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3	Plant-plant interactions and N fertilization shape soil
4	bacterial and fungal communities
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23	Abstract The impact of conspecific and heterospecific neighboring plants on soil
24	bacterial and fungal communities has never been explored in a forest ecosystem. In
25	the present study, we first investigated soil microbial communities in three plantations:
26	Larix kaempferi monoculture, L. olgensis monoculture and their mixture. Then, a
27	two-year growth experiment was conducted to investigate the effects of intra- and
28	inter-specific plant interactions of L. kaempferi and L. olgensis on rhizosphere
29	microbial communities in different nitrogen conditions. The results demonstrated
30	clear differences in the beta-diversity and composition of bacteria and fungi among
31	the three plantations, which implied different effects of plant-plant interactions on soil
32	microbial communities. The results of the pot experiment showed that L. kaempferi
33	suffered from greater negative effects from its conspecific neighbor regardless of the
34	N fertilization, whereas the negative effect declined when L. kaempferi was grown
35	with L. olgensis under N fertilization. Changes in intra- and inter-specific plant
36	interactions significantly impacted the chemical and biological properties of soil
37	under N fertilization, with lower concentrations of NH_4^+ , and lower soil microbial
38	biomass (C_{Mic}) and soil carbon nitrogen biomass (N_{Mic}) under intra-specific plant
39	interactions of L. kaempferi (KK) compared to inter-specific interactions of L.
40	kaempferi and L. olgensis (KO). N fertilization increased bacterial and fungal alpha
41	diversities in the rhizosphere soil of KO. For the beta diversity, the PERMANOVA
42	results demonstrated that there was a significant impact of intra- and inter-specific
43	plant interactions on soil microbial communities, with KK significantly differing from
44	intra-specific plant interactions of L. olgensis (OO) and KO. The two plant species

45	and N fertilization showed specific effects on the soil microbial composition,
46	particularly on the fungal community. Both L. olgensis and N fertilization increased
47	the abundance of Ascomycota but reduced that of Basidiomycota, and even shifted the
48	dominance of Basidiomycota to Ascomycota in KO under N fertilization. Based on
49	our results, we suggest that L. kaempferi planted with L. olgensis under N fertilization
50	may be an efficient way to promote the productivity of plantations.
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52	Keywords Forest plantations; Plant neighbors; Plant-soil feedback; Fungal
53	communities; Carbon investment
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65	1. Introduction
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Many types of forest plantations (mostly monocultures) have been established around 67 the world to provide wood products or restore degraded lands (Paul et al., 2010; 68 69 Richards et al., 2010). However, the productivity of monocultures has commonly declined due to reasons, such as decreasing nitrogen (N) availability or autotoxicity 70 71 (O'Hehir and Nambiar, 2010; Chen et al., 2014; Deng et al., 2014). For example, the declined productivity of Chinese fir (Cunninghamia lanceolata) monocultures is 72 mainly caused by a novel allelochemical, cyclic dipeptide (Chen et al., 2014), which 73 alters fungal communities in soil by inhibiting the spore germination of Glomus 74 75 cunnighamia and Gigaspora alboaurantiaca (Xia et al., 2016). Mixed-forest plantations always have higher productivity than monocultures (Lovelock and Ewel, 76 2005; Richards et al., 2010). Lovelock and Ewel (2005) have found differences in 77 78 arbuscular mycorrhizal compositions between different tropical tree mixtures and respective monocultures, and the fungal diversity was correlated with the net primary 79 productivity of plantations. Similarly, Mortimer et al. (2015) have observed that the 80 biomass of soil fungi and bacteria as well as the productivity of tea were higher in a 81 mixture of Alnus nepalensis and tea species (Camellia sinensis var., assamica) 82 83 compared with a tea monoculture.

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Plants interact intensively and reciprocally with soil microbial communities (Kuzyakov and Xu, 2013). Previous studies have confirmed that plants show specific effects on the structure of their own microbial communities, for example, by secreting organic compounds and through input on litter (reviewed in Bakker et al., 2013a;

Cline and Zak, 2015; Kumar et al., 2016; Cheeke et al., 2017). However, the majority 89 of these studies have focused on isolated plants or have overlooked the impacts of 90 91 plant-plant interactions. Conspecific or heterospecific plant neighbors always cause different effects on processes, such as nitrogen uptake, the secretion of root exudates 92 or growth (McKane et al., 2002; Kozovits et al., 2005; Broz et al., 2010; Kunstler et 93 al., 2015; Guo et al., 2017). If plants suffer from their conspecific or heterospecific 94 neighbors, for example as a result of competition, there may be consequent effects on 95 the microbial communities of soil. As research increasingly demonstrates the 96 connection between plants and microbes, there remains a need to understand how 97 intra- and inter-specific plant-plant interactions impact belowground microbial 98 communities. 99

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Plant-plant interactions are affected by nitrogen availability (Wilson and Tilman, 1991; 101 Guo et al., 2017; Broadbent et al., 2018) and plant-soil feedback processes (Harrison 102 and Bardgett, 2010; Hendriks et al., 2015). A negative effect means that a particular 103 species changes its biological community or abiotic soil properties in a way that its 104 growth is reduced, while the other species shows less harmful or even beneficial 105 effects (Harrison and Bardgett, 2010). Reduced plant growth can result from changes 106 in the composition of beneficial arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (Castelli and Casper, 107 2003). It has been discovered that nitrogen fertilization can alleviate plant-soil 108 negative effects and plant-plant interactions (Guo et al., 2017), probably not only by 109 increasing the N level of soil but also by improving microbial communities (Xia et al., 110

