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1	Biochar addition to forest plantation soil enhances phosphorus availability and
2	soil bacterial community diversity
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26 Abstract

Depletion of soil nutrients is a major cause of decline in productivity of forest plantations in 27 successive rotations. Biochar amendment in agricultural systems has been shown to yield various 28 beneficial effects, including increasing soil phosphorus (P) availability. However, the direct and 29 indirect effects of biochar addition on forest soil P dynamics have largely been unexplored. The 30 objective of this study was to examine how biochar produced from harvest residue (leaves and 31 woodchips) affect the P dynamics in second rotation Cunninghamia lanceolata (Chinese fir) 32 plantation soil. An incubation experiment which involved mixing of forest soil with 1% or 3% w/w 33 34 leaf or woodchip biochar, pyrolyzed at 300 °C or 600 °C, was conducted for 80 days at 20 °C. After 7, 40 and 80 days of incubation, soil samples were analyzed for total and available P, inorganic and 35 organic P pools, and soil phosphatase activity. At the end of the incubation period, bacterial 36 community composition and diversity were analyzed by 16S rDNA sequencing. The leaf biochar 37 produced at both pyrolysis temperatures was more alkaline and had significantly higher soluble P, 38 nitrogen and calcium contents than the woodchip biochar. Soil total and available P increased 39 significantly in all leaf biochar treatments after 80 days incubation compared to the untreated control 40 soil, but the woodchip biochar treatments had no significant effects. At the end of the experiment, Al-41 P content was significantly lower and Ca₁₀-P content higher in soil amended with both biochar types 42 compared to the control soil, and Fe-P content was significantly higher in the leaf biochar treatments. 43 Contrary to expectations, acid and alkaline phosphatase enzyme activities were significantly lower in 44 some of the biochar treatments after 80 days incubation compared to the control soil. Nevertheless, 45 the diversity of the bacterial community was higher in leaf biochar-amended forest soil than the 46 woodchip biochar-amended and untreated soil at the end of the experiment. In particular, the 47 abundance increased in the leaf biochar soil treatments of P-solubilizing bacteria, such as 48 Burkholderia-Paraburkholderia, Planctomyces, Sphingomonas and Singulisphaera, which can 49 indirectly improve P availability in soil. Thus, conversion of tree harvest residues, particularly leaves, 50 into biochar and recycling back into the soil could be a viable option to boost P availability and help 51

to conserve nutrients or reduce nutrient losses for the next rotation. Before recommending plantation
management with biochar, long-term studies are required assessing the life cycle of biochar under
field conditions and its promoting effect on growth of *C. lanceolata*.

55

Keywords: biochar, *Cunninghamia lanceolata*, microbial diversity, phosphate-solubilizing bacteria,
phosphorus availability

58

59 **1. Introduction**

A decline in productivity of forest plantations under successive rotations (Tian et al., 2011) has 60 been a major concern among forest managers. Under continuous planting on the same site, depletion 61 of soil nutrients, particularly available phosphorus (P), which is the major growth limiting factor in 62 the tropical and sub-tropical regions, is often associated with productivity decline (Yang et al., 2000). 63 For instance, soil available P has been shown to decrease by more than 50% in second rotation 64 plantation sites compared with that of first generation Cunninghamia lanceolata (Lamb.) Hook 65 (Chinese fir) plantations (Wang et al., 2006). The current management practice to conserve site 66 resources during the inter-rotation phase (the time between harvesting of one generation and planting 67 of the next generation) involves burning harvest residues in-situ. However, this practice leads to 68 underutilization of large quantities of plant resources due to combustion loss (Lehmann, 2007) while 69 aggravating soil erosion and air pollution. Although nitrogen (N) and P fertilizers or lime can be added 70 to rectify soil nutrient deficiencies, this practice is not sustainable due to the high economic cost, 71 reduction in downstream water quality due to nutrient runoff and increased emission of soil 72 greenhouse gases (Mitchell et al., 2016). 73



Sustainable P management is, thus, of great importance to maintain plantation productivity while

minimizing negative environmental impact. Biochar addition to plantation soils may assist with 75 meeting this aim as there is strong evidence that it increases the growth of woody plants (Thomas and 76 Gale, 2015). Biochar is a predominantly stable, recalcitrant organic carbon-rich material produced by 77 pyrolysis of biomass such as crop straw, sawdust, animal manure, wood, and sludge, at temperatures 78 ranging between 300 and 1000 °C (Verheijen et al., 2010). Biochar can be a direct source of P to soil 79 as biomass xylem tissue releases phosphate during carbonization (de la Rosa et al., 2014). In acidic 80 soil, the availability of P is mainly determined by its interaction with Al, Fe, and Ca. The addition of 81 biochar can increase the availability of P in acidic soil due to the increase in soil pH and Ca content, 82 resulting in decreased soil phosphate sorption capacity by Fe and Al hydrous oxides and Al³⁺ 83 (Chintala et al., 2014; Bornø et al., 2018; Hong et al., 2018). Biochar offers several other benefits, 84 including increased bioavailability of other essential plant nutrients (Haefele et al., 2011), enhanced 85 soil water and nutrient retention, and improved soil structure and drainage due to its high porosity 86 (Karhua et al., 2011). Potential detrimental consequences of biochar addition to soil have also been 87 investigated. The environmental risk from metals, metalloids and PAHs contained in biochar has been 88 assessed to be low (Freddo et al., 2012). However, persistent free radicals in biochars have been 89 shown to inhibit seedling germination and growth in soil-free laboratory conditions, although it is 90 possible that these free radicals may be inactivated by natural organic matter and clay in soils (Liao 91 et al., 2014). 92

Additionally, biochar seems to have beneficial effects in increasing the activity of soil bacteria and fungi and altering the soil microbial community, which could increase soil nutrient availability and carbon storage (Anderson et al., 2011; Mitchell et al., 2016). Soil microbes, such as bacteria, have the ability to convert bound P into available P, making it easier for plants to uptake (Anderson et al., 2011). Significant alterations of the microbial community structure in biochar-amended soil have

been observed (Lehmann et al., 2011; Muhammad et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2017; Yao et al., 2017a,b; 98 Halmi et al., 2018), which can promote important processes such as P solubilization and P 99 mineralization (Schmalenberger and Fox, 2016). This can result in increased soil available P content 100 through increased activity of soil phosphatase and enhanced microbial dissolution of inorganic fixed 101 P and mineralization of organic P (Gul and Whalen, 2016; Zhu et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2019). 102 Nevertheless, some studies have reported no change in soil microbial community structure after 103 biochar addition (e.g. Yu et al., 2018), whilst in others the observed change has been associated with 104 accelerated soil organic N turnover which might induce N limitation for plants (Tian et al., 2016). 105

Despite increasing understanding of the potential positive effects of biochar amendment in 106 agricultural systems (Atkinson et al., 2010; El-Naggar et al., 2019), the direct and indirect effects of 107 biochar on P dynamics are less well characterized, particularly in forest soils. As biochar properties 108 vary depending on production technology, pyrolysis temperature, and feedstock type (Gul et al., 2015), 109 biochars can have varying effects on soil chemical and biological properties (Bornø et al., 2018). 110 Furthermore, the amount of biochar applied controls the potential beneficial effects of amendment 111 (Noyce et al., 2015). A better understanding of the potential effects of biochar with different properties 112 on P dynamics in forest soil is needed to inform future forest management practices with respect to 113 biochar amendment. Thus, the objective of this study was to examine how biochars produced from 114 the harvest residue of C. lanceolata (leaves and woodchips) at different pyrolysis temperatures affect 115 the P dynamics in second generation C. lanceolata plantation soil. We hypothesized that biochar 116 addition to forest soil enhances soil P availability with the effect increasing with application rate, and 117 depending on biochar properties, by: (1) increasing soil pH and decreasing the activity or availability 118 of cations (i.e., Al^{3+} , Fe^{3+} and Ca^{2+}) that decrease P sorption or increase P desorption in soil; (2) 119 contributing highly soluble P from the biochar itself that will directly increase soil available P; and 120

