between these treatments at 351 that time ($P_{\text{treatment}} > 0.7$ for both; [N] = 2.6 +/- 0.1%, [P] = 0.13 +/- 0.02%; mean +/- SD). 352 Two fungal OTUs had a significantly higher frequency in the elevated CO₂ treatment (Table 353 S3): one with >99% identity with an isolate of *Pilidium anglicum* and one likely belonging to 354 the Xylariales. 355

356

In the second study we observed large differences when comparing fresh leaves and litter, but 357 fungal assemblages in litter were highly variable and were difficult to differentiate by the 358 359 number of months undergoing decay (Figure S4). Again, we observed variation in fungal assemblages associated with the CO₂ treatment (PerMANOVA, P < 0.01) during decay even 360 before CO₂ effects on decay were observed (Figure 4; Table S5) and, again, N and P 361 concentrations were similar between these treatments at that time, accounting for variation in 362 initial chemistry among litter from different sources ($P_{treatment} > 0.8$ and P > 0.06 for 363 interactions involving 'treatment'; [N] = 1.5 + 0.3%, [P] = 0.03 + 0.02%; mean +/- SD). 364 We also observed significant effects of the CO_2 condition during leaf development (P = 365 (0.001) and whether leaves were psyllid impacted (P = 0.001) on fungal assemblages in that 366 same litter, with the psyllid condition having the most important effect (differentiation along 367

axis 1 of the CAP plots in Figure 4; $R^2 = 0.044$), the CO₂ treatment during litter development 368 being the second-most important (axis 2, y-axis of the plot in Figure 4a; $R^2 = 0.023$) and the 369 CO₂ treatment during litter decay being the third-most important (axis 3, y-axis of the plot in 370 Figure 4b; $R^2 = 0.019$), despite most variation remaining unexplained (residual $R^2 = 0.88$). 371 No significant interactions among terms were observed (all P > 0.5). Six fungal OTUs had a 372 373 significantly higher frequency in the ambient CO₂ treatment, five with >95% identity to 374 genera in the Pleosporales and one with a match to the genus Cyphellophora (Table S5). Five 375 fungal OTUs had a significantly higher frequency in the elevated CO₂ treatment, with 376 variable levels of matches to taxa in the Chaetothyriales (two OTUs), Tremellales (one OTU 377 with 100% identity to Papiliotrema flavescens), Capnodiales and Pezizales. Several OTUs were significantly associated with conditions during leaf development (13 OTUs for prior 378 CO₂ condition, Table S6, and 19 OTUs for psyllid condition, Table S7). 379

380

381

382 **Discussion**

Our main hypothesis was that eCO₂ would enhance leaf litter decomposition rates at 383 384 this site *via* increased activity of saprotrophs and detritivores and that the effect would be moderated by eCO₂ and herbivore effects on leaf chemistry during growth and on whether 385 macrofauna could access litter. Consistent with our main hypothesis, litter mass loss 386 increased at eCO₂ at late decay stages in both studies, but this occurred mostly independently 387 of CO₂ concentration under which the leaves were grown, macrofauna exclusion and 388 389 herbivore presence. Our results differ from the general observation that eCO₂ has a negative 390 albeit slight impact on decomposition of litter from woody species in forests (e.g., Norby et al., 2001; Wu et al., 2020) but align well with those of Hall et al. (2006) who found that long-391 term leaf litter decomposition was higher at eCO₂, irrespectively of whether it was grown at 392

393 ambient or elevated CO₂, alongside enhanced accumulation of mineral N indicating greater 394 microbial activity. Other studies have found that eCO₂ contribute to greater soil organic matter turnover. For example, Carney et al. (2007) found that six-year doubling of CO2 395 396 negatively impacted soil organic matter content offsetting more than half of the C 397 accumulated in the biomass aboveground and coarse roots over the same period although no 398 increase in litter decomposition was observed. The increase in soil organic matter degradation 399 was linked to greater relative abundances of fungi and greater activity of C degrading 400 enzymes. Hence, eCO₂ may enhance organic matter turnover with potential implications for 401 C dynamics in forests.