2016). Many studies have reported that nitrogen availability largely impacts bacterial 111 and fungal communities (e.g. Fierer et al., 2012; Dietrich et al., 2017; Carrara et al., 112 113 2018; Treseder et al., 2018). Based on a nitrogen fertilization experiment, Yuan et al. (2016) found that Chloroflexi and Bacteroidetes show positive responses to N 114 fertilization, while Acidobacteria and Verrucomicrobia have negative responses. 115 Treseder and Allen (2002) discovered that the fungal community of soil tends to shift 116 from Gigasporaceae under low N availability to Glomeraceae under high N. A few 117 studies have investigated the effects of intra- and inter-specific plant-plant interactions 118 119 on soil bacterial communities at different N levels in grass lands or agroecosystems (Bakker et al., 2013b, 2014; Pivato et al., 2017). For instance, Pivato et al. (2017) 120 showed that the total bacterial abundance in the rhizosphere of some inter-specific 121 122 plant-plant mixtures was significantly higher than that of either plant species in a monoculture at a low nitrogen level in an agroecosystem, whereas the difference 123 disappeared at a high nitrogen level. Thus, their results implied that the impacts of 124 plant-plant interactions on soil bacterial communities largely depend on N levels. 125 However, there is less knowledge of the effects of N availability and plant-plant 126 interactions on soil bacterial and fungal communities in forest ecosystems. 127

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Larch plantations are widely distributed and have a high economic and ecological value across the Northern Hemisphere in areas such as Siberia, north-eastern China and Japan (Agathokleous et al., 2017). The larches *Larix kaempferi* and *L. olgensis* are two important plantation species. *L. kaempferi* grown in isolation has a higher

growth rate, biomass production and N accumulation than does L. olgensis (Li et al., 133 2016; Guo et al., 2017). However, our previous results have suggested that the growth 134 of L. kaempferi is suppressed when grown in a mixed culture with L. olgensis in soil 135 from a L. kaempferi plantation (Guo et al., 2017), which may result from the presence 136 of different soil microbial communities. The present study consists of two parts. 137 Firstly, bulk soil samples were collected from three types of plantations (L. kaempferi 138 monoculture, L. olgensis monoculture and a mixed plantation of these two species). 139 The plantations are characterized by even-aged individuals and there are some 140 141 herbaceous species in low abundance. This setting enables studies on intra- and inter-specific interactions in natural conditions. Secondly, a two-year pot experiment 142 was established, including isolated plants and combinations of two plants under intra-143 144 and inter-specific interactions with and without N fertilization. In the pot experiment, we used soil collected from a mature L. kaempferi monoculture to investigate the 145 effects of plant-plant interactions and N fertilization on soil microbial communities. 146 We aimed to answer the following questions: 1) do different plantations contain 147 specific types of soil bacterial and fungal communities? Based on the pot experiment, 148 2) if the intra- or inter-specific plant interactions of the two studied species were 149 different, would the rhizosphere soil bacterial and fungal communities also differ from 150 each other? 3) If N fertilization differently affects intra- and inter-specific plant 151 interactions, how does the interplay of N fertilization and plant interactions affect 152 rhizosphere soil communities? 153

154 **2. Materials and methods**

156 plantations: L. kaempferi monoculture plantation, L. olgensis monoculture plantation 157 and a mixed-plantation of these two species. In the second part of the study, 158 rhizosphere soil samples were collected from the pot experiment. The pot experiment 159 was conducted outside on an open space at the Qingyuan Experimental Station of 160 Forest Ecology, Institute of Applied Ecology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Liaoning 161 Province, Northeast China (41°51'N, 124°54'E, 560 m above sea level). The mean 162 annual rainfall is 811 mm and the mean annual air temperature varies between 3.9 °C 163 and 5.4 °C. L. kaempferi and L. olgensis plantations are widely distributed in the study 164 165 area.

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167 *2.1. Plantation selection*

The following principles were followed when selecting the three types of plantations: 169 1) similar age, 2) close location, and 3) similar exposure and slope. Eventually, we 170 found only one pure L. kaempferi plantation (about 20 years old, 3.6 ha and 2050 171 stems per ha), one pure L. olgensis plantation (about 20 years old, 4.0 ha and 1750 172 stems per ha) and one mixed plantation (about 24 years old, 6.0 ha and 600 L. 173 kaempferi stems per ha, and 640 L. olgensis stems per ha), about 30 km away from the 174 research station. The two monoculture plantations were adjacent, and the L. olgensis 175 plantation experienced thinning forest management in 2010 according to the 176

description of a local farmer. The mixed plantation was about 400 m away from thetwo monoculture plantations but on another hillside.

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In the center of each plantation, ten plots $(10 \text{ m} \times 10 \text{ m})$ were established. From each plot, ten bulk soil samples (0-10 cm in depth) were collected from ten subplots $(1 \text{ m} \times 1 \text{ m})$ and then mixed to form one composite sample. Finally, ten samples from each plantation were collected. Each bulk soil sample was divided into two equal subsamples: one subsample was used for the analysis of soil properties, while the other subsample was stored at -20 °C for the subsequent DNA extraction. Five subsamples from each plantation were randomly selected for later DNA extraction.

