

Soil microbial diversity and network complexity promote phosphorus transformation – A case of long-term mixed plantations of *Eucalyptus* and a nitrogen-fixing tree species

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¹ These authors contributed equally to this work.

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Abstract

Increased nitrogen (N) availability influences soil phosphorus (P) cycling through multiple pathways. Soil microorganisms are essential facilitating a wide range of ecosystem functions. However, the impact of *mixed* plantations of *Eucalyptus* and N-fixing tree species affect P transformation and microbiota interactions remains unknown. Therefore, we conducted a 17-year field experiment comparing pure *Eucalyptus* plantations (PPs) and mixed plantations (MPs) with *Eucalyptus* and a N-fixing tree species to assess their effects of soil P transformation, using data collected from two soil layers (0–10 cm and 10–20 cm). The results showed that α -diversity indices (ACE and Chao1 and Shannon indices) were significantly higher in MPs than in PPs for both bacteria and fungi. Furthermore, MPs exhibited significantly higher relative abundances of bacterial phyla *Proteobacteria* (0–10 cm), *Verrucomicrobia*, and *Rokubacteria*, as well as fungal phyla *Mortierellomycota*, *Mucoromycota*, and *Rozellomycota*. Conversely, MPs showed lower abundances of the bacterial phyla *Chloroflexi*, *Actinobacteria*, and *Planctomycetes* and fungal phylum *Ascomycota*. Gene copy numbers of functional genes were also elevated in MPs, including 16S rRNA, internal transcribed spacer (ITS), N functional genes [*nifH* (0–10 cm), *AOB-amoA*, *narG*, *nirS*, and *nosZ* (0–10 cm)], and P functional genes [*phoC*, *phoD* (0–10 cm), *BPP*, and *pqqC*]. The findings indicated that MPs can enhance soil microbial diversity, network complexity, and the relative abundance of functional genes which involved N- and P- transformation by optimizing soil nutrient levels and pH, thereby facilitating P transformation. Therefore,

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106 MPs of *Eucalyptus* and N-fixing tree species may represent a promising forest
107 management strategy to improve ecosystem P benefits.

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109 **Keywords:** Co-occurrence network; functional gene; mixed plantation; N-fixing
110 species; phosphorous transformation

111

1. Introduction

Phosphorus (P) a vital macronutrient for plant and microbial growth (Turner et al., 2018), while the availability of P serves as a key indicator of soil fertility and quality (Peng et al., 2021). In most ecosystems particularly in tropical and subtropical forests, P bioavailable in soil is often limited due to intense weathering and the presence of aluminium (Al) ions and free iron (Fe) (Soltangheisi et al., 2019; Du et al., 2020). Therefore, these P reserves cannot be accessed directly by plants (Fan et al., 2019). However, plants and microorganisms have developed various strategies for access P from inorganic (Pi) and organic (Po) reservoirs and rendering it available for biological processes (including, e.g., assimilation by phosphate-solubilizing microorganisms and mineralization of enzymes) (Lu et al., 2022). Consequently, it is crucial to implement strategies for the sustainable management of soil P to enhance its utilization by plants, preserve soil quality, and mitigate the risk of P loss.

Soil microorganisms serve as both a reservoir and a source of phosphate ions, significantly influencing the availability of P. In addition, microorganisms play a role in maintaining soil functions such as nutrient cycling, biological activity, and plant growth, all of which are crucial for sustaining soil quality and fertility (Bünemann et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2022). Microorganisms facilitate the P transformation by participating in the processes of P mineralization, solubilization, and cycling, converting P into bioavailable forms for plant uptake (Pastore et al., 2020). Specifically, the mineralization of Po is facilitated by the extracellular presence of phosphatases, which are mainly produced principally by soil microorganisms (Nannipieri et al., 2012). It is thus of both extracellular acid (ACP) and alkaline (ALP)

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193 phosphatase activities are commonly used as the indicators to assess the
 194 mineralization of P_o to bioavailable P_i (Luo et al., 2019). Furthermore, P
 195 transformation is influenced by the α -diversity, structure, and composition of soil
 196 microbial communities, with pH being considered a key determinant in shaping
 197 microbial diversity and community composition (Jin et al., 2019). Microbiome
 198 co-occurrence networks are prevalently employed to scrutinize the interrelationships
 199 within microbial communities, and network attributes (e.g., the mean degree, edge
 200 quantity, and node amount) can be utilized to appraise the reciprocal ties among these
 201 communities and their reactions to modifications in cultivation paradigms (Faust,
 202 2021; Qiu et al., 2021). Microbial network analysis can uncover the complex
 203 interactions between microorganisms, such as competition, cooperation, and
 204 antagonism, while also shedding light on important ecological processes and
 205 functional relationships that are not fully captured by microbial diversity analysis
 206 alone. For instance, it can reveal processes like the transformation and cycling of key
 207 soil nutrients (e.g., P and N), which are often overlooked in traditional diversity
 208 assessments (Yao et al., 2024). Thus, gaining insight into the relationship between
 209 microbial diversity, microbial network complexity, and the transformation and cycling
 210 of P is crucial for improving soil functions and enhancing soil fertility.
 211 The studies on genes involved in P cycling also emphasizes the contribution of
 212 microbes in enhancing plant P uptake and efficiency (Dai et al., 2020). The P cycle
 213 cluster includes genes that stimulate the mineralization of P_o (e.g., *phoD*, *phoC*, and
 214 *BPP*) (Cao et al., 2022; Khan et al., 2023) and solubilization of P_i (e.g., *pqqC*) (Meyer

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et al., 2011). The genes *phoD/phoC* encode phosphatases, which are capable of mineralizing Po compounds into P_i (Fraser et al., 2015). N is a fundamental element for plant growth and development, typically coupled with P in biogeochemical cycles. The N cycle group consists of genes responsible for microbially driven nitrification (e.g., AOB-*amoA*), N fixation (e.g., *nifH*), and denitrification (e.g., *nirS*). Improved interaction networks among soil microbial functional groups contribute to increasing nutrient availability and enhancing the nutrient acquisition of host plants (Shi et al., 2020; Qin et al., 2024). In addition, given that both N and P are essential elements for microorganisms, an increase in N content can influence soil pH, which subsequently alters the composition of soil microbial communities and impacts the abundance of phosphatase-coding genes (*phoC* and *phoD*) (Widdig et al., 2020). Furthermore, the presence of N-fixing plants also affects P uptake by enhancing litter decomposition rates and the release of organic acids from microbial biomass, thereby accelerating nutrient cycling and improving soil fertility (Li et al., 2021). Therefore, studying the coupling of N and P cycling in soil is crucial for understanding of the diversity and mechanisms of microbially driven biogeochemical cycles. *Eucalyptus* is characterized by their straight trunks, well-developed horizontal root systems, and high adaptability. They are prevalent in subtropical and tropical regions, where they have significant economic and ecological value (Zhang and Wang, 2021). However, monocultures and short-term rotation management of *Eucalyptus* plantation have led to soil degradation, reductions in plant-available soil nutrient effectiveness (e.g., the availability of nutrients such as N, and P, in forms that can be absorbed and utilized by plants), and soil microbial function and diversity, as well as other adverse

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ecological effects. Mixed-species forests exert a strong positive impact on soil fertility and nutrient cycling by regulating the microbiome, including its diversity and structure (Pereira et al., 2019, Li et al., 2024). Recently, incorporating N-fixing trees species such as *Acacia* as a substitute for N fertilization has become widely acknowledged as one of the most effective silvicultural practices for enhancing tree N uptake, and woody production in *Eucalyptus* plantations (Koutika and Mareschal, 2017; Zhang et al., 2023). In addition, mixing with N-fixing tree species improves N availability, P accumulation, microbial diversity, and forms a more complex and interconnected microbial network compared to pure plantations (Li et al., 2022; He et al., 2024; Yao et al., 2021). So far, the effect of N-fixing tree species on P cycling has mainly been addressed by investigating organic or inorganic P accumulation in soil from either pure or mixed stands of non - N-fixing tree species and N-fixing tree species (Yao et al., 2024).

Acacia mangium, one of the N-fixing trees species that is widely planted in many parts of the world, has clear benefits in forestry and agroforestry ecosystems (Epron et al., 2013; Koutika and Richardson, 2019). Key reasons for the widespread planting of *Acacia mangium* in pure or mixture plantations with other tree species with infertile soils, are its capacity to change soil faunal, microbial communities (Huang et al., 2014; Pereira et al., 2017), improve soil fertility (Tchichelle et al., 2017), and stimulate tree growth and forest productivity (Paula et al., 2015). Nevertheless, the effects of mixing N-fixing trees species on regulating the correlations between microbial diversity and network of P transformation, is still poorly understood. Phosphomonoesterase (e.g., ACP) mineralization is an essential strategy for P transformation (Luo et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023), so we employed soil ACP activity to analyse the dynamics of P transformation. Here, we aimed to (1) compare the variations in the

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Deleted: Planting *Eucalyptus* in a mixture with other trees has been demonstrated to enhance nutrient cycling efficiency, soil fertility, and overall productivity (Koutika and Mareschal, 2017; Epihov et al., 2021). *Acacia* are widely planted in South China because they require less or no fewer exogenous N from the soil, due to their N-fixing capacity (Räsänen et al., 2001). Mixed plantations that include N-fixing trees such as *Acacia* can significantly boost productivity and enhance organic carbon sequestration, thereby improving soil fertility and contributing to climate change mitigation (Marron and Epron, 2019; Zhang et al., 2023). Neverthe

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structure, diversity, and stability of soil microbial communities after mixing *Eucalyptus* with N-fixing tree species, and (2) elucidate the mechanisms through which fungal and bacterial communities, along with genes associated with N and P transformation processes, regulate P transformation. We hypothesized that (1) mixed-species plantations of *Eucalyptus* and N-fixing tree species would alter the composition of soil microbial communities and improve microbial community diversity and network complexity in the soil; (2) introduction of N-fixing tree species may cause imbalance in soil properties (e.g., SOC, pH and so on), microbial diversity and networks complexity, and related functional genes which co-regulated the P transformation with differential roles. Our findings will provide more new insights into sustainable management practices for plantations.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Site description

The study was conducted in the Shaoping Experimental Field at the Experimental Center for Tropical Forestry, which is affiliated with the Chinese Academy of Forestry (106°56'E, 22°03'N). The area has a subtropical climate, with approximately 1,400 mm of rainfall annually and maintaining an average yearly temperature of 21.2°C. The landscape is characterized by low mountains and hills along with acidic red soil. Forests in this area are primarily composed of commercially managed plantations, as either pure or mixed stands.

