

1 **Direct and understorey-mediated indirect effects of human-induced environmental changes**  
2 **on litter decomposition in temperate forest**

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11  
12 **Abstract**

13 Human-induced environmental changes in temperature, light availability due to forest canopy  
14 management, nitrogen deposition, and land-use legacies can alter ecosystem processes such as litter  
15 decomposition. These influences can be both direct and indirect via altering the performance of  
16 understorey vegetation. To identify the direct and indirect effects of environmental changes on litter  
17 decomposition, we performed an experiment with standardised green and rooibos teas. The  
18 experiment was conducted in a temperate mixed deciduous forest, and treatments (temperature, light,  
19 and nitrogen) were applied to mesocosms filled with ancient and post-agricultural forest soil. Both  
20 green tea and rooibos teas were more rapidly decomposed in oligotrophic soil than in eutrophic soil.  
21 The direct effects of the treatments on litter decomposition varied among the two litter types,  
22 incubation times, and soil fertility groups. Warming and agricultural legacy had a negative direct  
23 effect on the decomposition of the green tea in the high soil fertility treatment during the early  
24 decomposition stage. In contrast, agricultural legacy had a positive direct effect on the decomposition  
25 of rooibos tea. Soil enriched with nitrogen had a negative direct effect on the decomposition of green  
26 tea in mesotrophic soil in the early decomposition stage and on rooibos tea in later stage. The indirect

27 effects of the treatments were consistently negative, as treatments (especially the temperature and  
28 light treatments in the early decomposition stage) had a positive effect on plant cover, which  
29 negatively affected litter decomposition. Our results indicate that warming, increased nitrogen  
30 deposition, and land use legacy can directly stimulate the decomposition of labile litter on more fertile  
31 soils. Furthermore, warming and increased light had stronger positive direct effects on understorey  
32 herbaceous cover, which leads to slower decomposition rates, especially in more fertile soils.  
33 Therefore, the indirect effects of environmental changes related to the understorey layer on litter  
34 decomposition can be more important than their direct effects, thus should not be overlooked.

35

## 36 **1. Introduction**

37 Litter decomposition is the dominant process of the carbon and nutrient cycles in forest ecosystems,  
38 which contributes to approximately 60 Pg yr<sup>-1</sup> of the annual soil and atmospheric carbon input  
39 globally (Wang, et al., 2010; Pan, et al., 2011; Van Groenigen, et al., 2014). There is a wealth of data  
40 showing that litter quality (e.g., the carbon to nitrogen ratio, lignin and cellulose content) determines  
41 litter decomposition rates and, ultimately, the dynamics and stocks of soil carbon (Thiessen, et al.,  
42 2013; Fernandez, et al., 2016). Environmental drivers play a major role in litter decomposition  
43 processes and can strongly influence litter decomposition rates. For instance, according to Parton et  
44 al. (2007), climate variables can explain up to 68% of the variability in litter decomposition rates on  
45 a global scale. Hence, changes in environmental conditions may have a tremendous impact on litter  
46 decomposition processes via both direct and indirect pathways. For instance, herbaceous biomass  
47 production was estimated to increase under increasing temperature (Liu, et al., 2010); increasing  
48 biomass can reduce soil temperature, which may decelerate litter decomposition rates (Cornelissen,  
49 et al., 2007).

50 Here, we focus on four environmental factors that are known to affect the function of temperate  
51 forest ecosystems and litter decomposition. We consider the effects of climate warming, increased  
52 light availability at the forest floor due to intensifying forest management, excess nitrogen due to

53 deposition and fertilization, and land-use legacies in forests that were planted on former agricultural  
54 land (Freeman, et al., 2007; Berg, et al., 2010; De Frenne, et al., 2010). Warming and agricultural  
55 legacy are considered factors that stimulate the decomposition of forest litter and soil organic matter  
56 because they generally lead to the growth of fungal hyphae and enhanced decomposer and enzyme  
57 activity (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Dang, et al., 2009; Liiri, et al. 2012). Conversely, high levels  
58 of nitrogen in soil generally decreases litter decomposition rates, especially for low quality litter  
59 (typically high carbon to nitrogen ratio and lignin content) because of the negative effects on  
60 decomposer and enzyme activity (DeForest, et al., 2004; Treseder, 2008; Wu, et al., 2019).

61 Changes in temperature, light, nitrogen, and land use additionally influence the biomass and  
62 composition of the herbaceous layer in forest ecosystems (Beaten, et al., 2010; Verheyen, et al., 2012;  
63 Perring, et al., 2017). Numerous studies have shown that climate warming, increasing light  
64 availability, and nitrogen enrichment, alone or in combination, generally increase understorey  
65 biomass, which is highly correlated with plant cover (Bonan, 2008; Maes, et al., 2014). Plant  
66 community feedback on these environmental changes may, in turn, adjust the soil microclimate, and  
67 further alter litter decomposition (Loon, et al., 2014). Therefore, we may expect important indirect  
68 effects on litter decomposition via the understorey herbaceous layer cover from changes in  
69 temperature, light, nitrogen, and land-use history. Understorey removal experiments have shown that  
70 litter decomposition rates were negatively correlated with understorey cover because the activity of  
71 decomposers and enzymes were inhibited by lower soil temperature, light availability, and soil  
72 nitrogen concentrations under plant cover (Wu, et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2014; De Long, et al., 2016;  
73 Fanin et al., 2019). Yet, we still know remarkably little about how these environmental changes  
74 indirectly, via altering understorey vegetation cover, impacts litter decomposition.