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188 2.2. Pot experiment and sampling

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For the pot experiment, soil was collected from the L. kaempferi plantation near the 190 research station and then homogenized (pH 5.65, C 18.61 g kg⁻¹ and total N 1.82 g 191 kg⁻¹) early October, 2013. One-year old seedlings of L. kaempferi and L. olgensis with 192 approximately the same crown size and height were chosen from a local nursery 193 garden to establish intra- and inter-specific plant interactions. Before planting, all 194 roots were carefully washed with sterile water to remove adhering soil. Two seedlings 195 were planted 10 cm apart from each other into each plastic pot (external diameter and 196 height 56 cm and 33 cm, respectively) late October, 2013. KK refers to two L. 197 kaempferi seedlings in a pot, KO refers to one L. kaempferi and one L. olgensis in a 198

pot, and OO refers to two L. olgensis seedlings in a pot. Each seedling combination 199 included thirty-two pots. In May 2014, sixteen pots were randomly selected from each 200 201 treatment to carry out N fertilization by applying 5.1 g urea (46.3% N). N application was repeated three more times (each time 5.1 g urea), in June 2014, and in May and 202 June 2015. In addition, single L. kaempferi seedlings (K) and single L. olgensis 203 seedlings (O) were planted into pots in late October, 2013, six pots for each species. 204 Similarly, three pots from both K and O were randomly selected to apply urea as 205 above. The combination of results from the plantations and pot experiment will 206 provide a better understanding of the effects of intra- and inter-specific plant 207 interactions on soil bacterial and fungal communities. 208

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210 Double-plant pots were harvested twice, late August, 2014 and early September, 2015.

211 The harvested plants were dried at 70°C for 72h to determine their dry masses.

212 Neighbor effect index (NEI), estimated to measure plant-plant interactions, used the

following formulas (Manea and Leishman, 2011):

214 NEI_{k/kk} =
$$(Y_{k/kk} - Y_k)/(Y_{k/kk} + Y_k)$$
, NEI_{o/oo} = $(Y_{o/oo} - Y_o)/(Y_{o/oo} + Y_o)$,

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$$\text{NEI}_{k/ko} = (Y_{k/ko} - Y_k)/(Y_{k/ko} + Y_k), \text{NEI}_{o/ko} = (Y_{o/ko} - Y_o)/(Y_{o/ko} + Y_o),$$

where NEI_{k/kk} and NEI_{0/00} indicate intra-specific plant interactions for *L. kaempferi* and *L. olgensis*, respectively; NEI_{k/k0} and NEI_{0/k0} indicate inter-specific plant interactions for *L. kaempferi* and *L. olgensis*, respectively. Y_k and Y₀ are the biomass of *L. kaempferi* and *L. olgensis* grown in isolation, respectively. Y_{k/kk} and Y_{0/00} are the biomass of *L. kaempferi* and *L. olgensis* with intra-specific plant interactions, respectively. $Y_{k/ko}$ and $Y_{o/ko}$ are the biomass of *L. kaempferi* and *L. olgensis* with inter-specific plant interactions, respectively. Because the biomass of isolated plants is higher than that of plants exposed to plant-plant interactions (Kozovits et al., 2005; Guo et al., 2017), the NEI values are negative. A more negative NEI value indicates that a plant suffers a more negative impact from its neighbor.

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Soils were sampled following the last harvest. Using a soil corer (4 cm in diameter), 227 soil samples were collected from four pots of KK, KO and OO, as well as from 228 229 corresponding pots with N fertilization. The sampling position was at the center between the two plants in a pot. Then loose soil was removed by careful shaking and 230 the tightly-adhering soil was sampled from root surfaces as rhizosphere soil. 231 232 Rhizosphere soil samples were collected also from the pots of K and O as well as from corresponding pots with N fertilization. The sampling center was 5 cm away 233 from the basal stem. Each soil sample was divided into two equal subsamples: one 234 subsample was used for the analysis of soil properties, while the other subsample was 235 stored at -20 °C for the subsequent DNA extraction. Three subsamples from each 236 treatment were chosen for later DNA extraction. 237

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239 2.3. Determination of soil properties

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Soil pH was determined from soil-water suspensions (1:2.5 v/v). Available
phosphorus (AP) was extracted with sodium bicarbonate and then determined using

the molybdenum blue method (Xiong et al., 2015) Soil organic matter (SOM) was 243 determined using the potassium dichromate external heating method (Ciavatta et al., 244 1991). Total N (TN) was determined by the Kjeldahl method (Buchi K370, 245 Switzerland). Soil NH4⁺ and NO3⁻ were extracted with 1M KCl and the 246 indophenol-blue colorimetric and double wavelength (220 nm and 275 nm) methods 247 (Nie et al., 2018), respectively. Soil microbial biomass carbon (C_{Mic}), nitrogen (N_{Mic}) 248 and phosphorus (P_{Mic}) were determined by the chloroform fumigation extraction 249 method (Yao et al., 2017). For the pot experiment, two-way ANOVAs were applied to 250 251 check the impact of N application and plant-plant interactions on the soil properties.

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253 2.4. DNA extraction and Illumina sequencing

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Genomic DNA was extracted using the Power Soil kit (MO BIO Laboratories, 255 Carlsbad, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. The primers used for 256 the amplification of the V4-V5 hypervariable regions of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene 257 515F (5'-GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTA-3') 909R 258 were and (5'-CCCCGYCAATTCMTTTRAGT-3') (Yao et al., 2017). The primers used for the 259 amplification of the partial ITS region of fungi ITS4: 260 were 5'TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3' 261 and ITS3 KYO2: 5'GATGAAGAACGYAGYRAA-3' (Bokulich and Mills, 2013). The PCR reactions, 262 quality control and purification processes followed the instructions of Yao et al. 263 (2014). A library was constructed and all sequences were generated with the 264

Illumina's MiSeq platform using paired-end reads. All above-mentioned steps were
completed at the Environmental Genome Platform of Chengdu Institute of Biology,
Chinese Academy of Sciences, China.