2.2. Plot design and sampling

In this study, the pure (monoculture) *Eucalyptus urophylla* plantations (PPs) and adjacent mixed plantations (MPs) of *Eucalyptus urophylla* and *Acacia mangium* (N-fixing tree species) were established in 2004 on the logging tracks of *Pinus massoniana* plantations that were established in 1977. The MPs were planted at a 1:1

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413 mixing ratio with inter-row planting, consisting of one row of *Eucalyptus urophylla*
414 and one row of *Acacia mangium*. In the first two consecutive years post-planting, both
415 plantations were subjected to a similar stand management regime, which included
416 practices such as weed control and fertilization, subsequently allowing them to
417 proceed with their natural stand development. The experimental design is described in
418 the study conducted by Huang et al. (2017). In 2021, taking into account the
419 differences in plantation layout and topography, five 20 m × 20 m sample plots were
420 randomly established in each stand (PPs and MPs), ensuring that adjacent plots
421 maintained at a distance greater than 200 m to mitigate edge effects. The diameter at
422 breast height, height, and stand density of every tree within each plot were assessed.
423 Detailed information on the plantations is provided in Table A1.

424 Soil samples were carried out in early August 2021. Soil samples were gathered
425 from eight different points within each plot, located at 5 m intervals from the center,
426 along angles of 0°, 45°, 90°, 135°, 180°, 225°, 270°, and 315°. [Previous studies only](#)
427 [examine a single soil layer \(usually the upper 0–10 cm\) \(Waithaisong et al., 2022;](#)
428 [Chen et al., 2024\). More study on the P transformation and mechanisms underlying](#)
429 [soil microbial and biochemical interactions in different soil layers is needed to](#)
430 [determine whether the variation of P cycle is dependent on depth. Therefore, soil](#)
431 [samples in our study were obtained from](#) the depth intervals of 0–10 cm and 10–20
432 cm following the removal of extraneous materials such as little stones, and dead
433 leaves. Eight undisturbed samples from each soil layer were amalgamated into a
434 composite sample and transported to the laboratory on ice. Each composite sample
435 was partitioned into two aliquots: one designated for the analysis of physicochemical
436 properties, and the other reserved for genomic DNA extraction.

437 2.3. Soil properties and soil enzyme activity

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443 Soil pH was measured using a 1:2.5 soil-to-water ratio method, and soil organic
 444 carbon (SOC) was quantified using the $K_2Cr_2O_7$ - H_2SO_4 oxidation method. The total
 445 nitrogen (TN) content of soil was determined using an Auto Analyzer III in an extract
 446 obtained by digestion of the sample with H_2SO_4 and a catalyst ($CuSO_4:H_2SO_4=10:1$).
 447 The levels of nitrate N (NO_3^- -N) and ammonia N (NH_4^+ -N) were determined by $CaCl_2$
 448 extraction, followed by quantitative analysis using an AutoAnalyzer III (Tsiknia et al.,
 449 2014). Total P (TP) was quantified using the molybdenum blue colorimetric method
 450 following extraction of the samples with $HClO_4$ - H_2SO_4 (Murphy and Riley, 1962).
 451 N and P metabolised by soil extracellular enzyme activity (EEA), e.g.,
 452 β -1,4-N-acetylglucosaminidase (NAG) and leucine aminopeptidase (LAP) activity are
 453 involved in N acquisition and acid phosphomonoesterase is associated with P
 454 mineralization, were quantified in a fluorescence assay conducted in a 96-well
 455 microplate (Yan et al., 2022). Soil EEA was calculated from the fluorescence readings
 456 of the enzyme after its reaction with the appropriate substrate. The assay was
 457 conducted using 200 μ L of a soil suspension prepared by weighing 1.25 g of fresh soil
 458 to which sodium acetate buffer (pH 4.5) was added, and stirred for 1 min to ensure
 459 consistent extraction conditions and effective solubilization of the soil constituents.
 460 Eight replicates per sample were tested. The samples were incubated in darkness at
 461 25°C for 3 h, after which the reaction was terminated by adding NaOH. Fluorescence
 462 was then immediately measured within the wavelength range of 365–450 nm by using
 463 a fluorescence microplate reader. Information on the substrates of the three EEA can
 464 be found in Table A2.

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480 2.4. Soil DNA extraction and sequencing

481 Microbial genomic DNA was obtained from soil samples utilizing the PowerSoil
 482 DNA isolation kit (MN NucleoSpin 96 Soi) for subsequent analysis and
 483 measurements. The primers employed were 338F₁ and 806R₁ for the amplification of
 484 the V3–V4 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene (Mori et al., 2014; Parada et
 485 al., 2016), while, ITS1F₁ and ITS2R₁ were employed to amplify the ITS1 region of
 486 fungal rRNA gene loci (Adams et al., 2013; Dong et al., 2021) (Table A3).
 487 Sequencing data were processed by filtering the raw reads using Trimmomatic v0.33,
 488 removing the primers using Cutadapt v1.9.1, assembling the clean reads by overlap
 489 with Usearch v10, and removing chimeras with UCHIME v4.2 to ensure data validity.
 490 After the removal of potential chimeras, 1,600,678 and 1,550,033 high-quality
 491 bacterial and fungal reads were obtained, respectively.

492 The genetic potential of the soil microorganisms was assessed by real-time
 493 fluorescence quantitative PCR (qPCR) to quantitatively determine the gene copy
 494 numbers of bacteria (16S rRNA) and fungi (ITS). The genetic potential of N cycling
 495 processes was evaluated based on the abundance of functional genes involved in
 496 nitrogen fixation (*nifH*), nitrification (AOB-*amoA*), and denitrification (*narG*, *nirS*,
 497 *nirK*, and *nosZ*). Similarly, the genetic potential of P cycling processes was assessed
 498 using the abundance of functional genes involved in organic phosphorus hydrolysis
 499 (*phoC*, *phoD*, *BPP*) and Pi hydrolysis (*pqqC*). These functional genes are
 500 well-established biomarkers of the biochemical pathways essential for nutrient
 501 cycling in various ecosystems. The qPCR amplification efficiencies ranged from 90%

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517 to 110%. The primers and references for the functional genes are reported in Table
518 A3.

519 2.5. Network construction

520 Networks for bacteria and fungi were constructed by dividing the 20 samples
521 into four groups, consisting of two soil layers for PPs and MPs, respectively. First,
522 sample operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were filtered, discarding those that
523 appeared in fewer than three samples within each group (3 out of 5 replicates) (Hu et
524 al., 2023). OTUs with a relative abundance exceeding 1% in the bacterial and fungal
525 communities were selected for further correlation analysis (Fan et al., 2018). The
526 network was built according to thresholds of Pearson, correlation coefficient > 0.6 and
527 $P < 0.05$, assessed using the *Hmisc* package in R v4.0.5. We adjusted the P values
528 according to the Hochberg false discovery rate test (Benjamini et al., 2006), with a
529 cut-off of adjusted $P < 0.05$. Network properties were computed utilizing the *igraph* R
530 package, and visualized using Gephi (<https://gephi.org/>). In all figures, bacterial and
531 fungal phyla exhibiting a relative abundance greater than 1% within the network are
532 represented by distinct colors.

533 Keystone species were identified by utilizing the connectivity within modules (Z_i)
534 and between modules (P_i). Microorganisms were classified into four categories
535 depending on intra-module degree (Z-score) and participation coefficient (C-score)
536 thresholds, into network hubs, module hubs, connectors, and peripherals (Poudel et al.,
537 2016). Network hubs refer to nodes with a high degree of connectivity both globally
538 and within individual modules; module hubs are nodes with significant connectivity

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restricted to a single module; connectors are nodes that facilitate strong connections between different modules, and peripheral nodes are those with few connections to other nodes (Poudel et al., 2016). Network hubs, module hubs, and connectors occupy critical positions within the network and are classified as keystone topological features. These characteristics are essential for sustaining the stability of microbial communities (Delmas et al., 2019). Consequently, OTUs associated with these nodes were designated as keystone species.

