



## Mosaic coexistence of two subalpine grassland types as a consequence of soil nutrient heterogeneity

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### ABSTRACT

High-mountain areas often exhibit high soil heterogeneity, which allows for the close coexistence of plant species and communities with contrasting resource requirements. This study investigated the nutritional factors driving the mosaic distribution of *Nardus stricta* L. grasslands and chalk grasslands dominated by forbs in the subalpine southern Pyrenees (Spain). The concentrations of C, N, P, S, K, Ca and fiber fractions in herbage were analyzed in relation to soil nutrient availability; soil  $\beta$ -glucosidase, urease, phosphatase and arylsulfatase activities; and plant species and functional type compositions. The chalk grassland showed higher N:P ratios in herbage and higher enzyme demand for P relative to N in the soil, which indicates a greater limitation of P versus N compared to *Nardus* grassland. This limitation was related to the higher soil and plant Ca levels in the chalk grassland, where the calcareous bedrock lies close to the soil surface. In the *Nardus* grasslands, the alleviation of P limitation translated into increased productivity and the replacement of forbs with taller graminoids rich in structural carbohydrates, which was mirrored by greater  $\beta$ -D-glucosidase activity. The plant N:K and P:K ratios indicated potential K deficiency in both grasslands, which resulted from decreased uptake of K in competition with Ca, as indicated by the correlation between plant K and the soil  $K^+ : Ca^{2+}$  ratio. Our results highlight the effect of the heterogeneity of soil nutrient constraints, mediated by stoichiometry and dependent on microtopography, on the biodiversity of high-mountain ecosystems.

### 1. Introduction

Soils of high-mountain (alpine and subalpine) areas are typically young soils whose properties vary greatly depending on the local topography and bedrock (Egli and Poulénard, 2016; Körner, 2021). As a result, mountain landscapes are often mosaic-like, with distinct vegetation types growing under contrasting soil conditions within relatively short distances (Vonlanthen et al., 2006; Amagai et al., 2018). This contributes to making them hotspots of biodiversity and priorities for conservation (Körner, 2004; Egli and Poulénard, 2016).

The calcareous (as opposed to noncalcareous) nature of bedrock has been identified as a major factor affecting the distribution of plants in high-mountain habitats (Braun-Blanquet and Jenny (1926); Michalet et al., 2002; Buri et al., 2020), which is mainly explained by the occurrence of high calcium (Ca) concentrations and basic pH conditions

in young calcareous soils (Körner, 2021). The plants growing on such soils must respond and adapt to limitations in the availability of phosphorus (P), iron (Fe) and other micronutrients, the solubility of which may decrease with increased soil pH and Ca (Kishchuk, 2000; Lambers and Oliveira, 2019). Furthermore, a high pH favors nitrogen (N) conversion to ammonia and subsequent volatilization, which may lead to low N availability (Cameron et al., 2013). Excess Ca may also result in potassium (K) limitation due to plant uptake competition for cations (Kishchuk, 2000). Several studies have documented P limitation in high-mountain soils formed on calcareous bedrock (e.g., Köhler et al., 2001; Sebastião 2004; Arnesen et al., 2007; Kaňa et al., 2011; Bhople et al., 2021), although N limitation (Niklaus et al., 1998; Li et al., 2019) or colimitation by both N and P and occasionally by K (Niinemets and Kull, 2005; Bassin et al., 2012) have also been identified.

Plant communities dominated by matgrass (*Nardus stricta* L.)

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(hereafter referred to as *Nardus* grasslands) are among the most widespread natural habitats in Europe and are mostly located in mountain areas (Galvanek and Janak, 2008). *Nardus* grasslands (especially the high-mountain types) host a variety of endemic and threatened plant species, resulting in them being identified as priority habitats for conservation under the Habitats Directive of the European Union (6230\*, Council Directive 92/43/CEE). They can be regarded as acidophilous, growing often on base-poor soils on siliceous rocks but can also be found on soils lying on calcareous rocks where the upper layer is decalcified due to high rainfall and landform stability (Galvanek and Janak, 2008; Leuschner and Ellenberg, 2017). Armas-Herrera et al. (2020) showed that patches of *Nardus* grassland can coexist within a few meters with patches of grasses and herbs that prefer calcareous soils (usually referred to as chalk grassland), resulting in a repeating vegetation mosaic characteristic of certain high-mountain areas of the Pyrenees. This pattern results from differential soil erosion, which creates soil conditions conducive to either chalk grasslands or *Nardus* grasslands (Bada-Villas et al., 2020). Studies by Armas-Herrera et al. (2020) and Bada-Villas et al. (2020) revealed contrasting soil thicknesses, stoniness, acid/base statuses (pH, Ca) and organic matter-related properties among patches of *Nardus* and chalk grasslands. However, the specific soil conditions that influence the occurrence of one or the other grassland type, i.e., limitation by one or more nutrients, have not been determined.

The nutrient status of a habitat is regularly assessed by the concentrations of nutrients available to plants in the soil, although the nutrient levels in plant tissues can also be informative, as they provide information about the actual nutrient uptake by plants (Motsara and Roy, 2008). An important issue is the stoichiometry of nutrients, whose use by plants is coupled to each other's, which causes plants to require them in regular proportions and to undergo limitations when one is in shorter supply (Knecht and Goransson, 2004; Agren, 2008). The studies by Koerselman and Meuleman (1996) and Gusewell (2004) established critical values for the N:P ratio of plants that have been widely used for the assessment of relative limitation by N or P, which are the most common limiting nutrients on a community level. Other studies have derived critical ratios involving other major nutrients, such as sulfur (S) (Sumner, 1978; Stevens and Watson, 1986; Mathot, 2005; Ryant and Skladanka, 2009) or K (Dampney, 1992; Pegtel et al., 1996; Olde Venetrik et al., 2003; Lawniczak et al., 2009), to determine their possible limitations. Another point of interest is the stoichiometry of the soil enzymes responsible for the cycling of organic C, N, P and S. These enzymes are produced by soil microorganisms and plants in variable amounts depending on their requirements and the availability of these nutrients in the environment (Allison and Vitousek, 2005; Sinsabaugh et al., 2008). Hence, the ratios of the activities of enzymes involved in the release of C, N, P and S mirror the relative demand for each nutrient and can be used as indicators of nutrient limitations (Sinsabaugh et al., 2008; Luo et al., 2017; Cui et al., 2021).

Based on the assumption that the different soil decalcifications under the patches of *Nardus* and chalk grasslands may lead to differing limitations by N, P and/or K, we investigated the following: (1) whether the patchy coexistence of *Nardus* and chalk grasslands in the Pyrenees runs parallel to spatially heterogeneous nutrient limitations and (2) if this is the case, what nutrients may be limiting for each vegetation type? To this end, the nutrient status of the two vegetation types was assessed by the chemical composition of the herbage and the potential activities of soil enzymes from the cycles of C, N, P and S and was related to the availability of nutrients in the soil and the plant species composition.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Study area and field work

The study was conducted at the locality of La Estiva de Fanlo, near the National Park of Ordesa and Monte Perdido in the southern Central Pyrenees (province of Huesca, Spain). La Estiva is a summer grazing area

located at altitudes ranging from 1,700 to 1,900 m a.s.l. in the subalpine belt of Monte Perdido, the highest calcareous mountain in Europe (3,355 m a.s.l.). According to the data from the nearest meteorological station (Supplementary material, Figure S1), the mean annual temperature is approximately 5 °C, and the annual precipitation is approximately 1,700 mm, with snow precipitation occurring from October to May.