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269 *2.5. Bioinformatics*

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The paired-end reads of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene and fungal ITS region 271 amplicons were processed using the mothur pipeline (V.1.35.1) (Schloss et al., 2009), 272 273 based on the MiSeq standard operating procedure (Kozich et al., 2013). For quality control, the 16S and ITS sequences that contained ambiguous (N) bases and 274 homopolymers longer than 8 nucleotides were screened out. The remaining sequences 275 276 were pre-clustered to allow for up to 1 bp difference per 100 bp bases to remove potential sequencing errors before the identification of the chimeric sequences using 277 the UCHIME algorithm. The SILVA full length reference sequences (V.128) were 278 used for the alignments of the bacterial 16S rRNA sequences. For the fungal ITS 279 sequence analysis, due to a lack of reference templates for sequence alignment, we 280 trimmed the raw sequences to the same size (300 bp) after the removal of the forward 281 primer sequence. After removing the chimeric sequences, the unique bacterial 16S 282 rRNA gene sequences were classified using the SILVA reference database (V.128), 283 and fungal ITS sequences were classified using the mothur-formatted UNITE ITS 284 reference database (UNITE v6 sh 99) with the default bootstrapping algorithm 285 (cutoff value 80%). All sequences were assigned to operational taxonomic units 286

(OTUs) using the OptiClust clustering algorithm at 97% similarity. Bacterial 16S 287 sequences were assigned to OTUs using classify as the split method, whereas fungal 288 289 ITS sequences were assigned into OTUs using fasta as the split method based on nearest neighbor clustering. Singletons were removed from both bacterial and fungal 290 ITS datasets. For the bacterial OTU dataset, OTUs that were classified as 291 non-bacterial or chloroplast were removed. For the fungal OTU dataset, all non-fungal 292 OTUs were removed. The raw sequencing data were deposited in the NCBI Sequence 293 Read Archive (SRA) database under accession no. SRP125300. 294

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296 2.6. Alpha diversity estimation

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298 The alpha diversity of bacteria and fungi in each sample was rarefied and estimated at the sampling depths of 2873 and 5558, respectively, using the R package phyloseq 299 (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). The normalization of the alpha diversity data was 300 visualized using Q-Q plots. The homogeneity of variances was examined using the 301 Bartlett test. The differences of the means between treatments and their interactions 302 were tested using ANOVA, assuming that the alpha diversity data were normally 303 distributed and the variances were equal among treatment groups. The non-parametric 304 Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test of each single treatment factor was used when the data 305 were not normally distributed or the group variances were heterogeneous. Tukey's 306 multiple comparisons of means were used when the differences between groups were 307 significant. The significance of the differences was concluded at the 95% confidence 308

309 level (P < 0.05).

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311 2.7. Beta diversity estimation

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The relative abundance of each OTU was calculated by dividing its read count by the 313 total read count of the corresponding sample, prior to the beta diversity analysis. 314 Principal coordinate analyses (PCoA) were applied to the relative abundance data to 315 visualize the broad pattern of bacterial and fungal communities between treatment 316 317 groups based on the Bray-Curtis distance, using the R package phyloseq (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). PERMANOVA was used to assess, whether the treatment groups 318 of Species and N fertilization and their interaction resulted in a different bacterial 319 320 community composition with the default 999 permutations. Betadisper was used to test, whether the dispersions of observations between the treatment groups were equal 321 with 999 permutations. PERMANOVA and Betadisper were performed based on the 322 Bray-Curtis distance using the R package Vegan (Oksanen et al., 2007). Pairwise 323 PERMANOVA tests were used when the differences were significant between a priori 324 groups following PERMANOVA tests. Constrained analysis of principle coordinates 325 (CAP) was performed to visualize the significant differences in the community 326 composition between the treatment groups based on the Bray-Curtis distance using the 327 R package phyloseq (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013) with 999 permutations. The 328 significance of the differences was concluded at the 95% confidence level (P < 0.05). 329

333	The linear discriminant analysis effect size LEfSe (Segata et al., 2011) was used to
334	determine the differentially abundant OTUs 1) among treatments without interaction
335	(isolated L. kaempferi and L. olgensis) and with intra-specific and inter-specific
336	interactions, irrespective of the N treatment (Class: Interaction; Subclass: N treatment),
337	and 2) between the N-treated and control pots (Class: N treatment; Subclass:
338	Interaction) in the pot experiment. For the soil sampled from the three plantations,
339	LEfSe was used to explore the OTUs with differential abundance between the
340	different interaction patterns (Class: Interaction).
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351	3. Results
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L. *kaempferi* suffered stronger negative effects from its conspecific neighbor compared to *L. olgensis*, regardless of N fertilization. However, the negative effect declined when *L. kaempferi* was grown with *L. olgensis* under N fertilization. *L. olgensis* suffered less negative effect from *L. kaempferi* when they were grown together (Fig. 1).

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361 *3.2. Changes in soil properties*

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The mixed plantation soil had higher NH_4^+ , C_{Mic} and N_{Mic} contents compared to soil from the two monoculture plantations (Table S1). In the pot experiment, soil pH, SOM and the NO₃- concentration were significantly impacted by N fertilization and plant-plant interactions (Table 1). N fertilization decreased rhizosphere soil pH in each treatment (Table S2). The intra-specific plant interactions of KK showed lower NH_4^+ , C_{Mic} and N_{Mic} compared to KO under N fertilization (Table S2).