121 (3) increasing activities of phosphatase and the soil bacterial community, which play an important 122 role in transforming inaccessible organic and inorganic P to available P. To test these hypotheses, an 123 incubation experiment, involving two biochar types (leaf biochar and woodchip biochar), produced 124 at two pyrolysis temperatures (300 and 600 °C) and applied at two rates (1% and 3% w/w) was 125 conducted for 80 days to determine soil total P, available P, inorganic and organic P pools, soil 126 phosphatase activity and the composition and diversity of the soil bacterial community.

127

128 2. Materials and Methods

129 2.1. Soil sampling

Soil for the incubation experiment was collected from a second generation C. lanceolata 130 plantation at Xinkou Teaching Forest of Fujian Agricultural and Forestry University in Sanming, 131 Fujian province, China (117°27′–118°14′E and 26°07′–27°13′N). The soil was classified as mountain 132 acidic red loam soil based on the Chinese soil classification system, which is equivalent to humic 133 planosols in the FAO system. Soil samples (~50 kg total) were taken from the surface soil (0-20 cm, 134 which contains more than 60% of the fine roots of C. lanceolata (Huang et al., 2016) in a 20 m x 20 135 m plot with an S-shape sampling scheme. The soil samples were combined together, homogenized 136 and screened using a 2 mm sieve, and then air-dried (12 h) and stored at 4 °C before starting the 137 incubation experiment 2 weeks later. The nutrient contents and pH of the prepared C. lanceolate forest 138 soil were determined as described below. 139

140

141 *2.2. Biochar production and characterization*

Woodchips and leaves after harvesting of *C. lanceolata* at the soil sampling site were used as separate
feedstocks for preparation of biochar. In the laboratory, leaves were washed with deionized water to

remove any residual surface soil, dried at 80 °C, crushed using a mechanical pulverizer (Y-800G, 144 Xuman, China) and then screened using a 1 mm sieve. Woodchips were created in the laboratory from 145 branches following the same procedure as for leaves and then pulverized and screened. The prepared 146 material was heated at 300 °C at 600 °C in a muffle furnace with a heat increase of 20 °C min⁻¹ for 4 147 hours and then left to cool overnight. The Fe, Al and Ca content of biochar and blank digests were 148 determined by ICP-OES (Optima 8000, PerkinElmer, USA) of 0.15 g sub-samples digested with 149 HNO₃ at 120 °C for 24 h (open vessels on a hot plate). The instrument was calibrated with 5 standards 150 and a blank (Millipore water) and a standard was analyzed for quality control every 25 samples. The 151 C and N content were measured by elemental analyzer (vario MAX, Elementar, Germany). Biochar 152 pH was measured with a LL-Ecotrode Plus electrode (Metrohm, Switzerland) in a 1:2.5 153 (biochar: deionized water) suspension. The ash content was determined by weight loss after heating 154 the biochars at 750 °C for 4 h in a muffle furnace (Yuan et al. 2011). Biochar dissolved organic carbon 155 (DOC) content was determined by shaking the biochar with 2 M KCl (1:25, w/v) for 1 h, filtering 156 through a 0.45 µm PES membrane filter (Jinteng, Tianjin Jinteng Experiment Equipment Co., Ltd., 157 China), and measuring the DOC concentration with a TOC-V_{CPH} (Shimadzu, Japan). Available and 158 total P contents of the biochars was determined using the procedures described in 2.4. 159

160

161 *2.3. Soil incubation experiment*

To examine the effects of biochar addition to forest soil on P availability, an incubation 162 experiment involving the two biochar types (leaf and woodchip biochars) and two application rates 163 (1% and 3% w/w) was conducted for 80 days. The factorial experimental design involving eight 164 biochar treatments and the unamended soil control is shown in Table 1. The experiment had three 165 166 timesteps in which samples from each treatment were taken after 7, 40 and 80 days of incubation for analysis of chemical and biological properties. There were four replicates for each treatment and 167 timestep combination, giving a total of 108 incubated soil samples. The air-dry soil (50 g dry weight 168 equivalent) and the relevant biochar type and amount were well-mixed individually for each replicate 169

before adding deionized water to 60% field capacity. Then the biochar-amended samples and control
soil samples were placed in separate glass boxes, sealed, and incubated at 20 °C in the dark. The soil
moisture was maintained at 60% field capacity by weighing and adding deionized water every 2-3
days.

174

175**Table 1.** The control and different biochar treatments applied to the forest soil. Biochar additions are %176w/w.

177

Treatment abbreviation	Treatment description
СК	unamended soil control
BW3001	1% 300 °C woodchip biochar
BW3003	3% 300 °C woodchip biochar
BW6001	1% 600 °C woodchip biochar
BW6003	3% 600 °C woodchip biochar
BL3001	1% 300 °C leaf biochar
BL3003	3% 300 °C leaf biochar
BL6001	1% 600 °C leaf biochar
BL6003	3% 600 °C leaf biochar

178

179 *2.4. Phosphorus characterization in soil/biochar samples*

Available P was extracted with ammonium fluoride (NH₄F) and hydrochloric acid (HCl) (Liu et al., 2017). Briefly, 50 mL of a mixture of 0.03 mol L⁻¹ NH₄F and 0.025 mol L⁻¹ HCl were added to 5.0 g sample, and the mixture was agitated on an oscillating shaker (SPH-2102C, Shiping, China) for 5 minutes, before filtration through P-free filter paper (Whatman, China) to separate the solid and liquid. Total P in soil/biochar samples was determined on digests prepared as follows: 10 mL H₂SO
was added to 0.25 g samples, which were left overnight. After adding 1 mL HClO₄, the samples were
digested on a hot plate at 300 °C for 2 h (Lu, 1999). Phosphorus concentrations in all extractions were
measured using the molybdenum blue method with an ultraviolet-visible spectrophotometer (T6, Puxi,
China) at 700 nm (Lu, 1999). The instrument was calibrated with 5 standards and a blank (Millipore
water) and a standard was analyzed for quality control every 25 samples. Blank extractions were also
conducted for available and total P and the values subtracted from the sample extractions.

