1	C:N:P stoichiometry of rhizosphere soils differed
2	significantly among overstory trees and understory
3	shrubs in plantations in subtropical China
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Abstract: Rhizosphere soil C:N:P stoichiometry is useful for identifying the linkage of 20 plant species and soil nutrients, which can be particularly helpful for understory 21 vegetation management of forest ecosystems. There has been limited research on 22 rhizosphere soil stoichiometry, especially for co-existing overstory and understory plant 23 species. We investigated the bulk and rhizosphere soil C:N:P stoichiometry of dominant 24 overstory trees and understory shrubs (Adinandra millettii, Eurya muricata and 25 Loropetalum chinense) in Pinus massoniana, Pinus elliottii and Cunninghamia 26 lanceolata plantations in subtropical China. Rhizosphere soil C, N, and P concentrations and ratios increased significantly compared to bulk soil, and those of overstory trees also 28 were higher than those of understory shrubs with exception of L. chinense. Rhizosphere soil C:N, C:P, and N:P of L. chinense were not significantly different with those of 30 overstory trees, but higher than those of A. millettii and E. muricata. Soil pH significantly 31 influenced the profiles produced by soil C, N, and P concentrations and their 32 stoichiometries. This study indicated that the difference in nutrient status between 33 overstory trees and understory shrubs was related to shrub species, in which soil pH was 34 the dominant driving factor. Understory shrub species should be considered in plantation 35 management to reduce resource competition among species. 36

Keywords: Biogeochemical niche, nutrient limitation, pure coniferous forests, plant
species, red soil

39 1. Introduction

Plantations often consist of overstory trees, understory shrubs, and herbs (Liu et al., 40 **2017b**), which grow together and compete for nutrient resources, including nitrogen (N) 41 and phosphorus (P) (Wang et al., 2016). Understory vegetation is commonly removed in 42 plantation management to reduce competition for belowground resources and improve 43 the productivity of target tree species (Wagner et al., 2006). The positive role of 44 understory vegetation has been increasingly recognized in forest ecosystem processes and 45 functions in recent years, which includes increasing soil carbon (C) and nutrients (Qiao 46 et al., 2014; Winsome et al., 2017), alleviating soil acidification (Fu et al., 2015), and 47 promoting litter decomposition (Mao et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016). Therefore, 48 retaining some understory vegetation can be advantageous for forest production and 49 ecological functions in plantation management (Fu et al., 2015). Understanding which 50 understory species should be removed or retained is still a significant challenge in forest 51 ecosystem management. 52

Niche differentiation, including biogeochemical niche differentiation, has been 53 studied extensively as a theoretical mechanism of species coexistence (Peñuelas et al., 54 2008; Alvarez-Yepiz et al., 2017). Biogeochemical niche differentiation reflects that the 55 coexisting different species tend to use the nutrients in differing proportions, thus 56 producing the different stoichiometry for coexisting different species (Peñuelas et al., 57 2008; Urbina et al., 2017). Different ecological stoichiometry implies the potential for 58 different nutrient limitations (Koerselman and Meuleman, 1996; 59

60 Zechmeister-Boltenstern et al., 2015).

Differences in ecological stoichiometry among plant species can be used as criteria 61 for choosing understory vegetation to coexist with overstory trees. In particular, 62 rhizosphere soil stoichiometry can help assess the linkage of plant species and 63 belowground nutrient balances (Bell et al., 2014). It is feasible to choose some 64 understory species with divergent biogeochemical niche to coexist with target trees in 65 forest ecosystems by using the rhizosphere soil stoichiometry of different species to infer 66 their nutrient limitation. However, most studies about soil stoichiometry have been 67 conducted on bulk soil (Li et al., 2012; Heuck et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2016). For 68 example, Li et al. (2012) examined the variations in soil stoichiometry of C, N and P and 69 the influencing factors based on 1069 soil samples at a depth of 0-20 cm from typical 70 landscapes in southern subtropical China. A recent meta-analysis, based on 2,736 71 observations along soil profiles of 0-150 cm depth, evaluated temporal changes in soil 72 C:N:P stoichiometry over the past 60 years across subtropical China (Yu et al., 2018). In 73 the grassland, rhizosphere soil C:N:P stoichiometry also was referred by Bell et al. 74 (2014) and Carrillo et al. (2017). However, limited evidence has been collected from 75 rhizosphere soil occupied by different species within the same forests (Bell et al., 2014). 76 Moreover, the differences in the nutrient limitations of co-existing species have rarely 77 been considered from the perspective of rhizosphere stoichiometry. 78