The study area covers approximately 250 ha and has a topography of convex–concave slopes. The bedrock consists of bioclastic limestone with silex from the Ilerdian (early Miocene), which in the middle and some of the foot slopes is buried beneath a cover of sediments eroded from the rocks higher in the slopes consisting of limestone, marls and lutites, also from the Ilerdian. These sediments are affected by uneven erosion, resulting in a mosaic of slightly raised areas and lower ground areas where two different types of vegetation are found (Fig. 1): *Nardus* grassland growing on Orthoentric Cambisols on the soil accumulation packages and chalk grassland on Hyperentric Leptosols at the bottom of such packages (Bada-Villas et al., 2020).

The *Nardus* grassland fits to the phytosociological alliance *Nardion strictae* Br.–Bl. 1926 and was characterized by the dominance of *N. stricta* (Supplementary material, Table S1). The chalk grassland is made up of a mosaic of species characteristic of three communities (phytosociological alliances): *Bromion erecti* Koch 1926 (dominant), *Festucion gautieri* Br.–Bl. 1948 and *Primulion intricatae* Br.–Bl. ex Vigo 1972, and has a remarkable diversity of grasses, legumes and other species (Supplementary material, Table S1). Both types of grassland had plant cover close to 100 %. The stocking rate (for cattle and sheep) reaches approximately one large animal unit per hectare (Armas-Herrera et al., 2020).

The field work was performed in early July 2018. Six plots were established at intervals of 100 m along a 600-m transect placed at the mid-slope, which was deemed adequate for representing the spatial variation in both grassland types. In each plot, two sampling points were located in adjacent patches of *Nardus* grassland and chalk grassland at a distance no greater than 3 m. At each sampling point, a quadrat of 1 × 1 m was placed where the plant species were identified, and their covers were visually assessed on a percent scale. The plant species were categorized into three functional groups commonly used in pasture studies: legumes (Fabaceae), graminoids (Poaceae and Cyperaceae), and forbs (all other herbaceous species); the cover for each group was calculated by summing the cover values of all the species in that group. Summaries of the plant species and functional groups of the *Nardus* and chalk grasslands are given in the Supplementary material, Tables S1 and S2.

All the herbage in the quadrat was clipped at ground level using hand shears and collected. Three soil subsamples were collected from the top 10 cm of the soil and mixed to form one composite sample per sampling point. In total, 12 samples of vegetation and soil were collected (6 plots × 2 types of patches). From the soil samples, a subset was selected for biochemical analysis comprising samples from points located at intervals of 200 m along the transect (3 plots × 2 types of patches = 6 samples).

### 2.2. Laboratory procedures

The herbage was weighed before and after drying in a forced-air dryer at 60 °C for 48 h to determine the dry matter content and the dry biomass per unit area. The material was subsequently ground to < 1 mm using a cutting mill (Retsch Muhle, Haan, Germany), after which the samples were stored at room temperature until analysis. The concentrations of C, N and S were determined using a CNS elemental analyzer (Vario MAX CNS, Hanau, Germany). The concentrations of the other elements were determined after ashing at 550 °C and dissolving in aqua regia: P by the molybdate–blue method (Murphy and Riley, 1962) and Ca by complexometry with EDTA and K by flame spectrophotometry. Based on the concentrations of C, N, P, S, K and Ca, the following mass



Fig. 1. Top and closer views of the mosaic-patterned landscape with tall graminoid vegetation (*Nardus* grasslands) located on slightly elevated ground and shorter forb vegetation (chalk grasslands) located in relatively lower areas.

ratios were calculated: C:N, C:P, C:S, C:K, C:Ca, N:P, N:S, N:K, N:Ca, P:S, P:K, P:Ca, S:K and S:Ca.

The fiber composition of the herbage was analyzed with an Ankom 200 Fiber Analyzer (Ankom Technol., Fairport NY, USA) according to the method of Van Soest et al. (1991). This procedure sequentially removes the cell content, hemicellulose and cellulose, yielding respectively the neutral detergent fiber (NDF), acid detergent fiber (ADF) and an acid-insoluble residue, which are then ashed at 550 °C to remove the acid detergent lignin (ADL) and obtain the acid detergent ash (ADA). The contents of ADL, cellulose and hemicellulose were then calculated as the differences between the insoluble residue and ADA, ADF and ADL, and NDF and ADF, respectively. The herbage was also analyzed for the concentrations of lipids (ether extract) by a 12-h Soxhlet extraction with petroleum ether and for the total concentrations of minerals (crude ash) by ashing at 550 °C (AOAC, 2006). The acid-soluble ash (ASA) fraction was calculated by subtracting the ADA from the crude ash content. The concentration of crude protein was calculated by multiplying the N concentration by 6.25 (AOAC, 2006). The concentration of nonstructural carbohydrates (NSCs) was assessed by the following calculation:  $NSC (g\ kg^{-1}) = 1000 - [crude\ ash + ether\ extract + crude\ protein + hemicellulose + cellulose + ADL] (g\ kg^{-1})$ . The water content was determined by drying a subsample in an oven at 103 °C to a constant weight. The results of the analyses were corrected for the water and ash contents to express them on an ash-free oven-dry weight basis.

The soil samples were air-dried, sieved to < 2 mm and stored at room temperature until analysis, except for a portion that was sieved while fresh and stored at 4 °C for determination of ammonium-N, microbial biomass C and enzyme activities. The soil pH was measured in 1:2.5 soil:water and soil:1 M potassium chloride suspensions, and the electrical conductivity ( $EC_{1:5}$ ) was measured in 1:5 soil:water extracts. Exchangeable cations (Ca, Mg, K, Na) were extracted using ammonium acetate (pH 7.0) and determined by atomic absorption spectrometry (Ca, Mg) and flame photometry (K, Na). The cation exchange capacity was determined by sodium acetate saturation (pH 8.2), and Na was determined by flame photometry. The concentrations of C and N were determined using a CNS elemental analyzer (Vario MAX CNS, Hanau, Germany). Ammonium-N was extracted with a 2 M potassium chloride solution and determined via steam distillation through the magnesium oxide-Devarda alloy method (Bremner, 1965). Plant-available P (Olsen-P) was extracted using a sodium hydrogen carbonate solution (pH 8.5) and then measured colorimetrically (Olsen et al., 1954; Murphy and Riley, 1962). Sulfate-S was extracted using a 1:5 soil:water ratio and determined by turbidimetry as described by AOAC (2006). The soil C:N and  $K^+ : Ca^{2+}$  ratios were calculated based on the total contents of C and N and the exchangeable contents of  $K^+$  and  $Ca^{2+}$ , respectively.

