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1 **Coastal environments shape chemical and microbial properties of forest litters in circum**
2 **Mediterranean region**

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22

23 Soil microbial properties in the Mediterranean

24

25

26 **Abstract**

27 This study explores how chemical and microbial properties of litters can be affected by
28 coastal environments across the Mediterranean basin. A litterbag experiment including *Pinus*
29 *halepensis* Mill. and *Pistacia lentiscus* L., collected from both inland and coastal areas was set
30 up in France, Greece and Algeria. Control litterbags were left in their sampling sites and a
31 transfer of litterbags from inland to coastal area was performed to test whether the effect of
32 the specific constraints of coastal environments varies according to the country and the litter
33 type. After 10 months, litter chemical composition (CP/MAS ¹³C-NMR) and microbial
34 activities (cellulase, respiration, Biolog) and structure (TRFLP) were analysed. Coastal
35 conditions led to various responses: i) litter aromaticity differed in the coastal zones
36 depending on the country (high in Greek coastal area, low in Algerian coastal zone), ii) less
37 functionally-diversified microbial communities were found in Greek coastal area compared to
38 French and Algerian coasts, iii) genetic diversity and richness were strongly impacted after
39 transfer to the coastal zone whatever the country. The type of litter shaped microbial
40 communities: i) at a local scale i.e. in either coastal or inland area, catabolic profiles and
41 cellulase activities varied with the plant species, ii) at a regional scale, the effect of coastal
42 conditions differed with the plant species (basal respiration, Shannon-Weaver index, catabolic
43 diversity H', cellulases and catabolic profiles). Thus, litter microbial properties differed in
44 coastal environments across the Mediterranean basin and plant litter type plays a major role in
45 microbial properties at large spatial scale.

46

47 **Key words:** extracellular enzyme activities, litter microbial communities, Mediterranean area,
48 water potential stress.

49

50

51 **Introduction**

52 Mediterranean ecosystems are subjected to various environmental pressures: a drastic climate
53 characterized by severe summer drought, soils weakly developed and poor organic matter
54 content (Sardans et al., 2008) and long-standing and intense human activities. Drastic
55 pedoclimatic conditions are more intense in coastal environments where water-potential stress
56 is reinforced by wind regime and combined to an additional stress *i.e.* osmotic stress due to
57 sea-spray exposure (Boukhoudou et al., 2016, Qasemian et al., 2014). A reduced water
58 availability in soils or litters induces a shift in microbial community diversities (Chowdhury et
59 al., 2011) together with a lower basal respiration and extracellular enzyme production, which
60 hinder organic matter decomposition (Yuan et al., 2007). Coastal ecosystems under such
61 particular constraints may be more threatened by climate change that will notably be
62 characterized by higher temperatures and longer periods of summer drought in the
63 Mediterranean area (Gibelin and Déqué, 2003, Sanchez et al., 2004).

64 Climate in various biomes has been proven to be a major driver structuring decomposer
65 communities and consequently regulating organic matter turn-over (Aerts, 1997, Wall et al.,
66 2013, Zhou et al., 2008). However, some studies revealed that, local differences linked to
67 plant species assemblages and thus to organic matter diversity and quality, have a stronger
68 effect on the processes of decomposition than climate variations between continents
69 (Cornwell et al., 2008). Zhang et al. (2008) found that litter quality is the most important
70 direct regulator of litter properties at the global scale. Their results showed significant
71 relationships between litter decomposition rates and the combination of climatic factors and
72 litter quality (C/N and Total nutrients).

73 Thus, there is a urgent need to decipher how litter microbial communities may be affected by
74 such climate modifications at various spatial scales and whether it may vary with the chemical
75 quality of litter and pre-exposure to osmotic stress (coastal environments). This study aimed at

76 investigating how microbial functioning in litters from two Mediterranean plant species,
77 commonly found in both Mediterranean coastal and inland areas and exhibiting different
78 functional traits (*Pinus halepensis*, a coniferous species, and *Pistacia lentiscus*, an evergreen
79 dicot species) may be driven by the specific conditions of coastal environments. Moreover,
80 we used the contrasted climate conditions across the Mediterranean basin, comparing France,
81 Greece and Algeria environments, to test the effect of a gradient of aridity on litter
82 functioning. Most of litter decomposition experiments used litter from plants exposed
83 artificially to global change factors such as warming, irrigation or elevated CO₂ (Suseela and
84 Tharayil, 2018) but very few studies used field-scale transplantation experiments to
85 investigate the *in situ* impacts of climate variations (Berger et al., 2015, Keiser and Bradford,
86 2017, Makkonen et al., 2012). Here, an original experimental design based on litterbag use
87 was performed: litterbags of either *P. halepensis* or *P. lentiscus* litters were exposed in inland
88 to coastal areas in the three selected countries to test the effect of a gradient of aridity on litter
89 functioning and, within each country, a pool of litter bags was transferred from inland to
90 coastal area to test the effect of coastal conditions on inland communities. Consequently, we
91 aimed at addressing the following questions: i) are microbial communities and their functions
92 shaped by coastal conditions and do more drastic climate conditions found across the
93 Mediterranean basin strengthen these stresses linked to the coastal conditions? ii) for each
94 country, what are the responses of microbial communities from inland areas when they are
95 subjected to coastal area conditions and their specific stresses and are their responses plant-
96 species dependent?

97 According to our hypotheses: i) in each country, coastal environmental conditions will play a
98 key role defining a particular microbial functioning in the coastal area and ii) more arid
99 climate conditions will act at a larger scale i.e. the Circum-Mediterranean region and will
100 smoothen the effect of coastal conditions and of litter type on microbial properties. Thus, *in*

101 *fine*, this study will provide useful information about environmental factors driving microbial
102 communities and their activities at different spatial scales, more precisely about the
103 vulnerability of coastal areas.

104

105 **Materials and Methods**

106 *Site description and litter sampling*

107 Sampling sites were selected in stands of *Pinus halepensis* (forest and matorral) in association
108 with *Pistacia lentiscus* throughout a latitudinal gradient across the Mediterranean basin (Table
109 1). The inland sites (Table 1) were located in the Massif de l'Etoile in the periurban area of
110 Marseille (France), in the forests of Argoli near Cleones (Peloponese, Greece) and in the
111 forests of Traras near Ain Kebira (Wilaya of Tlemcem, Algeria), respectively. The coastal
112 sites (Table 1) were located in the Parc National des Calanques of Marseille (France), near
113 Monemvassia (Greece) and near Ghazaouet (Algeria). In each country, three sampling sites
114 (400 m²) were chosen in the coastal area (at less than 500 m from the coastal line) and three
115 others in the inland area (at 20 km from the sea). The distance between sites, whether coastal
116 or inland, is 2 km at least, far exceeding the spatial dependence of most microbiological
117 properties in soil (Nannipieri et al, 2003). The selected sites had similar pedoclimatic and
118 topographic features: 25–230 m in elevation, similar exposure (South), slope (10-15%) and
119 soil type (Calcaric Leptosol according to IUSS Working Group WRB, 2006). For each site,
120 the exact location (GPS), maximal and minimal temperatures and the relative humidity of air
121 measured *in situ* by EL-USB 2.0 probe (Conrad) over a two-year period and annual
122 precipitation, mean of annual temperature, precipitation of driest and wettest months
123 (worldclim, 1970-2010, Hijmans et al., 2005) were collected (Table 1). At each site and for
124 each plant species, in May 2014, twenty samples were randomly collected over a 400 m² area
125 to obtain a composite sample (2 kg) to prepare the litter bags. The very upper layer of horizon

126 Ol of *P. lentiscus* and *P. halepensis* litters was sampled to ensure homogenous characteristics
127 of the litter collected. Contaminating debris (e.g. leaves of other species, including branches
128 and seeds) were removed carefully from each collection. The samples were homogenized and
129 stored at 4°C until litter bag preparation.