Because of the rhizosphere's tight linkage between soil and plants, its processes are
 important in terrestrial C and nutrient cycles. Photosynthetically assimilated CO₂ released

	81	via rhizodeposition is the primary carbon source in soil (Merbach et al., 1999). A
J. For. Res. University of Winnipeg on 10/12/18. For personal use only.	82	meta-analysis conducted by Finzi et al. (2015) showed that root-induced mineralization
	83	accounted for up to one-third of the total C and N mineralized in temperate forest soils. It
	84	is known that nearly all plant species depend on the symbiotic associations with
	85	mycorrhizal fungi to facilitate their nutrient acquisition (van der Heijden et al., 2015).
	86	The type of mycorrhizal association is specific for each plant species (Toju et al., 2013),
	87	which determine rhizosphere priming and ecosystem C, N, and P cycling (Phillips and
	88	Fahey, 2006; Lin et al., 2016; Sulman et al., 2017). There is emerging evidence that
	89	functional variations between arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) and ectomycorrhizal (ECM)
	90	fungi induce differences in soil C and nutrient cycling (Cheeke et al., 2017). For
	91	example, owing to greater root exudates rates, ECM-associated plants have higher effects
Can Som by	92	on the microbial properties of rhizosphere soil than AM-associated plants (Yin et al.,
vww.nrcresearchpress.c	93	<u>2014</u>). Variations in the rhizosphere processes among plant species are likely to influence
	94	the outcomes of their competition for nutrient resources (<u>Yin et al., 2012</u>).
	95	Previous studies have emphasized nutrient limitations, inferred from leaf or soil
d from v	96	stoichiometry, among overstory species from different forests (Hume et al., 2016);

mitations, inferred from leaf or soil ferent forests (Hume et al., 2016); however, few studies have focused on nutrient partitioning between the overstory and 97 understory species from the same forest ecosystem. The lack of such knowledge inhibited 98 forest ecosystem management. 99

Pinus massonianas, Pinus elliottii and Cunninghamia lanceolata have been widely 100 planted since the 1980s, and are the dominant plantation forests in mid-subtropical China. 101

P. massoniana and *P. elliottii* associate with ECM fungi, while *C. lanceolata* associates
with AM fungi (Lin et al., 2016). The shrubland under the three pure coniferous forests
is mainly dominated by *Adinandra millettii* and *Eurya muricata* (associated with AM
fungi) and *Loropetalum chinense* (associated with ECM fungi) (Su et al., 1992).

We hypothesized that (1) rhizosphere soils have higher C:N and C:P compared to 106 bulk soils because of more C rhizodeposition and N and P uptake by plant roots; (2) P. 107 massoniana and P. elliottii that have higher rhizosphere soil C concentrations would 108 induce greater C:N and C:P ratios compared to C. lanceolata due to their different fungal 109 symbiosis; (3) overstory trees have different rhizosphere soil C:N:P ratios with some 110 understory shrubs, thus inducing different nutrient biogeochemical niches. Examining the 111 differences in soil C, N, and P stoichiometry, advantageous understory species could be 112 113 selectively retained to coexist with tree species of interest in the plantation ecosystem. Accordingly, the objectives of this study are (1) to examine the differences in 114 concentrations and their stoichiometries of C, N, and P between bulk and rhizosphere 115 soils; (2) to determine how the plantations with different tree species affect rhizosphere 116 soil C:N:P ratios; and (3) to clarify whether rhizosphere soil C:N:P ratios differ among 117 co-existing species within a specific plantation or among three plantations. 118