The soil microbial biomass C was determined via the fumigation-extraction method (Vance et al., 1987). The following four soil enzymes were assayed:  $\beta$ -D-glucosidase (GLU) by the method of Eivazi and Tabatabai (1988); urease (URE) by the method of Tabatabai and Bremner (1972); acid phosphatase (PHO) following Saá et al. (1993);

and arylsulfatase (SUL) by the method of Tabatabai and Bremner (1970), each of which are involved in the cycling of C, N, P and S, respectively. These enzymes are widely distributed in nature and extensively used for the assessment of soil nutrient cycling and availability (Karaca et al., 2010; Adetunji et al., 2017). The enzyme activities were expressed as total activities per dry soil unit. The GLU:URE, GLU:PHO, GLU:SUL, URE:PHO, URE:SUL and PHO:SUL ratios were calculated from the enzyme activity data and are hereafter termed the C:N,C:P, C:S, N:P, N:S and P:S enzyme ratios, respectively.

### 2.3. Statistical analysis

Univariate and bivariate tests were performed using SPSS for Windows version 22 (IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA). The composition values of the herbage and the soil in the *Nardus* grassland and chalk grassland were compared using Student's tests after verifying the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene tests, respectively. When the assumptions were not confirmed, appropriate standard data transformations (power and log) were applied. For ease of interpretation, tables and figures present nontransformed data. The soil biochemical parameters were compared using Mann-Whitney U tests because the normality and homogeneity of variance could not be reliably tested due to the small number of samples. Correlations between selected variables were analyzed by Pearson's test.

Multivariate analyses were performed using CANOCO v. 4.5 (Microcomputer, Ithaca, NY, USA) to explore the relationships within and between the datasets. Separate principal component analyses (PCAs) were performed on the chemical composition of the herbage and on the soil properties. The principal components obtained from the soil data were subsequently used in a redundancy analysis (RDA) of the herbage chemical composition in relation to the soil factors. The most suitable explanatory variables for the RDA were selected by a forward stepwise procedure based on Monte Carlo tests using 999 permutations. The statistical significance of the RDA was tested with Monte Carlo tests of 999 permutations.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Plant chemical composition

The herbage of the *Nardus* grassland (Table 1) was significantly richer in fiber (NDF, ADF) and particularly in structural carbohydrates (CEL, HEM) but was lower in ADL and NSC than was the herbage of the chalk grassland. The two vegetation types exhibited similar concentrations of C, N, S and K but differed significantly with respect to P, which was greater in the *Nardus* grassland, and Ca, which was greater in the chalk grassland. With regard to elemental stoichiometry (Table 2), the two vegetation types differed mainly in terms of the ratios of Ca and P and other elements. Specifically, the *Nardus* grassland had greater ratios



**Table 1**  
Descriptive statistics and comparisons (t tests) of the chemical composition of the herbage of the *Nardus* and chalk grasslands.

	<i>Nardus</i> -grassland (n = 6)				Chalk grassland (n = 6)				$t_{10}$	Sig.
	Mean	SE	Min.	Max.	Mean	SE	Min.	Max.		
Biomass (kg dry matter ha <sup>-1</sup> )	1671	149	1316	2324	931	100	704	1348	4.53	**
NDF (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	533	22	472	629	417	18	372	486	4.16	**
ADF (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	274	3	262	285	235	10	204	265	4.32	**
ADL (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	36.3	2.1	26.4	40.1	68.4	9.5	42.9	105	-4.07	**
CEL (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	238	4	225	252	166	8	150	204	7.90	***
HEM (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	259	21	196	350	182	13	150	239	3.07	*
NSC (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	234	24	137	301	314	22	217	359	-2.46	*
ADA (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	2.47	0.48	1.07	4.40	8.10	2.27	3.54	18.7	-1.88	ns
ASA (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	73.3	8.1	42.3	99.6	90.2	3.7	80.7	107	-2.31	ns
Crude ash (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	75.8	8.3	44.4	102.8	98.3	5.9	84.2	126	-2.21	ns
Crude protein (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	133	8	120	167	148	8	116	175	-1.32	ns
Ether extract (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	24.1	0.7	22.2	26.3	23.6	0.6	21.7	26.1	0.49	ns
C (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	473	3	463	481	476	5	456	492	-0.46	ns
N (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	21.3	1.2	19.1	26.6	23.6	1.3	18.6	28.1	-1.32	ns
P (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	1.64	0.16	1.17	2.21	1.26	0.06	1.07	1.44	2.30	*
S (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	2.18	0.13	1.78	2.58	2.07	0.11	1.92	2.60	0.67	ns
K (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	1.16	0.12	0.78	1.56	1.25	0.09	0.96	1.59	-0.58	ns
Ca (g kg <sup>-1</sup> dry matter)	10.5	1.3	4.7	13.7	16.3	1.1	13.2	19.9	-3.35	**

SE = standard error of the mean, Min. = minimum, Max. = maximum,  $t_{10}$  = Student's *t* value with 10 degrees of freedom, Sig. = significance, ns = not significant. \* =  $P < 0.05$ , \*\* =  $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* =  $P < 0.001$ . NDF = neutral detergent fiber, ADF = acid detergent fiber, ADL = acid detergent lignin, CEL = cellulose, HEM = hemicellulose, NSC = non-structural carbohydrates, ADA = acid detergent ash, ASA = acid-soluble ash.

**Table 2**  
Descriptive statistics and comparisons (t tests) of the mass ratios of major elements (C, N, P, S, K and Ca) in the herbage of the *Nardus* and chalk grasslands studied.

	<i>Nardus</i> -grassland (n = 6)				Chalk grassland (n = 6)				$t_{10}$	Sig.	Critical values
	Mean	SE	Min.	Max.	Mean	SE	Min.	Max.			
C:N	22.5	1.1	18.0	25.1	20.5	1.4	16.5	26.5	1.10	ns	
C:P	302	31	209	411	383	21	324	458	2.23	*	
C:S	220	13	179	268	233	11	179	256	-0.67	ns	
C:K	434	50	303	615	394	32	292	501	0.68	ns	
C:Ca	51.2	10.3	33.7	101.3	29.9	2.1	24.0	35.6	2.66	*	
N:P	13.4	1.2	8.8	16.4	18.9	1.2	17.2	24.3	-2.77	*	10–20 <sup>1</sup> 14–16 <sup>2</sup> 14.5 <sup>3</sup> 13–17 <sup>4</sup> 14 <sup>5</sup> 16 <sup>6</sup> 2.1 <sup>3</sup> 1.3 <sup>7</sup> 1.2 <sup>8</sup> 1.75 <sup>9</sup>
N:S	9.8	0.6	7.6	11.4	11.4	0.5	9.7	13.0	-2.10	ns	
N:K	19.7	3.1	14.1	34.2	19.3	1.3	15.2	23.8	0.13	ns	
N:Ca	2.41	0.66	1.42	5.63	1.49	0.14	1.14	2.12	-1.98	ns	
P: S	0.748	0.039	0.582	0.858	0.617	0.047	0.445	0.745	2.21	ns	
P:K	1.48	0.18	1.12	2.23	1.04	0.09	0.73	1.38	2.33	*	
P:Ca	0.178	0.040	0.111	0.368	0.079	0.005	0.057	0.094	-4.61	**	
S:K	1.99	0.24	1.46	2.99	1.69	0.11	1.34	2.12	1.12	ns	
S:Ca	0.238	0.053	0.150	0.492	0.131	0.014	0.100	0.196	-3.03	**	
K:Ca	0.117	0.015	0.086	0.165	0.079	0.010	0.054	0.120	-2.38	*	

<sup>1</sup>Güsewell (2004), <sup>2</sup>Koerselman and Meuleman (1996), <sup>3</sup>Olde Venterik et al. (2003), <sup>4</sup>Mahot et al. (2005), <sup>5</sup>Stevens and Watson (1986), <sup>6</sup>Ryant and Skládanka (2009), <sup>7</sup>Dampney (1992), <sup>8</sup>Pegtel et al. (1996), <sup>9</sup>Lawniczak et al. (2009). SE = standard error of the mean, Min. = minimum, Max. = maximum,  $t_{10}$  = Student's *t* value with 10 degrees of freedom, Sig. = significance, ns = not significant. \* =  $P < 0.05$ , \*\* =  $P < 0.01$ .

