



1 The influence of elevated CO₂ and soil depth on rhizosphere
2 activity and nutrient availability in a mature *Eucalyptus* woodland

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9 **Abstract.** Elevated carbon dioxide (eCO₂) in the atmosphere increases forest biomass productivity, but only where
10 soil nutrients, particularly nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) are not limiting growth. eCO₂, in turn, can impact
11 rhizosphere nutrient availability. Our current understanding of nutrient cycling under eCO₂ is mainly derived from
12 surface soil, leaving mechanisms of the impact of eCO₂ on rhizosphere nutrient availability at deeper depths
13 unexplored. To investigate the influence of eCO₂ on nutrient availability in soil at depth, we studied various C, N
14 and P pools (extractable, microbial biomass, total soil C and N, and mineral associated P) and nutrient cycling
15 processes (enzyme activity and gross N mineralization) associated with C, N, and P cycling in both bulk and
16 rhizosphere soil at different depths at the Free Air CO₂ enrichment facility in a native Australian mature
17 *Eucalyptus* woodland (EucFACE) on a nutrient-poor soil. We found that the depth-induced decrease in nutrient
18 availability, gross N mineralization was counteracted by the root influence and by eCO₂. Increases in available
19 PO₄³⁻, adsorbed P and the C:N and C:P ratio of enzyme activity with depth were observed. We conclude that the
20 influences of roots and of eCO₂ can affect available-nutrient pools and processes well beyond the surface soil of
21 a mature forest ecosystem. Our findings indicate a faster recycling of nutrients in the rhizosphere, rather than
22 additional nutrients becoming available through SOM decomposition. If the plant growth response to eCO₂ is
23 reduced by the constraints of nutrient limitations, then the current results would call to question the potential for
24 mature tree ecosystems to fix more C as biomass in response to eCO₂. Future studies should address how
25 accessible the available nutrients at depth are to deeply rooted plants, and if fast recycling of nutrients is a
26 meaningful contribution to biomass production and the accumulation of soil C in response to eCO₂.

27 **1 Introduction**

28 With elevated carbon dioxide (eCO₂) in the atmosphere, higher photosynthesis rates can drive increases in forest
29 biomass productivity (Ainsworth and Long, 2005; Norby and Zak, 2011). However, enhanced forest productivity
30 in the long-term is not possible in areas where soil nutrients, particularly nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) (Fisher
31 et al., 2012) limit growth (Ellsworth et al., 2017; Terrer et al., 2018, 2019). In contrast, plant-microbe interaction
32 under eCO₂ might stimulate soil organic matter (SOM) decomposition and alleviate nutrient limitation (Luo et al.,
33 2004; Drake et al., 2011; Wang and Wang, 2021). The mechanisms alleviating the nutrient limitation is that higher
34 root exudation rates, stimulation of root growth and fine root production and turnover can potentially elicit SOM
35 decomposition and subsequent nutrient release (Bernard et al., 2022). Root-mediated changes to SOM
36 decomposition and nutrient cycling resulting from a changing climate may be especially important in forest



37 systems where tree roots extend far below the soil surface, and where eCO₂ may also alter root distribution with
38 depth (Iversen et al., 2008) (Iversen, 2010). However, current understanding of nutrient cycling under eCO₂ is
39 mainly derived from surface soils, leaving mechanisms of the impact of eCO₂ on nutrient availability at deeper
40 depths unexplored (Jackson et al., 1996).

41 In the organic rich surface layers of soil, where most fine roots are located, microbial activity is high (de
42 Graaff et al., 2014). As SOM content, root density, and microbial biomass decline with depth, so does microbial
43 activity and rate of processes in soil (Hobley and Wilson, 2016). Despite this, deeper SOM has been found to be
44 more responsive to fresh C inputs (Fontaine et al., 2007) with the implication that the decomposition effect of
45 fresh C from the rhizosphere is likely to increase with depth. With an extending root system, such as may occur
46 under eCO₂ (Iversen, 2010), plants can introduce C where labile C may not have previously been abundant
47 (Iversen et al., 2008; Kuzyakov and Blagodatskaya, 2015) thus promote microbial activity and accelerated C
48 decomposition at depth, potentially releasing nutrients. Moreover, increased C to the rhizosphere can shift the
49 stoichiometric balance of C relative to soil nutrients (de Graaff et al., 2006; Kuzyakov, 2010; Carrillo et al., 2014).
50 With increased abundance of C, the microbial demand for N and P increases (Sistla and Schimel, 2012), in turn
51 leading to an increase in microbial SOM decomposition (Bengtson et al., 2012; Carrillo et al., 2017). Further,
52 microbes have been found to improve their nutrient use efficiency to compensate for the stoichiometric imbalance
53 of decomposer and substrate (Mooshammer et al., 2014). This is manifested through accumulation of N and P in
54 microbial biomass, faster gross mineralization rates, and smaller pools of available inorganic nutrients in the soil
55 solution available for plant uptake. The phenomenon has been found for both N (Rütting et al., 2010) and P
56 (Spohn, 2016; Spohn and Widdig, 2017). How these shifts in stoichiometry manifest in deeper soils is unclear but
57 may have wide ranging implications for forest productivity in response to eCO₂.

58 Belowground allocation of plant-derived C has differential impacts on N and P owing to inherent
59 differences in their cycling. Plant available N in inorganic form (ammonium and nitrate) is derived primarily
60 through SOM decomposition involving the microbial processes of depolymerization and mineralization of organic
61 compounds and through nitrification (Schimel et al., 2015). In contrast, plant available inorganic P (phosphate)
62 can be sourced from both organic sources via microbial SOM decomposition, and inorganic sources via
63 dissolution from primary minerals and desorption from secondary minerals (Adeleke et al., 2017) (Figure 1). Plant
64 and microbial P limitation is often driven by the mechanism of transitioning P between inaccessible organically
65 bound P to an available inorganic form via a dissolved phase, which renders it susceptible to sorption to secondary
66 mineral surfaces like clays and metal hydroxides (Gérard, 2016). In older, highly weathered soils of higher clay
67 content inorganic P availability can be more constraining for plant and microbial activity than N. In these soils,
68 where the primary mineral P source has been depleted, most of the P left in the system is in organic form, either
69 in biomass of plants and microbial cells, or in SOM (Walker and Syers, 1976; Lambers et al., 2008). Increased
70 root exudation and microbial activity in the rhizosphere can increase decomposition of organic P in SOM through
71 phosphatase enzyme production (Bünemann, 2015) and facilitate the release of mineral adsorbed P by releasing
72 organic acids, competing for sorption sites and lowering soil pH. Therefore, the equilibrium of inorganic P
73 between adsorbed and available forms is determined by root exudation, microbial enzyme production and soil
74 mineralogy (Figure 1) all factors that are considered depth dependent properties.