2.6. Data analyses

Microbial diversity (Shannon index) and richness (Chao1 and ACE), which were both calculated using phyloseq with default setting by Mothur (v 1.30.2) software (Schloss et al., 2009). Soil physicochemical properties, microbial community indices, such as the ACE and Shannon and Chao1 indices, as well as functional genes and enzyme activity, were analyzed in independent samples t-tests using SPSS v24.0. This statistical approach was applied to evaluate differences attributable to stand type (monoculture or mixed). Differences in soil microorganisms across stand types and soil layers were analyzed using non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) with Bray–Curtis dissimilarity and analysis of similarity (ANOSIM), implemented using the *vegan* package in R (Oksanen et al., 2013; Knowles et al., 2019). Random forest analysis based on Pearson correlation analysis and the best multiple regression model was used to evaluate the contributions of soil properties, microbial characteristics, and functional genes involved in the N and P cycles to the variation in nitrogen and phosphorus transformation enzyme activities, and to identify the major predictors

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578 [based on their importance. Computation and visualization were carried out in R](#)
 579 [software \(Jiao et al., 2020\). Correlation analysis and visualization of soil properties,](#)
 580 [microbial characteristics, and functional genes related to N and P cycling were](#)
 581 [performed in Origin 2024.](#) A redundancy analysis (RDA) was employed to explore
 582 the multivariate associations between soil physicochemical characteristics and
 583 microorganisms. The most important soil physicochemical properties affecting
 584 bacterial and fungal phyla were identified in the RDA and visualized using CANOCO
 585 v5. A partial least squares path model (PLS-PM) was constructed using R software to
 586 assess the direct and indirect effects of mixed planting of *Eucalyptus* and *Acacia* on P
 587 transformation. A PLS-PM can reveal causal connections between observed and latent
 588 variables, and its superiority for small sample sizes has been demonstrated in
 589 simulation studies, in which path modeling estimation was shown to be reliable
 590 (Monecke and Leisch, 2012; Sanchez, 2013). The goodness-of-fit statistic was used to
 591 assess the adequacy of the PLS-PM fit, with a value > 0.7 indicating good model fit
 592 [\(Tenenhaus et al., 2004; Sanchez, 2013\).](#)

593 3. Results

594 3.1. Soil properties

595 Significant ($P < 0.05$) [higher of](#) SOC, TN, NO_3^- -N, C:P, N:P, and pH were
 596 determined in both [two investigated soil layers in MPs than those in PPs](#) (Table 1);
 597 however, TP (10–20 cm) was significantly lower in MPs than in PPs ($P < 0.05$, Table
 598 1).

599 **Table 1** Soil physicochemical properties in both 0–10 cm and 10–20 cm soil layers in PPs and

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612 MPs.

Soil physicochemical properties	Stand type	0–10 cm			10–20 cm		
		M±SE	t	P	M±SE	t	P
SOC	PP	12.98±0.90b	-5.790	$P < 0.001$	10.31±0.79b	-4.189	$P < 0.001$
	MP	21.18±1.10a			14.45±0.59a		
TN	PP	1.15±0.04b	-6.658	$P < 0.001$	0.83±0.02b	-5.551	$P < 0.001$
	MP	2.17±0.15a			1.33±0.09a		
NH ₄ ⁺ -N	PP	18.92±1.49a	1.402	$P < 0.001$	13.84±0.83a	2.262	$P = 0.001$
	MP	15.14±2.25a			11.71±0.44a		
NO ₃ ⁻ -N	PP	4.86±0.06b	-13.372	$P = 0.198$	3.05±0.05b	-33.443	$P = 0.054$
	MP	13.90±0.67a			5.39±0.05a		
TP	PP	0.31±0.02a	0.520	$P < 0.001$	0.32±0.03a	3.458	$P < 0.001$
	MP	0.30±0.02a			0.22±0.01b		
C:N	PP	11.38±0.96a	1.497	$P = 0.167$	12.37±0.89a	1.182	$P = 0.009$
	MP	9.82±0.39a			10.98±0.76a		
C:P	PP	42.04±3.18b	-4.887	$P = 0.173$	32.73±2.47b	-8.865	$P = 0.271$
	MP	72.75±5.35a			64.63±2.62a		
N:P	PP	3.74±0.25b	-7.173	$P = 0.001$	2.67±0.17b	-6.093	$P < 0.001$
	MP	7.37±0.44a			6.00±0.52a		
pH	PP	4.28±0.04b	-6.970	$P < 0.001$	4.21±0.05b	-5.824	$P < 0.001$
	MP	5.09±0.11a			5.04±0.13a		

614 SOC: Soil Organic Carbon; TN: Total Nitrogen; NH₄⁺-N: Ammonium Nitrogen; NO₃⁻-N: Nitrate

615 Nitrogen; TP: Total Phosphorus; C:N: Carbon: Nitrogen ratio; C:P: Carbon: Phosphorus ratio; N:P:

616 Nitrogen: Phosphorus ratio; pH: Soil pH Value; Value = Mean ± Standard Error; Different

617 lowercase letters in the table represent significant differences between PPs and MPs ($P < 0.05$),

618 the same below.

619 3.2. Bacterial and fungal community diversity and composition

620 In both soil layers, the bacterial ACE (0–10 cm: $t = -5.164$, $P = 0.001$; 10–20 cm:

621 $t = -7.305$, $P < 0.001$), Chao1 (0–10 cm: $t = -5.039$, $P = 0.001$; 10–20 cm: $t = -6.387$, P

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< 0.001), and Shannon (0–10 cm: $t = -3.478$, $P = 0.008$; 10–20 cm: $t = -3.772$, $P < 0.005$) indices of α -diversity were significantly higher in MPs than in PPs (Fig. 1a–c). Fungal Shannon ($t = -3.659$, $P = 0.006$) index in the 0–10 cm was also significantly higher in MPs than in PPs (Fig. 1f). The composition of bacterial and fungal community exhibited significant differences between the two plantation types and soil layers, except for the fungal communities in PPs, which did not differ between the surface and deeper soil layers ($P < 0.05$, ANOSIM: $R^2 = 0.85$, $P = 0.01$, stress = 0.03 and $R^2 = 0.73$, $P = 0.01$, stress = 0.05, respectively, Fig. A1).

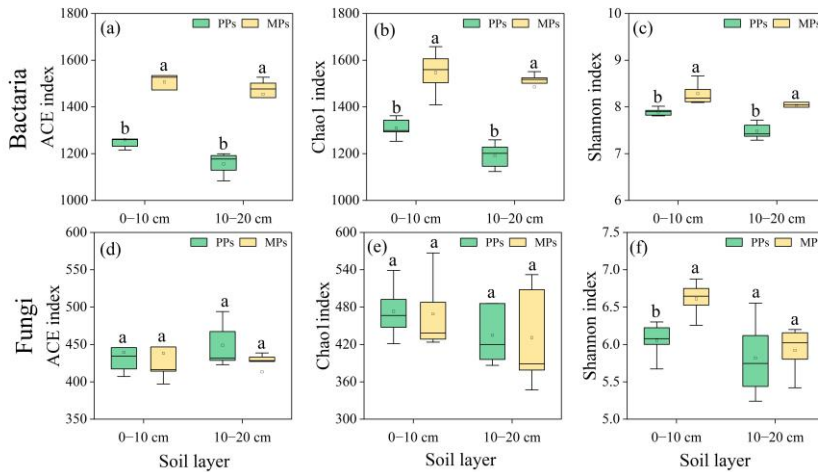


Fig. 1 Comparisons of (a–c) bacterial and (d–f) fungal community, by α diversity index in two soil layers in PPs and MPs. Different lowercase letters in the table represent significant differences between PPs and MPs ($P < 0.05$), the same below.

After clustering at a 97.0% similarity level, a total of 1,869 OTUs were obtained for bacteria, which revealed 21 phyla, 64 classes, 140 orders, 201 families, and 311 genera. For fungi, a total of 1,128 OTUs were obtained, showing 8 phyla, 24

659 classes, 62 orders, 104 families, and 157 genera (Table A4). The most abundant
660 bacterial phyla (relative abundance > 1%) in both PPs and MPs were *Acidobacteria*
661 (26.83%), *Proteobacteria* (22.46%), *Chloroflexi* (13.95%), *Actinobacteria* (13.62%),
662 *Verrucomicrobia* (11.16%), *Planctomycetes* (5.6%), and *Rokubacteria* (3.5%), which
663 represented 94.08% of the total bacterial community in the 0–10 cm layer (Figs. 2a, b
664 and A2a). The most abundant fungal phyla (relative abundance >1%) in both PPs and
665 MPs were *Ascomycota* (63.25%), *Basidiomycota* (28.14%), *Mortierellomycota*
666 (1.77%), *Mucoromycota* (1.18%), and *Rozellomycota* (1.06%), which represented
667 95.40% of the total fungal community (Figs. 2c, d and A2b). The introduction of
668 N-fixing tree [species](#) resulted in changes in the relative abundance and composition of
669 these microbial communities, although these changes were not always statistically
670 significant (Fig. 2).

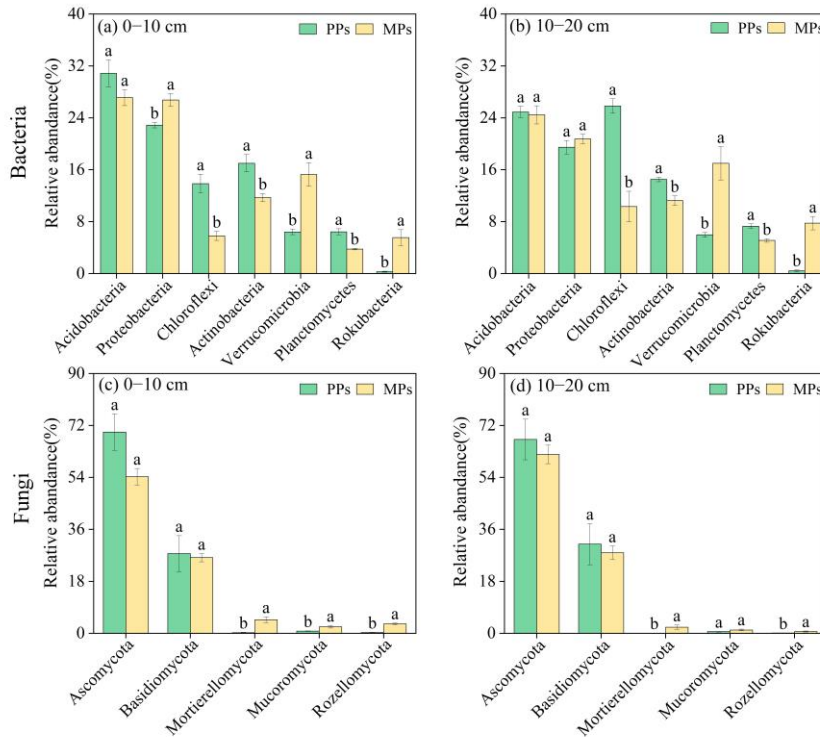


Fig. 2 Abundance difference of (a-b) bacterial and (c-d) fungal and based on relative abundance > 1% at phylum level.