402 It has been shown that eCO₂ increases plant water use efficiency which can have a positive effect on soil water content and through this soil biological activity (Hall et al., 2006; 403 Phillips et al., 2011). We found no consistent effects of eCO₂ on soil water content during 404 either of the two studies, and even a tendency for reduced soil water content, which is 405 406 consistent with previous findings at the site (Pathare et al., 2017; Ginemo et al., 2018). Hence, it is more likely that the eCO₂ effect is mediated by biological activity through 407 408 changes in plant carbon inputs and nutrient requirements. We have no direct measurement to 409 confirm this but previous findings have shown seasonal increases in N and P availability and mineralization (Hasegawa et al., 2016), and modification of enzyme activities related to C 410 411 degradation (starch and cellulose specifically; Ochoa-Hueso et al., 2017) indicating enhanced soil biological activity at eCO₂. Similarly, enhanced soil respiration observed under eCO₂ at 412 the site indicate greater turnover of soil organic C (Jiang et al., 2020). Specifically, increased 413 414 belowground allocation of photosynthetically-derived C may prime organic matter turnover. While most studies to date have focussed on soil organic C, there is evidence that a similar 415 effect could influence decomposition processes. For example, it has been hypothesized that 416 417 AM fungi can contribute to enhanced C cycling under eCO₂ by stimulating saprotrophic

decomposition of soil organic matter via greater host-derived belowground C allocation 418 419 (Cheng et al., 2012; Parihar et al., 2020). Accordingly, AM and saprotrophic fungi may 420 interact at eCO₂ to enhance litter decomposition as observed in this study (leaf litter) and in a 421 previous study at the site (root litter; Castañeda-Gómez et al., 2020). However, a laboratory 422 study found that AM fungi and low P-availability protect soil organic matter from 423 saprotrophic decomposition while higher C cycling and microbial biomass at eCO₂ enhance 424 SOM decomposition (Castañeda-Gómez et al., 2022). This mechanism should be tested more 425 rigorously.

426 Another possible explanation for the increase in litter mass loss at eCO₂ is *via* a shift 427 in understory plant community composition. Specifically, while limited effects on overstory (Jiang et al., 2020) or understory (Collins et al., 2018) productivity has been observed at the 428 study site, eCO₂ has been shown to increase the dominance (Hasegawa et al., 2018) and 429 photosynthetic rates (Pathare et al., 2017) of the dominant C3 grass at the site. C3 grasses are 430 431 considered to produce higher quality leaf litter than co-occurring C4 grasses. Hence, this shift in composition and greater photosynthetic rates may result in greater inputs of more easily 432 433 degradable leaf litter which could increase microbial activity with cascading effects on 434 decomposition of the more recalcitrant Eucalyptus litter (Hättenschwiler et al., 2005). This is consistent also with the higher rates of nutrient availability observed at some time points 435 436 (Hasegawa et al., 2016; Ochoa-Hueso et al., 2017).

437 Consistent with previous findings (e.g., Wall *et al.*, 2008; García-Palacios *et al.*,

438 2013), the exclusion of soil fauna had a significant impact on litter decomposition

439 irrespective of CO₂ treatment although we only excluded macrofauna. The response ratio for

440 eCO₂ when macrofauna were included appeared greater but this was not significant.

441 Interestingly, this occurred despite the observation that eCO₂ result in fewer ground dwelling

442 macrofauna, including the known decomposers Isopoda, at the site (Facey *et al.*, 2017).

Similarly, previous studies suggest that eCO₂ generally have a negative effect on mesofauna
(Blankinship *et al.*, 2011; A'bear *et al.*, 2014) although no eCO₂ effects on mite densities or
community composition have been observed at this site (Ross *et al.*, 2020). Hence, these
findings suggest that the higher litter decomposition rates at eCO₂ are not driven by increased
soil fauna densities.

448 Gherlenda *et al.* (2016b) found that eCO₂ impacted psyllid performance during the 449 outbreak, with fewer lerps (protective casings) produced by one flush-feeding and two 450 senescence feeding species as well as compensatory feeding by the flush-feeding Glycaspis at 451 eCO₂. In turn, the presence of psyllids likely affected leaf chemistry through herbivoryinduced changes in plant physiology which have been observed in other studies to increase 452 leaf quality (Chapman et al., 2003; Hall et al., 2006). This may explain the observation that 453 eCO₂ only enhanced litter decomposition of material collected after the psyllid-outbreak had 454 completed. We did examine litter N and P concentrations on a small number of samples prior 455 456 to the start of each study (Table S1), but not enough to have confidence in whether differences existed among the different growth conditions. 457

We cannot demonstrate that altered composition of fungal assemblages was 458 459 responsible for eCO₂-associated increases in decomposition rates in the two studies, but the fact that compositional differences existed prior to those increases leads us to speculate that 460 461 could be the case. Some of the fungal taxa associated with eCO₂ are associated with lineages known to have capacity for saprotrophy of recalcitrant carbon sources. Plectania has been 462 observed associated with litter at high frequencies during later stages of decomposition (Bani 463 464 et al., 2019). Papiliotrema was observed in association with avocado peels during a stage of rapid decay (Becerra-Lucio et al., 2021), although the best match here was to a yeast known 465 as a facultative pathogen also associating with trees (Serna-Espinosa et al., 2023). Members 466 of the Xylariales have demonstrated an association with decaying litter (Osono *et al.*, 2012) 467

and a capacity to break down lignocellulose (Nghi *et al.*, 2012). The identity of taxa
associated with eCO₂ in each study differed, suggesting that redundancy could exist in terms
of the fungi responding positively in an eCO₂ environment and possibly responsible for
enhanced decay rates.