Soil samples taken at each incubation timestep were air dried, pulverized and passed through a 191 0.149 mm sieve. Different forms of phosphorus were determined by sequential extraction of 1 g 192 prepared soil as follows (Lei et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017): (1) Ca₂-P: 50 mL of 0.25 mol L⁻¹ NaHCO₃ 193 (pH 7.5) added and shaken for 1 h; (2) Al-P: 50 mL of 0.5 mol L⁻¹ NH₄F (pH 8.5) added and shaken 194 for 1 h; (3) Fe-P: 50 mL of 0.1 mol L^{-1} NaOH added and shaken for 4 h; (4) O-Al-P: 50 mL of 1 mol 195 L⁻¹ NaOH added and heated in a water bath at 85 °C for 1 h; (5) O-Fe-P: 50 mL of 0.5 mol L⁻¹ 196 Na₂S₂O₄-Na₃C₆H₅O₇ added and heated in a water bath at 80 °C for 10 minutes; (6) Ca₁₀-P: 50 mL of 197 0.25 mol L⁻¹ H₂SO₄ added and shaken for 1 h. Mixtures were shaken on an oscillating shaker (SPH-198 2102C, Shiping, China), then suspensions were centrifuged (5810 R, Eppendorf, Germany) at 3200 199 g for 5 minutes between each extraction step to separate the supernatant for analysis and the residue. 200 Blank extractions were also conducted for each step and the values subtracted from the sample 201 extractions. 202

203

204 *2.5. Determination of soil enzyme activity*

The activities of acid and alkaline phosphatase were determined for soil samples at each incubation timestep following the method described by Jin et al. (2016). Specifically, for phosphomonoesterase activities analysis, 1 g moist soil was mixed with 4 mL of universal buffer (pH 6.5 for acid phosphomonoesterase and pH 11 for alkaline phosphomonoesterase) and 1 mL of pnitrophenyl phosphate, gently shaken and incubated for 1 h at 37 °C. The reaction was terminated by adding 1 mL 0.5 M CaCl₂ and 4 mL 0.5 M NaOH solution. After filtering through Whatman No. 40
filter paper, the absorbance of the solution was measured at 410 nm with a spectrophotometer
(Puxi/T6, China).

213

214 2.6. Determination of soil bacterial diversity and composition

The diversity and composition of the soil bacterial community were determined at the end of the incubation period (80 days) in the control soil and 3% biochar treatments (0.5 g fresh soil) where the greatest changes were expected with the higher biochar application rate. Three of the four replicate samples in each incubation treatment were analyzed.

High-throughput sequencing of 16S rDNA PCR products was conducted by Guangzhou 219 Genedenovo Biotechnology Co., Ltd., China. DNA was extracted from 0.25 g field-moist soil using 220 the FastDNA® SPIN Kit for Soil (Bio 101, Vista, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's 221 instructions, and then stored at -70 °C for subsequent analysis. After genomic DNA was extracted 222 from the samples, the V3 + V4 region of 16S rDNA was amplified with barcode-specific primers. 223 The primer sequences were as follows: 341F: 5'- CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG -3' and 806R: 5'-224 GGACTACHVGGGTATCTAAT-3'. The amplifications were conducted in 50 µL reactions 225 consisting of 5 µL KOD buffer (10 x dose concentration), 5 µL 2.5 mmol L⁻¹ dNTPs, 1.5 µL primer 226 (5 µmol L⁻¹), 1 µL KOD polymerase, and 100 ng template DNA. The amplification conditions were: 227 pre-denaturing at 95 °C for 2 min, denaturing at 98 °C for 10 s, annealing at 62 °C for 30 s, and 228 extension at 68 °C for 10 min, repeated for 27 cycles, followed by a final extension at 68 °C for 229 another 10 min. 230

The amplified PCR products were resolved by agarose gel electrophoresis, using 2 % agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide (0.5 μ g mL⁻¹), and visualized and documented by fluorimetry (Quanti FluorTM, Promega, USA). The PCR mixture contained 25.0 μ L Quanti FluorTM (1.25 U DNA polymerase, 4 mmol L⁻¹ Mg²⁺, 0.4 mmol L⁻¹ dNTP mixture), 1.0 μ L 20 mmol L⁻¹ forward primer, 1.0 μ l 20 μ mol L⁻¹ reverse primer, 1.0 μ L template DNA (about 100 ng), and 22.0 μ L nuclease-free water to a final volume of 50 μL. The samples were passed through illustra MicroSpin S-300 HR Columns
(GE Healthcare Life Sciences, USA) for PCR purification. For each sample, an 8-digit barcode
sequence was added to the 5' end of the forward and reverse primers (Guangzhou Genedenovo
Biotechnology Co., Ltd., China).

A sequencing library was constructed following the protocols for Illumina platforms (Caporaso 240 et al., 2010), and the amplified products were sequenced using the PE250 mode of Hiseq 2500 (Edgar 241 et al., 2011). The reads with bases having a quality score below 20 were discarded because it was 242 difficult to interpret the reads below this threshold. Then, tags were intercepted and filtered by length 243 (Haas et al., 2011). Finally, the tag sequences were compared with the Gold database r20110519 using 244 the UCHIME algorithm to detect and remove chimeric sequences (Wang et al., 2007; Edgar, 2013) 245 and obtain the final effective tags. The effective tag sequences of all samples were clustered to form 246 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) using Uparseusearch v9.2.64. To construct OTUs, representative 247 sequences were selected based on the 97% similarity threshold, including the tag sequences with the 248 highest abundance of OTUs. The set of representative sequences was annotated by RDP Classifier 249 (version 2.2) with a confidence threshold of approximately 0.8-1. The SILVA taxonomic library 250 (http://www.arb-silva.de) was used to assign taxonomy to the sequences (Yilmaz et al., 2014). 251

Venn diagrams of shared OTUs (97% similarity) between the control and biochar-amended soils (Fig. S1) revealed a total of 2432 separate OTUs after 80 days incubation. Sequences were randomly selected based on the relative ratio of known OTUs in obtained sequences, and the rarefaction curve was constructed by plotting the number of OTUs against the number of tags sampled. The gentle slope of the curves (Figs. S2 and S3) indicated that the depth of sequencing had covered all species in the samples.

258

259 2.7. Statistical analysis

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All statistical analyses were conducted with SPSS v22. Before performing the statistical analyses,

data were tested for deviations from normality and homogeneity of variance. One-way ANOVA and 261 comparison of means with Tukey's honestly significant difference post-hoc test (p < 0.05) were used 262 to assess any significant differences between the characteristics of the four biochars used in the 263 experiment and between the bacterial community diversity indices of the control and 3% biochar 264 amended soils after 80 days incubation. The effects of biochar addition on available P, total P, different 265 P fractions and phosphatase enzyme activities in forest soil were analyzed by repeated measures 266 ANOVA. When the homogeneity of variance assumption was violated, according to Mauchly's test 267 of sphericity, the degrees of freedom for testing the significance of the within-subject factors were 268 adjusted using the Huynh-Feldt correction factor. Tukey's honestly significant difference test was 269 employed for post-hoc comparisons (p < 0.05). For bacterial diversity, QIIME 1.7.0 (Caporaso et al., 270 2010) was used to calculate the Chao1, ACE, Shannon, and Simpson indices. 271

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to compare soil bacterial community structure between the different treatments. The evolution distances between microbial communities from each sample were calculated using the tayc coefficient and represented as an Unweighted Pair Group Method with Arithmetic Mean (UPGMA) clustering tree describing the dissimilarity (1 - similarity) between multiple samples. To compare the membership and structure of communities in different samples, heat maps were generated with the top 20 OTUs using Mothur.

278

279 **3. Results**

280 *3.1. Biochar properties*

The biochars produced using leaves and woodchips at different pyrolysis temperatures had significantly different pHs and chemical composition (Table 2). Biochars produced from leaves had higher pH, ash content, available P, and total P, N, and Ca content and lower C:N ratio compared to the woodchip biochars. For both biochar feedstocks, increasing pyrolysis temperature resulted in higher pH, ash content and DOC, available P and total Ca content at 600 °C than at 300 °C. While the total C and Fe content did not vary between leaf and woodchip biochars, the Al content was significantly higher for the woodchip biochar (>1900 mg kg⁻¹) than the leaf biochar (<1100 mg kg⁻¹).

