# C:N:P stoichiometry and nutrient storage at the ecosystem level in different secondary mixed forest types in the Qinling Mountains, China (#44136)

First submission

#### Guidance from your Editor

Please submit by 8 Feb 2020 for the benefit of the authors (and your \$200 publishing discount).



#### **Structure and Criteria**

Please read the 'Structure and Criteria' page for general guidance.



#### **Author notes**

Have you read the author notes on the guidance page?



#### Raw data check

Review the raw data.



#### Image check

Check that figures and images have not been inappropriately manipulated.

Privacy reminder: If uploading an annotated PDF, remove identifiable information to remain anonymous.

#### **Files**

Download and review all files from the <u>materials page</u>.

- 8 Figure file(s)
- 4 Table file(s)
- 1 Raw data file(s)
- 2 Other file(s)

## Structure and Criteria



#### Structure your review

The review form is divided into 5 sections. Please consider these when composing your review:

- 1. BASIC REPORTING
- 2. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN
- 3. VALIDITY OF THE FINDINGS
- 4. General comments
- 5. Confidential notes to the editor
- Prou can also annotate this PDF and upload it as part of your review

When ready <u>submit online</u>.

#### **Editorial Criteria**

Use these criteria points to structure your review. The full detailed editorial criteria is on your guidance page.

#### **BASIC REPORTING**

- Clear, unambiguous, professional English language used throughout.
- Intro & background to show context.
  Literature well referenced & relevant.
- Structure conforms to <u>PeerJ standards</u>, discipline norm, or improved for clarity.
- Figures are relevant, high quality, well labelled & described.
- Raw data supplied (see <u>PeerJ policy</u>).

#### EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

- Original primary research within Scope of the journal.
- Research question well defined, relevant & meaningful. It is stated how the research fills an identified knowledge gap.
- Rigorous investigation performed to a high technical & ethical standard.
- Methods described with sufficient detail & information to replicate.

#### **VALIDITY OF THE FINDINGS**

- Impact and novelty not assessed.
  Negative/inconclusive results accepted.
  Meaningful replication encouraged where rationale & benefit to literature is clearly stated.
- All underlying data have been provided; they are robust, statistically sound, & controlled.
- Speculation is welcome, but should be identified as such.
- Conclusions are well stated, linked to original research question & limited to supporting results.

## Standout reviewing tips



The best reviewers use these techniques

Τ	p

# Support criticisms with evidence from the text or from other sources

## Give specific suggestions on how to improve the manuscript

## Comment on language and grammar issues

## Organize by importance of the issues, and number your points

# Please provide constructive criticism, and avoid personal opinions

Comment on strengths (as well as weaknesses) of the manuscript

#### **Example**

Smith et al (J of Methodology, 2005, V3, pp 123) have shown that the analysis you use in Lines 241-250 is not the most appropriate for this situation. Please explain why you used this method.

Your introduction needs more detail. I suggest that you improve the description at lines 57-86 to provide more justification for your study (specifically, you should expand upon the knowledge gap being filled).

The English language should be improved to ensure that an international audience can clearly understand your text. Some examples where the language could be improved include lines 23, 77, 121, 128 - the current phrasing makes comprehension difficult.

- 1. Your most important issue
- 2. The next most important item
- 3. ...
- 4. The least important points

I thank you for providing the raw data, however your supplemental files need more descriptive metadata identifiers to be useful to future readers. Although your results are compelling, the data analysis should be improved in the following ways: AA, BB, CC

I commend the authors for their extensive data set, compiled over many years of detailed fieldwork. In addition, the manuscript is clearly written in professional, unambiguous language. If there is a weakness, it is in the statistical analysis (as I have noted above) which should be improved upon before Acceptance.



# C:N:P stoichiometry and nutrient storage at the ecosystem level in different secondary mixed forest types in the Qinling Mountains, China

Yue Pang 1, Jing Tian 1, Xuan Zhao 1, Zhi Chao 1, Yuchao Wang 2, 3, Xinping Zhang 4, Dexiang Wang Corresp. 1

Corresponding Author: Dexiang Wang Email address: wangdx66@sohu.com

**Background.** Carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and phosphorus (P) are the main nutrient elements required for plant development, and their stoichiometric ratios and storage are important indicators of ecosystem function and productivity. However, few studies have assessed nutrient stoichiometry and storage characteristics at the ecosystem level, especially in mixed forest types.

**Methods.** We investigated the C, N, and P concentrations and stoichiometry ratios in trees, understory plants, litter, and soil layers in three different secondary mixed forest types, broadleaf mixed forests (BM), broadleaf-conifer mixed forests (BCM) and coniferous mixed forests (CM), in the Qinling Mountains.

**Results.** The results showed that significant differences in C:N:P stoichiometry were detected in multiple organs in the plant layers in the different forest types. Trees, shrubs and herbs all allocated more N and P in leaves and had a higher N:P ratio in leaves than in other organs. The C concentrations, C:N ratios and C:P ratios of all tree organs showed a decreasing order: BM < BCM < CM, while the N and P concentrations showed an increasing order: BM > BCM > CM. The leaf N:P ratios of all plants were less than 14. For litter and soil, BM had generally higher N and P concentrations than those of BCM and CM. The highest N and P storage was in tree branches-not in the stem, which had the highest biomass (except for P in CM). Compared with other forest types, CM shared more nutrients stored in the labile litter layer, while BM shared more nutrients stored in the stable soil layer. The net ecosystem nutrient element storage in BM was generally higher than that in BCM and CM.

**Conclusion.** Our findings demonstrate that BM has more advantages in C, N and P nutrient fertility and storage than BCM and CM in secondary succession communities, and this research imply the necessity of artificial intervention in secondary forests toward broadleaf mixed forests.

<sup>1</sup> Ecology, College of Forestry, Northwest A&F University, Yangling, China

<sup>2</sup> Institute of Botany of Shaanxi Province, Xi'an, China

<sup>3</sup> Shaanxi Engineering Research Centre for Conservation and Utilization of Botanical Resources, Xi'an, China

 $<sup>^{4}\,</sup>$  School of art and design, Xi'an university of technology, Xi'an, China



#### C:N:P stoichiometry and nutrient storage at the 1

#### ecosystem level in different secondary mixed forest 2

#### types in the Qinling Mountains, China 3

5

- Yue Pang<sup>1</sup>, Jing Tian<sup>1</sup>, Xuan Zhao<sup>1</sup>, Zhi Chao<sup>1</sup>, Yuchao Wang<sup>2, 3</sup>, Xinping Zhang<sup>4</sup>, Dexiang
- Wang1 6

7

4

- 8 <sup>1</sup>College of Forestry, Northwest A&F University, Yangling, 712100, Shaanxi, China
- <sup>2</sup>Institute of Botany of Shaanxi Province, Xi'an, Shaanxi, China
- <sup>3</sup>Shaanxi Engineering Research Centre for Conservation and Utilization of Botanical Resources, 10
- Xi'an, Shaanxi, China 11
- <sup>4</sup>School of art and design, Xi'an university of technology 12

13

- 14 Corresponding Author:
- Dexiang Wang<sup>1</sup> 15
- College of Forestry, Northwest A&F University (No.) 3 Taicheng Road Yangling District, 16
- 17 Shaanxi, 712100, China
- Email address: wangdx66@sohu.com 18



#### **Abstract**

- 21 **Background.** Carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and phosphorus (P) are the main nutrient elements
- 22 required for plant development, and their stoichiometric ratios and storage are important
- 23 indicators of ecosystem function and productivity. However, few studies have assessed nutrient
- 24 stoichiometry and storage characteristics at the ecosystem level, especially in mixed forest types.
- 25 **Methods.** We investigated the C, N, and P concentrations and stoichiometry ratios in trees,
- 26 understory plants, litter, and soil layers in three different secondary mixed forest types, broadleaf
- 27 mixed forests (BM), broadleaf-conifer mixed forests (BCM) and coniferous mixed forests (CM),
- 28 in the Qinling Mountains.
- 29 **Results.** The results showed that significant differences in C:N:P stoichiometry were detected in
- 30 multiple organs in the plant layers in the different forest types. Trees, shrubs and herbs all
- 31 allocated more N and P in leaves and had a higher N:P ratio in leaves than in other organs. The C
- 32 concentrations, C:N ratios and C:P ratios of all tree organs showed a decreasing order: BM <
- 33 BCM < CM, while the N and P concentrations showed an increasing order: BM > BCM > CM.
- 34 The leaf N:P ratios of all plants were less than 14. For litter and soil, BM had generally higher N
- and P concentrations than those of BCM and CM. The highest N and P storage was in tree
- 36 branches-not in the stem, which had the highest biomass (except for P in CM). Compared with
- 37 other forest types, CM shared more nutrients stored in the labile litter layer, while BM shared
- 38 more nutrients stored in the stable soil layer. The net ecosystem nutrient element storage in BM
- 39 was generally higher than that in BCM and CM.
- 40 **Conclusion.** Our findings demonstrate that BM has more advantages in C, N and P nutrient
- 41 fertility and storage than BCM and CM in secondary succession communities, and this research
- 42 imply the necessity of artificial intervention in secondary forests toward broadleaf mixed forests.

**Keywords** C:N:P stoichiometry, nutrient storage, multiple organs, secondary mixed forest ecosystem

45 46 47

43

44

#### Introduction

- 48 A forest ecosystem is a collection of coordinated and unified development of material and
- 49 energy, and forest nutrients are the cornerstone of a forest ecosystem community's survival,
- 50 reproduction and development (Jordan 1985; Sharma & Sharma 2004; Waring & Schlesinger
- 51 1985). Carbon (C), nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) are key elements for ecosystem organism
- 52 construction and play vital roles in ecosystem biogeochemical cycles and community succession
- 53 (Jr et al. 2006; Song et al. 2014). Many studies have reported the C, N and P nutrient
- 54 characteristics of vegetation, soil and litter in forest ecosystems (Cremer et al. 2016; Frédéric et
- al. 2010; Inagaki et al. 2004), directly promote the research process of the forest ecosystem
- 56 nutrient cycle. However, these studies independently studied the nutrient characteristics of
- 57 different components of the ecosystem, ignoring the overall attributes of the ecosystem. In
- 58 nature, ecosystems are composed of biological communities and abiotic environments, and close
- 59 correlations exist between different components of the ecosystem (Zhang et al. 2018a).



