

Factors influencing the distribution of woody plants in tropical karst hills, south China

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The seasonal rainforests distributed across the tropical karst hills of south China are of high biodiversity conservation value and serve many important ecosystem functions. However, knowledge surrounding distribution patterns of woody plants in tropical karst hills remains limited. In this study, we surveyed the distribution of families, genera and species of woody flora at four slope positions (depression, lower slope, middle slope, and upper slope), and analyzed the influence of topographic and soil variables on the distribution of woody plants in the tropical karst hills of south China. Forty forest plots (each 20m × 20m) contained 306 species of woody plants with a diameter at breast height (DBH) ≥ 1cm, representing 187 genera and 66 families. As slope increased, the number of families increased slowly, and the number of genera and species followed a concave-shaped trend, with the lowest number of genera and species in the lower slope position. Differences in species composition were significantly stronger between slope positions than within slope positions. The topographic and soil variables explained 22.4% and 19.6%, respectively, of the distribution of woody plants, with slope position, slope degree, soil potassium and soil water content as the most significant variables. The results of generalized linear mixed model analysis showed that total R^2 of fixed effects on variation of woody species richness was 0.498, and rock outcrop rate and soil total phosphorus were the best fitting effects. Our results help to explain the community assembly mechanism and to inform management and protection strategies for species-rich seasonal rainforests in the karst area.

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18 Abstract

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20 biodiversity conservation value and serve many important ecosystem functions. However,
21 knowledge surrounding distribution patterns of woody plants in tropical karst hills remains
22 limited. In this study, we surveyed the distribution of families, genera and species of woody flora
23 at four slope positions (depression, lower slope, middle slope, and upper slope), and analyzed the
24 influence of topographic and soil variables on the distribution of woody plants in the tropical
25 karst hills of south China. Forty forest plots (each 20m × 20m) contained 306 species of woody
26 plants with a diameter at breast height (DBH) ≥ 1cm, representing 187 genera and 66 families.
27 As slope increased, the number of families increased slowly, and the number of genera and
28 species followed a concave-shaped trend, with the lowest number of genera and species in the
29 lower slope position. Differences in species composition were significantly stronger between
30 slope positions than within slope positions. The topographic and soil variables explained 22.4%
31 and 19.6%, respectively, of the distribution of woody plants, with slope position, slope degree,
32 soil potassium and soil water content as the most significant variables. The results of generalized
33 linear mixed model analysis showed that total R² of fixed effects on variation of woody species
34 richness was 0.498, and rock outcrop rate and soil total phosphorus were the best fitting effects.
35 Our results help to explain the community assembly mechanism and to inform management and
36 protection strategies for species-rich seasonal rainforests in the karst area.

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39

40 **Introduction**

41 The distribution of tree species in forests and the influencing mechanisms have always been a
42 central topic in ecology (Du et al., 2017). The species composition and distribution of plant
43 communities are results of the interaction between plant species and their environment, and how
44 environmental variables influence plant communities is often scale-dependent (Siefert et al.,
45 2012). Generally speaking, climate and soil parent material are closely related to distribution
46 patterns of plant communities at a regional scale (e.g., province and country), while the
47 topographic and soil variables play critical roles in determining this pattern at a local scale (e.g.,
48 hill, county, and district) (Fang & Lechowicz, 2006; Jarema et al., 2009; Song et al., 2010). In
49 the mountainous ecosystem, variables such as topography and soil nutrient availability lead to
50 high habitat heterogeneity at different altitudes, resulting in a varied distribution pattern of plant
51 communities along the environmental gradient (Zhang et al., 2013; Birhanu et al., 2021).
52 Currently many of the world's forests are experiencing habitat degradation and biodiversity loss
53 due to increasing pressure from human disturbance and climate change (Guo et al., 2017;
54 Forzieri et al., 2022). Studies on the relationship between forest communities and the
55 environment not only contribute to a broader understanding of tree distribution and community
56 assembly, but they also guide restoration and reconstruction efforts in degraded forest
57 ecosystems (Rahman et al., 2021).

58 Karst is a distinctive topography formed when rainfall and groundwater act on carbonate
59 bedrock, such as limestone or dolomite (Jiang, Lian & Qin, 2014). Globally, karst area occupies
60 about 15% (approximately 22 million km²) of all land area (Chen et al., 2020). China has the
61 largest karst area of any country in the world, with a total area of 3.443 million km². The karst
62 area in southwest China is one of the largest contiguous karst areas in the world. The provinces
63 of Guangxi, Guizhou and Yunnan have the highest concentrations of karst landforms (Guo et al.,
64 2013), with the karst area of Guangxi covering 41.57% (98,700 km²) of this province (Li et al.,
65 2022). The karst ecosystem is unique for its sparsely and unevenly distributed soils (usually
66 alkaline), weak water retention capacity and low threshold for resisting external disturbance. In
67 terms of appearance, the karst area has a varied terrain where peaks gather into clusters shaped
68 like cones or towers, and where the round or oval depressions that form inside the peak-clusters
69 are closed. This landform creates highly heterogeneous terrains and an abundance of
70 microhabitats that allow different plant species to selectively utilize different spaces. This leads
71 to the highly diverse communities and abundance of endemic species found in karst hills
72 (Waltham, 2008; Zhang et al., 2013; Du et al., 2017).

73 The seasonal rainforests of south China, known for their highly diverse flora, are one of the
74 representative forest types in the tropical karst area. Nonggang National Nature Reserve (NNNR)
75 in Guangxi province is a large-area karst seasonal rainforest with a complex community structure
76 and an abundance of endemic species. It is home to one of the 14 key biodiversity hotspot areas
77 in China (Huang et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014). Earlier studies have completed a primary
78 investigation of taxonomic diversity among the plant communities in NNNR (Liang et al., 1982;
79 Liang et al., 1985). Other studies have analyzed the structure and dynamics of the tree population

80 (Lv et al., 2004) and the restoration dynamics of the karst vegetation (Deng et al., 2004). Since a
81 forest monitoring plot (500m × 300m) was established in NNNR in 2011, the studies on karst
82 seasonal rainforests have turned to focus on spatial distribution patterns of plant communities
83 (Wang et al., 2014), species diversity patterns (Guo et al., 2018), litter dynamics (Guo et al.,
84 2020), and tree mortality patterns (Guo et al., 2021) at a 15-ha plot scale. These studies have
85 enhanced our understanding of the structure and dynamics of karst forests in the NNNR.

86 Although species associations with topography and soil factors at local scales have been
87 reported in tropical forests (Webb & Peart, 2000; John et al., 2007), the current understanding of
88 how environmental variables affect the plant distribution in heterogeneous karst hills is still
89 limited (Geekiyana et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2021). Vegetation is likely to be governed by
90 various environmental variables, and any variations in species composition are often linked to
91 various environmental gradients (Toure & Ge, 2014). As a key topographic variable, slope
92 position can affect microclimate, soil properties, species composition, and even ecosystem
93 function (Zeng et al., 2014; Dearborn, Danby & Kikvidze, 2016). In the karst hills, soil depth and
94 water availability strongly decrease from the depression towards the upper slope (Zhang et al.,
95 2021). Compared with the non-karst region, the unique two-dimensional hydrological structure
96 of the karst area can lead to serious loss of surface soil and water (Geekiyana et al., 2019),
97 which may cause the vegetation to experience geological drought and may lead to great
98 differences in the availability of resources at different slope positions on the hill. Previous
99 studies have shown that slope position can also affect the physicochemical characteristics of soil
100 in karst hills (Liu et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019). Moreover, the hydraulic
101 characteristics and differences in the stomatal regulation of water content among different plant
102 species in karst hills are closely related to changes in slope position (Zhang et al., 2020).
103 Therefore, the distinctive hydrological process formed by the peak-cluster depressions creates
104 high heterogeneity in environmental variables, such as soil water and nutrition, at different slope
105 positions. This heterogeneity may underlie the spatial distribution of plant communities in karst
106 hills at a local scale.