75 The direct and indirect effects of these environmental changes on litter decomposition are not  
76 necessarily consistent between litter quality types (Coûteaux et al., 1995), decomposition stages, and  
77 soil conditions (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2015; Frøseth and Bleken, 2015). It is widely accepted that  
78 recalcitrant litter is less sensitive to environmental changes compared to labile litter. For example, the

79 direct effects of warming and nitrogen enrichment on recalcitrant litter decomposition are  
80 considerably weaker than on labile litter, especially in the early stage of litter decomposition where  
81 most of the water-soluble substrates are released (De Long, et al., 2016; Christiansen, et al., 2017).  
82 Moreover, the sensitivity of decomposition rates to environmental changes is also expected to be  
83 modulated by soil physicochemical properties (Portillo-Estrada, et al., 2016). The direct and indirect  
84 environmental effects on litter decomposition may be stronger in nutrient-rich soils compared to  
85 nutrient-poor soils because nutrient-rich soils provide a more suitable environment (determined by  
86 nutrient availability, organic matter, pH, and soil moisture) for decomposers and enzymes. The  
87 indirect effects via plants cover on litter decomposition may be also stronger in nutrient-rich soil than  
88 in nutrient-poor soil, because the plant community may show better performance at the modification  
89 of the soil microclimate (Loon, et al., 2014).

90 The main goal of the present study was to elucidate the direct and indirect effects, related to the  
91 understorey vegetation cover, of changes in temperature, light availability, atmospheric nitrogen  
92 deposition, and land-use history on the decomposition of two types of litter in different soil types and  
93 at different decomposition stages. To this end, we added standardised litter (green tea and rooibos tea,  
94 cf. Keuskamp et al., 2013; Djukic, et al., 2018) to a large-scale mesocosm experiment installed in  
95 Belgium. Understorey plant communities were grown on soils with contrasting characteristics (soil  
96 types and land use history), so that we could test for the consistency of environmental changes on  
97 decomposition in different soil contexts. We hypothesised that (i) the warming, enhanced light  
98 availability, and land-use legacy treatments will have positive effects on the decomposition of both  
99 types of litter, whereas nitrogen enrichment will limit tea decomposition (especially of the labile litter  
100 type). (ii) The direct effects of the treatments and the indirect effects via understorey plant cover on  
101 the decomposition of labile litter will be greater than that on the recalcitrant litter types. (iii). The  
102 direct and indirect effects of the treatments will be more important in the early stage of decomposition  
103 (shorter incubation), especially for the labile litter, compared to the later stage of decomposition. (iv)

104 The treatment effects on litter decomposition are stronger in nutrient-rich soil compared with nutrient-  
105 poor soil.

106

## 107 **2. Material and methods**

### 108 **2.1. Site description**

109 This study was conducted in the Aelmoeseneie forest (50° 58.5' N, 3° 48' E, 16 m a.s.l.), which  
110 is a temperate mixed deciduous forest in Northern Belgium (Flanders). This forest is considered an  
111 ancient forest, that is, it has been continuously forested since at least the oldest land-use map of 1775.  
112 The forest has a total area of 28 ha and the dominant trees are about 90 years old (De Frenne, et al.,  
113 2010). Annual precipitation is *ca.* 850 mm and is fairly evenly distributed throughout the year. The  
114 mean annual temperature is 11.3°C, with 5.0°C in the coldest month (February) and 18.5°C in the  
115 warmest month (July and August). The most common tree species are oak (*Quercus robur*), beech  
116 (*Fagus sylvatica*) and ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*). European rowan (*Sorbus aucuparia*), European  
117 hazelnut (*Corylus avellana*) and alder buckthorn (*Frangula alnus*) are commonly found in the shrub  
118 layer. The species rich understorey community includes *Anemone nemorosa* L., *Ranunculus ficaria*  
119 L. and *Primula elatior* Hill. Soils are Dystric podzoluvisol and Dystric cambisol (FAO classification)  
120 in this forest, which has a typical thin quaternary layer of sandy loam with a spotted texture B horizon  
121 on a shallow impermeable clay and sand complex of tertiary origin. The humus layer is of a mull and  
122 moder type (Staelens, et al., 2006).

### 123 **2.2. Soil collection and analysis of properties**

124 To understand how the environmental changes in temperature, light availability, atmospheric  
125 nitrogen deposition and land use influence decomposition of two types of litter in different  
126 decomposition stages and different soil types, an *in situ* mesocosm experiment was set up in the mixed  
127 mature temperate forest. The soils used in the mesocosms were collected from eight European regions  
128 (ranging from Central France to Southern Estonia), and from three ancient and post agricultural forest  
129 sites within each of those regions (48 sites in total, see Blondeel, et al., 2018a). Here, ancient forest

130 is defined as forest that has been continuously present on the oldest reliable land use maps (most of  
131 them pre-dated 1850), and the forests that recovered since the wave of land abandonment in the 1950s  
132 are considered as post-agricultural (Blondeel, et. al, 2018a). In each region, we selected three post-  
133 agricultural (recent) forests and three ancient forests according to the land-use maps. A topsoil (0-15  
134 cm) sample with a surface of 70 x 100 cm was collected from each forest site (8 regions x 2 land use  
135 histories x 3 replicates). A subsample was taken from each of the 48 soils for the analysis of soil  
136 texture (% Clay, % Sand and % Silt) and soil chemical properties. Soil samples were dried and sieved  
137 through 1 mm mesh size sieve, then soil pH (in H<sub>2</sub>O), total carbon (TC, %) and nitrogen (TN, %),  
138 total phosphorus (TP, mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>) and calcium (Ca, µg·kg<sup>-1</sup>) were determined as described by Blondeel et  
139 al. (2018a). Based on soil texture and bedrock properties (Table 1), the soils were classified into three  
140 categorical groups using a cluster analysis and principal components analyses: *Oligotrophic soil*  
141 (*Oligo*, high sand content, low base saturation, and low pH), *Mesotrophic soil* (*Meso*, intermediate)  
142 and *Eutrophic soil* (*Eu*, with high clay content, high base saturation and high soil pH). These three  
143 resulting clusters were used as a categorical variable “*Soil type*” in the statistical analyses. See  
144 Blondeel et al. (2018a) for more information.