61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68 69

70

71 72

73

74

75

76 77

78

79

80

81 82

83

84

85 86

87

88

89 90

91

92

93

94 95

96

97 98

99

Therefore, investigations of the C, N and P nutrient characteristics, including diverse ecosystem components, might better reflect the nutrient cycling attributes in forest ecosystems and provide a better foundation for improving ecological models.

The global forest area is now approximately 4 billion ha (FAO 2015). Among this area, secondary forests (regenerating through natural processes after significant human or natural disturbance of the original forest vegetation) account for 59.5% of the forest cover and provide important ecosystem services, such as species conservation, carbon sink improvement, and water resources protection (Grimwood & Dobbs 2010; Mcdonald et al. 2002; Orihuela-Belmonte et al. 2013). Due to the differences in the time and intensity of disturbance factors, secondary forests are mainly mixed communities composed of multiple species (Peña-Claros 2003). This coexistence pattern of multiple species will lead to competition for resources and space between aboveground (canopies) and underground (roots) components (Cremer et al. 2016; Shanin et al. 2014), showing diversified niche partitioning and ecosystem combination (Büttner & Leuschner 1994; Prescott 2002), and may finally modify the allocation patterns of C, N and P among different levels in the ecosystem. Although most previous studies have analyzed soil carbon stocks, species composition and community structure, productivity and diverse ecological processes in secondary forests (Chai & Evj 2011; Fonseca et al. 2011; Kenzo et al. 2010), the C, N and P nutrient patterns at the ecosystem level in different secondary mixed forest communities remain unclear. This insufficient knowledge might lead to the inaccurate estimation of secondary forest nutrient reserves and underestimate the important role of secondary forests in the nutrient cycle (Attiwill & Adams 1993; Mcdonald & Healey 2000). Accordingly, exploring the C, N and P nutrient characteristics in different secondary mixed forests is urgently needed to meet the challenge of managing C and nutrient stocks worldwide.

A classical concept in the field of plant ecology indicates that organisms and their environments are closely connected by the exchange of chemical elements, and there is reciprocal control between different components in the ecosystem (Ladanai et al. 2010; Odum et al. 1972). Ecological stoichiometry, which focuses on the interaction of chemical resources (elements) in organisms and the environment, has been regarded as a scientific and effective approach for exploring the balance of energy and materials among the components in an ecosystem (Kennish 2016). Previous studies have analyzed the C:N:P stoichiometric characteristics of plant organs, litter and soil at regional and global scales to reveal nutrient limitations of plants, nutrient cycling and feedback relationships (Han et al. 2005; Yang et al. 2018). These studies have advanced our understanding of ecosystem stoichiometric characteristics to some extent; however, for plant stoichiometry, these studies have mainly focused on certain organs, such as leaves and roots. In fact, different plant organs play different functional roles, resulting in differences in nutrient concentrations among organs (Kerkhoff et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2018c). Typically, plant leaves are responsible for photosynthesis and have higher nutrient concentrations (Wright et al. 2004). Therefore, it is important to quantify nutrient element stoichiometric variation in multiple plant organs, which will provide further insights into the functional diversity of vegetation and be useful in guiding forest management decisions



103104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121 122

123

124

125

ranging from forest health concerns to designing appropriate deforestation and fertilization programs.

The Oinling Mountains run across central China and are characterized by typical mountain forest. Forests in the Qinling Mountains suffered from extensive logging during the 1960s and 1970s, which promoted the regeneration of diverse secondary forests. To advance natural forest resource protection and improve the ecological environment, the Chinese government initiated the "Natural Forest Protection Program" (NFPP) (Xu et al. 2006). Through decades of hard work, the project has enhanced the plant community diversity and improved the primary productivity of forest ecosystems (Zhang et al. 2011), and this project has been particularly beneficial for the formation of secondary forest (Cao & Chen 2015). Now, secondary forests account for 80% of the Oinling forest area, which has become a typical secondary forest area in China (Chai et al. 2016). Previous studies have analyzed the structural characteristics of the community, soil nutrient characteristics, plant leaf C:N:P stoichiometry and microbial diversity among these secondary forests (Hou et al. 2018; Shi et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2018b; Zheng et al. 2017). However, information about the effects of different mixed forest types on ecosystem C:N:P stoichiometry and nutrient storage characteristics has rarely been evaluated. In this study, we determined the C, N, and P concentrations and stoichiometric ratios in trees. understory plants, litter, and soil collected from three different secondary mixed forest types. namely, broadleaf mixed forests (BM), broadleaf-conifer mixed forests (BCM) and coniferous mixed forests (CM), in the Oinling Mountains. We hypothesized that the C:N:P stoichiometries of different plant organs, litter and soil were diverse among different secondary mixed forest types. In addition, we predicted that the nutrient cycling rate and nutrient element storage were higher in BM than in BCM and CM. Therefore, the objectives of this research were to (1) examine the C, N and P concentrations and stoichiometric characteristic differences of multiple plant organs, litter and soil among different secondary mixed forest types; (2) quantify the nutrient storage capacity of the C, N and P elements in different secondary mixed ecosystems;

126127128

129

130

131132

133134

135

136

137

138

139

#### **Materials & Methods**

#### Study site description

The field research was conducted at the Qinling National Forest Ecosystem Research Station (Huoditang Experimental Forest Farm of Northwest A&F University) in Ningshaan County (33°18′-33°28′N, 108°21′-108°39′E), Shaanxi Province, China. The landform of the station is characterized by an abrupt and broken landscape, with altitudes ranging from 800 to 2500 m and a mean slope of approximately 35°. The soil in this area is composed of Cambisols, Umbrisols and Podzols (FAO), and the mean soil depth is 50 cm. This region has a subtropical humid montane climate, with an average annual precipitation of 1000 mm. Over 50% of the precipitation falls from July to September, and the average annual humidity is approximately 77%. The average temperature is 10.5 °C, with an extreme minimum temperature of -9.5 °C and an extreme maximum temperature of 35 °C. The plant growth period is approximately 177 days,

and (3) provide suggestions for nutrient reserve management in secondary forest ecosystems.



and the average frost-free period is approximately 199 days. The forests had been harvested or experienced man-made destruction during the 1960s and 1970s in the Huoditang Experimental Forest Farm, and much of the area is now covered by secondary growth. Currently, the main tree species in this area are *Ouercus aliena var. auteserrata*, *Quercus variabilis*, *Pinus armandii*, *Betula albosinensis*, *Picea asperata*, *Populus davidiana* and other broad leaf species.

#### **Experimental design**

The study was conducted from July to August 2017 at the Huoditang Experimental Forest Farm. Based on the vegetation deforestation history and restoration status, three secondary mixed forest types (BM, BCM and CM) were selected. Detailed information about each secondary mixed forest type is presented in Table 1. All selected sites were located on similar slopes, aspects, slope gradients, and elevations. Each secondary mixed forest type was represented by three independent replicate sites, and the space between any two sites was large enough to exclude spatial dependence for the soil variables. Three replicate plots ( $20 \times 20$  m) were randomly established at each site for the subsequent plant, litter and soil sampling (Fig.1). For each plant, litter and soil variable, the average value of the three replicated plots was taken as the observation for the whole site. Finally, in total, 9 observations were established (three different secondary mixed forest types × three replicate sites) for each variable. 

#### Plant, litter and soil investigation and sampling

The diameter at breast height (DBH, 1.3 m) of all trees in each plot was measured, and the trees were also classified and counted by species. Additionally, different organ samples of trees were obtained. Newly mature and healthy leaves and branches (diameter <1 cm) were picked from the east, west, south and north directions in the upper, middle and lower parts of the canopies, and a machete and an increment bore we used to obtain the bark and stem samples, respectively, at the DBH location. Roots (diameter <1 cm) were dug up from the 0-60 cm soil layer, and root samples were collected by removing the surrounding soil along a main root of a specific plant species until the roots appeared. These organ samples from the trees were oven dried at 70°C to constant weight. Based on the DBH and tree height, the biomass of the components (leaves, branches, stems, bark and roots) of each tree species in the three secondary mixed forest plots was calculated using published species-specific allometric equations developed for trees within or near the study area (Table S1). To better reflect the relative contributions of multiple tree species at the community level, the different organ samples of the tree were mixed according to the ratios calculated from the allometric equations.

Shrub and herb biomass were determined using total harvesting destructive sampling techniques. Five shrub subplots  $(2 \times 2 \text{ m})$  and five herb subplots  $(1 \times 1 \text{ m})$  were established along the diagonals of each plot for sample collection. Shrub plants were separated into leaves, stems and roots, and herbs were separated into aboveground and belowground components. For litter sampling, all organic material within five  $1 \times 1 \text{ m}$  subplots was collected from each plot. There were no corresponding allometric equations for shrubs and herbs in the study area, and the



 same components of shrubs, herbs and litter were mixed uniformly into one sample. Finally, the subsamples of shrub, herb and litter were transported to the laboratory and oven dried at 70 °C to a constant weight.