130

131 *Litterbag preparation and experimental set-up*

132 30 g (dry weight, DW) of *P. halepensis* or *P. lentiscus* litter were placed per litterbag (30×10
133 cm, 2 mm rigid nylon mesh). A total of 162 litterbags were prepared: 108 control litterbags (3
134 countries x 2 areas (coastal and inland) x 3 sites x 3 replicates x 2 types of litter) and to test
135 the effect of the coastal zone i.e. 54 litterbags were transferred from inland to coastal areas (3
136 countries x 3 sites x 3 replicates x 2 types of litter). Litterbags were then placed in 6 sites for
137 litter exposure (3 countries x 2 areas), independent from the sampling sites, in early June
138 2014: 18 control litterbags in each inland site of the three countries (9 litter bags for each
139 species), 18 control litterbags and 18 ‘transfer’ litterbags in each coastal site of the three
140 countries. After 10 months in the field, litterbags were collected in March 2015. An aliquot of
141 each sample was kept after drying and ground prior to chemical analysis. For microbial
142 analyses, all the experiments started immediately and were performed over one week.

143

144 *Plant litter physico-chemical properties*

145 The physico-chemical properties of *P. halepensis* and *P. lentiscus* litters collected in coastal
146 and inland sites were determined as follows: as a preliminary, litters were characterized for
147 moisture, pH and electrical conductivity (EC). Total Organic Carbon (TOC) and Total
148 Nitrogen (TN) were measured using high temperature catalytic oxidation technique (Multi
149 N/C 2100, Analytik Jena, Germany). The sample was injected (50 µl) into the furnace filled
150 with a Pt preconditioned catalyst. The combustion was realized at 800 °C and the combustion

151 products were carried by high purity oxygen (Linde Gas) allowing detection of CO₂ by non-
152 dispersive infrared (NDIR) and detection of NO by chemiluminescence (CLD).
153 After ten months in the field, TOC and TN of litters from litter bags were characterized as
154 described above. Moreover, litter chemical properties were also analysed by solid-state ¹³C
155 NMR. Spectra were obtained on a Bruker Avance-400 MHz NMR spectrometer operating at a
156 ¹³C resonance frequency of 100.7 MHz and using a commercial Bruker double-bearing probe.
157 About 400 mg of sample were placed in zirconium dioxide rotors of 4-mm outer diameter and
158 spun at the Magic Angle Spinning (MAS) rate of 10 kHz. The Cross Polarisation (CP)
159 technique was applied with a ramped 1H-pulse starting at 100 % power and decreasing to 50
160 % during contact time (2 ms) to avoid Hartmann-Hahn mismatches. The experiments were
161 performed at ambient temperature and 20K scans were accumulated using a delay of 2.5s, for
162 an experimental time of 2h. The ¹³C chemical shifts were referenced to tetramethylsilane and
163 calibrated with glycine carbonyl signal, set at 176.5 ppm. The ¹³C NMR spectra were divided
164 into 7 chemical shift regions according to Dignac et al. (2002): i.e. alkyl C (0-45 ppm),
165 methoxyl C (45-60 ppm), O-alkyl C (60-90 ppm), di-O-alkyl C (90-110 ppm), aromatic C
166 (110-140 ppm), phenolic C (140-160 ppm) and carboxyl C (160-190 ppm). Deconvolution of
167 each spectrum was performed on DmFit 2011 to determine the relative intensity of each
168 selected region (Massiot et al. 2002). The aromaticity ratio (aromatic C/O alkyl C + alkyl C +
169 aromatic C) was calculated according to Baldock et al. (1997).

170

171 *Microbial activities*

172 Cellulase activity was assayed using CarboxyMethylCellulose (CMC) 0.1% (w/v) in 8
173 mL of sodium acetate buffer (50 mM, pH 5) added to 1 g of litter (dry weight) incubated for
174 4h at 50°C. Glucose was quantified according to the Somogyi-Nelson method and absorption

175 was read at 870 nm (Farnet et al, 2010). Enzyme activities were expressed in μ moles of
176 reaction products released per minute (U) per gram of dry soil ($U\ g^{-1}\ DS$).

177 Basal respiration was measured to assess the ecophysiological state of litter microbial
178 communities. Three g DW equivalent of fresh litter were placed in 117 ml glass jars. The
179 glass jars were immediately sealed with hermetic rubber septa, and incubated for 4 hours at
180 25°C. After incubation, 1 ml of air was sampled in the head space with a syringe and injected
181 into a gas chromatograph (Chrompack CHROM 3 – CP 9001) to analyse CO₂ production. The
182 gas chromatograph was equipped with a thermal conductivity detector and a packed column
183 (Porapak). The carrier gas helium flow was regulated at 60 ml h⁻¹. Ambient CO₂
184 concentrations were subtracted from sampled CO₂ concentrations and resulting values were
185 adjusted at 22°C according to Ideal Gas Laws using a $Q_{10} = 2$. Substrate-induced respiration
186 (SIR) rates were estimated using a procedure from Anderson and Domsch (1978). Three
187 grams DW equivalent of fresh litter were placed in 117 ml glass jars and amended with
188 powdered glucose (1000 μ g C g⁻¹ soil) found to maximize the respiration rate in litter in a
189 preliminary assay (data not shown). One ml of air was sampled in the headspace with a
190 syringe and injected into a gas chromatograph to analyse CO₂ production for 1 hour (see
191 above). Substrate-induced respiration was converted into microbial biomass (MB) using the
192 relation established by Beare et al. (1990).

193 The catabolic diversity of cultivable microbial communities was determined with
194 Biolog EcoPlate™ (BIOLOG Inc., Hayward, CA) using a procedure adapted from Garland
195 and Mills (1991). Briefly, 4 g DW equivalent of sub-sample were added to 50 ml of sterile 0.1
196 % Na-pyrophosphate solution (pH 7). The mixture was then shaken with an orbital shaker for
197 20 min and centrifuged at 500 g for 10 min at 4 °C to obtain a microbial suspension. Exactly 1
198 ml of supernatant was diluted into 99 ml of sterile saline solution (0.85% NaCl), hand-mixed
199 for 30 sec. and left to stand for 10 min. We purposely did not adjust the inoculums in order to

200 obtain uniform cell density, instead considering the total microbial count as an inherent
201 characteristic of the microbial communities of each mesocosm. A 125 µl aliquot of the diluted
202 solution was added to each of 96 wells in a Biolog EcoPlate™. Plates were incubated at 25 °C
203 and colour formation in each well was monitored at 595 nm using a TECAN®
204 spectrophotometer. Measurements were performed three times a day until average well colour
205 development (AWCD) exceeded a value of 1.0 standardized absorbance units (i.e. 3–5 day
206 incubation). Microbial C-use intensity was assessed as the rate of average well colour
207 development (AWCD) calculated as follows: $AWCD = \sum ODi/31$, where ODi is the optical
208 density for each well in the mid-exponential growth phase (i.e. after 72h). Absorbance values
209 for the wells with C sources were blanked against the control well. The incubation time
210 resulting in an AWCD = 0.5 absorbance unit ($T_{0.5}$) was calculated for each sample and used to
211 standardise the optical density of each C-containing well (Garland and Mills, 1991).

212

213 *Microbial genetic structure*

214 DNA was extracted from 0.25g of litter, using NucleoSpin® Soil kit (Macherey-Nagel,
215 Düren, Germany) following the manufacturer instructions. The quality of DNA extractions
216 was checked by electrophoresis on 1% agarose gels stained with GelRed (Molecular Probes,
217 USA) using a Gel Doc image analyser (BioRad, USA). DNA concentration was quantified
218 using Quant-iT™ dsDNA High-Sensitivity Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Canada). Then, all DNA
219 extracts were then diluted to 0.5 ng / µL for subsequent analysis. Bacterial community
220 structures were analyzed using T-RFLP footprinting as described by Bland et al. (2015).
221 Briefly, bacterial 16S rRNA gene was amplified using primers FAM labelled 63F and 1389R.
222 Biorad T100 thermal cycler was used for the amplification with the following programs:
223 initial denaturation at 94 °C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles of 94 °C for 30 s, 57 °C for 45 s,
224 and 72 °C for 90 s, followed by a final extension time at 72 °C for 10 min. Bacterial PCR

225 products (10 µl) were then digested with 10 U of the restriction enzyme *AluI* and 1×
226 restriction enzyme buffer (Thermo Fisher) in a total volume of 15 µl at 37 °C for 3 h. After a
227 desalting step, 2µl of PCR products were mixed with formamide containing 0.5% of LIZ500
228 (T-RFLP) internal size standard (Applied Biosystems,) in a total volume of 12 µl and
229 denatured at 94 °C for 3 min. Samples were electrophoresed in an ABI 3730 PRISM®
230 capillary DNA sequencer (Applied Biosystems). The T-RFLP profiles obtained with the
231 sequencer were analysed using GeneMapper® v3.7 software (Applied Biosystems). The
232 fragments between 50 and 500 bp and peaks height ≥ 50 fluorescence units were included in
233 T-RFLP analysis. Fragments having a relative abundance of proportion < 0.5% were removed
234 from the matrices.