107 Perturbation of any one of the variables within the highly complex and interactive karst system
108 is likely to upend the others (Toure & Ge, 2014). This makes it obvious to tell that soil and
109 topographic properties are interrelated in their association with plant species, but defining this
110 association and to what degree it exists is a challenge. Therefore, uncovering the relationships of
111 these effects with the plant species will allow for researchers to better predict species' responses
112 to changes in environmental variables in the karst ecosystem. In this study, we observed woody
113 flora and determined environmental variables at four slope positions (depression, lower slope,
114 middle slope and upper slope) in the karst hills in NNNR. The objectives of this study were (1)
115 to investigate the distribution pattern of woody flora in the tropical karst seasonal rainforest at
116 different slope positions; and (2) to identify the effect of environmental variables (topography
117 and soil) and geographic distance on the distribution of woody plants in the tropical karst hills in
118 NNNR. We hypothesized that complex plant community distributions in the heterogeneous karst
119 habitat are directly influenced by topographic and soil variables, among others. The information

120 learned in this study will guide plant conservation and ecological restoration in future efforts in
121 tropical karst areas.

122

123 **Materials & Methods**

124 **Study Area**

125 The study site was located in the NNNR (22°13'56"-22°39'09"N, 106°42'28"-107°04'54"E) in
126 the southwest of the Guangxi province of south China, which also borders Vietnam (Fig. 1). The
127 total area of the reserve was 10,077 ha. The landform is typified by typical karst peak-cluster
128 depression landscapes with elevation ranging from 118.2- 680.1 m, and the average relative
129 height difference between the depression and the peak was about 350m. The study area had a
130 tropical monsoon climate with annual precipitation ranging from 1,200-1,500 mm and a
131 maximum precipitation of 2,043 mm. The annual average temperature was 22 °C, and the annual
132 accumulated temperature was 7400-7800 °C. The soil was characterized as brown calcareous soil
133 with abundant Ca, low water storage capacity and relatively high pH (Bai et al., 2019). There
134 were a total of 1,752 species of vascular plants, from 810 genera and 184 families, in NNNR.
135 This composition included 39 Chinese endemic fern plant species, 101 Guangxi endemic seed
136 plant species, 278 species of karst endemic plants, 33 species of rare and endangered plants and
137 73 species of key protected wild plants of Guangxi (Huang et al., 2013). The representative
138 vegetation was tropical karst seasonal rainforest, which included rare and endangered plants such
139 as *Excentrodendron tonkinense*, *Deutzianthus tonkinensis*, *Caryota obtusa*, *Garcinia*
140 *paucinervis*, and *Cephalomappa sinensis*. This tropical karst seasonal rainforest was home to 28
141 species of nationally-protected animals including *Trachypithecus francoisi*, *Trachypithecus*
142 *poliocephalus*, and *Moschus berezovskii*.

143 **Plot Survey**

144 The karst hills are often extremely steep with extensive carbonate rock outcrops. Thus, it is very
145 difficult to investigate forest communities in NNNR. We selected four slope positions
146 (depression, lower slope, middle slope, and upper slope) in which to establish forest plots (each
147 20m × 20m) based on the changes in hill height on four hills spaced at intervals of more than
148 800m apart (Fig. 1). Ten plots were established at each slope position with intervals of at least
149 30m (most > 100m) from one plot to the next on the same hill. The large intervals between each
150 plot helped to avoid spatial autocorrelation effects (Moradi, Attar, & Oldeland, 2017). A total of
151 40 plots were established in the study area. Each was divided into four 10m × 10m subplots for
152 the survey. All woody plants with a diameter at breast height (DBH) ≥ 1cm in were tagged,
153 measured and identified to species. At the same time, environmental variables, including
154 elevation, slope aspect, and rock outcrop rate, were recorded for each plot. The slope degree and
155 rock outcrop rate were estimated by visual inspection, while the others, elevation, longitude and
156 latitude, were measured in the center of the plot using GPS receivers (GPSMAP60CSx, Garmin
157 China Shanghai Co., Ltd., China). For more details about the plots see Table S1.

158 **Soil Sampling and Analysis**

159 Soil samples from 0-20cm in depth were collected from each plot according to the five-spot-
160 sampling method, where four samples are collected at the corners and one in the center of the
161 plot, and then the five samples are uniformly mixed to form one sample (Li et al., 2021). These
162 soil samples were then air-dried and filtered (2-mm sieve) in the laboratory before the analysis of
163 chemical properties could begin. Soil pH was determined via potentiometry; soil organic matter
164 (SOM) was measured according to a method of potassium dichromate oxidation-outer heating;
165 soil total nitrogen (STN) was measured using the micro-Kjeldahl method; soil total phosphorus
166 (STP) was measured via NaOH fusion and the Mo-Sb colorimetric method; soil total potassium
167 (STK) was measured via NaOH fusion and flame photometry; soil exchangeable calcium (SECa)
168 was extracted with DTPA and measured using atomic absorption spectrometry. Soil water
169 content (SWC) was measured in the field using a soil multi-parameter monitoring system (WET-
170 2, Delta-T Devices Ltd, United Kingdom).

171 **Data Analysis**

172 The family, genus and species name of the woody plants were checked using the R package
173 “plantlist” (Zhang, 2017). To determine the dominant species of each plot across the four slope
174 positions, relative and absolute frequency, density, and dominance of each species were
175 calculated. From the relative metrics, the importance value index was calculated for each species
176 (IVI), genus (GVI) and family (FIV). IVI, GVI and FIV were calculated as follows: IVI =
177 (relative density of species + relative frequency of species + relative dominance of species)/3;
178 GVI = (relative diversity of genus + relative density of genus + relative dominance of genus)/3;
179 and FIV = (relative diversity of family + relative density of family + relative dominance of
180 family)/3 (Jiménez-Paz et al., 2021).

181 ANOSIM (analysis of similarities) was used to check for significant differences in species
182 composition between different slope positions (Clarke, 1993; Warton & Wright, 2012).

183 ANOSIM was calculated using a matrix of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity based on data of woody
184 species abundance, and was performed in the “vegan” package in R 4.0.3. A *P*-value with a
185 significance level of $P < 0.05$ was obtained using a permutation test (999 randomizations) and was
186 checked by FDR (false discovery rate). The calculation formula was as follows:

$$187 \quad R = \frac{r_b - r_w}{0.25[n(n-1)]}$$

188 Where r_b represents mean rank of dissimilarities between different slope positions; r_w
189 represents mean rank of dissimilarities within slope positions; n represents the number of plots; R
190 represents community similarity with a range from -1 to 1, a greater R indicates a stronger
191 difference between slope positions, $R > 0$ means that the difference was stronger between slope
192 positions than within slope positions, and vice versa.