For soil sampling, nine replicate sampling points were established along an "S" shape in each plot. After removing the litter layer and biological crusts, nine soil samples at 0-20 cm, 20-40 cm and 40-60 cm were obtained separately from each point using a soil auger (400-mm inner diameter) and were fully homogenized to form one composite soil sample for each soil layer in each plot. The plant roots, fauna, and debris were removed by hand, and the gravel (rock fragments >2 mm) was reserved to measure the percentage of stones. The remaining soil samples were sieved (<2 mm) and air dried at room temperature for chemical property analysis. Soil bulk density (BD) samples were obtained randomly from three points per plot by volumetric rings (100 cm<sup>3</sup>). The nutrient element storage of C, N and P in each soil layer was calculated using the following equation:

$$S_n = C_n \times BD_n \times L_n \times 10^{-1}$$

Where  $S_n$  is the C, N and P storage of soil in the n-th soil layer (t·ha<sup>-1</sup>);  $C_n$ , BD<sub>n</sub>, and L<sub>n</sub> are the C concentration (mg·g<sup>-1</sup>), soil bulk density (g·cm<sup>-3</sup>), and soil depth (cm) of the n-th soil layer, respectively; and  $10^{-1}$  is the unit conversion factor.

#### Plant, litter and soil physicochemical measurements

The C, N, and P concentrations in the tree, shrub and herb organs and litter were analyzed after the samples were ground into a powder with a plant-sample mill (1093 Sample Mill, Hoganas, Sweden). The organic carbon (OC) contents of the plant, litter and soil samples were measured using the  $K_2Cr_2O_7$  oxidation method. The total nitrogen (TN) and total phosphorus (TP) concentrations of the plant, litter and soil samples were determined with an automatic discontinuous elemental analyzer (Clever chem200+, Germany) after digestion with  $H_2SO_4$  and  $H_2O_2$ . The volume of gravel (rock fragments >2 mm) was measured using the drainage method. The soil BD was determined using the soil core method and obtained by calculating the ratio of soil mass to total volume ( $g \cdot cm^{-3}$ ) after oven dried at 105 °C to a constant weight.

#### Data analyses

The total ecosystem C, N and P storage values were based on the combination of trees, shrubs, herbs, litter and soil pool. The mean and standard error of the investigated variables (e.g., C, N and P concentrations, C, N and P stocks, C:N, C:P and N:P ratios) of plant organs, litter and soil mixtures were calculated for each organ, site and soil depth separately. Data were checked for normality and homogeneity of variance and, if necessary, were transformed. The effects of organ, soil layer and forest type on the concentration, stoichiometry and stocks of the nutrient elements (C, N and P) were tested using one-way ANOVA and least significant difference (LSD) multiple comparison (p < 0.05). All statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.5.0 (R Development Core Team 2018).



#### Results

#### Plant and litter biomass and soil bulk density

- 222 The biomass of plant organs was generally different among different organs and forest types
- 223 (Fig. S1A, B). The highest biomass occurred in the stem for tree, root for shrub and aboveground
- portion for herb. Inconsistent biomass patterns of plant organs were observed in plant layers
- among different forest types; however, these patterns were usually nonsignificant. For total plant
- biomass (Table S2), the shrub total biomass in BCM was significantly higher than that in CM,
- and there were no significant differences between BCM and BM. The herb total biomass in CM
- 228 was significantly higher than that in both BM and BCM. Although the tree total biomass was
- 229 most often nonsignificant in the three forest types, it accounted for more than 96% of the
- ecosystem total plant biomass in all forest types. In addition, the litter biomass in CM was
- 231 significantly higher than that in BM and BCM (Table S2).

Only in the BM was the soil BD of the 0-20 cm soil layer significantly lower than that of the 40-60 cm soil layer, although it was not statistically significant among the different soil layers in the BCM and CM (Fig. S1C). There was no notable difference in soil BD at the same soil layer between different forest types (Fig. S1C).

## 235236237

232

233

234

#### C:N:P stoichiometric characteristics in ecosystem components

- The stoichiometry varied greatly in different plant organs, litter and soil layers under different
- 239 forest types. In the tree layer, the C concentration was nonsignificant between different organs
- for all forest types (Fig. 2A). The C concentration of all organs in CM was notably higher than
- 241 that in BM, while it was similar in BCM and the other forests (Fig. 2A). Among the tree organs
- 242 in the three forest types, the leaves and stem had significantly higher and lower N and P
- 243 concentrations, respectively, than the other organs (Fig. 2B, C). The N and P concentrations in
- all tree organs had the same pattern among the different forest types, showing the increasing
- order of BM > BCM > CM (Fig. 2B, C). In contrast, leaves and stems had the lowest and highest
- 246 ratios of C:N and C:P for all forest types, respectively, showing a decreasing order of BM <
- 247 BCM < CM (Fig. 2D, E). The N:P ratio in leaves was notably higher than that in other organs
- among all forest types (except leaves and branches in CM) (Fig. 2F). The N:P ratios of branches
- and bark in CM were significantly higher than those of the other two forest types, while the
- values were typically nonsignificant in other organs in all forest types (Fig. 2F).
- In the shrub layer, the highest C concentration was observed in the branches for the three
- 252 forest types, while the highest N and P concentrations were in the leaves (Fig. 3A-C). A
- 253 significant difference was observed for only C and P in leaves and for N in branches among
- 254 forest types. Shrub branches and leaves had the highest and lowest ratios of C:N and C:P for all
- 255 forest types, respectively, while the highest N:P ratio was observed in leaves (Fig. 3D-F).
- 256 Significant differences were observed for C:N in branches, C:P in leaves and N:P in leaves and
- branches among forest types. In the herb layer, the aboveground leaf C, N and P concentrations
- 258 were significantly higher than those in the underground root, while the aboveground leaf C:N
- and C:P ratios were significantly lower than those in underground root (except for C:P in BCM)



278279

280

281

282

283 284

285 286

287 288

289

290

291292

293

294

295

296297

298

299

(Fig. 3A-E). A significant difference was observed only for C in leaves, for P in roots and for 260 C:P in both leaves and roots among forest types. Although the herb N:P ratio was nonsignificant 261 among different organs, it was generally higher in leaves than in roots (Fig. 3F). The significant 262 difference for N:P was observed only in leaves among forest types. In the litter layer, the C:N:P 263 264 stoichiometric characteristics were similar to the results of the tree layer (except for N:P). The C concentration was generally higher in CM than in BM and BCM (Fig. 3A). The N and P 265 concentrations in BM were significantly higher than those in BCM and CM, while the opposite 266 trend was observed, i.e., the C:N and C:P ratios were significantly lower in BM than in BCM and 267 CM (Fig. 3B-E). BM and BCM had relatively higher N:P ratios than CM (Fig. 3F). 268 269 For the soil level, the concentrations of C, N and P and the ratios of C:P and N:P in topsoil (0-20 cm) were significantly higher than those in undersoil (20-40 cm and 40-60 cm), while the C:N 270 ratio was nonsignificant among different soil layers (Fig. 4A-F). The C and N concentrations in 271 272 CM were significantly lower than those in BCM and BM only in topsoil, while the P 273 concentration was significantly higher in the 0-20 cm and 20-40 cm soil layers in BM than in 274 BCM and CM (Fig. 4A-C). The C:P and N:P ratios in the 0-20 cm and 20-40 cm soil layers in BCM were significantly higher than those in BM and CM, while the C:N ratio was 275 276 nonsignificant among the different forest types (Fig. 4D-F).

#### C, N and P nutrient storage in ecosystem

The C, N and P nutrient storage varied greatly in the different plant organs, litter and soil layers in the different forest types (Figs. 5-7, Tables 2-4). For the plant layer, the highest C storage was observed in the stems of trees, roots of shrubs and leaves of herbs, while the highest N and P storage was generally observed in branches of trees (except for P in BCM and CM), roots of shrubs (except for N in BCM) and leaves of herbs (Figs. 5-7A, B). The C storage of tree stems in CM was significantly higher than that in BM, while the N and P storage values of tree branches in BM were significantly higher than those in BCM and CM (Figs. 5-7A). Additionally, the C, N and P storage values of shrub leaves and branches in BCM were generally higher than those in the other two forest types, while the C, N and P storage values of herb leaves in BM and BCM were considerably lower than those in CM (Figs. 5-7B). Regarding nutrient element storage of total plant biomass, the C, N and P storage values of shrub biomass in BCM were generally higher than those in BM and CM, while the C, N and P storage values of herb biomass in CM were significantly higher than those in BM and BCM (Tables 2-4). The nutrient element storage of total tree biomass had the highest percentage among the plant layer, and the P storage of total tree biomass in BM was significantly higher than that in CM (Tables 2-4). For the litter layer, the share of C, N and P stored in litter biomass in CM generally exceeded that in BM and BCM (Tables 2-4).

For the soil layer, the storage of C and N in the mineral topsoil (0–20 cm) was significantly higher than that in the undersoil (20-60 cm), while the P storage was nonsignificant among the different soil layers (Figs. 5-7C). Although there was no notable difference in nutrient element storage at the same soil layer among different forest types, the nutrient element storage in BM



was generally higher than that in BCM and CM (Figs. 5-7C). Regarding the total soil nutrient element storage and net ecosystem nutrient element storage, the C, N and P storage values were all nonsignificant under the three forest types (Tables 2-4). However, the soil layer had the highest nutrient element storage among different ecosystem components, and both the total soil nutrient element storage and the net ecosystem nutrient element storage in BM were generally higher than those in BCM and CM (Tables 2-4).