75 Given that N and P cycling in soil differs, and that the factors controlling those processes can vary with
76 depth, soil nutrient stoichiometry also tends to vary with depth (Li et al., 2016). Soil C:N ratio tends to decrease
77 with depth under increased microbial processing of C. Declining SOM content with depth will also lower the N
78 content. In contrast, soil C:P can decrease, but more often remains unchanged as mineral adsorbed P remains in
79 soil despite SOM content declining; the potential implication of which, is a reduction in soil N:P at depth (Li et
80 al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2017). Therefore, many heavily weathered surface soils may be constrained in available
81 PO_4^{+} , but at depth, some soils may be N limited. This is important in the context of eCO_2 , because the response
82 of SOM decomposition to increased labile C availability could be dependent on which nutrient is most limiting to
83 microbes (Dijkstra et al., 2013), which in turn would be expected to depend on depth. Accordingly, extrapolations
84 of nutrient limitation from surface soil processes to deeper soil layers become unreliable without accounting for
85 mechanisms controlling nutrient processing as the stoichiometry changes with depth. The lack of experimental
86 evidence concerning soil nutrient cycling processes in deeper soil render the assumption that native biomes will
87 increase their productivity under eCO_2 contentious (Iversen et al., 2011; Rumpel and Kögel-Knabner, 2011).

88 The *Eucalyptus* Free Air CO_2 Enrichment (EucFACE) facility in eastern Australia has experimentally
89 exposed a *Eucalyptus* woodland, on a low N and P soil, to eCO_2 concentration (+150 ppm) continuously since
90 2013 (Drake et al., 2016). To date the site has not seen any evidence of increase in aboveground biomass in the
91 *Eucalyptus* trees under eCO_2 (Ellsworth et al., 2017) despite an increase in the photosynthetic rate of both the
92 dominant tree species and the understory grasses in this ecosystem (Ellsworth et al., 2017; Pathare et al., 2017).
93 The lack of plant biomass response to the CO_2 treatment is hypothesised to be caused by a severe P limitation of
94 the soil, additions of which was shown to increase plant biomass in a tree stand close by not exposed to eCO_2
95 (Crous et al., 2015). In this system, mineralization and decomposition of SOM have only been investigated in the
96 upper soil layers (Hasegawa et al., 2016; Castañeda-Gómez et al., 2020, 2021). The potential for the plants in this
97 system to utilise nutrients in deeper soil layers is relevant because this highly weathered nutrient poor soil system
98 may already have reached a maximum efficiency for nutrient cycling in the upper soil layer where SOM and
99 microbial activity is greater. Despite the considerable number of P limited forests globally there are still large
100 uncertainties surrounding rhizosphere activity and nutrient cycling in older, P-limited soils compared to younger
101 soils in the northern hemisphere that are often N limited (Fisher et al., 2012; Terrer et al., 2019).

102 To investigate the influence of eCO_2 on nutrient availability in soil at depth, we studied various C, N and
103 P pools (extractable, microbial biomass, total soil C and N, and mineral associated P) and nutrient cycling
104 processes (enzyme activity and gross N mineralization) associated with C, N, and P cycling in both bulk and
105 rhizosphere soil at different depths at the EucFACE facility. We asked: Q1. what is the difference between
106 rhizosphere and bulk soil in terms of soil properties, and is this changed with soil depth? Q2. what is the effect of
107 eCO_2 on nutrient availability and C:N:P stoichiometry in the rhizosphere, and does it change with soil depth?
108 Given that increased root exudation will prime microbial nutrient mining, we hypothesize (1) nutrient availability
109 (inorganic N and P) will be higher in the rhizosphere compared to bulk soil. We also hypothesize that (2) eCO_2
110 will increase availability of P to a greater extent than N in surface soil, but not at deeper layers; and that (3) eCO_2
111 will have less impact on N than P availability and increase the processes contributing to P release (P-targeting
112 enzymes) more so than N release (N-targeting enzymes and gross N mineralization). This effect will be less



113 important with depth because the overall N:P ratio declines with depth, alleviating the P limitation and thus
114 shifting the demand from P to N.

115 **2 Materials and methods**

116 **2.1 Experimental design**

117 The study was performed at the *Eucalyptus* Free-Air CO₂ Enrichment (EucFACE) experiment located in a
118 Cumberland Plain woodland with mature *Eucalyptus* trees in Sydney, Australia (33°37'S and 150°44'E, 23 m
119 a.s.l.). The site has six experimental rings (n=3), each with a diameter of 25 m. The CO₂ treatment was
120 implemented to three of the rings (eCO₂) since September 2012 and reached +150 ppm above ambient CO₂ (aCO₂)
121 in February 2013 (Ellsworth et al., 2017). The remaining three rings are controls (aCO₂). The soil at the site is a
122 developing red and/or yellow aeris podsol in weakly organised alluvial deposits (Ross et al., 2020) including iron-
123 manganese nodules (Clarendon formation) with a metal oxide rich (field observation) transition to a hardpan clay
124 layer (Londonderry clay; (Atkinson, 1988) found at a variable depth throughout the site (between 35-85 cm). The
125 dominant tree species is *Eucalyptus tereticornis* and the dominant understory grass is *Microlaena stipoides*. The
126 site has an average precipitation of 800 mm per year, with a total precipitation of 16.8 mm in the month leading
127 up to the sampling campaign. The yearly mean temperature was 17 °C. For further detailed site description see
128 Ellsworth et al., (2017).

129 **2.2 Field sampling, soil preparation and root biomass determination**

130 Soil cores (5 cm diameter) were collected from all rings in September 2017. Twelve cores were taken in each ring,
131 spread as three in each of the four pre-established two by two-meter subplots designated for soil sampling (4
132 subplots per ring, total of 72 soil cores). Each core was sampled down to the clay layer which varied with depth
133 across the site (35-85 cm). Each core was divided into the three depths for investigation: 0-10 cm, 10-30 cm, and
134 transition (a 10 cm interval where sandy loam transitioned into clay). Samples were kept cool until further
135 processing in the laboratory within one week of collection. Although the depth of the transition layer differed
136 throughout the site the chemical properties are assumed to be similar within this zone across the site as the water
137 here periodically builds up above the clay before it drains, creating conditions for podzolification. Soils were
138 processed to separate bulk from rhizosphere soil. The rhizosphere soil was defined as any soil that was still
139 attached to the fine roots when these were separated from soil and soil was collected by gently shaking roots. All
140 other soil in the core was considered bulk soil. For both rhizosphere soil and bulk soil, subplots 1 and 2, and 3 and
141 4, were combined to two samples per ring and depth (n = 6 samples per ring). This was necessary to have sufficient
142 rhizosphere soil sample for subsequent analysis. Samples were sieved to < 2 mm. Sub-samples for potential
143 enzyme activity were frozen (-20 °C) immediately after sieving (see supplement for further methods). Soil samples
144 to be analysed for nutrient availability and microbial biomass were stored field moist at 5 °C until processed. The
145 roots already handpicked for rhizosphere soil were washed and dried within a week of sampling and later separated
146 into larger and smaller than 3mm diameter fractions. Additionally, any remaining roots were hand-picked from a
147 subsample (~50 g) of sieved soil and scaled to the total sample weight.



148 **2.3 Extractable carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus and microbial biomass**

149 Microbial biomass C, N, and P were determined on fresh soil following the fumigation extraction method of
150 Vance et al. (1987). Briefly, fumigated samples were treated with ethanol free CHCl_3 under vacuum (fumigated
151 for four days for C and N, and one day for P) and then extracted for C, N, and P using K_2SO_4 and Bray-P I. All
152 extracts were filtered through Whatman 42 grade filter papers and frozen until analysis. Fumigated and
153 unfumigated extracts of K_2SO_4 (0.5 M) were analysed for C and N on TOC-L (total organic carbon analyser,
154 Shimadzu corporation, Japan). Fumigated and unfumigated extracts of Bray-P I were analysed for PO_4^{3-} ,
155 additionally unfumigated K_2SO_4 extracts were analysed for inorganic N (ammonium and nitrate), according to
156 Rayment and Lyons (2011), by colorimetry (AQ2 Discrete Analyser, SEAL Analytical, Mequon, WI, USA). Soil
157 was dried (70 °C) for determination of gravimetric soil moisture and air-dried soil was used for pH (1:5 s:w), (S20
158 SevenEasy™ pH, Mettler-Toledo International Inc., Columbus, OH, USA). Subsamples of the air-dried soil
159 were cleared of visible root fragments and analysed for total soil C and N (LECO TruMac CN-analyser, Leco
160 corporation, USA) and for mineral associated inorganic P.