We used RDA to determine the linkage between soil microbial phyla and the specific soil physicochemical factors. The first two components of RDA axes explained 80.87% and 47.75% of the total variance in the relationship between soil bacterial and fungal communities and nine selective soil physicochemical factors, respectively (Fig. 3a, b). Forward selection of the nine soil physicochemical factors in the RDA ordinations showed that the bacterial communities were primarily influenced by pH, TN, and SOC (Fig. 3a), and the fungal communities were primarily influenced by pH ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 3b).

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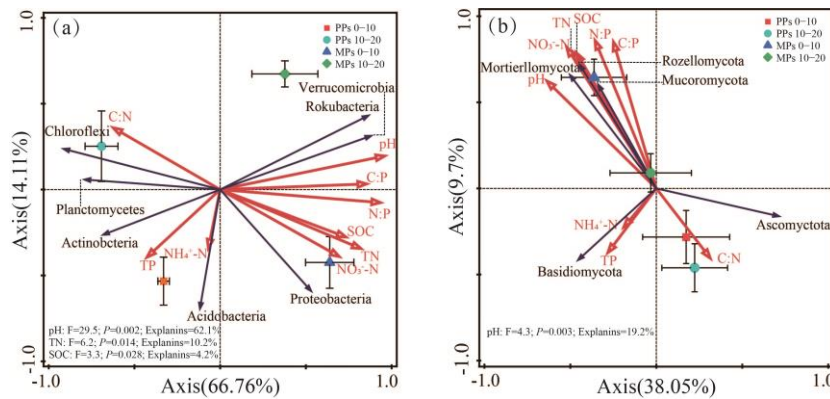


Fig. 3 RDA plot showing significant factors affecting bacterial (a) and fungal (b) communities.

3.3. Microbial network complexity and stability

Microbial species with an average abundance of at least 1% in the 0–10 and 10–20 cm of PPs and MPs were selected for network analysis. Significant differences in microbial network structure were found between PPs and MPs in both soil layers (Fig. 4a, b). In the bacterial and fungal networks, there were significantly more nodes in MPs than in PPs (Table 2). Therefore, compared to PPs, MPs significantly stimulated the complexity of the co-occurrence network, particularly in the 0–10 cm. Positive correlations (bacterial networks: ranging = 0.665–0.712, fungal networks: ranging = 0.754–0.849) were determined for both PPs and MPs (Table 2). Compared with PPs, the average path lengths in MPs were shorter (except for the fungal network in the 10–20 cm) and the network diameter was smaller (except for the bacterial network in the 10–20 cm) and had a higher average degree for both the bacterial and the fungal networks in both soil layers (Table 2).

The Zi–Pi plot showed that network hubs were absent from the bacterial and fungal networks, with keystone species instead concentrated in connectors and

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712 module hubs (Fig. 4c, d). Bacterial keystone OTUs were primarily found in the top
 713 three phyla, *Proteobacteria*, *Acidobacteriota*, and *Actinobacteriota* (Fig. 4c). Fungal
 714 keystone OTUs were likewise concentrated in the top three phyla, *Ascomycota*,
 715 *Basidiomycota*, and *Mucoromycota* (Fig. 4d).

716 **Table 2** Co-occurrence network parameters of bacterial and fungal community at OTU level

Species type	Soil layer (cm)	Stand type	Number of nodes	Number of edges	positive edges	negative edges	Average path length	Network diameter	Average degree	
<i>Bacteria</i>	0–10	PPs	529	2498	1661	837	13.58	38	9.4	Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
		MPs	667	7930	5403	2527	7.79	26	23.6	Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
	10–20	PPs	447	2509	1786	723	9.41	27	11.2	Deleted: Bactaria
		MPs	581	6342	4257	2085	8.51	30	21.8	Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
Fungi	0–10	PPs	298	642	484	158	6.47	22	4.3	Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
		MPs	344	859	722	137	5.80	20	4.9	Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
	10–20	PPs	260	511	421	90	3.00	12	3.9	Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
		MPs	304	779	661	118	5.04	15	5.1	Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt

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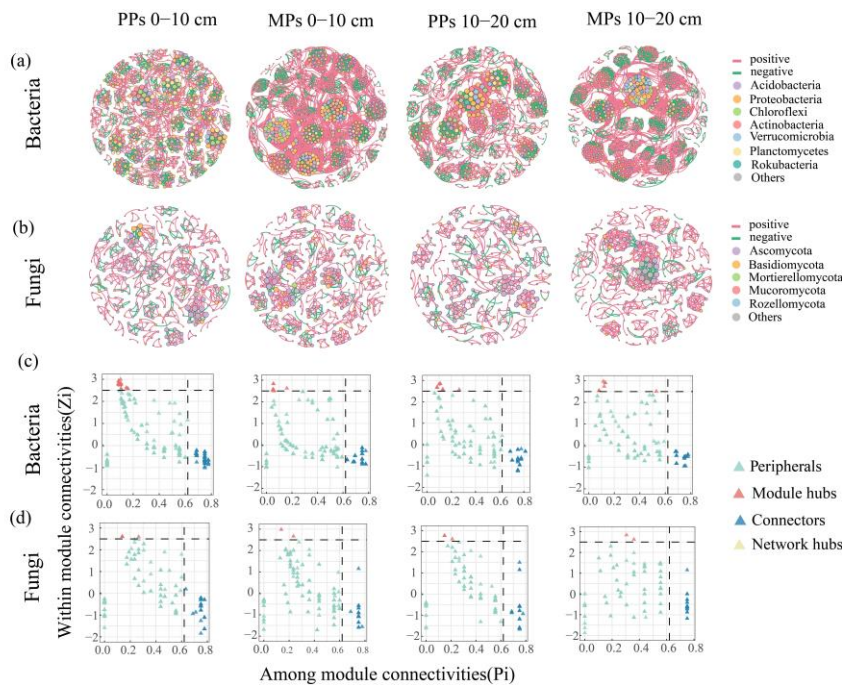
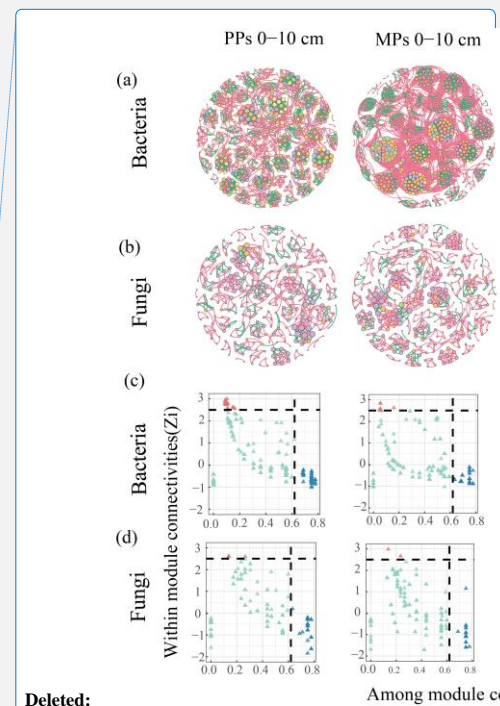


Fig. 4 Co-occurrence network characteristics of (a) bacterial and (b) fungal communities. The node color represents the phyla with relative abundance greater than 1%, and the node size represents the degree. The Zi-Pi plot (c-d) predicts keystone OTUs in (c) bacterial and (d) fungal networks.

3.4. Microbial functional genes involved in N and P transformation and enzyme activity

Introducing *Acacia mangium* into the *Eucalyptus urophylla* plantation increased the abundances of functional genes involved in N and P transformation (Figs. 5 and 6). Specifically, the abundances of the N₂-related functional genes *nifH* ($t = -4.218$, $P = 0.003$), AOB-*amoA* ($t = -3.648$, $P = 0.003$), *narG* ($t = -2.518$, $P = 0.036$), *nirS* ($t = -3.876$, $P = 0.005$), and *nosZ* ($t = -2.613$, $P = 0.031$) in the 0–10 cm and of



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AOB-*amoA* ($t = -2.466$, $P = 0.039$), *narG* ($t = -2.482$, $P = 0.038$), and *nirS* ($t = -4.477$, $P = 0.002$) in the 10–20 cm, were significantly higher in MPs than in PPs (Fig. 5a–f).

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The abundances of the P functional genes *phoC* (0–10 cm: $t = -4.316$, $P = 0.003$; 10–20 cm: $t = -4.177$, $P = 0.003$), *phoD* (0–10 cm: $t = -2.906$, $P = 0.020$), *BPP* (0–10 cm: $t = -6.373$, $P < 0.001$; 10–20 cm: $t = -2.956$, $P = 0.018$), and *pqqC* (0–10 cm: $t = -3.746$, $P = 0.006$; 10–20 cm: $t = -4.403$, $P = 0.002$) in both soil layers were

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significantly higher in MPs than in PPs, with the exception of *phoD* in the 10–20 (Fig.

