



**1 Promoted phosphorus transformation by increasing soil microbial diversity and**  
**2 network complexity- A case of long-term mixed-species plantations of *Eucalyptus* with**  
**3 N-fixing tree species**

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 Increased nitrogen (N) availability influences soil phosphorus (P) cycling through  
21 multiple pathways. Soil microorganisms are essential facilitating a wide range of  
22 ecosystem functions. However, the impact of mixed plantations of *Eucalyptus* and  
23 N-fixing tree species affect P transformation and microbiota interactions remains  
24 unknown. Therefore, we conducted a 17-year field experiment in pure *Eucalyptus*  
25 plantations (PPs) to assess the effects of soil P transformation in mixed plantations  
26 (MPs) of *Eucalyptus* and N-fixing trees species. The results showed that  $\alpha$ -diversity  
27 indices for bacteria ACE and Chao1 as well as Shannon indices index for both  
28 bacteria and fungi were significantly higher in MPs than in PPs. Significantly higher  
29 relative abundances in MPs than in PPs were determined for the bacterial phyla  
30 *Proteobacteria* (0–10 cm soil layer only), *Verrucomicrobia*, and *Rokubacteria* and for  
31 the fungal phyla *Mortierllomycota*, *Mucoromycota*, and *Rozellomycota*. By contrast,  
32 those of the bacterial phyla *Chloroflexi*, *Actinobacteria*, and *Planctomycetes* and  
33 fungal phylum *Ascomycota* were significantly lower in MPs than in PPs. Gene copy  
34 numbers for 16S rRNA, internal transcribed spacer (ITS), N functional genes [*nifH*  
35 (0–10 cm soil layer only), AOB-*amoA*, *narG*, *nirS*, and *nosZ* (0–10 cm soil layer only)]  
36 and P functional genes [*phoC*, *phoD* (0–10 cm soil layer only), *BPP*, and *pqqC*] were  
37 also significantly higher in MPs than in PPs. The findings indicated that MPs can  
38 enhance soil microbial diversity, network complexity, and the relative abundance of



39 functional genes associated with N and P cycling by optimizing soil nutrient levels  
40 and pH, thereby facilitating P transformation. Therefore, MPs of *Eucalyptus* and  
41 N-fixing tree species may represent a promising forest management strategy to  
42 improve ecosystem P benefits.

43

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

46



## 47    **1. Introduction**

48        Phosphorus (P) constitutes a crucial factor influencing the plant-microbe-soil  
49    interactions within forest ecosystems (Richardson and Simpson, 2011), while the  
50    availability of P serves as a key indicator of soil fertility and quality (Peng et al.,  
51    2021). In most ecosystems, P supply is limited because gaseous P compounds in the  
52    atmosphere are unavailable (Du et al., 2020), such that P cycling occurs mainly  
53    between plants, soil, and microorganisms. However, because the main source of P is  
54    derived from soil matrix weathering, large quantities of P tend to be masked by  
55    insoluble minerals, particularly iron (Fe) and aluminum (Al), or fixed in low-mobility  
56    inorganic and organic materials (Walker and Syers, 1976). These P reserves cannot be  
57    accessed directly by plants (Rodríguez and Fraga 1999; Fan et al., 2019).  
58    Consequently, it is essential to implement strategies for the sustainable management  
59    of soil P to enhance its utilization by plants, preserve soil quality, and mitigate the risk  
60    of P loss.

61        Microorganisms are critical for the processes of P mineralization, solubilization,  
62    and cycling, facilitating its transformation into bioavailable forms for plant uptake  
63    while also contributing to the maintenance of soil health (Pastore et al., 2020; Sun et  
64    al., 2022). Research on the genes associated with P uptake and utilization have  
65    highlighted the importance of microorganisms in enhancing these processes in plants  
66    (Dai et al., 2020). By functioning as both a reservoir and a source of phosphate ions,  
67    soil microorganisms significantly influence P availability and thus soil fertility  
68    (Bünemann et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2018). The  $\alpha$ -diversity, structure, and  
69    composition of soil bacterial and fungal communities are extremely sensitive to P



70 transformation (Jin et al., 2019).

71 Microbiome co-occurrence networks are prevalently employed to scrutinize the  
 72 interrelationships within microbial communities, and network attributes (e.g., the  
 73 mean degree, edge quantity, and node amount) can be utilized to appraise the  
 74 reciprocal ties among these communities and their reactions to modifications in  
 75 cultivation paradigms (Faust, 2021; Qiu et al., 2021). The complexity of microbial  
 76 networks, defined as the strength of microbial interactions, predicts ecosystem  
 77 function, including the transformation and cycling of soil nutrients such as P and  
 78 nitrogen (N). Therefore, network complexity is closely linked to multifunctionality  
 79 (Yang et al., 2023). Thus, understanding the interplay between microbial diversity and  
 80 microbial networks is crucial for developing forest management strategies aimed at  
 81 enhancing soil fertility and optimizing ecosystem functionality.

82 Functional gene markers are frequently used to examine the diversity and  
 83 abundance of the microbial communities involved in elemental transformations. The P  
 84 cycle cluster includes genes that stimulate the mineralization of organic P (e.g., *phoD*,  
 85 *phoC*, and *BPP*) (Cao et al., 2022; Khan et al., 2023) and solubilization of inorganic P  
 86 (e.g., *pqqC*) (Meyer et al., 2011). Additionally, the gene *phoD* encodes a non-specific  
 87 alkaline phosphatase (ALP) that exhibits enhanced activity in acidic soil (Fraser et al.,  
 88 2015). N is also an essential element for plant growth and development, typically  
 89 coupled with P in biogeochemical cycles. The N cycle group consists of genes  
 90 responsible for microbially driven nitrification (e.g., AOB-*amoA*), N fixation (e.g.,  
 91 *nifH*), and denitrification (e.g., *nirS*). Although increased N availability enhances



92 primary production, an optimal N: P ratio is needed to ensure P uptake and  
 93 utilization, , thus maintaining the balanced nutrient availability that drives sustained  
 94 growth (Tessier and Raynal 2003; Menge and Field, 2007). An increase in N content  
 95 can influence soil pH, which subsequently alters the composition of soil microbial  
 96 communities and impacts the abundance of phosphatase-coding genes (*phoC* and  
 97 *phoD*) (Widdig et al., 2020). However, the presence of N-fixing plants also affects P  
 98 uptake by enhancing litter decomposition rates and the release of organic acids from  
 99 microbial biomass, thereby improving nutrient cycling and soil fertility (Perring et al.,  
 100 2008; Li et al., 2021b). Therefore, an understanding of the impact of N availability on  
 101 soil microbes is needed to assess P transformation in soil.