305 306 307

308

331

332

333

334

335

336 337

338

339

300

301

302

303 304

#### **Discussion**

#### C:N:P stoichiometric characteristics in ecosystem components

309 In our study, significant differences in C:N:P stoichiometry were detected in multiple organs in 310 the plant layer under the different forest types (Figs. 2-3). This difference is because the different 311 taxonomic groups of plants have diverse genetic characteristics (Thiel-Egenter & Gugerli 2010), 312 which determine the formation of multifunctional plant organs and control the complex physiological process of vegetation (Tian et al. 2015), ultimately leading to the differences in 313 nutrient characteristics in multiple plant organs. Simultaneously, to adapt to the environment, 314 plants gradually developed strong physiological and biochemical regulation abilities during the 315 long course of evolution (Sterner & Elser 2002). Therefore, plants can actively adjust their 316 317 demand for specific nutrient elements (Gong et al. 2017), which consequently results in C:N:P stoichiometric differences between plant organs (Sistla & Schimel 2012). Different plant 318 319 functional groups (tree, shrub and herb) have a common set of rules that allocate more N and P in leaves and have a higher N:P ratio in leaves than in other organs (Figs. 2-3B, C, F). This 320 321 finding aligns with previous studies that showed that plant leaves had higher nutrient concentrations than non-leaf organs (Hong et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2018c). Leaves are 322 responsible for many physiological functions (e.g., photosynthesis, transpiration and respiration) 323 and require higher quantities of N and P to complete diverse biochemical processes (Minden & 324 Kleyer 2014). Furthermore, leaves with higher metabolic activity (metabolic organs) can 325 326 maintain a relatively constant higher N:P ratio to meet the physiological needs of metabolic 327 processes, while structural organs, which have P concentrations that increase faster than N 328 concentrations during growth, have a lower N:P ratio (Kerkhoff et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2018a). 329 These results imply that both the genetic characteristics and the environmental factors may have 330 led to the diverse C:N:P stoichiometric characteristics among plant organs and that more

metabolically active organs had higher N and P nutrient concentrations.

The C concentrations, C:N ratios and C:P ratios of all tree organs showed a decreasing order of BM < BCM < CM, while the N and P concentrations showed an increasing order of BM > BCM > CM. (Fig. 2A-E). These findings correspond with those of Cao and Chen (2017) and Han et al. (2005), who reported higher C concentrations, C:N ratios and C:P ratios in coniferous than in deciduous species and higher N and P concentrations in deciduous than evergreen species. On the one hand, conifers have many kinds of structural carbohydrates (C-rich), such as lignin, tannins and waxes, and lower N and P contents, resulting in higher C concentrations, C:N ratios and C:P ratios (Thomas & Martin 2012). On the other hand, the higher C:N and C:P ratios



379

340 reflect higher plant N and P use efficiency (Ge & Xie 2017). Coniferous species are often confined to nutrient-limited habitats (Aerts & Iii 1999), but still maintain normal growth. The 341 coniferous species have a higher N and P utilization efficiency, leading to higher C:N and C:P 342 ratios. Moreover, a previous study proposed that the nutrient supply status can determine the 343 344 nutrient concentrations in plant organs (He et al. 2008). In our study, the soil N and P concentrations were higher in BM than in the other forest types (Fig. 4B, C), which may have 345 caused higher N and P contents and lower C:N and C:P ratios in organs in BM than in BCM and 346 CM. In contrast, the C, N and P concentrations and stoichiometry of understory plants were also 347 significantly different among the forest types, but the concentrations where different in different 348 organs, with no consistent pattern among forest type (Fig. 3). A possible explanation for these 349 results may be that different plant functional groups show some degree of below-ground niche 350 partitioning and have different root depth distributions (Büttner & Leuschner 1994), leading to 351 understory plants having different nutrient utilization strategies from trees, ultimately forming 352 353 diverse nutrient characteristics patterns. A previous study suggested that a leaf N:P ratio <14 indicates N limitation, an N:P ratio between 14 and 16 indicates both N and P limitation, and an 354 N:P ratio > 16 indicates P limitation (Güsewell 2004). In this study, the leaf N:P ratios of plant 355 layers were all less than 14 (Figs. 2-3F), suggesting the occurrence of N limitation in the study 356 357 area. For litter, BM had higher N and P concentrations than BCM and CM, while BM had lower C 358 concentrations, C:N ratios and C:P ratios; these results are consistent with the nutrient pattern of 359 the tree layer (Fig. 3). The findings extend that of Megan et al. (2004), confirming that litter 360 stoichiometric characteristics were generally aligned with those of plants (Megan et al. 2004). 361 362 This relationship is because litter nutrients are derived from the nutrients in plant organs (Zhang et al. 2017). Additionally, trees can produce more litter biomass than understory species annually 363 (Liu et al. 2018) and may have dominated the nutrient characteristics of litter. In the present 364 study, topsoil (0-20 cm) had significantly higher C, N, and P concentrations and ratios of C:P 365 366 and N:P than undersoil (40-60 cm) (Fig. 4A-C, E, F). This result is in general agreement with the results of previous studies conducted in forest and grassland systems (Prusty et al. 2009; Yang & 367 Chen 2017). A possible explanation for the result is that topsoil nutrients are mainly affected by 368 the return surface litter and soil microorganisms (Jobbagy & Jackson 2000). With increasing soil 369 370 depth, the input of organic matter is limited by the permeability of the soil, and microbial decomposition activity gradually decreases (Berger et al. 2002), leading to the striking 371 stratification characteristics of soil nutrients. Among the different forest types, the soil in CM 372 had generally lower C, N and P concentrations and ratios of C:P and N:P than BM and CM (Fig. 373 4A-C, E, F). This result may be explained by the fact that litter in BM and BCM had relatively 374 higher N and P concentrations (Fig. 3B-C), which can better stimulate microbial activity and 375 invertebrate digestion (Kerkhoff et al. 2006), ultimately benefiting litter decomposition and 376

promoting soil nutrient accumulation. Furthermore, the litter biomass in BM and BCM was

notably lower than that in CM (Table S2), which also supported this explanation. In comparison,

the C:N ratio was nonsignificant among the different soil layers and in different forest types (Fig.



380 4D), which may be due to the close temporal coupling of C and N contents in the litter decomposition process, which is consistent with the conclusion from a secondary forest study 381 (Yang & Luo 2011). In general, these results, i.e., higher nutrient concentrations in litter and soil 382 and lower litter biomass in BM, indicate that BM has a higher soil fertility and nutrient cycling 383 384 rate, which is more conducive to healthy community development and succession.

385 386

387

388

389

390

391

395

396

397 398

399 400

401

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411 412

413

414

415

416 417

418

419

#### C, N and P nutrient storage in ecosystem

The highest C storage was observed in the stems of trees, and the highest C, N and P storage values were observed in the roots of shrubs (except for N in BCM) and leaves of herbs (Figs. 5-7A, B). We can explain these findings by the higher levels of biomass in these plant organs (Fig. S1A, B) and the relatively higher nutrient concentration (Figs. 2-3A-C) (PEICHL et al. 2006; Yu et al. 2015). However, the highest N and P storage values in trees are not in the stem, which has 392 the highest biomass (except for P in CM); rather, the highest values were generally in branches 393 (Figs. 6-7A). This result corresponds with the results of Frédéric et al. (2010), who reported that 394 the contribution of stem wood to total nutrient storage was generally lower than its contribution to total biomass. Among the different forest types, the nutrient storage of different organs and the total biomass nutrient storage were significantly different in the plant layers (Figs. 5-7A, B and Tables 2-4). This result is most likely associated with the diversity of species composition, biomass and nutrient concentration, which together determined the nutrient storage in the plant organs and different plant layers (Frédéric et al. 2010; Gong et al. 2017). Considering the management of nutrient element storage in ecological systems, these results suggested that under forest tending, removing only the tree stem from the forest and leaving the other organs in the 402 forest can maintain fertility and promote community stability in the secondary mixed forest 403 ecosystems.

Our study suggested that C, N and P storage in litter biomass in CM generally exceeded that in the BM and BCM (Tables 2-4). This finding agrees with previous studies that found that, compared with broadleaf tree species, conifers tend to store a relatively higher amounts of nutrient elements in a labile litter layer (Cremer et al. 2016). Because conifer litter had higher lignin and C/N ratios and lower Ca concentrations than broadleaf trees, litter decomposition and nutrient release was hampered in conifer forest (Hobbie et al. 2006). The storage of C and N in the topsoil was significantly higher than that in the undersoil because of the addition of litter fall from the more diverse canopy of trees and understory to the surface soil (Kassa et al. 2017). In contrast, the P storage was nonsignificant among the different soil layers (Fig. 7C). Soil P mainly comes from the weathering of soil rock parent material, which is a very slow process, thereby leading to relatively stable P storage under different soil layers (Tian et al. 2010). Nutrient element storage in different soil layers in BM was generally higher than that in BCM and CM (Figs. 5-7C). This result matches the previous conclusions that the annual litter biomass of aboveground and underground components in broadleaf forest is higher than that in coniferous forest (Finer et al. 2007; Li et al. 2005), and the broadleaf forest have more decomposable components and soil biological activity (Augusto et al. 2015), which enhances the soil C, N and



424

425

426

427

428 429

430

431

432 433

434

435

420 P storage. In total, these results indicate divergent forest nutrient conservation strategies, in which CM share more nutrients stored in the labile litter layer and BM share more nutrients 421 422 stored in the stable soil layer.

Soil had the highest nutrient storage among ecosystem levels, while overstory trees, understory plants and litter had lower proportions (Tables 2-4). This finding corresponds with that of Wu et al. (2006), who reported that there were larger nutrient reserves in soil layers. This result is most likely because soil nutrient storage is more stable and normally continuously increasing due to the association with soil minerals and protection within aggregates (Lützow et al. 2006). Net ecosystem nutrient element storage in BM was generally higher than that in BCM and CM but with nonsignificant differences (Tables 2-4). This result agrees with the conclusion drawn from a previous study, in which the storage of the C, N and N elements in the coniferous forest was generally lower than that of deciduous species (Cao et al. 2016). However, for nonsignificant differences, this result may be because the community is in the initial stage of succession and has lower nutrient storage in aboveground organism components in our study area (Jiang et al. 2017). Therefore, these results validated our assumption that BM has more advantages in terms of C, N and P nutrient storage than do BCM and CM in secondary succession communities.