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370 *3.3. Taxonomic composition and alpha diversity*

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The bacterial communities of the bulk soil samples from the three plantations and from the pot experiment were dominated by *Protebacteria*, *Acidobacteria* and *Actinobacteria*, whereas the fungal communities were dominated by *Basidiomycota* and *Ascomycota* (Figs. 2 and 3, Supplementary Fig. S1). The abundance of *Basidiomycota* was lower, whereas the abundance of *Ascomycota* became higher in
KO and OO relative to KK, especially under N fertilization in the pot experiment (Fig.
378 3).

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In the bulk soil samples from the three plantations, the average Shannon values of the 380 bacterial and fungal communities were 5.98 and 2.52, respectively, and neither intra-381 nor inter-specific plant interactions had any effects on the bacterial and fungal 382 diversity (P > 0.05, Supplementary Fig. S2). In the rhizosphere soil of single-plant 383 pots, N treatment showed no significant effect on bacterial and fungal diversity 384 (P > 0.05, Figs. 3a and 4a). However, N treatment increased bacterial diversity (P < 0.05, Figs. 3a and 4a). 385 0.001, Fig. 4b) and also fungal diversity in the rhizosphere soil of KO (P < 0.05, Fig. 386 5d). In addition, plant-plant interactions had a significant impact on bacterial diversity 387 (P < 0.001, Fig. 4b). For instance, the rhizosphere soil of KK exhibited a lower 388 bacterial diversity compared to KO (P < 0.001) and OO (P < 0.001). 389

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391 *3.4. Beta diversity*

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The PCoA showed that the plantation soils had distinct compositions of both bacterial and fungal communities (Supplementary Fig. S3), unlike the rhizosphere soils from the pot experiment (Supplementary Fig. S4). Intra- and inter-specific interactions had a significant effect on bacterial and fungal community structures in soil from the three

397	plantations (PERMANOVA, $P < 0.01$, Supplementary Fig. S5). In the rhizosphere soil
398	of double-plant pots, plant-plant interactions and N treatment significantly affected
399	both the bacterial and fungal community composition (Supplementary Figs. S6e-h,
400	PERMANOVA, $P < 0.01$). Pairwise PERMANOVA demonstrated that the structure of
401	both bacterial and fungal communities in the rhizosphere soil of KK was different
402	from those of KO and OO (Supplementary Figs. S6e and f, PERMANOVA, $P < 0.05$).
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404 *3.5. Biomarker discovery*

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We used the LEfSe analysis to discover biomarkers (different abundances of bacterial and fungal taxa) in the plantation and pot experiment soil. From phyla to genera, the three plantations showed their specific influence on bacterial and fungal compositions (Supplementary Fig. S7).

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In the rhizosphere soil of single plants, the abundance of the bacterial orders like 411 Ktedonobacterales and Sphingomonadales and the fungal order Chaetothyriales and 412 the genus Ciliophora decreased, whereas the fungal family Corvnesporascaceae 413 became more prevalent under N fertilization (Fig. 6a and b). In the rhizosphere soil of 414 double-plant pots, N fertilization significantly increased the abundance of the bacterial 415 orders Gemmatimonadales, Xanthomonadales, Propionibacteriales, Methylophilales 416 and JG37-AG-4, whereas the abundance of the phylum Acidobacteria, including the 417 orders Solibacterales, Blastocatellales and Subgroup 6 and the orders Rhodocyclales 418

419	and <i>Rhodospirillales</i> , reduced under N fertilization (Fig. 7a). The abundance of
420	Basidiomycota, such as class Tritirachiomycetes and order Boletales, reduced but that
421	of Ascomycota, such as the order Hypocreales, increased under N fertilization in the
422	double-plant pots (Fig. 7b).
423	
424	In the pot experiment, we also identified the bacterial and fungal taxa responding to
425	species and plant interactions, irrespective of N fertilization (Figs. 6c and d, Fig. 8).
426	The orders Rhodospirillales, Rhizobiales, Acidimicrobiales and Acidobacteriales were
427	more abundant in the rhizosphere soils of K than O (Fig. 6c). Among fungal taxa,
428	Ascomycota preferred the soil of O, whereas Basidiomycota and the order

429 *Rhizophydiales* preferred the soil of K (Fig. 6d).

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In the double-plant pots, the bacterial orders Acidobacteriales and Micrococcales 431 were generally more abundant in the soil of KK, whereas Actinobacteria became 432 more prevalent in the soil of KO (Fig. 8a). The taxa from the phyla Firmicutes, 433 Chloroflexi and Planctomycetes were more frequent in the soil of OO (Fig. 8a). The 434 fungal taxa Basidiomycota were generally more abundant in the rhizosphere soil of 435 KK, whereas fungi from the other dominant phylum Ascomycota were more abundant 436 in the rhizosphere soil of OO (Fig. 8b). In addition, the orders Microascales and 437 Hymenochaetales became more abundant in the rhizosphere soil of KO (Fig. 8b). 438

- 439 **4. Discussion**
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Many plant attributes, such as physiological processes, root exudates and leaf N content largely depend on the identity of a plant's neighbors and on the soil nitrogen content (Broz et al., 2010; Pierik et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2017). It follows that soil microbial communities can be differently impacted depending on, whether plants grow in the absence of neighbors or in the presence of conspecific or heterospecific neighbors in different environments.