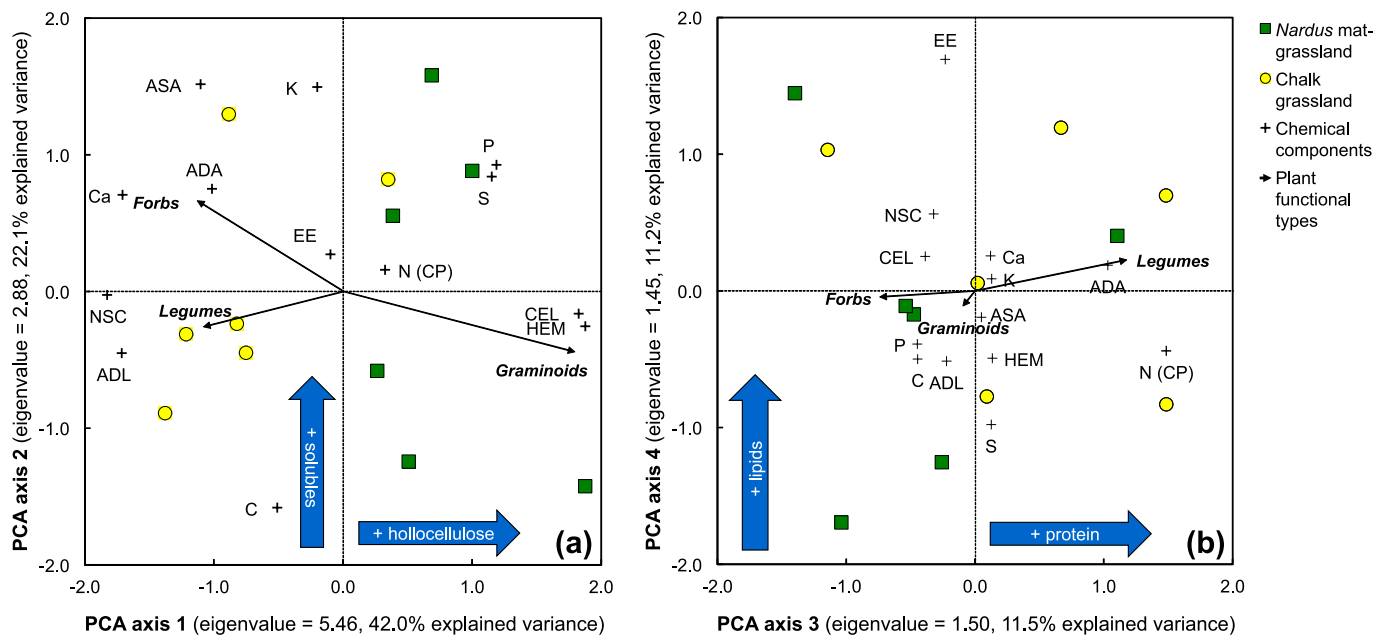
of P to C, N, K and Ca than did the chalk grassland, which in turn had greater ratios of Ca to C, P, S and K.

The variation in herbage composition was summarized by PCA into four components (termed Composition Factors 1, 2, 3 and 4), with a total explained variance of 87 %. Fig. 2 shows the PCA scores for the chemical components and samples, with the cover of the plant functional types displayed as supplementary variables. Composition Factor 1 had large negative loadings for the concentrations of HEM, CEL, P and S and positive loadings for ADL, NSC and Ca. As shown in Fig. 2, Composition Factor 1 was strongly negatively correlated ( $P < 0.001$ ) with the abundance of graminoids and tended to separate the samples of *Nardus* grassland, located mostly on the negative side, from those of chalk grassland, positioned on the positive side. Composition Factor 2 had large positive loadings for soluble minerals (ASA) and K and negative

loadings for C. Composition Factor 3 had its main loading in the concentration of N (or crude protein) and was strongly correlated ( $P < 0.001$ ) with the abundance of legumes, whereas Composition Factor 4 had high positive loading for ether extract.

### 3.2. Soil properties and their relation to plant chemical composition

The soils of the *Nardus* grassland were significantly more acidic, richer in exchangeable Mg<sup>2+</sup> and ammonium-N and poorer in exchangeable Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> than were the soils of the chalk grassland (Table 3). The PCA summarized the variation in soil properties into three components (termed Soil Factors 1, 2 and 3), explaining 89 % of the variability. Soil Factor 1 had large positive loadings for pH, Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> and negative loadings for Mg<sup>2+</sup> and ammonium-N and was



**Fig. 2.** Main gradients of variation in the chemical composition of the herbage, as obtained by principal component analysis (PCA). ADA = acid detergent ash, ADL = acid detergent lignin, ASA = acid-soluble ash, EE = ether extract, CEL = cellulose, CP = crude protein, HEM = hemicellulose, NSC = nonstructural carbohydrates.

**Table 3**

Descriptive statistics and comparisons (t tests) of the soil (0–10 cm) characteristics of the *Nardus* and chalk grasslands.

	<i>Nardus</i> -grassland (n = 6)				Chalk grassland (n = 6)				$t_{10}$	Sig.
	Mean	SE	Min.	Max.	Mean	SE	Min.	Max.		
pH-water	5.18	0.10	4.74	5.36	6.28	0.23	5.53	7.01	-4.41	**
pH-KCl	4.31	0.13	3.78	4.68	5.73	0.30	4.78	6.66	-4.29	**
EC <sub>1:5</sub> ( $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ )	135	10	111	169	129	17	75	193	0.29	Ns
Na <sup>+</sup> ( $\text{cmol}_c \text{kg}^{-1}$ )	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.04	0.00	0.03	0.04	-2.73	*
Mg <sup>2+</sup> ( $\text{cmol}_c \text{kg}^{-1}$ )	1.05	0.13	0.75	1.58	0.40	0.08	0.26	0.80	4.32	**
K <sup>+</sup> ( $\text{cmol}_c \text{kg}^{-1}$ )	0.26	0.03	0.19	0.36	0.24	0.03	0.15	0.32	0.66	Ns
Ca <sup>2+</sup> ( $\text{cmol}_c \text{kg}^{-1}$ )	4.78	0.53	2.68	6.37	9.92	1.43	6.13	14.75	-3.36	*
K <sup>+</sup> :Ca <sup>2+</sup> ratio	0.063	0.015	0.031	0.135	0.025	0.002	0.020	0.034	4.67	**
CEC ( $\text{cmol}_c \text{kg}^{-1}$ )	22.3	1.6	18.9	29.0	20.5	2.2	13.6	27.1	0.65	Ns
Base saturation (%)	28.7	3.9	13.2	39.4	51.6	4.1	37.2	63.3	-4.05	**
Organic C ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	66.3	6.5	49.3	88.7	52.2	10.0	20.5	78.2	1.19	Ns
Total N ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	5.65	0.59	4.23	8.00	5.06	0.86	2.10	6.96	0.56	Ns
C:N ratio	11.8	0.2	11.1	12.7	10.1	0.3	9.2	11.3	4.34	**
Ammonium-N ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	0.24	0.01	0.22	0.26	0.12	0.01	0.11	0.14	7.82	**
Olsen-P ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	2.79	0.35	1.31	3.54	2.99	0.54	1.32	4.76	0.31	Ns
Sulfate-S ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ )	77.5	6.1	55.4	99.5	55.3	11.1	30.3	97.6	1.75	Ns