436 437 438

439

440

441

442 443

444

445 446

447

448

449

450

452

453

454 455

#### **Conclusions**

Our results demonstrate that stoichiometric and nutrient storage characteristics were significantly different for different components in three secondary mixed forest ecosystems. Significant differences in C:N:P stoichiometry were detected in multiple organs in the plant layer under the different forest types, indicating that genetic characteristics and environmental factors may together lead to diverse stoichiometric characteristics. All plants allocated the most N and P to leaves, suggesting that more metabolically active organs have higher N and P nutrient contents. The leaf N:P ratios of plant layers were all less than 14, suggesting that all plants in the study area are limited by N. Higher nutrient concentrations in litter and soil and lower litter biomass in BM indicate that BM has a higher soil fertility and nutrient cycling rate. The generally higher N and P storage in tree branches not in the stem, which has the highest biomass suggested that in forest tending, removing only the tree stem from the forest and leaving the other organs in the forest can maintain fertility and promote community stability in secondary mixed forest ecosystems. Compared with other forest types. CM share more nutrients stored in the labile litter 451 layer, while BM share more nutrients stored in the stable soil layer. BM has more advantages in terms of C, N and P nutrient storage than do BCM and CM in the secondary succession community. Collectively, our findings imply the necessity of artificial intervention in secondary forests toward broadleaf mixed forests, this research provide valuable data for forest nutrient element storage management and establishing a nutrient cycle model.

456 457 458

#### **Acknowledgements**



459 460	We sincerely thank Jiabin Liu and Yang Gao for valuable comments on the manuscript. We also thanks Xinping Zhang for his help in making the pictures.
461	
462	Funding
463	This research was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China
464 465	(No.31470644) and CFERN & GENE Award Funds on Ecological Paper.
466	Competing Interests
467	The authors declare there are no competing interests.
468	
469	Author Contributions
470	Yue Pang designed the experiment; Yue Pang, Jing Tian carried out the field work and analyzed
471	the data; Yue Pang wrote the manuscript; and Xuan Zhao, Zhi Chao, Yuchao Wang, Xinping
472	Zhang and Dexiang Wang revising the draft manuscript.
473	
474	References
475	Aerts R, and Iii FSC. 1999. The Mineral Nutrition of Wild Plants Revisited: A Re-evaluation of
476	Processes and Patterns. Advances in Ecological Research 30:1-67.
477	https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2504(08)60016-1
478	Attiwill PM, and Adams MA. 1993. Nutrient cycling in forests. New Phytologist 124:561-582.
479	https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.1993.tb03847.x
480	Augusto L, De SA, Vesterdal L, Smolander A, Prescott C, and Ranger J. 2015. Influences of
481	evergreen gymnosperm and deciduous angiosperm tree species on the functioning of
482	temperate and boreal forests. Biological Reviews 90:444-466.
483	https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12119
484	Berger TW, Neubauer C, and Glatzel G. 2002. Factors controlling soil carbon and nitrogen stores
485	in pure stands of Norway spruce (Picea abies) and mixed species stands in Austria. Forest
486	Ecology and Management 159:3-14. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1127(01)00705-8
487	Büttner V, and Leuschner C. 1994. Spatial and temporal patterns of fine root abundance in a
488	mixed oak-beech forest. Forest Ecology and Management 70:11-21.
489	https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-1127(94)90071-X
490	Cao Y, and Chen Y. 2015. Biomass, Carbon and Nutrient Storage in a 30-Year-Old Chinese
491	Cork Oak (Quercus Variabilis) Forest on the South Slope of the Qinling Mountains, China.
492	Forests 6:1239-1255. https://doi.org/10.3390/f6041239
493	Cao Y, and Chen Y. 2017. Ecosystem C:N:P stoichiometry and carbon storage in plantations and
494	a secondary forest on the Loess Plateau, China. Ecological Engineering 105:125-132.
495	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoleng.2017.04.024
496	Cao Y, Wang B, Wei T, and Ma H. 2016. Ecological stoichiometric characteristics and element
497	reserves of three stands in a closed forest on the Chinese loess plateau. Environmental
498	Monitoring and Assessment 188:80. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-015-5057-6

- 499 Chai S, and Evj T. 2011. 150 year legacy of land use on tree species composition in
- old secondary forests of Jamaica. Ecology 99:113-121. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-
- 501 2745.2010.01742.x
- 502 Chai Z, Sun C, Wang D, and Liu W. 2016. Interspecific associations of dominant tree
- populations in a virgin old-growth oak forest in the Qinling Mountains, China. Botanical
- 504 Studies 57:23. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40529-016-0139-5
- 505 Cremer M, Kern NV, and Prietzel J. 2016. Soil organic carbon and nitrogen stocks under pure
- and mixed stands of European beech, Douglas fir and Norway spruce. Forest Ecology and
- 507 Management 367:30-40. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2016.02.020
- FAO. 2015. Global Forest Resources Assessment 2015 Rome: The Food and Agricultural
- Organization of the United Nations (FAO).
- 510 Finer L, Helmisaari HS, K, Majdi H, Brunner I, Borja I, Eldhuset T, Godbold D, Grebenc T,
- Konopka B, and Kraigher H. 2007. Variation in fine root biomass of three European tree
- species: beech (Fagus sylvatica L.), Norway spruce (Picea abies L. Karst.), and Scots pine
- 513 (Pinus sylvestris L.). Giornale Botanico Italiano 141:394-405.
- 514 https://doi.org/10.1080/11263500701625897
- 515 Fonseca W, Benayas JMR, and Alice FE. 2011. Carbon accumulation in the biomass and soil of
- different aged secondary forests in the humid tropics of Costa Rica. Forest Ecology and
- 517 Management 262:1400-1408. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2011.06.036
- 518 Frédéric A, Mathieu J, and Quentin P. 2010. Biomass and nutrient content of sessile oak
- Quercus petraea (Matt.) Liebl.) and beech (Fagus sylvatica L.) stem and branches in a
- mixed stand in southern Belgium. Science of the Total Environment 408:2285-2294.
- 521 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2010.02.040
- 522 Ge J, and Xie Z. 2017. Leaf litter carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus stoichiometric patterns as
- related to climatic factors and leaf habits across Chinese broad-leaved tree species. Plant
- Ecology 218:1063-1076. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11258-017-0752-8
- Gong Y, Lv G, Guo Z, Chen Y, and Cao J. 2017. Influence of aridity and salinity on plant
- nutrients scales up from species to community level in a desert ecosystem. Scientific
- 527 Reports 7:6811. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-07240-6
- 528 Grimwood MJ, and Dobbs TJ. 2010. The Potential for Species Conservation in Tropical
- Secondary Forests. Conservation Biology 23:1406-1417. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-
- 530 1739.2009.01338.x
- Güsewell S. 2004. N:P ratios in terrestrial plants- variation and functional significance. New
- 532 Phytologist 164:243-266. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2004.01192.x
- Han W, Fang J, Guo D, and Zhang Y. 2005. Leaf nitrogen and phosphorus stoichiometry across
- 753 terrestrial plant species in China. New Phytologist 168:377-385.
- 535 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2005.01530.x
- He J-S, Wang L, Flynn DFB, Wang X, Ma W, and Fang J. 2008. Leaf nitrogen:phosphorus
- stoichiometry across Chinese grassland biomes. Oecologia 155:301-310.
- 538 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00442-007-0912-y

- Hobbie SE, Reich PB, Jacek O, Megan O, Roma Z, Cynthia H, and Piotr K. 2006. Tree species
   effects on decomposition and forest floor dynamics in a common garden. Ecology 87:2288-
- 541 2297. https://doi.org/10.2307/20069230
- Hong J, Wang X, and Wu J. 2014. Stoichiometry of root and leaf nitrogen and phosphorus in a
   dry alpine steppe on the Northern Tibetan Plateau. PLoS One 9:e109052.
- 544 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0109052
- Hou L, Dong Z, Yang Y, Zhang D, Zhang S, and Zhang S. 2018. Applying foliar stoichiometric
   traits of plants to determine fertilization for a mixed pine-oak stand in the Qinling
   Mountains, China. PeerJ 6:e4628. https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.4628
- Inagaki Y, Miura S, and Kohzu A. 2004. Effects of forest type and stand age on litterfall quality and soil N dynamics in Shikoku district, southern Japan. Forest Ecology and Management 202:107-117. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2004.07.029
- Jiang P, Chen Y, and Cao Y. 2017. C:N:P Stoichiometry and Carbon Storage in a Naturally Regenerated Secondary Quercus variabilis Forest Age Sequence in the Qinling Mountains,
   China. Forests 8:281. https://doi.org/10.3390/f8080281
- Jobbagy EG, and Jackson RB. 2000. The Vertical Distribution of Soil Organic Carbon and Its Relation to Climate and Vegetation. Ecological Applications 10:423. https://doi.org/10.1890/1051-0761(2000)010[0423:tvdoso]2.0.co;2
- Jordan CF. 1985. Nutrient cycling in tropical forest ecosystems: principles and their application in management and conservation. Agriculture Ecosystems & Environment 16:291-292. https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-8809(86)90011-3
- Jr RAC, Currie WS, and Townsend PA. 2006. Carbon sequestration and nutrient cycling
   implications of the evergreen understory layer in Appalachian forests. Forest Ecology and
   Management 231:63-77. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2006.04.040
- Kassa H, Dondeyne S, Poesen J, Frankl A, and Nyssen J. 2017. Impact of deforestation on soil
   fertility, soil carbon and nitrogen stocks: the case of the Gacheb catchment in the White
   Nile Basin, Ethiopia. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment 247:273-282.
   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2017.06.034
- Kennish MJ. 2016. Encyclopedia of Estuaries. Encyclopedia of Earth Sciences Series.
   https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-8801-4\_15
- Kenzo T, Ichie T, Hattori D, Kendawang JJ, Sakurai K, and Ninomiya I. 2010. Changes in
   above- and belowground biomass in early successional tropical secondary forests after
   shifting cultivation in Sarawak, Malaysia. Forest Ecology and Management 260:875-882.
   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2010.06.006
- Kerkhoff AJ, Fagan WF, Elser JJ, and Enquist BJ. 2006. Phylogenetic and Growth Form
   Variation in the Scaling of Nitrogen and Phosphorus in the Seed Plants. The American
   Naturalist 168:E103-E122. https://doi.org/10.1086/507879
- Ladanai S, Ågren GI, and Olsson BA. 2010. Relationships Between Tree and Soil Properties in Picea abies and Pinus sylvestris Forests in Sweden. Ecosystems 13:302-316.
- 578 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10021-010-9319-4