- 119 **2. Materials and Methods**
- 120 **2.1. Study site**

The study was conducted at Qianyanzhou Ecological Research Station (26°44′ N,
115°03′ E) of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS), located in Jiangxi Province in

Southern China. The site is a typical red soil, hilly region with a subtropical monsoon 123 climate. Average annual temperature and precipitation vary between 17.4 and 18.9 °C 124 and 945 and 2144 mm, respectively. The soils are weathered from red sandstone and 125 mudstone and are classified as Typic Dystrudepts by the USDA system (Soil Survey 126 Staff, 1975). The soil contains 17% sand, 68% silt, and 15% clay (Wen et al., 2010). 127 The zonal vegetation was evergreen broad-leaf forests that were largely destroyed 128 due to human activities prior to the 1980s. Grassland and scattered shrubland became the 129 dominant vegetation which induced severe soil degradation by 1983. Subsequent 130 reforestation was initiated to prevent soil degradation in 1984-1986. The reforesting 131 involved three main pure coniferous forests: Pinus massonianas, Pinus elliottii, and 132 Cunninghamia lanceolata. P. massoniana and C. lanceolata are native species, while P. 133 134 elliottii was introduced from the southeastern United States. P. massonianas and P. elliottii were planted in the soils weathered from sandstone and C. lanceolata from 135 136 mudstone. The properties of the soils for P. massonianas, P. elliottii and C. lanceolata were similar before the plantation establishment (Fu et al., 2015). By 2016, age of the 137 three plantations was about 31 years old. The shrubland under the three pure coniferous 138 forests was dominated primarily by Adinandra millettii, Eurya muricata, and 139 Loropetalum chinense. The characteristics of overstory and understory vegetation in the 140

three forest types are presented in Table 1. 141



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Soil samples were collected in mid-October of 2016. Five blocks were established

on several spatially separate hilly slopes. Three forest types were randomly selected in 144 each block, and a 20×20 m plot was established in each forest type. The distance between 145 blocks was above 100 m and between plots was at least 50 m. No significant differences 146 in soil properties of bulk soils were found among the five blocks (P>0.05). In the study 147 site, the roots of overstory trees and shrubs mainly spread on the 0-20 cm soil depth (Fu 148 et al., 2016), so bulk soil and rhizosphere soil were sampled from 0-20 cm soil depth. 149 The mulch layer was removed before taking the cores. In each plot, 9 soil cores were 150 randomly selected to acquire 0-10 and 10-20 cm bulk soil; then, these were combined and 151 mixed thoroughly by soil layer. Meanwhile, the rhizosphere soils of overstory trees (P. 152 massoniana, P. elliottii or C. lanceolata) and understory shrub species (A. millettii, E. 153 muricata, and L. chinense) were sampled in each plot. Three to five plants of each species 154 155 were randomly selected in each plot. Around the selected tree or shrub's trunk, the respective roots plus adhering soil at 0-20 cm soil depth were carefully dug out from the 156 four sites of each plant. If some shrub species had a small root biomass, the plant was 157 carefully dug to acquire its whole roots and adhering soils. The loosely adhering soil was 158 gently shaken off the roots as rhizosphere soil, in which all visible portions of root were 159 removed from the soil. Rhizosphere soil came from distances of less than 4 mm from the 160 root surface (Riley and Barber, 1970). The rhizosphere soil was combined and mixed 161 for the same species within the same plot. Each soil sample was collected in a plastic bag 162 and placed in a cooler in the field, then carried to the laboratory. The soil was air-dried 163 for subsequent total organic C, total N and P, and soil pH measurements. 164

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165 **2.3. Soil chemical analysis**

Soil pH value was determined in a 1:2.5 soil:water ratio by a digital pH meter. Total
organic C (SOC) and total soil nitrogen (TN) concentrations were measured using a
Vario-Max N/CN elemental analyzer (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Germany).
Soil was digested with H₂SO₄-HCLO₄ and total P (TP) concentration was determined by
ascorbic acid-molybdate blue colorimetry (Page et al. 1982). The ratios of SOC to TN
(C:N), SOC to TP (C:P) and TN to TP (N:P) were calculated.