SE = standard error of the mean, Min. = minimum, Max. = maximum,  $t_{10}$  = Student's *t* value with 10 degrees of freedom, Sig. = significance, ns = not significant, \* =  $P < 0.05$ , \*\* =  $P < 0.01$ . EC<sub>1:5</sub> = electric conductivity at a 1:5 soil:water ratio, CEC = cation exchange capacity.

interpreted as a leaching gradient that separated the soils of *Nardus* grassland from those of chalk grassland (Fig. 3). Soil Factor 2 was positively related to characteristics related to organic matter (organic C, total N, cation exchange capacity) and exchangeable K. Soil Factor 3 was positively related to the amount of soluble ions (electric conductivity, sulfate-S).

RDA of the herbage chemical composition in relation to the soil factors revealed a very significant effect ( $P < 0.001$ ) of Soil Factor 1, whereas the addition of Soil Factors 2 and 3 spatial variables did not provide additional explanatory power ( $P > 0.10$ ). The ordination based only on Soil Factor 1 was statistically significant (trace = 0.31,  $F = 4.54$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ), explaining 31 % of the variance in the chemical composition of the herbage. A biplot of the results of this RDA is presented in Fig. 4, which shows that the herbage becomes leaner in Ca, ADL and NSCs and richer in structural carbohydrates, P and S as the soil undergoes decalcification with the shift from chalk to *Nardus* grassland.

Despite the overall relationship between the herbage chemical

composition and soil properties, the levels of the individual nutrients in the herbage showed little relation with those of the same nutrients in the soil. Only the herbage Ca concentration was positively correlated with the soil exchangeable Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration ( $r = 0.70$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ), whereas the herbage N, P, S and K levels were unrelated to the plant-available Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration in the soil ( $r = -0.47$  to  $0.01$ ,  $P > 0.10$ ). The herbage concentration of K was found to correlate positively ( $r = 0.58$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) with the soil K<sup>+</sup>/Ca<sup>2+</sup> ratio but not with the soil K<sup>+</sup> or Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentrations.

### 3.3. Soil enzyme activity and its relation to plant chemical composition

The soils of the *Nardus* grassland had greater microbial biomass C and higher potential activities for most of the enzymes examined, except for SUL, which showed no significant differences ( $P > 0.05$ , Mann-Whitney *U* test) (Table 4). GLU was found to be related to the fiber composition of the herbage, increasing with increasing levels of

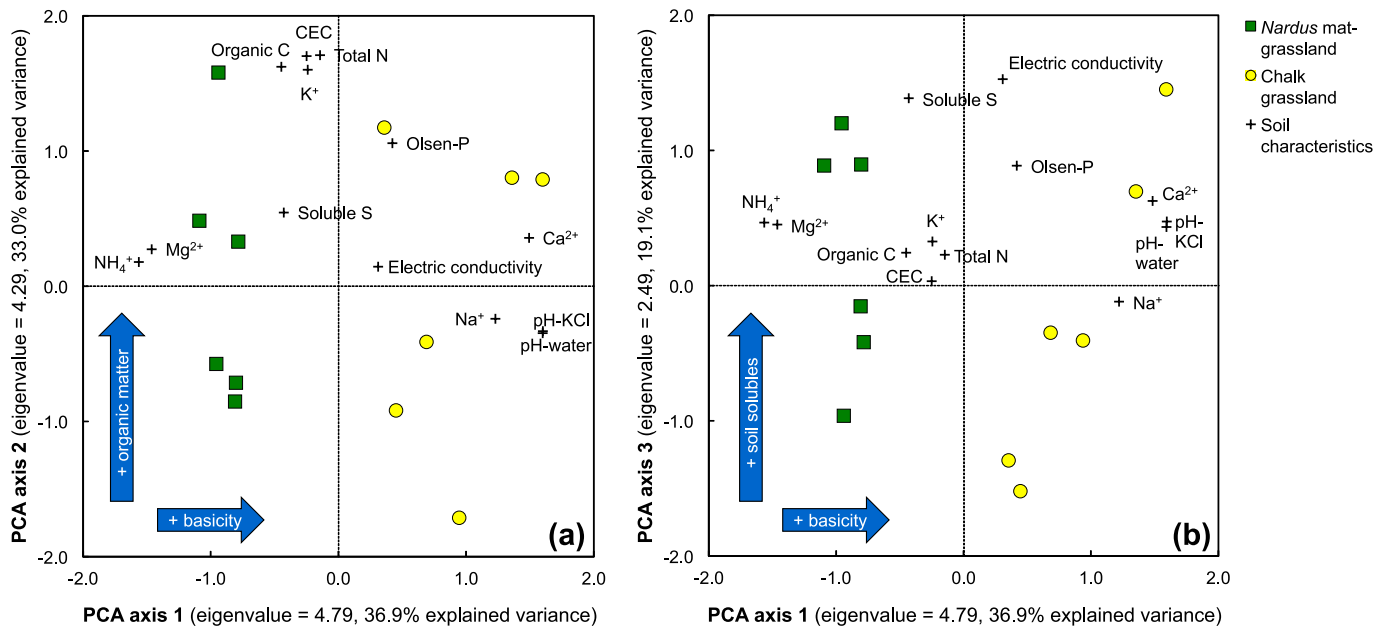


Fig. 3. Main gradients of variation in the soil properties, as obtained by principal component analysis (PCA).

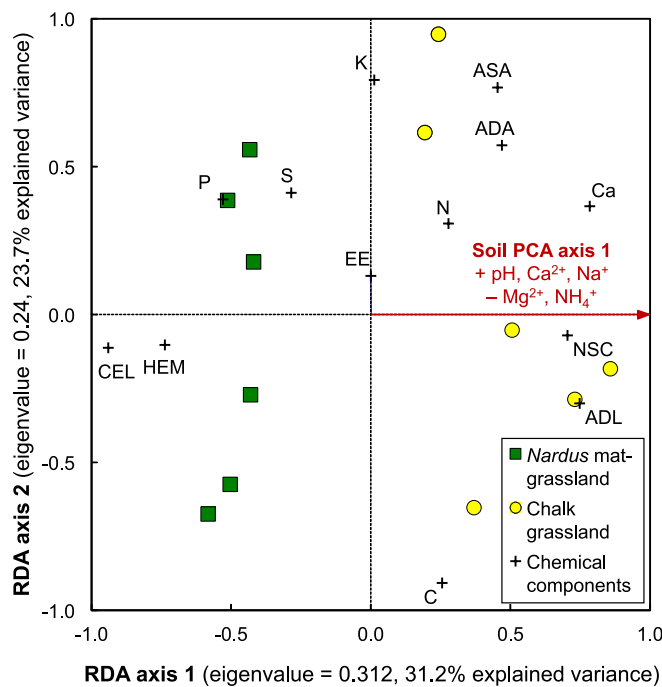


Fig. 4. Relationships between the chemical composition of the herbage and the main gradients of variation in the soil properties, as obtained by redundancy analysis (RDA). ADA = acid detergent ash, ADL = acid detergent lignin, ASA = acid-soluble ash, EE = ether extract, CEL = cellulose, CP = crude protein, HEM = hemicellulose, NSC = nonstructural carbohydrates.