289 *3.2.* Total and available soil phosphorus contents during the incubation experiment

Soil total P and available P content varied significantly among treatments, incubation time and their interaction (Table 3). The application of biochar from *C. lanceolata* leaves resulted in significantly higher total and available P contents in soil compared to the control and woodchip biochar treatments, with the increase being most pronounced at higher application rates and pyrolysis temperature (Figs. 1 and S4).

The BL3003 and BL6003 treatments increased mean soil total P by 85.4 mg kg⁻¹ (28%) and 211 295 mg kg⁻¹ (70%), respectively, and mean available P by 5.86 mg kg⁻¹ (45%) and 20.9 mg kg⁻¹ (161%), 296 respectively, after 80 days of incubation compared with the control. Soil available P content decreased 297 over time during the experiment within each treatment (Figs. 1 and S4D-F). After 80 days of 298 incubation the mean available P content in the BW3003 and BW6003 treatments was 62% (8.03 mg 299 kg^{-1}) and 60% (7.82 mg kg⁻¹), respectively, that of the control (13.0 mg kg⁻¹), while the total P content 300 of the woodchip biochar treatments varied little with the duration of the study compared with the 301 control (Figs. 1 and S4A-C). 302

Table 2. Mean (\pm SE, n=4) chemical compositions of the soil and biochar. Means with different letters across a row indicate significant differences (p < p

- 0.05) between the biochars.
- 305

Properties	BW300	BW600	BL300	BL600	Soil
pH (%)	$4.05\pm0.01a$	$7.96 \pm 0.01 \text{c}$	$7.33\pm0.02b$	$10.4\pm0.01d$	4.34 ± 0.06
Ash (%)	$1.00\pm0.2a$	$2.70\pm0.9a$	$9.90\pm0.5b$	$22.2\pm0.2\text{c}$	-
DOC* (g kg ⁻¹)	$1.26\pm0.1\text{c}$	$0.30\pm0.03a$	$2.44\pm0.26d$	$0.96\pm0.04b$	0.51 ± 0.02
Total P (g kg ⁻¹)	$0.12\pm0.02a$	$0.14\pm0.03a$	$0.82\pm0.05b$	$1.51\pm0.11\text{c}$	0.32 ± 0.73
Available P (g kg ⁻¹)	$0.23\pm0.00a$	$0.62\pm0.05b$	$2.57\pm0.16c$	$3.6\pm0.20d$	0.014 ± 0.00
Total C (%)	$59.2\pm0.07a$	$67.7\pm4.2a$	$56.3\pm3.3a$	$59.2 \pm 1.0a$	1.63 ± 0.12
Total N (%)	$0.39\pm0.02a$	$0.35\pm0.04a$	$1.57\pm0.01\text{d}$	$1.28\pm0.01\text{c}$	0.18 ± 0.02
C:N ratio	151.8±9.2c	193.4±11.5d	35.6±3.9a	46.3±8.5b	9.1±1.5
Ca (g kg ⁻¹)	$2.31\pm0.18a$	$7.62 \pm 1.34a$	$33.50\pm0.88b$	$61.58\pm0.44c$	7.8 ± 0.09
Fe (g kg ⁻¹)	$2.49\pm0.54a$	2.74 ±0. 46a	$2.21\pm0.14a$	$1.97\pm0.18a$	672 ± 41.3
Al (g kg ⁻¹)	$1.95\pm0.17b$	$1.99\pm0.23b$	$1.07 \pm 0.15a$	$0.91\pm0.13a$	2.24 ± 0.27

* Dissolved organic carbon

Table 3. Summary of repeated measures ANOVA for testing the significance of the betweensubject (treatment) and within-subject (time) effects on soil total P, available P, and different P
fractions, as well as soil acid phosphatase (ACP) and alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activities.

Variables	Between-subject factor		Within-subject factor		Interaction	
	(d.f. = 8)		(d.f. = 2)		(d.f. =	16)
	F	р	F	р	F	р
Total P	82.9	< 0.001	9	< 0.001	7.5	< 0.001
Available P	169.6	< 0.001	84.3	< 0.001	5.6	<0.001
Al-P	8.3	< 0.001	130.9	< 0.001	3.7	< 0.001
Fe-P	15.9	< 0.001	14.9	< 0.001	9.7	< 0.001
Ca ₂ -P	22.1	< 0.001	134.4	< 0.001	8.3	< 0.001
Ca ₁₀ -P	33.2	< 0.001	133	< 0.001	4	< 0.001
O-Al-P	6.7	< 0.001	391	< 0.001	11.2	< 0.001
O-Fe-P	3.6	0.006	104.5	< 0.001	0.91	0.559
ACP	27.6	< 0.001	121.7	< 0.001	3.8	< 0.001
ALP	11	< 0.001	78.9	< 0.001	2.5	0.007

Figure 1. Soil total phosphorus (panel A) and available phosphorus (panel B) contents (mg kg⁻¹, mean \pm SE, n=4) after different incubation times following addition of biochar produced from *C. lanceolata* leaves and woodchips to forest soil. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Bars with different letter(s) are significantly different among 80 day incubations (p < 0.05). Note different yaxis scales.



Significant differences were detected among treatments, incubation time and their interaction 320 for all soil P forms, except O-Fe-P for which no significant interaction effect was detected (Table 3, 321 Figs. 2, S5, S6 and S7). In all biochar treatments and the control, soil Al-P content increased between 322 7 and 40 days and then decreased after 80 days incubation (Figs. 2A, S5A, S6A and S7A). At the end 323 of the experiment, soil Al-P content was significantly lower than the control in all the biochar 324 treatments, apart from the 600 °C woodchip biochar treatments. The soil O-Al-P content decreased 325 continuously over time in nearly all treatments (Figs. S5B, S6B and S7B). After 80 days, only the 326 BL3001 and BW3003 treatments had significantly lower soil O-Al-P content than the control (Fig. 327 2B). The mean soil Fe-P content decreased over time for the control and woodchip biochar treatments 328 and was not significantly different after 80 days of incubation (Figs. 2C, S5C, S6C and S7C). In 329 contrast, the soil Fe-P content in the leaf biochar treatments was significantly higher than in the 330 control after 80 days incubation. Soil O-Fe-P content increased continuously over time during the 331 experiment (Figs. 2D, S5D, S6D and S7D). The only significant difference in soil O-Fe-P content 332 between the treatments after 80 days incubation, was a small but significant increase in the BL3003 333 treatment soil compared with the control and the BW3001 and BW6003 treatments. The soil Ca10-P 334 content decreased over time for most of the treatments (Figs. 2E, S5E, S6E and S7E). After 80 days 335 incubation, soil Ca₁₀-P content was significantly higher in all the biochar treatments compared with 336 the control, apart from the BW3001 and BL6001 treatments. Mean soil Ca₂-P content generally 337 increased between 7 days and 40 days during the experiment and then stabilized in most treatments 338 (Figs. 2F, S5F, S6F and S7F). After 80 days incubation, compared with the control, the BL6003 339 340 treatment was the only treatment with a significantly higher Ca₂-P content, whilst the BW6001 and 341 BW6003 treatments had a significantly lower Ca₂-P content.

