

Phenolics of the understory shrub Cotinus coggygria influence Mediterranean oak forests diversity and dynamics

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1	TITLE: Phenolics of the understory shrub Cotinus coggygria influence Mediterranean oak					
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18 Abstract

19 Chemical interactions in forested ecosystems play a role in driving biodiversity and ecosystem 20 dynamics. Plant phenolics released by leaching can influence surrounding plants and soil organisms such as bacteria, fungi or arthropods. However, our knowledge about such 21 22 chemically-mediated biotic interactions in Mediterranean oak forests is still limited, in 23 particular whether they play a role in the limited forest regeneration. In this study, we analyzed 24 how phenolics of *Cotinus coggygria*, a dominant shrub of Mediterranean downy oak (*Quercus*) 25 pubescens) forests, influence understory herbaceous plant species, downy oak regeneration and 26 soil organisms in order to obtain a more integrative view of possible direct and indirect 27 interactions triggered by this shrub species. We performed a series of experiments testing the 28 effect of aqueous extracts of C. coggygria, mimicking natural leachates, on these organisms. 29 Cotinus coggygria contained a high quantity of phenolics in green and senescent leaves but 30 much less in leaf litter. Extracts from C. coggygria leaves stimulated bacterial communities, 31 exhibited few effects on both saprophytic and symbiotic fungi, and negatively affected 32 Collembola. Herbaceous species growth was particularly impaired by extracts from green and 33 senescent leaves, although these effects were alleviated in the presence of soil microorganisms. 34 In both greenhouse and field experiments, C. coggygria affected early oak seedling 35 establishment in particular through a reduced root growth, but exhibited no effect on later 36 seedling and sapling growth. We discussed the implication of these results for the balance 37 between competition and facilitation in oak forests and concluded that C. coggygria has the 38 potential to strongly alter biotic interactions, understory plant diversity and oak forest dynamics.

40 **1. INTRODUCTION**

41 Forests are multi-layered and heterogeneous ecosystems in which canopy trees, understory 42 plants and soil organisms interact in complex networks (Wardle et al. 2004). Phenolics released 43 by woody plant species can play a key role in these interactions by influencing the structure and 44 diversity of plant and soil communities (Chou 1999; Souto et al. 2000a; Wardle et al. 1998; Das 45 and Joy 2009), with important feedback on forest community composition, richness or dynamics (Mallik 2008). For instance, autotoxicity of canopy trees on their own seedlings 46 47 probably plays a role in forest species turnover along succession in Mediterranean forests 48 (Fernandez et al. 2008, 2016). However, understory shrub species can also profoundly affect forest ecosystem functioning and dynamics. For example, phenolics released by the 49 50 understory dwarf shrub Empetrum hermaphroditum was reported to impair the regeneration of 51 the dominant tree Pinus sylvestris in boreal forests (Nilsson 1994; Nilsson et al. 2000).

52 Soil microorganisms can be directly affected by plant phenolics (Chomel et al. 2014; 53 Santonja et al. 2018) but they may also use these plant chemicals as carbon source and thus 54 modify the plant-plant chemical interactions (Fernandez et al. 2013; Souto et al. 2000a). Litter 55 phenolics can inhibit tree fungal symbionts (Rose et al. 1983; Souto et al. 2000b) which may 56 have important consequences for tree seedlings development. However, these effects on fungi 57 are species-specific and only few studies tested whether plant phenolics can decrease tree 58 mycorrhization in natural soil (Souto et al. 2000b). Phenolics released by plants may also affect 59 soil arthropods (Poinsot-balaguer et al. 1993; Das and Joy 2009; Asplund et al. 2015), which 60 play a key role on soil microbial community structure (Berg et al. 2004; Chahartaghi et al. 2005) 61 and litter decomposition process (Seastedt 1984; Filser 2002; Santonja et al. 2017). However, to our knowledge, such plant-soil arthropod chemical interactions were poorly studied. 62