### 145 **2.3. Experimental design**

146 The collected soil from each of the 48 sites was sieved through 4 mm mesh size sieve (5 mm for  
147 heavy soils) for homogenization and distributed over eight mesocosms (2 temperature \* 2 light \* 2  
148 nitrogen levels of treatment). Then we placed 9 L of inert river sand in the bottom of the tray for  
149 drainage, and 13 L of sieved sample was added on top. After that, a community of herb layer species,  
150 including two ancient forest species, two fast-colonizing shade tolerant species and one nitrophilous  
151 species, were randomly planted four times in the tray according to a 4 x 5 grid during the spring of  
152 2016 (Table A1, A2 & A3; Fig. A1 & A2). See Appendix A for more information on the communities  
153 that were used. We randomly grouped four mesocosms in a ‘plot’, according to their assigned treatment  
154 combination of warming, increased light and nitrogen enrichment, which results in 96 experimental  
155 plots. These plots were randomly placed in groups of four under a tree canopy (95% cover) dominated

156 by *Fagus sylvatica*, *Quercus robur*, *Acer pseudoplatanus*, *Fraxinus excelsior* and *Larix decidua* (the  
157 light intensity and throughfall under the canopy are relatively homogeneous), and subjected to a full-  
158 factorial combination of three treatments, including two levels of warming (T), increased light  
159 availability (L), and nitrogen-addition (N). All eight treatment combinations were replicated across  
160 the forty-eight soil origins making a total of 384 mesocosms. The temperature, light and nitrogen  
161 experimental treatments are as follows:

162 T: With or without Open Top Chamber (OTC). The air temperature or the soil temperature were  
163 expected to increase approximately 2°C by the 75 cm-wide OTC in natural conditions (De Frenne,  
164 et al., 2015). In our experiment, we measured a significant increase ( $P < 0.05$ ) in daily mean air  
165 temperature (at 15 cm height) of  $1.13 \pm 0.36^\circ\text{C}$  by the OTC between March and end of May, but  
166 insignificant increases after May 2017 (Fig. 1). Both soil surface temperature at 0 cm  
167 ( $0.39 \pm 0.36^\circ\text{C}$ ) and soil temperature at 5 cm depth ( $0.39 \pm 0.36^\circ\text{C}$ ) increased, but not significantly,  
168 during the tea bag incubation period (De Frenne, et al., 2015).

169 L: With or without light installation. This treatment simulates the availability of light under a thin  
170 canopy of trees. A reading of ca 5-10  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PAR is expected when tree canopy is fully  
171 covered, while the cool-white fluorescent bulbs can increase the PAR up to 30  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at 75  
172 cm height (these most likely did not increase air and soil temperature. De Frenne, et al., 2015).  
173 During the experimental period, we measured that the illumination treatment added  $23.98 \pm 4.40$   
174  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PAR to the ambient light conditions ( $7.79 \pm 0.68 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PAR under fully closed  
175 canopy) by use of two 18 W fluorescent tubes suspended 75 cm above the ground level of each  
176 plot (Blondeel, et. al, 2018b). These lights were programmed to follow the natural photoperiod  
177 throughout the year (De Frenne, et al., 2015).

178 N: With or without nitrogen addition. Nitrogen was enriched by adding 0.25 L of a 2.01 g/L solution  
179 of  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  (50 kg N  $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$  eq.) per mesocosm and rinsing this with 0.25 L of demineralised  
180 water. This treatment was performed four times per year at the start of spring, summer, autumn

181 and winter season, with the control mesocosms receiving 0.5 L of demineralised water (De Frenne,  
182 et al., 2015).

183 Lu: Land use history: mesocosms were filled with either ancient forest soil or post-agricultural forest  
184 soil. The soil physicochemical properties are shown in Table 1.

185 In addition to litter decomposition (see below), we measured total vegetation cover (%), as this is  
186 tightly linked with productivity, leaf biomass and competition for light (Muukkonen et al. 2006). We  
187 measured total vegetation cover as the one sided projection of all leaf area in the tray with 0% being no  
188 vegetation and 100% the whole tray area covered by vegetation. We measured total cover two times  
189 during the experiment: the first week of May (4 May) and the second week of August (11 August). We  
190 used digital RGB photographs of the mesocosms taken perpendicular to the ground surface and the  
191 “Canopy Area” software tool that measures green pixels of vegetation and recalculates this into a cover  
192 percentage (Easlon and Bloom, 2014).

193 The volumetric soil moisture content ( $\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ ) in all mesocosms (at centre and edge) was also  
194 measured by using Delta T ML3 Thetakit (Delta T, Cambridge UK) after a dry period (no rainfall for 7  
195 days) in September 2016 and after a rainfall event in October 2016 (see Appendix B for more  
196 information). The soil moisture content was significantly higher in mesotrophic and eutrophic soil  
197 compared with oligotrophic soil. Moreover, ancient forest soil had a significantly higher soil moisture  
198 content compared with post-agricultural forest soil. The treatments of temperature, light, and nitrogen  
199 generally led to lower soil moisture content, but the differences were not significant (Table B1).

#### 200 **2.4. Tea bag litter**

201 According to Keuskamp et al. (2013) and Djukic (2018), green tea and rooibos tea represent two  
202 different litter qualities. The leaves of Lipton green tea (EAN no.: 8 722700 055525) with low C:N  
203 ratio ( $12.229 \pm 0.129$ ) represents a relatively labile litter, and the Lipton rooibos tea (EAN no.: 8  
204 722700 188438) with high C:N ratio ( $42.870 \pm 1.841$ ) represent a relatively recalcitrant litter. The  
205 bags are filled with  $1.61 \pm 0.07$  g and  $1.75 \pm 0.03$  g of green tea and rooibos tea, respectively. The bags  
206 are made out of woven nylon, with a mesh size of 0.25 mm. This mesh excludes macrofauna, but



207 allows access of microorganisms to enter the bags. Before burying the tea bags into the soil, five extra  
208 green teas and rooibos teas were brought back to our laboratory to determine initial ash free dry mass  
209 (AFDM). In each mesocosm, two bags of green tea and two bags of rooibos tea, in total 1536 teabags,  
210 were installed in the upper 2-5 cm of the top soil on 5 April 2017. The teabags were collected after  
211 90 and 150 days of incubation (384 green teabags and 384 rooibos teabags each time). The teabags  
212 were oven-dried at 65°C until constant weight. Then, the remaining material was weighted and  
213 combusted at 550°C for 4-6 h and re-weighed. The remaining AFDM after the 90 or 150 days of  
214 incubation was calculated by subtracting the weight after combustion from the weight before  
215 combustion.