Figure 2. Soil P fractions (panel A is Al-P, panel B is O-Al-P, panel C is Fe-P, panel D is O-Fe-P, panel E is Ca₁₀-P, and panel F is Ca₂-P) contents (mg kg⁻¹, mean \pm SE, n=4) after different incubation times following addition of biochar produced from *C. lanceolata* leaves and woodchips to forest soil. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Bars with different letter(s) are significantly different among 80 day incubations (p < 0.05). Note different y-axis scales.



349 3.4. Effects of biochar application on soil enzyme activities

Acid phosphatase showed higher activities than alkaline phosphatase in the control and biochar-350 amended soil samples throughout the experiment. Both soil acid and alkaline phosphatase activities 351 varied significantly among treatments, incubation time and their interaction (Table 3, Figs. 3 and S8). 352 Acid phosphatase activities decreased after 40 and 80 days of incubation compared to 7 days of 353 incubation in almost all treatments (Figs. 3A and S8A-C). After 80 days incubation, among treatments, 354 the activity of acid phosphomonoesterase decreased with biochar pyrolysis temperature and 355 application rate, and significantly for the BW6001, BW6003 BL3003 and BL6003 treatments, but 356 was significantly higher in the BL3001 and BL6001 treatments compared to the control (Fig. 3A). 357 The soil alkaline phosphatase activity also declined over time in most of the treatments (Figs. 3B and 358 S8D-F). After 80 days incubation, the activity of this enzyme was significantly reduced in the 359 BW6003, BL3001 and BL3003 treatments, and increased in the BW3003 and BL6003 treatments, 360 361 compared to the control (Fig. 3B).

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Figure 3. Soil acid phosphatase (A) and alkaline phosphatase (B) activities (mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹, mean \pm SE, n=4) after different incubation times following addition of biochar produced from *C. lanceolata* leaves and woodchips to forest soil. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Bars with different letter(s) are significantly different among 80 day incubations (p < 0.05). Note different yaxis scales.



370 *3.5. Diversity and composition of soil bacterial community*

After 80 days incubation, the control, BL3003, BL6003, BW3003, and BW6003 treatments contained 1451, 1478, 1375, 1328, and 1339 OTUs, respectively, of which BL3003 accounted for the largest number of OTUs. Compared with the control, the number of unique OTUs was the largest in the BL3003 treatment, at 403 OTUs, indicating that there were more unique bacterial species following this treatment. Also, the number of OTUs shared by the BL3003 treatment and the control was the largest at 1075 (Fig. S1). The alpha diversity indices of soil bacteria across the 3% biochar addition treatments and the control after 80 days incubation are given in Table 4.

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Table 4. Omicsmart MiSeq sequencing bacterial data and bacterial community diversity indices (at 97% sequence similarity) based on the 16S rRNA gene after 80 days incubation. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Different letters within the same column indicate significant difference between treatments (p < 0.05). The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1.

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Treatment	Chao1	ACE	coverage	Shannon	Simpson	OTUs
СК	1906±193a	1889±117a	0.996	6.973±0.26a	0.967±0.11a	1451±217a
BL3003	2051±164a	1889±115a	0.996	7.337±0.03b	0.986±0.11a	1478±63a
BL6003	1776±43a	1889±116a	0.996	7.177±0.16ab	0.981±0.181a	1357±14a
BW3003	1838±141a	1832±121a	0.996	6.787±0.06a	0.968 ±0.21a	1328±114a
BW6003	1927±93a	1889±114a	0.996	6.733±0.24a	0.963±0.23a	1339±202a

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There was no significant difference in the number of OTUs or any of the indices between the 386 treatments, with the exception of the Shannon index. The Shannon index, which is a measure of 387 species richness and evenness, was significantly higher for the BL3003 treatment than the BW3003 388 389 and BW6003 treatments and the control. The PCA also showed that the application of the biochar produced from leaves caused divergence in the community composition (Fig. 4). The contribution of 390 the first principal component (PC1) was 77.5% and that of the second principal component (PC2) 391 was 10.8%. The treatments with biochar from C. lanceolata leaves were clearly distinguished from 392 the woodchip biochar treatments and the control along PC1 (the x-axis), whilst the woodchip biochar 393 and control samples plotted close together. The leaf biochars produced at the two pyrolysis 394 temperatures were also distinguished along PC2 (the y-axis). These results showed that the 395 application of biochar made from different C. lanceolata harvest residues resulted in different soil 396 bacterial community structures, with the source of biochar materials having the most significant 397 influence, followed by the pyrolysis temperature. 398

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404	The top 25 OTUs accounted for 41-52% of the soil bacteria genus relative abundance in the
405	control and biochar treatments, and are detailed in Table S1. The distinctive bacteria genera in the
406	control and each treatment are highlighted in the heat map in Fig. 5. The control had 171 unique
407	OTUs, of which Candidatus Solibacter, Candidatus Xiphinematobacter, Acidobacterium and
408	Bacteroides were more abundant compared to the biochar treatments, while Jatrophihabitans and
409	Bradyrhizobium were less abundant. The BW3003 treatment contained 123 unique OTUs, of which
410	Sinomonas and Conexibacter had the highest relative abundance (6.45% and 1.53%, respectively)
411	compared to other treatments, whereas Pseudomonas, Exiguobacterium and Acinetobacter were less
412	abundant. Among the 148 unique OTUs identified in the BW6003 treatment, Ktedonobacter had the
413	highest relative abundance (11.9%) compared to other treatments, while Bryobacter, Singulisphaera
414	and Bradyrhizobium were less abundant genera. In the BL3003 treatment, 207 unique OTUs were
415	found of which Burkholderia-Paraburkholderia, Nocardia, Paucimonas and Amycolatopsis were the
416	most abundant (6.88%, 1.15%, 1.91%, 1.12%, respectively) compared to other treatments, whereas
417	Ktedonobacter and Candidatus Solibacter were less abundant. The BL6003 treatment contained 238
418	unique OTUs, of which the most abundant were Gemmatimonas, Planctomyces, Sphingomonasi and
419	Niastella (0.79%, 6.38%, 4.87%, 1.73%, respectively) compared to other treatments, while
420	Terracidiphilus, Sorangium and Acidothermus were less abundant.

Figure 5. z-score hierarchical clustering and heat map of soil bacteria genus abundance in the top 25 OTUs in biochar-amended soil (3% w/w) and the control after 80 days incubation. Each column in the heat map represents a sample and each row represents a classification level. The color scale indicates the gene species abundance expressed as standard deviations from the mean (the z-score), with red for high abundance and blue for low abundance. The treatment abbreviations are shown in

427 Table 1.





The abundance of several soil P-solubilizing bacteria genera was significantly higher in some of 430 the 3% biochar treatments compared with the control (Fig. 6), particularly for the leaf biochar rather 431 432 than the woodchip biochar. The abundance of the following P-solubilizing bacteria increased significantly in soil amended with the BL3003 and/or BL6003 treatments compared to the control 433 and the C. lanceolata woodchip biochar treatments: Burkholderia-Paraburkholderia, Planctomyces, 434 Sphingomonas, Singulisphaera, Gemmatimonas, Nocardia, Amycolatopsis, Massilia. The relative 435 abundance of Burkholderia-Paraburkholderia increased significantly by 85%, 102%, 959%, and 123% 436 in the BW3003, BW6003, BL3003, and BL6003 treatments, respectively, compared with the control. 437 The relative abundance of *Planctomyces* increased by 91% and 436% in the BL3003 and BL6003 438 treatments, respectively, compared to the control. 439