193 The spatial autocorrelation of environmental variables in each plot was checked by using the
194 “ape” package, and any significant autocorrelation (Moran’s $I = 0.057-0.332$, $p < 0.05$) was not
195 founded. In our study, detrended canonical correspondence analysis (DCCA) was used to
196 evaluate the effects of the environmental variables on the distribution of woody plants. DCCA
197 method can avoid the potential arch effect of canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) and can
198 illustrate the relationship between vegetation characteristics and environment variables more

199 obviously than an ordination diagram alone (Qiu & Zhang, 2000; He et al., 2019). The
200 vegetation data matrix consisted of species abundance in each plot. The environmental data
201 matrix consisted of eleven environmental variables, including four topography variables (slope
202 position, slope degree, slope aspect, and rock outcrop rate) and eleven soil variables (soil pH,
203 SOM, STN, STP, STK, SECa, and SWC). Species with a weight value greater than 30% (i.e.
204 species with relative abundance over 30% in each plot) were selected for plotting on the DCCA
205 ordination diagram. A Monte Carlo permutation test (999 randomizations) was performed to
206 determine the significance of the eigenvalues. For slope position, type variables 1, 2, 3 and 4
207 were used to indicate depression, lower slope, middle slope and upper slope, respectively (Qiu &
208 Zhang, 2000; Yu et al., 2013). For the slope aspect, an azimuth angle within 0-360° was
209 transformed into a TRASP (transformation of aspect) index. The method of calculating the
210 TRASP index is attributed to Yu et al. (2013). DCCA ordination was carried out using Canoco
211 5.0 software (ter Braak & Šmilauer, 2012).

212 Variance partitioning analysis (VPA) was performed on the environmental variables
213 (topography and soil) and geographic distance to determine the proportion of different types of
214 variables explaining the variation in plant communities. The geographic distance was determined
215 using latitudinal and longitudinal coordinates of each plot, and principal coordinates of neighbor
216 matrices (PCNM) were used as the geographic distance explanatory variable (Borcard &
217 Legendre, 2002). The above analysis was carried out using the “vegan” package.

218 There were random factors among plant communities at different slope positions, so the
219 generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) was used to analyze the driving factors of species
220 richness. Firstly, the Spearman correlation analysis was tested for exploring collinearity between
221 variables, and the results showed that the correlation coefficient between variables was small
222 (Table S6), so the selected variables were retained for subsequent analysis. Secondly, the
223 residual normality and homogeneity of variables was tested, and the dispersion of the dependent
224 variable (i.e., species richness) was tested so the appropriate regression model could be selected.
225 Finally, the stepwise regression method was used to select the best fitting model based on the
226 AIC values. In GLMM, the fixed effects (i.e., independent variables) were the environmental
227 variables. The relationship between the independent and dependent variables differed based on
228 the type of plot, which may be one of the reasons why the residuals were not homogeneous.
229 Thus, the type of plot was used as a random factor and fitted to a random intercept in the model.
230 The dependent variable was overdispersed, so a negative binomial regression was chosen in
231 GLMM (Ver Hoef & Boveng, 2007). The GLMM was performed in the “lmerTest” package. In
232 addition, the total R^2 of the GLMM was calculated using the “MuMIn” package, and the
233 interpretation rate (i.e. R^2) of each independent variable was calculated using the “glmm.hp”
234 package (Lai et al., 2002). The association between fixed effects and species richness was
235 presented with forest plots, which were created using the “ggforestplot” package.

236 The differences in the number of families, genera and species for woody species and the
237 environmental variables between different slope positions were analyzed statistically by one-way
238 analysis of variance (ANOVA). If the data showed homogeneity of variance, Tukey's HSD test

239 was used for multiple comparisons; if the variance was unequal, Games-Howell test was used for
240 analysis. The above analysis was performed in SPSS 26.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL).

241

242 **Results**

243 **Distribution of Woody Flora at Different Slope Positions**

244 Three hundred and six species of woody plants with $DBH \geq 1$ cm from 187 genera and 66
245 families were recorded in the plots. In the depression there were 122 species from 98 genera and
246 41 families. In the lower slope there were 105 species from 83 genera and 43 families. In the
247 middle slope there were 122 species from 87 genera and 43 families. In the upper slope there
248 were 149 species from 112 genera and 50 families (Fig. 2). The number of families, genera and
249 species varied significantly with the gradient of slope position (Fig. 2). As slope position
250 increased, the number of families increased slowly, and the number of genera and species
251 followed a concave-shaped trend, with the lowest number of genera and species in the lower
252 slope (Fig. 2). Euphorbiaceae, Moraceae, Fabaceae, Rubiaceae and Phyllanthaceae were the most
253 species-rich families, and *Ficus*, *Diospyros*, *Mallotus*, *Litsea* and *Tarenna* were the most species-
254 rich genera in the plots (Table S2-4). The dominant families at all four slope positions were
255 Euphorbiaceae, Phyllanthaceae, Malvaceae and Fabaceae. The slope positions did not share the
256 same dominant genera and species (Table S2-4). The sum of the IVs of the top ten families,
257 genera and species showed a single-peaked curve along the gradient of increasing slope position,
258 and the peak and minimum values appeared in the lower slope and upper slope, respectively
259 (Table S2-4).

260 The ANOSIM results showed that the between group was higher than the other groups,
261 meaning that the differences were stronger between slope positions than within slope positions,
262 and they were significant too ($P=0.001$) (Fig. S1). The woody species varied greatly between
263 slope positions, with the largest difference between the middle slope and the depression
264 ($R=0.881$), then between the upper slope and the depression ($R=0.878$), and the slightest
265 difference was between the middle slope and the lower slope ($R=0.402$). The differences
266 between different slope positions were significant ($P=0.001$) (Table 1).

267 **The Effect of Environment Variables on Distribution of Woody Plants**

268 The Monte Carlo test showed that all ordination axes were significant ($P=0.001$), which meant
269 that the correlations were also significant. The eigenvalues of the first and second axes were
270 0.717 and 0.354, respectively. The coefficients describing the species-environment correlations
271 were 0.978 and 0.954. The first two axes in the DCCA ordination explained 33.59% of the
272 variation in the relationship between the distribution of woody plants and the environmental
273 variables (Table 2).

274 The ordination diagram showed an obvious tendency of plots to transition from one slope
275 position to the next. Along the first axis, from right to left, the plots changed from the depression
276 to upper slope (Fig. 3). The first axis was highly positively correlated with SWC, STK and STP,
277 but highly negatively correlated with SP, SD, ROR, SECa and SOM; the second axis showed a
278 strong positive association with STP, STN and SECa (Table 2). As shown in Fig. 4, *Leea indica*,

279 *Litsea variabilis* var. *oblonga*, *Deutzianthus tonkinensis*, *Ficus hispida*, *Ardisia thyrsoiflora* and
280 *Sterculia monosperma* were located on the far left of the ordination diagram, which indicates that
281 these species adapted to habitats with high values of SWC, STK and STP. *Vitex kwangsiensis*,
282 *Streblus tonkinensis*, *Orophea polycarpa*, *Hydnocarpus hainanensis*, *Cleistanthus sumatranus*
283 and *Excentrodendron tonkinense* were located in the middle of the diagram, meaning that they
284 adapted to habitats with relatively moderate water conditions and levels of soil nutrients. Other
285 species, such as *Decaspermum gracilentum*, *Memecylon scutellatum*, *Diospyros siderophylla*,
286 *Diospyros eriantha*, *Psydrax dicocca* and *Boniiodendron minus*, were located on the right side of
287 the ordination diagram, indicating that these species adapted to habitats with high values of soil
288 pH, STN, SECa, SOM, ROR and SD.