161 **2.4 Mineral adsorbed inorganic phosphorus**

162 To quantify mineral associated inorganic P a one g air-dried subsample was extracted with NaOH- Na_2EDTA
163 (0.25M NaOH and 0.05M Na_2EDTA) and horizontally shaken for 16 h at 80 rpm after which it was filtered
164 (Rayment and Lyons, 2011). Extracts were diluted 1:10 with sterile water and analysed using the malachite green
165 reagent (Ohno and Zibilske, 1991) in a clear 96 well plate. The plates were analysed by colorimetry on a
166 CLARIOstar plate reader (BMG LABTECH GmbH, Germany) at 610 nm after one hour incubation at 25°C.

167 **2.5 Pool dilution for gross N mineralization rates**

168 To assess the gross N mineralization, rate an isotope pool dilution assay using ^{15}N enriched ammonium was made
169 with a series of laboratory incubations following the method of Rütting et al. (2011). Ammonium concentration
170 and ammonium- ^{15}N excess from two time points was done on KCl extracts (Stange et al., 2007; Putz et al., 2018)
171 with SpinMass (Sample Preparation of Inorganic Nitrogen MASSpectrometer) at ISOGOT (Dept of Earth
172 Sciences, University of Gothenburg, Sweden). The ^{15}N -label was added in duplicate fresh and sieved soil samples
173 (5 g) with a label consisting of 10 μg ($^{15}\text{NH}_4$) $_2\text{SO}_4$ (^{15}N fraction of 99 %, Cambridge Isotope laboratory Inc.) in
174 0.25 mL milliQ water. After label addition, samples were incubated for 15 minutes and 24 hours under steady
175 temperature (20 °C) and in darkness. The incubations were extracted with 1 M KCl (15 mL), shaken for one hour
176 at 120 rpm and filtered through 42 grade ash-less Whatman filters and frozen until analysis. All gross
177 mineralization rates were calculated using the equation in Kirkham and Bartholomew (1955).

178 **2.6 Statistical analyses**

179 The impact of CO_2 treatment, depth and their interaction were assessed separately for bulk and rhizosphere soil
180 at three depth levels (0-10, 10-30, and transition). Two soil depths (0-10, 10-30) were used in the analysis of
181 rhizosphere where insufficient amounts of rhizosphere soil were recovered during sampling. The subsequent
182 pseudo-replication created with two samples per experimental unit (ring) were dealt with using a linear mixed
183 effects model where CO_2 and depth and their interactions were fixed factors and ring a random factor with
184 individual intercepts (*lme4* package, Bates et al. 2015), corresponding to the EucFACE experimental design
185 (Hasegawa et al., 2016). To assess the role of roots on CO_2 and depth effects, we used a linear mixed effects model



186 with CO₂, depth (two depths: 0-10, 10-30) and soil type (bulk, rhizosphere) as fixed factors with all interactions
187 and ring as a random factor with individual intersects (Bates et al. 2015). For gross N mineralization rate, the data
188 was slightly skewed due to the ambient bulk 10-30 cm samples being below the SPINMAS detection limit so they
189 could not be quantified.

190 Significance was determined with the *ANOVA* function (*car* package, Fox and Weisberg, 2019) with
191 Kenward-Roger degrees of freedom estimation. Post-hoc analysis was performed with the *glht* function for multi-
192 comparison (*multcomp* package, Hothorn et al. 2008). The post-hoc Tukey analysis all CO₂, depth, and soil factors
193 were combined into their unique interactions and then processed in the linear mixed effects model as previously
194 described. Normal distribution of residuals was assessed, and log transformations were performed where required
195 to meet model assumptions.

196 **3 Results**

197 **3.1 Fine root biomass**

198 Fine root biomass density significantly decreased with depth and ranged from 0.12 mg·g⁻¹ to 2.75 mg·g⁻¹ with
199 highest densities in the surface depth (0 to 10 cm) and the lowest density in the transition depth (Figure 2). There
200 was a significant interaction between depth and CO₂ where in the topsoil (0 to 10 cm) elevated CO₂ (eCO₂)
201 samples had a 28 % lower fine root density than ambient.

202 **3.2 Carbon in total soil, dissolved and microbial biomass pools**

203 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) declined significantly with depth for both bulk and rhizosphere soil, and the
204 decrease by depth was stronger for rhizosphere soil (25 %) than for bulk soil (11 %) (Figure 3A and C). The DOC
205 was significantly higher (by 24 %) in rhizosphere soil than bulk soil (Table 1) (for 0-10 and 10-30 cm depths).
206 Microbial C declined significantly with depth for both bulk soil and rhizosphere soil (Figure 3B and D) and was
207 significantly higher in rhizosphere soil (Table 1, Figure 3) by 36 % (transition was excluded). Total soil C content
208 had a significant effect of depth, and an interaction between CO₂ treatment and depth (Table 1); % soil C content
209 was higher in the 0-10 cm depth under eCO₂ but was not different from ambient in the deeper depths (10-30 and
210 transition) (Table 2).

211 **3.3 Rate of gross N mineralization and N pools**

212 Measured soil N content (including NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, microbial N) declined significantly with depth for both bulk and
213 rhizosphere soils (Figure 4). Ammonium, nitrate, microbial N, and gross N mineralization (Table 1) were
214 significantly higher in rhizosphere soil than in the bulk soil at both 0 to 10 cm and 10 to 30 cm depths (Table 1).
215 Total soil N content showed a significant interaction between CO₂ treatment and depth (Table 1) where % soil N
216 content was higher in the 0-10 cm depth under eCO₂ but was the same as ambient in the deeper depths (10-30 and
217 transition).

218 Gross N mineralization rate declined significantly with depth and was significantly higher in rhizosphere
219 soil compared to bulk soil; furthermore, eCO₂ did not have a significant effect (Figure 5, Table 1). The multiple
220 comparison showed the 0-10 cm bulk soil samples as being similar magnitude as the rhizosphere 10-30 cm



221 samples. The 0-10 cm rhizosphere treatment were significantly higher than the ambient 10-30 cm rhizosphere,
222 though it cannot be statistically separated from any other treatment group due to the high variability.

223 3.4 Soil Phosphorus

224 The three assessed P contents (extractable PO_4^{3-} , microbial P, and mineral associated inorganic P) significantly
225 declined with increasing depth and were higher in the rhizosphere compared to bulk soil (Table 1 and Figure 6).
226 For PO_4^{3-} there was a significant interaction between CO_2 and depth as the concentration of PO_4^{3-} did not decline
227 with depth under eCO_2 . Phosphate concentration in the 10-30 cm depth tended to be higher in eCO_2 soils compared
228 to aCO_2 soils (Figure 6D). Microbial P in the bulk soil interacted with CO_2 treatment and depth, where microbial
229 P was lower under eCO_2 compared to aCO_2 in the 0-10 cm depth only (Figure 6).