102 *Eucalyptus* are characterized by their straight trunks, well-developed horizontal  
 103 root systems, and high adaptability. They are prevalent in subtropical and tropical  
 104 regions, where they have significant economic and ecological value (Zhang and Wang,  
 105 2021b). However, monocultures and short-term rotation management of *Eucalyptus*  
 106 plantation have led to soil degradation, reductions in soil nutrient effectiveness, and  
 107 soil microbial function and diversity, as well as other adverse ecological effects.  
 108 Planting *Eucalyptus* in a mixture with other trees has been demonstrated to enhance  
 109 nutrient cycling efficiency, soil fertility, and overall productivity (Koutika and  
 110 Mareschal, 2017; Epihov et al., 2021). *Acacia* are widely planted in South China  
 111 because they require fewer exogenous N from the soil, due to their N-fixing capacity  
 112 (Räsänen et al., 2001). Mixed plantations that include N-fixing trees such as *Acacia*  
 113 can significantly boost productivity and enhance organic carbon sequestration,



114 thereby improving soil fertility and contributing to climate change mitigation (Marron  
115 and Epron, 2019; Zhang et al., 2023). Nevertheless, the mechanism through which  
116 microorganisms regulate P transformation after the long-term mixed planting of  
117 *Eucalyptus* and N-fixing tree remains unclear. We put forward the hypothesized that  
118 (1) the diversity and composition of soil microorganisms would be changed in the  
119 mixed plantations, that (2) mixed plantations intensify the response to the beneficial  
120 impacts of N-fixing tree, thereby strengthening the correlation between the genes  
121 associated with N and P cycling, and that (3) N-fixing tree would lead to higher  
122 diversity and network complexity in mixed plantations. The primary aims of this  
123 study (1) were to evaluate the changes in the structure, diversity, and stability of soil  
124 microbial communities after mixing *Eucalyptus* with N-fixing tree, and (2) to  
125 elucidate the mechanisms through which bacterial and fungal communities, along  
126 with genes associated with N and P cycling, regulate P transformation.

## 127 **2. Materials and methods**

### 128 *2.1. Site description*

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



136 2.2. Plot design and sampling

137 In this study, the pure (monoculture) *Eucalyptus urophylla* plantations (PPs) and  
138 adjacent mixed plantations (MPs) of *Eucalyptus urophylla* and *Acacia mangium*  
139 (N-fixing tree) were established in 2004 on the logging tracks of *Pinus massoniana*  
140 plantations that were established in 1977. The MPs were planted at a 1: 1 mixing ratio  
141 with inter-row planting, consisting of one row of *Eucalyptus urophylla* and one row of  
142 *Acacia mangium*. In the first two consecutive years post-planting, both plantations  
143 were subjected to a similar stand management regime, which included practices such  
144 as weed control and fertilization, subsequently allowing them to proceed with their  
145 natural stand development. The experimental design is described in the study  
146 conducted by Huang et al. (2017). In 2021, taking into account the differences in  
147 plantation layout and topography, five 20 m × 20 m sample plots were randomly  
148 established in each stands (PPs and MPs), ensuring that adjacent plots maintained at a  
149 distance greater than 200 m to mitigate edge effects. The diameter at breast height,  
150 height, and stand density of every tree within each plot were assessed. Detailed  
151 information on the plantations is provided in Table S1.

152 Soil samples were carried out in early August 2021. Soil samples were gathered  
153 from eight different points within each plot, located at 5-m intervals from the center,  
154 along angles of 0°, 45°, 90°, 135°, 180°, 225°, 270°, and 315°. Soil samples were  
155 obtained from the depth intervals of 0–10 cm and 10–20 cm following the removal of  
156 extraneous materials such as little stones, and dead leaves. Eight undisturbed samples  
157 from each soil layer were amalgamated into a composite sample and transported to





158 the laboratory on ice. Each composite sample was partitioned into two aliquots: one  
159 designated for the analysis of physicochemical properties, and the other reserved for  
160 genomic DNA extraction.

### 161 *2.3. Soil properties and soil enzyme activity*

162 Soil pH was measured using a 1:2.5 soil-to-water ratio method, and soil organic  
163 carbon (SOC) was quantified using the  $K_2Cr_2O_7$ - $H_2SO_4$  oxidation method. The total  
164 nitrogen (TN) content of soil was determined using an Auto Analyzer III in an extract  
165 obtained by digestion of the sample with  $H_2SO_4$  and a catalyst ( $CuSO_4$ :  $H_2SO_4$  = 10:  
166 1). The levels of nitrate N ( $NO_3^-$ -N) and ammonia N ( $NH_4^+$ -N) were determined by  
167  $CaCl_2$  extraction, followed by quantitative analysis using an AutoAnalyzer III. Total P  
168 (TP) and available P (AP) were quantified using the molybdenum blue colorimetric  
169 method following extraction of the samples with  $HClO_4$ - $H_2SO_4$  and  $HCl$ - $H_2SO_4$ ,  
170 respectively.

171 N and P metabolised by soil extracellular enzyme activity (EEA), i.e.,  
172  $\beta$ -1,4-N-acetylglucosaminidase (NAG) and leucine aminopeptidase (LAP) activity for  
173 N and acid phosphomonoesterase (ACP) activity for P, were quantified in a  
174 fluorescence assay conducted in a 96-well microplate. Soil EEA was calculated from  
175 the fluorescence readings of the enzyme after its reaction with the appropriate  
176 substrate. The assay was conducted using 200  $\mu$ L of a soil suspension prepared by  
177 weighing 1.25 g of fresh soil to which sodium acetate buffer (pH 4.5) was added, and  
178 stirred for 1 min to ensure consistent extraction conditions and effective solubilization  
179 of the soil constituents. Eight replicates per sample were tested. The samples were



180 incubated in darkness at 25°C for 3 h, after which the reaction was terminated by  
181 adding NaOH. Fluorescence was then immediately measured within the wavelength  
182 range of 365–450 nm by using a fluorescence microplate reader. Information on the  
183 substrates of the three soil extracellular enzymes can be found in Table S2.

#### 184 *2.4. Soil DNA extraction and sequencing*

185 Microbial genomic DNA was obtained from soil samples utilizing the PowerSoil  
186 DNA isolation kit (MN NucleoSpin 96 Soi) for subsequent analysis and  
187 measurements. The primers employed were 338F (5'-ACTCCTACGGAGCGCA-3')  
188 and 806R (5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3') for the amplification of the  
189 V3–V4 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA gene (Mori et al., 2014; Parada et al.,  
190 2016), additionally, ITS1F (5'-CTTGGTCATTTAGAGGAAGTAA-3') and ITS2R (5'-  
191 GCTGCGTTCTTCATCGATGC-3') were utilized to amplify the ITS1 region of  
192 fungal rRNA gene loci (Adams et al., 2013; Dong et al., 2021). Sequencing data were  
193 processed by filtering the raw reads using Trimmomatic v0.33, removing the primers  
194 using Cutadapt v1.9.1, assembling the clean reads by overlap with Usearch v10, and  
195 removing chimeras with UCHIME v4.2 to ensure data validity. After the removal of  
196 potential chimeras, 1,600,678 and 1,550,033 high-quality bacterial and fungal reads  
197 were obtained, respectively.