## 216 **2.5. Statistical analyses**

217 All statistical analyses were performed using R (R Core Team 2017), and graphs were made with  
218 the *ggplot2* package (Wickham 2009). We first tested the differences in soil physicochemical  
219 properties (TC, TN, TP, Ca, pH, clay, silt, and sand content) between the three soil types with  
220 ANOVA (Table 1). Analyses were done separately for ancient and post-agricultural forest sites. We  
221 then performed post hoc analyses using Tukey's honest significance test [HSD (package *laercio*)].  
222 For the litter decomposition experiment, we used incubation data from 90 and 150 days for the  
223 analyses. Focusing on AFDM as the response, we used an ANOVA to test the effects of the four  
224 treatments (temperature, light, nitrogen, and land use) and the three design variables (tea type,  
225 duration of incubation, and soil type), including all two-way interactions between the treatments and  
226 design variables. The same effects (except for the tea type) were also tested on the understorey plant  
227 cover. A correlation analysis was performed to test whether the decomposition of green tea and  
228 rooibos tea was related to soil physicochemical properties.

229 To understand direct and indirect relationships of the treatments (temperature, light, nitrogen and  
230 land-use history), understorey vegetation cover and litter decomposition in different litter types; and  
231 collection dates and soil fertility groups, we modelled a set of *a priori* assumed relationships (Fig. 2)  
232 using piecewise structural equation models (SEM). The direct effects of light on green tea and rooibos

233 tea were not included in the SEM because the tea bags were buried in the soil, so that light addition  
234 cannot have direct effects on tea mass loss. Here, we chose to use plant cover as a proxy for  
235 understorey biomass production, which plays an important role in the interception of energy and  
236 matter (Muukkonen et al. 2006). The piecewiseSEM package for R was used to implement the models  
237 (Lefcheck 2016). A Fisher's *C* test was used to retain the hypothesised relationship structure  
238 (Lefcheck, 2016), the path model is considered to fit the data when the *P*-value for Fisher's *C* statistic  
239 is  $>0.05$  (Shipley, [20042009](#)). Then standardised regression was used to calculate standardised  
240 coefficients, which were marked over the arrows. In addition, the indirect effects of the treatments  
241 (temperature, light, nitrogen and land use) were defined as the product of the standardised coefficients  
242 of the direct effects of plant cover on tea AFDM loss and the direct effect of the treatments on the  
243 cover of understorey plants.

244

### 245 **3. Results**

#### 246 **3.1. Loss of tea mass**

247 After 90 days of incubation, the AFDM of green tea and rooibos tea was significantly decreased  
248 by  $64.32 \pm 0.20\%$  and  $34.02 \pm 0.37\%$  of the initial AFDM content, respectively, across all treatments  
249 and soils (Table 2;  $P < 0.001$ ). The AFDM of green tea and rooibos tea further significantly decreased  
250 by 4.8% and 8.3%, respectively, with an additional 60 days of incubation; therefore, the duration of  
251 incubation had a significant effect on decomposition (Table 2; Fig. C1). Also, we recorded a steadily  
252 decreasing trend of AFDM loss for green tea along the soil fertility gradients, but not for rooibos tea  
253 (Fig. 3). The AFDM loss of green tea was  $69.17 \pm 0.22\%$ ,  $66.33 \pm 0.27\%$ , and  $60.56 \pm 0.29\%$  of the  
254 initial mass in oligotrophic, mesotrophic, and eutrophic soil, respectively ( $P < 0.05$ ).

255 The environmental treatments (temperature, light, nitrogen, and land use) generally had a limited  
256 effect on mass loss for both tea types across soils (Table 2, Fig. 3). After 90 days of incubation on  
257 eutrophic soil, the loss of green tea mass under the treatment of warming was significantly lower (3%)  
258 than that of the control ( $P < 0.05$ ), indicating a marginally slower decomposition with warming. As

259 shown in Table 2, the interaction between soil type and treatment was significant, suggesting that the  
260 effects of temperature, light, and land-use history on the loss of mass were variable with different soil  
261 fertility groups. Additionally, there was a significant interaction between the treatment of light and  
262 tea types ( $P < 0.05$ ). The loss of green tea mass under the increased light treatment was generally  
263 lower than the control in oligotrophic and eutrophic soil, but after 150 days of incubation, while it  
264 was significantly higher in oligotrophic soil ( $P = 0.02$ ). Nitrogen enrichment showed a significant  
265 effect on the loss of both green tea and rooibos tea mass ( $P = 0.026$ ); the nitrogen enrichment  
266 consistently inhibited the loss of green tea and rooibos tea mass at the two incubation times and in  
267 the three soil types (Table 2). Furthermore, the loss of green tea and rooibos tea mass showed limited  
268 differences among the land use treatments, except the green tea on the post-agricultural eutrophic soil  
269 had a significantly lower mass loss than that of the ancient forest soil treatment after 90 days of  
270 incubation ( $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 3).

### 271 **3.2. Effects of treatments on understorey plant cover**

272 The average plant cover across all mesocosms was  $62.27 \pm 1.22\%$  and  $54.70 \pm 1.29\%$  in May and  
273 August, respectively ( $P < 0.001$ , Table 2). Soil type had a significantly positive effect on plant cover  
274 ( $P < 0.001$ , Table 2), which was approximately 10% higher in mesotrophic soil and eutrophic soil  
275 than that in oligotrophic soil. Light and land use treatments had significant positive effects on plant  
276 cover, with an increase of  $16.70 \pm 1.48\%$  with increased light and increase of  $6.71 \pm 1.47\%$  in post-  
277 agricultural soil (Table 2; Fig. 4). We observed a significant interaction between temperature and  
278 incubation times, with an 11% and 5% increase with warming, respectively, in May and in August.  
279 In contrast, nitrogen did not show any significant effects on understorey plant cover at the two  
280 sampling points or in the three soil types.