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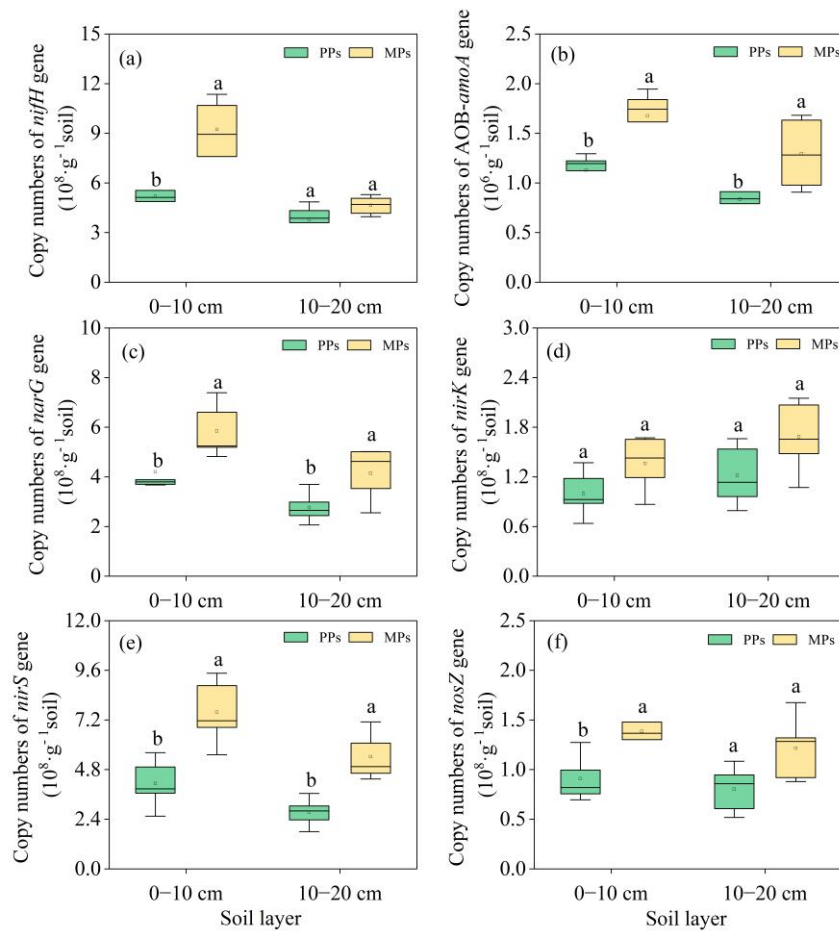


Fig. 5 Comparison of the abundance of functional genes involved in nitrogen fixation (*nifH*) (a), nitrification (AOB-*amoA*) (b), and denitrification [*narG* (c), *nirK* (d), *nirS* (e), and *nosZ* (f)] in two soil layers in PPs and MPs.

Deleted: Comparisons nitrogen cycle functional genes of (a) *nifH*, (b) AOB-*amoA*, (c) *narG*, (d) *narK*, (e) *nirS*, and (f) *nosZ* in two soil layers in PPs and MPs....

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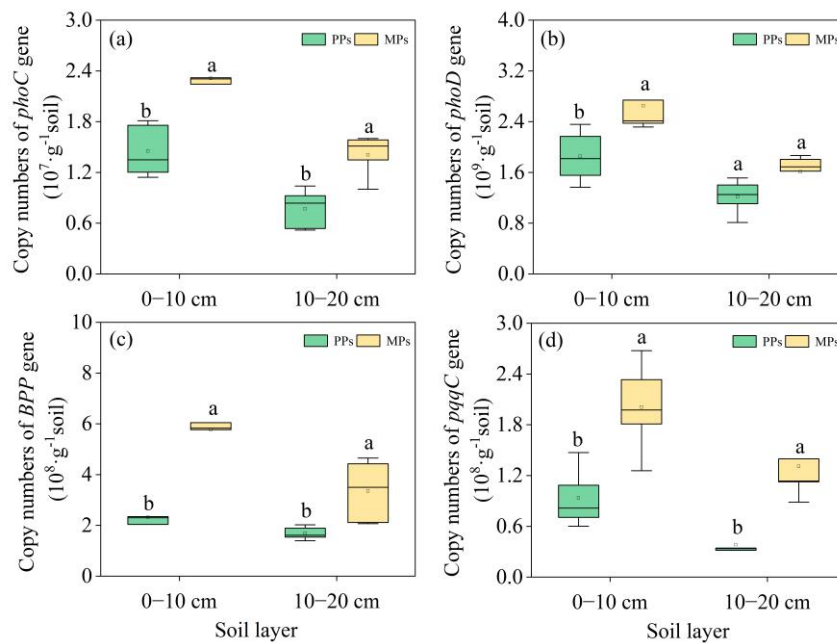


Fig. 6 Comparison of the abundance of functional genes involved in Po hydrolysis [*phoC* (a), *phoD* (b), *BPP* (c) and *pqqC* (d)] in two layers in PPs and MPs.

The EEA analysis results showed that NAG ($t = -13.435$, $P < 0.001$), LAP ($t = -2.528$, $P = 0.035$), and ACP ($t = -5.291$, $P = 0.001$) in the 0–10 cm were significantly higher in MPs than in PPs, by 97.31%, 31.72%, and 64.35% respectively (Fig. 7). In the 10–20 cm, NAG ($t = -13.435$, $P < 0.001$), LAP ($t = -3.239$, $P = 0.012$), and ACP ($t = -4.102$, $P = 0.003$) were also significantly higher in MPs than in PPs, by 24.02%, 88.54%, 39.83%, and 47.72%, respectively (Fig. 7). The qPCR results showed significantly higher levels of 16S rRNA (0–10 cm: $t = -7.258$, $P < 0.001$; 10–20 cm: $t = -4.489$, $P = 0.002$) and ITS (0–10 cm: $t = -10.262$, $P < 0.001$; 10–20 cm: $t = -5.391$, $P = 0.001$) in MPs than in PPs (Fig. A3).

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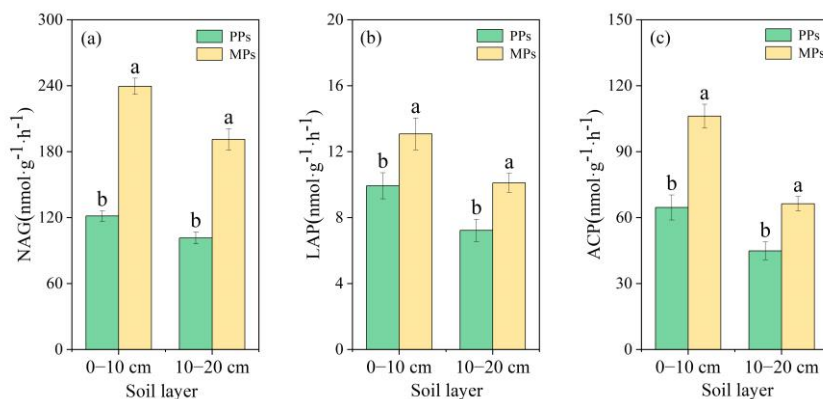


Fig.7 Comparisons extracellular soil enzyme activity of (a) β -1,4-N-acetylglucosaminidase for chitin degradation (NAG); (b) Leucine aminopeptidase for protein degradation, (LAP); and (c) Acid phosphatase for catalyzing the hydrolysis of phosphate monoesters, ACP in two soil layers in PPs and MPs.

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3.5. Integrating variation in microbial diversity and network complexity with *P* transformation

The random forest analysis results showed that NAG, LAP, and ACP activities were explained by soil properties, microbial characteristics, and functional genes involved in the N and P cycles to 84.09%, 58.95%, and 75.51%, respectively (Fig. 8).

The results showed significant positive correlations for NAG, LAP, and ACP with SOC, TN, NO_3^- -N, C:P, N:P, and pH; for the three enzymes with 16S rRNA, $\text{ACE}_{\text{bacteria}}$, $\text{Chao1}_{\text{bacteria}}$, $\text{Shannon}_{\text{bacteria}}$, $\text{nodes}_{\text{bacteria}}$, $\text{edges}_{\text{bacteria}}$, and average $\text{degree}_{\text{bacteria}}$ ($P < 0.05$); for NAG, LAP, and ACP with ITS, $\text{Shannon}_{\text{fungi}}$, $\text{edges}_{\text{fungi}}$, and average $\text{degree}_{\text{fungi}}$; for LAP and ACP with $\text{nodes}_{\text{fungi}}$; for NAG, LAP, and ACP with *nifH*, *AOB-amoA*, *narG*, and *nirS*; for NAG and LAP with *nosZ*; and for NAG, LAP, and ACP with *phoC*, *phoD*, *BPP*, and *pqqC* (all $P < 0.05$). In addition, NAG was

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significantly negatively correlated with average path length_{bacteria} ($P < 0.05$). Soil physicochemical properties (SOC, TN, NO₃-N), bacterial community diversity and network complexity, as well as functional genes involved in the N (*nifH*) and P (*phoC*) cycles are strong positive predictors of the variation in EEA.