63 The Mediterranean basin has an exceptionally high plant diversity and endemism (Myers
64 et al. 2000) shaped by a high diversity of human and ecological factors such as geology,

topography or perturbation regimes (Blondel 2006). Many Mediterranean plants synthesize a 65 wide variety of specialized metabolites, which help them withstanding the summer drought and 66 high radiative stress typical of Mediterranean-type ecosystems (Chaves and Escudero 1999), 67 and which can also influence ecosystem structure and functioning (Scognamiglio et al. 2013; 68 69 Vilà and Sardans 1999). The downy oak (Quercus pubescens Mill.) is a long-lived 70 submediterranean tree that occurs mainly in Southern Europe, from northern Spain to the 71 Caucasus (Quézel and Médail 2003). Downy oak forests cover about 400 000 ha in 72 Mediterranean France (IFN, 2014) and were traditionally managed as coppices, but the abandonment of this practice during the second half of the 20th century resulted in ageing stands 73 74 with frequent signs of dieback. With the abandonment of vegetative reproduction through 75 coppices, the future of these stands should depend upon sexual regeneration, but local 76 observations underline a lack of seedlings and saplings (Prévosto et al. 2013). The role of plant-77 plant chemical interactions during the germination or establishment phases have still been poorly investigated. The understory of downy oak forests is frequently dominated by the shrub 78 79 Cotinus coggygria Scop. (Anacardiaceae), which has a wide distribution from southern Europe, 80 the Mediterranean, Moldova and the Caucasus to central China and the Himalayas (Matić et al. 81 2011). This species has been traditionally used as a dyestuff since antiquity (Valianou et al. 82 2009) but also widely used in ornamental horticulture. This shrub produces high diversities and 83 amounts of phenolics and terpenes (Novaković et al. 2007; Hashoum et al. 2017). This species has consequently been studied for a source of bioactive substances such as those from extracts 84 85 or essential oils that present antibacterial, antifungal and antioxidant properties (Marčetić et al. 86 2013; Novaković et al. 2007; Matić et al. 2011). Considering these characteristics, this species 87 could play a major role in biotic interactions occurring in Mediterranean downy oak forests. 88 The aim of the present study was to analyze how phenolics of C. coggygria influence understory herbaceous plant species, downy oak regeneration and soil organisms, including 89

90 both microorganisms and arthropods. More precisely, our objectives were to (i) quantify 91 phenolics present in *C. coggygria* leaf leachates; (ii) determine whether phenolics of *C.* 92 *coggygria* affect the germination and seedling growth of understory plant species and downy 93 oak; (iii) evaluate the impact of these phenolics on soil microorganisms and arthropods; and 94 finally (iv) assess the role of soil microorganisms for plant-plant chemical interactions.

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2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

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98 2.1. Experimental site and material collection

99 Field experiment and biological material collection (*Cotinus coggygria* leaves, oak acorns 100 and soils) were performed at the Oak Observatory at the OHP (O₃HP) experimental site located 101 in the research center "Observatoire de Haute Provence", 60 km north of Marseille (43°56'115" 102 N, 05°42'642" E; 680 m a.s.l.). The climate is Mediterranean with a mean annual temperature 103 of 11.9 °C and a mean annual precipitation 830 mm (1967–2000). The site is covered by an 104 old-growth oak forest belonging to the site Natura 2000 "FR9302008 Vachères", which was 105 managed for centuries by coppicing. Downy oak (Quercus pubescens: 75% coverage) and 106 Montpellier maple (Acer monspessulanum: 25% coverage) are the two dominant tree species, 107 with understory vegetation dominated by smoke tree (*Cotinus coggygria*: 30% coverage). The 108 soil is a pierric calcosol (with S horizon between limestone rocks) or calcarisol when limestone 109 appears less than 25 cm deep.

Three types of *C. coggygria* leaves (according to leaf maturity) were collected to perform chemical analyses and to prepare the aqueous extracts (mimicking *C. coggygria* leachates) for bioassays: green and senescent leaves were collected directly on the shrub and leaf litter on the forest floor. Oak acorns were collected on the ground in autumn, floated and visually screened to eliminate non-viable acorns. Soil samples used as bioassay substrate were collected in zones without *C. coggygria* (i.e. at least 10 m from shrubs), sieved at 2 mm, and then stored at room
temperature until the start of the experiments.