289 The explanatory power of different environment variables on species distribution was
290 quantitatively analyzed. The topographic variables explained 22.4% ($P=0.001$) of the species
291 distribution, including 8.6% of variation caused by purely topographic variables (Fig. 5). The
292 soil variables explained 19.6% ($P=0.001$), including 4.3% of variation caused by purely soil
293 variables. The geographic distance explained 8.4% of species composition, but did not have
294 significant effect ($P=0.284$). The environmental variables and geographic distance explained
295 33.8% of the variation, and topographic and soil variables jointly explained 22.5% of the
296 distribution of woody plants. The unexplained portion accounted for 66.2% (Fig. 5).

297 According to the results of GLMM, the total R^2 of fixed effects on the variation in woody
298 species richness was 0.498, and soil total phosphorus had the strongest interpretation rate
299 ($R^2=0.185$) and was significantly negatively correlated with species richness (Table 3, Fig. 6). In
300 addition, soil total potassium ($R^2=0.083$), rock outcrop rate ($R^2=0.078$), and slope position
301 ($R^2=0.068$) had strong explanatory power for species richness (Table 3). The best-fitting model
302 included rock outcrop rate and soil total phosphorus (Table 4), and the other variables of soil
303 total potassium, soil exchangeable calcium, and slope position also were deemed to have strong
304 fitting effects on species richness (Table 3).

305

306 Discussion

307 This study counted 306 species (from 66 families and 187 genera) of woody plants in 40 small-
308 size plots (each 0.04ha) established at four slope positions in the tropical karst hills in NNNR.
309 Surprisingly, the species number in our study was more than that of the number of woody
310 species from a survey in a 15-ha -size plot (500m × 300m) (223 species belong to 56 families
311 and 157 genera) of the same kind of forest as is in NNNR (Wang et al., 2014). This indicates that
312 forest inventories based on many small plots scattered over heterogenous habitats in tropical
313 karst hills may encompass greater woody species diversity than would a survey in fewer, larger
314 plots because the multiple small plots may cover a greater range of environmental gradients in
315 karst habitats, including patches of rare habitat or areas containing locally rare species.

316 It is well known that the distribution of floristic composition in the mountains is affected by
317 hydrothermal conditions along the elevation gradient (Zhang, Hu & Ni, 2013). Although the
318 elevation of peak-cluster depressions in the karst hills was relatively low (most were under

319 600m), there was strong topographical differentiation in soil and water availability along the
320 hillslope (Zhang et al., 2011; Chuyong et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020). In this study, topographic
321 and soil variables varied greatly at different slope positions (Table S5). Correlation analysis
322 indicated that species richness was significantly negatively correlated with soil total potassium
323 and total phosphorus, and significantly positively correlated with slope position (Table S6).
324 Further analysis by GLMM showed that soil total phosphorus had the strongest explanatory
325 power for species variation, while soil total phosphorus and rock outcrop rate were the best
326 fitting effects for species richness (Table 3; Table 4). Thus, soil total potassium, total
327 phosphorus, slope position and rock outcrop rate were main factors driving the variation in
328 woody species richness. Karst hills are usually shaped like towers and cones (see Fig. 1), so
329 areas in the upper slope are narrow, but they contain various microhabitats (rock cliff, stony
330 gully and soil surface, etc.) that offer living spaces for a variety of plants differing in their habitat
331 preferences (Zhang et al., 2013). Moreover, some species, such as *Viburnum triplinerve*, *Walsura*
332 *robusta*, *Tirpitzia sinensis*, *Diospyros saxatilis*, and *Pistacia weinmanniifolia*, are exclusively
333 distributed in the upper slope, where the habitats are arid, highly alkaline, and the soil layers are
334 thin (Geekiyange et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2021). This concentration of a variety of conditions
335 augments species richness in this upper slope position (Guo et al., 2017). Huang et al. (2016)
336 thought that almost no species can have an absolute advantage in a community based in the
337 fragile habitats of the upper slope. This may help explain how a greater number of species are
338 able to co-exist. Soil erosion due to strong precipitation in the rainy season leads to vertical
339 heterogeneity in soil thickness, where soil moves downward along the slope over time (Peng &
340 Wang, 2012). Therefore, the deep and moist soil available in karst depression areas may allow
341 for the growth of more plants. The lower slope stands on the edge of the depression, so it usually
342 also has good soil nutrient and water conditions. The woody flora *Excentrodendron tonkinense*
343 and *Cephalomappa sinensis* absolutely dominate the lower slope (Xiang et al., 2013; Wang et al.,
344 2014), so the area has a relatively low woody flora species richness. Compared with other slope
345 positions, the middle slope is steeper and poorer in soil nutrient and water availability. A few tree
346 species with strong adaptability, such as *Cleistanthus sumatranus*, dominate the middle slope
347 (Wang et al., 2014). In this study, the content of soil total potassium, total phosphorus and water
348 were significantly higher in the depression than in the middle and upper slope (Table S5).
349 Phosphorus plays an important role in maintaining the growth and metabolism of plants (Zeng et
350 al., 2016), so high soil total phosphorus content is conducive to the growth of plants. However,
351 soil total phosphorus became a limiting factor of species richness in this study. The high soil
352 Ca^{2+} content, pH value and water content in karst areas may have enhanced soil phosphorus
353 fixation, thereby forming as insoluble apatite that reduced the availability of phosphorus (Tan et
354 al., 2019). Meanwhile, excessive soil potassium content can reduce the biomass of fine roots
355 (Wright et al., 2011), so potassium is typically the main limiting nutrient for karst plants. Soil
356 total potassium was concentrated at low slope positions due to the eluviation and plant
357 accumulation effects, resulting in the damage of woody plants and the reduction of species
358 richness. This is consistent with the conclusion that plant species richness is higher when soil

359 nutrients like phosphorus and potassium are at medium or low levels (Plots et al., 2002). On the
360 middle slope, the level of woody flora species richness is between that of the lower slope and the
361 upper slope. The distinctive habitat conditions of different slope positions underscores the habitat
362 specificity of plant species (Chuyong et al., 2011). Therefore, different slope positions in the
363 topical karst hills of NNNR greatly differ in their composition of woody species.

364 Topography is commonly correlated with important environmental variables, especially the
365 groundwater regime and the soil physical and chemical properties, which impact soil conditions
366 that in turn have varied effects on vegetation distribution (Toure & Ge, 2014). Moreover, slope
367 position impacts the microenvironment by changing climatic factors (i.e. light and temperature),
368 the distribution and availability of both soil nutrients and water content through gravity and
369 hydraulic power, and the spatial pattern and diversity of vegetation in mountain areas (Seibert J,
370 Stendahl & Sørensen, 2007; Du et al., 2015). Our results suggest that topography and soil
371 attributes are the most important factors affecting the distribution pattern of woody species. The
372 depression in karst hills has high soil water content (Fig. 3) and a relatively shorter solarization
373 time. Previous studies have shown that shade-tolerant and moisture-loving plants dominate in the
374 depression (Wang et al., 2014). Species such as *Ficus hispida*, *Leea indica* and *Deutzianthus*
375 *tonkinensis* were the most common in the depression (Table S3). The upper slope has a
376 desiccative environment with low soil water content and strong sunlight, so woody plants suffer
377 strong stresses there. Thus, drought-tolerant and sun-loving plants, such as *Tirpitzia sinensis*,
378 *Boniodendron minus* and *Diospyros siderophylla*, were common in the upper slope (Table S3).
379 The woody species with different habitat preferences were distributed across slope positions
380 according to the soil water content, which decreased as the hill elevation increased in our study
381 (Table S5). Zhang et al. (2020) found that plant leaves in karst areas showed higher drought
382 resistance as elevation increased. Our results also demonstrate a transition in species as slope
383 position increases in tropical karst hills in the NNNR from shade-tolerant and moisture-loving to
384 drought-tolerant and sun-loving. The result of DCCA showed that topographic and soil variables
385 had significant effects on vegetation distribution, where different types of woody plant species
386 were distributed at different slope positions. This supports our hypothesis that complex plant
387 communities are shaped by environmental variables that influence the distribution of plant
388 species.