172 **2.4. Data analysis**

Soil C, N, and P concentrations and their ratios, and soil pH value were analyzed for 173 rhizosphere soil for each species and 0-10 and 10-20 cm bulk soil from the same forest 174 type, using linear mixed-effects models with soil sampling type fitted as a fixed effect 175 and block fitted as a random effect. The differences in soil C, N, and P concentrations 176 and their ratios between bulk and rhizosphere soils, and overstory tree and understory 177 178 shrub, and among overstory species or shrub species were analyzed using linear mixed-effects models. All analyses of variance were conducted using IBM SPSS 179 statistics 20. The standardized data matrix of C, N, and P, and their stoichiometries (TC, 180 TN, TP, C:N, C:P, and N:P) were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using 181 the rda function of the vegan package of R software. The first two principal components 182 (PCs) were chosen to account for as much of the variability in the data as possible. The 183 resulting PCs are latent variables and are uncorrelated each other. 184

185 **3. Results**

- 186
- 3.1 Soil pH and C, N and P concentrations

Bulk soils, rhizosphere soils of trees, and those of shrubs had significantly different 187 soil pH value. Rhizosphere soil pH value was lower compared to bulk soils (Fig. 1). And 188 the decrease in overstory rhizosphere soil was higher than that in understory rhizosphere 189 soils (Fig. 1). The average rhizosphere soil C, N, and P concentrations were significantly 190 higher than those of bulk soils (P=0.000), especially for overstory species and understory 191 L. chinense (Fig. 2). The rhizosphere soil C, N, and P concentrations of overstory species 192 were significantly higher than those of the average across the three understory species 193 (P=0.000 for C and N, and P=0.01 for P), especially higher than those of A. millettii and 194 E. muricata except for soil P concentrations in P. elliottii forests (Fig. 2). Among 195 understory shrub species, rhizosphere soil C, N, and P were also significantly different 196 197 (P=0.001 for C, P=0.000 for N, and P=0.003 for P). Rhizosphere soil C, N, and P concentrations of L. chinense respectively increased by 33-310%, 31-200%, and 1-73% 198 compared to those of A. millettii and E. muricata. The differences were greatest in the P. 199 200 massoniana forest and least in the P. elliottii forest.

201 3.2 Soil C, N and P stoichiometry

Bulk and rhizosphere soil C:N ratios were respectively 9.6-19.6:1 and 13.3-28.9:1, C:P ratios were 51.1-132:1 and 114-499:1, and N:P ratios were 4.8-7.7:1 and 7.2-17.3:1. Generally, soil C:N, C:P, and N:P of rhizosphere soil were significantly higher than those of bulk soil (P=0.000, Fig. 3). Soil C:N at the 0-10 cm soil depth was significantly higher than that at the 10-20 cm soil depth, but C:P and N:P were not

significantly different between the 0-10 and 10-20 cm soil depths in the three plantations. 207 Among overstory species, the rhizosphere soil C:N and C:P of P. massoniana and P. 208 elliottii were higher than those of C. lanceolata (P=0.001), but no significant difference 209 of rhizopshere soil N:P was found among them (P>0.05). Overstory rhizosphere soil C:N, 210 C:P, and N:P were significantly higher than those of the average across the three shrub 211 rhizosphere soils (P=0.000 for C:N and C:P, and P=0.001 for N:P), and especially higher 212 than those of A. millettii and E. muricata (Fig. 3). In most cases, the rhizosphere soil C:N, 213 C:P, and N:P of L. chinense was not significantly different with those of overstory 214 rhizosphere soil (Fig. 3). 215

Soil C, N, and P, and their stoichiometries differed significantly among bulk soils, rhizosphere soils of trees, and those of shrubs: PC1 and PC2 respectively explained 86.1% and 13.3% of the total variance (Fig. 4a). Overstory species and understory species *L. chinense* grouped to the right had higher C, N, and P and stoichiometries, while bulk soil and understory species *A. millettii* and *E. muricata* grouped to the left had lower C, N, and P and stoichiometries along with PC1 (Fig. 4b). PC1 scores were significantly negatively correlated with soil pH (Fig. 5).