440

441 4. Discussion

The results demonstrate that addition of biochar to second rotation C. lanceolata plantation soil 442 maintains higher total and available P contents, depending on the feedstock, pyrolysis temperature 443 and the application rate. The main explanations for the changes in soil available and total P content 444 after biochar addition are: 1) the direct addition of P in the biochar, and 2) the indirect effect of biochar 445 addition in altering soil factors which affect total P content and availability, such as soil pH, the 446 content and activity of soil Al³⁺, Fe³⁺, and Ca²⁺ and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) which affect soil 447 P fixation, and the soil microbial community structure and activity. Evidence for the operation of 448 these mechanisms in the present study is explored below. 449

Figure 6. The relative abundance (mean ± SE, n=3) of soil phosphorus-solubilizing bacteria in biochar-amended soil (3% w/w) and the control after 80 days incubation. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Bacteria genus labels are: *Burkholderia-Paraburkholderia (Burk), Sinomonas* (*Sinom*), *Planctomyces (Planc), Bradyrhizobium (Brady), Sphingomonas (Sphin), Acinetobacter (Acine), Pseudomonas (Pseud), Singulisphaera (Singu), Conexibacter (Conex), Gemmatimonas (Gemma), Nocardia (Nocar), Amycolatopsis (Amyco), Sorangium (Soran), Isosphaera (Isosp), Massilia (Massi), Bacillus (Bacil)*. Bars with different lower case and upper case letter(s) are significantly different (p < 0.05) among treatments.



P-solubilizing bacteria at genus level

Corresponding with the higher available and total P contents of the leaf biochar, 456 the available and total P contents in soil treated with leaf biochar were significantly 457 higher than that treated with woodchip biochar. These differences increased with 458 temperature and application rate at the start of the experiment, although the significance 459 of differences diminished over time. Application of biochars made from rice straw and 460 branches to rice paddy soil showed similar results, where the soil available P increased 461 more with the application of rice straw biochar, which had a higher P content, than the 462 463 branch biochar (Chao et al., 2015). The P content in leaf biochar was higher than that of woodchip biochar since leaves contain more mineral nutrients and less carbon 464 compared with woody materials in C. lanceolata (Ma et al., 2007), resulting in more 465 466 available P in soil amended with leaf biochar. Furthermore, partially stable P in biochar feedstock may be activated and become soluble after pyrolysis, with pyrolysis 467 temperature determining the element content and surface physical structure of the 468 biochar (Cheng et al., 2006; Gundale and DeLuca, 2006). This influence of pyrolysis 469 temperature on biochar properties was evident in the present study, as total and 470 available P concentrations were higher in each biochar type produced at 600 °C 471 compared to that from the same feedstock pyrolyzed at 300 °C (Table 2). 472 As well as the direct effects of P addition in biochar-amended soils, biochar 473

473 As well as the direct effects of P addition in biochar-amended soils, biochar 474 addition may alter many soil properties which indirectly affect soil P dynamics, content 475 and availability (Bornø et al., 2018). Soil pH is an important control on P availability 476 as it is related to fixation of P by Al and Fe at pH < 5.5 and by Ca at pH > 7.5. Previous

studies have reported that biochar addition may increase soil pH and change the activity 477 or availability of Al³⁺, Fe³⁺, and Ca²⁺, resulting in changed P sorption/desorption in soil 478 479 (Xu et al., 2014). Most biochars are alkaline because as the pyrolysis temperature increases, surface acidic groups (e.g. carboxyl, hydroxyl and phenolic groups) decrease 480 and surface basic groups (e.g. lactones) increase (Chen et al., 2014). Also, mineral 481 elements such as Na, K, Mg and Ca, are present in the form of oxides or carbonates in 482 the ash (Wu et al., 2019). The biochars examined in this study had pH > 7.3, apart from 483 the woodchip biochar produced at 300°C (pH 4.05), and were added to second rotation 484 485 forest plantation soil of pH 4.3. In the first half of the incubation experiment, soil pHs in the leaf biochar treatments (pH 4.7-6.1) were significantly higher than the control 486 soil, but after 80 days soil pH was only significantly enhanced (pH 5.5) in the BL6003 487 488 treatment (Table S2). Thus soil pH is unlikely to explain the higher available soil P contents in the leaf biochar treatments. 489

A further factor in the present study could be increased immobilization of available 490 491 P in the woodchip biochar treatments due to the higher Al content of the woodchip biochar compared to the leaf biochar, or in the leaf biochar treatments due to the higher 492 Ca content of the leaf biochars (Table 2). Counteracting this effect is that biochar can 493 adsorb ions with which P can precipitate readily in soil, such as Al³⁺, Fe³⁺, and Ca²⁺ 494 (Gundale and DeLuca, 2007), or through the formation of chelates between Al³⁺ and 495 Fe³⁺ and organic molecules adsorbed on the surface of biochar (Xu et al., 2014), thus 496 improving soil P availability. The soil Al-P content results after 80 days incubation 497 indicate that increased immobilization of available P by Al³⁺ did not occur in the present 498

study, since none of the biochar treatments have significantly higher Al-P 499 concentrations than the control, and most are significantly lower. Instead, Al³⁺ 500 inactivation due to biochar addition is most probable. Inactivation of Fe^{3+} and Ca^{2+} by 501 biochar was not evident in this study, since soil Fe-P, Ca₁₀-P and Ca₂-P contents in all 502 biochar treatments were the same as the control or significantly higher (Fig. 2C, E-F). 503 Moreover, the Fe addition in the biochar treatments ($\sim 2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$) was negligible compared 504 to the soil background concentration (~670 g kg⁻¹) (Table 2). There is also no clear 505 evidence of increased formation of chelates with Al³⁺ and Fe³⁺ after biochar addition 506 causing enhanced soil available P, because the soil O-Al-P and O-Fe-P concentrations 507 in most biochar treatments are not significantly different from the control (Fig. 2B, D). 508 The higher DOC content in the biochar made from C. lanceolata leaves than the 509 510 woodchip biochar, produced at the same pyrolysis temperature (Table 2), could also explain the higher soil available P content in the leaf biochar treatments. Various 511 mechanisms have been suggested by which biochar-derived dissolved organic matter 512 513 could inhibit P sorption on different soil components, such as: 1) soil colloids due to competition for sorption sites and electrostatic repulsive forces (Schneider and 514 Haderlein, 2016); 2) goethite, particularly in acidic, highly weathered soils (Schneider 515 and Haderlein, 2016); and 3) Fe and Al oxides, due to the increase of anion exchange 516 capacity or cation activity resulting from organic matter addition, as reported following 517 the addition of manure-derived biochar to soil (Yual et al., 2014). Whilst the mineralogy 518 of the study soil was not determined, goethite has been detected in the same soil type 519 in the neighboring county (Chen et al., 2018) and the acidic and highly-weathered 520

nature of the study soil indicates that the higher DOC inputs from the leaf biochars 521 could help explain the higher soil available P content in these treatments. Although 522 523 significantly higher soil available P concentrations were maintained in most of the leaf biochar treatments to the end of the 80-day incubation experiment, concentrations 524 decreased over time, probably due to fixation with Ca or chelation with Fe and organic 525 material (see increase in soil O-Fe-P and Ca2-P contents over time during the 526 experiment, Fig. 2D and F), adsorption to biochar or mineral surfaces, or net 527 immobilization by the microbial biomass (Nguyen and Marschner, 2005; Xu et al., 528 529 2019).