472 Here we were able to take advantage of a rare opportunity arising from two significant 473 circumstances to observe increases in litter decomposition during exposure to eCO₂. These 474 increases may have been due to shifting fungal community composition but also appeared to 475 be independent of eCO₂ and herbivore effects on leaf chemistry during growth and on 476 whether macrofauna could access litter. The establishment and continuing support of 477 EucFACE allowed us to perform, over a period of eight years, two complementary studies under different (but representative for this climate) field conditions and to observe 478 consistency in the responses associated with eCO₂ under those conditions. The support for 479 long-term monitoring of core data streams, here involving monthly monitoring of litter 480 481 production, and archival of sampled materials allowed us to take advantage of a natural experiment involving a psyllid outbreak and to compare effects associated with eCO₂ to those 482 483 associated with litter quality. Few examples come to mind where long-term experimental 484 manipulations, continuous monitoring and natural experiments have come together to enhance our general understanding of how ecosystems are likely to respond to environmental 485 486 change. One such example includes the observation, over the course of almost 20 years, that N mineralisation responded to eCO₂ on different timeframes under C₃ and C₄ plants, 487 488 controlling their short- and long-term responses (Reich et al., 2018). Examples such as this, 489 and ours, highlight the value of long-term experimental observatories and the need for 490 research organisations and funders to support them (Kuebbing et al., 2018).

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705 Table 1: Analysis of Variance table showing significance of fixed effects and interactions

associated with CO₂ treatment (ambient or ambient + 150 ppm), mesh size (2 mm or 4 mm)
 and duration of decomposition for litter mass remaining at harvest. 'Plot' and 'Sublot' were

included as random effects. Raw data and model predictions are shown in Figure 1. 'df' = degrees of freedom.

Term	F-statistic	df _{numerator}	$df_{denominator}$	P-value
Harvest	850.6	5	438	< 0.001
CO ₂ treatment (litter)	1	1	4	0.37
Mesh size	87.9	1	438	< 0.001
Harvest:CO ₂	6.9	5	438	< 0.001
Harvest:Mesh	7.5	3	438	< 0.001
CO ₂ :Mesh	0.7	1	438	0.409
Harvest:CO ₂ :Mesh	1.2	3	438	0.309

Table 2: Analysis of Variance table showing significance of fixed effects and interactions
associated with CO₂ treatment (ambient or ambient + 150 ppm) during leaf development
('leaf') and litter decomposition ('litter'), psyllid presence during leaf development and
duration of decomposition for litter mass remaining at harvest in the second study. 'Plot' and
'Sublot' were included as random effects. Raw data and model predictions are shown in

Figure 2. 'df' = degrees of freedom.

				P-
Term	F-statistic	$df_{numerator}$	$df_{denominator}$	value
Harvest	239.8	3	324	<
				0.001
CO ₂ treatment (litter)	4.5	1	4	0.1
CO ₂ treatment (leaf)	2	1	324	0.157
Psyllid	2.5	1	324	0.113
Harvest:CO ₂ [litter]	5.3	3	324	0.001
Harvest:CO ₂ [leaf]	0.3	3	324	0.844
CO ₂ [litter]:CO ₂ [leaf]	0.8	1	324	0.36
Harvest:Psyllid	1	3	324	0.374
CO ₂ [litter]:Psyllid	0.2	1	324	0.693
CO ₂ [leaf]:Psyllid	4.7	1	324	0.03
Harvest:CO ₂ [litter]:CO ₂ [leaf]	1.4	3	324	0.235
Harvest:CO ₂ [litter]:Psyllid	3.3	3	324	0.021
Harvest:CO ₂ [leaf]:Psyllid	1.6	3	324	0.192
CO ₂ [litter]:CO ₂ [leaf]:Psyllid	0.7	1	324	0.388
Harvest:CO ₂ [litter]:CO ₂ [leaf]:Psyllid	1	3	324	0.39