4. Discussion

4.1 Effects of bulk and rhizosphere soils on C:N:P stoichiometry

Plants allocate C via their roots to rhizosphere soil that drives microbes to mineralize N and P from organic matter in the soil (Meier et al., 2015). As a result, soil nutrients and microbial biomass in the rhizosphere are generally much more abundant

than those in bulk soil (Finzi et al., 2015; Kuzyakov and Blagodatskaya, 2015). This 228 process is consistent with the result that rhizosphere soil C, N, and P concentrations were 229 significantly greater than the bulk soil (Fig. 2). Rhizosphere soil C, N, and P 230 concentrations were 3.5 times, 1.9 times, and 34% greater respectively compared to bulk 231 soil. The imbalanced difference induced higher soil C:N, C:P, and N:P ratios in 232 rhizosphere soil compared to bulk soil (Fig. 3). The high C:N and C:P ratios implied that 233 rhizosphere soil microbes had relatively more nutrient (e.g. N and P) limitations than 234 energy (C) limitations compared to bulk soil. This could be because approximately 235 11-20% of the photosynthate is released to the soil as root exudate, in which the most 236 abundant components are carbohydrates and organic acids (Merbach et al., 1999). A 237 large amount of rhizodeposited C makes rhizosphere soil microorganisms proliferate 238 quickly and mineralize N and P for their needs from the organic matter in the soil 239 (Mwafulirwa et al., 2017; Huo et al., 2017). Although soil N and P concentrations were 240 greater in rhizosphere soil compared to bulk soils, the soil C concentration was 46 g kg⁻¹ 241 greater compared to the bulk soil. Theoretically, an extra 6 g N kg⁻¹ and 1 g P kg⁻¹ should 242 be needed to meet the demand of soil microbial biomass (C:N:P 42:6:1) in rhizosphere 243 soil (Spohn, 2016). However, only 1.63 g N kg⁻¹ and 0.05 g P kg⁻¹ more were present in 244 rhizosphere soil compared to the bulk soil. It is obvious that rhizosphere soil microbes 245 had greater N and P limitations compared to the bulk soil. Net nutrient mineralization 246 also occurs at high C:nutrient ratios due to nutrient turnover in the microbial biomass 247 (Spohn, 2016), in that microbial N and P remineralization is taken up by plants and

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249 microbes, or loss from ecosystems.

Previous studies reported that *P. massoniana* forests with 4.4:1 soil N:P ratios were 250 mainly limited by the availability of P in the southern subtropics of China (Liu et al., 251 2016). Here, the bulk soil N:P ratio averaged to 6.3:1 while that of the rhizosphere soil 252 was 12.2:1 (Fig. 3), indicating that P limitation also occurred at the study site. The P 253 limitation was relatively more severe in rhizosphere soil although higher soil P 254 concentration was found in rhizosphere soil compared to the bulk soil, mainly due to the 255 stoichiometric relationship between microbial biomass and its substrate controls the 256 element cycling of ecosystems (Spohn, 2016). Generally, the N:P ratio in microbes is 257 6-7:1 (Zechmeister-Boltenstern et al., 2015; Spohn, 2016), thus microbes will mine out 258 more N to meet their P requirement in the rhizosphere soil (12.2 N coupled by 1 P) 259 compared to bulk soil (6.3 N coupled by 1 P). Only 34% increase in soil P concentration 260 was not enough to meet rhizosphere soil P requirement where abundant soil microbial 261 and crowded root masses exist. 262

Moreover, roots and rhizosphere microbes may reduce P availability in acid soils through acidification of the rhizosphere (Hinsinger, 2001). Liu et al. (2017a) reported that compared to N, soil P is deficient for plant demands in subtropical China. As a hotspot of root uptake, it is possible that rhizosphere soil P deficiency would be more severe compared to bulk soil due to the intense competition of plants and soil microbes, especially for acidic soil where most P is bound in insoluble complexes (Zhao and Wu,

269 <u>2014)</u>.