cellulose ( $r = 0.87, P < 0.05$ ; Pearson correlation) and hemicellulose ( $r = 0.96, P < 0.01$ ) and decreasing levels of NSCs ( $r = -0.94, P < 0.01$ ) and ADL ( $r = -0.83, P < 0.05$ ). GLU was also correlated with the quality of soil organic matter, as measured by the soil C:N ratio ( $r = 0.87, P < 0.05$ ). In turn, SUL and URE exhibited highly significant positive correlations with the soil concentrations of their products sulfate-S and ammonium-N ( $r = 0.98$  and  $r = 0.93$ , respectively,  $P < 0.01$ ), but PHO showed no correlation with Olsen-P ( $r = 0.24, P > 0.05$ ).

The analysis of enzyme stoichiometry revealed significant

differences only for the enzyme C:N ratio, which was greater for the chalk grassland than for the *Nardus* grassland, suggesting a greater enzymatic demand for N versus C at the *Nardus* than at the chalk grassland. The enzyme ratios of C, N, P and S showed no correlation with the ratios among the same elements in herbage, with the important exception of the N:P ratios, for which a negative correlation was found between the herbage and the soil enzyme values ( $r = -0.91, P < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 5). According to this correlation, as the N:P ratio increased in herbage (indicating increasing limitation by P versus N), the enzyme N:P ratio decreased (indicating increasing enzymatic demand for P versus N).

#### 4. Discussion

##### 4.1. Nutrient limitations inferred from elemental stoichiometry

*Nardus* and chalk grasslands are considered oligotrophic environments with low availability of N and P (Smith, 1980; Schelfhout et al., 2017). In the present study, the mean ratios of N to P in the herbage of both grassland types were within the range of 10–20, within which, according to Güsewell (2004), no clear limitation by N or P occurs; rather, there is colimitation by both nutrients. However, according to the criteria of Koerselman and Meuleman (1996), the N:P ratio of the herbage of the chalk grassland was above the critical value of 16, which indicates a relative limitation by P, whereas the average N:P ratio for the *Nardus* grassland was slightly below the critical value of 14, indicating a limitation by N. Other studies conducted in other European mountain areas (Kirkham, 2001; Klaudivová et al., 2009; Busqué and Bedia, 2013) yielded mean N:P ratios of 12–14 for *N. stricta* and *Nardus* grasslands that are similar to those of the *Nardus* grassland in the present study and indicate limitation or colimitation by N. Conversely, Bobbink et al. (1989) reported N:P values of 14–18 and above for *Bromion* chalk grasslands, which denote limitation or colimitation by P. Moreover, the soil enzyme C:P ratio was  $< 1$  in both the *Nardus* and chalk grasslands, indicating more effort to acquire and cycle P relative to processing of C, which suggests a P deficiency in both grassland types (Liu et al., 2020; Lasota et al., 2022).

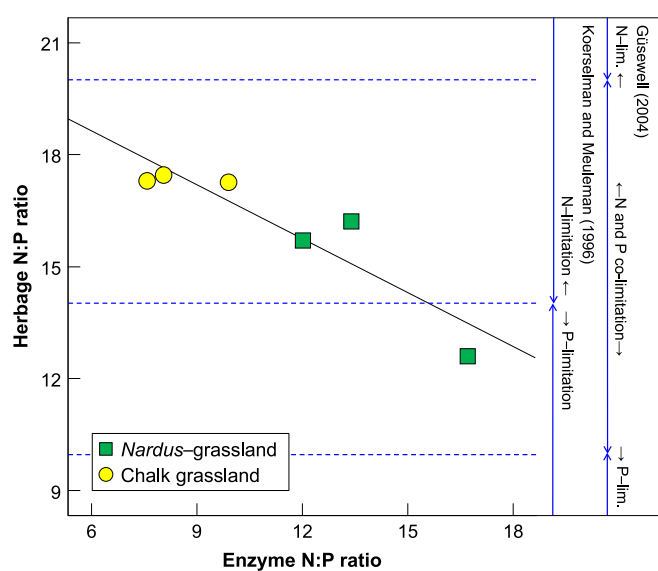
Phosphorus limitation can occur in high-mountain vegetation even with N:P ratios  $< 10$  (Wang et al., 2017) because of the high demand for P, which is used by plants to protect tissues and membranes against cold

**Table 4**

Descriptive statistics and comparison (Mann–Whitney U tests) of the soil (0–10 cm) biochemical properties and enzyme stoichiometry of the *Nardus* and chalk grasslands.

	<i>Nardus</i> grassland (n = 3)				Chalk grassland (n = 3)				U	Sig.
	Mean	SE	Min.	Max.	Mean	SE	Min.	Max.		
Microbial biomass C (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	1.31	0.02	1.28	1.35	1.00	0.16	0.68	1.21	0	*
GLU (μmol PNP g <sup>-1</sup> soil h <sup>-1</sup> )	6.08	0.51	5.48	7.10	3.88	0.24	3.43	4.24	0	*
URE (μmol NH <sub>3</sub> g <sup>-1</sup> soil h <sup>-1</sup> )	0.37	0.02	0.33	0.41	0.17	0.02	0.15	0.21	0	*
PHO (μmol PNP g <sup>-1</sup> soil h <sup>-1</sup> )	14.0	1.4	12.0	16.7	8.5	0.7	7.6	9.9	0	*
SUL (μmol PNP g <sup>-1</sup> soil h <sup>-1</sup> )	8.52	0.47	7.87	9.43	6.17	1.11	4.51	8.27	2	ns
Enzyme C:N ratio	16.6	0.8	15.1	17.4	23.3	1.9	20.2	26.8	0	*
Enzyme C:P ratio	0.43	0.01	0.42	0.46	0.46	0.04	0.40	0.53	4	ns
Enzyme C:S ratio	0.72	0.09	0.60	0.90	0.67	0.14	0.48	0.94	3	ns
Enzyme N:P ratio	0.026	0.002	0.024	0.030	0.020	0.003	0.015	0.026	2	ns
Enzyme N:S ratio	0.044	0.005	0.035	0.052	0.030	0.009	0.018	0.047	2	ns
Enzyme P:S ratio	1.67	0.23	1.42	2.12	1.43	0.18	1.20	1.78	2	ns

SE = standard error of the mean, Min. = minimum, Max. = maximum, U = Mann–Whitney U value, Sig. = significance, ns = not significant, \* =  $P \leq 0.05$ , GLU = β-D-glucosidase activity, PNP = p-nitrophenol, URE = urease activity, PHO = acid phosphatase activity, SUL = arylsulfatase activity.