230 3.5 Stoichiometry of soil nutrient pools (C, N, P) and soil enzymes

231 The C:N and C:P of extractable nutrients in the bulk soil increased significantly with depth by 24.9 and 20.9 units
232 of C per nutrient, respectively. However, under eCO_2 the C:N and C:P stoichiometry did not increase in bulk soil
233 (Table 3 and 4). The rhizosphere soil N:P ratio significantly declined with depth. When soil was included as an
234 interactive factor in the model (Table 4), C:N was significant by depth:soil. For extractable C:P ratio both the
235 interaction between CO_2 :depth and CO_2 :soil was significant where C:P ratio declined with eCO_2 and depth but
236 increased with depth when ambient. In the microbial biomass only C:P significantly increased with depth in bulk
237 soil. The N:P of extractable N and P and microbial biomass stoichiometry significantly increased with depth.
238 When both bulk and rhizosphere soil was considered (only 0-10 and 10-30 cm depth) soil and depth significantly
239 affected extractable C:N and N:P, and the interaction of soil and depth was significant for soil C:N (Table 4). The
240 bulk soil total C:N ratio decreased significantly with depth by 9 units. The rhizosphere soil C:N ratio increased
241 slightly by only 1 unit, yet still significantly, with depth. There was also a significant interaction between CO_2
242 and depth in the C:N and C:P ratio of the enzymes (Table S1 and S2). The C:N and C:P ratios decreased 0.7 and
243 0.4 units with depth in ambient conditions but increased 0.4 and 0.3 with depth in eCO_2 . The ratio between N and
244 P targeting enzymes did not change with depth but was maintained in the range of 0.5-0.7 N enzymes per P
245 enzyme. The pH showed a marginally significant effect from an interaction of depth and CO_2 , where the pH
246 increased slightly in the transition under eCO_2 (Table S1).

247 4 Discussion

248 We sampled rhizosphere soil and bulk soil in a depth profile in a *Eucalyptus* woodland experimentally exposed
249 to eCO_2 for 5 years, with the goal to investigate how root activity influences nutrient availability and stoichiometry
250 across depth and under eCO_2 . Supporting our hypothesis (1), the nutrient availability increased in rhizosphere soil
251 compared to bulk soil. However, we found no clear evidence to support the hypothesis that eCO_2 affected the
252 rhizosphere soil to a greater extent than the bulk soil (Table 1). There was some evidence to support hypothesis
253 (2), that eCO_2 affected the availability of P more than of N as available PO_4^+ was more increased with depth in
254 elevated compared to ambient CO_2 (Figure 6). Additionally, the low N:P ratio of enzymes supports hypothesis (3)
255 that P was more limiting than N (Table S1).



256 **4.1 Depth effects on soil nutrients and microbial biomass**

257 The effect of depth was overall significant and the microbial biomass C, N and P, DOC, inorganic N (NH_4^+ and
258 NO_3^-), inorganic P (PO_4^{3-}), and mineral adsorbed inorganic P all decreased in availability with depth (Table 1).
259 However, when bulk and rhizosphere soil were analysed separately the availability of extractable P in the soil
260 solution in the rhizosphere did not decline with depth under eCO_2 (Figure 6D). Increased P availability below
261 surface soil in the rhizosphere has been found in previous studies at the site (Ochoa-Hueso et al., 2017), which
262 measured nutrient availability down to 30 cm depth, and also in other forest sites investigating nutrient availability
263 in deeper soil (Blume et al., 2002; Rumpel and Kögel-Knabner, 2011; de Graaff et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016). The
264 microbial P concentration decreased under eCO_2 in the 0-10 cm depth in the bulk soil (Figure 6C), in line with
265 the negative effect of CO_2 on fine roots (Figure 2), suggesting that root density and microbial P respond similarly
266 to eCO_2 .

267 Stoichiometry changed with depth differently for bulk and rhizosphere soil. The ratio of extractable C to
268 N and to P in bulk soil increased with depth, as DOC decreased less with depth than inorganic N and P. However,
269 contrary to our hypothesis the ratio between N and P was constant across depth in bulk soil. In the rhizosphere
270 soil the ratio between DOC, and inorganic N and P remained constant with depth while the N:P ratio significantly
271 decreased; hence, the rhizosphere inorganic P became relatively more available than N at deeper soil. We suggest
272 there was more P available because there were fewer fine roots and lower microbial biomass to immobilise it.
273 Furthermore, as P became limiting at depth more resources were used to increase its availability, supported by the
274 consistently higher P targeting enzyme activity than N enzyme activity.

275 **4.2 Rhizosphere effects on nutrient availability and mineralization across depths**

276 It is a paradigm in rhizosphere research that microbial activity is high near the root because of the input of energy
277 in the form of newly photosynthesised C (Kuzyakov et al., 2000; Kuzyakov and Cheng, 2001). Supporting this,
278 we found that microbial biomass and nutrient availability was higher in the rhizosphere soil compared to bulk
279 soil. Furthermore, the gross N mineralization rate increased in the rhizosphere compared to bulk soil. Given the
280 positive links found between gross N mineralization and SOM decomposition (Bengtson et al., 2012; Zhu et al.,
281 2014) these findings suggest that root-microbe interactions are facilitating decomposition and increasing nutrient
282 availability (Andresen et al., 2020).

283 In contrast, the potential activities of enzymes responsible for depolymerizing and hydrolyzing N and P
284 from SOM did not increase closer to the root (Table S1) supporting previous findings from the site that reported
285 enzyme activities were not higher in the presence of roots (Ochoa-Hueso et al., 2017; Castañeda-Gómez et al.,
286 2021). The lack of enzymatic activity response to roots in both surface and deeper soil depths could be due to the
287 microbial community lacking access to energy and N to be able to synthesise enzymes (Olander and Vitousek,
288 2000). Alternatively, because of greater nutrient availability there is reduced need for enzyme production
289 (Sinsabaugh et al., 2009). Finally, a shift in the microbial community composition favouring fungi over bacteria
290 in the rhizosphere as has been observed at the site could lead to lower enzyme production per unit biomass
291 (Castañeda-Gómez et al 2021).

292 The stoichiometry of enzymes targeting N and P is an indicator of microbial nutrient demand (Sinsabaugh
293 et al., 2009). In this system, N does not appear to be the most limiting nutrient given the low ratio of N:P targeting



294 enzymes. The low enzyme N:P ratio suggest that P is more highly sought by the microbes in this system (Allison
295 and Vitousek, 2005; Sinsabaugh et al., 2008). We found this independent of soil depth, indicating that P is in
296 higher demand than N in the entire soil profile. Interestingly, no difference in either enzyme amount or
297 stoichiometry was found between bulk soil and rhizosphere soil which indicate that given a higher C availability
298 in the rhizosphere, microbes did not increase their enzyme production to mine for organic P. However, P can also
299 be sourced from non-organic sources (Gérard, 2016). This is supported by the high levels of mineral associated
300 inorganic P in the rhizosphere at depth (Figure 5). We suggest that non-organic sources of P may be important to
301 microbes in the rhizosphere as an alternative to high energy cost enzyme production.