Soil enzymes serve several important functions. They are intimately involved in 530 the cycling of nutrients, affect fertilizer use efficiency, and, since they reflect soil 531 532 microbiological activity, they can act as indicators of soil change. The focus of much soil enzyme research has been to develop methodologies for their measurement and to 533 provide an understanding of their origin and the factors that affect their activity in soil. 534 Comparing enzyme activities between studies can be difficult due to differences in the 535 methodologies used (Peoples and Koide, 2012). The contribution of phosphatase 536 enzymes in increasing soil P availability was minor in the present study. Activities of 537 acid and alkaline phosphomonoesterase decreased significantly in some biochar 538 treatments compared to the control after 80 days incubation with biochar, whilst in 539 others there was an increase in activities or no significant difference between the 540 treatments and the control. These findings of the variable effects of biochar addition on 541 soil phosphatase activities are supported by other studies. Biochar addition to soils has 542

been reported to increase (Bera et al., 2016; Marzooqi and Yousef, 2017), have no effect 543 (Zhang et al., 2017) or reduce (Foster et al., 2016) phosphatase activity. The lower 544 activities of phosphomonoesterase following biochar amendment of soil has been 545 attributed to several mechanisms (Foster et al. 2016), including: sorption or blockage 546 of the enzyme by biochar, lack of soil liming effect due to biochar addition, and 547 increased soil available P resulting in decreased phosphatase activity. The first two of 548 these explanations are more probable in the present study, since significant differences 549 in soil available P compared with the control did not occur in all of the biochar 550 551 treatments with reduced enzyme activity.

This study showed that the addition of biochar derived from C. lanceolata leaves 552 increased the soil bacterial community diversity. Changes in soil properties after 553 biochar application have been shown to alter the structure of soil bacterial communities 554 (Kolton et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2015; Yao et al., 2017a). Previous studies suggest that, 555 because of its physical properties, such as high nanoporosity and large specific surface 556 557 area, biochar addition can improve soil bacteria and fungi growth by increasing the overall soil aeration and water retention, and by the biochar itself providing habitat for 558 bacteria and fungi to escape from predators and to live and grow (Quilliam et al., 2013; 559 Yao et al., 2017b; Dai et al., 2018; McCormack., 2019; Zheng et al., 2019). It is 560 hypothesized that, of the biochars used in this study, the leaf-based biochar has 561 characteristics more favorable for enhancing the soil bacterial community (such as 562 larger specific surface area, although not measured) compared to the woodchip biochar. 563 Changes in soil chemical properties, notably soil pH and nutrient content and 564

availability, caused by biochar application can also alter the bacterial community 565 structure (Rousk et al., 2010; Yao et al., 2017a; Simarani et al., 2018). The increased 566 soil pH (at least for the first 40 days) and P content and availability after the addition of 567 biochar prepared from C. lanceolata leaves might stimulate the growth and 568 reproduction of soil bacteria, thereby changing the soil bacterial community structure. 569 The results are consistent with previous studies, which demonstrated a larger number 570 of 16S rRNA gene copies (Chen et al., 2015), and increased microorganism total 571 phospholipid fatty acids (Muhammad et al., 2016) and bacterial diversity (Yao et al., 572 573 2017a) in biochar-amended compared to unamended control soil samples.

P-solubilizing bacteria have been shown to enhance the solubilization of P 574 compounds with limited solubility through the release of organic acids and phosphatase 575 576 enzymes (Alori et al., 2017; Yao et al., 2017a). In the current study, the abundance of some P-solubilizing bacteria increased significantly in soil amended with biochar 577 derived from C. lanceolata leaves. Increased abundance of inorganic phosphate-578 579 solubilizing bacterial communities has also been reported following soil amendment with straw biochar (Zheng et al., 2019), and the application of citrus wood biochar to 580 soil was shown to increase the root-associated bacterial populations affiliated with the 581 phyla Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes, and Proteobacteria, which benefit 582 plant growth (Kolton et al., 2011). However, the abundance of genes associated with 583 soil phosphatase synthesis was found to be unaltered 3 months following amendment 584 of agricultural field plots with wood biochar, even though the soil P availability had 585 increased (Gao and DeLuca, 2018). It was therefore concluded that, in these conditions, 586

587 P bioavailability was controlled predominantly by abiotic mechanisms related to588 biochar addition.

589

590 5. Conclusions

This study showed that the addition of biochar to second rotation C. lanceolata 591 plantation soil enhanced soil P availability, with the effect varying with feedstock type 592 and pyrolysis temperature. Biochar produced from C. lanceolata leaves improved soil 593 P availability more than C. lanceolata woodchip biochar. Likely explanations for this 594 595 effect are: 1) direct contribution of soluble P by the leaf biochar itself and of DOC which could have reduced P immobilization; 2) an initial increase in soil pH, thereby reducing 596 the content of sparingly-soluble Al-P; and 3) increased diversity of soil bacterial 597 598 communities and abundance of P-solubilizing bacteria, resulting from available P and DOC addition in biochar, which may have indirectly improved the soil P availability. 599 However, biochar addition to forest soil had a limited effect on soil phosphatase enzyme 600 601 activities. Overall, the results demonstrate that conversion of C. lanceolata plantation harvest residues into biochar which is recycled back to the soil between rotations could 602 be a viable method to boost soil nutrient availability, particularly P, during subsequent 603 planting. Leaf biochar appears to be more favorable than woodchip biochar for 604 enhancing soil available P in C. lanceolata plantation systems. To optimize the use of 605 harvest residues as feedstock for preparation of biochar, different mixtures of leaf and 606 woodchip biochar need to be investigated. As this study was a short-term experiment 607 without plants, long-term field studies of its effect on growth of C. lanceolata and life 608

609 cycle analysis of this biochar use method should be conducted before recommending610 plantation management with biochar.

611

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Supplementary Material for:

Biochar addition to forest plantation soil enhances phosphorus availability and soil bacterial community diversity

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Fig. S1. Venn diagrams of shared OTUs between the biochar-amended soil (3% w/w) and the control after 80 days incubation. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1.



Fig. S2. Rarefaction curve of OTUs for the biochar-amended soil (3% w/w) and the control after 80 days incubation. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Each of the three replicates for the control and biochar treatments are shown as -1, -2 and -3.



Fig. S3. The Shannon dilution curve of the sample at 0.03 distance. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Each of the three replicates for the control and biochar treatments are shown as -1, -2 and -3.



Fig. S4. Soil total phosphorus (A-C) and available phosphorus (D-F) contents (mg kg⁻¹, mean \pm SE, n=4) after 7, 40 and 80 days incubation following addition of biochar produced from *C. lanceolata* leaves and woodchips to forest soil. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Bars with different letter(s) are significantly different among 80 day incubations (p < 0.05).



Fig. S5. Soil P fractions (Al-P, Fe-P, O-Al-P, O-Fe-P Ca₂-P, and Ca₁₀-P) contents (mg kg⁻¹, mean \pm SE, n=4) after 7 days incubation following addition of biochar produced from *C. lanceolata* leaves and woodchips to forest soil. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Bars with different letter(s) are significantly different among treatments (p < 0.05). Note different y-axis scales.



Fig. S6. Soil P fractions (Al-P, O-Al-P, Fe-P, O-Fe-P Ca₂-P, and Ca₁₀-P) contents (mg kg⁻¹, mean \pm SE, n=4) after 40 days incubation following addition of biochar produced from *C. lanceolata* leaves and woodchips to forest soil. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Bars with different letter(s) are significantly different among treatments (p < 0.05). Note different y-axis scales.