4.2 Effects of overstory and understory species on C:N:P stoichiometry

Due to different quantities and qualities of root exudate and rhizodeposits from 271 different plant species (Ohta and Hiura, 2016), rhizosphere soil environments and 272 microbial communities change with plant species (Zhang et al., 2011), further 273 influencing soil nutrient cycling and its stoichiometry. Zhao et al., (2014) and Di Palo 274 275 and Fornara (2015) showed that plant composition was more important in explaining plant C:nutrient stoichiometric variation than was soil nutrient contents, e.g. SOC, TN, 276 TP, available N and P. In the present study, the rhizosphere soil C:N and C:P of P. 277 massoniana and P. elliottii were higher than those of C. lanceolata (Fig.3). This result 278 indicated that C deposition in roots was likely higher for P. massoniana and P. elliottii 279 than for C. lanceolata. This finding is mainly because C. lanceolata roots are colonized 280 by arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi, while P. massoniana and P. elliottii are colonized 281 by ectomycorrhizal (ECM) fungi (Lin et al., 2016). Previous investigations indicated that 282 ECM trees would exude more C from roots than AM trees (Philips and Fahey, 2005). 283 Yin et al. (2014) indicated that exudation rates of ECM tree species were nearly two 284 times greater compared to those of AM tree species. Because the two mycorrhizal types 285 exhibit striking differences in morphology, C sink strength, and hyphae spatial extent 286 (Finlay and Soderstrom, 1992), ECM tree species must invest more C to build their 287 hyphae network. Thus, it is possible that microbes in the rhizosphere soil of C. lanceolata 288 were more limited by energy than by nutrition compared to those of *P. massoniana* and 289 P. elliottii. Under C limitation, microbes will mineralize C to meet their energy 290

requirement, while extra N and P are released to the soil for plant uptake (Schimel and
 Weintraub, 2003). The released excess N and P could favor the formation of larger
 volumes of timber for *C. lanceolata*.

It is known that trees, shrubs, and herbs have significantly different leaf 294 stoichiometry (Pan et al., 2015). Fan et al., (2015) showed higher leaf C:P and N:P 295 ratios for overstory trees than for understory plants. They also found that soil and plant 296 N:P ratio was strongly related. As we hypothesized, overstory rhizosphere soil C:N, C:P, 297 and N:P ratios were significantly higher than those of shrub rhizosphere soil (Fig.3). This 298 is because rhizosphere soil C, N, and P concentrations of overstory trees respectively 299 increased by 54 g kg⁻¹ (119%), 1.7 g kg⁻¹ (77%), and 0.04 g kg⁻¹ (20%) compared to those 300 of understory shrubs (Fig. 2). Firstly, overstory trees may have greater C deposition to 301 rhizosphere soil than do understory shrubs (Fig. 2), which induced higher rhizosphere soil 302 C:N and C:P ratios of overstory trees. C allocation to roots is closely linked with 303 photosynthesis (Brzostek et al., 2015). Overstory trees generally have a higher 304 photosynthetic capacity than understory shrubs (Sakai et al., 2005), implying the higher 305 root exudation rate of overstory trees. It is well documented that the root exudation rate 306 varies among herbaceous plants, crops, and tree seedlings (Badri and Vivanco, 2009). 307 Secondly, rhizosphere soil microbes of overstory trees would mineralize excess N 308 accompanying with soil P mineralization according to the average soil microbial biomass 309 C:N:P ratio (42:6:1) compared to those of understory shrubs. Thirdly, foliar N:P ratio of 310 overstory trees was 16:1 and that of understory shrubs was 20:1 in the study site, 311

312 implying relatively less N and more P uptake of overstory trees compared to understory313 shrubs (Unpublished results).