- 579 Li ZA, Zou B, Xia H, Ren H, Mo J, and Weng H. 2005. Litterfall dynamics of an evergreen
- broadleaf forest and a pine forest in the subtropical reigon of China. Forest Science 6:608-
- 581 615.
- Liu J, Yang Z, Peng D, Zhu H, Yang G, Ha VN, and Zhong Z. 2018. Response of soil microbial
- community dynamics to Robinia pseudoacacia L. afforestation in the loess plateau: a
- 584 chronosequence approach. Plant and Soil 423:327-338. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-017-
- 585 3516-2
- Lützow MV, Kögel Knabner I, Ekschmitt K, Matzner E, Guggenberger G, Marschner B, and
- Flessa H. 2006. Stabilization of organic matter in temperate soils: Mechanisms and their
- relevance under different soil conditions A review. European Journal of Soil Science
- 589 57:426-445. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2389.2006.00809.x
- 590 Mcdonald MA, and Healey JR. 2000. Nutrient cycling in secondary forests in the Blue
- Mountains of Jamaica. Forest Ecology and Management 139:257-278.
- 592 https://doi.org/10.1016/s0378-1127(00)00442-4
- 593 Mcdonald MA, Healey JR, and Stevens PA. 2002. The effects of secondary forest clearance and
- subsequent land-use on erosion losses and soil properties in the Blue Mountains of Jamaica.
- Agriculture Ecosystems & Environment 92:1-19. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0167-
- 596 8809(01)00286-9
- 597 Megan EM, Tanguy D, and Lars OH. 2004. Scaling of C:N:P stoichiometry in forest worldwide:
- implications of terrestrial Redfield-type ratios. Ecology 85:2390-2401.
- 599 https://doi.org/10.1890/03-0351
- 600 Minden V, ., and Kleyer M, . 2014. Internal and external regulation of plant organ stoichiometry.
- Plant Biology 16:897-907. https://doi.org/10.1111/plb.12155
- 602 Odum EP, Altieri MAL, M, Cooperdriver GAS, T, Daubenmire RF, Castro PR, ERWIN DCG,
- S.B. TSAO, P.H., and Sutton DBH, N. P. 1972. Fundamentals of ecology. Evolution 45:605-
- 604 605. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1558-5646.1954.tb00123.x
- Orihuela-Belmonte DE, Jong BHJD, Mendoza-Vega J, Wal JVD, Paz-Pellat F, Soto-Pinto L, and
- Flamenco-Sandoval A. 2013. Carbon stocks and accumulation rates in tropical secondary
- forests at the scale of community, landscape and forest type. Agriculture Ecosystems &
- Environment 171:72-84. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2013.03.012
- 609 PEICHL, Matthias, and Arain A. 2006. Above-and belowground ecosystem biomass and carbon
- pools in an age-sequence of temperate pine plantation forests. Agricultural and Forest
- 611 Meteorology 140:51-63. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2006.08.004
- Peña-Claros M. 2003. Changes in Forest Structure and Species Composition during Secondary
- Forest Succession in the Bolivian Amazon. Biotropica 35:450-461.
- Prescott CE. 2002. The influence of the forest canopy on nutrient cycling. Tree Physiology
- 615 22:1193-1200. https://doi.org/10.1093/treephys/22.15-16.1193
- Prusty BAK, Chandra R, and Azeez PA. 2009. Distribution of carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, and
- sulfur in the soil in a multiple habitat system in India. Australian Journal of Soil Research
- 618 47:177-189. https://doi.org/10.1071/SR08087

- Shanin V, Komarov A, and Mäkipää R. 2014. Tree species composition affects productivity and carbon dynamics of different site types in boreal forests. European Journal of Forest
- Research 133:273-286. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10342-013-0759-1
- Sharma JC, and Sharma Y. 2004. Nutrient cycling in forest ecosystems A review. Agricultural
   Review 25:157-172.
- Shi H, Xie F, Zhou Q, Shu X, Zhang K, Dang C, Feng S, Zhang Q, and Dang H. 2019. Effects of Topography on Tree Community Structure in a Deciduous Broad-Leaved Forest in North-
- 626 Central China. Forests 10:53. https://doi.org/10.3390/f10010053
- Sistla SA, and Schimel JP. 2012. Stoichiometric flexibility as a regulator of carbon and nutrient cycling in terrestrial ecosystems under change. New Phytologist 196:68-78.
- 629 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2012.04234.x
- Song Z, Liu H, Zhao F, and Xu C. 2014. Ecological stoichiometry of N:P:Si in China's grasslands. Plant and Soil 380:165-179. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-014-2084-y
- Sterner RW, and Elser JJ. 2002. Ecological stoichiometry: the biology of elements from molecules to the biosphere. Princeton University Press.
- Thiel-Egenter C, and Gugerli FA, Nadir. 2010. Effects of species traits on the genetic diversity of high-mountain plants: a multi-species study across the Alps and the Carpathians. Global Ecology and Biogeography 18:78-87. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1466-8238.2008.00421.x
- Thomas SC, and Martin AR. 2012. Carbon Content of Tree Tissues: A Synthesis. Forests 3:332-352. https://doi.org/10.3390/f3020332
- Tian H, Chen G, Zhang C, and Hall MCAS. 2010. Pattern and variation of C:N:P ratios in
   China"s soils: a synthesis of observational data. Biogeochemistry 98:139-151.
   https://doi.org/10.2307/40647956
- Tian J, Deng Z, Zhang K, Yu H, Jiang X, and Li C. 2015. Genetic Analysis of Main
   Physiological and Morphological Traits. Springer, Netherlands
- Waring RH, and Schlesinger WH. 1985. Forest ecosystems : concepts and management. Clinical & Experimental Allergy 75:284. https://doi.org/10.2307/1310524
- Wright IJ, Reich PB, Westoby M, Ackerly DD, Baruch Z, and Bongers F. 2004. The worldwide leaf economics spectrum. Nature 428:821. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature02403
- Wu G, Wei J, Deng H, and Zhao J. 2006. Nutrient cycling in an Alpine tundra ecosystem on
   Changbai Mountain, Northeast China. Applied Soil Ecology 32:199-209.
- https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2005.06.003
- Xu J, Yin R, Zhou L, and Liu C. 2006. China's ecological rehabilitation: Unprecedented efforts,
   dramatic impacts, and requisite policies. Ecological Economics 57:595-607.
- https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2005.05.008
- Yang C, and Chen Y. 2017. Coupling of plant and soil C:N:P stoichiometry in black locust
- (Robinia pseudoacacia) plantations on the Loess Plateau, China. Trees 31:1559-1570.
- https://doi.org/10.1007/s00468-017-1569-8

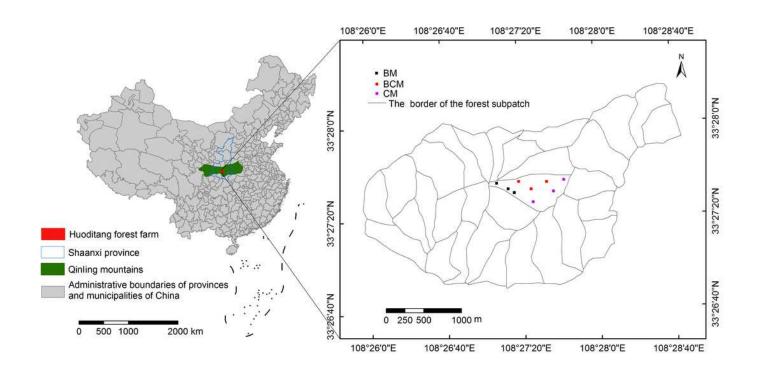


657	Yang Y, Liu B-R, and An S-S. 2018. Ecological stoichiometry in leaves, roots, litters and soil
658	among different plant communities in a desertified region of Northern China. Catena
659	166:328-338. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2018.04.018
660	Yang Y, and Luo Y. 2011. Carbon : nitrogen stoichiometry in forest ecosystems during stand
661	development. Global Ecology and Biogeography 20:354-361.
662	https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1466-8238.2010.00602.x
663	Yu JB, Liu JS, Meixner FX, Wang JD, Gao YJ, Wang Y, Qi XN, and Chen XB. 2015.
664	Estimating Net Primary Productivity and Nutrient Stock in Plant in Freshwater Marsh,
665	Northeastern China. CLEAN - Soil, Air, Water 38:1080-1086.
666	https://doi.org/10.1002/clen.201000294
667	Zhang G, Zhang P, Peng S, Chen Y, and Cao Y. 2017. The coupling of leaf, litter, and soil
668	nutrients in warm temperate forests in northwestern China. Scientific Reports 7:11754.
669	https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-12199-5
670	Zhang J, Zhao N, Liu C, Yang H, Li M, Yu G, Wilcox K, Yu Q, He N, and Niu S. 2018a. C:N:P
671	stoichiometry in China's forests: From organs to ecosystems. Functional Ecology 32:50-60.
672	https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.12979
673	Zhang K, Cheng X, Xiao S, Yi L, and Zhang Q. 2018b. Linking soil bacterial and fungal
674	communities to vegetation succession following agricultural abandonment. Plant and Soil
675	431:19-36. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-018-3743-1
676	Zhang K, Zhou SZ, Michinaka T, Hirano Y, and Tachibana S. 2011. Impact of Natural Forest
677	Protection Program policies on forests in northeastern China. Forestry Studies in China
678	13:231-238.
679	Zhang Q, Xiong G, Li J, Lu Z, Li Y, Xu W, Wang Y, Zhao C, Tang Z, and Xie Z. 2018c.
680	Nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations and allocation strategies among shrub organs: the
681	effects of plant growth forms and nitrogen-fixation types. Plant and Soil 427:305-319