Fig. S7. Soil P fractions (Al-P, O-Al-P, Fe-P, O-Fe-P Ca₂-P, and Ca₁₀-P) contents (mg kg⁻¹, mean \pm SE, n=4) after 80 days incubation following addition of biochar produced from *C. lanceolata* leaves and woodchips to forest soil. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Bars with different letter(s) are significantly different among treatments (p < 0.05). Note different y-axis scales.



Fig. S8. Soil acid phosphatase (panel A-C) and alkaline phosphatase (panel D-F) activities (mg kg⁻¹ h⁻¹, mean \pm SE, n=4) after 7, 40 and 80 days incubation following addition of biochar produced from *C. lanceolata* leaves and woodchips to forest soil. The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1. Bars with different letter(s) are significantly different among treatments (p < 0.05) within each timestep. Note different y-axis scales.

Table S1. Soil bacteria community genus relative abundances (%, mean \pm SE, n=3) in the top 25 OTUs for the biochar-amended soil (3% *w/w*) and the control after 80 days incubation following addition of biochar produced from *C. lanceolata* leaves and woodchips to forest soil. Different letter(s) within the same row indicate significant difference between treatments (p < 0.05). The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1.

Taxonomy	CK	BW3003	BW6003	BL3003	BL6003
Acidothermus	$24.96\pm2.98b$	$22.9\pm0.69b$	$24.71\pm2.94b$	$11.6 \pm 0.7a$	$5.68\pm0.42a$
Ktedonobacter	$10.05 \pm 1.05 ab$	$8.07 \pm 0.66 ab$	$11.94\pm2.24b$	$5.71 \pm 0.28a$	$6.76\pm0.33a$
Sinomonas	$1.17\pm0.28a$	$6.45\pm0.42\text{b}$	$1.76\pm0.51a$	$1.31\pm0.11a$	$0.89 \pm 0.12 a$
Bradyrhizobium	$1.46\pm0.09a$	$2.47\pm0.22b$	$1.58\pm0.12a$	$2.85\pm0.08b$	$2.64\pm0.14b$
Exiguobacterium	$2.58\pm0.15a$	$1.88\pm0.09a$	$3.26\pm0.37a$	$2.8\pm0.17a$	$3.05\pm0.62a$
Burkholderia-Paraburkholderia	$0.65\pm0.03a$	1.2 ± 0.11 a	$1.27 \pm 0.4a$	$6.88\pm0.58b$	$1.43\pm0.21a$
Conexibacter	$0.28\pm0.04ab$	$1.53\pm0.14c$	$0.34 \pm 0.06 ab$	$0.5\pm0.08b$	$0.04\pm0.009a$
Acinetobacter	$1.03\pm0.11a$	$0.78\pm0.04a$	$1.33\pm0.06a$	$0.98\pm0.11a$	$1.36\pm0.29a$
Planctomyces	$1.31\pm0.33a$	$1.01 \pm 0.1a$	$1.13\pm0.43a$	$2.3\pm0.45a$	$6.38 \pm 1.28 b$
Pseudomonas	$1.13\pm0.04a$	$0.75\pm0.02a$	$1.21\pm0.21a$	$1.07\pm0.03a$	$1.25\pm0.25a$
Sphingomonas	$0.98\pm0.11 a$	$0.9\pm0.23a$	$0.51\pm0.11a$	$1.26\pm0.04a$	$4.87\pm0.94b$
Acidobacterium	$0.67\pm0.07b$	$0.38\pm0.08a$	$0.28\pm0.03a$	$0.41\pm0.02a$	$0.18\pm0.04a$
Singulisphaera	$0.55\pm0.11a$	$0.55\pm0.05a$	$0.31\pm0.08a$	$0.8\pm0.05a$	$1.16\pm0.2b$
Candidatus_Solibacter	$0.76\pm0.01b$	$0.58\pm0.11 ab$	$0.57\pm0.05ab$	$0.41\pm0.02a$	$0.44\pm0.03a$
Terracidiphilus	$0.34\pm0.05ab$	$0.3\pm0.03 ab$	$0.41\pm0.08b$	$0.34\pm0.01 ab$	$0.15\pm0.01a$
Jatrophihabitans	$0.15\pm0.01a$	$0.39\pm0.03b$	$0.73 \pm 0.09 b$	$0.49\pm0.03b$	$0.61\pm0.13b$
Sorangium	$0.24\pm0.01b$	$0.32\pm0.07b$	$0.38\pm0.06b$	$0.31\pm0.05b$	$0.05\pm0.01a$
Candidatus_Xiphinematobacter	$1.19\pm0.21b$	$0.5 \pm 0.12a$	$0.38\pm0.13a$	$0.41\pm0.07a$	$0.4 \pm 0.06a$
Bryobacter	$0.33\pm0.02a$	$0.28\pm0.04a$	$0.19\pm0.01a$	$0.22\pm0.03a$	$0.35\pm0.04a$
Gemmatimonas	$0.18\pm0.05a$	$0.15\pm0.05a$	$0.33\pm0.11a$	$0.26\pm0.05a$	$0.79\pm0.16b$
Nocardia	$0.05\pm0.01a$	$0.08\pm0.01 a$	$0.08\pm0.02a$	$1.15\pm0.03b$	$0.05\pm0.01a$
Amycolatopsis	$0.08\pm0.02a$	$0.06\pm0.01 a$	$0.05\pm0.01a$	$1.12\pm0.49b$	$0.06\pm0.01a$
Paucimonas	$0.02\pm0.001 a$	$0.02\pm0.002a$	$0.02\pm0.005a$	$1.91\pm0.14b$	$0.03\pm0.004a$
Bacteroides	$1.29 \pm 1.25 a$	$0.007\pm0.002a$	$0.01\pm0.008a$	$0.03\pm0.02a$	$0.65\pm0.6a$
Niastella	$0.01\pm0.004a$	$0.004\pm0.001a$	$0.004\pm0.001a$	$0.005\pm0.001a$	$1.73\pm0.46b$
Total abundance	51.47	51.56	52.78	45.13	41.00

Table S2. Soil pH (mean \pm SE, n=4) for the control and biochar-amended soil at different times during the soil incubation experiment. Different letter(s) within the same row indicate significant difference between treatments (p < 0.05). The treatment abbreviations are shown in Table 1.

Days from start of experiment	СК	BW3001	BW3003	BW6001	BW6003	BL3001	BL3003	BL6001	BL6003
7	$4.41\pm0.03de$	$4.38\pm0.03e$	$4.33\pm0.03e$	$4.54\pm0.02d$	$4.73\pm0.04\text{c}$	$4.73\pm0.07\text{c}$	$4.97\pm0.08b$	$5.07\pm0.02b$	$6.14\pm0.10a$
40	$4.36\pm0.01\text{d}$	$4.39\pm0.05\text{d}$	$4.32\pm0.04d$	$4.44\pm0.03d$	$4.67\pm0.07 \text{cd}$	$4.96\pm0.21 \text{bc}$	$4.85\pm0.26bc$	$5.14\pm0.17b$	$5.95\pm0.07a$
80	$4.23 \pm 0.02 \text{cd}$	$3.97\pm0.01\text{d}$	$4.05\pm0.04d$	$4.03\pm0.05d$	$4.81\pm0.55b$	$4.17\pm0.03\text{cd}$	$4.63\pm0.06bc$	$4.42\pm0.01 bcd$	$5.54\pm0.04a$