718 Figure captions

719

720 Figure 1. CO₂ effect on litter decomposition in the first study for each timepoint. Litter was 721 contained within bags with two mesh sizes (2mm or 4mm). (a) Box-and-whisker plots 722 showing mass remaining in litterbags over the course of the study under ambient or elevated 723 (+150 ppm) CO₂ conditions. (b) Effect sizes associated with the CO₂ treatment during 724 decomposition for each timepoint and mesh size relative to ambient CO₂. Dots represent the 725 log response ratio calculated from mean values of mass remaining. Negative values indicate 726 greater decomposition of litter under elevated CO₂ ('eCO2') than under ambient CO₂ 727 ('aCO2'). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals; note that the error bars for the point on the right extend beyond the y-axis limits (actual minimum = -8.47, actual maximum =728 4.87) 729 730 731 Figure 2. CO₂ effect on litter decomposition in the second study for each timepoint. Leaf litter developed under ambient or elevated CO₂ conditions and during or after a psyllid 732 733 outbreak at the site. (a) Box-and-whisker plots showing mass remaining in litterbags over the 734 course of the study. (b-c) Effect sizes associated with the CO₂ treatment during decomposition (b) or during leaf development (c) for each timepoint and condition. Dots 735 represent the log response ratio calculated from mean values of mass remaining. Negative 736 values indicate greater decomposition of litter under the elevated CO₂ ('eCO₂') condition 737 during litter decay (b) or leaf development (c) than under ambient CO₂ ('aCO2'). Error bars 738 739 represent 95% confidence intervals. 740

Figure 3. Ordination of fungal assemblages associated with litter collected during the harvest
prior to the observation of CO₂ effects on decomposition in the first study (after three months)

for 4 mm mesh and after six months for 2 mm mesh). OTU data were analysed using
constrained analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) using Bray-Curtis dissimilarities.
Variation along the first CAP axis (percentage of partitioned variation in parentheses) was
associated primarily with the size of holes in the litter-containing mesh, while the second was
associated primarily with the CO₂ treatment during decomposition. Lines connecting
external points for each group are to facilitate visualisation of patterns and are based on
concave hulls.

750

751 Figure 4. Ordinations of fungal assemblages associated with litter collected during the harvest prior to the observation of CO₂ effects on decomposition in the second study (after eight 752 753 months). OTU data were analysed using constrained analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) using Bray-Curtis dissimilarities. Variation along the first CAP axis (percentage of 754 partitioned variation in parentheses) was associated primarily with when the litter was 755 756 collected (coincident with the occurrence of a psyllid outbreak or in the years following), while the second and third axes were associated primarily with the CO₂ treatment during leaf 757 development (a) or during decomposition (b). Lines connecting external points for each 758 759 group are to facilitate visualisation of patterns and are based on concave hulls. 760 761