198 The genetic potential of the soil microorganisms was assessed by real-time  
199 fluorescence quantitative PCR (qPCR) to quantitatively determine the gene copy  
200 numbers of bacteria (16S) and fungi (ITS). To evaluate the ability of genes to support  
201 N and P cycle processes, we analyzed the abundances of the functional genes *nifH*,



202 AOB-*amoA*, *narG*, *nirS*, *nirK*, and *nosZ* as representatives of the N cycle. Similarly,  
 203 we analyzed the genetic potential of *phoC*, *phoD*, *BPP*, and *pqqC* as representatives  
 204 of the P cycle. These functional genes are well-established biomarkers of the  
 205 biochemical pathways essential for nutrient cycling in various ecosystems. The qPCR  
 206 amplification efficiencies ranged from 90% to 110%. The primers and references for  
 207 the functional genes are reported in Table S3.

#### 208 2.5. Network construction

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

222 Keystone species were identified by utilizing the connectivity within modules ( $Z_i$ )  
 223 and between modules ( $P_i$ ). Microorganisms were classified into four categories



224 depending on intra-module degree (z score) and participation coefficient (c score)  
225 thresholds, into network hubs, module hubs, connectors, and peripherals (Poudel et al.,  
226 2016). Network hubs refer to nodes with a high degree of connectivity both globally  
227 and within individual modules; module hubs are nodes with significant connectivity  
228 restricted to a single module; connectors are nodes that facilitate strong connections  
229 between different modules, and peripheral nodes are those with few connections to  
230 other nodes (Poudel et al., 2016). Network hubs, module hubs, and connectors occupy  
231 critical positions within the network and are classified as keystone topological  
232 features. These characteristics are essential for sustaining the stability of microbial  
233 communities (Delmas et al., 2019). Consequently, OTUs associated with these nodes  
234 were designated as keystone species.

## 235 2.6. Data analyses

236 Alpha index analyses including ACE, Chao1 and Shannon indices were  
237 performed using Mothur (v 1.30.2) software (Schloss et al., 2009). Soil  
238 physicochemical properties, microbial community indices, such as the ACE and  
239 Shannon and Chao1 indices, as well as functional genes and enzyme activity, were  
240 analyzed in independent samples t-tests using SPSS v24.0. This statistical approach  
241 was applied to evaluate differences attributable to stand type (monoculture or mixed).  
242 Differences in soil microorganisms across stand types and soil layers were analyzed  
243 using non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) with Bray–Curtis dissimilarity  
244 and analysis of similarity (ANOSIM), implemented using the *vegan* package in R  
245 (Oksanen et al., 2013; Knowles et al., 2019). Pearson correlation coefficients were



246 used to analyze the relationships among soil characteristics, microbial characteristics,  
 247 genes associated with N and P cycling, N and P transformation, with the results  
 248 visualized in a heat map generated in Origin 2024. A redundancy analysis (RDA) was  
 249 employed to explore the multivariate associations between soil physicochemical  
 250 characteristics and microorganisms. The most important soil physicochemical  
 251 properties affecting bacterial and fungal phyla were identified in the RDA and  
 252 visualized using CANOCO v5. A partial least squares path model (PLS-PM) was  
 253 constructed using R software to assess the direct and indirect effects of mixed  
 254 planting of *Eucalyptus* and *Acacia* on P transformation. A PLS-PM can reveal causal  
 255 connections between observed and latent variables, and its superiority for small  
 256 sample sizes has been demonstrated in simulation studies, in which path modeling  
 257 estimation was shown to be reliable (Monecke and Leisch, 2012; Sanchez, 2013). The  
 258 goodness-of-fit statistic was used to assess the adequacy of the PLS-PM fit, with a  
 259 value  $> 0.7$  indicating good model fit (Henseler and Sarstedt, 2013).

### 260 **3. Results**

#### 261 *3.1. Soil properties*

262 Significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) increases in SOC, TN,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N, C :P, N :P, and pH were  
 263 determined in both soil layers of the MPs and PPs (Table 1); however, TP (10–20 cm  
 264 soil layer) was significantly lower in MPs than in PPs ( $P < 0.05$ , Table 1).

265 **Table 1** Soil physicochemical properties in both 0–10 cm and 10–20 cm soil layers in PPs and  
 266 MPs.

267

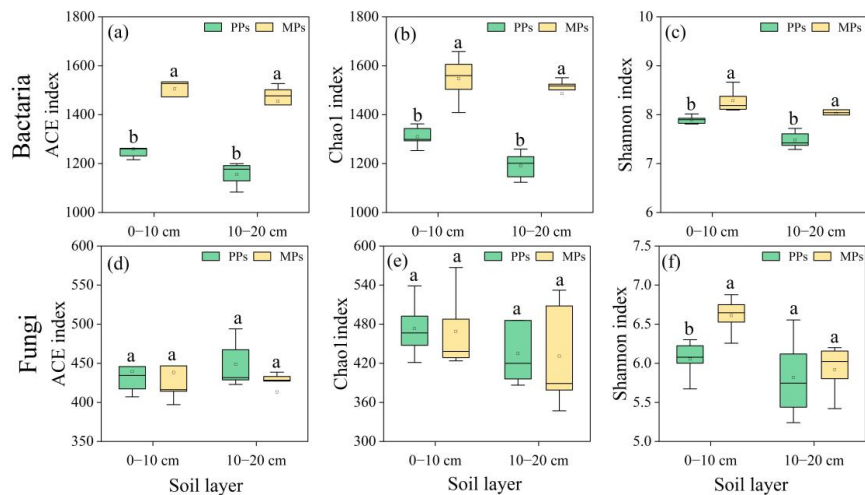


Soil layer (cm)	Stand type	SOC (g·kg <sup>-1</sup> )	TN (g·kg <sup>-1</sup> )	NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N (mg·kg <sup>-1</sup> )	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N (mg·kg <sup>-1</sup> )	TP (g·kg <sup>-1</sup> )	C: N	C: P	N: P	pH
0–10	PPs	12.98±	1.15±	18.92±	4.86±	0.31±	11.38±	42.04±	3.74±	4.28±
		0.90b	0.04b	1.49a	0.06b	0.02a	0.96a	3.18b	0.25b	0.04b
	MPs	21.18±	2.17±	15.14±	13.90±	0.30±	9.82±	72.75±	7.37±	5.09±
		1.10a	0.15a	2.25a	0.67a	0.02a	0.39a	5.35a	0.44a	0.11a
10–20	PPs	10.31±	0.83±	13.84±	3.05±	0.32±	12.37±	32.73±	2.67±	4.21±
		0.79b	0.02b	0.83a	0.05b	0.03a	0.89a	2.47b	0.17b	0.05b
	MPs	14.45±	1.33±	11.71±	5.39±	0.22±	10.98±	64.63±	6.00±	5.04±
		0.59a	0.09a	0.44a	0.05a	0.01b	0.76a	2.62a	0.52a	0.13a

268 SOC: Soil Organic Carbon; TN: Total Nitrogen; NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N: Ammonium Nitrogen; NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N: Nitrate Nitrogen;  
269 TP: Total Phosphorus; C: N: Carbon: Nitrogen ratio; C: P: Carbon: Phosphorus ratio; N: P: Nitrogen: Phosphorus  
270 ratio; pH: Soil pH Value; Different lowercase letters in the table represent significant differences between PPs and  
271 MPs ( $P < 0.05$ ), the same below.