### 281 **3.3. Direct and indirect effects of treatments and understorey vegetation cover on tea** 282 **decomposition**

283 The  $P$ -values obtained from the Fisher's  $C$  tests were  $>0.05$ , indicating that the retained  
284 relationships were a valid description of the system. The exception to this was the SEM for green tea

285 on oligotrophic soil after 150 days of incubation. Increased light and temperature were more  
286 prominent drivers of decomposition than nitrogen enrichment and land-use legacy across soil types  
287 and incubation periods. Together, increased light and temperature explained the mainly changes in  
288 understorey plant cover ( $R^2$  ranged from 0.22 to 0.60). Plant cover showed variability explaining the  
289 response of AFDM loss of green tea ( $R^2$  between 0.07 and 0.42) and rooibos tea ( $R^2$  between 0.06 and  
290 0.33) across soil types and incubation periods (Fig. 5). The explained variation for AFDM loss of  
291 both types of tea after 150 days of incubation was substantially lower than that in 90 days of  
292 incubation. The amount of variation explained for both types of tea mass loss and plant cover showed  
293 an increasing trend from oligotrophic soil to eutrophic soil after 90 days of incubation. The  
294 temperature and light treatments had a consistently and significantly positive direct effect on plant  
295 cover in the three types of soil ( $P < 0.05$ ). Moreover, the effect of light remained after 150 days, while  
296 the effect of temperature only persisted in mesotrophic soil.

297 Plant cover had a consistently and significantly negative effect on the AFDM loss of green tea and  
298 rooibos tea. The direct effects of all treatments on AFDM loss of both types of tea were limited on  
299 oligotrophic soil, while nitrogen enrichment directly inhibited AFDM loss of green tea (standardised  
300 estimate = -0.208) and rooibos tea (standardised estimate = -0.192) after 90 and 150 days of  
301 incubation on mesotrophic soil, respectively. Warming and agricultural legacy had a negative direct  
302 effect on AFDM loss of green tea, whereas agricultural legacy significantly promoted AFDM loss of  
303 rooibos tea.

304 When partitioning the total effects of the treatments into direct and indirect effects, we found that  
305 temperature and light represented a larger part of indirect effect across tea types, soil fertility groups  
306 and incubation times (Fig. 6). The indirect effects of temperature and light on green tea and rooibos  
307 tea AFDM loss showed a decreasing trend from oligotrophic soil to eutrophic soil throughout the  
308 duration of the incubation. After 150 days of incubation, the indirect effects of the treatments were  
309 generally less than that of the early stage of decomposition, with the land use treatment showing an  
310 indirect effect on the loss of rooibos tea mass on mesotrophic soil.

311

## 312 **4. Discussion**

313 Litter decomposition is generally controlled by both internal factors (such as litter quality) and  
314 external factors (such as decomposers and environmental factors; Rouifed, et al., 2010). In this study,  
315 we explored the direct and indirect effects, via the understorey herbaceous cover, of four important  
316 human-induced environmental changes on the decomposition of labile and recalcitrant litter,  
317 represented by two tea types used as standardised litter. Inconsistent with our hypothesis, warming,  
318 increased light, and agricultural legacy did not have the expected positive effects on the  
319 decomposition of the two litter types, but consistent with our first hypothesis, we did find a reduction  
320 in decomposition with nitrogen addition. Stronger direct and indirect effects were generally observed  
321 during the early-stage of decomposition of the labile litter than on the recalcitrant litter, especially in  
322 the nutrient-rich soil, which is consistent with the second and third hypotheses. Moreover, the direct  
323 and indirect effects of the treatments were considerably stronger in nutrient-rich soil compared with  
324 nutrient-poor soil. The understorey plant cover increased with warming, increased light availability,  
325 and on post-agricultural forest soils. Since the understorey plant cover had consistently negative  
326 effects on the decomposition of both types of litter, this shows that global environmental changes  
327 may have important indirect effects on litter decomposition via the response of the understorey  
328 community.

### 329 **4.1 The response of litter decomposition and plant cover to the treatments**

330 Consistent with previous researches (Didion, et al., 2016; Djukic, et al., 2018; Petraglia, et al.,  
331 2019), we found that the loss of green tea mass was approximately twice as fast as that of rooibos tea,  
332 and was more strongly influenced by the treatments than the rooibos tea (Table 2). This is probably  
333 due to the fact that the green tea has higher concentrations of soluble compounds than rooibos tea  
334 (Fierer, et al. 2005), which increases the decomposition rates of green tea through leaching and the  
335 activity of microorganisms; hence, making green tea more reactive to environmental changes (Djukic,  
336 et al., 2018). Rooibos tea is possibly composed of more stable plant matter, which remained

337 unaffected during this short observation period (i.e., the vegetation period from April to September).  
338 This, in turn, implies that this short-term study could not capture sufficient information related to this  
339 recalcitrant material. Surprisingly, we observed a negative correlation between soil fertility groups  
340 and the loss of green tea mass, which was not displayed in the rooibos tea (Fig. 2). On one hand, this  
341 can be partly attributed to the negative effect of fine mineral particles on litter decomposition in clay  
342 soils (Sollins, et al., 1996), as it helps the litter organic components become water-stable soil  
343 aggregates (Angst, et al., 2017). On the other hand, the release and leaching of elements and smaller  
344 debris particles are easily lost through the pores of sandy (oligotrophic) soils, especially at the early-  
345 stages of litter decomposition, when water soluble substances are primarily lost (Berg, 2014). This  
346 may also explain why the loss of rooibos tea mass (which has very low content of water-soluble  
347 substances) was not different in sandy (oligotrophic) soil or clay (eutrophic) soil (Fig. C1).