302 The pattern of decline in nutrient concentrations in deeper soil profiles is well documented (Jobbágy and
303 Jackson, 2001), though a decline in these concentrations still occurs in the rhizosphere soil with depth. Here we
304 can show that root activity counteracts the decline associated with depth, maintaining a higher microbial biomass
305 and nutrient availability in the rhizosphere soil compared to bulk soil (Finzi et al., 2015). Together with the
306 evidence of higher gross N mineralization rate in the rhizosphere soil, we suggest that in this P limited mature
307 forest, roots can drive the availability of both N and P even in deeper soil through microbial biomass turnover and
308 a strong recycling of nutrients without large decomposition of SOM. Although we can show that deep rhizosphere
309 has an impact on available nutrients our study cannot assess if plants are utilising the increased availability since
310 we did not measure plant uptake. However, assuming at least part of plant nutrient immobilisation is via diffusion
311 of concentration gradients (Gilroy and Jones, 2000), a higher nutrient concentration in the deeper rhizosphere soil
312 is likely benefiting plants as well as microbes.

313 4.3 Elevated CO₂ and depth dependency of rhizosphere effects

314 Elevated CO₂ increases C availability and nutrients in the rhizosphere through increased rhizodeposition and
315 nutrient mobilisation (Phillips et al., 2011; Kuzyakov et al., 2019). Because root density declines with increasing
316 depth, we hypothesised that the effects of eCO₂ on C and nutrient availability will be less important with depth.
317 Contrary to that hypothesis we found that eCO₂ interacted with depth by increasing the inorganic P availability at
318 depth under eCO₂. Further, mineral associated inorganic P was constantly higher at depth in the bulk soil under
319 eCO₂, though the trend is not significant. Metal hydroxide mineral rich clay is capable of strong adsorption of
320 negative ions and organic complexes (Jilling et al., 2018; Rasmussen et al., 2018) which is present at EucFACE.
321 Changes in pH can affect the equilibrium between mineral adsorption and solution concentration though the small
322 increase in pH that was detected in the rhizosphere soil (less than 0.5 units compared to bulk soil, Table S1), it is
323 not necessarily enough to change the sorption capacity. rather the higher PO₄³⁻ adsorption and concentration in
324 solution indicates that higher rates of phosphate processes exist in that space. The different forms of soil P thus
325 appears to respond to different drivers, while the microbial biomass did not immobilise the additionally available
326 PO₄⁺ or access the mineral associated P. This supports that the microbes are not limited by P at depth. The question
327 remains if plants can access the increased P availability at deeper soils.

328 The relative content and activity of C-degrading compared to N and P degrading enzymes was higher in
329 the deeper soil under eCO₂ for both rhizosphere soil and bulk soil. These trends with depth suggest that the surface
330 soil is more limited by nutrients (i.e. N and P poor) compared to deeper layers where C is a limiting factor for
331 activity. Thus, eCO₂ may cause increased microbial activity and enzyme synthesis at depth rather than in the
332 surface soil. The relative content of enzymes for N to P release ranged 0.5 to 0.8, and this indicated biological P



333 limitation rather than N limitation and that ratio was consistent through the depth profile, though the total enzyme
334 activity declined with depth. Only cellulase activity (CB, Table S1) was constant in all layers possibly indicating
335 that plant matter is being decomposed throughout the soil profile. It was demonstrated by Castaneda-Gomez et al
336 (2020) that root litter decomposition is increased under eCO₂ at the site and contributes to C loss from the system.
337 Root litter decomposition can thus be an important source of nutrient release at depth. Further, eCO₂ has been
338 found to increase the rate of root turnover in this system (Piñeiro et al., 2020), which is one of the main sources
339 of C supply to the deeper soil, other than increased root exudation.

340 In this study the observed lack of influence of eCO₂ on nutrient availability and N mineralization at the
341 surface is likely due to the topsoil being less limited by C than deeper soils (depth and CO₂ interaction). Though
342 enzyme activities decrease with depth, they are more abundant per unit soil C deeper in the profile. Given the
343 rather low eCO₂ fertilisation effect found on photosynthetic rate (Ellsworth et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2020) and
344 root production in this system (Piñeiro et al., 2020) the presumed limited increase in C release belowground is
345 likely turned over without affecting the SOM decomposition. Mineral adsorbed P forms however, are sensitive to
346 root derived changes in pH (Jones and Darrah, 1994), representing a different mechanism for affecting the P cycle
347 separate from SOM decomposition. In the scenario where nutrients mostly become available through recycling,
348 rather than SOM decomposition, it is unlikely that plant nutritional requirements under eCO₂ will be satisfied and
349 support continued biomass growth even where roots are known to grow deeper (Iversen et al., 2011). This ‘fast-
350 in, fast-out’ C cycle in this mature nutrient limited ecosystem under eCO₂ will not necessarily release long stored
351 soil C to the atmosphere, but it is not likely to increase C sequestration by gaining additional plant biomass or soil
352 C either.

353 There are several consistent trends of an increase in nutrient availability with eCO₂ in this study, but they
354 were not statistically significant. These variables include available inorganic N, gross N mineralization rate,
355 inorganic P, and mineral associated P. These trends in pools and processes may indicate an increase in both
356 nutrient availability and up-regulation, if mild, of processes responsible for increased nutrient availability. Though
357 the mature *Eucalyptus* trees have not responded to eCO₂ with aboveground biomass growth (Ellsworth et al.,
358 2017) the understory species composition has shifted to include more nutrient-demanding grasses with eCO₂
359 (Hasegawa et al., 2018). Higher quality understory litter may in turn drive increased nutrient availability in the
360 soil (Berg and McClaugherty, 1989). Given the necessarily low replication, common to many FACE experiments
361 (Filion et al., 2000), and the lower-than-expected enhancement of photosynthesis in this FACE system (Ellsworth
362 et al., 2017; Pathare et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2020), an eCO₂ effect was expected to be statistically elusive, but
363 here we do show that it can be discerned.

364

365 4.4 Conclusion

366 We found that nutrient availability and gross N mineralization were always higher in rhizosphere soil compared
367 to bulk soils, but enzymatic activity was not. The effect of depth, generally, caused a decrease of available
368 nutrients and process rates feeding into the available pools. However, the impact of roots and eCO₂ counteracted
369 the decrease found with depth when interactions between soil depth and CO₂ or soil depth and soil type (bulk or
370 rhizosphere) occurred. This response of lower concentrations found with increasing depth particularly affected



371 available PO_4^{3-} , adsorbed P and the C:N and C:P enzyme activity. We can conclude that roots and eCO_2 can affect
372 available nutrient pools and processes well below the surface soil of a forest ecosystem, though it is not clear if
373 the plants can benefit and take up nutrients from deeper parts of the soil profile. Our findings indicate a faster
374 recycling of nutrients in the rhizosphere, rather than additional nutrients becoming available through SOM
375 decomposition. If the tree response to eCO_2 is hindered or prevented by nutrient limitations, then the current
376 results would question the potential for mature tree ecosystems to fix more C as biomass in response to eCO_2 .
377 Future studies are suggested to focus on how accessible the available nutrients at depth are to deeper rooted plants,
378 and if this fast recycling of nutrients is meaningful in production of plant biomass and accumulation of soil C
379 response to eCO_2 .

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388 Author contribution

389 The initial idea and experimental design were done by Johanna Pihlblad (JP) and Yolima Carrillo (YC) with
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391 C. Andresen (LCA). JP did the data management, statistical analysis and wrote the first draft. All other authors
392 contributed to writing of the final paper.