In most cases, the rhizosphere soil C:N, C:P, and N:P of L. chinense were similar 314 with those of overstory rhizosphere soil (Fig. 3, Fig. 4a). The variations of the root 315 exudation among co-existing species relate to their functional traits and demand for N 316 and P (Sun et al., 2017). Root morphology has a strong effect on the C flux from roots to 317 soil. For example, increased root branching can increase root exudation rates 318 (Groleau-Renaud et al., 1998). Yin et al., (2012) indicated that differences in the altered 319 morphological and functional characteristics of the roots could be largely responsible for 320 rhizosphere N transformations. It has been verified that L. chinense fine root 321 morphological plasticity is higher than that of C. lanceolata, which increases the fine root 322 323 nutrient absorption rate according to the study of Wang et al. (2015).

Among the shrub species, higher rhizosphere soil C, N, and P and their ratios were 324 found for L. chinense compared to those of A. millettii and E. muricata, possibly because 325 L. chinense roots are colonized by ECM fungi, while A. millettii and E. muricata are 326 colonized by AM fungi (Su et al., 1992), which suggests a higher exudation rate for L. 327 chinense compared to A. millettii and E. muricata. Moreover, L. chinense fine root 328 morphological plasticity was greater, which induced its roots to grow widely into the 329 litter layer (Wang et al., 2016). In the current study the roots of L. chinense occasionally 330 also grew into the litter layers, but the roots of A. millettii and E. muricata tend to extend 331 into deeper soil. Although the rhizosphere soil came from the roots of 0-20 cm soil depth, 332

it is possible that the parts of rhizosphere soil of L. chinense came from surface soil while 333 those of A. millettii and E. muricata were from deeper soil. Thus the rhizosphere soil 334 from the roots growing into the litter layer will have the characteristics like surface soil, 335 while the rhizosphere soil from the roots growing to the deeper soil will have the 336 characteristics like subsurface soil. This also is a possible reason for the higher C:N, C:P, 337 and N:P ratios for L. chinense and the lower C:N, C:P, and N:P ratios for A. millettii and 338 E. muricata. The difference in soil C, N and P concentrations and stoichiometries among 339 understory species may not be the direct results of the presence of these species, but the 340 root morphological plasticity lead the roots to the different soil depths, which indirectly 341 induced the different rhizosphere soil C, N and P concentrations and stoichiometries. 342 Further study concerning the fine root morphological plasticity of A. millettii and E. 343 muricata is required to confirm this result. 344

345 4.3 Effects of soil pH on soil C:N:P stoichiometry

Low-molecular-mass organic acids (LMMOAs), such citric acid and oxalic acid, are 346 the main components of root exudate (Tyler and Ström, 1995) and vary significantly 347 among tree species (Aoki et al., 2012; Ohta and Hiura, 2016). The profiles produced by 348 soil C, N, and P and their stoichiometries of bulk soil and rhizosphere soil of different 349 species were significantly correlated with soil pH (Fig. 5). The C:N, C:P, and N:P ratios 350 were higher when the pH was lower (Fig. 4), indicating that lower pH values had higher 351 N and P nutrition limitations, especially P nutrition limitations. Suo et al. (2016) also 352 showed that soil pH was the most important predictor of soil C:N and N:P rather than tree 353

composition or leaf litter input in temperate forests. Soil pH is an important determinant 354 of microbial community composition and activity in forest ecosystems (Baath and 355 Anderson, 2003; Zhou et al., 2017), that, in turn, affects ecological processes such as 356 microbial C use efficiency, soil respiration, and N and P mineralization (Kuzyakov and 357 Blagodatskaya, 2016). In acid soils, amendment of soil pH can improve the soil 358 available nutrient concentrations (Carrino-Kyker et al., 2016), thus promote the growth 359 of target trees. The understory could alleviate soil acidification in subtropical China (Fu 360 et al., 2015), but the understory also influences the growth of overstory trees. In 361 plantation management, retaining a part of understory vegetation is desirable for forest 362 production and the maintenance of ecological function (Fu et al., 2015). In the three 363 plantations, the relative dominance of L. chinense was up to about 30% (Table 1). 364 Meanwhile, biogeochemical niche of L. chinense was similar to the overstory trees, 365 which possibly induce competition for nutrients between L. chinense and the overstory 366 trees. Thus our study suggested that L. chinense of the three main understory shrubs 367 could be considered for removal in plantation management to achieve higher productivity 368 and ecological function. 369