348 In agreement with previous studies, we found that nitrogen enrichment could generally reduce  
349 decomposition rates though slowing microbial activities in soil (Treseder, 2008; Janssens, et al., 2010;  
350 Huang et al., 2011). However, we did not expect that warming, increased light availability, and  
351 agricultural legacy would have inhibitory effects on litter decomposition at the two incubation stages  
352 and in the three types of soil. These findings are inconsistent with previous studies that have shown  
353 that litter decomposition is stimulated by warming, increased light availability, and land-use legacy  
354 due to increases of enzyme and soil microbial activity (Fierer et al., 2005; Liiri et al., 2012). A  
355 possible explanation for these contrasting results is that the open top chambers had very limited  
356 warming effects on soil temperatures after the leaf-flushing period of overstorey trees. In our study,  
357 the chambers only successfully increased the air temperatures between 1–1.5°C before the leaves  
358 opened on overstorey trees, which can be important to understorey development (De Frenne et al  
359 2010), and thus also for decomposition rates. When the canopy closes in late spring and summer,  
360 solar radiation is almost completely intercepted by the canopy, so the effects of warming became  
361 weaker. Thus, warming during the incubation period had a large effect on the understorey, but not on  
362 soil temperatures. Moreover, litter degradation generally has lower sensitivity to environmental

363 change when the mean annual temperature is lower than 10°C (Prescott, 2010). The average air  
364 temperature at our study site was approximately 10°C during the incubation period, and we were only  
365 able to increase the mean air temperature by 1°C with passive warming. Moreover, the soil  
366 temperature was much lower than the air temperature, which might have led to an opposite effect  
367 (slower rate of decomposition) on litter decomposition. Saura-Mas et al. (2012), Almagro et al.,  
368 (2015), and Petraglia et al., (2019) also observed that warming inhibited litter decay when the mean  
369 annual air temperature was increased by less than 3°C.

370 Understorey plant cover showed a positive response to the treatments. Temperature, light, and  
371 land-use significantly increased plant cover by 7% to 17% during the incubation period. This is in  
372 line with the results from De Frenne et al. (2015), indicating that understorey plants have stronger  
373 responses to warming and increased light availability compared with nitrogen enrichment. Moreover,  
374 plant cover increased (especially for the understorey plants in the temperature and light treatments in  
375 May) with the increase of soil fertility. This indicates that the understorey plants exploit the additional  
376 warmth and light when the soil can supply sufficient nutrients (for example, in eutrophic soil and with  
377 agricultural legacy). The understorey plant communities growing in nutrient-rich soil may show a  
378 stronger response to warming and increased light availability than plants growing in nutrient-poor  
379 soil, especially during the growing season.

#### 380 **4.2 Direct and indirect effects of environmental changes on litter decomposition**

381 The indirect effects of environmental changes, via understorey plant cover, were calculated by  
382 multiplying the standardised direct effects of the treatments on understorey plant cover by the direct  
383 effects of plant cover on litter decomposition (García-Palacios et al., 2013). The indirect effects were  
384 most apparent for temperature and light and were the strongest in the early stage of decomposition.  
385 Due to the changes of rainfall, light interception, and water evapotranspiration, increased plant cover  
386 is expected to slow the rate of increasing in soil temperature, which may also influence the water  
387 balance in the soil (Wahren et al., 2005; Niinemets, 2010; Myers-Smith et al., 2011; Loon, et al.,  
388 2014). Consequently, the higher plant cover might foster a less favourable soil environment (such as

389 maintaining a lower temperature, light, and soil nutrients) for decomposers and enzymes (De Long,  
390 et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018).

391 The stronger (in)direct treatment effects on the decomposition of labile litter compared with  
392 recalcitrant litter are likely to be related to differences in litter chemistry. The higher content of water-  
393 soluble substances and cellulose/hemicellulose released in the early-stage of decomposition probably  
394 led to a higher sensitivity to environmental changes in the labile litter compared to the recalcitrant  
395 litter (Portillo-Estrada et al., 2016). The higher absolute value of direct and indirect effects of the  
396 treatments on rooibos tea compared to green tea after 150 days of incubation also supports this, since  
397 the rooibos tea might have higher concentrations of easily decomposing substrates in the later stage  
398 of litter decomposition. In this study, the direct effects of agricultural legacies were opposite for green  
399 tea and rooibos tea in three types of soil; the effects were also observed in eutrophic soil in the later  
400 stages of the incubation period (Fig. 6). We found a significantly negative direct effect of land use on  
401 the decomposition of green tea on eutrophic soil, while the reverse was true for rooibos tea (Fig. 5).  
402 The higher concentrations of phosphorus, which generally promotes microbial degradation processes  
403 when systems are less N-limited, in the post-agricultural forest soils and the eutrophic soils likely led  
404 to higher decomposition rates of recalcitrant litter (De Long, et al., 2016). Because higher  
405 concentrations of phosphorus may have also stimulated decomposition of the recalcitrant carbon  
406 substances by increasing microbial abundance and stimulating enzyme activities (Luo et al., 2019).

407 Significant direct and indirect effects of the treatments were primarily observed in the early-stage  
408 of decomposition compared to the later stage of decomposition. This may have been due to the  
409 response of decomposers and enzymes to the changes in temperature and agricultural legacies in the  
410 early stage of incubation, which plays a dominant role during the decaying and leaching of most of  
411 labile and soluble substances (Berg, et al., 2010). However, this pattern was not found for the nitrogen  
412 treatment. This is likely because nitrogen enrichment mainly affected the decomposition of tea in  
413 mesotrophic soil, and the effects of nitrogen enrichment were also related to the tea type and  
414 incubation time (Fig. 6). Knorr et al. (2005) reported that nitrogen enrichment could inhibit litter



415 decomposition when the litter quality was low. Here, we also found that nitrogen enrichment had a  
416 direct negative effect on recalcitrant litter in the later stage of decomposition. Similarly,  
417 decomposition of green tea in early stage of decomposition was also inhibited by nitrogen enrichment.  
418 It is possible that this is due to the rapid decomposition of labile substances at the beginning (about  
419 30 days) of the incubation period; thus, the additional nitrogen could slow the decomposition of the  
420 remaining recalcitrant components.