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448 *4.1. Different plantations have specific bacterial and fungal communities*

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Different plantations have specific effects on soil chemical properties (Nazaries et al., 450 2015; Suz et al., 2017). For example, a pine plantation was found to decrease soil pH 451 452 and increase the soil nitrate (NO3⁻) content, whereas a birch plantation declined the total carbon and NO₃⁻ contents (Nazaries et al., 2015). Our results also showed that 453 the chemical traits of soil were different among the three studied plantations, 454 particularly in the KK plantation. Differences in the chemical properties of soil largely 455 depend on plantation characteristics, such as litter production and decomposition 456 (Hättenschwiler et al., 2005; Helfrich et al., 2015), nutrient mineralization (Richards 457 et al., 2010) and root exudates (Chen et al., 2014). Guo et al. (2016) have revealed 458 that inter-specific interactions of L. kaempferi and L. olgensis decrease leaf C/N 459 compared to intra-specific plant interactions without N fertilization, which may lead 460 to biochemically heterogeneous plant litter in different types of plantations. 461

It has been shown that functions, compositions or diversities of soil microbe 463 communities closely correlate with soil properties, such as pH, and soil carbon and 464 465 nitrogen contents (Bakker et al., 2013b, 2014; Nazaries et al., 2015; Gunina et al., 2017; Suz et al., 2017). Suz et al. (2017) found that there were no significant 466 differences in root colonization by generalist ectomycorrhizal fungi between mixed 467 and pure plantations but, on average, there were more generalist ectomycorrhizal 468 fungi in mixed plantations, where plants connect with their neighbors through 469 common mycorrhizal networks. In this study, the phylum level abundance and the 470 471 Shannon index of bacterial and fungal communities showed little difference; however, the beta diversity and biomarkers of bacterial and fungal taxa displayed greater 472 dissimilarities, possibly different nutrient translocation or litter decomposition. For 473 474 example, the abundance of Basidiomycota was higher but the abundance of Ascomycota was lower in KO and OO plantations compared with KK. The ability to 475 degrade lignin is mainly conserved in Basidiomycota (Baldrian, 2006). The 476 accumulation of soil organic matter exerts a positive and significant effect on the 477 fungal beta-diversity (Cline and Zak, 2015), thus implying an important role of soil 478 organic matter in shaping fungal communities and in regulating ecosystem carbon 479 dynamics (Cheeke et al., 2017). 480

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482 *4.2. Direct and indirect effects of N fertilization on microbial communities*

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484 Nitrogen addition directly drives changes in bacterial and fungal communities in

different terrestrial ecosystems by increasing N availability (Cox et al., 2010; Fierer et 485 al., 2012; Yuan et al., 2016; Treseder et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2018). Our results found 486 487 a decrease in the abundance of Acidobacteria after N fertilization in the pot experiment. An enhanced soil N availability increased the abundance of copiotrophic 488 bacterial taxa, including Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes, but lowered the proportion 489 of oligotrophic Acidobacteria (Fierer et al., 2012). Similarly, Yuan et al., (2016) have 490 found that Acidobacteria show a negative response to N fertilization. For fungal 491 communities, shifts in the fungal composition have been considered to be the main 492 493 driver of the decomposition response to enhanced N addition (Baldrian, 2006; Cox et al., 2010; Morrison et al., 2016). Cox et al. (2010) have reported that Russula 494 ochroleuca and Thelephora terrestris respond positively to increasing N, whereas 495 496 Pseudotomentella tristis and Piloderma respond negatively to increasing N. In our pot experiment, we discovered a shift from Basidiomycota to Ascomycota under the 497 combined effects of L. olgensis and N fertilization. Changes in bacterial and fungal 498 communities reflect corresponding alterations in functional consequences (Cox et al., 499 2010; Dietrich et al., 2017). 500

501

Nitrogen fertilization affects soil microbial communities also indirectly through changing chemical properties of soil. We found that N fertilization significantly impacted soil pH and soil organic matter, which indirectly control microbial communities (Fierer and Jackson, 2006; Cline and Zak, 2015; Yuan et al., 2016; Carrara et al., 2018). Soil pH is a major driver in shaping soil microbial communities 507 (Constancias et al., 2015; Ochoa-Hueso et al., 2018). For instance, the relative 508 abundances of *Bacteroidetes*, *Planctomycetes* and *Thaumarchaeota* show a positive 509 correlation with soil pH across an agricultural landscape (Constancias et al., 2015). 510 Fierer and Jackson (2006) have suggested that any significant deviation from 511 extracellular pH should impose stress on single-celled organisms and restrict the 512 survival of taxa exposed to pH beyond their optimum.