235

236 *Statistical analyses*

237 The catabolic (BIOLOG) and genetic (TRFLP) diversities was calculated using Shannon's
238 index (H'):

$$239 \quad H' = - \sum_{i=1}^N p_i \log_{10} p_i$$

240 where p_i is either the ratio of colour development of the i^{th} well to the sum of colour
241 development of all positive wells or the relative abundance of a given restriction fragment for
242 BIOLOG or TRFLP techniques.

243 The normality and homogeneity of the variances of the data were determined on the residuals
244 from the regression model with the Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests, respectively. Data were
245 transformed to common logarithms, \log_{10} , when necessary to meet the requirements of
246 normality and homogeneity of variance for ANOVA. For control litterbags, three-way
247 ANOVA were used to determine whether, and to what extent, microbial properties (i.e. basal
248 respiration, active microbial biomass via SIR, catabolic diversity H' , cellulase activities and

249 bacteria richness and equitability via genetic analysis) and chemical characteristics (using
250 NMR data and C/N ratio) depended upon i) litter species (*Pinus halepensis* vs *Pistacia*
251 *lentiscus*) ii) the area conditions (coastland vs inland), iii) the geographical location (France,
252 Greece and Algeria) and iv) their interactions. When a 2-way interaction was found between
253 geographical location and context (coastal and inland) or plant litter species, we separated
254 data for each modality of geographical location, context, transfer or plant litter species using a
255 one-way ANOVA. Statistically significant ($P < 0.05$) main effects and interactions were
256 analysed further using the Tuckey HSD *post hoc* tests. Principal component analysis (PCA)
257 was performed on covariance matrices from Biolog® to explore the effects of geographical
258 location, condition and litter type on the catabolic structure of microbial communities and
259 tested by PERMANOVA. PCA provided an ordination of the microbial C-substrate utilization
260 profiles, which were plotted in one and two dimensions respectively, based on the scores of
261 the first two principal components (PC). All statistical analyses when performed using R
262 software (3.2.1, R Development Core team, 2015), levels of significance are indicated as $p \leq$
263 0.05.

264

265 **Results**

266

267 *Influence of the coastal environmental conditions on litter properties along a gradient of*
268 *aridity in the Mediterranean basin*

269 Here, we explored whether environmental constraints, which can be enhanced in coastal
270 environments (i.e. differences in salinity exposure, humidity, temperature, etc.), affected litter
271 microbial functioning. Thus, first, it was important to demonstrate how these environmental
272 characteristics actually varied between inland and coastal zones in the three countries.

273 These environmental conditions were indeed highly discriminated with respect to certain
274 parameters and depending on the geographical location. Temperature and precipitation
275 variations were strongly different between both coastal and inland areas. In France and
276 Greece, maximal temperature and annual mean temperature were higher in the area close to
277 the coastline, while precipitations of the driest and wettest months were lower. An opposite
278 trend was observed in Algeria, with more intense arid conditions in the inland site. These
279 contrasted climate conditions are particularly well described using annual precipitation as an
280 index of aridity (Stadler, 2005). The climate gradient between the Northern and the Southern
281 sides of the Mediterranean basin is clearly observed using this parameter and the differences
282 in precipitations between coastal and inland areas are particularly strong in Greece and
283 Algeria with opposite trends as described above. Moreover, values of both conductivity and
284 chloride ion concentrations linked to salinity exposure via sea sprays, were higher in litters
285 situated at the coastal areas in the three countries, showing that salinity stress was stronger in
286 the areas close to the coastline. We also determined the litter chemical properties at $t = 0$ from
287 the twelve composite samples of litters (2 species x 2 context (coastal vs inland) x 3
288 countries) used for litter bag preparation and results are shown in Table 2. Several global
289 trends were observed. Whatever the country or the distance from the sea, pH was always
290 lower in *Pinus halepensis* litter (from 4.7 to 6.24) than in *Pistacia lentiscus* litter (from 6.22 to
291 6.55). Moreover, in *P. halepensis* litter, total Organic Carbon amounts were always higher
292 (from 2.67 to 4.1 g C/L vs 1.55 to 2.22 g C/L) and this trend was also observed for Total N
293 amounts (from 3.49 to 5.12 g C/L vs 2.41 to 3.18 g C/L). ^{13}C NMR results showed that the
294 proportion of di-O-alkyl C + O-alkyl C was higher in *P. halepensis* litter and this was also
295 observed for aromatic + phenolic % in most cases. Thus, litter physico-chemical
296 characteristics depended on the type of species and not on the geographical location (coastal
297 vs inland area, Northern vs Southern side of the Mediterranean).

298 Three way-ANOVA revealed significant interactions between the coastal conditions and the
299 country for most of the microbial markers considered: cellulase activities, catabolic diversity,
300 basal respiration, and microbial biomass (Table 3).

301 Cellulases varied with the three factors tested (Figure 1 a and c). However, these activities
302 followed a global trend whatever the species and the area (coastal or inland): Greece > France
303 = Algeria.

304 For microbial biomass (MB), the effects of coastal conditions varied with the plant species
305 and the country (Figure 1b and d): no differences of MB between coastal and inland areas
306 were observed in *P. lentiscus* litters whatever the country (Fig 1b), while in *P. halepensis*
307 litters, higher MB was found in Algeria inland area only (coastal x country interaction,
308 $F=8.88$, $p \leq 0.001$, Fig 1d).

309 Our results also highlighted variations in catabolic diversity H' (ECO) and basal respiration
310 depending on coastal x country interaction (Figure 2a and b). In coastal area, H' (ECO) was
311 lower in Greece where the more drastic climate conditions were found compared to the two
312 other countries and the opposite trend was observed for BR. Thus, microbial communities
313 with less-diversified catabolic potential led to a higher respiration in the Greek coast. In
314 inland area, conversely, H' (ECO) increased with the gradient of aridity
315 (Algeria>Greece>France), while BR was similar whatever the country (Figure 2a).

316 Thus, for RB, MB and H' (ECO), the coastal conditions modified such important microbial
317 markers depending on the plant species and the country across the Mediterranean basin.

318 These results have to be considered regarding the chemical properties of litters characterised
319 by solid-state NMR of ^{13}C . Aromatic compounds were negatively correlated with MB ($r^2=-$
320 0.26 , $p \leq 0.05$). These results are corroborated by the three-way ANOVA (Table 3): the amount
321 of aromatic compounds was lower in litter where MB was high (Algerian coast) and
322 conversely, aromatics were more abundant in litter where MB was low (Greek coast) (coastal

323 x country interaction $F=1.98$, $p\leq 0.01$). O-Alkyl C signal (assigned to polysaccharides) also
324 varied depending on the coastal x country interaction ($F=8.08$, $p\leq 0.001$) and higher O-Alkyl
325 C signal in *P. halepensis* litter was observed together with high MB.

326 The effects of the country, the area (coastal or inland) and the plant species were also tested
327 on the catabolic structures of litter microbial communities. PERMANOVA showed significant
328 differences of the catabolic structure of litters between the three countries (pseudo- $F=5.23$,
329 $p\leq 0.001$) and between areas (pseudo- $F=4.40$, $p\leq 0.001$). Moreover, coastal conditions shaped
330 microbial catabolic profiles depending on the country (pseudo- $F=3.43$, $p\leq 0.01$). For microbial
331 genetic structure, the first two principal components (PCs) account for 33 % of the variation
332 in the data; PC1 accounts for 20 % and PC2 for 13 %. PCA revealed significant differences
333 between the three countries (pseudo- $F=3.39$, $p\leq 0.001$) and between areas (pseudo- $F=9.32$,
334 $p\leq 0.001$), showing that geographical conditions shaped microbial genetic structure and that it
335 differed depending on the coastal and inland areas. Figure 3a and b shows the results of the
336 PCA for the four combinations of area (inland or coastal) and litter (based on either genetic or
337 catabolic profiles) plotted on the first two principal components. For catabolic diversity, the
338 first two principal components (PCs) account for 22 % of the variation in the data; PC1
339 accounts for 12 % and PC2 for 10 %. For the two plant species considered, catabolic and
340 bacterial genetic structures changed depending on coastal and inland areas (Figure 3 a and b)
341 indicating that the effect of coastal context was stronger than the effect of species (which
342 would have homogenized catabolic profiles for one species). On the other hand, in either
343 inland or coastal areas, both catabolic and genetic structures were different depending on the
344 species showing that this is an important environmental driver at a local scale.