421 We found that warming, nitrogen enrichment, and agricultural legacy had stronger inhibitory effects  
422 on decomposition in more fertile soil (eutrophic soil) than that in low fertility soil (oligotrophic soil).  
423 These results are inconsistent with previous studies which have shown that litter decomposition is  
424 generally positively influenced by soil nutrient status (Vesterdal, 1999; Sariyildiz, and Anderson,  
425 2003). The higher temperature, soil moisture and nutrient availability in eutrophic soil might provide  
426 a suitable growing environment for fungi and plant roots (which were difficult to completely remove  
427 from the bags during sampling). In contrast, in oligotrophic soil, physical losses of organic  
428 compounds from leaching and other processes might have dominated the loss of tea mass due to the  
429 porous structure in these soils. On the other hand, the drier environment also hosted fewer growth of  
430 fungi and plant roots. The indirect effects of increased temperature and light were similar in the three  
431 types of soil (Fig. 6). A possible explanation is that the increased temperature and light led to a higher  
432 nitrogen uptake of plants, because of competition for nitrogen, which might intensify the activity of  
433 nitrogen-limited soil microbes in nutrient-poor soil (De Long, et al., 2016). Consequently, the positive  
434 direct effect of vegetation cover on loss of tea mass were stronger in oligotrophic soil than in eutrophic  
435 soil, even though the direct effects of temperature and light on plant cover were weaker in oligotrophic  
436 soil than in eutrophic soil (Fig. 5).

437 In summary, our results provided evidence that human-induced environmental changes may have  
438 important direct effects on litter decomposition, especially for labile litter. However, the nature of  
439 these effects are impacted by the responses of the understorey plant community to the same  
440 environmental drivers, which are, in turn, mediated by inherent soil conditions such as soil fertility

441 and texture. Furthermore, as our short-term experimental results imply, the decomposition rates of  
442 labile and recalcitrant litter differ strongly in the early stages of decomposition. This difference in  
443 decomposition can be accelerated by the presence of an understorey. Therefore, to further unravel the  
444 mechanisms that underlie the direct and indirect effects on litter decomposition in multiple global  
445 change contexts, additional research should be conducted on the soil microclimate.

446

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457

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663 **Figure captions**

664 **Figure 1.** The daily minimum and maximum air temperature (gradient filled), monthly average  
665 ambient (dashed) and warming (solid line) air temperature and daily precipitation (black filled) during  
666 the incubation period (April to September 2017) in Aelmoeseneie forest.

667 **Figure 2.** *A priori* conceptual structural equation model depicting pathways by which temperature,  
668 light, nitrogen, land use and plant cover may influence AFDM loss of green tea and rooibos tea after  
669 90 and 150 days of incubation in three types of soil. For each arrow, the standardised regression  
670 coefficients and overall variance explained ( $r^2$ ) is calculated and shown in Fig. 5.

671 **Figure 3.** Ash free dry mass (AFDM) loss of green tea and rooibos tea in response to four treatments  
672 applied to mesocosms: temperature, light, nitrogen and land use. Tea bags were collected after 90  
673 days and 150 days of incubation. The experiment was performed using three soil types (oligotrophic  
674 soil (Oligo), mesotrophic soil (Meso) and eutrophic soil (Eu)). Values are means with SE. Different  
675 letters (lowercases for controls and capitals for treatments) indicate significant differences among soil  
676 types ( $P < 0.05$ ), asterisks show significant differences between the control and treatment (ns, \*, \*\*,  
677 \*\*\* indicated significance at the  $P > 0.05$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ,  $P < 0.01$  and  $P < 0.001$  levels, respectively).

678 **Figure 4.** Plant cover of mesocosm plant communities in response to four treatments: temperature,  
679 light, nitrogen and land use. Plant cover was measured 45 (spring vegetation cover, May) and 120  
680 days (summer vegetation cover, August) after the tea bags were buried.

681 **Figure 5.** Direct and indirect influences of temperature, light, nitrogen, land use and understorey plant  
682 cover on AFDM loss of green tea or rooibos tea after 90 (a, c, e) and 150 (b, d, f) days of incubation.  
683 Models were fitted for tea bags collected in three soil types: oligotrophic (Oligo; a, b), mesotrophic  
684 (Meso; c, d) and eutrophic (Eu; e, f) soils. The dashed and solid arrows represent the significant  
685 negative and positive effects, respectively. The number next to each arrow is the value of the  
686 standardised regression weights. Bold values are significant, and \*, \*\*, \*\*\* indicates significance at

687 the  $P < 0.05$ ,  $P < 0.01$  and  $P < 0.001$  levels, respectively. Non-significant paths were omitted from  
688 the graph, but included in the model when fit was tested.

689 **Figure 6.** Standardised direct effects(open) of temperature, light, nitrogen, and land use and their  
690 indirect effects (solid grey) via understory plant cover on AFDM loss of green tea and rooibos tea  
691 in oligotrophic soil (Oligo) and mesotrophic soil (Meso) and eutrophic soil (Eu) after 90 days and  
692 150 days of incubation. Note that the direct effects are highlighted in Fig. 5, the indirect effects are  
693 calculated as a product of the direct effect of treatments on plant cover and direct effects of plant  
694 cover on tea decomposition. The omitted columns had represented insignificant pathways ( $p < 0.05$ ).  
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696 **Tables**

697 **Table 1** Physicochemical properties of soils used in this study. Measurements are the average ( $\pm$ SE)  
 698 of oligotrophic (Oligo), mesotrophic (Meso) and eutrophic (Eu) soils from ancient forest and post-  
 699 agricultural forest in Europe.