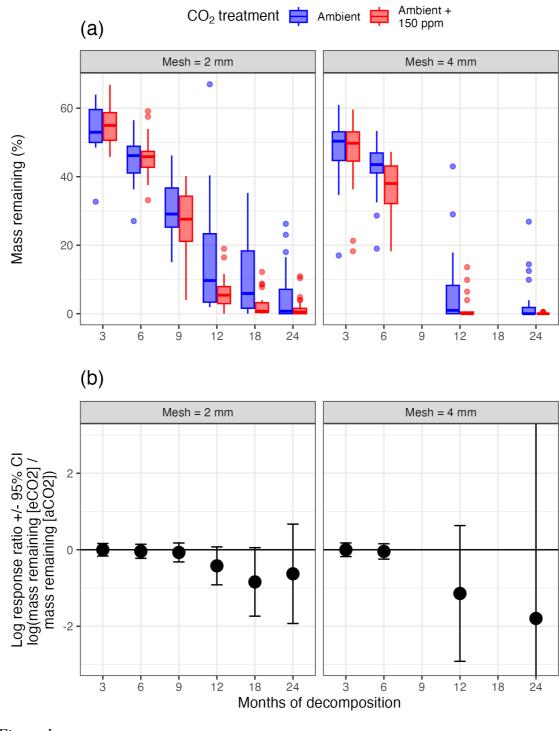
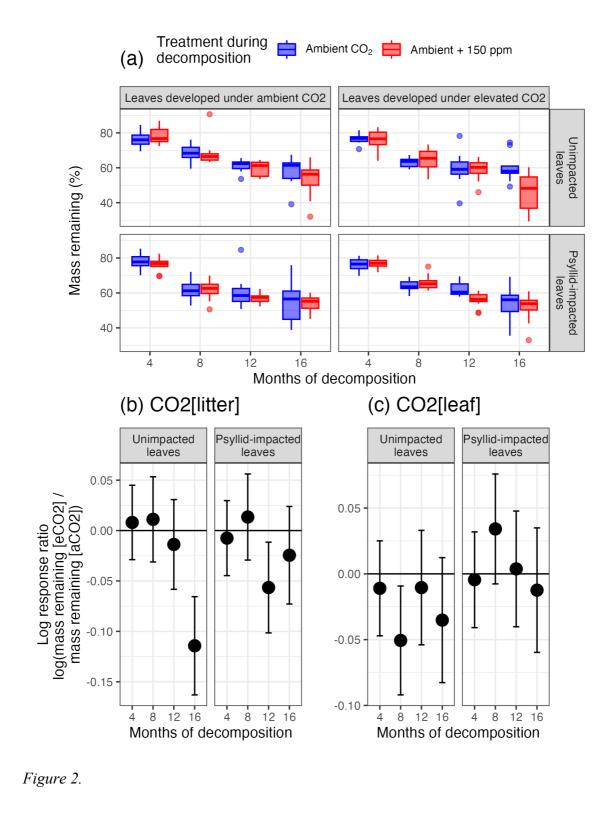
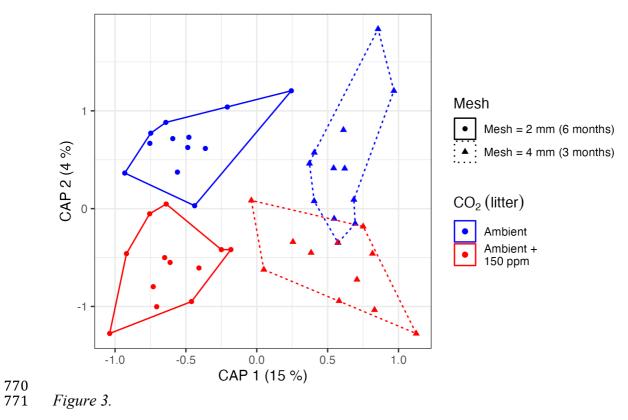
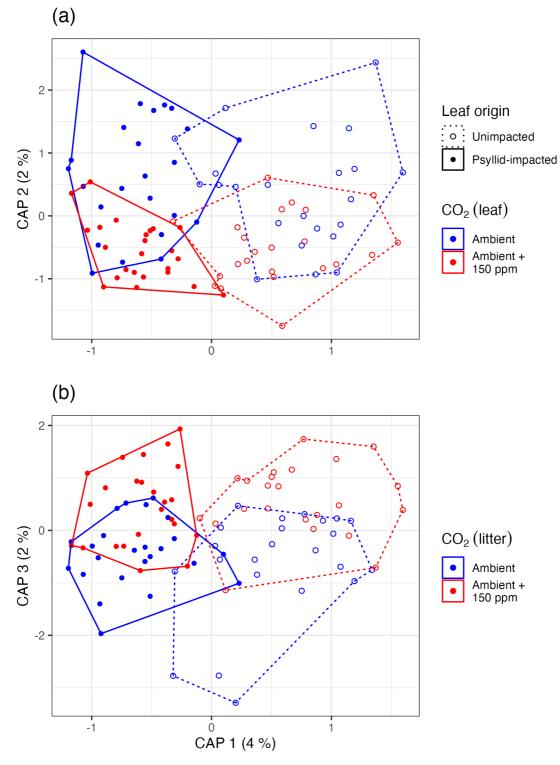


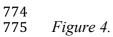
Figure 1.













Supplementary Materials: Elevated CO₂ enhances decomposition and modifies litterassociated fungal assemblages in a natural *Eucalyptus* woodland

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Hawkesbury Institute for the Environment, Western Sydney University, Locked Bag 1797, Penrith 2751, New South Wales, Australia *Equal contribution, #Corresponding author – jeff.powell@westernsydney.edu.au Table S1. Initial nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations of litter used in each decomposition study and, for the second study, each condition for leaf development prior to litter collection.