- effects of plant growth forms and nitrogen-fixation types. Plant and Soil 427:305-319. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-018-3655-0 682
- Zheng X, Yuan J, Zhang T, Hao F, Jose S, and Zhang S. 2017. Soil Degradation and the Decline 683 of Available Nitrogen and Phosphorus in Soils of the Main Forest Types in the Qinling 684 Mountains of China. Forests 8:460. https://doi.org/10.3390/f8110460 685



Geographic location of the Huoditang Experimental Forest Farm and the sampling plots

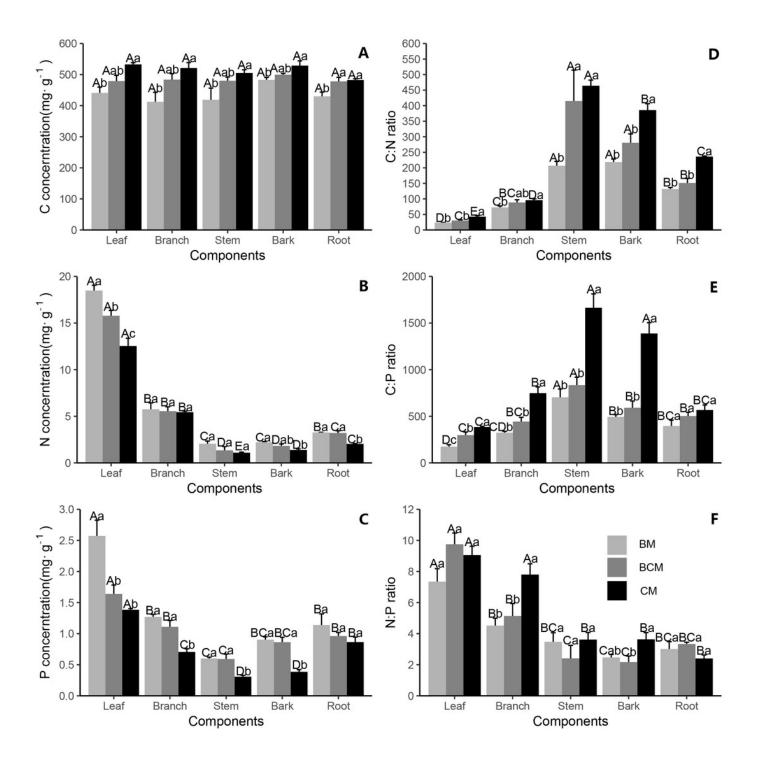




Stoichiometric characteristics of tree organ C, N, and P in three secondary mixed forests

Different lowercase letters above the bars indicate significant differences among different forest types for the same organ (p < 0.05), while different uppercase letters indicate significant differences among different organs for the same forest type (p < 0.05).



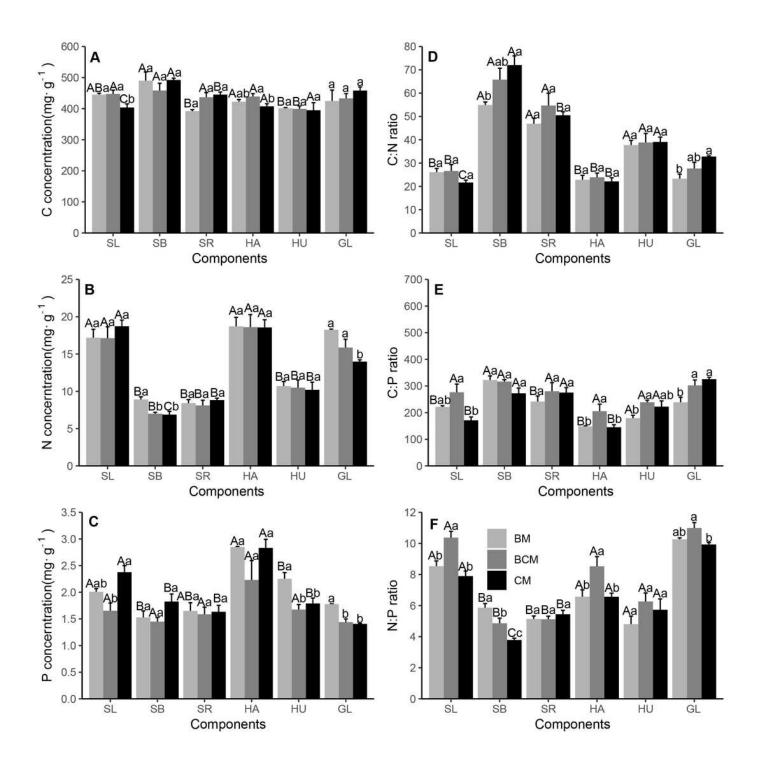




Stoichiometric characteristics of shrub and herb organs and litter layer C, N, and P in three secondary mixed forests

Different lowercase letters above the bars indicate significant differences among different forest types for the same organ (p < 0.05), while different uppercase letters indicate significant differences among different organs for the same forest type (p < 0.05). SL: shrub leaf, SB: shrub branch, SR: shrub root, HA: herb aboveground, HU: herb underground, GL: ground litter.



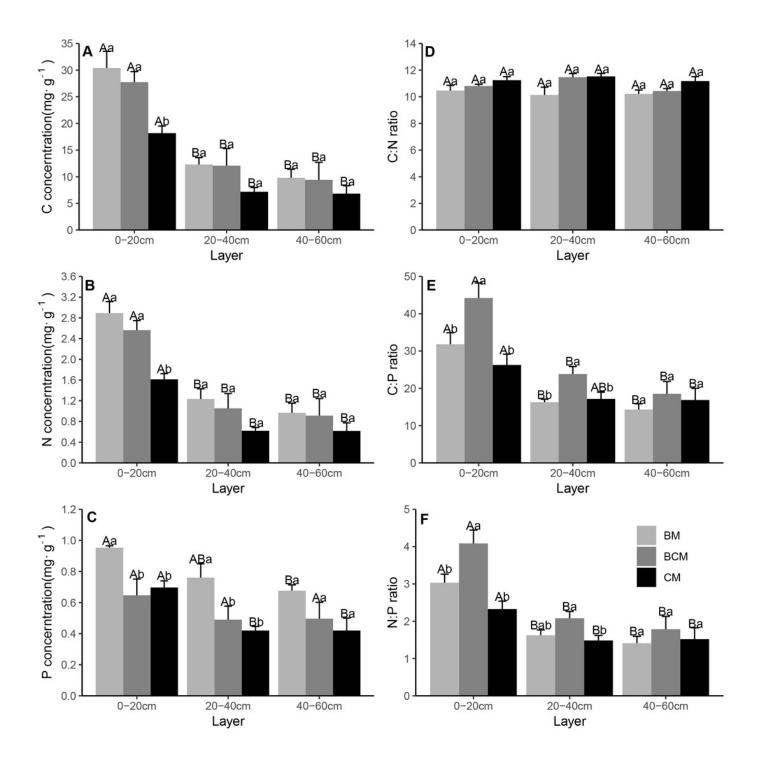




Stoichiometric characteristics of soil layer C, N, and P in three secondary mixed forests

Different lowercase letters above the bars indicate significant differences among different forest types for the same soil layer (p < 0.05), while different uppercase letters indicate significant differences among different soil layers for the same forest type (p < 0.05).



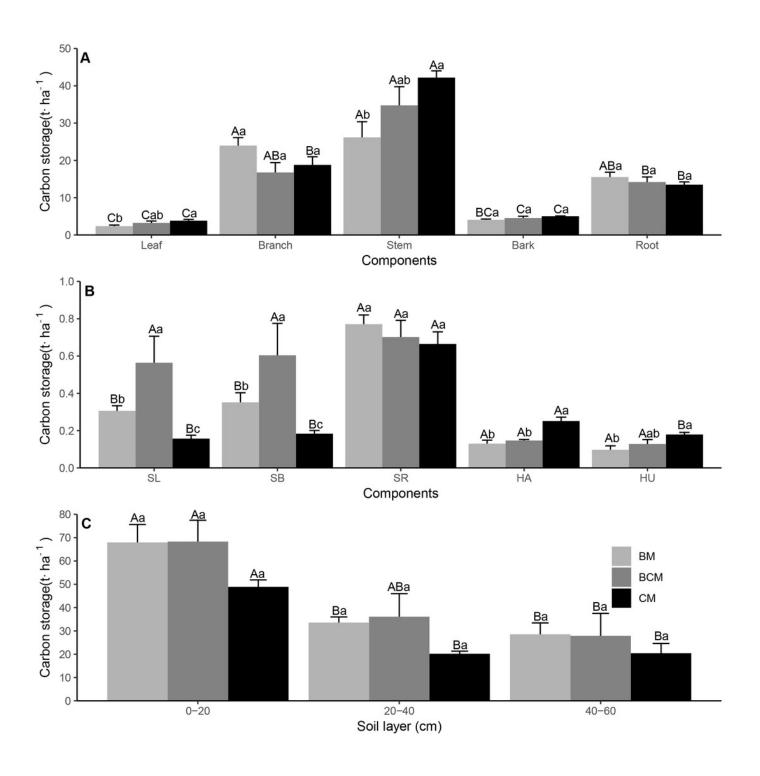




Carbon storage of trees (A), understory plants (B) organs and soil layers (C) in three secondary mixed forests

Different lowercase letters above the bars indicate significant differences among different forest types for the same organ or soil layer (p < 0.05), while different uppercase letters indicate significant differences among different organs or soil layers for the same forest type (p < 0.05). SL: shrub leaf, SB: shrub branch, SR: shrub root, HA: herb aboveground, HU: herb underground.