345 It is noteworthy that no significant effect of the factors tested was found on bacterial genetic
346 richness or diversity assessed via H' index (data not shown).

347

348 *Effect of litter transfer from inland to coastal area on litter properties*

349 In order to understand how environmental conditions of coastal environments may structure
350 microbial functioning, litters were transferred from inland to coastal area to test our initial
351 hypothesis: environmental conditions acting at a regional scale (coastal vs inland) are
352 preponderant over those acting at a local scale (litter chemical signature specific to a plant
353 species).

354 First, chemical markers from NMR data showed that, for both litters, the Aromaticity ratio
355 was different between transferred litters and litters from the coastal area (Table 4). Thus, the
356 ‘chemical environment’ of microbial communities was not similar in transferred and coastal
357 litters for both species and whatever the geographical location.

358 The effects of litter transfer (mainly negative) to the coastal zone observed on different
359 microbial markers (Table 4) varied with the country and the species. For cellulases, variations
360 after transfer to the coastal zone, were only found in Greece and differed with the species: i)
361 in *P. halepensis* litters, cellulases decreased significantly (to reach a lower level compared to
362 both coastal and inland activities), ii) in *P. lentiscus* litters, cellulases increased compared to
363 the original area i.e. inland area (Figure 4 a and b). Thus, in Greece, exposure of litter
364 microbial communities to environmental conditions specific to the coastal area (higher
365 temperatures and more intense drought than in the two other countries as shown in Table 1)
366 led to a modification in activities linked to the transformation of the labile fraction of organic
367 matter and the results observed after this exposure to stress differed with the plant species.

368 Our results also revealed the strong negative effects of the coastal environmental conditions
369 on MB and H'(ECO) depending on the geographical location (Table 4). This is in Algeria
370 where litter transfer to coastal area strongly affected both microbial markers (data not shown),
371 while no variations were observed in France and Greece after transfer for these markers.

372 PCA from Biolog data revealed a change in catabolic profiles due to litter transfer to the
373 coastal zone (Figure 5a and b). PC1 and PC2 explained 12.7% and 10.7% of variance for *P.*
374 *lentiscus* litter (Figure 5a) and 13.5% and 12.5% for *P. halepensis* litter (Figure 5b).
375 PERMANOVA indicated effects of transfer to the coastal area on catabolic profiles in *Pinus*
376 (pseudo-F=2.64, $p \leq 0.001$) and *P. lentiscus* (pseudo-F=2.22, $p \leq 0.001$) litters. These effects
377 were significant for the three countries in the case of *P. lentiscus* litters and in Algeria only
378 for *P. halepensis* litter. Interestingly, microbial catabolic structure after litter transfer in
379 Algeria was similar to that from the coastal area for both *P. lentiscus* and *P. halepensis* litters
380 (Figure 5a and b).

381 PCA based on T-RFLP data also revealed a change in genetic profiles due to litter transfer to
382 the coastal zone (Figure 6a and b). PC1 and PC2 explained 9.1% and 4.9% of variance for *P.*
383 *lentiscus* litter (Figure 6a) and 11.2% and 5.1% for *P. halepensis* litter (Figure 6b).
384 PERMANOVA indicated significant effects of transfer to the coastal area on microbial
385 communities in *P. halepensis* (pseudo-F=5.64, $p \leq 0.01$) and *P. lentiscus* (pseudo-F=7.41,
386 $p \leq 0.01$) for the three countries.

387

388 **Discussion**

389 *Variations in litter microbial functioning across an aridity gradient in the Mediterranean*
390 *basin depends on the distance from the sea*

391 Our study revealed that the effects of the coastal environment differed depending on the
392 geographical location: more precisely, in Greece, coastal conditions led to a specific
393 functioning with higher cellulase and basal respiration and a lower catabolic index of
394 diversity. On the other hand, in coastal environments in France and Algeria, more
395 catabolically-diversified communities were found (higher H' (ECO) index). Moreover, all
396 these differences in microbial functioning were accompanied by different genetic structures in

397 coastal and inland areas of the three countries as described by PCA from T-RFLP data. This
398 may be explained by contrasted climate conditions between coastal and inland environments
399 in Northern vs Southern part of Mediterranean basin as described above. Summer drought is
400 indeed more drastic in coastal area in Greece, while higher temperatures are found in the
401 inland area in Algeria. Moreover, additional osmotic stress in the coastal area (as revealed by
402 conductivity and chloride ion concentrations) has probably reinforced the stronger drought
403 constraints found in Greek coastal area. Rath et al. (2015) indicated that additional salt stress
404 to drying exerts a stronger effect on microbial growth and moreover a shift in microbial
405 structure (assessed via PLFA) after salt treatment is induced. Our recent study (Kheir et al.,
406 2019) also sustained such findings since osmotic stress, experienced by microbial
407 communities from coastal environments, modified differently catabolic structure of litter
408 microbial communities after drought stress. Rajaniemi and Allison (2009) also showed that
409 microbial community composition and biomass can be strongly modified by abiotic stress
410 such as salinity and provoked a shift towards a higher proportion of Gram-negative bacteria.
411 Here, our findings also underlined that the type of litter shaped microbial communities: i) at a
412 local scale i.e. in either coastal or inland areas, certain microbial markers (catabolic profiles,
413 cellulase activities) varied with the type of plant species, ii) at a regional scale, the effect of
414 coastal conditions differed with the plant species (variations in BR, H'(ECO), cellulases and
415 catabolic profiles). This goes in line with our previous study (Farnet Da Silva et al., 2016),
416 which demonstrated that catabolic diversity varied with litter type under water potential
417 stresses linked to coastal environments. Sherman and Steinberger (2012) studied catabolic
418 potential of litter microbial communities across an aridity gradient in Israel, from the
419 Mediterranean shore to the arid zone. They also found a shift in litter microbial catabolic
420 structure explained by plant traits. Moreover, their study revealed that low organic matter
421 input in the arid zone -because of low plant productivity- induced a diversification of resource

422 utilization. These findings are of importance since modification in catabolic potential of
423 microbial communities may induce a shift in decomposition process since transformation of
424 certain compounds such as lignin is sensitive to the structure of microbial communities (Mc
425 Guire and Treseder, 2010).

426

427 *Modification of litter microbial functioning when microbial communities from inland area are*
428 *subjected to coastal environmental conditions*

429 After transfer of litters from inland to coastal area, certain microbial markers, such as
430 cellulase activities, were strongly impacted and the intensity of the effect varied with the plant
431 species. Our initial hypothesis was based on the fact that coastal conditions may have
432 smoothen the effect of litter type leading to homogeneous microbial responses to changes in
433 environmental climate conditions whatever the plant species. Thus, our study underlined the
434 importance of species traits in microbial responses to stress. The quantity and quality of
435 organic matter shape the structure and composition of microbial communities and their
436 resistance to stresses (Bradford et al., 2002). Mediterranean litters are described as
437 particularly rich in secondary metabolites (terpenes, tannins, VOC ...) and lignins (Di Castri,
438 1973, Rousk et al., 2010, Terradas and Savé, 1992). These compounds are known to modify
439 microbial communities and their activities: they can be toxic for microbial cells (Popova et
440 al., 2009, Adamczyk et al., 2015), interact with enzymes, leading to adverse effects on their
441 catalytic potential (inhibition/precipitation of enzymes). Some tannins can modify the quantity
442 and the nature of N sources available for microorganisms because of adsorption or enzymatic
443 inhibition (Hättenschwiler and Vitousek, 2000). Thus, the importance of litter chemical
444 signature on microbial community structure and functioning has to be taken into account
445 when studying soil microbial vulnerability under environmental constraints. More
446 particularly, the effect of litter admixture on microbial responses to coastal condition exposure

447 should be valuable to determine since the diversification of nutrient resources is known to
448 enhance microbial diversity and consequently may favour resistance to water potential stress.
449 These subtle variations in organic matter can indeed lead to additive or non-additive
450 (synergistic or antagonistic) effects (Brunel et al., 2017) and various plant species exhibiting
451 different functional traits should be included in such research (Prescott and Grayston, 2013).
452 Previous studies have indeed shown that changes in plant species can actually modify both the
453 biomass and structure of soil microbial communities (Laganière et al., 2009; Matos et al.,
454 2010) and thus their responses to stress.