Land use	Ancient forest			Post-agricultural forest			
	Soil type	Oligo (n = 12)	Meso (n = 9)	Eu (n = 3)	Oligo (n = 11)	Meso (n = 8)	Eu (n = 5)
TC (%)		4.00 $\pm$ 0.48 <sup>a</sup>	3.09 $\pm$ 0.55 <sup>a</sup>	3.78 $\pm$ 0.96 <sup>a</sup>	3.04 $\pm$ 0.50 <sup>B</sup>	2.67 $\pm$ 0.59 <sup>B</sup>	6.19 $\pm$ 0.74 <sup>A</sup>
TN (%)		0.25 $\pm$ 0.03 <sup>a</sup>	0.26 $\pm$ 0.03 <sup>a</sup>	0.31 $\pm$ 0.06 <sup>a</sup>	0.19 $\pm$ 0.03 <sup>B</sup>	0.24 $\pm$ 0.03 <sup>B</sup>	0.44 $\pm$ 0.04 <sup>A</sup>
C/N ratio		16.10 $\pm$ 0.75 <sup>a</sup>	12.00 $\pm$ 0.87 <sup>b</sup>	11.90 $\pm$ 1.50 <sup>b</sup>	14.40 $\pm$ 0.78 <sup>A</sup>	11.40 $\pm$ 0.92 <sup>A</sup>	13.90 $\pm$ 1.16 <sup>A</sup>
TP (mg·kg <sup>-1</sup> )		292.00 $\pm$ 58.90 <sup>a</sup>	380.00 $\pm$ 68.10 <sup>a</sup>	468.00 $\pm$ 117.90 <sup>a</sup>	298.00 $\pm$ 61.60 <sup>B</sup>	602.00 $\pm$ 72.20 <sup>A</sup>	694.00 $\pm$ 91.30 <sup>A</sup>
Ca (mg·kg <sup>-1</sup> )		1.03 $\pm$ 4.70 <sup>b*</sup>	2.33 $\pm$ 5.43 <sup>ab</sup>	4.25 $\pm$ 9.40 <sup>a</sup>	0.71 $\pm$ 4.91 <sup>B</sup>	2.84 $\pm$ 5.76 <sup>B</sup>	40.90 $\pm$ 7.28 <sup>A</sup>
pH (H <sub>2</sub> O)		4.33 $\pm$ 0.18 <sup>b</sup>	4.99 $\pm$ 0.21 <sup>b</sup>	6.28 $\pm$ 0.36 <sup>a</sup>	4.60 $\pm$ 0.19 <sup>C</sup>	5.45 $\pm$ 0.22 <sup>B</sup>	7.00 $\pm$ 0.28 <sup>A</sup>
Clay (%)		12.99 $\pm$ 2.22 <sup>b</sup>	18.97 $\pm$ 2.56 <sup>b</sup>	48.90 $\pm$ 4.43 <sup>a</sup>	8.85 $\pm$ 2.31 <sup>C</sup>	22.61 $\pm$ 2.71 <sup>B</sup>	40.28 $\pm$ 3.43 <sup>A</sup>
Silt (%)		24.40 $\pm$ 3.43 <sup>b</sup>	47.80 $\pm$ 3.96 <sup>a</sup>	43.40 $\pm$ 6.86 <sup>a</sup>	22.20 $\pm$ 3.58 <sup>B</sup>	44.30 $\pm$ 4.20 <sup>A</sup>	46.20 $\pm$ 5.31 <sup>A</sup>
Sand (%)		62.58 $\pm$ 3.55 <sup>a</sup>	33.29 $\pm$ 4.09 <sup>b</sup>	7.63 $\pm$ 7.09 <sup>c</sup>	69.00 $\pm$ 3.70 <sup>A</sup>	33.06 $\pm$ 4.34 <sup>B</sup>	13.52 $\pm$ 5.49 <sup>C</sup>

700 TC, TN, TP and Ca indicate total carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus and calcium concentrations,  
 701 respectively. Different letters (lowercases for ancient forest soil and capitals for post-agricultural  
 702 forest soil) indicate significant differences among soil fertility type ( $P < 0.05$ ) and asterisks show  
 703 significant differences between two land use history soils (\*, \*\*, \*\*\* indicated significance at the  $P$   
 704  $< 0.05$ ,  $P < 0.01$  and  $P < 0.001$  levels, respectively).

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714 **Table 2** Effects of tea type (green tea and rooibos tea), incubation day (90 and 150 days of incubation),  
 715 soil type (oligotrophic, mesotrophic and eutrophic soil), the global environmental change treatments  
 716 (temperature, light, nitrogen and land use) and their two-way interaction on litter decomposition  
 717 (AFDM loss) and understorey plant cover. Effects were tested with analysis of variance.

Factor	Litter decomposition				Plant cover				
	Sum-Sq	Df	F-Value	P	Sum-Sq	Df	F-Value	P	
Temperature	0.12	1	3.32	0.0688	23154	1	47.98	<0.001	***
Light	0.28	1	7.74	0.0055	106582	1	220.86	<0.001	***
Nitrogen	0.18	1	4.80	0.0286	655	1	1.36	0.2441	
Land use	0.05	1	1.31	0.2534	15534	1	32.19	0.0000	***
Tea type	135.26	1	3704.66	<0.001					***
Incubation days	9.04	1	247.46	<0.001	22041	1	45.67	<0.001	***
Soil type	1.54	2	21.08	<0.001	39549	2	40.98	<0.001	***
Tea type: Soil type	0.48	2	6.60	0.0014					**
Temperature: Tea type	<0.01	1	0.06	0.8089					
Temperature: Incubation days	0.01	1	0.22	0.6367	2896	1	6.00	0.0144	*
Temperature: Soil type	0.27	2	3.65	0.0263	473	2	0.49	0.6126	
Light: Tea type	0.21	1	5.68	0.0173					*
Light: Incubation days	0.04	1	1.02	0.3130	11	1	0.02	0.8804	
Light: Soil type	0.28	2	3.84	0.0217	1869	2	1.94	0.1445	
Nitrogen: Tea type	0.05	1	1.36	0.2431					
Nitrogen: Incubation days	<0.01	1	0.04	0.8469	659	1	1.37	0.2428	
Nitrogen: Soil type	0.13	2	1.76	0.1729	2383	2	2.47	0.0850	
Land use: Tea type	<0.01	1	0.00	0.9695					
Land use: Incubation days	<0.01	1	0.00	0.9884	3	1	0.01	0.9334	
Land use: Soil type	0.27	2	3.68	0.0254	255	2	0.26	0.7681	*
Residuals	55.10	1509			731578	1516			

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