**Fig. 5.** Relationships between the N:P ratio of the herbage composition and the soil enzyme activities. Critical levels for N versus P limitation according to Koerselman and Meuleman (1996) and Güsewell (2004) are provided as references.

(Hawkesford et al., 2012). Both the *Nardus* and chalk grasslands are regarded as adapted to P-limited or colimited habitats because of the efficient P uptake and use strategies of their dominant species (Köhler et al., 2001; Van der Krift and Berendse, 2002; Hejcman et al., 2014). Consequently, both types of grasslands have been shown to spread with decreasing P (Klaudisová et al., 2009) or increasing N (Bobbink et al., 1989; Wilson et al., 1995; Leith et al., 1999; Stevens et al., 2011) availability. The elemental ratios in the present study indicate stronger P versus N limitation in the chalk grassland than in the *Nardus* grassland. This is also supported by the finding of Badía-Villas et al. (2020) that <sup>15</sup>N fractionation was greater in chalk grasslands than in *Nardus* grasslands, which suggests that nutrients other than N are more strongly limited in chalk grasslands (Xu et al., 2014).

The N:S ratios of the herbage were below the critical values established by Stevens and Watson (1986), Mathot et al. (2005) and Ryant and Skládanka (2009), which indicates the sufficiency of S in both vegetation types. In contrast, the N:K and P:K ratios were well above the various critical values proposed by other studies (Dampney, 1992; Pegtel et al., 1996; Olde Venterik et al., 2003; Lawniczak et al., 2009), which suggests a strong limitation by K in both grassland types.

#### 4.2. Nutrient uptake as affected by nutrient availability in soil

According to customary ranges for soil nutrients (Jones, 2001; Horneck et al., 2011), Olsen-P and ammonium-N were low, sulfate-S was high and exchangeable Ca<sup>2+</sup> was low to moderate in the soils of both grassland types, whereas exchangeable Ca<sup>2+</sup> varied from low–moderate in the *Nardus* grassland to moderate–high in the chalk grassland. Only ammonium-N and exchangeable Ca<sup>2+</sup> exhibited significant differences between the two grassland types.

Ammonium-N was greater in the *Nardus* grassland, with values similar to those reported by Badía et al. (2008) for other *Nardus* grasslands in the same region. Higher ammonium concentrations might result from greater N inputs from livestock excreta, but this is likely not the case in the *Nardus* grassland since livestock generally spend less time in the *Nardus* grassland than in the chalk grassland due to the greater fodder quality of the latter (Badía et al., 2008; García-González et al., 1990). Instead, the higher ammonium concentrations in the *Nardus* grassland soils could be related to more active N cycling (Zhou et al., 2022), as supported by the correlation between ammonium-N and URE and the more acidic conditions, which mitigate volatilization losses (Woodmansee et al., 1981; Cameron et al., 2013).

Calcium was the only element among the nutrients studied that exhibited a significant correlation between its available concentration in the soil and its levels in the herbage. The concentrations of exchangeable Ca<sup>2+</sup> in the soils of both grasslands were equal to or above the range of 1–3 cmol<sub>c</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup> typical for ‘calcicole’ plant species and well above the value of 0.5 cmol<sub>c</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup>, below which ‘calcifuge’ species usually occur (Cross and Lambers, 2021). Calcareous soils usually exhibit Ca levels that exceed the demand for this element by any plant species and can rather lead to stress from other nutrients (Arnesen et al., 2007; Körner, 2021). Plant Ca and soil Ca showed a strong negative relationship with the herbage P levels, suggesting an adverse effect of Ca on P intake, leading to greater limitation by P than by N and higher enzyme demand for P versus N in the chalk grassland than in the *Nardus* grassland. A plausible mechanism for this effect is the precipitation of Ca-phosphates, which is typical of high-pH soils but can also occur at pH values less than 7 in the presence of high exchangeable Ca<sup>2+</sup> (Penn and Camberato, 2019).

Phosphorus exists in soils in several inorganic (P<sub>i</sub>) and organic (P<sub>o</sub>) forms (most of which were not measured in the present study) and only a small portion is labile, i.e. easily accessible to organisms (Yang and Post, 2011; Li et al., 2022). Calcareous-derived soils can contain substantial amounts of P<sub>i</sub> in Ca-primary minerals that are low-soluble and, therefore, poorly bioavailable (Martin-Sanz et al., 2021; Li et al., 2022). The slow turnover of organic matter in high-mountain soils favors the buildup of P<sub>o</sub> and its stabilization via interaction with soil minerals (Li et al., 2022); however, P<sub>o</sub> requires its biochemical conversion to become



bioavailable, and usually only a small fraction is susceptible to release available P after phosphatase reaction (Margalef et al., 2017). Microbial biomass-P constitutes an important pool within  $P_o$  that can act as a P source through mineralization, but in high-mountain soils, it often acts as a sink by immobilizing large amounts of P, even larger than the P reservoir in vegetation (Wang et al., 2020). Although the total amount of P in the soils of high-mountain grasslands may be high, plant-available P is usually scarce and often growth-limiting (Zhou et al., 2020). Hence plants in these habitats have evolved strategies to enhance P-acquisition by establishing mycorrhizal symbioses or secreting compounds that stimulate microbial activity and facilitate P release (Zhou et al., 2021; Andrade-Linares et al., 2023). Phosphorus-acquisition traits differ by plant functional type: graminoids prioritize improving P capture via association with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi, whereas forbs adopt more diverse strategies including secretion of phosphatase and organic acids to mobilize P from the soil (Zhou et al., 2021; Guan et al., 2024). The present study addressed only one of these mechanisms, namely phosphatase secretion. According to our results, the soils of the chalk grassland (where forbs are predominant) exhibited a higher PHO vs. URE activity ratio, suggesting the secretion of excess phosphatase enzyme as a response to stronger P vs. N limitation. Neither the herbage P nor its ratios to other elements were related to soil Olsen P. Olsen-P only measures a portion of labile P including water-soluble P and some  $P_i$  found in Ca-phosphates (Olsen et al., 1954), therefore it may not be an adequate measure of P availability when P inputs are mediated by arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis,  $P_o$  mineralization or P mobilization by root exudates (Schneider, 2014; Klaus et al., 2016).

The composition of the herbage denoted a severe K deficiency that cannot be solely explained by the soil K availability, which was within the optimal range according to Jones (2001) but appeared instead related to the  $K^+ : Ca^{2+}$  ratios. Calcium and K are mutually antagonistic during their uptake by plants, so high Ca concentrations in the presence of low-moderate K can decrease K intake enough to induce K deficiency (Cahoon and Crummett, 1954). The  $K^+ : Ca^{2+}$  ratio has long been reported to be decisive for the calcicole-calcifuge behavior of plants (De Bilde, 1978; Korcak, 1987) and a major factor influencing the composition of chalk grassland communities (Austin, 1968).

#### 4.3. Effects of plant traits on plant composition

The organic and elemental compositions of plants are genetically and physiologically controlled and vary between species and, to a more limited extent, among individuals (Kay et al., 2005; Elser et al., 2010). The results of the present study revealed that the shift between *Nardus* grassland and chalk grassland involved a shift in plant functional groups with contrasting compositional traits. The two grasslands differed mainly in the relative proportions of graminoids, which were more abundant in the *Nardus* grassland mainly due to the dominance of *N. stricta* versus forbs and legumes, which were predominant in the chalk grassland.