272 *3.2. Bacterial and fungal community diversity and composition*

273 In both soil layers, the bacterial ACE, Chao1, and Shannon indices of  $\alpha$ -diversity  
274 were significantly higher in MPs than in PPs ( $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 1a–c). Fungal Shannon  
275 index in the 0–10 cm soil layer was also significantly higher in MPs than in PPs ( $P <$   
276  $0.05$ , Fig. 1f). The composition of bacterial and fungal community exhibited  
277 significant differences between the two plantation types and soil layers, except for the  
278 fungal communities in PPs, which did not differ between the surface and deeper soil  
279 layers ( $P < 0.05$ , ANOSIM:  $R^2 = 0.85$ ,  $P = 0.01$ , stress = 0.03 and  $R^2 = 0.73$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ,  
280 stress = 0.05, respectively, Fig. S1).

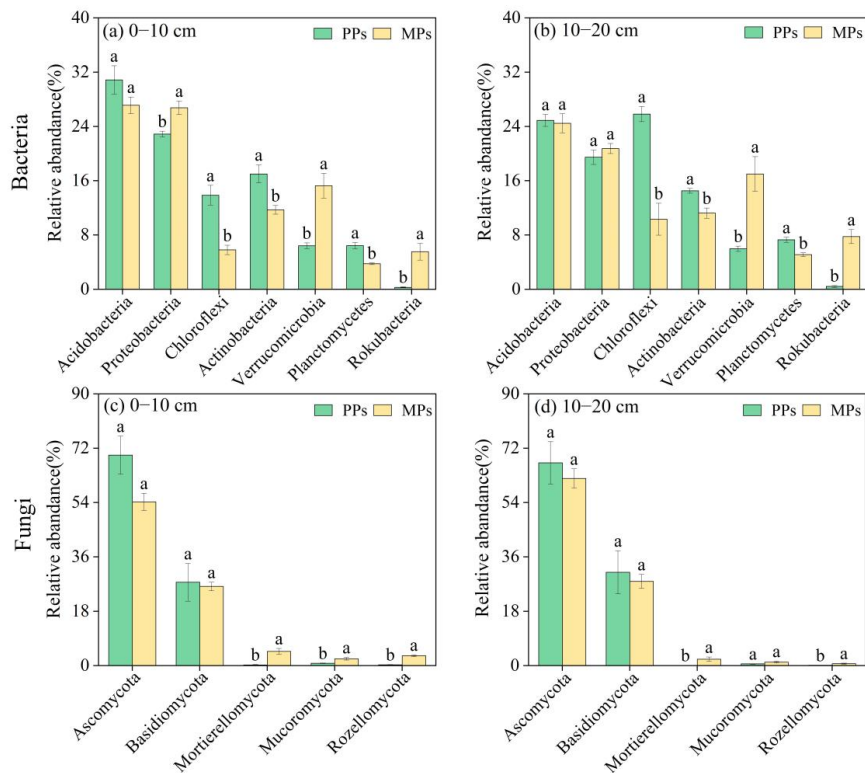


**Fig. 1** Comparisons of (a-c) bacterial and (d-f) fungal community, by  $\alpha$  diversity index in two soil layers in PPs and MPs.

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 classes, 62 orders, 104 families, and 157 genera (Table S4). The most abundant bacterial phyla (relative abundance > 1%) in both PPs and MPs were *Acidobacteria* (26.83%), *Proteobacteria* (22.46%), *Chloroflexi* (13.95%), *Actinobacteria* (13.62%), *Verrucomicrobia* (11.16%), *Planctomycetes* (5.6%), and *Rokubacteria* (3.5%), which represented 94.08% of the total bacterial community in the 0–10 cm layer (Figs. 2a, b and S2a). The most abundant fungal phyla (relative abundance >1%) in both PPs and MPs were *Ascomycota* (63.25%), *Basidiomycota* (28.14%), *Mortierellomycota* (1.77%), *Mucoromycota* (1.18%), and *Rozellomycota* (1.06%), which represented 95.40% of the total fungal community (Figs. 2c, d and S2b). The introduction of



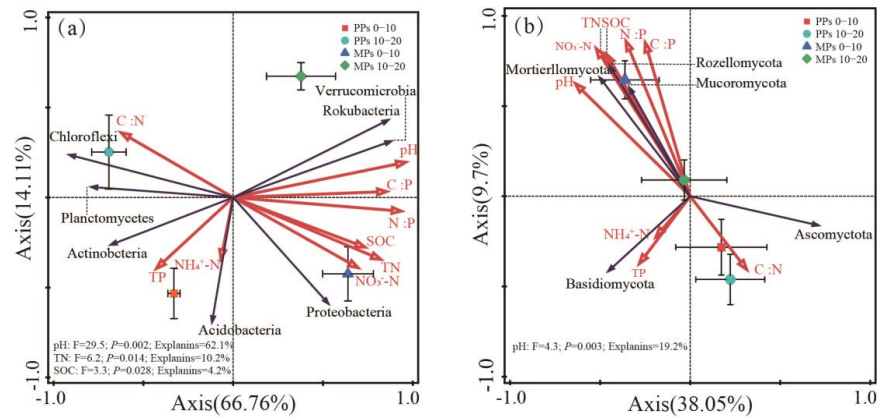
296 N-fixing tree resulted in changes in the relative abundance and composition of these  
297 microbial communities, although these changes were not always statistically  
298 significant (Fig. 2).



299  
300 **Fig. 2** Abundance difference of (a-b) bacterial and (c-d) fungal and based on relative abundance >  
301 1% at phylum level.

302 The first two RDA axes explained 66.76% and 14.11% of the total variation in  
303 bacterial communities, with pH, TN, and SOC as the major drivers (Fig. 3a). For the  
304 fungal communities, the first two RDA axes explained 38.05% and 9.7% of the total  
305 variation, with pH as the most important regulator (Fig. 3b).