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613 **Tables**

614 **Table 1.** The effect of the factors CO₂ (eCO₂ and eCO₂), soil depth (0 to 10 cm, 10 to 30 cm, transition) and soil
 615 type (bulk and rhizosphere soil) and their interactions, shown as model F statistic output. *Asterisks and bold*
 616 *indicate the level of significance of P values: *** for P < 0.001; ** for P < 0.01 and * for P < 0.05.* The extractable
 617 nutrients NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻ and PO₄³⁻, DOC, and microbial biomass C, N and P are modelled on a mg·kg⁻¹ basis, gross
 618 N mineralisation rate on a mg·kg⁻¹·day⁻¹ basis, and soil C and N in %.
 619

	CO ₂	depth	soil	CO ₂ :depth	CO ₂ :soil	depth:soil	CO ₂ :depth:soil
<i>Df</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Carbon							
DOC	0.29	30.35 ***	27.8 ***	0.01	0.05	1.46	0.94
Microbial C	0.08	141.1 ***	15.9 ***	1.92	0.6	2.34	0.01
Soil C	0.2	236.89 ***	1.21	0.1	7.94 **	0.69	1.69
Nitrogen							
NH ₄ ⁺	0.09	24.08 ***	25.96 ***	0.27	0.2	0.03	0.16
NO ₃ ⁻	0.46	8.96 **	16.36 ***	0.3	0.0	0.11	1.3
Microbial N	0.16	122.42 ***	18.32 ***	0.02	0.52	0.0	0.22
gross N min	2.04	13.08 **	8.81 **	0.37	0.05	0.92	NA
Soil N	0.0	194.1 ***	0.19	0.01	11.04 **	2.68	2.42
Phosphorus							
PO ₄ ³⁻	0.37	32.63 ***	33.18 ***	8.6 **	2.21	0.17	0.06
Microbial P	0.48	126.46 ***	6.38 *	2.53	0.0	0.18	0.11
Mineral Pi <i>a</i>	0.03	68.31 ***	5.77 **	0.19	0.58	2.34	0.73

620

621

622 **Table 2.** Total soil C and N (%) and the C to N ratio for ambient aCO₂ and elevated eCO₂ in bulk soil at the three
 623 depths. Standard error is given in parenthesis. Results from statistical analysis are provided in Table 1.



624

625

626 **Table 3.** Extractable and microbial C, N and P stoichiometry (mg kg⁻¹/mg kg⁻¹) and soil C:N ratio for bulk soil
 627 (B) on the left of each column and rhizosphere soil (R) on the right for a mature Eucalyptus forest soil exposed
 628 to ambient and elevated CO₂ for three depths (0 to 10 cm, 10 to 30 cm, transition). Stoichiometry was calculated
 629 on a mg kg⁻¹ mass basis with standard error below in parenthesis.

Depth	Soil C %		Soil N %		C:N	
	Ambient	Elevated	Ambient	Elevated	Ambient	Elevated
0-10	1.46 (0.2)	1.83 (0.2)	0.09 (0.0)	0.11 (0.0)	15.86 (0.6)	16.05 (0.4)
10-30	0.52 (0.1)	0.59 (0.1)	0.04 (0.0)	0.05 (0.0)	12 (1.1)	12.37 (0.9)
transition	0.15 (0.0)	0.17 (0.0)	0.02 (0.0)	0.02 (0.0)	6.59 (1.1)	7.34 (1.0)

	Extractable						Microbial						Soil	
	B	R	B	R	B	R	B	R	B	R	B	R	B	R
	C:N		C:P		N:P		C:N		C:P		N:P		C:N	
Ambient														
0-10	17.9 (3.5)	15.0 (3.5)	24.2 (1.6)	29.9 (3.1)	1.6 (0.2)	2.5 (0.5)	5.6 (0.6)	5.1 (0.4)	9.8 (0.6)	11.0 (0.9)	2.0 (0.2)	2.2 (0.1)	15.9 (0.6)	14.6 (0.5)
10-30	36.3 (10.4)	19.2 (5)	30.5 (3.2)	31.3 (6.4)	1.5 (0.5)	1.9 (0.3)	4.3 (0.6)	4.4 (0.8)	12.3 (2)	13.4 (3.5)	2.7 (0.2)	2.9 (0.3)	12.0 (1.1)	15.6 (0.8)
transition	56.8 (22.2)	NA	65 (18.7)	NA	1.9 (0.7)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	9.5 (3)	NA	6.6 (1.1)	NA
Elevated														
0-10	14 (2.6)	12.6 (2.4)	26.1 (2.4)	25.3 (0.2)	2 (0.1)	2.3 (0.4)	5.8 (0.3)	6.2 (1.1)	12.5 (1.2)	20.1 (7.3)	2.2 (0.2)	3.3 (1.3)	16.0 (0.4)	16.0 (0.5)
10-30	20.5 (6.3)	12.9 (2.5)	23.4 (1.4)	22.1 (1.8)	1.5 (0.3)	2.0 (0.3)	7.5 (1)	5.5 (0.9)	14.9 (2.8)	16.8 (3.1)	2.3 (0.2)	2.7 (0.3)	12.4 (0.9)	16.9 (0.9)
transition	24.3 (8.5)	NA	24.8 (7)	NA	1.2 (0.3)	NA	8.3 (5)	NA	NA	NA	17.8 (13.6)	NA	7.3 (1)	NA

630

631

632 **Table 4.** Model F statistic and significance of extractable and microbial C, N and P, and soil C:N. Where bulk
 633 and rhizosphere are shown separate, bulk was modelled with 3 depth levels whereas rhizosphere soil was modelled
 634 with only 2. Where bulk soil and rhizosphere soil are shown together (†) only the 0-10 and 10-30 cm depths are
 635 included in the model. Significance of P values are as indicated: *** indicate P < 0.001; ** indicate P < 0.01 and
 636 * indicates P < 0.05.

Bulk	Extractable			Microbial			Soil
	C:N	C:P	N:P	C:N	C:P	N:P	C:N
CO ₂	0.32	0.62	0.04	0.45	0.16	0.3	0.16