Study	Previous CO2 condition	Psyllid exposure	Samples	Mean %N	SD %N	Mean %P	SD %P
1	ambient	-	3	1.8	0.1	0.11	0.03
2	ambient	unimpacted	3	1.1	0.1	0.01	0.01
		Psyllid-impacted	3	1.3	0.6	0.02	0
	elevated	unimpacted	2	1.3	0.4	0.03	0.02
		Psyllid-impacted	3	1.2	0.2	0.04	0.04

Table S2. PerMANOVA analysis of fungal assemblages in the first study (Trt = CO_2 treatment during decomposition, Mesh = hole size in litter-containing mesh). OTU tables were analysed using Bray-Curtis dissimilarities.

```
## Permutation test for adonis under reduced model
## Terms added sequentially (first to last)
## Permutation: free
## Number of permutations: 999
##
## adonis2(formula = mat ~ Trt * Mesh, data = temp)
           Df SumOfSqs
                            R2
                                   F Pr(>F)
##
            1 0.1945 0.03885 2.0880 0.012 *
## Trt
            1 0.7572 0.15119 8.1268 0.001 ***
## Mesh
## Trt:Mesh 1 0.0501 0.00999 0.5372 0.956
## Residual 43 4.0064 0.79997
## Total
           46 5.0081 1.00000
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Table S3. Indicator OTUs associated with ambient or elevated CO_2 conditions during litter decomposition in the first study.

OTU ID	Litter condition	А	В	Score	P-value	Phylum	Order	Genus	Species	Guild	Confidence ranking
ITSall_OTUa_3984	eCO2	0.75	0.74	0.75	0.003	Ascomycota	Helotiales	Pilidium	Pilidium_anglicum	Plant Pathogen	Probable
ITSall_OTUg_25	eCO2	0.9	0.3	0.52	0.007	Ascomycota	Xylariales	NA	NA	NA	NA

Table S4. PerMANOVA analysis of fungal assemblages in the second study ($Trt = CO_2$ treatment during litter decomposition, prevTrt = CO_2 treatment during leaf development, psyllid = whether litter was impacted by a psyllid outbreak during leaf development). OTU tables were analysed using Bray-Curtis dissimilarities.

```
## Permutation test for adonis under reduced model
## Terms added sequentially (first to last)
## Permutation: free
## Number of permutations: 999
##
## adonis2(formula = mat ~ Trt * prevTrt * psyllid, data = temp)
##
                      Df SumOfSqs
                                      R2
                                              F Pr(>F)
                       1 0.2630 0.01861 1.8161 0.011 *
## Trt
## prevTrt
                      1 0.3200 0.02263 2.2092 0.004 **
## psyllid
                       1 0.6262 0.04429 4.3232 0.001 ***
## Trt:prevTrt
                       1 0.1050 0.00743 0.7249 0.880
## Trt:psyllid
                       1 0.1356 0.00960 0.9365 0.527
## prevTrt:psyllid
                       1 0.1233 0.00872 0.8511 0.677
## Trt:prevTrt:psyllid 1 0.1074 0.00759 0.7412 0.865
## Residual
                     86 12.4562 0.88113
## Total
                      93 14.1366 1.00000
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Table S5. Indicator OTUs associated with ambient or elevated CO	2 conditions during l	litter decom	position in the seco	ond study.
	2		F	

OTU ID	Litter condition	А	В	Score	P-value	Phylum	Order	Genus	Species	Guild	Confidence ranking
ITSall_OTUb_91	aCO2	0.79	0.45	0.6	0.001	Ascomycota	Pleosporales	Neptunomyces	NA	Endophyte-Lichen Parasite-Plant Pathogen-Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUa_1601	aCO2	0.81	0.38	0.56	0.003	Ascomycota	Pleosporales	Shiraia	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_2354	aCO2	0.85	0.34	0.54	0.004	Ascomycota	Pleosporales	NA	NA	Fungal Parasite-Plant Pathogen-Plant Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUa_2071	aCO2	0.86	0.23	0.45	0.01	Ascomycota	Pleosporales	Didymocyrtis	Didymocyrtis_cladoniicola	Lichen Parasite	Highly Probable
ITSall_OTUa_1097	aCO2	0.94	0.19	0.42	0.007	Ascomycota	Chaetothyriales	Cyphellophora	NA	Animal Pathogen-Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUa_1554	eCO2	0.95	0.57	0.74	0.001	Ascomycota	Chaetothyriales	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_241	eCO2	0.82	0.3	0.49	0.006	Basidiomycota	Tremellales	Papiliotrema	Papiliotrema_flavescens	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_598	eCO2	1	0.23	0.48	0.001	Ascomycota	Pezizales	Plectania	NA	Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUg_304	eCO2	0.88	0.23	0.45	0.006	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	Cladosporium	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUi_3676	eCO2	1	0.17	0.41	0.004	Ascomycota	Chaetothyriales	NA	NA	Animal Pathogen-Fungal Parasite-Undefined Saprotroph	Probable