389 Our results from VPA show that the coordination between the topographic and soil variables
390 significantly positively affected the distribution of woody plants (Fig. 5). In this study, the soil
391 variables of soil water content, total potassium and total phosphorus correlated negatively with
392 topography variables, such as slope position, slope degree and rock outcrop rate, while the soil
393 variables of soil pH, soil exchangeable calcium, total nitrogen and organic matter associated
394 positively with the topographic variables (Fig. 3, Fig. 4). Therefore, the topographic variables
395 often influence vegetation distribution by affecting both soil nutrients and water content (Zhang,
396 Hu & Ni, 2013). Slope position, slope degree, soil water content and total potassium correlated
397 strongly with the first axis of DCCA. This indicates that they were the main driving factors for
398 woody plant composition (Fig. 4). Further, soil total phosphorus, exchangeable calcium, total

399 nitrogen and organic matter were also shown to be strong drivers of plant distribution (Table 2).
400 Du et al. (2015; 2017) found that the elevation, slope degree, slope aspect, slope position, rock
401 outcrop rate, soil organic matter, total phosphorus, available nitrogen and available phosphorus
402 significantly influenced variation in species composition in an evergreen and deciduous broad-
403 leaved mixed forest in a subtropical karst area of southwest China. Similarly, Zhang, Hu & Ni
404 (2013) also reported that the major factors affecting vegetation distribution in subtropical karst
405 forests of southwest China were elevation, slope degree, rock outcrop rate, soil total nitrogen,
406 total phosphorus, total potassium. Soil has a direct effect on plant distribution, and topography
407 often affects plant distribution by indirectly affecting soil conditions (Du et al., 2015). For
408 example, the higher rock outcrop rate at high slope positions leads to a higher content of soil
409 exchangeable calcium, which in turn promotes the growth of calcium-loving plants, such as
410 *Excentrodendron tonkinense*, *Garcinia paucinervis*, and *Cinnamomum saxatile*. These species
411 are karst endemic plants, and they were mainly concentrated in the high slope positions in the
412 karst hills (Guo et al., 2017). Our results demonstrate that the topographic (i.e. slope position,
413 rock outcrop rate, slope degree and slope aspect) and the soil variables (i.e. soil total potassium,
414 total phosphorus exchangeable calcium and total nitrogen) are the main factors influencing the
415 vegetation distribution in tropical karst forests in NNNR.

416 The explanatory power of environmental variables on vegetation variation is determined by
417 the complexity of vegetation. The more complex the vegetation, the lower the explanatory power
418 of environmental variables (Du et al., 2015; Shen & Zhang, 2000). In this study, environmental
419 variables explained 22.5% of the distribution of woody plants in a tropical karst area. Shen &
420 Zhang (2000) found that environmental variables explained 22.25% of the spatial pattern of the
421 evergreen broad-leaved forest at Dalaoling in the Three Gorges, while Zhang et al. (2012) found
422 that environmental variables explained 70.7% of the variation of *Stipa breviflora* communities in
423 the Inner Mongolian region. These studies suggest that the explanatory power of environmental
424 variables on plant communities increases from forest to desert steppe habitats, as the complexity
425 of vegetation is reduced. Our study demonstrates that the ability of environmental variables to
426 explain the distribution of plant communities in a tropical seasonal rainforest of south China was
427 relatively lower (22.5%) than in the results from Zhang, Hu & Ni (2013) (51.06%) and Du et al.
428 (2015) (53.3%), where the study areas were located in an evergreen and deciduous broad-leaved
429 mixed forest in a subtropical karst area of southwest China. Ou et al. (2014) also reported a
430 relatively low explanatory power (46.38%) in a subtropical karst species-rich forest. The
431 unexplained part of environmental variables in this study may be related to human disturbance,
432 biological interactions or other factors, such as dispersal limitation (Song, Liu & Liu, 2009;
433 Zhang et al., 2013; Du et al., 2015).

434

435 **Conclusions**

436 Across 40 plots in the tropical karst hills, 306 species from 187 genera and 66 families of woody
437 plants were found, with the lowest number of species in the lower slope and the largest number
438 of species in the upper slope. The habitat of the upper slope was severe and plants situated there

439 were subject to strong habitat stress, so conservation efforts in tropical karst forest should
440 account for this stress when dealing with the entire plant community. The environmental
441 variables of soil total potassium, total phosphorus, slope position and rock outcrop rate were the
442 main factors driving the variation in woody species richness. The species composition varied
443 greatly along the environmental gradient, with the differences in species composition stronger
444 between slope positions than within slope positions. The environmental variables of slope
445 position, slope degree, soil water content and total potassium significantly influenced the spatial
446 distribution of woody plants. The topographic and soil variables had significantly effects on
447 woody plant distribution and explained 22.4% and 19.6%, respectively, while the geographic
448 distance explained 8.4% of the variation and did not have significant influence on woody plant
449 distribution. The environmental variables varied along the hillside, promoting the niche
450 differentiation of plants and causing significant differences in woody plant composition between
451 slope positions. Therefore, we suggest that different vegetation restoration measures should be
452 taken at different slope positions to best promote the growth of plants depending on the local
453 topographic and soil nutrient conditions. Our findings are noteworthy for the development of
454 sustainable management policies for conservation and restoration in the tropical karst area.

455

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Figure 1

Figure 1. Location of Nonggang National Nature Reserve and karst peak-cluster depression landscape.

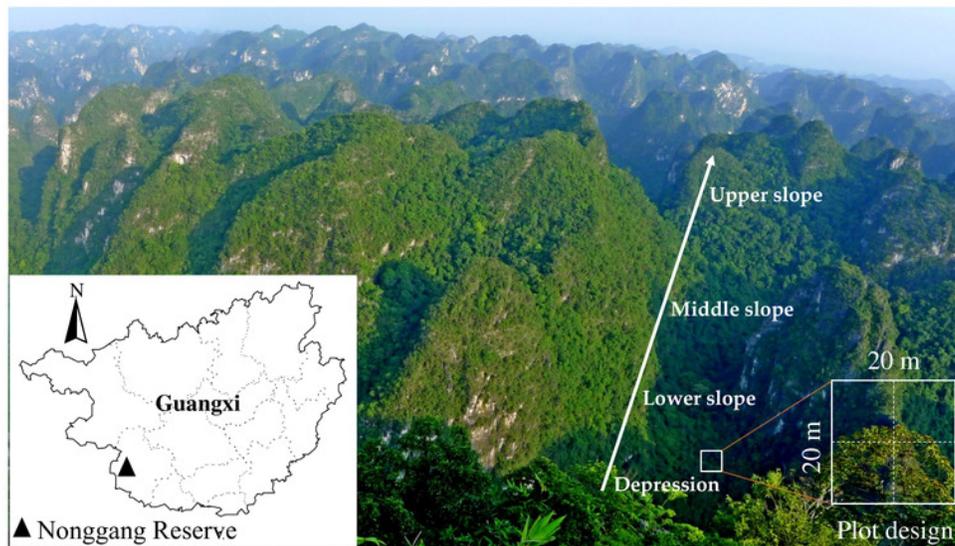


Figure 2

Figure 2. The number of families, genera, and species at different slope positions.