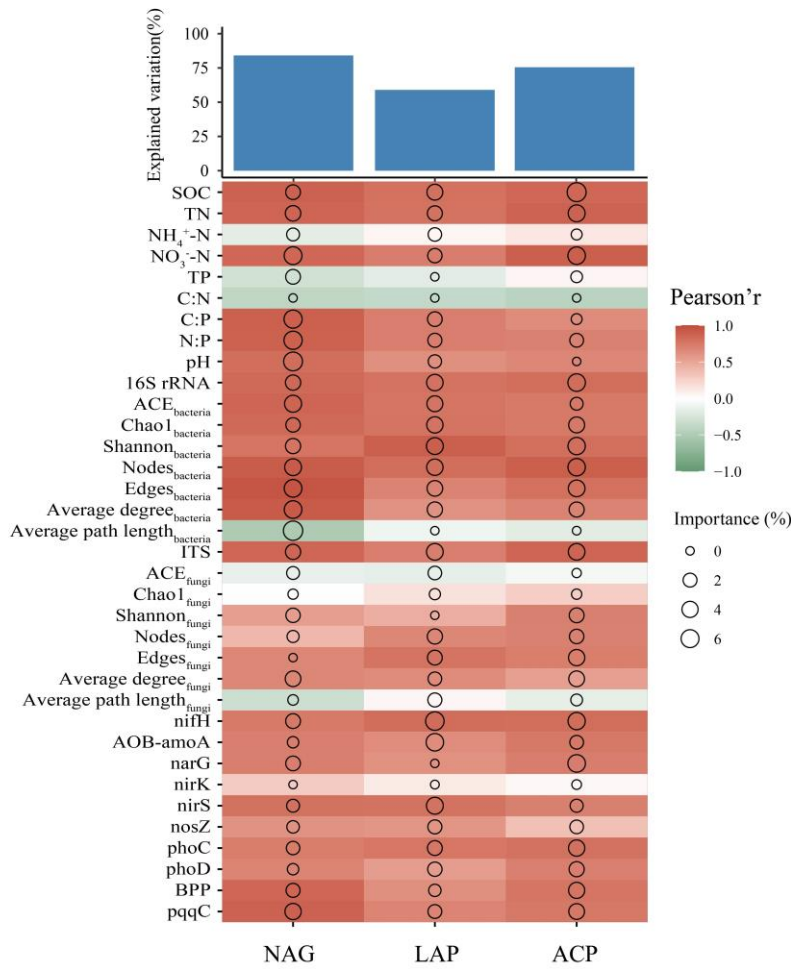


Fig. 8 The potential biological contributions of soil properties, microbial influences, and functional genes related to N and P cycling to the activity of N and P transformation enzymes. The size of the circles represents the importance of the variables, and the color indicates the Pearson

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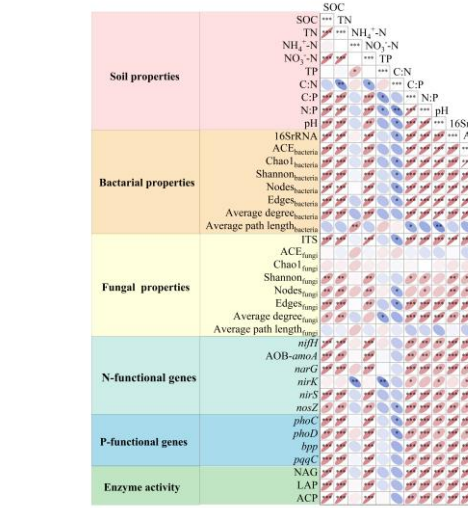
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811 correlation.

812 In the model of P transformation, the variance of 75.7%, 71.5%, 96.1%, 83.9%,

813 76.2 and 69.5% could be explained by soil properties, fungal properties, bacterial

814 properties, N functional genes, P functional genes, and N transformation, respectively,

815 within a goodness-of-fit index of 0.782 (Fig. 9a). N transformation and P functional

816 genes (*phoC*, *phoD*, and *BPP*) had a strong direct influence on P transformation, with

817 path coefficients of 0.283 and 0.605, respectively ($P < 0.01$). The diversity and

818 complexity of the network also had favorable effects on N and P functional genes,

819 exerting a substantial influence on P transformation. The overall influence of each

820 factor on P transformation in soil followed the order: soil properties > P functional

821 genes > bacterial properties > N functional genes > fungal properties > N

822 transformation (Fig. 9b). Overall, the mixture of *Eucalyptus* with N-fixing tree species

823 directly induces alterations in soil properties, which subsequently influence soil

824 microbial characteristics, functional genes involved in N and P cycling, as well as P

825 transformation, ultimately regulating P transformation.

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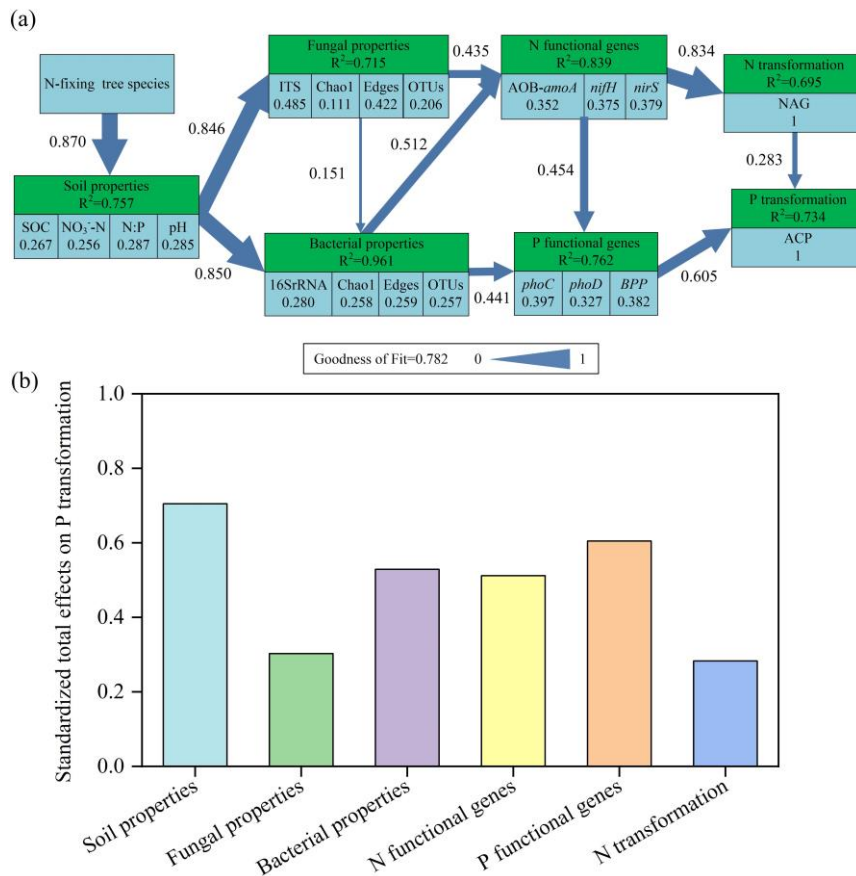


Fig. 9 (a) Path model describing the control pathways of P transformation (ACP activity) and (b) Standardized total effects (including both direct and indirect effects) on P transformation derived from PLS-PM. The light blue in (a) represents the observation variable, the light green represents the latent variable, the number under the observation variable represents the contribution weight of the observation variable to the latent variable, the number and the width of the arrow on the arrow represent the standardized path coefficient between the latent variables, and R^2 represents the explanation rate of the model to the latent variable.

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4. Discussion

4.1 Soil microbial diversity and network response in a mixed plantation of *Eucalyptus* and N-fixing tree species

The mixed planting of *Eucalyptus* with N-fixing species significantly impacted the soil microbial community structure, increasing microbial diversity and network complexity. With methodological advances that enable more comprehensive understanding of soil microbial diversity and network, we know that soil microorganisms are not only involved in nutrient (e.g., N and P) transformations but also shape the soil habitat by multiple biophysical and biogeochemical processes (Philippot et al., 2024). In our study, the combination of *Eucalyptus* and N-fixing *Acacia mangium* enhanced soil nutrient content and altered the stoichiometric ratios of C, N, and P (Table 1). Mixed plantations with N-fixing tree species have higher litter quantity and quality, which enhances nutrient retention and acquisition capacity (Huang et al., 2014), stimulates microbial growth, and promotes microbial aggregation and metabolism, thereby increasing microbial diversity (Guo et al., 2019) (Figs. 1 and A1). These findings align with those of a previous study, which demonstrated that the incorporation of *Eucalyptus* with N-fixing tree species increased the abundance and diversity of microorganisms, while also revealing variability in community structure across different stands (Li et al., 2023). The composition and diversity of soil microbial communities are primarily driven by C:N:P ratios (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2017). The availability of essential nutrients such as N, P, and Fe are controlled by the soil C supply, while the lower C:N ratio in

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Deleted: In our study, *Eucalyptus* mixed with N-fixing *Acacia mangium* resulted in increased SOC, TN, and NO_3^- -N content as well as soil C: P and N : P ratios, while decreasing the soil C : N ratio. Soil properties are key in influencing the composition of microbial communities, which serves as a vital indicator of soil health (Xia et al., 2020). The presence of N-fixing tree species leads to an increase in litter production, resulting in higher exogenous nutrient inputs (Huang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2022), which enhance bacterial and fungal α -diversity (Guo et al., 2019). ...

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[mixed plantations promotes the formation of various C components, thereby increasing SOC input](#), which subsequently influences the structure of the microbial communities and their co-occurrence patterns (Yuste et al., 2011; Qiu et al., 2021). Interestingly, in this study, the TP content in MPs was significantly lower than that in PPs (Table 1), which may be a result of increased plant uptake due to higher biomass. Additionally, the high soil N content in MPs with N-fixing tree species may positively influence plant growth, potentially stimulating P uptake (Li et al., 2016). In subtropical regions, characterized by high temperatures and heavy rainfall, P leaching is substantial; however, the introduction of N-fixing tree species increases N content, which may shift the limitation from N to P in MPs. In this context, plants are likely to recycle P more efficiently (See et al., 2015; Lang et al., 2016). Therefore, P returned to the soil through decomposition would be reduced.