455 Coastal environmental conditions appeared to have induced a shift in microbial catabolic
456 structure of both litters, mainly in Algeria. Interestingly, in *P. halepensis* litter, the catabolic
457 profile resulting from transfer in the Greek coastal area differed from catabolic profiles of
458 both inland and coastal areas (control and transfer area respectively). These results may
459 partially explain the decrease in cellulase activities after transfer: the shift in catabolic
460 diversity of microbial communities after transfer may have not sustained such activities. On
461 the other hand, in *P. lentiscus* litter, the potential of cellulose transformation was identical in
462 the transferred litter and in litter from the coastal area. Some studies have attempted to
463 decipher the respective influence of either climate conditions or chemical signature of organic
464 matter, using very contrasted bioclimates. Gholz et al (2000) and Perez et al. (2013) indicated
465 that the effect of ‘home field advantage’ is particularly pregnant for microbial communities
466 from litters with a high amount of cellulose and hemicellulose. The study of Makkonen et al.
467 (2012) revealed utterly different results: transfers of 16 types of litters from four different
468 biomes (subarctic, temperate, Mediterranean and tropical climate) led to a homogeneous
469 dynamics of litter transformation. Moreover, the authors found that the complexity of
470 decomposer communities including micro-, meso and macro fauna (using various mesh size
471 of litterbags), does not accelerate decomposition rate and this is particularly true for the

472 Mediterranean biome. This means that decomposers from a wide range of bioclimates are not
473 specialized in the transformation of ‘autochthonous’ organic matter. Opposite results were
474 found in the study of Milcu and Manning (2011), which showed that a range of soil fauna size
475 classes contributes to ‘home field advantage’ effect and that experimental bias (e.g. fine mesh
476 sizes) impacts the contribution of soil fauna. It has to be underlined that our study also
477 involved micro and mesofauna since 2 mm mesh-size litterbags were used. We found that the
478 concept of ‘home field advantage’ applied to cellulose transformation depended on the litter
479 type. For *P. halepensis*, this potential clearly depended on the coastal conditions since, when
480 microbial communities from inland areas were transferred to the coastal zones, their potential
481 to hydrolyze cellulose strongly decreased.

482 Transfer experiment of litters also showed that major microbial markers such as MB and the
483 catabolic index of diversity, H' (ECO), were differently affected depending on the
484 geographical location: after transfer, H' (ECO) decreased in Algeria and not in France or
485 Greece, and MB decreased in Algeria. Thus, this revealed that the contrasted climate
486 conditions across the Mediterranean Basin specialized microbial responses when facing a
487 change in environmental conditions (transfer from inland to coastal area). Piérou Index of
488 diversity based on T-RFLP also underlined that litter transfer led to a decrease in genetic
489 diversity (whatever the geographical location or the litter type). This study indicates that
490 coastal conditions have probably shaped a particular microbial functioning and that
491 microorganisms from other environments have to adapt to these new specific conditions.
492 However, more than the chronicity of the stress linked to sea-spray exposure, the effect of
493 pulses of salinity increase (due to seasonal variations i.e. wind intensity, precipitation...) is
494 probably a more challenging factor for microorganism resistance (Schimel et al., 2007). Our
495 previous study (Qasemian et al., 2014) indeed revealed variations in conductivity in coastal
496 environments over the year (higher conductivity in summer because of drought). As discussed

497 above, the recent study of Rath et al. (2017) evoked the importance of salinity in enhancing
498 drought exposure impact on soil microorganisms.

499 Whatever the geographical location and the species, after transfer of litterbags, a shift in the
500 genetic structure was observed and differed from those of both inland and coastal areas. These
501 findings were observed after a 10-month exposure in the new habitat i.e. coastal area and this
502 revealed that these variations in environmental conditions are likely to shape differently
503 microbial communities over long periods. This also showed that acclimation of litter
504 microbial communities, in terms of diversity, to other environmental conditions was quite a
505 long-term process. Pesaro et al. (2004) found that after a drought stress, functional properties
506 such as respiration, are rapidly recovered, while the initial levels of diversity and biomass are
507 not reached one month after stress. Schimel et al. (2007) suggested that, while physiological
508 effects of water potential stresses are supposed to drive short-term microbial responses, the
509 modifications in microbial community structure and composition are likely to occur over a
510 longer period. Moreover, these authors assume that microbial diversity in soil should not be
511 considered as a juxtaposition of 'functional groups' but results from the interaction between
512 these functional groups (such as denitrifiers, lignocellulose decomposers...) and from their
513 resistance to variations in environmental conditions and stresses of different types.

514 This study revealed that litter microbial communities from inland and coastal areas had
515 different genetic and catabolic structures. Crits-Christoph et al., (2013) found that
516 conductivity was one of the major drivers of soil microbial genetic diversity in arid
517 environments. The study of Qasemian et al., (2014), who tested the effect of coastal
518 conditions on microbial activities at a microlocal scale, also revealed modifications of
519 microbial catabolic structure in litters depending on the distance from seashore. The
520 understanding of area–species diversity relationships is of major importance since it allows
521 prediction of the impact of environmental changes such as more intense climate stresses

522 (Decaëns, 2010). Moreover, the coastal conditions affected major microbial properties across
523 a gradient of aridity in the Mediterranean basin depending on plant litter species, indicating
524 the huge importance of litter chemical signature even at wide spatial scale. Since both
525 microbial diversity and enzyme activities are of major importance in sustaining organic matter
526 turn-over, our results contributed to understand better the relative importance of external
527 filters to shed light on litter microbial functioning in changing environments.

528

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541

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721

722 Data availability statement

723 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author

724 upon reasonable request.

725 **Table 1** Location of the areas where litter bags were left in the three countries, environmental parameters monitored monthly *in situ* over a two-
 726 year period and climate variables from worldclim data (Hijmans et al., 2005).

| | France | | Greece | | Algeria | |
|--|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| | Coastal | Inland | Coastal | Inland | Coastal | Inland |
| Area location | N43°12'34.08" E5°21'24.05" | N43°22'29.74'' E5°25'44.66" | N36°40'21.22" E23°2'2.26" | N37°47'42.47" E22°44'22.81" | N35°06'33.05'' E1°49'46.47'' | N35°03'12.17'' E1°43'37.78'' |
| Environmental data monitored <i>in situ</i> (2014-16) | | | | | | |
| Minimal temperature of the coldest month (°C) | 2.5 | -1.5 | 3 | -2 | 3.5 | -1.5 |
| Maximal temperature of the hottest month (°C) | 41.5 | 40.5 | 50 | 43.5 | 44 | 47.5 |
| Minimal relative humidity of air (the driest month) | 30 | 15 | 16 | 24 | 28.5 | 18.5 |
| Worldclim data | | | | | | |
| Annual mean temperature (°C) | 14.1 | 13.1 | 18.2 | 15.7 | 14.4 | 20 |
| Annual precipitation (mm) | 602 | 643 | 543 | 666 | 360 | 77 |
| Precipitation of the driest month (mm) | 13 | 16 | 2 | 9 | 5 | 1 |
| Precipitation of the wettest month (mm) | 85 | 85 | 107 | 117 | 44 | 11 |

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728

729 **Table 2** Chemical characteristics of the composite samples of litters which were used to prepare litter bags for each environmental condition
 730 (coastal and inland areas) and geographical location (France, Greece, Algeria).