Different lowercase letters indicate significant difference between different slope positions ($P < 0.05$). Error bar indicates Mean \pm Standard deviation (SD).

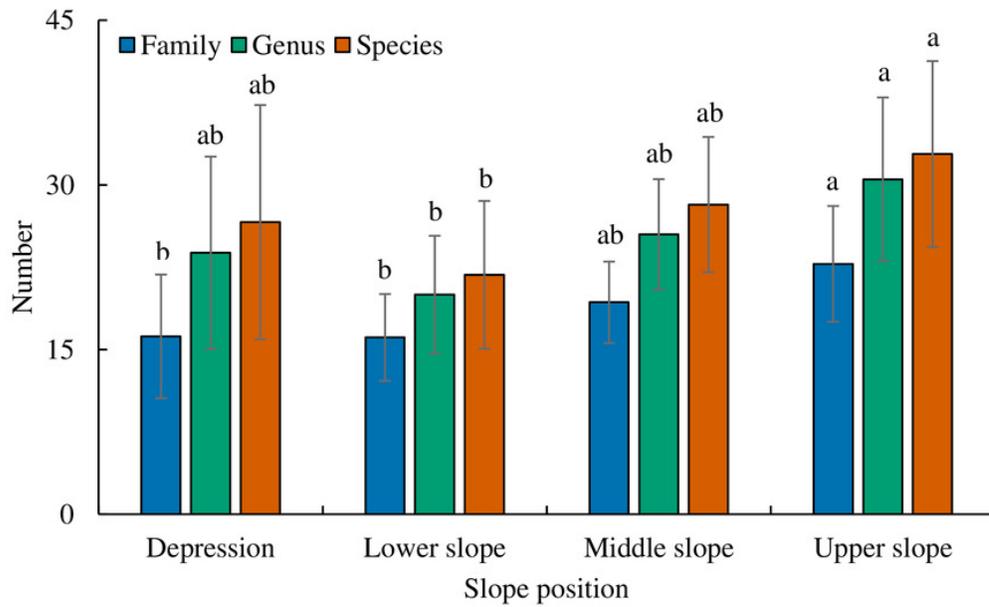


Figure 3

Figure 3. Detrended canonical correspondence analysis (DCCA) ordination diagram of environmental variables and plots.

SA, slope aspect; SD, slope degree; SP, slope position; ROR, rock outcrop rate; pH, soil pH; SECa, soil exchangeable calcium; SOM, soil organic matter; STN, soil total nitrogen; STP, soil total phosphorus; STK, soil total potassium; SWC, soil water content.

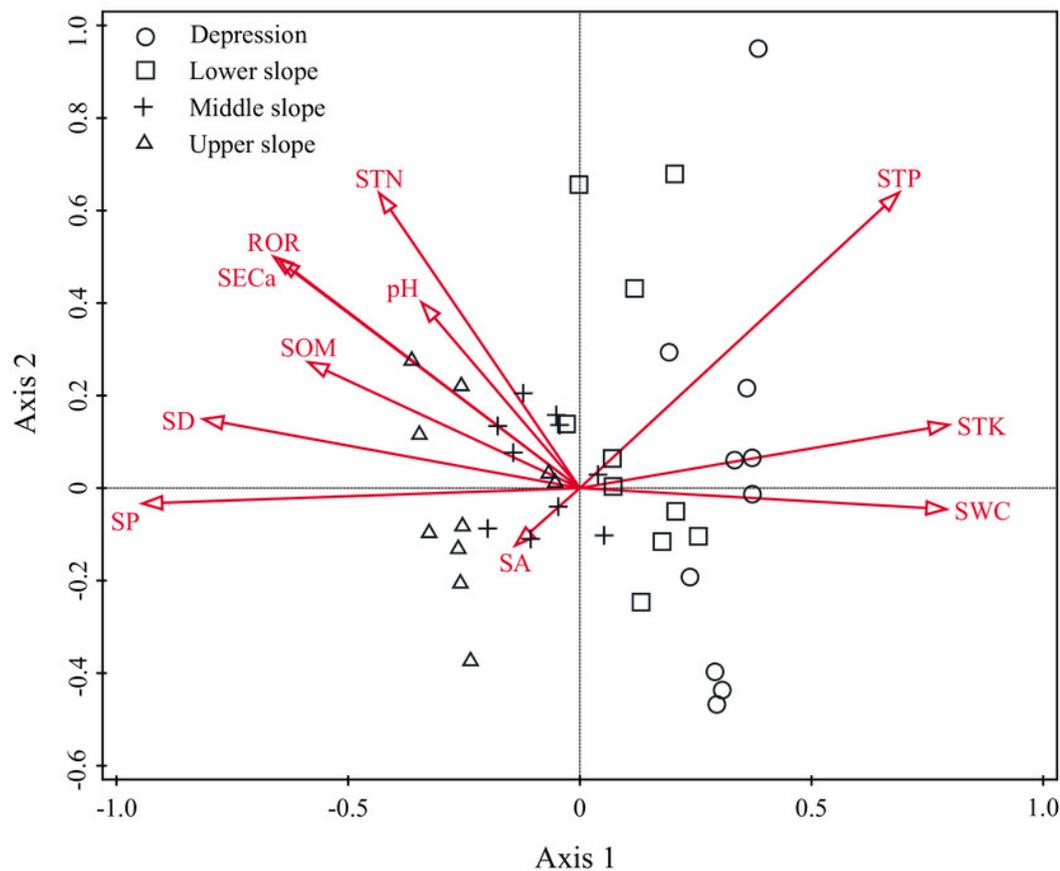


Figure 4

Figure 4. Detrended canonical correspondence analysis (DCCA) ordination diagram of environmental variables and main woody species.

SA, slope aspect; SD, slope degree; SP, slope position; ROR, rock outcrop rate; pH, soil pH; SECa, soil exchangeable calcium; SOM, soil organic matter; STN, soil total nitrogen; STP, soil total phosphorus; STK, soil total potassium; SWC, soil water content. ArdiThyr, *Ardisia thyriflora*; BoniMins, *Boniodendron minus*; CeltTimr, *Celtis timorensis*; CephSine, *Cephalomappa sinensis*; ChmManLn, *Champereia manillana* var. *longistaminea*; CleiPetl, *Cleistanthus petelotii*; CleiSumt, *Cleistanthus sumatranus*; ClerWall, *Clerodendrum wallichii*; DecsGrac, *Decaspermum gracilentum*; DeutTonk, *Deutzianthus tonkinensis*; DiosEria, *Diospyros eriantha*; DiosSidr, *Diospyros siderophylla*; ExceTonk, *Excentrodendron tonkinense*; FicsHisp, *Ficus hispida*; GarcPauc, *Garcinia paucinervis*; HydnHain, *Hydnocarpus hainanensis*; LeealIndc, *Leea indica*; LitVarOb, *Litsea variabilis* var. *oblonga*; MemcScut, *Memecylon scutellatum*; OropPoly, *Orophea polycarpa*; PhanCham, *Phanera championii*; PsyaDicc, *Psydrax dicocca*; PterTrun, *Pterospermum truncatolobatum*; RinrBeng, *Rinorea bengalensis*; SterMons, *Sterculia monosperma*; StrbTonk, *Streblus tonkinensis*; UvarTonk, *Uvaria tonkinensis*; VitxKwan, *Vitex kwangsiensis*; WalsRobs, *Walsura robusta*.