**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 soil layers 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 soil layer. 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 soil layer) and the network diameter was smaller (except for the bacterial network in the 10–20 cm soil layer) 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

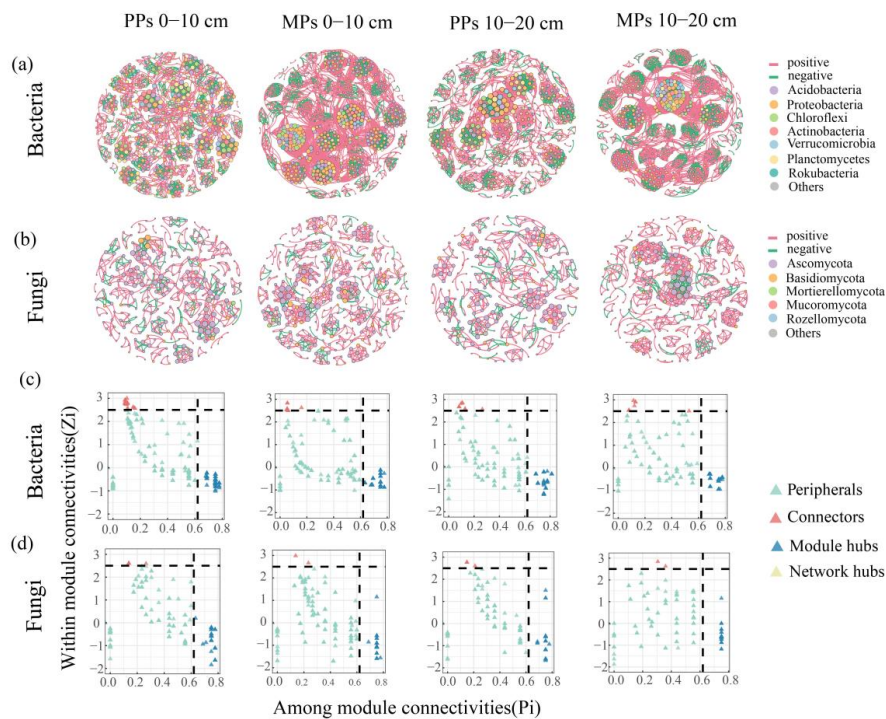


323 fungal networks, with keystone species instead concentrated in connectors and  
324 module hubs (Fig. 4c, d). Bacterial keystone OTUs were primarily found in the top  
325 three phyla, Proteobacteria, Acidobacteriota, and Actinobacteriota (Fig. 4c). Fungal  
326 keystone OTUs were likewise concentrated in the top three phyla, Ascomycota,  
327 Basidiomycota, and Mucoromycota (Fig. 4d).

328 **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
Bacteria	0–10	PPs	529	2498	1661	837	13.58	38	9.44
		MPs	667	7930	5403	2527	7.79	26	23.67
	10–20	PPs	447	2509	1786	723	9.41	27	11.23
		MPs	581	6342	4257	2085	8.51	30	21.83
Fungi	0–10	PPs	298	642	484	158	6.47	22	4.31
		MPs	344	859	722	137	5.80	20	4.99
	10–20	PPs	260	511	421	90	3.00	12	3.93
		MPs	304	779	661	118	5.04	15	5.13

329



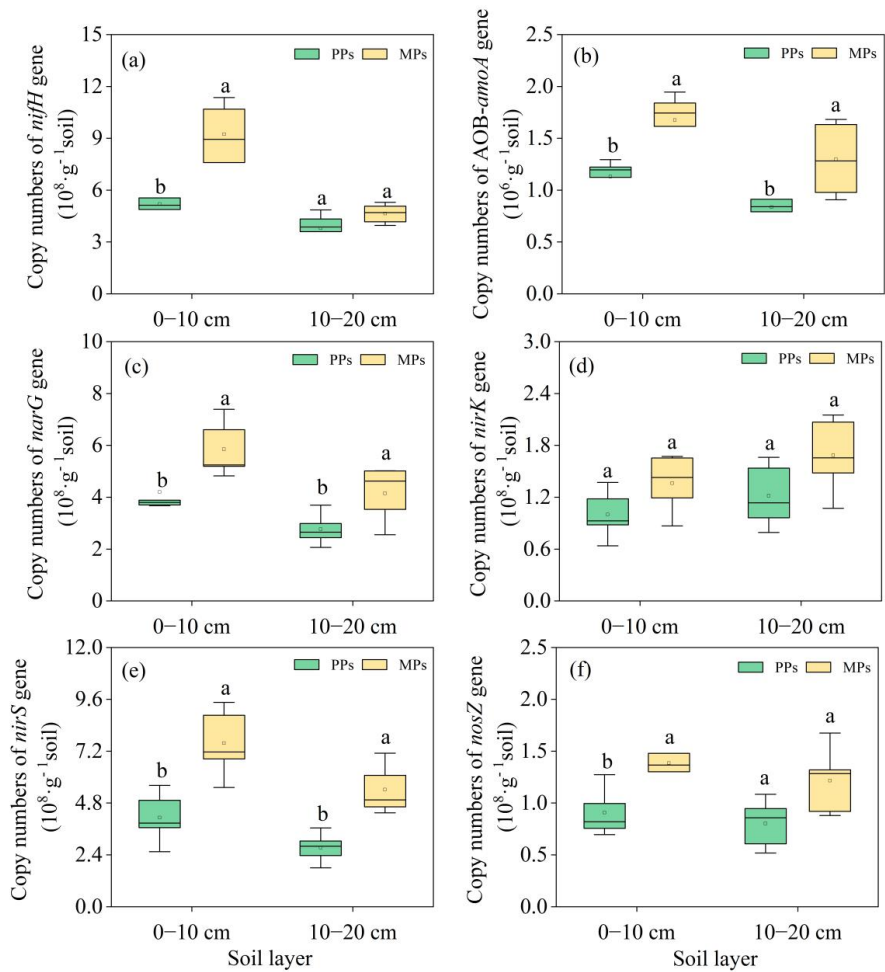
**Fig. 4** Co-occurrence network characteristics of (a) bacterial and (b) fungal communities. The node color node size represent the relative abundance >1% phyla and degree, respectively. The Zi-Pi plot (c-d) predicts keystone OTUs in (c) bacterial and (d) fungal networks.

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

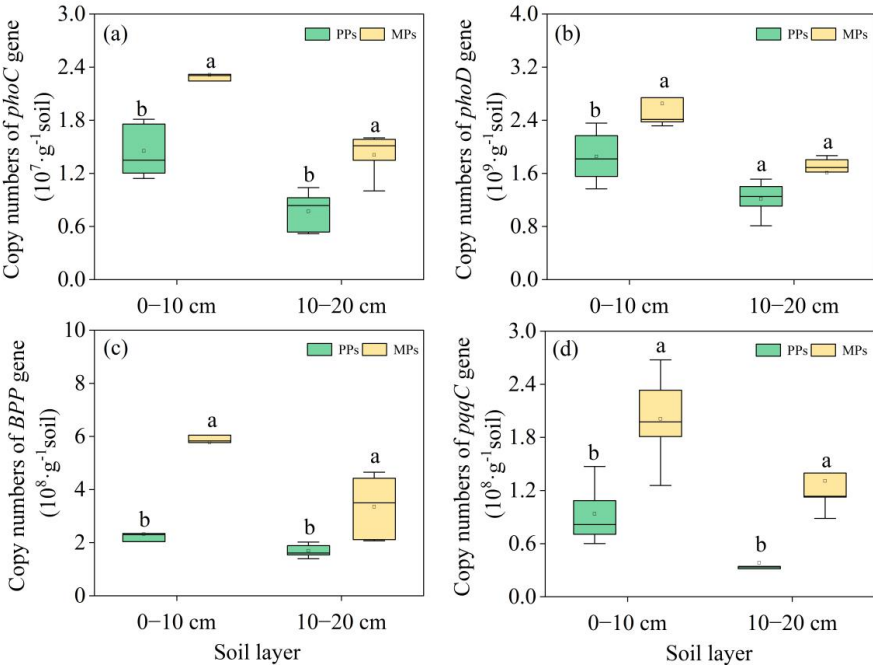
Introducing *Acacia mangium* into the *Eucalyptus urophylla* plantation increased the abundances of functional genes involved in N and P transformation (Figs. 5 and 6). Specifically, the abundances of the N-related functional genes *nifH*, *AOB-amoA*, *narG*, *nirS*, and *nosZ* in the 0–10 cm soil layer and of *AOB-amoA*, *narG*, and *nirS* in the 10–20 cm soil layer were significantly higher in MPs than in PPs ( $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 5a–f).