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576 Figure captions

Fig. 1. Bulk and rhizosphere soil pH of overstory and understory species in (a) *P. massoniana*, (b) *P. elliottii*, and (c) *C. lanceolata* plantations in subtropical China. *P*<0.05 indicates significant difference among six soil sampling types.

Fig. 2. Bulk and rhizosphere soil C, N, and P concentrations of overstory and understory species in *P. massoniana* (a, d, h), *P. elliottii* (b, e, i), and *C. lanceolata* (c, f, g) plantations in subtropical China. Different letters above the mean \pm SE indicate significant differences among bulk soils, rhizosphere soils of the tree species and rhizosphere soils of the shrub species in each plantation at *P*<0.05.

Fig. 3. Bulk and rhizosphere soil C:N:P stoichiometry of overstory and understory species in *P. massoniana* (a, d, h), *P. elliottii* (b, e, i), and *C. lanceolata* (c, f, g) plantations in subtropical China. Different letters above the mean \pm SE values indicate significant differences among bulk soils, rhizosphere soils of the tree species and rhizosphere soils of the shrub species in each plantation at *P*<0.05.

Fig. 4. Principal component analysis of soil C, N, P, and their stoichiometries of the bulk soil and rhizosphere soil of overstory and understory species. a) Separation of soil samples by bulk soil (BS) and rhizosphere soil (RS) of plant species. The gray symbols are 0-10 cm depth of BS, the white symbols are 10-20 cm depth of BS, the red symbols are the RS of *A. millettii*, the purple symbols are the RS of *E. muricata*, the blue symbols are the RS of *L. chinense*, and the green symbols are the RS of overstory trees. b) Distribution of soil C, N, P, and their ratios among different bulk soils, rhizosphere soils

- 597 of trees and those of shrubs.
- 598 Fig. 5. Relationship of the first axis (PC1) scores of principal component analysis with

soil pH.

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601 Table 1 Stand characteristics

Plantation	Diameter at	Tree height	Stand	Canopy	Important value of shrub species (%)		
	breast height	(m)	density	density	A. millettii	E. muricata	L. chinense
	(cm)		(trees ha ⁻¹)	(cm ² cm ⁻²)			
P. massoniana	19.6±1.4	20.2±0.6	1960±211	0.79±0.05	14.7	8.00	33.7
P. elliottii	24.6±1.2	22.0±0.8	2060±309	0.75±0.06	25.3	21.3	36.0
C. lanceolata	20.5±2.1	17.2±3.0	2440±357	0.77±0.04	37.9	29.7	22.2

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Fig. 1. Bulk and rhizosphere soil pH of overstory and understory species in (a) *P*.

605 massoniana, (b) P. elliottii, and (c) C. lanceolata plantations in subtropical China.

P < 0.05 indicates significant difference among six soil sampling types.



608 Fig. 2. Bulk and rhizosphere soil C, N, and P concentrations of overstory and understory

609 species in *P. massoniana* (a, d, h), *P. elliottii* (b, e, i), and *C. lanceolata* (c, f, g)

610 plantations in subtropical China. Different letters above the mean \pm SE indicate

significant differences among bulk soils, rhizosphere soils of the tree species and

rhizosphere soils of the shrub species in each plantation at P < 0.05.



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- 627 Distribution of soil C, N, P, and their ratios among different bulk soils, rhizosphere soils
- 628 of trees and those of shrubs.



Fig. 5. Relationship of the first axis (PC1) scores of principal component analysis withsoil pH.