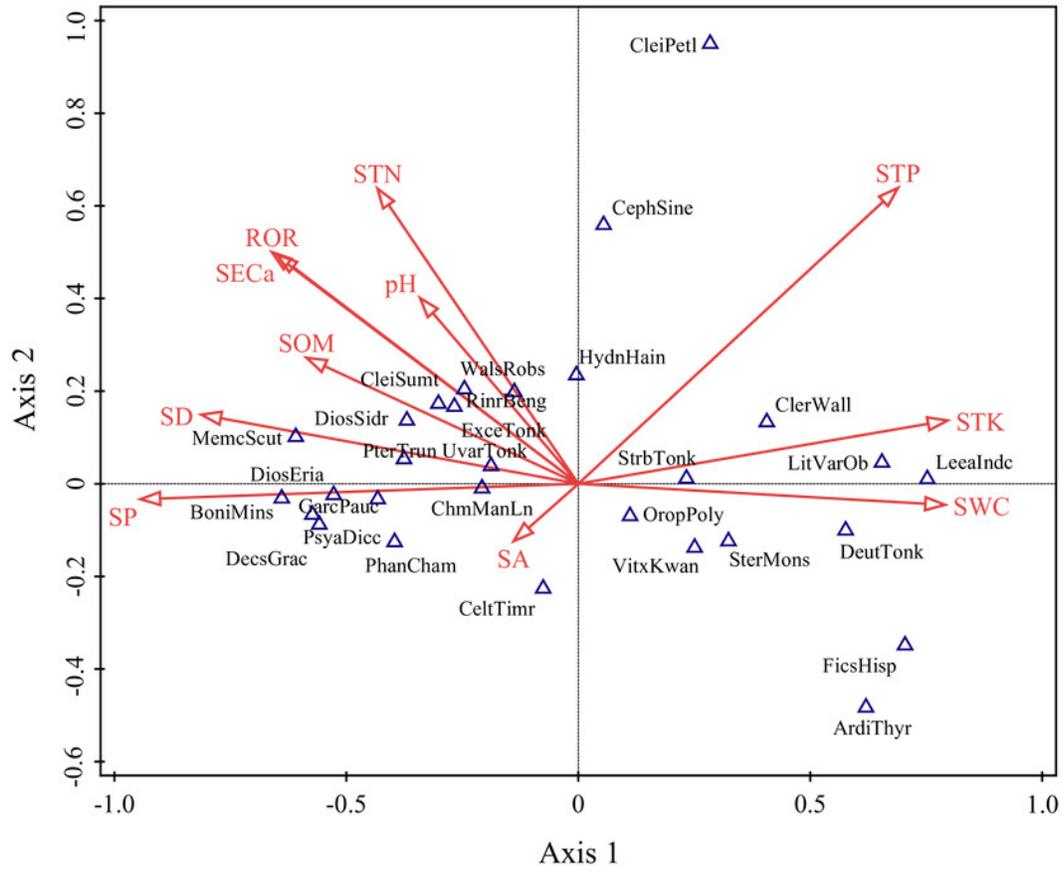


Figure 5

Figure 5. Venn diagram representing the variation partitioning between soil, topographic, and geographic variables.

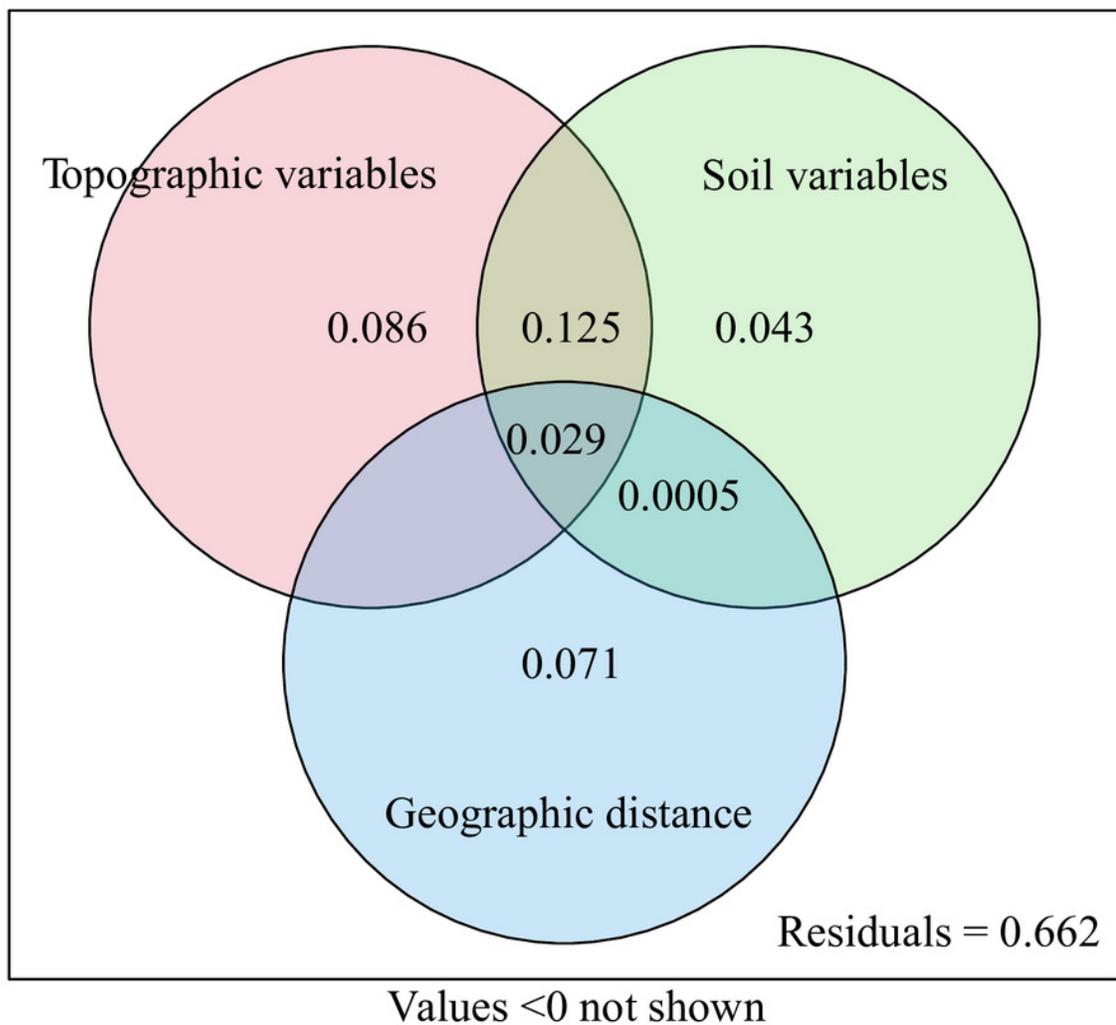


Figure 6

Figure 6. The associations of environmental variables with species richness.