731

| | France | | | | Greece | | | | Algeria | | | |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | coastal | | inland | | coastal | | inland | | coastal | | inland | |
| | <i>Ph</i> | <i>Pl</i> | <i>Ph</i> | <i>Pl</i> | <i>Ph</i> | <i>Pl</i> | <i>Ph</i> | <i>Pl</i> | <i>Ph</i> | <i>Pl</i> | <i>Ph</i> | <i>Pl</i> |
| TOC (mg C/kg) | 2851.9 | 1557.71 | 2951.67 | 1855.96 | 4104.09 | 1756.91 | 2647.36 | 2225.68 | 2556.62 | 1694.72 | 2675.63 | 1593.12 |
| Total N (mg N/kg) | 88.0 | 102.4 | 65.6 | 69.8 | 52.0 | 61.0 | 55.0 | 110.0 | 77.6 | 97.0 | 48.2 | 53.0 |
| NH ₄ ⁺ (mg N/kg) | 0.48 | 0.63 | 0.46 | 0.52 | 0.26 | 0.55 | 0.38 | 0.85 | 0.59 | 0.44 | 0.27 | 0.28 |
| pH | 6.16 | 6.55 | 6.22 | 5.76 | 5.88 | 6.27 | 5.7 | 6.19 | 5.55 | 6.46 | 6.15 | 6.54 |
| Conductivity (mS/cm) | 1557 | 2020 | 590 | 640 | 1634 | 982 | 701 | 641 | 954 | 830 | 630 | 690 |
| Cl ⁻ (%) | 2.80 | 3.62 | 1.04 | 1.13 | 2.92 | 1.75 | 1.25 | 1.40 | 1.70 | 1.47 | 1.11 | 1.22 |

732

733

734 **Table 3** Results of the three-way ANOVA to test the effects of the plant species (*Pinus halepensis* vs *Pistacia lentiscus*), of the environmental
 735 condition (coastal vs inland area), the geographical location (France, Greece and Algeria) and their interactions on the microbial and chemical
 736 markers from control litter bags. BR: Basal Respiration, MB: Microbial biomass, H' (ECO): Shannon-Weaver index from catabolic profiles, R
 737 (T-RFLP), richness from T-RFLP data, H' (T-RFLP): Shannon-Weaver index from T-RFLP.

738

| Control | Df | BR | MB | cellulase | H' | COOH | Aromatic | O-alkyl-C | Alkyl-C |
|-------------------------------|----|--------|--------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|
| Species | 1 | 4.82* | 1,23 | 40.51*** | 0,009 | 202.39*** | 3,06 | 23.01*** | 17.03*** |
| Context | 1 | 2,45 | 5.95* | 11.37** | 3,62 | 2,65 | 1,68 | 3,27 | 10.15** |
| Geographical location (GL) | 2 | 0,39 | 1,35 | 108.20*** | 13.31*** | 14.54*** | 0,8 | 1,74 | 2,27 |
| Species* GL | 1 | 0,02 | 7.32** | 7.73*** | 1,16 | 36.42*** | 33.12*** | 0,01 | 0,28 |
| Species* Context | 2 | 0,4928 | 4.49* | 16.66*** | 0,67 | 12.06*** | 6.43** | 7.13** | 6.76** |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|---|---------|---------|---------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Context* GL | 2 | 9.37*** | 8.83*** | 4.90** | 12.51*** | 84.23*** | 1,98 | 8.08*** | 10.35*** |
| Species* Context*GL | 2 | 2,11 | 6.05** | 7.63*** | 7.34** | 31.85*** | 19.666*** | 15.56*** | 9.31*** |

| Coastal transfer | Df | BR | MB | cellulase | H' | COOH | Aromatic | O-alkyl-C | Alkyl-C |
|----------------------------|----|---------|----------|-----------|---------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|
| Species | 1 | 5.002* | 3,07 | 14.97*** | 1,73 | 390.33*** | 21.03*** | 39.57*** | 14.88*** |
| Context | 2 | 1,36 | 0,59 | 8.56*** | 1,8 | 5.12** | 1,67 | 6.53** | 14.47*** |
| Geographical location (GL) | 2 | 2,97 | 11.04*** | 94.10*** | 7.79*** | 24.02*** | 1,21 | 2,52 | 4.66* |
| Species* GL | 2 | 1,61 | 7.10** | 10.34*** | 0,48 | 67.63*** | 2,09 | 15.00*** | 26.17*** |
| Species* Context | 2 | 0,85 | 3.69* | 7.33*** | 1,69 | 27.15*** | 23.48*** | 0,66 | 2,52 |
| Context* GL | 4 | 5.82*** | 5.20*** | 9.52*** | 9.14*** | 10.28*** | 3.57** | 6.38*** | 5.72*** |
| Species* Context*GL | 4 | 3.62** | 3.28* | 10.84*** | 4.46** | 31.77*** | 11.04*** | 11.46*** | 7.24*** |

739 * P<0.05 ; ** P<0.01 ; *** P<0.001.

740

741

742 **Table 4** Results of the three-way ANOVA to test the effects of the plant species (*Pinus halepensis* vs *Pistacia lentiscus*), the transfer (control vs
 743 transferred litters), the geographical location and their interactions on the microbial and chemical markers from control and transfer litter bags.
 744 BR: Basal Respiration, MB, Microbial biomass, H' (ECO): Shannon-Weaver index from catabolic profiles, R (T-RFLP), richness from T-RFLP
 745 data, H' (T-RFLP): Shannon-Weaver index from T-RFLP.

| | Df | BR | MB | Cellulase | H'(ECO) | R (T-RFLP) | H' (T-RFLP) | COOH | Aromatic | O-Alkyl-C | Alkyl-C |
|----------------------------|----|---------|----------|-----------|---------|------------|-------------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|
| Species | 1 | 5.002* | 3.07 | 14.97*** | 1.73 | 0.322 | 0.078 | 390.33*** | 21.03*** | 39.57*** | 14.88*** |
| Transfer | 2 | 1.36 | 0.59 | 8.56*** | 1.8 | 4.808** | 6.198** | 5.12** | 1.67* | 6.53** | 14.47*** |
| Geographical location (GL) | 2 | 2.97 | 11.04*** | 94.10*** | 7.79*** | 6.229** | 2.987* | 24.02*** | 1.21 | 2.52 | 4.66* |
| Species* GL | 2 | 1.61 | 7.10** | 10.34*** | 0.48 | 0.514 | 0.007 | 67.63*** | 2.09 | 15.00*** | 26.17*** |
| Species* Transfer | 2 | 0.85 | 3.69* | 7.33*** | 1.69 | 1.191 | 0.065 | 27.15*** | 23.48*** | 0.66 | 2.52 |
| Transfer * GL | 4 | 5.82*** | 5.20*** | 9.52*** | 9.14*** | 1.677 | 0.035 | 10.28*** | 3.57** | 6.38*** | 5.72*** |
| Species* Transfer * GL | 4 | 3.62** | 3.28* | 10.84*** | 4.46** | 0.411 | 0.062 | 31.77*** | 11.04*** | 11.46*** | 7.24*** |

746 * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$.

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750

751 **Figure 1 a and b** Cellulase (A and C) and microbial biomass (B and D) from control litter
752 bags of *Pistacia lentiscus* (A and B) and *Pinus halepensis* (C and D) from coastal (▨) or
753 inland (□) areas. Means and standard deviations (n=9). Different letters indicate significant
754 differences between countries for coastal or inland areas (Tuckey HSD *post hoc* test, $p \leq 0.05$).

755

756 **Figure 2** Shannon-Weaver Index from catabolic diversity (A) and Basal Respiration (B) of
757 control litter bags from either coastal (▨) or inland (▩) areas in Greece, France and Algeria.
758 Means and standard deviations (n=18). Different lowercase or upper-case letters indicate
759 significant differences between countries for coastal or inland areas, respectively (Tuckey
760 HSD *post hoc* test, $p \leq 0.05$). Asterisks indicate differences (*t*-test) between inland and coastal
761 area.

762

763 **Figure 3 a and b** PCA from bacteria T-RFLP fingerprints (A) and catabolic profiles from
764 Biolog data (B) obtained from control litter bags and showing the effect of the type of litter
765 (*Pinus*= *Pinus halepensis* vs *Pistacia* = *Pistacia lentiscus*) and of the condition (coastal vs
766 inland) on both genetic and functional microbial structures. Centroids, representing the
767 average of 21 replicates, are reported with standard deviations.

768

769 **Figure 4** Cellulase in litter bags from inland control (I), coastal control (C) and transfer from
770 inland to coastal zones (I>C) in the three countries, Greece (▨), France (▩) and Algeria (▧)
771 and for both plant species i.e. *Pinus halepensis* (A) and *Pistacia lentiscus* (B). Means and
772 standard deviation (n=9). Different letters indicate significant differences between means of
773 C, I and I>C for each geographical location (Tuckey HSD *post hoc* test, $p \leq 0.05$)

774

775 **Figure 5 a and b** PCA from catabolic profiles from Biolog data for *Pistacia lentiscus* (A) and
776 *Pinus halepensis* (B) obtained from control and transfer litterbags showing the effect of litter
777 transfer from inland to coastal areas depending on the species and the geographical location
778 on catabolic microbial structures (white symbols: France, grey symbols: Greece, black
779 symbols: Algeria). Centroids, representing the average of nine replicates, are reported with
780 standard deviations.