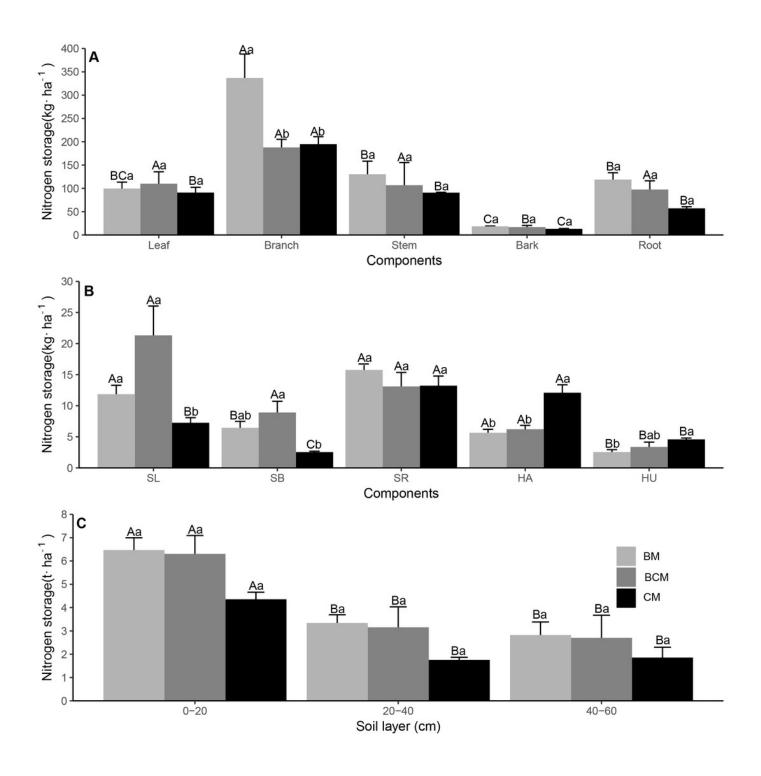




Nitrogen storage of trees (A), understory plants (B) organs and soil layers (C) in three secondary mixed forests

Different lowercase letters above the bars indicate significant differences among different forest types for the same organ or soil layer (p < 0.05), while different uppercase letters indicate significant differences among different organs or soil layers for the same forest type (p < 0.05). SL: shrub leaf, SB: shrub branch, SR: shrub root, HA: herb aboveground, HU: herb underground.







Phosphorus storage of trees (A), understory plants (B) organs and soil layers (C) in three secondary mixed forests

Different lowercase letters above the bars indicate significant differences among different forest types for the same organ or soil layer (p < 0.05), while different uppercase letters indicate significant differences among different organs or soil layers for the same forest type (p < 0.05). SL: shrub leaf, SB: shrub branch, SR: shrub root, HA: herb aboveground, HU: herb underground.



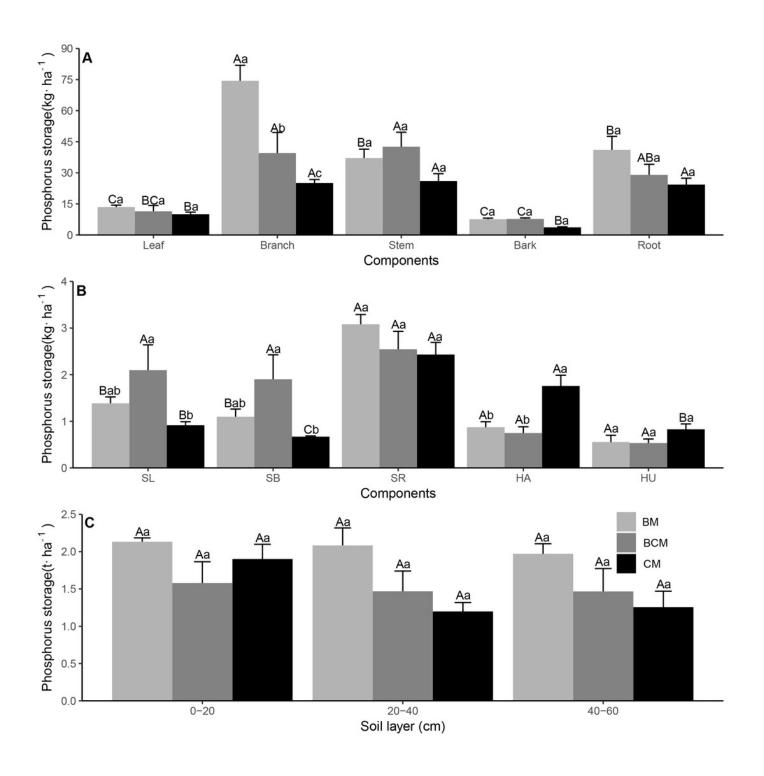




Table 1(on next page)

Characteristics of sample plots in three secondary mixed forests



Forest types	BM	BCM	CM
Altitude (m)	1900-2150	2000-2100	1800-2000
Slope aspect	Northwest	Northeast	Northwest
Slope position	Central	Central	Below
Slope gradient (°)	16-24	11-20	15-22
Fertigation	No	No	No
Shrubs	Schisandra sphenanthera	Schisandra sphenanthera	Viburnum betulifolium
	Viburnum betulifolium	Smilax china	Lonicera fragrantissima
	Rubus mesogaeus	Viburnum betulifolium	Rubus mesogaeus
Herbaceous	Matteuccia intermedia	Tripterospermum chinense	Athyrium sinense
	Lysimachia christinae	Viola verecunda	Tripterospermum chinense
	Carex duriuscula	Carex duriuscula	Carex duriuscula
DBH (cm)	17.24±1.76	$13.98 \pm 0.74$	$19.06 \pm 0.52$
Height (m)	$10.85 \pm 0.22$	11.84±0.56	$19.79 \pm 0.34$
Density (n ha <sup>-1</sup> )	933±246	1333±30	783±88



#### Table 2(on next page)

Carbon storage of plant total biomass, litter total biomass, soil and net ecosystem

Different letters indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among forest types based on a one-way ANOVA followed by an LSD test.



<b>Ecosystem pool</b>	BM		BCM		CM	
	C storage	percentag	C storage	percentag	C storage	percentage
		e		e		
Tree (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$72.09\pm4.82$	35.09%	73.49±9.71	35.03 %	83.35±3.11	47.13%
Shrub (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$1.43 \pm 0.06ab$	0.70%	$1.87 \pm 0.26a$	0.89 %	$1.00\pm0.07b$	0.57%
Herb (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$0.23\pm0.01b$	0.11%	$0.27 \pm 0.01b$	0.13%	$0.43\pm0.03a$	0.24%
G-litter (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	1.63±0.16b	0.80%	1.82±0.10b	0.87%	2.53±0.16a	1.43%
Soil (t ha-1)	$130.05\pm13$	63.30%	132.30±25	63.08%	89.54±4.01	50.63%
Net ecosystem (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	205.43±10	100%	209.75±35	100%	176.86±7.14	100%



#### Table 3(on next page)

Nitrogen storage of plant total biomass, litter total biomass, soil and net ecosystem

Different letters indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among forest types based on a one-way ANOVA followed by an LSD test.



Ecosystem pool	BM		BCM		CM	
	N storage	percentag	N storage	percentag	N storage	percentage
		e		e		
Tree (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	704.16±41	5.24%	518.96±112	4.05%	446.93±24	5.24%
Shrub (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$34.06\pm0.70a$	0.25%	43.33±6.7a	0.34%	23.03±1.05b	0.27%
Herb (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	8.20±0.16b	0.06%	9.59±0.77b	0.07%	16.68±1.5a	0.20%
G-litter (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$70.35 \pm 5.07$	0.52%	$66.42\pm2.89$	0.52%	77.27±4.51	0.91%
Soil (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$12.63\pm1.33$	93.93%	12.16±2.39	95.02%	$7.97 \pm 0.29$	93.43%
et ecosystem (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	13.45±1.32	100%	$12.80\pm2.5$	100%	8.53±0.32	100%



#### Table 4(on next page)

Phosphorus storage of plant total biomass, litter total biomass, soil and net ecosystem

Different letters indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among forest types based on a one-way ANOVA followed by an LSD test.



Ecosystem pool	BM		BCM		CM	
	P storage	percentag	P storage	percentag	P storage	percentage
		e		e		
Tree (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	173.67±13a	2.72%	130.27±23ab	2.8%	89.13±3.9b	2.00%
Shrub (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$5.56 \pm 0.19ab$	0.09%	$6.54\pm1.04a$	0.14%	$4.01\pm0.2b$	0.09%
Herb (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$1.43\pm0.04b$	0.02%	$1.28\pm0.07b$	0.03%	$2.58\pm0.32a$	0.06%
G-litter (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$6.86 \pm 0.53 ab$	0.11%	$6.04\pm0.07b$	0.13%	$7.77 \pm 0.36a$	0.17%
Soil (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$6.19\pm0.39$	97.06%	$4.51\pm0.8$	96.9%	$4.36\pm0.35$	97.76%
et ecosystem (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$6.37 \pm 0.39$	100%	$4.66 \pm 0.84$	100%	$4.46\pm0.34$	100%