SA, slope aspect; SD, slope degree; SP, slope position; ROR, rock outcrop rate; pH, soil pH; SECa, soil exchangeable calcium; SOM, soil organic matter; STN, soil total nitrogen; STP, soil total phosphorus; STK, soil total potassium; SWC, soil water content.

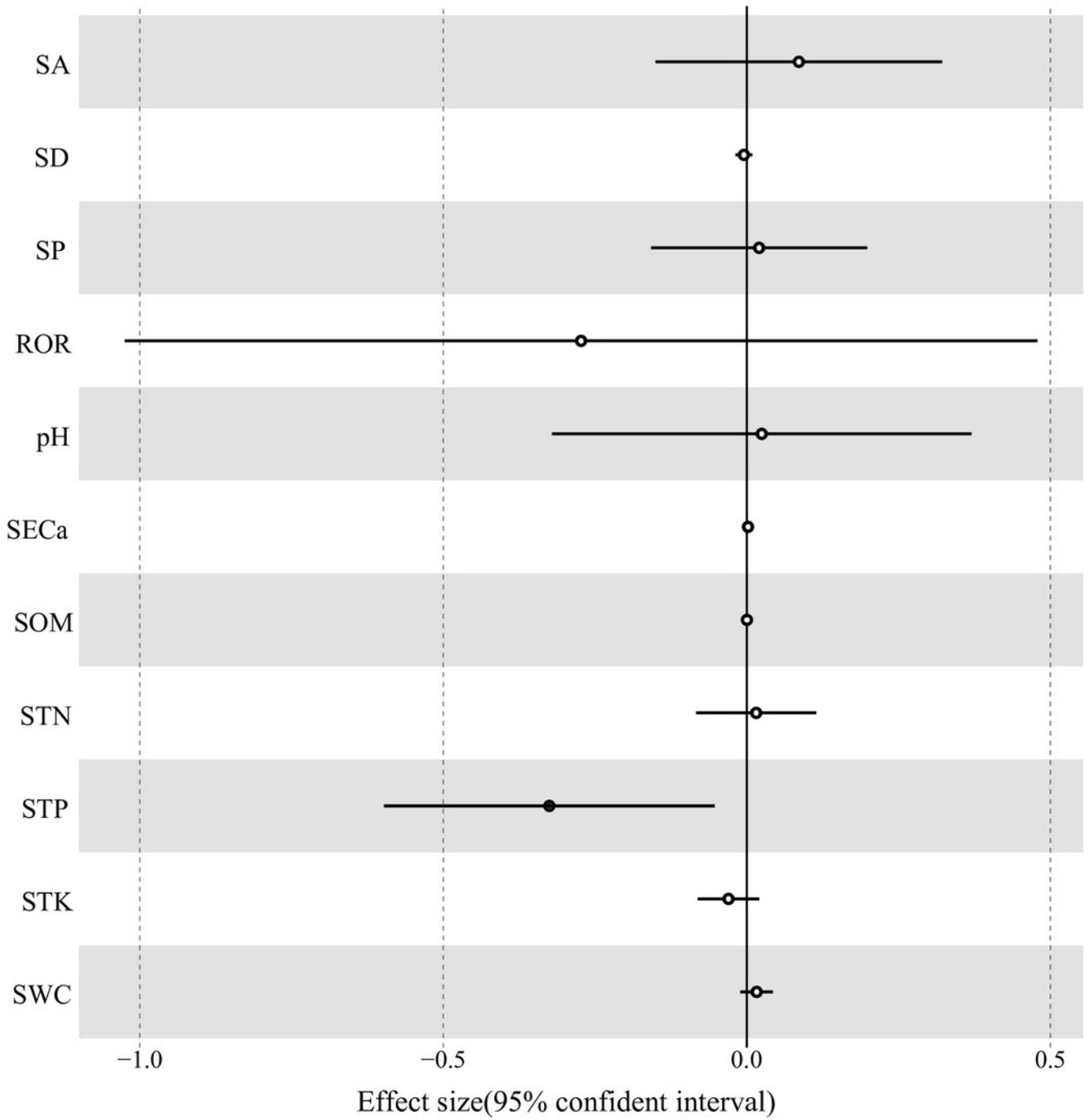


Table 1 (on next page)

Table 1. The results of ANOSIM analysis for comparing differences in species composition between different slope positions.

1

pairs	<i>R</i>	<i>P</i>
Depression vs Lower slope	0.495	0.001
Depression vs Middle slope	0.881	0.001
Depression vs Upper slope	0.878	0.001
Lower slope vs Middle slope	0.402	0.001
Lower slope vs Upper slope	0.556	0.001
Middle slope vs Upper slope	0.445	0.001

2

Table 2 (on next page)

Table 2. Correlation coefficients between environmental variables and the first two axes of DCCA ordination and ordination summary.

Environmental variables and summary of ordination	Axis 1	Axis 2
Environmental variables		
Slope position	-0.931	-0.032
Slope degree	-0.802	0.142
Rock outcrop rate	-0.652	0.477
Slope aspect	-0.137	-0.118
Soil pH	-0.337	0.382
Soil exchangeable calcium	-0.640	0.471
Soil organic matter	-0.578	0.259
Soil total nitrogen	-0.427	0.608
Soil total phosphorus	0.679	0.609
Soil total potassium	0.785	0.130
Soil water content	0.780	-0.043
Summary of DCCA ordination		
Eigenvalues	0.717	0.354
Explained variation (cumulative)	8.150	12.170
Pseudo-canonical correlation	0.987	0.954
Explained fitted variation (cumulative)	22.480	33.590

Table 3 (on next page)

Table 3. Generalized Linear Mixed models showing the effects of environmental variables on species richness.

1

Environmental variables	Standardized coefficient	R²	P-value
Slope aspect	0.030	0.009	0.476
Slope degree	-0.060	0.016	0.506
Slope position	0.020	0.068	0.823
Rock outcrop rate	-0.060	0.078	0.477
Soil pH	0.007	0.002	0.889
Soil exchangeable calcium	0.030	0.009	0.652
Soil organic matter	0.009	0.004	0.868
Soil total nitrogen	0.020	0.031	0.759
Soil total phosphorus	-0.200	0.185	0.019
Soil total potassium	-0.080	0.083	0.244
Soil water content	0.080	0.013	0.236

2

Table 4(on next page)

Table 4. Results of model selection for predicting species richness.

Only the top 10 models with the best fitting effects are presented; AICc, Akaike information criterion for small samples; Δ AICc, Difference between the AICc of a given model and that of the best model; Weight, Akaike weights. ROR, rock outcrop rate; STP, soil total phosphorus; SD, slope degree; STK, soil total potassium; SP, slope position; SECa, soil exchangeable calcium; SOM, soil organic matter; pH, soil pH.

1

ID	Fixed effects	logLik	AICc	Δ AICc	Weight
1	ROR+STP	-133.659	279.100	0.000	0.030
2	SD+STP	-133.819	279.400	0.320	0.025
3	SD+STK+STP	-132.597	279.700	0.660	0.021
4	ROR+SECa+STP	-132.735	280.000	0.930	0.019
5	ROR+STK+STP	-132.755	280.100	0.970	0.018
6	ROR+SP+STP	-132.803	280.200	1.070	0.017
7	ROR+SOM+STP	-132.806	280.200	1.070	0.017
8	SD+SECa+STP	-133.014	280.600	1.490	0.014
9	SD+SP+STP	-133.138	280.800	1.740	0.012
10	pH+SD+STP	-133.232	281.000	1.920	0.011

2