781

782 **Figure 6 a and b** PCA from T-RFLP fingerprints for *Pistacia lentiscus* (A) and *Pinus*
783 *halepensis* (B) obtained from control and transfer litterbags showing the effect of litter
784 transfer from inland to coastal areas depending on the species and the geographical location
785 on microbial genetic structures (white symbols: France, grey symbols: Greece, black symbols:
786 Algeria). Centroids, representing the average of nine replicates, are reported with standard
787 deviations.

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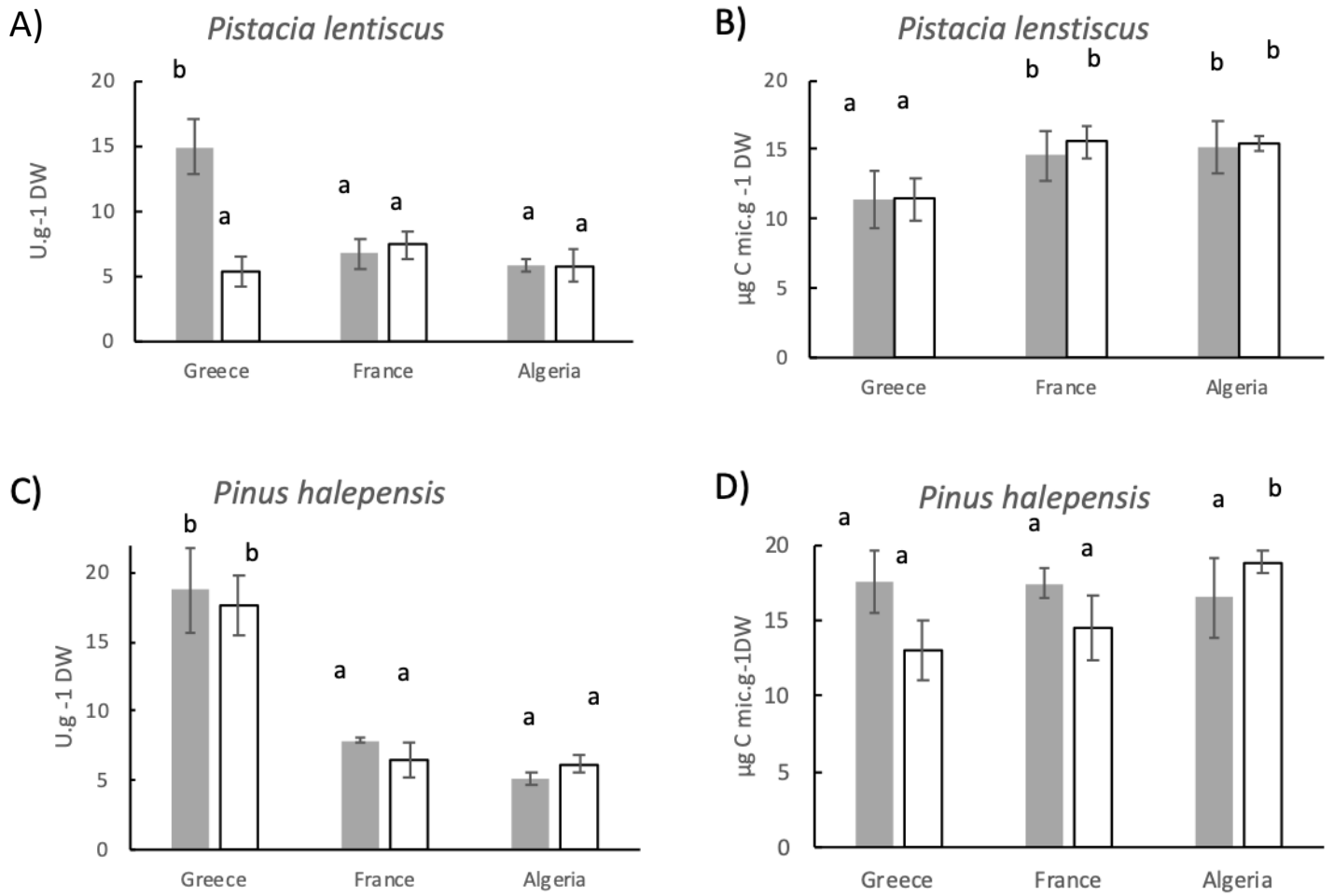
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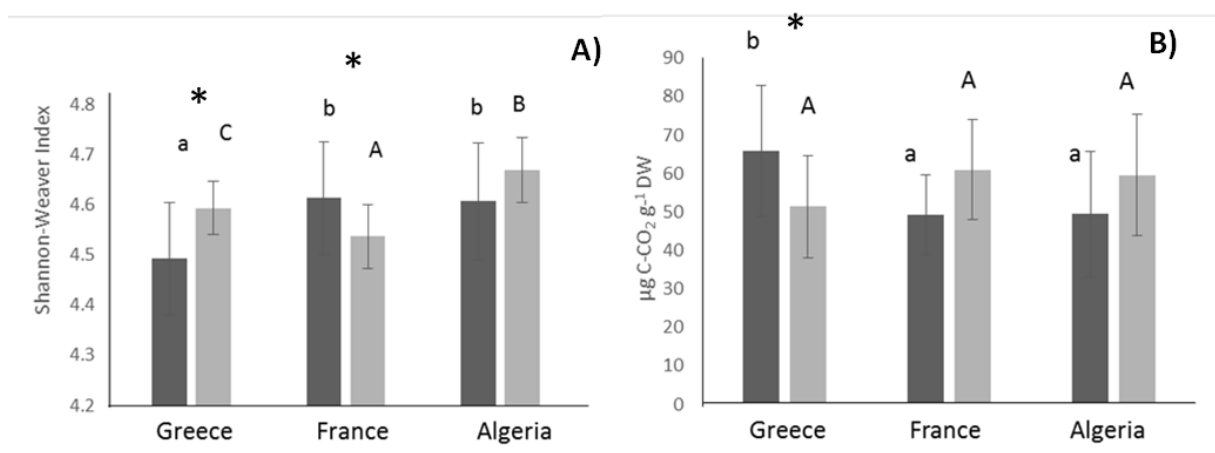
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809 Figure 2

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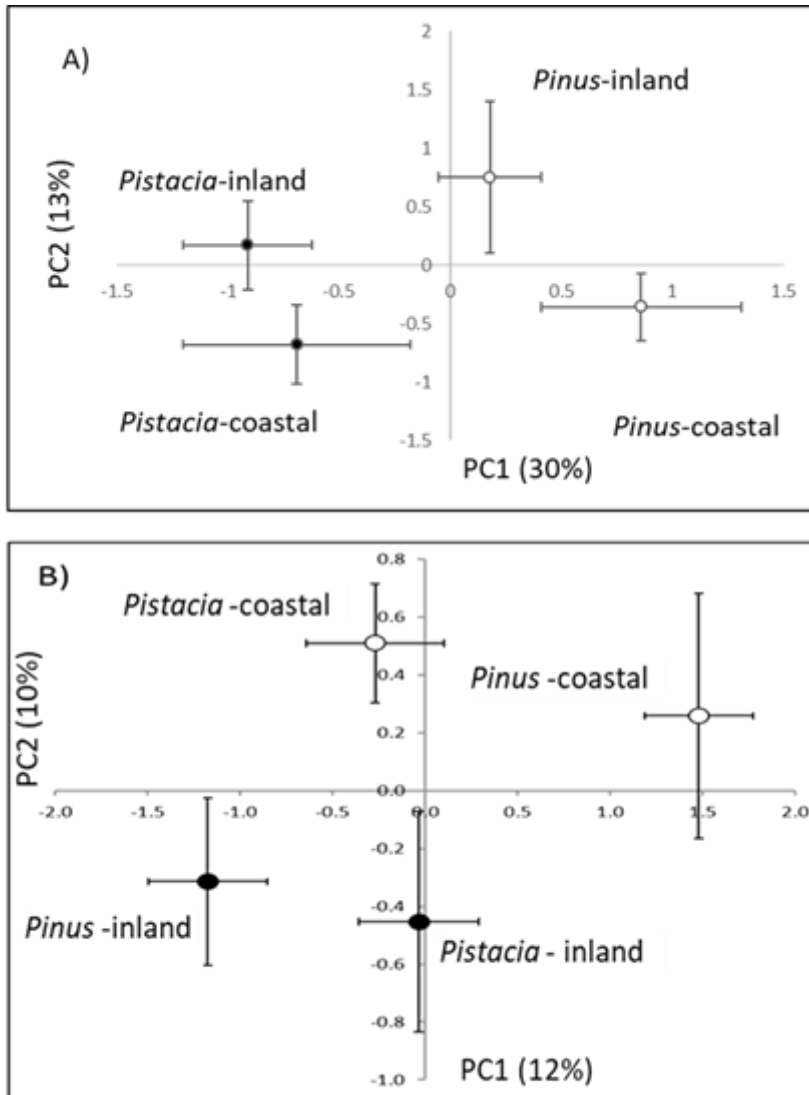
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824 Figure 3 a and b