The greater proportion of graminoids affected the organic composition of herbage, which became richer in CEL and HEM and poorer in ADL, as is characteristic of graminoids compared to nongraminoid herbs (Gordon, 1989; Marinas and García-González, 2006; Poca et al., 2014). The abundance of structural carbohydrates stimulates GLU activity (Sinsabaugh et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2020)), which is positively correlated with the concentrations of CEL and HEM, which act as substrates. A greater amount of structural carbohydrates reflects a greater investment in grass stems (ADL was a minor constituent in both grasslands), indicating greater density and stronger competition for light in *Nardus* grassland than in chalk grassland, which is consistent with less severe nutrient limitation (Irving, 2015; Postma et al., 2021; Rehling et al., 2021). Indeed, *Nardus* grassland tends to be denser and taller than chalk grassland, which could effectively indicate more competition for light.

The greater proportion of graminoids in the *Nardus* grassland was

also related to higher P and lower Ca concentrations in herbage, which agrees with the findings of Marinas and García-González (2006) that higher P and lower Ca levels occur in graminoids than in nongraminoids in subalpine Pyrenean grasslands. A greater investment in stem structures can affect the elemental composition since it means less investment in leaf mesophyll and epidermis, which contain most of the N, P and K in plants (Meerts, 1997). However, in our study, the greater proportion of graminoids and higher concentration of structural carbohydrates were related to higher P and unrelated to N or K. Furthermore, the higher levels of P resulted in lower N:P ratios in the *Nardus* grassland than in the chalk grassland, which contradicts the usual finding that a higher proportion of graminoids is associated with higher N:P ratios and, consequently, with increasing limitation of P versus N (Güsewell, 2004; He et al., 2006). In turn, forbs and legumes are generally reported to contain more Ca than graminoids (Meerts, 1997; Mladkova et al., 2018; Kajzrová et al., 2022), which is related to the large amount of Ca in the form of Ca-pectates in the cell walls of dicotyledons (including legumes and many forbs) (White and Broadley, 2003; Mladkova et al., 2018).

The plant functional type also influenced the N levels, which increased with increasing amounts of legumes. Legumes are important N fixers that result in luxury consumption of N (Freschet et al., 2017) and thus in higher N concentrations and higher ratios of N to other elements than nonlegumes (He et al. 2007; Di Palo and Fornara, 2017). However, the N concentrations were similar in the herbage of the two grasslands (and the N:P ratios were greater in the *Nardus* grassland), presumably because legumes were minor in both plant communities (albeit more abundant in the chalk grassland). The soil C:N ratio was greater in the *Nardus* grassland than in the chalk grassland, but this difference can likely be explained by the lower concentrations of structural components leading to faster decomposition of organic matter, resulting in lower C:N (Badea et al., 2020). Faster decomposition will also result in lighter  $\delta^{13}C$  values in chalk grasslands (Badea et al., 2020), a finding observed in a previous study by Badía-Villas et al. (2020).

#### 4.4. Topographic controls on elemental stoichiometry

Heterogeneous element composition is a key factor in the coexistence of plant species (He et al., 2008; Hong et al., 2015) and communities (Yan et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2022) in high-mountain areas. Differences in elemental composition mirror different nutrient requirements, resulting in niche separation (Sardans and Peñuelas, 2014), and the high spatial variability in mountain soils provides diverse niche spaces for plants with different requirements (Antonelli et al., 2018). Microtopography contributes greatly to mountain soil heterogeneity (Hiller and Mütterthies, 2005; Holtmeier and Broll, 2018) and has been shown to have a considerable effect on nutrient distribution in calcareous ranges (Sebastiá 2004; Michalet et al., 2002; Giaccone et al., 2019), being even more influential than the calcareous vs. siliceous nature of bedrock (Michalet et al., 2002). Distinguishing topographic effects from geochemical effects is critical for understanding how bedrock geology influences the biodiversity of high-mountain ecosystems (Rahbek et al., 2019).

In the present study, the differences in elemental composition between *Nardus* and chalk grasslands were related to limitations due to excess Ca that were dependent on local topography. Erosion in mountain areas is usually uneven due to the complex topography, with local areas experiencing both soil thinning and thickening (Amundson et al., 2015). Soil thinning brings the bedrock closer to the soil surface, which, in calcareous ranges, leads to increased levels of lime and pH (Tovar et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2018), whereas thickened soils are more prone to leaching and decalcification (Amundson et al., 2015). In the study area, uneven erosion has led to the small-scale co-occurrence of soils with contrasting degrees of evolution (e.g., Hypereutric Leptosols and Orthoeutric Cambisols) on a few meters scale within the same slope (Badía-Villas et al., 2020). On the Hypereutric Leptosols, higher Ca results in increased P limitation, causing them to be colonized by the chalk



grassland, which can be regarded as a typical calcicole adapted to (but likely not demanding) extreme Ca contents. In contrast, the *Nardus* grassland, which is not typically calcifuge but still intolerant to excess Ca, grows on Orthoetric Cambisols where P limitation has been alleviated by decalcification. The lower biomass of the chalk grasslands on Leptosols allows for further soil erosion (Liu et al., 2018) as opposed to the greater stability of the Cambisols of the *Nardus* grassland, which contributes to stabilizing the mosaic of soils and plant communities by positive feedback mechanisms (Armas-Herrera et al., 2020). To our knowledge, reports on Ca-induced P limitation driven by local topography are scarce for upland areas, but this phenomenon is well known for calcareous fens (e.g., Boyer and Wheeler, 1989; Boeye et al., 1997), where P limitation and plant communities are patchily distributed due to fluctuations in the base-rich water table due to microtopography.

## 5. Conclusions

The small-scale coexistence of *Nardus* grasslands and chalk grasslands in the southern central Pyrenees was related to differing levels of available Ca in the soil and Ca uptake by plants. Among the nutrients studied, Ca was the only one whose concentrations in herbage and soil were correlated, both being greater in the chalk grassland soils than in the *Nardus* grassland soils. High Ca in soil adversely affects P intake (as shown by decreasing plant P with increasing plant Ca and soil Ca), leading to a greater prevalence of P limitation than N limitation (as measured by the plant N:P ratio), which was associated with greater enzyme demand for P relative to N (as assessed from the soil enzyme N:P ratios). In *Nardus* grassland, the alleviation of P limitation results in increased productivity and the development of tall, dense graminoid vegetation, which opposes the general idea that graminoids have a greater N:P ratio than do forbs. The greater investment in stem-like structures in the *Nardus* grassland was mirrored by greater concentrations of C and structural carbohydrates in the herbage and higher potential carbohydrate-degrading activity in the soil. The S status is sufficient in both grasslands, as inferred from its high levels in soil and low plant N:S ratio. In turn, a high Ca:K ratio results in strong K deficiency in both grassland types as a consequence of the antagonistic effect of Ca on K uptake.

## CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Juan Luis Mora:** . **Cecilia Armas-Herrera:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Daniel Gómez:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation, Conceptualization. **David Badía-Villas:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation, Conceptualization.

## Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

## Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary material to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2024.108192>.

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