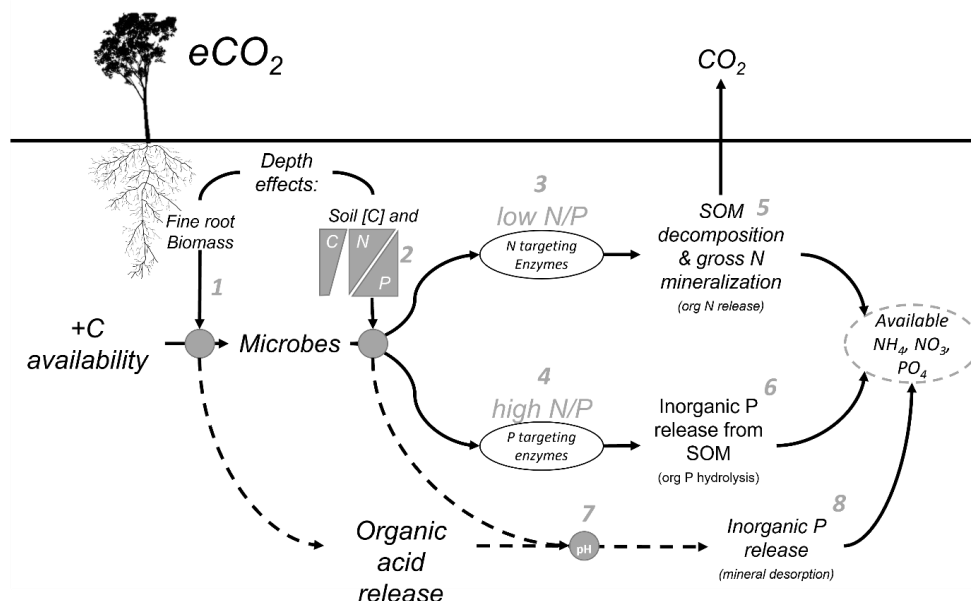
	Extractable			Microbial			Soil
	C:N	C:P	N:P	C:N	C:P	N:P	C:N
depth	4.8 *	0.51	1.7	0.67	0.78	11 ***	62.4 ***
CO ₂ :depth	0.34	2.48	0.84	0.62	0.12	1.27	0.06
Rhizosphere							
CO ₂	0.14	0.77	0.01	0.62	0.54	0.23	3.9
depth	0.46	1.6	2.01	1.97	0.02	0.8	1.91
CO ₂ :depth	0.36	0.6	0.04	0.45	0	0.42	0
Bulk and Rhizosphere†							
CO ₂	0.21	0.55	0.07	0.84	0.3	0.08	2.02
depth	6.93 *	0	7.91 **	1.16	0.27	2.5	9.27 **
soil	11.8 **	0.06	13.58***	1.73	1.28	1.53	7.4 *
CO ₂ :depth	0.52	3.23	0.06	1.57	0.02	1.54	0.01
CO ₂ :soil	0.2	1.78	1.35	0.04	1.47	0.29	0.96
depth:soil	3.04	3.01	0.84	0.94	0.13	0.04	19.12 ***
CO ₂ :depth:soil	0.01	0.58	0.27	0.2	0	0.03	0.01

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638

639 **Figures**

640



641

642 **Figure 1.** Conceptual diagram of the mechanisms affecting nutrient availability as influenced by soil depth.

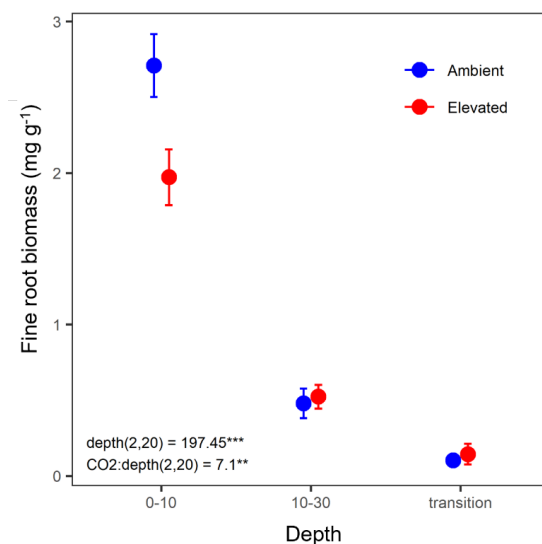
643 Elevated CO₂ increases C availability belowground, but the effect of that extra C is moderated by depth dependent

644 mechanisms. (1) Root exudation in the rhizosphere soil is proportional to fine root biomass which decreases with



645 depth. (2) The microbial strategy to release nutrients is a function of soil C content and N to P ratio, which also
646 can change with depth. (3) The microbial strategy is a response to the N to P ratio either producing N targeting
647 enzymes in low N to P conditions or (4) P targeting enzymes in high N to P conditions. (5) Nitrogen targeting
648 enzymes act to decompose SOM and increase gross N mineralization, transforming N into NH_4^+ and ultimately
649 NO_3^- which are available for plant uptake. (6) P targeting enzymes cut phosphates from organic molecules by
650 hydrolysis. (7) One further mechanism behind nutrients release affected by eCO_2 , is that soil pH is changed,
651 impacting the soil sorption capacity, by the organic acid exudates from roots and microbial mineralization thereof.
652 (8) The decreased acidity tips the balance of phosphates in solid and in solution, to increase soil solution content
653 and P availability by mineral desorption.

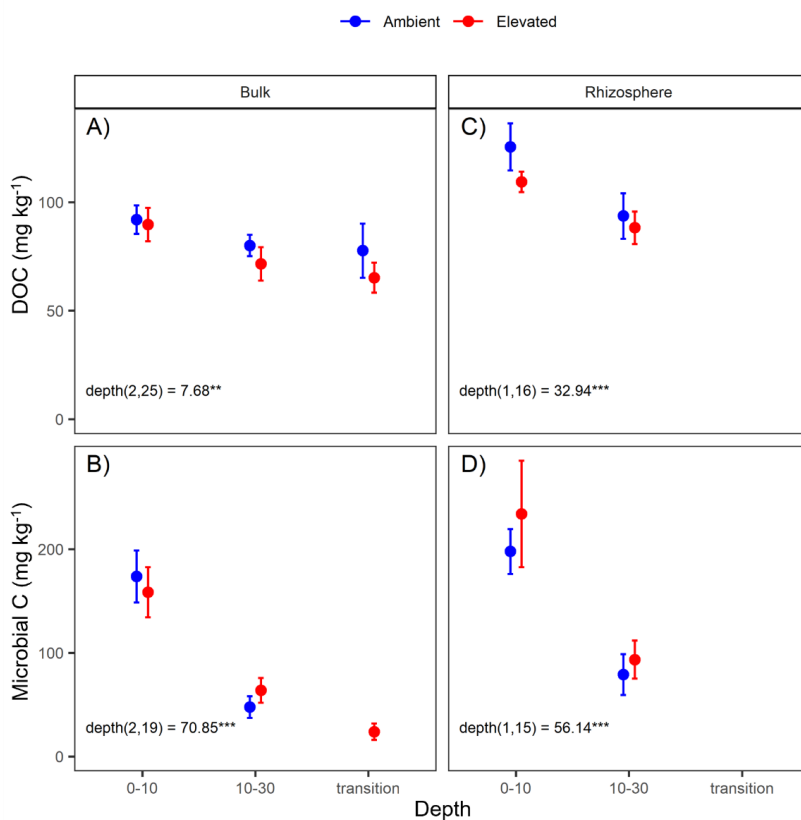
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655

656 **Figure 2.** Biomass of fine roots of less than 3 mm thickness ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) in the mature *Eucalyptus* forest soil exposed
657 to ambient (blue) and elevated (red) CO_2 for three depths (0-10 cm, 10-30 cm, transition). Error bars indicate
658 standard error. Mixed effects model output stated with (degrees of freedom, Df residuals) F statistic presented and
659 asterisks for the P values for significance are as indicated: *** indicate $P < 0.001$ and ** indicate $P < 0.01$.