In natural habitats, soil microbial communities form intricate arrays and robustly structured networks that allow adaptation to shifting environments (de Vries et al., 2018). [The complexity and diversity of microbial communities in soil are fundamental to ecosystem persistence and resilience, as they both reinforce ecological functions and offer a robust defense against external disruptions](#) (Guo et al., 2021). The complexity of the topological structure and connectivity between nodes influence the overall stability of microbial networks and their resilience to environmental disturbances (Yuan et al., 2021). The overwhelming predominance of positive over negative correlations indicated microbial adaptation to similar ecological niches through co-operation (Gao et al., 2022). Networks characterized by higher

connectivity and larger numbers of interrelationships are better equipped to withstand environmental changes, thereby preserving the functional stability of the ecosystem (Cornell et al., 2023). Our study showed that N-fixing tree species mixed plantations increased the complexity of bacterial and fungal networks (Fig. 4), as demonstrated by a higher number of nodes and edges, with positive associations predominating over negative ones, indicating stronger interactions between microorganisms (Ma et al., 2020; Niraula, 2021). Random forest analysis also revealed a robust positive association between the number of nodes and the diversity of fungal and bacterial species expressing enzymes responsible for N and P transformation (Fig. 8). These results align with our hypothesis, suggesting that *Eucalyptus* mixed with N-fixing tree species increases the complexity of microbial networks (Guo and Gong, 2024). The relative abundances of *Proteobacteria*, *Rokubacteria*, and *Verrucomicrobia* in the bacterial community were also higher in MPs than in PPs (particularly in the 0–10 cm), as were the relative abundances of *Mortierlomyota*, *Mucoromycota*, and *Rozellomycota* in the fungal community. Several edaphic factors collectively influenced the structure of both communities, among which pH was the most important (Fig. 3a, b). These findings are in line with earlier research, which demonstrated that soil pH was a key determinant in shaping the structure and composition of microbial communities (Siciliano et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2020). According to our Zi–Pi plots, the keystone species of the bacterial community were members of phyla *Proteobacteria*, *Acidobacteriota*, and *Actinobacteria*, and those of the fungal community belonged to *Ascomycota*, *Basidiomycota*, and *Mucoromycota*.

Deleted: Our study showed more complex bacterial and fungal networks in MPs than in PPs (Fig. 4), demonstrated by the higher number of nodes and edges and the predominance of positive over negative associations, which suggested stronger competition between microorganisms in MPs (Ma et al., 2020; Niraula, 2021)....

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962 The ability of leguminous plant species to establish symbiotic associations with root
 963 nodule bacteria, commonly referred to as rhizobia, is well established (e.g., Stougaard,
 964 2000; Yang et al., 2022). The phylum *Proteobacteria* is one of the largest, and
 965 phenotypically most diverse divisions, which includes gram-negative bacteria such as
 966 rhizobia. Furthermore, the N-fixing ability of rhizobia in the phylum *Proteobacteria* is
 967 a key contributor to maintaining the complexity and stability of microbial networks
 968 (Sprent and Platzmann, 2001; Fu et al., 2022). Among fungi, *Ascomycota* is the
 969 dominant phylum in soil worldwide (Egidi et al., 2019). In the present study, the
 970 relative abundance of Ascomycetes showed dominance in both PPs and MPs, but the
 971 relative abundance diminished in MPs. Although keystone taxa may not always
 972 abundant, they play a vital role in shaping microbial communities and maintaining
 973 their ecological functions, through specific regulatory pathways that affect community
 974 structure and function (Banerjee et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2022). For example, a prior
 975 study demonstrated that keystone taxa played a critical role in increasing the
 976 complexity of microbial networks, enhancing plant health and biomass, and
 977 promoting the hydrolysis of organophosphorus compounds through enzymatic activity
 978 (Qiao et al., 2024; Zeng et al., 2024).

979 4.2 Association of microbial diversity and networks with P transformation and key 980 environmental drivers

981 Our study showed that the abundance of functional genes related to N and P
 982 cycles significantly increases after intercropping with N-fixing tree species, which
 983 supports our second hypothesis (Fig. 5 and 6). In contrast to this finding, Qin et al.

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Deleted: P is crucial for maintaining plant health and ecological balance in terrestrial ecosystems (Du et al., 2020). Soil microorganisms possess numerous different genes involved in N and P transformation, which enable them to regulate N and P cycling by synthesizing and secreting extracellular enzymes (Dai et al., 2020). ...

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(2024) reported that although planting N-fixing tree *species* with *Eucalyptus* enhanced the complexity and stability of N and P functional gene networks, it reduced the abundances of these genes. This discrepancy can be explained by shifts in soil microbial communities related to N and P cycles, which consequently affect the microbial functions that respond to environmental changes (Graham et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2021). A previous study also found that the microbial community associated with a mixed plantation of *Eurograndis* and *Amangium* differed from that associated with monocultures of either species, attributable to positive effects of the mixture on soil P and nitrate levels, which enhanced the abundances of N and P functional genes (Rachid et al., 2013).

Biological N fixation is a fundamental ecosystem process that involves the conversion of atmospheric N into a form usable by plants, which, facilitated by a highly diverse group of microorganisms, significantly enhances soil fertility and promoting plant growth (Burns and Hardy, 2012; Soumare et al., 2020). All N-fixing microorganisms carry functional *nifH* genes that encode a component of nitrogenase and act as markers of the abundance and diversity of N-fixing microorganisms across various environmental contexts (Wang et al., 2018). Our results indicate that the relative abundance of P functional genes was significantly higher after the introduction of N-fixing tree species compared to pure *Eucalyptus* plantations (Fig. 6).

Both *phoC* and *phoD* are functional genes that encode phosphatase activity needed for P solubilization and mineralization and are thus critically involved in promoting soil P availability (Tian et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2022). The P cycling gene *pqqC*, which

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1034 encodes the P₂-mobilizing enzyme pyrroloquinoline quinone synthase, is a marker of
 1035 phosphate₂-mobilizing bacteria (Meyer et al., 2011). The predominant bacteria
 1036 containing *phoD* and *pqqC* are primarily members of the *Actinobacteria* and
 1037 *Proteobacteria* (Tan et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2018), whose community structure was
 1038 shown to remain unchanged with an increase in soil P pools (Ragot et al., 2015). In
 1039 line with our results, a higher abundance and diversity of *phoD*-, *phoC*-, and
 1040 *pqqC*-bearing soil microorganisms; higher abundances of these genes in soil were
 1041 correlated with higher soil SOC and TN contents (Luo et al., 2019; Cao et al., 2022).
 1042 Our study also identified significantly positive correlations between most N and P
 1043 functional genes and 16S rRNA as well as the ACE, Chao1, and Shannon indexes in
 1044 bacterial communities, whereas a significant positive correlation was determined only
 1045 between the ITS region and the Shannon index in fungal communities (Fig. A4). This
 1046 variation can be attributed to the significant positive impact that high levels of
 1047 available nutrients have on the development of bacterial communities in the soil
 1048 (Ming et al., 2016).

1049 The significant positive correlations detected for the N enzymes NAG and
 1050 LAP with AOB-*amoA*, *nifH*, and the denitrification genes *nirS*, *nosZ*, and *narG*
 1051 determined in our study suggest that, after the introduction of N-fixing tree species,
 1052 the microbial community facilitated soil N transformation by increasing the
 1053 abundance of N cycling genes. Both random forest analysis and PLS-PM analyses
 1054 indicated that P transformation reflected the interaction of biological and
 1055 non-biological factors in ecological processes influenced by the introduction of

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1070 N-fixing tree species (Figs. 8 and 9). Complex interactions between bacteria, fungi,
1071 and P cycle genes have been shown to promote microbial community stability while
1072 facilitating P transformation processes (Liu et al., 2024). *Eucalyptus* mixed with
1073 N-fixing tree species also increased soil TN and the NH_4^+ -N content, which increased
1074 ACP activity and thus soil Po mineralization. The higher soil pH in MPs than in PPs
1075 was likely driven by exchange interactions involving Fe/Al hydroxide minerals and
1076 functional groups (Table 1), which enhanced the conversion of potentially labile Pi
1077 into plant available P via competitive adsorption (Hinsinger, 2001; Kang et al., 2021).

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1078 Together, these results indicate that forest management practices that
1079 *Eucalyptus* mixed with N-fixing tree species will improve soil physicochemical
1080 properties, microbial community diversity, and correlations between microbial N and
1081 P cycling genes, thereby promoting soil P transformation.

1082 5. Conclusions

1083 This study suggests the benefits of incorporating mixed N-fixing tree species
1084 with *Eucalyptus*, specifically highlighting their positive effects on P transformation.
1085 The presence of *Acacia* was shown to alter soil physicochemical properties, improved
1086 soil bacterial and fungal community diversity, network complexity, and the abundance
1087 of N and P cycling functional genes, ultimately driving P transformation. Increases in
1088 soil nutrient content, particularly SOC, TN, and NO_3^- -N, as well as the increase in pH
1089 that occurred in MPs influenced soil microbial diversity. PLS-PM analysis revealed
1090 that mixed plantations have significantly enhanced correlations between P
1091 transformation and microbial functional genes that mediate N and P cycling. Our

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1098 findings offer fresh insights into the predictive capacity of potential shifts in the
1099 belowground microbial communities for soil functionality within mixed plantation
1100 ecosystems involving N-fixing tree species and *Eucalyptus*.

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Appendix A

Table A1 Main characteristics in PPs and MPs.

Stand type	Altitude (m)	Gradient (°)	Age (a)	SD (trees·hm ⁻²)	DBH (cm)	TH (m)
PPs	224	24	17	595±28	20.11±0.27	23.88±0.38
MPs	227	21	17	610±12	19.61±0.50	23.16±0.47
<i>Eucalyptus</i> <i>urophylla</i>	—	—	—	310±17	22.26±0.28	25.83±0.40
<i>Acacia</i> <i>mangium</i>	—	—	—	300±18	16.13±1.20	19.62±0.65

PPs: pure plantations; MPs: mixed plantations; SD: stand density; D.B.H.: diameter at breast height; TH: tree height.

Table A2. Details of the various soil extracellular enzymes and associated substrates.