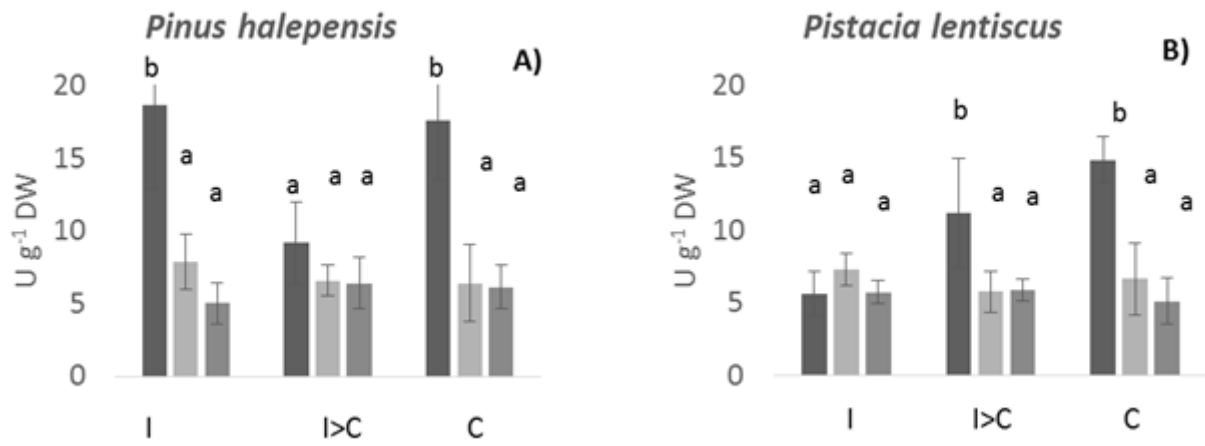
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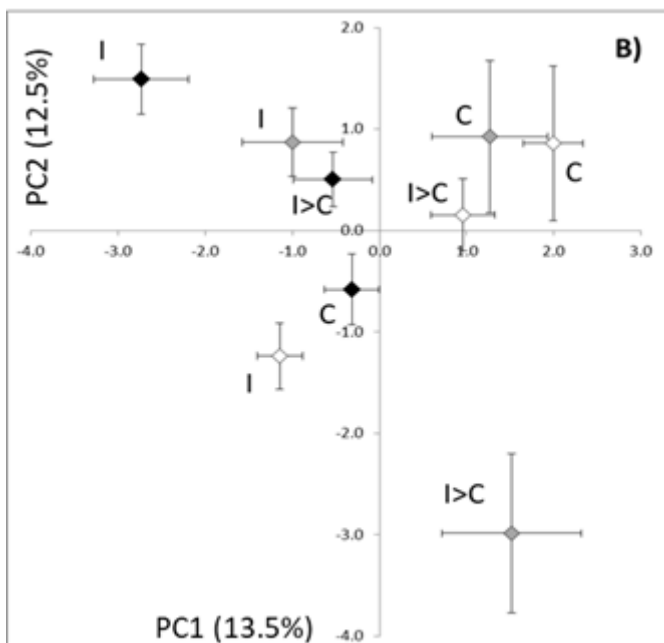
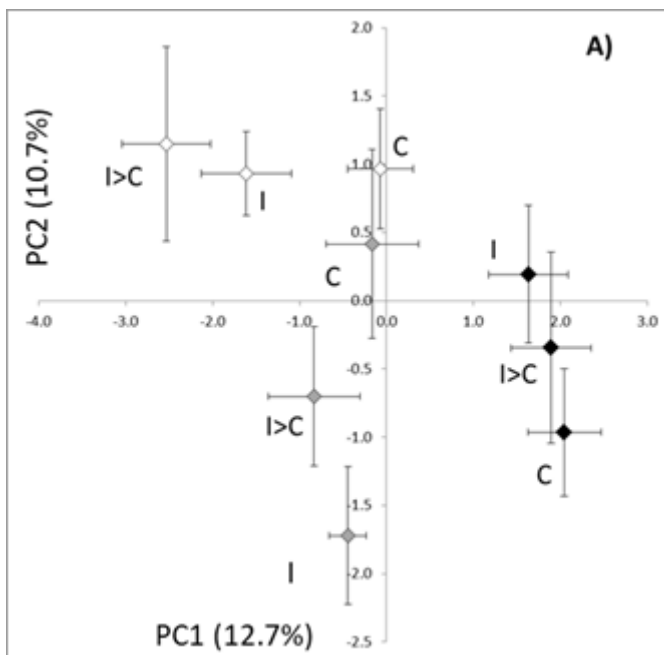
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846 Figure 5 a and b



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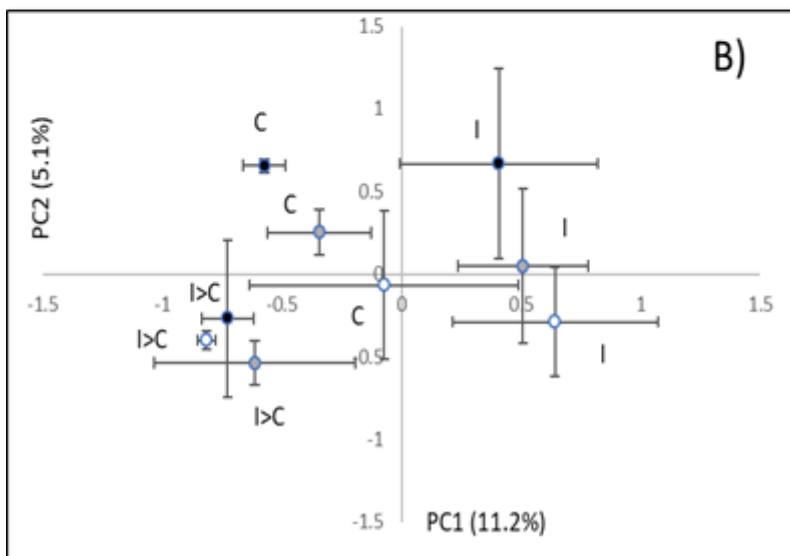
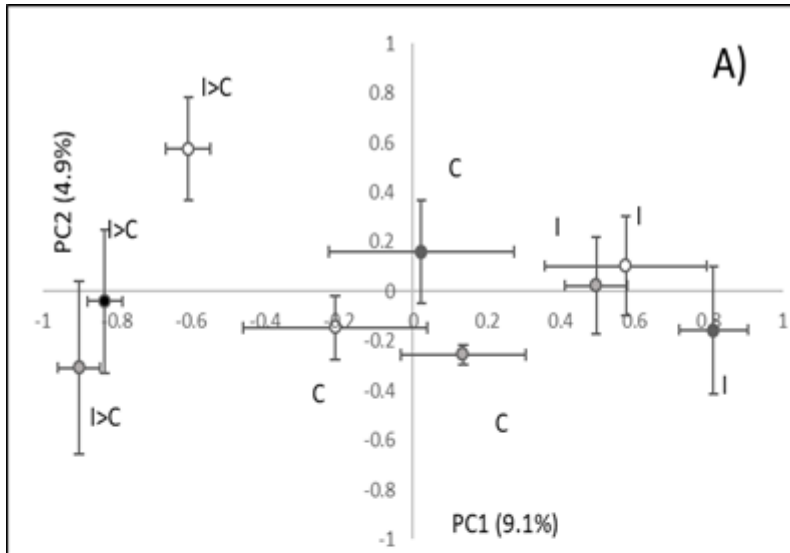
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853 Figure 6 a and b

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