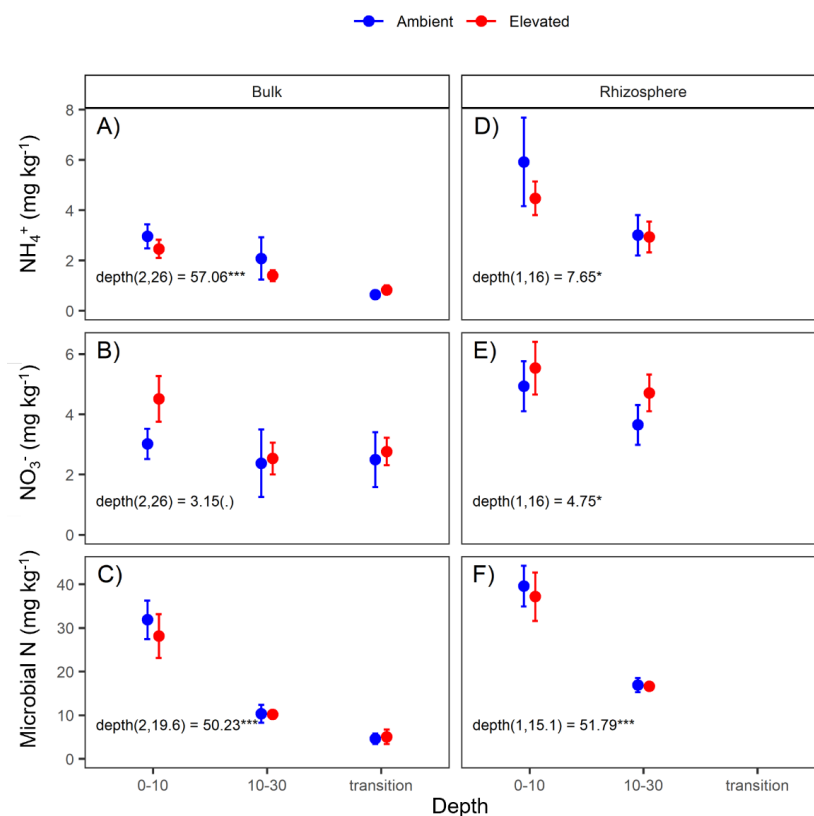
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661

662 **Figure 3.** Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and microbial biomass carbon (C) content for bulk and rhizosphere
663 soil of the mature *Eucalyptus* forest soil exposed to ambient (blue) and elevated (red) CO₂ for three depths (0 to
664 10 cm, 10 to 30 cm, transition). Error bars indicate standard error. Mixed effects model output stated with (degrees
665 of freedom, Df residuals) and F statistic presented and asterisks for the P values for significance are as indicated:
666 *** indicate P < 0.001 and ** indicate P < 0.01. Results from statistical analysis of comparison of soil types (bulk
667 and rhizosphere) are presented in Table 1.

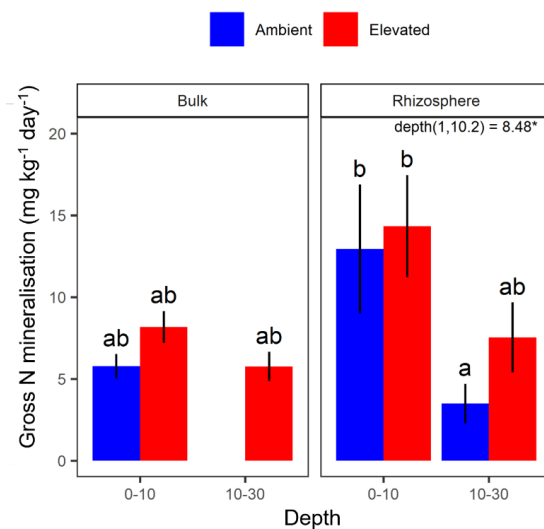
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669

670 **Figure 4.** Nitrogen (N) pools in the forms of ammonium (NH_4^+), nitrate (NO_3^-) and microbial biomass N for bulk
 671 and rhizosphere soil of the mature *Eucalyptus* forest soil exposed to ambient (blue) and elevated (red) CO_2 for
 672 three depths (0 to 10 cm, 10 to 30 cm, transition). Error bars indicate standard error. Mixed effects model output
 673 stated with (degrees of freedom, Df residuals) and F statistic presented and asterisks for the P values for
 674 significance are as indicated: *** indicate $P < 0.001$, ** indicate $P < 0.01$, * indicates $P < 0.05$ and (.) indicates a
 675 tendency to a significance $P < 0.1$. Results from statistical analysis of comparison of soil types (bulk and
 676 rhizosphere) are presented in Table 1.

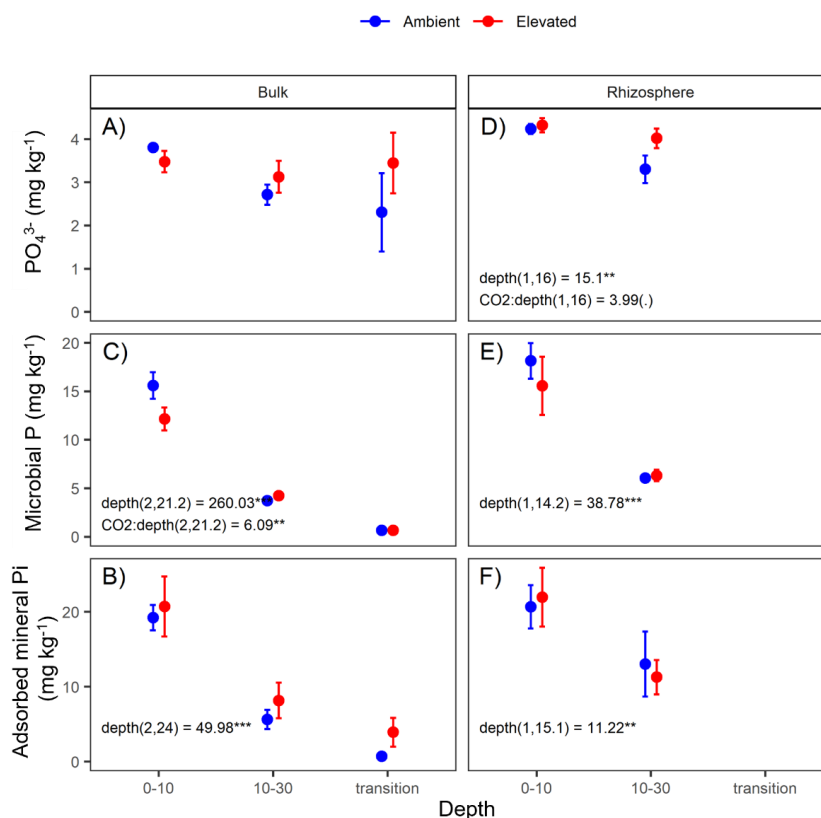
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678

679 **Figure 5.** Gross N mineralization for bulk and rhizosphere soil of the mature *Eucalyptus* forest soil exposed to
680 ambient (blue) and elevated (red) CO₂ for two depths (0 to 10 cm, 10 to 30 cm. Error bars indicate standard error.
681 Mixed effects model output stated with (degrees of freedom, Df residuals) and F statistic presented and asterisks
682 for the P value for significance, * indicates P < 0.05. Results from statistical analysis of comparison of soil types
683 (bulk and rhizosphere) are presented in Table 1.

684



685

686 **Figure 6.** Measured soil P pools in the in forms of inorganic P (PO₄³⁻), microbial biomass P, and mineral associated
 687 phosphate through adsorption for bulk and rhizosphere soil of the mature *Eucalyptus* forest soil exposed to
 688 ambient (blue) and elevated (red) CO₂ for three depths (0 to 10 cm, 10 to 30 cm, transition). Error bars indicate
 689 standard error. Mixed effects model output stated with (degrees of freedom, Df residuals) and F statistic presented
 690 and asterisks for the P values for significance are as indicated: *** indicate P < 0.001, ** indicate P < 0.01, *
 691 indicates P < 0.05 and (.) indicates a tendency to a significance P < 0.1. Results from statistical analysis of
 692 comparison of soil types (bulk and rhizosphere) are presented in Table 1.