342 The abundances of the P functional genes *phoC*, *phoD*, *BPP*, and *pqqC* in both  
343 soil layers were significantly higher in MPs than in PPs ( $P < 0.05$ ), with the exception  
344 of *phoD* in the 10–20 soil layer (Fig. 6).

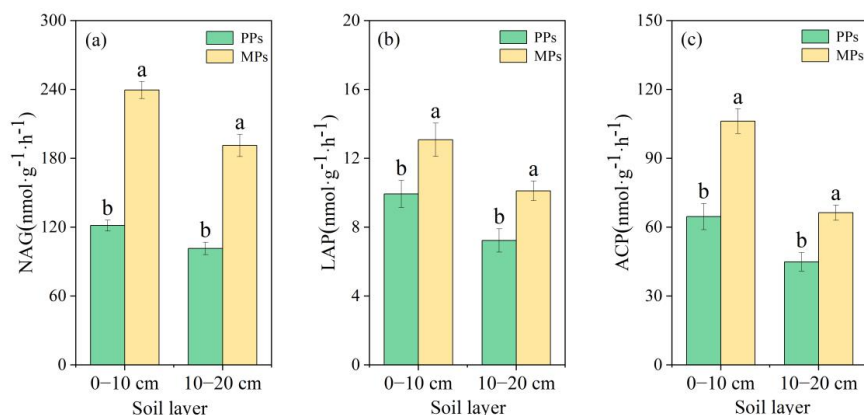


345  
346 **Fig. 5** Comparisons nitrogen cycle functional genes of (a) *nifH*, (b) AOB-*amoA*, (c) *narG*, (d)  
347 *narK*, (e) *nirS*, and (f) *nosZ* in two soil layers in PPs and MPs.



**Fig. 6** Comparisons phosphorus cycle functional genes of (a) *phoC*, (b) *phoD*, (c) *BPP*, and (d) *pqqC* in two layers in PPs and MPs.

The EEA analysis results showed that NAG, LAP, and ACP in the 0–10 cm soil layer were significantly higher in MPs than in PPs ( $P < 0.05$ ), by 97.31%, 31.72%, and 64.35% respectively (Fig. 7). In the 10–20 cm soil layer, NAG, LAP, and ACP were also significantly higher in MPs than in PPs ( $P < 0.05$ ), by 24.02%, 88.54%, 39.83%, and 47.72%, respectively (Fig. 7). The qPCR results showed significantly higher levels of 16S rRNA and ITS in MPs than in PPs ( $P < 0.05$ , Fig. S3).

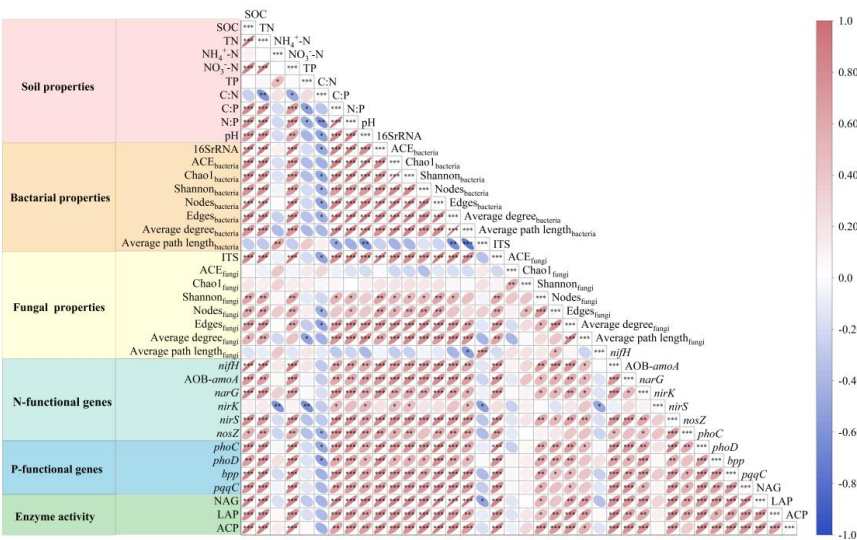


**Fig.7** Comparisons extracellular soil enzyme activity of (a) NAG,  $\beta$ -1,4-N-acetylglucosaminidase;

(b) LAP, Leucine aminopeptidase; and (c) ACP, Acid phosphatase two soil layers in PPs and MPs.

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

The Spearman correlation analysis results (Fig. 8) showed significant positive correlations for NAG, LAP, and ACP with SOC, TN,  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ , 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 degree<sub>bacteria</sub> ( $P < 0.05$ ); for NAG, LAP, and ACP with ITS,  $\text{Shannon}_{\text{fungi}}$ ,  $\text{edges}_{\text{fungi}}$ , and average degree<sub>fungi</sub>; 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 significantly negatively correlated with average path length<sub>bacteria</sub> ( $P < 0.05$ ).