513

514 *4.3. Effects of plant-plant interactions*

515

Mortimer et al. (2015) have reported fewer significant differences in the chemical 516 properties of soil, whereas the ectomycorrhizal biomass, as well as the biomass of 517 518 Gram-positive, Gram-negative, and actinomycetes bacteria were significantly higher in a mixed plantation than in a monoculture. Our results also demonstrated greater 519 differences in the composition and beta-diversity of soil microbes between 520 monocultures and a mixed-plantation. These results indicated that intra- and 521 inter-specific plant interactions possibly have great impacts on soil bacterial and 522 fungal communities. Our PERMANOVA and LEfse results indicated significant 523 differences between KK and KO as well as KK and OO, with a higher bacterial and 524 fungal diversity in KO compared to KK. At first, we observed a stronger neighbor 525 effect from conspecific species in both species. Available P, total N (under fertilization) 526 and NH4⁺ in the rhizosphere soil of a double-plant L. kaempferi (KK) pot were the 527 lowest among all double-plant pots, implying a higher demand for nutrients and a 528

stronger intra-specific competition than previously suggested by Kunstler et al. (2015). 529 Changes in soil nutrients induced by plant-plant competition contribute to alterations 530 in soil microbes (Fierer et al., 2012; Yuan et al., 2016; Treseder et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 531 2018). Secondly, we observed a weakened neighbor effect caused by L. kaempferi on 532 L. olgensis in the inter-specific plant interactions. There is a general acceptance that 533 soil microbes are important in determining plant-plant interactions in different 534 environments (Hodge and Fitter, 2013; Keymer and Lankau, 2017). L. olgensis has 535 been found to enhance its ability to absorb NO₃⁻ under inter-specific plant interactions 536 (Guo et al., 2018), which may result from the increase in the fungal phylum 537 Ascomycota (Leroy et al., 2017). Finally, we found that after N fertilization, the 538 neighbor effects on both species were less negative in KO, which implied declined 539 540 inter-specific plant competition compared to KK and OO. In the present study, strong combined effects between plant-plant interactions and N fertilization on the 541 rhizosphere soil were observed, particularly on the fungal communities. Both L. 542 olgensis and N fertilization increased the abundance of fungal species belonging to 543 Ascomycota but reduced abundance of Basidiomycota species, and their combined 544 effect even led to a dominance shift from Basidiomycota to Ascomycota and to a 545 higher fungal diversity. The changes in rhizosphere soil microbes were possibly an 546 important reason to drive changes in plant-plant interactions. 547

548

549 *4.4. Negative feedback from L. kaempferi plantation conditioned soil*

In the pot experiment, the soil was selected from a L. kaempferi plantation. Lower 551 bacterial and fungal diversities of KK were probably caused by L. kaempferi 552 553 continuing to prefer its own soil microbial communities, whereas L. olgensis selected different microbes and increased bacterial and fungal diversity particularly under N 554 555 fertilization. Guo et al. (2017) have reported that the L. kaempferi conditioned soil showed negative effects on the growth of L. kaempferi. The more negative neighbor 556 effect of L. kaempferi on its conspecific neighbors also confirmed that. A given plant 557 species alters its biological soil communities and abiotic soil properties that may 558 559 decrease its own growth rate, resulting in a negative feedback (Harrison and Bardegtt, 2010; Hendriks et al., 2015). The introduction of L. olgensis to L. kaempferi 560 conditioned soil greatly changed the composition, abundance and diversity of 561 562 bacterial and fungal communities, particularly under N fertilization. Previously, Van der Putten et al. (2016) have emphasized the role of bacterial and fungal communities 563 in the development of plant-soil feedback under environmental changes through plant 564 species loss or nitrogen enrichment. For example, the negative effects of Chinese fir 565 conditioned soil on Chinese fir is alleviated by an introduced foreign plant species 566 through increasing arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and improving chemical properties of 567 soil (Xia et al., 2016). The above results suggested that an introduced foreign plant 568 species could improve soil conditions by changing microbial communities to alleviate 569 the negative soil feedback. 570

571

572 **5.** Conclusions

Our work demonstrated that intra- and inter-specific plant interactions were 574 differently affected by plant neighbors and N fertilization, and there were distinct 575 changes in soil microbial communities. In turn, the changing soil bacterial and fungal 576 577 communities probably influence plant-plant interactions. Based on the present study, we suggest that L. olgensis and L. kaempferi growing together with N fertilization 578 may be an efficient way to promote the productivity of plantations. The introduced 579 foreign plant species and N fertilization could improve the chemical and biological 580 581 conditions of soil and, consequently, plantation productivity. However, further studies are needed to explore, how soil microbes mediate plant-plant interactions in different 582 ecosystems all around the word. Such knowledge would be crucial for revealing and 583 584 understanding plant-soil-microbe relationships.

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		pН	AP	SOM	TN	$\mathrm{NH_{4}^{+}}$	NO ₃ -	C_{Mic}	N_{Mic}	P_{Mic}
Ν	F	56.674	1.087	10.246	0.173	0.120	0.024	3.358	0.455	1.507
	Р	<0.000	0.305	0.003	0.680	0.732	0.012	0.076	0.505	0.229
Interactions	F	8.297	0.140	26.386	48.904	11.358	7.143	12.470	1.686	0.528
	Р	0.007	0.711	<0.000	<0.000	0.002	0.012	0.001	0.203	0.473
N* Interactions	F	0.002	0.301	0.119	1.460	0.003	0.936	1.103	0.153	0.153
	Р	0.967	0.587	0.732	0.236	0.960	0.341	0.301	0.699	0.698

824 Table 1 Effects of plant-plant interactions and N fertilization on soil properties (two-way ANOVA).

825 AP: available phosphorus, SOM: soil organic matter, TN: total nitrogen, C_{Mic}: soil microbial biomass, N_{Mic}: soil carbon nitrogen biomass and

826 P_{Mic}: soil carbon phosphorus biomass.

Τ		Tree species or in	iteractions	N treatment		
Taxonomy	Experiment	PERMANOVA	Betadisper	PERMANOVA	Betadisper	
Bacteria	Single-plant	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Double-plant	*	***	**	ns	
	KO vs KK	**	ns	ns	ns	
	KK vs OO	**	ns	ns	ns	
	KO vs OO	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Plantations	***	ns	_	-	
	KO vs KK	*	ns	_	_	
	KK vs OO	**	ns	_	_	
	KO vs OO	ns	ns	_	_	
Fungi	Single-plant	*	ns	ns	ns	
	Double-plant	**	ns	***	ns	
	KO vs KK	*	ns	ns	ns	
	KK vs OO	**	ns	ns	ns	
	KO vs OO	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Plantations	***	ns	_	_	
	KO vs KK	**	ns	_	_	
	KK vs OO	**	ns	_	-	
	KO vs OO	**	ns	_	_	

Table 2 Summaries of PERMANOVA tests with 999 permutations based on Bray-Curtis distances.