	Leaf				P-						Confidence
OTU ID	condition	А	В	Score	value	Phylum	Order	Genus	Species	Guild	ranking
ITSall_OTUa_310	aCO2	0.79	0.64	0.71	0.001	Ascomycota	Chaetosphaeriales	Dictyochaeta	NA	Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUa_2280	aCO2	0.88	0.53	0.68	0.001	Basidiomycota	Sporidiobolales	Rhodotorula	NA	Animal Endosymbiont-Animal Pathogen-Endophyte-Plant Pathogen-Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUc_2779	aCO2	0.85	0.47	0.63	0.001	Ascomycota	Chaetosphaeriales	Dictyochaeta	NA	Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUa_15	aCO2	0.81	0.49	0.63	0.001	Basidiomycota	Tremellales	Saitozyma	Saitozyma_podzolica	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUb_196	aCO2	0.79	0.4	0.57	0.008	Ascomycota	Eurotiales	Talaromyces	NA	Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUa_43	aCO2	0.76	0.4	0.55	0.01	Ascomycota	Eurotiales	Talaromyces	NA	Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUa_956	aCO2	1	0.26	0.51	0.001	Ascomycota	Helotiales	Articulospora	NA	Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUi_794	aCO2	0.84	0.3	0.5	0.005	Ascomycota	Dothideales	Aureobasidium	NA	Animal Pathogen-Endophyte-Epiphyte-Plant Pathogen-Undefined Saprotroph	Possible
ITSall_OTUa_241	aCO2	0.81	0.3	0.49	0.005	Basidiomycota	Tremellales	Papiliotrema	Papiliotrema_flavescens	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUg_304	aCO2	0.91	0.26	0.48	0.004	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	Cladosporium	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUe_3884	aCO2	0.93	0.21	0.45	0.003	Ascomycota	Eurotiales	Penicillium	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_5159	eCO2	0.77	0.55	0.65	0.001	Basidiomycota	Septobasidiales	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_6378	eCO2	0.8	0.53	0.65	0.001	Basidiomycota	Microbotryomycetes_ord_Incertae_sedis	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_4331	eCO2	0.78	0.38	0.55	0.004	Basidiomycota	Microbotryomycetes_ord_Incertae_sedis	NA	NA	NA	NA

Table S6. Indicator OTUs associated with ambient or elevated CO_2 conditions during leaf development in the second study.

OTU ID	Leaf condition	А	В	Score	P-value	Phylum	Order	Genus	Species	Guild	Confidence ranking
ITSall_OTUa_768	psyllid-impacted	0.93	0.27	0.5	0.005	Ascomycota	Eurotiales	Talaromyces	NA	Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUa_3266	unimpacted	0.94	0.76	0.85	0.005	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_4152	unimpacted	0.95	0.74	0.84	0.005	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	Myrtapenidiella	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_6576	unimpacted	0.97	0.65	0.8	0.005	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	Austroafricana	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_5973	unimpacted	0.93	0.67	0.79	0.005	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	Austroafricana	Austroafricana_associata	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_7029	unimpacted	0.78	0.72	0.75	0.005	Basidiomycota	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_4902	unimpacted	0.8	0.67	0.73	0.005	Basidiomycota	Tremellales	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_3166	unimpacted	0.95	0.54	0.72	0.005	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	Readeriella	NA	Plant Pathogen	Probable
ITSall_OTUb_2856	unimpacted	0.96	0.48	0.68	0.005	Ascomycota	Venturiales	Sympoventuria	NA	Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUc_2437	unimpacted	1	0.41	0.64	0.005	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_5744	unimpacted	0.86	0.48	0.64	0.005	Basidiomycota	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_5382	unimpacted	0.9	0.41	0.61	0.005	Ascomycota	Chaetothyriales	NA	NA	Animal Pathogen-Fungal Parasite-Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUi_1663	unimpacted	0.87	0.41	0.6	0.005	Basidiomycota	Tremellales	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_3856	unimpacted	1	0.35	0.59	0.005	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	Teratosphaeria	Teratosphaeria_mexicana	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_9675	unimpacted	0.76	0.46	0.59	0.005	Basidiomycota	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_5209	unimpacted	1	0.33	0.57	0.005	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUb_2874	unimpacted	1	0.28	0.53	0.005	Ascomycota	Capnodiales	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUg_315	unimpacted	0.92	0.2	0.42	0.005	Ascomycota	Chaetothyriales	NA	NA	Animal Pathogen-Fungal Parasite-Undefined Saprotroph	Probable
ITSall_OTUa_7092	unimpacted	1	0.17	0.42	0.005	Basidiomycota	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
ITSall_OTUa_1829	unimpacted	0.82	0.17	0.38	0.01	Ascomycota	Xylariales	Gyrothrix	Gyrothrix_eucalypti	NA	NA

Table S7. Indicator OTUs associated with the timing of litter collection prior to initiation of the second study.