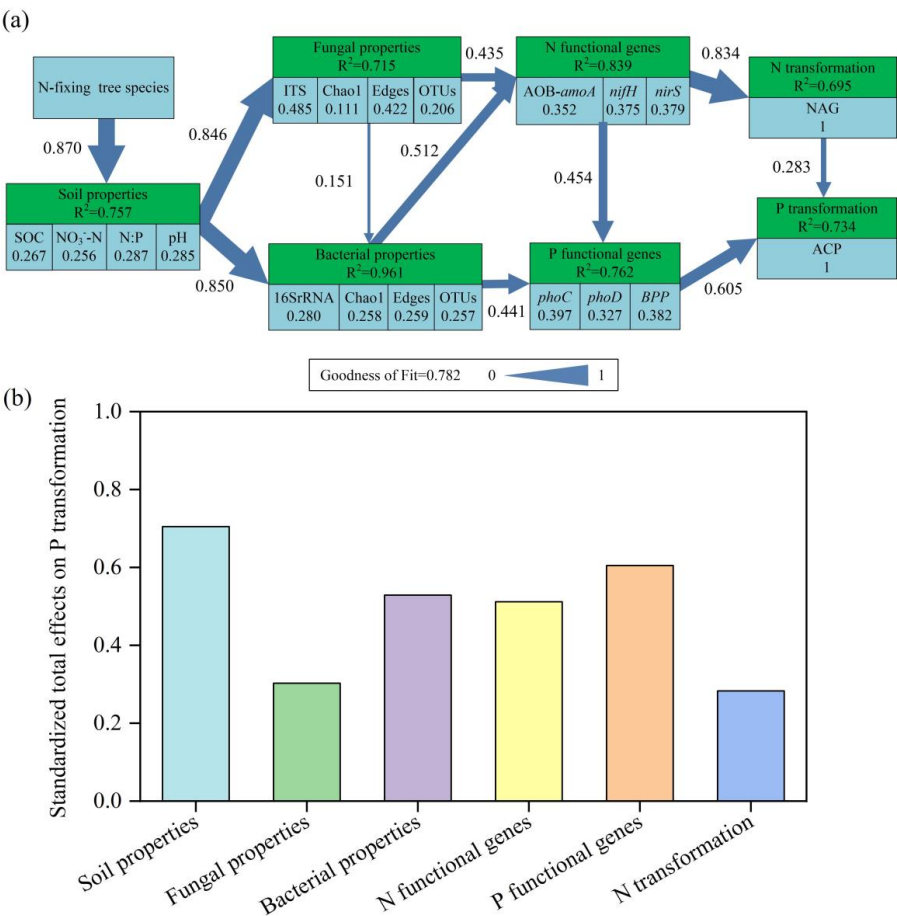
**Fig. 8** Pearson correlations of enzyme activity, soil, bacteria and fungi properties, nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) cycle functional genes.

According to the PLS-PM analysis results (Fig. 9a), soil properties bacterial and fungal properties, N and P functional genes, and N transformation strongly impacted P transformation, together accounting for 78.2% of the variance, with a high goodness of fit. N transformation and P functional genes (*phoC*, *phoD*, and *BPP*) had a strong direct influence on P transformation, with path coefficients of 0.283 and 0.605, respectively ( $P < 0.01$ ). The diversity and complexity of the network also had favorable effects on N and P functional genes, exerting a substantial influence on P transformation. The overall influence of each factor on P transformation in soil followed the order: soil properties > P functional genes > bacterial properties > N functional genes > fungal properties > N transformation (Fig. 9b). Overall, the mixture of *Eucalyptus* with N-fixing tree directly induces alterations in soil properties, which subsequently influence soil microbial characteristics, functional genes involved





in N and P cycling, as well as P transformation, ultimately regulating P transformation.



**Fig. 9** The light blue 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, the same below.





## 394 4. Discussion

### 395 4.1 Soil microbial diversity and network response in a mixed plantation of *Eucalyptus* 396 and *N-fixing tree species*

397 The complexity and diversity of microbial communities in soil are fundamental  
 398 to ecosystem persistence and resilience, as they both reinforce ecological functions  
 399 and offer a robust defense against external disruptions (Guo et al., 2021). Our study  
 400 demonstrated that mixed plantations improved the  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -diversity of soil bacteria  
 401 and fungi (Figs. 1 and S1). These findings align with those of a previous study, which  
 402 demonstrated that the incorporation of *Eucalyptus* with N-fixing tree increased the  
 403 abundance and diversity of microorganisms, while also revealing variability in  
 404 community structure across different stands (Li et al., 2023). In our study, *Eucalyptus*  
 405 mixed with N-fixing *Acacia mangium* resulted in increased SOC, TN, and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N  
 406 content as well as soil C: P and N :P ratios, while decreasing the soil C :N ratio. Soil  
 407 properties are key in influencing the composition of microbial communities, which  
 408 serves as a vital indicator of soil health (Xia et al., 2020). The presence of N-fixing  
 409 trees leads to an increase in litter production, resulting in higher exogenous nutrient  
 410 inputs (Huang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2022), which enhance bacterial and fungal  
 411  $\alpha$ -diversity (Guo et al., 2019). The composition and diversity of soil microbial  
 412 communities are primarily driven by C: N: P ratios (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2017).  
 413 The availability of essential nutrients such as N, P, and Fe is controlled by the soil C  
 414 supply, which subsequently influences the structure of the microbial communities and  
 415 their co-occurrence patterns (Yuste et al., 2011; Qiu et al., 2021).



416 In natural habitats, soil microbial communities form intricate arrays and robustly  
417 structured networks that allow adaptation to shifting environments (de Vries et al.,  
418 2018). The complexity of the topological structure and connectivity between nodes  
419 influence the overall stability of microbial networks and their resilience to  
420 environmental disturbances (Yuan et al., 2021). The overwhelming predominance of  
421 positive over negative correlations indicated microbial adaptation to similar  
422 ecological niches through co-operation (Gao et al., 2022). Networks characterized by  
423 higher connectivity and larger numbers of interrelationships are better equipped to  
424 withstand environmental changes, thereby preserving the functional stability of the  
425 ecosystem (Cornell et al., 2023). Our study showed more complex bacterial and  
426 fungal networks in MPs than in PPs (Fig. 4), demonstrated by the higher number of  
427 nodes and edges and the predominance of positive over negative associations, which  
428 suggested stronger competition between microorganisms in MPs (Ma et al., 2020;  
429 Niraula, 2021). Correlation heat maps also revealed a robust positive association  
430 between the number of nodes and the diversity of fungal and bacterial species  
431 expressing enzymes responsible for N and P transformation (Fig. 8). These results  
432 align with our hypothesis, suggesting that *Eucalyptus* mixed with N-fixing tree  
433 increases the complexity of microbial networks (Guo and Gong, 2024).

434 The relative abundances of *Proteobacteria*, *Verrucomicrobia*, and *Rokubacteria*  
435 in the bacterial community were also higher in MPs than in PPs (particularly in the  
436 0–10 cm soil layer), as were the relative abundances of *Mortierllomycota*,  
437 *Mucoromycota*, and *Rozellomycota* in the fungal community. Several edaphic factors



collectively influenced the structure of both communities, among which pH was the most important. 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). *Verrucomicrobia* is associated with N fixation (Wertz et al., 2012) and serves as an indicator of chemical changes associated with increased soil fertility (Navarrete et al., 2015). 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*. The ability of leguminous plant species to establish symbiotic associations with root nodule bacteria, commonly referred to as rhizobia, is well established (e.g., Stougaard, 2000; Yang et al., 2022). Rhizobia are gram-negative bacteria within the extensive and significant phylum *Proteobacteria*. *Proteobacteria* and *Actinobacteria* include N-fixing for plants (Sprent and Platzmann, 2001) and both are critical contributors to maintaining the complexity and stability of microbial networks (Fu et al., 2022). Among fungi, *Ascomycota* is the dominant phylum in soil worldwide (Egidi et al., 2019). However, in the present study, although the relative abundance of Ascomycetes showed dominance in both PP and MP, its relative abundance diminished in MP. Although keystone taxa may not always be abundant, they play a vital role in shaping microbial communities and maintaining their ecological functions, through specific regulatory pathways that affect community structure and function (Banerjee et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2022). For example, a prior study demonstrated that keystone taxa



460 played a critical role in increasing the complexity of microbial networks, enhancing  
461 plant health and biomass, and promoting the hydrolysis of organophosphorus  
462 compounds through enzymatic activity (Qiao et al., 2024; Zeng et al., 2024).

463 *4.2 Association of microbial diversity and networks with P transformation and key*  
464 *environmental drivers*

465 P is crucial for maintaining plant health and ecological balance in terrestrial  
466 ecosystems (Du et al., 2020). Soil microorganisms possess numerous different genes  
467 involved in N and P transformation, which enable them to regulate N and P cycling by  
468 synthesizing and secreting extracellular enzymes (Dai et al., 2020). Our study showed  
469 that the abundance of functional genes related to N and P cycles significantly  
470 increases after intercropping with N-fixing trees, which supports our second  
471 hypothesis (Fig. 5 and 6). In contrast to this finding, Qin et al. (2024) reported that  
472 although planting N-fixing tree with *Eucalyptus* enhanced the complexity and stability  
473 of N and P functional gene networks, it reduced the abundances of these genes. This  
474 discrepancy can be explained by shifts in soil microbial communities related to N and  
475 P cycles, which consequently affect the microbial functions that respond to  
476 environmental changes (Graham et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2021a). A previous study  
477 also found that the microbial community associated with a mixed plantation of  
478 *Eurograndis* and *Amangium* differed from that associated with monocultures of either  
479 species, attributable to positive effects of the mixture on soil P and nitrate levels,  
480 which enhanced the abundances of N and P functional genes (Rachid et al., 2013).

481 Biological N fixation is a fundamental ecosystem process that involves the



482 conversion of atmospheric N into a form usable by plants, which, facilitated by a  
483 highly diverse group of microorganisms, significantly enhances soil fertility and  
484 promoting plant growth (Burns and Hardy, 2012; Soumare et al., 2020). All N-fixing  
485 microorganisms carry functional *nifH* genes that encode a component of nitrogenase  
486 and act as markers of the abundance and diversity of N-fixing microorganisms across  
487 various environmental contexts (Wang et al., 2018). Furthermore, our results  
488 suggested high abundances of the P functional genes *phoC*, *BPP*, and *ppqC* in both  
489 soil layers and significantly higher abundance of *phoD* in the 0–10 cm soil layer in  
490 MPs than in PPs. Both *phoC* and *phoD* are functional genes that encode phosphatase  
491 activity needed for P solubilization and mineralization and are thus critically involved  
492 in promoting soil P availability (Tian et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2022). The P cycling  
493 gene *ppqC*, which encodes the P-mobilizing enzyme pyrroloquinoline quinone  
494 synthase, is a marker of phosphate-mobilizing bacteria (Meyer et al., 2011). The  
495 predominant bacteria containing *phoD* and *ppqC* are primarily members of the  
496 *Proteobacteria* and *Actinobacteria* (Tan et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2018), whose  
497 community structure was shown to remain unchanged with an increase in soil P pools  
498 (Ragot et al., 2015). In line with our results, a higher abundance and diversity of  
499 *phoD*-, *phoC*-, and *ppqC*-bearing soil microorganisms; higher abundances of these  
500 genes in soil were correlated with higher soil SOC and TN contents (Luo et al., 2019;  
501 Cao et al., 2022). Our study also identified significantly positive correlations between  
502 most N and P functional genes and 16S rRNA as well as the ACE, Chao1, and  
503 Shannon indexes in bacterial communities, whereas a significant positive correlation



504 was determined only between the ITS region and the Shannon index in fungal  
 505 communities (Fig. 8). This variation can be attributed to the significant positive  
 506 impact that high levels of available nutrients have on the development of bacterial  
 507 communities in the soil (Ming et al., 2016).

508       The significant positive correlations detected for the N enzymes NAG and  
 509 LAP with *nifH*, AOB-*amoA*, and the denitrification genes *narG*, *nirS*, and *nosZ*  
 510 determined in our study suggest that, after the introduction of N-fixing *Acacia*, the  
 511 microbial community facilitated soil N transformation by increasing the abundance of  
 512 N cycling genes. Both correlation heat maps and PLS-PM analyses indicated that P  
 513 transformation reflected the interaction of biological and non-biological factors in  
 514 ecological processes influenced by the introduction of N-fixing tree (Figs. 8 and 9).  
 515 Complex interactions between bacteria, fungi, and P cycle genes have been shown to  
 516 promote microbial community stability while facilitating P cycle transformation  
 517 processes (Pereira et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2024). *Eucalyptus* mixed with N-fixing tree  
 518 also increased soil TN and the  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N content, which increased ACP activity and  
 519 thus soil organic P mineralization. The higher soil pH in MPs than in PPs was likely  
 520 driven by exchange interactions involving Fe/Al hydroxide minerals and functional  
 521 groups (Table 1), which enhanced the conversion of potentially labile inorganic P into  
 522 plant-available P via competitive adsorption (Hinsinger, 2001; Kang et al., 2021).

523       Together, these results indicate that forest management practices that  
 524 *Eucalyptus* mixed with N-fixing tree will improve soil physicochemical properties,  
 525 microbial community diversity, and correlations between microbial N and P cycling



526 genes, thereby promoting soil P transformation.

## 527 **5. Conclusions**

528 This study suggests the benefits of incorporating mixed N-fixing tree species  
529 with Eucalyptus, specifically highlighting their positive effects on P transformation.  
530 The presence of *Acacia* was shown to alter soil physicochemical properties, improved  
531 soil bacterial and fungal community diversity, network complexity, and the abundance  
532 of N and P cycling functional genes, ultimately driving P transformation. Increases in  
533 soil nutrient content, particularly SOC, TN, and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N, as well as the increase in pH  
534 that occurred in MPs influenced soil microbial diversity. PLS-PM analysis revealed  
535 that mixed plantations have significantly enhanced correlations between P  
536 transformation and microbial functional genes that mediate N and P cycling. Our  
537 findings offer fresh insights into the predictive capacity of potential shifts in the  
538 belowground microbial communities for soil functionality within mixed plantation  
539 ecosystems involving N-fixing tree and *Eucalyptus*.

540



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863     **Data availability**

864             The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the  
865     corresponding author, [Xueman Huang], upon reasonable request.

866



867    **Author contributions**

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

874



875      **Declaration of Interest Statement**

876          The authors declared that they have no conflicts of interest to this work. We  
877      declare that we do not have any commercial or associative interest that represents a  
878      conflict of interest in connection with the work submitted.  
879