When a plant was grown in isolation, we analyzed the effect of species, and when grown under intra- or
inter-specific interactions, we analyzed the effect of plant-plant interactions. KK and OO refer to intra-specific
interactions of *Larix kaempferi* and *L. olgensis*, respectively. KO refers to inter-specific interactions of the two
species. In the plantations, KK and OO refer to monoculture plantations of *Larix kaempferi* and *L. olgensis*,
respectively. KO refers to a mixed plantation of the two species.

843 **Figure legends**

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Figure 1 Neighbor effect index (NEI) of L. kaempferi and L. olgensis in different 845 plant-plant interactions. KK and OO refer to L. kaempferi and L. olgensis in 846 intra-specific plant-plant interactions, respectively. K/KO and O/KO refer to L. 847 kaempferi and L. olgensis in inter-specific plant-plant interactions, respectively. N-848 and N+ refer to soil without and with N fertilization, respectively. Negative NEI 849 values indicate that a plant suffers negative impacts from its neighbor. Tukey's HSD 850 851 tests are conducted for multiple comparisons. 852 Figure 2 Taxonomic composition of bacterial communities in the rhizosphere soil at 853 854 the phylum level under N fertilization. (a) Rhizosphere soil sampled from single-plant pots (without plant-plant interactions); (b) rhizosphere soil sampled from pots with 855 two plants, where KK, KO and OO refer to L. kaempferi + L. kaempferi, L. kaempferi 856 + L. olgensis and L. olgensis + L. olgensis, respectively. N- and N+ refer to pots 857

858 without and with N fertilization, respectively. For bacteria, only phyla with relative 859 abundance over 1% are shown.

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Figure 3 Taxonomic composition of fungal communities in the rhizosphere soil at the phylum level under N fertilization. (a) Rhizosphere soil sampled from single-plant pots (without plant-plant interactions); (b) rhizosphere soil sampled from pots with two plants, where KK, KO and OO refer to *L. kaempferi* + *L. kaempferi*, *L. kaempferi*

+ L. olgensis and L. olgensis + L. olgensis, respectively. N- and N+ refer to pots without and with N fertilization, respectively. For fungi, only phyla with relative abundance over 1% are shown.

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Figure 4 Effects of different plant-plant interactions on the alpha diversity (Shannon 869 index) of rhizosphere soil bacteria under N fertilization. (a) Rhizosphere soil sampled 870 from single-plant pots (without plant-plant interactions); (b) rhizosphere soil sampled 871 from pots with two plants (intra- or inter-specific interactions). KK, KO and OO refer 872 to L. kaempferi + L. kaempferi, L. kaempferi + L. olgensis and L. olgensis + L. 873 olgensis, respectively. N- and N+ refer to pots without and with N fertilization in the 874 pot experiment, respectively. Tukey's HSD tests were conducted for multiple 875 876 comparisons.

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Figure 5 Effects of different plant-plant interactions on the alpha diversity (Shannon 878 879 index) of rhizosphere soil fungi under N fertilization. (a) Rhizosphere soil sampled from single-plant pots (without plant-plant competition); (b) rhizosphere soil sampled 880 from pots with two plants (intra- or inter-specific plant interactions). KK, KO and OO 881 refer to L. kaempferi + L. kaempferi, L. kaempferi + L. olgensis and L. olgensis + L. 882 olgensis, respectively. N- and N+ refer to pot experiment without and with N 883 fertilization in the pot experiment, respectively. Tukey's HSD tests were conducted 884 for multiple comparisons. 885

Figure 6 Bacterial (a and c) and fungal (b and d) taxa with different abundance changes in single-plant pots between N-treated (N+) and control (N-) soil, irrespective of plant species (a and b, Class: N treatment; Subclass: Species) and ii) between plant species, irrespective of N treatment (a and b, Class: Species; Subclass: N treatment), as detected by LEfSe analysis. The taxa with the absolute LDA scores over 3 and *P* values less than 0.05 are shown.

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Figure 7 Bacterial (a) and fungal (b) taxa with different abundance changes in two-plant pots between N-treated (N+) and control (N-) soil, irrespective of plant-plant interactions (Class: N treatment; Subclass: Plant-plant interactions), as detected by LEfSe analysis. The taxa with the absolute LDA scores over 3 and Pvalues less than 0.05 are shown.

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Figure 8 Bacterial (a) and fungal (b) taxa with different abundance changes in two-plant pots between intra- and interspecific plant interactions, irrespective of N treatment (Class: Plant-plant interactions, Subclass: N treatment), as detected by LEfSe analysis. The taxa with the absolute LDA scores over 3 and *P* values less than 0.05 are shown. KK, KO and OO refer to plant-plant interactions *L. kaempferi* + *L. kaempferi*, *L. kaempferi* + *L. olgensis* and *L. olgensis* + *L. olgensis*, respectively.

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