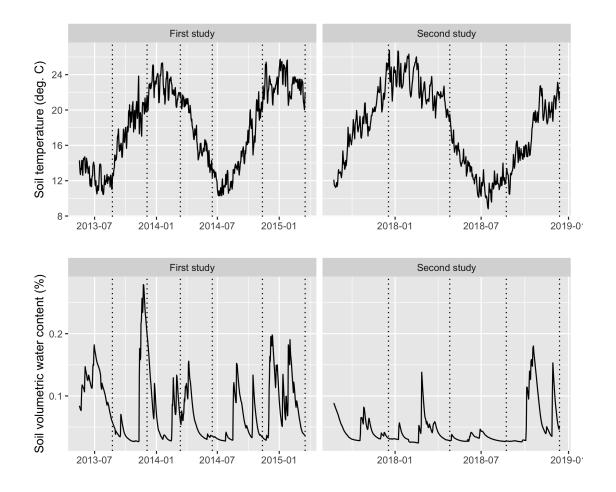


Figure S1. Soil temperature and moisture conditions in the top 10 cm of soil during the two studies. Lines represent average values across all sensors (48 for soil moisture, 16 for soil temperature). Dashed vertical lines indicate sampling dates.

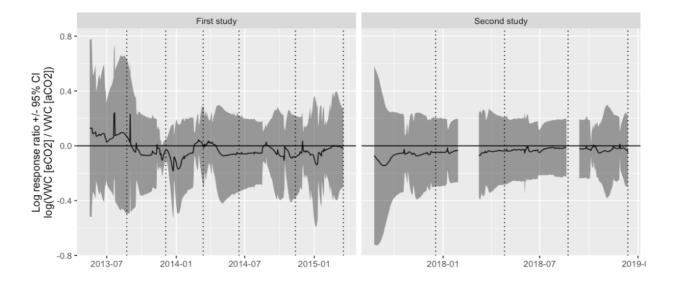


Figure S2. Effect sizes associated with elevated CO2 on soil volumetric water content (VWC) were within the margin of error for almost the entire duration of both studies, with only one short period in the first study where soil moisture was lower in the elevated CO2 treatment relative to ambient conditions. Therefore, it is unlikely that differences in soil microclimate were responsible for treatment effects on decomposition rates. Solid lines represent mean effect sizes (negative values indicate drier soil moisture conditions under elevated CO2) and ribbons represent 95% confidence intervals. Dashed vertical lines indicate sampling dates. Gaps in the data are during periods where sensor data were not recorded for one or more plots.

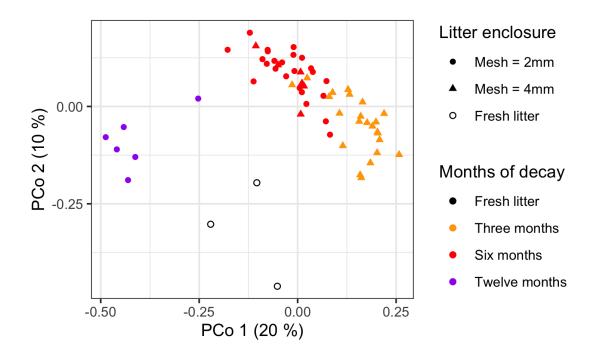


Figure S3. Ordination of litter fungal communities across all characterised samples in the first study. OTU data were analysed using principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities.

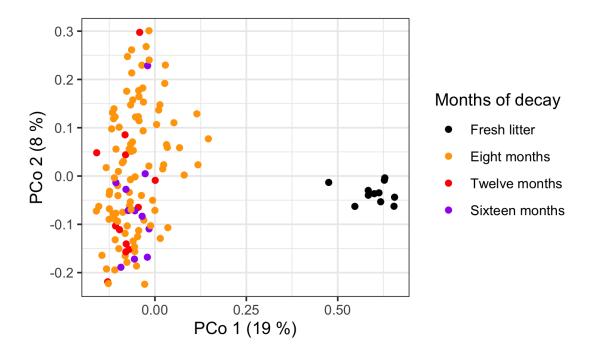


Figure S4. Ordination of litter fungal communities across all characterised samples in the second study. OTU data were analysed using principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities.