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15   **Abstract.** The stoichiometry of the rhizosphere, particularly concerning carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and  
16   phosphorus (P), reflects the balance between nutrient mineralization and retention during organic  
17   matter decomposition. However, the magnitude and underlying mechanisms of rhizospheric influences  
18   on soil and microbial stoichiometry remain insufficiently quantified at the global scale across diverse  
19   agroecosystems. This study synthesizes data from 113 peer-reviewed sources, encompassing 882  
20   individual observations. The results reveal that the rhizosphere significantly increases soil C:N, C:P,  
21   and N:P ratios, while concurrently decreasing microbial C:N, C:P, and N:P ratios relative to bulk soil  
22   conditions. Notably, the rhizospheric effects on soil C:N ratios is amplified in humid regions and  
23   diminished in arid environments. In contrast the influence on microbial C:N exhibits a positive  
24   correlation with increasing soil organic C and ammonium N concentrations. Moreover, sensitive crops  
25   such as maize and vegetables enhance the rhizospheric soil C:N ratio by 5.68% and 8.91% respectively,  
26   while reducing the microbial C:N ratio by 11.00% and 19.44%. Soil organic C and ammonium N  
27   emerge as key determinants of rhizospheric soil and microbial C:N ratios, contributing 37.9% and 30.3%  
28   to their variations, respectively. The study establishes a coupled relationship between rhizospheric soil  
29   and microbial stoichiometry. These findings offer critical insights into rhizospheric nutrient cycling,  
30   which are essentials for improving soil health and optimizing nutrient use efficiency through targeted  
31   management practices.

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## 33 **1 Introduction**

34 Agroecosystems constitute approximately 40% of all terrestrial ecosystems on Earth, making them a  
35 critical infrastructure that significantly influence the planet's health and sustainability (Dubey et al.,  
36 2022). As key determinants of agricultural productivity, soil nutrients play a pivotal role in regulating  
37 microbial community compositions and enhancing crop yields (Cai et al., 2019). The rhizosphere soil, a  
38 distinct micro domain influenced by root activity, differs physically, chemically, and biologically  
39 from bulk soil (Berendsen et al., 2012). The nutrient status of the rhizosphere, including carbon (C),  
40 nitrogen (N), and phosphorus (P), is critical in regulating root exudates, soil material cycling, energy  
41 flow, and signal transmission, thereby profoundly impacting plant growth and development (Gan et al.,  
42 2021). Compared to bulk soil, the dynamic environment of the rhizosphere significantly affects nutrient  
43 availability and microbial interactions, which are critical for plant health and productivity. In  
44 agroecosystems, rhizospheric nutrient dynamics are particularly sensitive to rapid crop growth and  
45 anthropogenic disturbances, rendering them more sensitive than in natural terrestrial ecosystems. Therefore, a systematic  
46 understanding of rhizospheric nutrient behavior is essential for maintaining agroecosystem health and  
47 promoting sustainable agricultural practices globally. This knowledge is vital for developing strategies  
48 that enhance soil fertility, optimize nutrient use efficiency, and support sustainable crop production.

49 Ecological stoichiometry, a discipline focused on the balance and interactions of key elements in  
50 ecosystems, has provided valuable insights into individual growth population dynamics, limiting  
51 factors, community succession, and vegetation stability (Güsewell, 2004). understanding individual  
52 growth (Güsewell, 2004). Soil C:N:P ratios vary significantly due to differences in vegetation type and  
53 soil organic matter content (Luo et al., 2020). Microbial communities respond to stoichiometric  
54 changes in four primary ways: First, adjusting biomass composition to match available resources,  
55 though these changes are generally modest and driven more by shifts in microbial community structure  
56 than by cellular storage. Second, mobilizing resources via enzyme production, which is often limited  
57 by C and N availability (Ashraf et al., 2021). Third, regulating element use efficiency allow for the  
58 release of excess nutrients. Fourthly, utilizing diazotrophic bacteria and saprotrophic fungi to acquiring  
59 exogenous N and P (Mooshammer et al., 2014). Globally, current knowledge on soil and microbial  
60 biomass stoichiometry is primarily focused on bulk soil (Luo et al., 2020). However, rhizospheric  
61 nutrients and microbial communities are more susceptible to environmental fluctuations than those in  
62 bulk soil. Thus, a comprehensive understanding of rhizospheric characteristics and their interactive



63 stoichiometric interactions is crucial for improving agroecosystem productivity and management. This  
64 insight is critical for developing strategies that enhance soil fertility, optimize nutrient use efficiency,  
65 and support sustainable agricultural practices worldwide.

66 Environmental factors, nutrient inputs, and agricultural practices significantly influence the  
67 stoichiometry of rhizospheric soil and microbial biomass (Luo et al., 2020; Yue et al., 2017). Studies  
68 have shown that soil C:nutrient (N and P) ratios decline in arid regions, while soil P ratio tend to be  
69 lower in wetter environments (Feng et al., 2019). This reduction in arid conditions is attributed to  
70 increased carbon use efficiency and a greater proportion of C being converted into microbial biomass  
71 under carbon limited conditions. Agroecosystem management strategies affect the rhizospheric  
72 stoichiometry by influencing microbial biomass, enzyme activities, and nutrient availability (Lasota et  
73 al., 2021). The stoichiometric ratios of C:N and C:P in soil, as well as their microbial counterparts, vary  
74 significantly across habitats (Khan et al., 2016; Qi et al., 2022). These variations are primarily  
75 influenced microbial nutrient demand and availability, which are affected by factors such as soil pH,  
76 salinity, clay content, and organic matter uptake (Khan et al., 2016; Lian et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2018).  
77 High C availability, especially when coupled with limited P, leads to increased microbial biomass and  
78 elevated microbial C:N ratios (Du et al., 2022; Hou et al., 2018). Strongly acidic, nutrient-poor soils  
79 with high C: N and C:P ratios are also associated with elevated microbial C:N ratios (Khan et al., 2016).  
80 However, comprehensive data on how environmental variables influence rhizospheric soil and  
81 microbial stoichiometry in agroecosystems remains limited. Addressing this knowledge gap is essential  
82 for developing strategies to optimize nutrient efficiency and enhance soil health in diverse agricultural  
83 contexts.

84 Although previous studies have extensively examined the C:N:P stoichiometry in soils, plants, and  
85 microbes across natural and managed ecosystems, agricultural rhizospheric soils are often  
86 underrepresented. To fill this gap, we compiled a comprehensive dataset comprising 882 unique cases  
87 from 113 peer-reviewed sources across global agroecosystems. The objectives of this study were to: (1)  
88 quantify the characteristics and coupling relationships of rhizospheric soil and microbial biomass  
89 stoichiometry across global agroecosystems; and (2) identify the environmental factors influencing  
90 rhizospheric soil and microbial biomass stoichiometry.

## 91 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 92 **2.1 Database collection and assembly**



To evaluate the ecological stoichiometry of rhizospheres across diverse plant species, a high-resolution approach was employed to correlate plant community composition with below-ground microbial and nutrient properties. This methodology facilitated the development of stoichiometric models that investigate the effects of climatic and agricultural variables on the rhizospheric stoichiometry of carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and phosphorus (P) in both bulk and rhizospheric soils (Bell et al., 2014; Cui et al., 2018). The dataset for this study was compiled from three major databases: Google Scholar, Web of Science, and China Knowledge Resources Comprehensive Database. The search utilized a combination of keywords, including "stoichiometry", "rhizosphere", "soil properties", "soil organic carbon", "soil microbial biomass", and "cropland, farmland, or agriculture". Specific inclusion criteria were applied to ensure the retrieval of relevant literature and compilation of a standardized dataset. To elucidate the effects of the rhizosphere on soil and microbial biomass stoichiometry of C, N, and P the following criteria and data acquisition processes were rigorously followed (1) The study must have been conducted within an agricultural ecosystem; (2) The literature must include paired data (rhizosphere, non-rhizosphere, or bulk soil), where the treatment and control groups represent rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere (bulk soil), respectively; (3) Each experiment must have included at least three plots as replicates; (4) The paired data must report at least two elements among C, N, and P for both soil and microorganisms. Experimental data reported in tables and text was directly recorded into the dataset. Data presented in figures were digitized using GetData Graph Digitizer 2.24 to ensure accuracy.

A comprehensive dataset was compiled, comprising 822 individual cases derived from 113 relevant literature sources published up to September 2022. A detailed flow diagram outlining the selection process for the target literature is provided in supplementary figure S2. Soil biogeochemical variables were recorded to analyze the spatial distribution characteristics of rhizospheric effects on C, N, and P stoichiometry across various climate conditions, including mean annual temperature [MAT], mean annual precipitation [MAP], aridity index [AI], and crop types. Additionally, soil attributes were incorporated into the database to explore variations in rhizospheric effects on C, N, and P stoichiometry. Key indicators included soil pH, nitrate-N ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N), ammonium-N ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N), and available phosphorous (AP).

## 2.2 Data preparation

For the 882 individual cases, 75% of the latitude and longitude data were directly recorded from the targeted literature, while the missing 25% were obtained using Google Maps. Climatic variables,



including mean annual temperature (MAT), mean annual precipitation (MAP), and aridity index (AI), were extracted from the targeted literature for 76% of the cases, and with the remaining 24% sourced from WorldClim (<https://worldclim.org/>), respectively. The experimental sites covered a wide range of latitudes, from  $-7.14^{\circ}$  to  $60.46^{\circ}$  and longitudes from  $-113.99^{\circ}$  to  $126.58^{\circ}$ . The climatic variables, specifically MAT, MAP, and AI varied from  $-3.48^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $26.97^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 32 mm to 1926 mm, and 0.02 to 1.54, respectively. Soil texture components including sand, silt, and clay varied between 7.51 to 60.50%, 12.10 to 92.00%, and 7.72 to 69.50%, respectively. Detailed site data for the selected climate conditions and soil textures are provided in supplementary table S1. For studies reporting soil organic matter, soil organic C (SOC) concentrations were calculated using the equation:  $\text{SOC} = \text{soil organic matter}/1.724$ .

To comprehensively analyze the spatial heterogeneity of rhizospheric effects on C, N, and P stoichiometry, two classification techniques were applied based on the geographic location of the experimental sites (Xu et al., 2021). First, the experimental sites were categorized into four climatic regions according to absolute latitude: tropical zone with  $0-23.5^{\circ}$ , subtropical zone with  $23.5-35.0^{\circ}$ , temperate zone with  $35.0-50.0^{\circ}$ , and (sub)arctic zone with  $>50.0^{\circ}$ . Second, the experimental sites were grouped into four categories based on AI levels:  $\leq 0.20$ ,  $0.20-0.65$ ,  $0.65-1.0$ ,  $>1.0$ , corresponding arid, semi-arid, sub-humid, and humid, respectively. The crop types were classified into six main groups: wheat, maize, rice, soybean, vegetables (e.g., green vegetables, celery, tomatoes, radishes, cucumbers, and lettuce), and others (e.g., cotton, rape, potato, pasture, etc.). The SOC concentrations ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ) in bulk soil were categorized into three levels ( $0-8.0$ ,  $8.0-16.0$ , and  $>16.0$ ). Bulk soil pH was divided into four categories i.e.  $\leq 5.5$ ,  $5.5 < \text{pH} \leq 6.5$ ,  $6.5 < \text{pH} \leq 7.5$ , and  $7.5 < \text{pH}$ . The soil ammonium nitrogen concentrations ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ ) were also divided into four categories  $\text{NH}_4^{+}\text{-N} \leq 1.0$ ,  $1.0 < \text{NH}_4^{+}\text{-N} \leq 5$ ,  $5 < \text{NH}_4^{+}\text{-N} \leq 10$ , and  $10 < \text{NH}_4^{+}\text{-N}$ .

### 2.3 Statistical analysis

The "metafor" package in R, incorporating mixed effects models, was used to quantify the rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial stoichiometry (Cai et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2021). Funnel plots (S3) were employed to assess publication bias, revealing no significant bias ( $P > 0.05$ ). To examine the influence of environmental variables on disparities between rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial stoichiometry, certain factors were initially excluded based on Pearson's correlation and stepwise regression analyses to avoid multicollinearity (S4 and 5). Linear regression was employed to assess the



relationship between rhizospheric effects on the soil C:N, C:P, and N:P ratios (S6). However the sample sizes for rhizospheric effects on microbial C:P and N:P were limited (57 and 29) samples, respectively. Consequently, we focused on analyzing the drivers and attributes of rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial C:N ratio. Boosted regression tree (BRT) analyses was performed to quantify the relative influence (%) of environmental variables on rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial C:N ratios, accounting for nonlinear relationships (Cai et al., 2019; Elith et al., 2008). Prior to BRT analyses, highly correlated factors were excluded using Pearson's correlation to minimize multicollinearity. The BRT models were implemented with the following optimized parameters: learning rate (0.01), bag fraction (0.50), cross-validation (10), and a tree complexity (5). The BRT predicted rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial C:N ratios were compared with observed values. The coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) was used to evaluate the predictive power of the selected factors. All BRT models were executed using the **GBM** package and the methodology outlined by Elith et al. (2008) in **R version 4.1.5**.

### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Overall rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial stoichiometry

The median values of soil C:N (10.50), C:P (15.42), and N:P (1.46) ratios in the rhizosphere were higher than those in bulk soil (10.10, 12.92, and 1.36 respectively) (Fig. 1). In contrast, the median values of microbial C:N, C:P, and N:P ratios in the rhizosphere were lower, at 7.99, 13.52, and 2.42, respectively. As a result, rhizospheric effects led to significant increases in soil C:N, C:P, and N:P ratios by 5.13%, 6.48%, and 4.01%, respectively, while significantly decreasing microbial C:N, C:P, and N:P ratios by 1.94%, 11.53%, and 10.01%, respectively (Fig. 2).

#### 3.2 Rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial C:N ratios under various climatic variables

Across different climate zones, rhizospheric effects on soil C:N ratios increased significantly by 9.49% in tropical zones, 5.76% in subtropical zones, and 3.39% in temperate zones, (Fig. 3a). Conversely, microbial C:N ratios declined markedly by 20.19% in the tropical zone with no significant changes observed in the other climate zones (Fig. 3b). Under varying aridity levels, rhizospheric effects on soil C:N ratios increased by 3.27% in semi-arid and 7.36% in humid environments, respectively. In contrast, microbial C:N ratios significantly decreased by 21.47% under arid conditions, with no significant changes observed in other aridity levels.

#### 3.3 Rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial C:N ratios under various soil properties and crop types



183 Regarding soil properties, rhizospheric effects on soil C:N ratios increased significantly by 6.5% and  
184 11.86% at soil pH of  $\leq 5.5$  and 5.5-6.5, respectively (Fig. 4a). These effects decrease exponentially  
185 with increasing SOC, ranging from 3.39% to 8.39%. Conversely, rhizospheric effects on microbial C:N  
186 ratios increased linearly with rising SOC and soil  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  concentrations (Fig. 4b). Microbial C:N ratios  
187 decreased significantly by 9.41% and 7.29% when  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  was  $\leq 1$  and SOC was  $\leq 16$  respectively  
188 (Fig. 5). Different crop types (e.g., rice, maize, vegetables, and other crops) enhanced rhizospheric  
189 effects on soil C:N ratios by 3.79%, 5.68%, 8.91%, and 8.07%, respectively (Fig. 5a). In contrast, the  
190 rhizosphere significantly reduced microbial C:N ratio by 19.44% and 11.00% for vegetables and maize,  
191 respectively (Fig. 5b).

#### 192 **3.4 Mechanisms of rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial stoichiometry**

193 According to the boosted regression tree model, the selected environmental variables explained 83%  
194 and 75% of the variation in rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial C:N ratios, respectively, (Fig. 6).  
195 Among these SOC (37.9%) and soil pH (20.7%) were the most influential for soil C:N ratios (Fig. 6a),  
196 while soil  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  (30.3%) and SOC (19.5%) were the most influential factors microbial C:N ratio (Fig.  
197 6b). Additionally crop type and aridity index emerged as secondary factors in influencing rhizospheric  
198 effects on both soil and microbial C:N ratios.

199 A network of inter-correlations was observed among rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial  
200 stoichiometry (Figs. 7 and S5). Rhizospheric effects on soil C:N ratios were positively correlated with  
201 those on soil C:P ratios, and negatively correlated with those on soil N:P ratios. Similarly, rhizospheric  
202 effects on soil C:P and N:P ratios were positively correlated microbial N:P ratios were positively  
203 correlated with microbial C:P ratios and negatively correlated with microbial C:N ratios. The SOC  
204 showed a significant positive correlation with rhizospheric effects on soil C:N and C:P ratios and a  
205 negative correlation with soil  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ . In turn, soil  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  was positively correlated with rhizospheric  
206 effects on microbial N:P ratios and negatively correlated with microbial C:N ratios.

#### 207 **4 Discussions**

208 Positive rhizospheric effects on soil C:N, C:P, and N:P ratios were consistently observed across all  
209 samples (Fig. 1 and 2). This effects may be attributed to C inputs from root exudates and decaying  
210 roots through rhizodeposition, which typically exhibit relatively high C:N ratios (Fontaine et al., 2011).  
211 Rhizodeposition promotes soil macro-aggregate, formation, a critical process for soil organic carbon  
212 sequestration and decomposition (Li et al., 2020). It also contributes additional N for microbial growth,





213 supporting microbial biomass formation, while exerting a limited impact on soil TN. Root exudates  
214 (e.g., amino acids, phytosiderophores, or inorganic ions) can induce P mineralization in the  
215 rhizosphere, thereby enhancing P uptake by crops (Dotaniya and Meena, 2014). These findings  
216 suggest that rhizospheric effects facilitate SOC turnover and create a favorable microenvironment rich  
217 in essential nutrients for crop development (Kuzakov and Razavi, 2019). However, limited data on  
218 root exudates in our database constrained further analysis of their specific impact on soil and microbial  
219 stoichiometry. Thus, further research is necessary to elucidate the roles of root exudates in modulating  
220 rhizospheric responses related to soil and microbial stoichiometry.

221 Interestingly, negative rhizospheric effects on microbial stoichiometry were observed (Fig. 1 and 2),  
222 indicating lower microbial C:N:P ratios in the rhizosphere compared to bulk soils. These reductions  
223 likely stem from altered nutrient availability and enriched living environment in the rhizosphere. In  
224 agroecosystems, the application of readily available inorganic nutrients can disrupt natural nutrient  
225 cycles leading to significant shifts in microbial C:N:P ratios, especially in nutrient-poor soils (Griffiths  
226 et al., 2012). These changes are potentially due to shifts in microbial community composition (Heuck et  
227 al., 2015). Previous research suggests that under nutrient-limited conditions, microbial communities  
228 may transition from r-strategists to k-strategists, capable of decomposing more stable organic matter to  
229 access organic N or P thereby increasing mineralization of soil organic matter (Chen et al., 2014; Zhu  
230 et al., 2018). Furthermore, microbial cells formation requires P-rich phospholipids, contributing to a  
231 substantial phosphorus demand. Overall, these findings highlight the variability in rhizospheric  
232 influences on soil and microbial stoichiometry in agroecosystems, with the magnitude of these effects  
233 being shaped by climate, crop type, and soil characteristics.

234 The rhizospheric effects on soil C:N ratios were 9.49% in tropical, 5.76% in subtropical, and 3.39%  
235 in temperate, respectively. However, microbial C:N ratios were significantly affected only in the  
236 tropical zones (20.19%) and showed no marked changes in other climatic regions (Fig. 3). These  
237 differences may be attributed to variations in crop residue decomposition rates, anthropogenic  
238 influences, temperature, and moisture availability (Wang et al., 2014). Typically, temperate soils are  
239 N-limited, while tropical soils are primarily P-limited due intense weathering, older soil profiles, and  
240 the abundance of Fe and Al oxides (Du et al., 2022; Soong et al., 2018). Three mechanisms may  
241 explain the increased soil C:N ratios under varying climatic conditions. First, plant litter may stimulate  
242 microbial respiration, thereby increasing microbial C and N contents (Soong et al., 2018). Second, the



243 application of organic and inorganic nutrients provides C and energy for microbial growth, population,  
244 and activities. Third, microbial community composition may shift under nutrient constraints, such as  
245 alterations in fungal:bacterial ratios or microbial diversity in general (Zhu et al., 2018). In semi-arid  
246 and humid environments, rhizospheric effects on soil C:N ratios increased by 3.27% and 7.36%,  
247 respectively (Fig. 3b). This could be related to the high organic material content and compaction (high  
248 bulk density) in the studied soils (Wang et al., 2014). With increasing aridity and warming, soil C:P  
249 and N:P ratios tend to decrease, while soil C:N ratios rise, reflecting projected precipitation declines  
250 and warming trends in semi-arid regions (Jiao et al., 2016). Soil C accumulation may result from two  
251 mechanisms (Yu et al., 2018). First, climate change has boosted net primary productivity in  
252 terrestrial ecosystems (Yu et al., 2018). Second, nitrogen deposition increases soil acidity, decelerates  
253 litter decomposition, and reduces soil respiration, all of which promote SOC buildup (Yu et al., 2018).  
254 Meanwhile, under arid conditions, the microbial C:N ratio in the rhizospheric decreased by 21.47%  
255 relative to bulk soils (Fig. 3b), potentially due to lower total organic matter and nutrient availability.  
256 Collectively, these findings highlight the pivotal role of climate in regulating rhizospheric impacts on  
257 soil and microbial stoichiometry, with microbial C:N ratios being more sensitive than their soil  
258 counterparts.

259 The responses of nutrient stoichiometry to rhizospheric influences varied significantly with crop type  
260 (Fig. 4). Vegetables and maize increased rhizospheric effects on soil C:N ratios by 8.91% and 5.68%,  
261 respectively (Fig. 4a). Generally, vegetables and maize typically exhibit high nitrogen demand during  
262 growth, which may reduce the contribution of external nitrogen sources to total soil nitrogen (Tei et al.,  
263 2020). Conversely, leguminous crops fix atmospheric nitrogen via root nodules, resulting in lower  
264 nitrogen during early growth stages (Fig. 4a). It has been suggested that N<sub>2</sub>O emissions could be  
265 reduced by approximately 60% with current emissions attributed to maize (33%) and vegetable  
266 production (27%) (Cui et al., 2022). Compared to bulk soils, C<sub>4</sub> crops (maize and partial vegetables)  
267 lead to relatively lower soil N concentrations in the rhizosphere (Bell et al., 2014). Interestingly, the  
268 microbial C:N ratio in the rhizosphere significantly decreased for vegetables and maize (Figs. 2b, 3b).  
269 This may be due to microbial decomposition of SOC into labile substrates such as mineralized glucose  
270 (Siles et al., 2022). Crop residue inputs from these systems enhance SOC levels through microbial  
271 stoichiometric plasticity mechanisms (Liu et al., 2014); enriching soil C pools by modifying microbial  
272 stoichiometry in C-limited conditions. Elevated C:N ratios suggest that soil organic matter tends to



273 accumulate more rapidly than it decomposes (Chen et al., 2018). Reduced microbial C:N and C:P ratios  
274 promote nutrients release by microbes, increasing bioavailable N and P. In contrast, higher microbial  
275 C:N and C:P ratios may lead to microbial competition for nutrients, enhancing N and P immobilization  
276 in the soil (Chen et al., 2014).

277 The SOC and pH were the most influential factors affecting rhizospheric soil C:N ratios (Fig. 6a),  
278 likely due to their direct effects on microbial function and organic matter retention by the soil matrix  
279 (McMillan et al., 2016). Increased acidity can alter SOC quality and composition (Kemmitt et al.,  
280 2006). Improved SOC retention at low pH levels may result from decreased microbial biomass and  
281 activity, higher organic matter stabilization, and complication with polyphenols and aluminum  
282 (Kemmitt et al., 2006; McMillan et al., 2016). The decomposition of organic residues also increases  
283 soil pH through the breakdown of alkaline anions and nitrate uptake by microbes, releasing hydroxyl  
284 ions (Bertrand et al., 2007). These findings suggest that acidic rhizospheric soils support higher SOC  
285 accumulation and elevated C:N ratio. Furthermore,  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  and SOC were key drivers of microbial  
286 C:N ratio in the rhizosphere (Fig. 6b). Microbial activity regulated by SOC availability can affect  
287 carbon accumulation (Angst et al., 2018; Sistla and Schimel, 2012). According to the stoichiometric  
288 decomposition theory, microbial decomposition and nutrient release are governed by the elemental  
289 balance between microbial biomass and organic matter. However, under nutrient-limited conditions,  
290 microbial processes are constrained, which in turn limits SOC breakdown (Sistla and Schimel, 2012;  
291 Zhu et al., 2018). Root nitrogen uptake can further alter rhizospheric pH and stimulate root exudation,  
292 influencing microbial community composition and function. Stronger rhizospheric effects on microbes  
293 are observed in soils with low N availability (Phillips and Fahey, 2008). Thus, soil management  
294 strategies, such as the application of ammonium fertilizers, may be employed to enhance microbial C:N  
295 ratios. Moreover, the inverse relationship between N mineralization and microbial C:N ratio suggests  
296 that microbial immobilization of mineral N contributes to its depletion (Dai et al., 2020). The negative  
297 correlation between C and microbial C:P ratio may be due to a larger cumulative priming effect and  
298 microbial P limitation. Microbes increase phosphorus uptake to maintain internal stoichiometric  
299 balance (Wei et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2019). The soil C:N ratio was positively correlated with C:P ratios,  
300 and negatively correlated with N:P ratios (Fig. 8). The observed link between microbial and soil C:N:P  
301 ratio implies non-homeostasis elemental stoichiometry in microbial biomass (Li et al., 2012), indicating  
302 that these ratios influence C stabilization in surface soils (Angst et al., 2018). The addition of fresh



organic amendments like manure can strongly impact SOC and N mineralization, as well as induce variable priming effect, either positive or negative (Zhu et al., 2018). Aridity also plays a critical role in modulating soil C:N:P ratio, potentially disrupting biogeochemical cycling. With increased aridity and altered soil textures C, N, and P cycles become more sensitive to climate change due to shifts in particle size and the decoupling of soil C, N and P ratios (Jiao et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2020). High soil C content elevates the C:N ratio, while it markedly reducing the N, P, and N:P ratio. The significant negative correlation between C:N and C:P ratios, and OC content, indicates that that mineral-rich soils with lower organic matter are often enriched in P. These results contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of soil property-mediated regulation of rhizospheric C, N, and P cycling in agroecosystems.

## 5 Conclusions

Our global synthesis confirmed that the rhizosphere significantly increases soil stoichiometry while decreasing microbial stoichiometry compared to bulk soil in agricultural ecosystems worldwide. Notably, rhizospheric effects on the soil C:N ratio were more pronounced in humid regions, whereas effects on microbial C:N ratios were more strongly reduced in arid regions than in other climatic zones. Greater rhizospheric effects on soil C:N ratios and lower effects on microbial C:N ratios were observed in vegetables and maize cropping systems. The rhizospheric impact on soil C:N ratios showed an exponentially decreasing trend with increasing SOC, whereas the effects on microbial C:N ratios exhibited a linear increase with SOC and soil  $\text{NH}_4^{+}\text{-N}$ . Our findings further revealed that SOC and  $\text{NH}_4^{+}\text{-N}$  were the primary and most important drivers of rhizospheric soil and microbial C:N ratios, respectively. A significant coupling relationship was also found between the stoichiometric responses of soil and microbial communities to rhizospheric effects. Collectively, these results highlight inconsistencies in rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial stoichiometry regulation in agroecosystems, providing insights for improving resource efficiency and sustainable agricultural development through appropriate regulatory measures.

## Author contribution

TF and AD: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Software, Writing-original draft. SN, TJ, and W carried the data collection and analysis. AD: Funding acquisition, Supervision; All authors: Data curation, Investigation.

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#### 337 **Declaration of competing interest**

338 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships  
339 that might appear to influence the work reported in this paper.

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501 **Figure captions:**

502 **Fig. 1** The ratio of soil C:N (a), C:P (b), and N:P (c) and microbial C:N (d), C:P (e), and N:P (f) under  
503 rhizosphere and bulk soil. The boxes show the 25 % and 75 % percentiles, and the lines in the boxes  
504 represent the medians. Different letters indicate significant difference at  $P < 0.05$ .

505 **Fig. 2** Rhizospheric effects (%) on soil and microbial C:N, C:P, and N:P ratios. Dots and bars represent  
506 mean and 95% confidence intervals of rhizospheric effects. Black and red represent rhizospheric effects  
507 on soil and microbial stoichiometry, respectively. Vertical dashed lines indicate non-significant effects.  
508 Rhizospheric effects are statistically significant if the 95% confidence intervals do not overlap with the  
509 vertical dashed lines. Values in parentheses represent sample sizes.

510 **Fig. 3** Rhizospheric effects (%) on soil (a) microbial (b) C:N ratios for various climate zones and  
511 aridity indexes. Dots and bars represent mean and 95% confidence intervals of rhizospheric effects.  
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516 **Fig. 4** Rhizospheric effects (%) on soil (a) microbial (b) C:N ratios under various soil pH, soil organic  
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522 **Fig. 5** Rhizospheric effects (%) on soil (a) microbial (b) C:N ratios under various crop types. Dots and  
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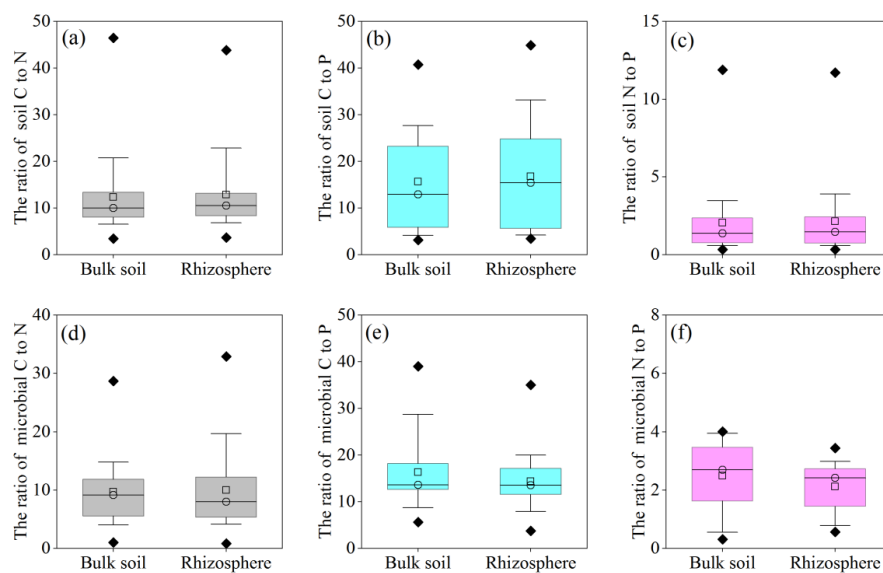
527 **Fig. 6** The relative influence (%) of environmental variables for boosted regression tree model on  
528 rhizospheric soil (a) and microbial (b) C:N ratio. The variables include crop types, aridity index (AI),  
529 and rhizospheric effects of soil organic carbon (SOC), soil pH, soil total phosphorous (TP), soil  
530 available phosphorous (AP), soil nitrate-nitrogen ( $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ ), and soil ammonium nitrogen ( $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ ).



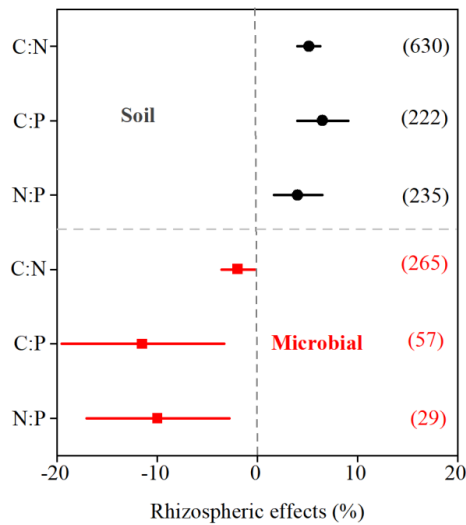
531 **Fig. 7** Relationships between C:N:P stoichiometry response ratios of soil and microbial. The blue lines  
532 indicate the slopes from the linear mixed-effects models, and the red shadings represent the 95%  
533 confidence intervals. N in the figure represents the number of observations.

534 **Fig. 8** Mechanisms of rhizospheric effects on soil and microbial stoichiometry. Values presented were  
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536 responses to rhizospheric effects. Red and blue lines represent positive and negative correlations,  
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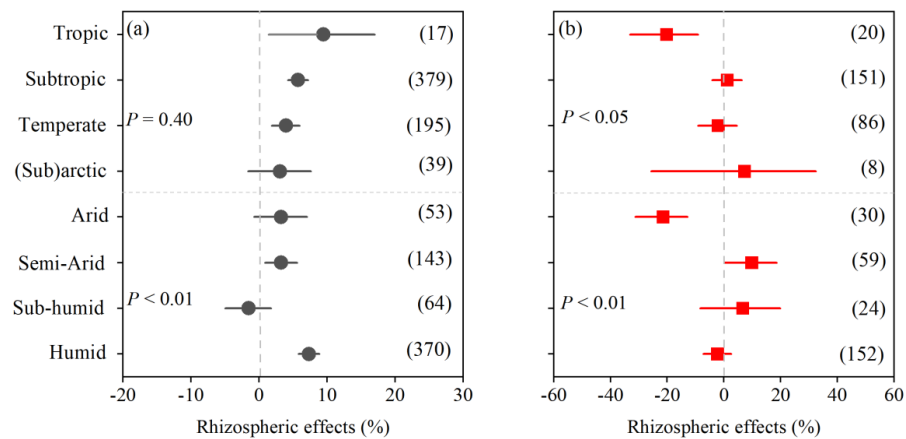
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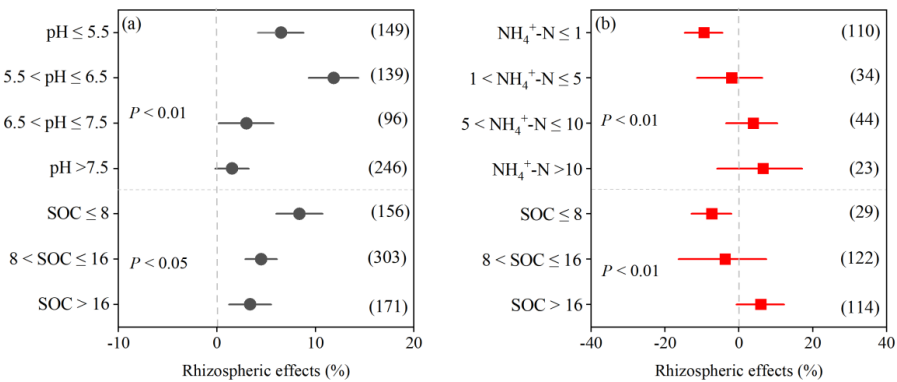
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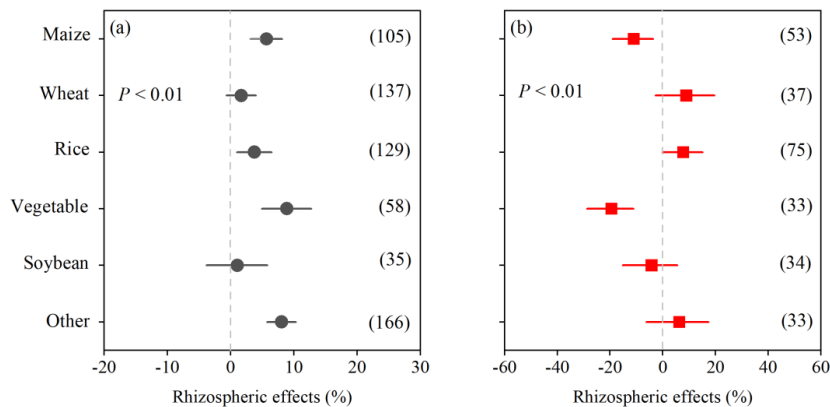


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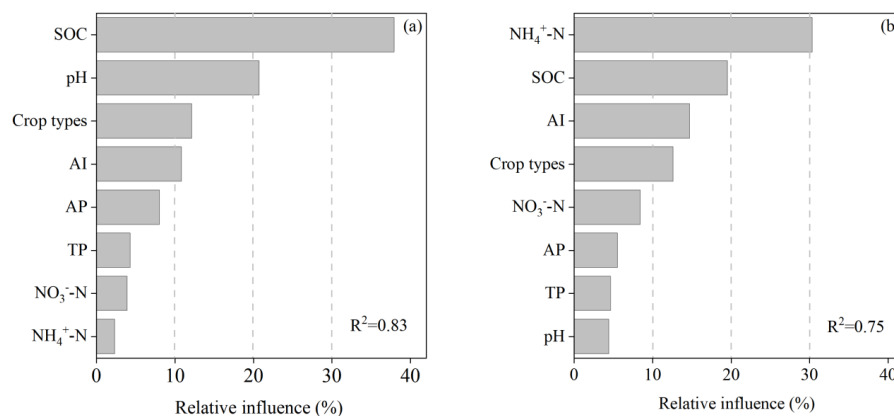


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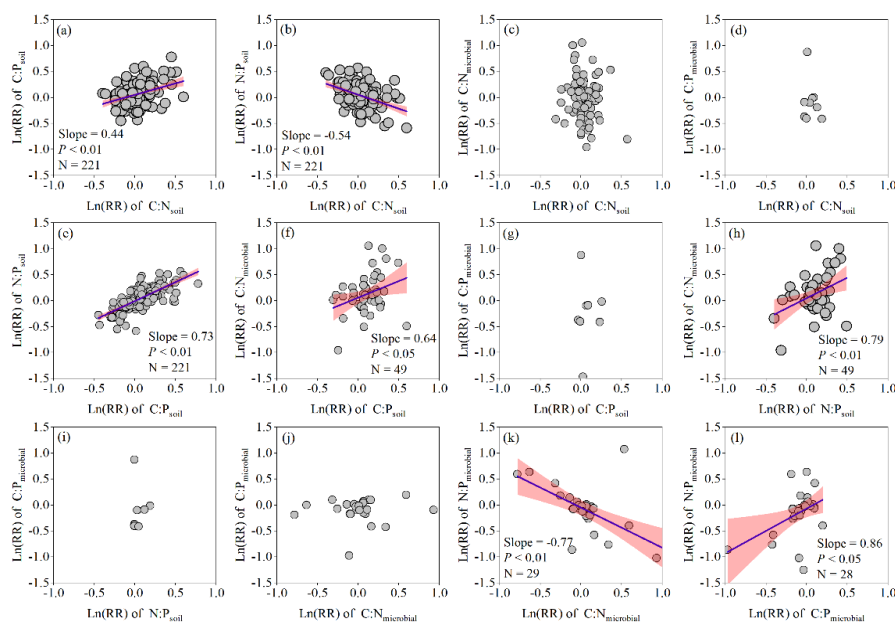
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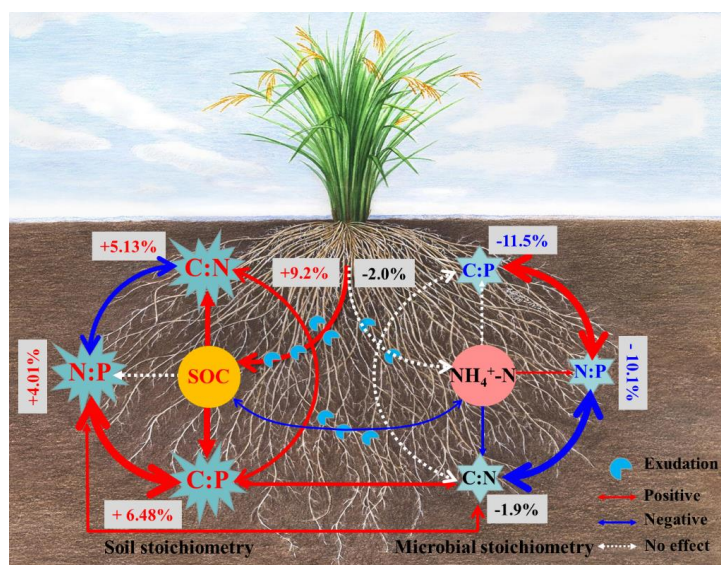
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