Enzyme Type	Enzyme	International Classification Number	Abbreviation	Substrate
N-acquiring enzyme	β -1,4-N-acetylglucosa minidase	EC 3.2.1.30	NAG	4-MUB-N-acetyl- β -D-glucosa minide (200 μ M)
	Leucine aminopeptidase	EC 3.4.11.1	LAP	L-Leucine-7-amino-4-methylc oumarin (200 μ M)
P-acquiring enzyme	Acid phosphatase	EC 3.1.3.2	ACP	4-MUB-phosphate (200 μ M)

EC: Enzyme Commission number describing enzymatic function in increasing level of detail (the first number distinguishes 1-oxidoreductases, 2-transferases, 3- hydrolases, 4-lyases, 5-isomerases, and 6-ligases)

Table A3 Quantitative real-time PCR primers for nitrogen and phosphorus cycling function genes.

Gene type	Target gene	Primer	Sequence (5'- 3')
Nitrogen cycle	<i>nifH</i>	Pol-F	TGCGAYCCSAARGCBGACTC
		Pol-R	ATSGCCATCATYTCRCCGGA
	<i>AOB-amoA</i>	amoA-1F	GGGGTTTCTACTGGTGGT
		amoA-2R	CCCCTCKGSAAAGCCTTCTTC
	<i>narG</i>	narG-f	TAYGTSGGGCAGGARAAACTG
		narG-r	CGTAGAAGAAGCTGGTGCTGT
	<i>nirK</i>	nirk876	ATYGGCGGVCA YGGCGA
		nirk1040	GCCTCGATCAGRTTTRTGTT
	<i>nirS</i>	Nirs-Cd3aF	GTSAACGTS AAGGARACSGG
		Nirs-R3cdR	GASTTCGGRTGSGTCTTGA
	<i>nosZ</i>	nosZ2F	CGCRACGGCAASAAGGTSMSST
		nosZ2R	CAKRTGCAKSGCRTGGCAGAA
Phosphorus cycle	<i>phoC</i>	phoc-A-F1	CGGCTCCTATCCGTCCGG
		phoc-A-R1	CAACATCGCTTTGCCAGTG
	<i>phoD</i>	ALPS-F730	CAGTGGGACGACCACGAGGT
		ALPS-R1101	GAGGCCGATCGGCATGTCG
	<i>BPP</i>	bpp-F	GACGCAGCCGAYGAYCCNNGCNITNTGG
		bpp-R	CAGGSCGCANRTCIACRTTTRTT
	<i>pqqC</i>	Fw	AACCGCTTCTACTACCAG
		Rv	GCGAACAGCTCGGTCAG
Bacteria	16S rRNA	338F	ACTCCTACGGAGCGCA
		806R	GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT
Fungi	ITS	ITS1F	CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA
		ITS2R	GCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGC

Table A4 Statistical table of bacterial and fungi species in both 0–10 cm and 10–20 cm soil layers in PPs and MPs.

Microbial type	Soil layer (cm)	Stand type	Phylum	Class	Order	Family	Genus	OTU
Bacteria	0–10	PPs	20	50	112	155	229	1435
		MPs	21	62	131	187	283	1760
	10–20	PPs	20	47	108	155	224	1315
		MPs	20	58	126	179	268	1695
	Total	—	21	64	140	201	311	1869
Fungi	0–10	PPs	8	18	41	57	73	693
		MPs	8	21	45	73	93	723
	10–20	PPs	8	18	41	52	56	651
		MPs	8	19	43	64	87	654
	Total	—	8	24	62	104	157	1128

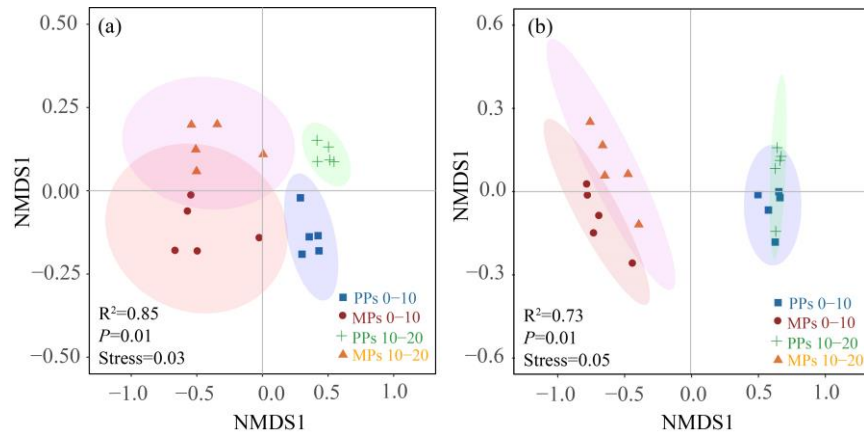


Fig. A1 Nonmetric multidimensional scaling analysis of (a) bacterial and (b) fungal, based on Bray-Curtis similarity in both 0–10 cm and 10–20 cm soil layers in PPs and MPs.

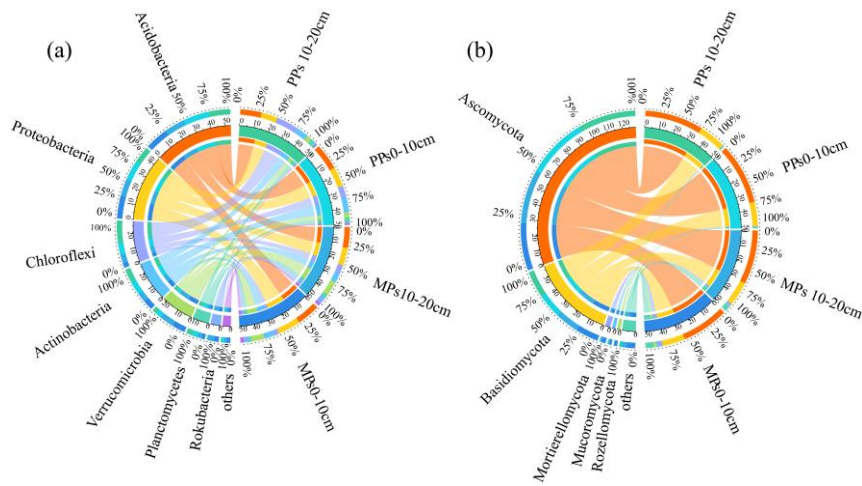


Fig. A2 Chord diagrams showing the bacterial (a) and fungal (b) community composition (at the relative abundance >1% phylum level). The outer circle scale represents the percentage information of relative abundance of OTU in the sample; The inner circle scale represents the absolute abundance information of OTU in the sample (unit: 1000).

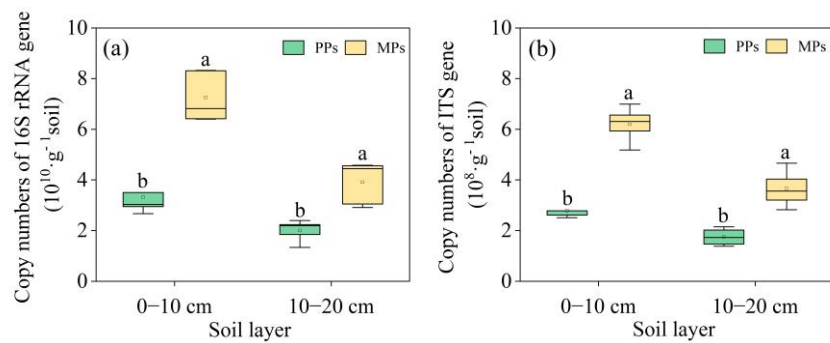


Fig. A3 Comparisons copy number of (a) 16SrRNA and (b) ITS in both 0–10 cm and 10–20 cm soil layers in PPs and MPs.

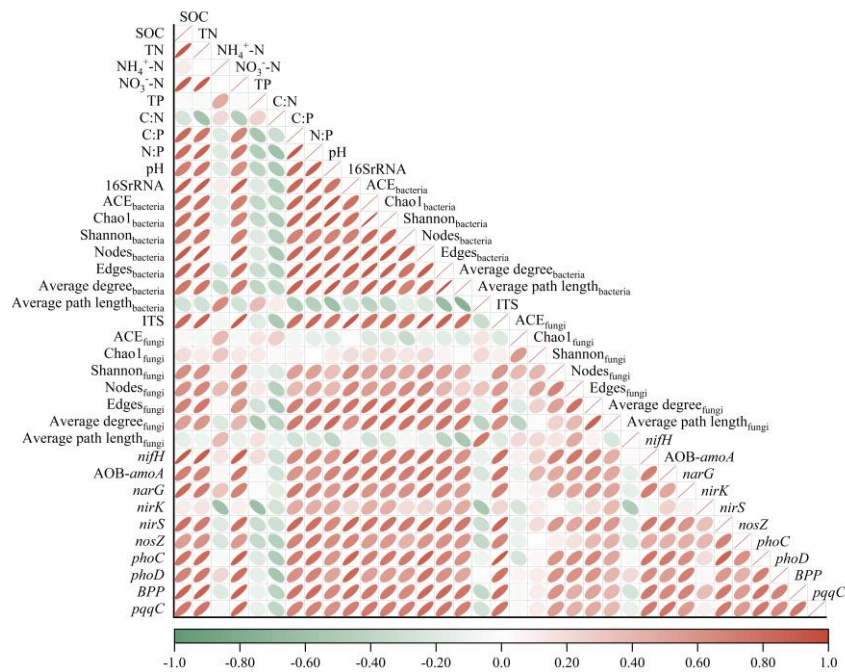


Fig. A4 Correlative relationships between soil physico-chemical properties, microbial diversity and complexity, and soil physico-chemical properties.

4 **Data availability**

5 All raw data can be provided by the corresponding authors upon request.

Author contributions

JL, XH, and YY conceived and designed of the study. JL, XH, YY, and WZ processed and analyzed data acquisition of field experiments. JL, WZ, YL, HH, HM, and QH conducted the fieldwork. JL and WZ performed laboratory analysis. JL completed the analysis of the data and prepared the original draft of the manuscript, XH, YY, YW, and AM helped to review and edit the manuscript. All the authors gave approval for the final manuscript.

14 **Competing interests**

15 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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