117 We selected four herbaceous target species naturally present in downy oak forests to perform the bioassays: Linum narbonense L. (Linaceae), Satureja montana L. (Lamiaceae), 118 119 Silene nutans L. (Caryophyllaceae) and Verbascum pulverulentum Vill. (Scrophulariaceae). 120 Seeds were collected from wild populations on the study site, and then stored in a cold chamber 121 at 5 °C until the start of the experiment. We also selected Lactuca sativa L. (Asteraceae) as 122 target plant species because this species is known for its sensitivity to specialized metabolites 123 and frequently used for bioassays as a reference (e.g. Chou et al. 1998; Fernandez et al. 2006). 124 Seeds of *L. sativa* were purchased from a commercial company (Vilmorin ®).

- 125
- 126 2.2. Chemical analysis
- 127

128 2.2.1. Total phenolics

129 Extraction of phenolics was carried out based on the method described by Singleton and 130 Rossi (1965) and adapted to smaller amounts of plant material. Briefly, a dry mass (DM) of 250 131 mg of crushed leaf was extracted with 20 mL of deionized water. The mixture was left for 1 h 132 under constant shaking at ambient temperature shielded from light. The extract was then filtered 133 on Whatman GF/C paper filter. A volume of 25 µL of the extract were added to 1650 µL of 134 ultrapure water, 200 µL of saturated Na₂CO₃ aqueous solution and 100 µL of Folin-Ciocalteu's 135 reagent. After 30 min, the phenolic index was measured at 765 nm on a spectrophotometer 136 (Spectronic Biomate 3 Thermo Electron Scientific Instrument Corporation ®) and expressed as 137 equivalent of mg of gallic acid per g of plant material (DM).

138

139 *2.2.2. Flavonoids*

140 Among phenolic compounds, we focused on flavonoids which were quantified in terms of 141 proanthocyanidins and flavonoid index (total flavonoid). Extraction and quantification were 142 based on a previous work (Kaundun et al. 1998) adapted by our laboratory to smaller amounts of plant material. A mass of 0.5 g DM of crushed leaf was suspended in 15 ml of HCl 2N 143 144 solution and heated to 90 °C in a water bath with reflux for 50 min with every 10 min of air 145 influxes. The acidic treatment generated anthocyanidins from homologous proanthocyanidins 146 and flavonol aglycones from corresponding flavonol glycosides. The solution was left to cool 147 approximately 30 min and filtered (filter porosity 3). Anthocyanidins were quantified 148 spectrophotometrically at 435 nm (Spectronic Biomate 3 Thermo Electron Scientific Instrument Corporation (®) and expressed as mg per g of plant material (DM). Flavonol 149 150 aglycones were extracted three times with 9 mL of diethyl ether. The extracts were recombined 151 and evaporated to dryness. The residue was then dissolved and mixed with 1.5 mL of methanol. 152 An aliquot of 100 µL was added to 5 mL of 1 % AlCl₃ / MeOH solution and let 20 min to react. 153 The flavonoid index was measured at 530 nm and expressed as equivalent of mg of quercetin 154 per g of plant material (DM).

155

156 2.3. Bioassays

157 We chose to test the effects of natural leachates using leaf aqueous extracts because water-158 soluble compounds have been shown to be most involved in allelopathy (Fernandez et al. 2013, 159 2016). These extracts were prepared by soaking entire leaves in deionized water for 24 h at 160 room temperature $(20 \pm 1^{\circ}C)$ in darkness (Fernandez et al. 2013; Hashoum et al. 2017). After 24 h, extracts were filtered through #42 Whatman® paper filter and stored at 4 °C until use. 161 162 New extracts were prepared to prevent compound degradation once a week (Experiment 1, 163 stock solution at 5% dry weight further diluted at 2.5%) or once a month (Experiment 2, solution 164 at 5% dry weight) with fresh material.

166 2.3.1. Experiment 1: Response of understory plant species & microorganisms to C. coggygria
167 aqueous extracts

We compared natural and autoclaved soil bioassays to evaluate the impact of soil microbial communities in shaping plant-plant chemical interactions (Kaur et al. 2009; Fernandez et al. 2013). Sterilization consisted in autoclaving soil for two cycles of 1 h (24 h apart) at 121 °C to eliminate a fraction of the microbial community (Alef and Nannipieri 1995; Trevors 1996).

172 Bioassays were conducted in Petri dishes with 50.0 g (\pm 0.1 g) of soil, either natural or 173 autoclaved, corresponding to a thickness of 0.5 to 0.6 mm (Fernandez et al. 2013). Each Petri 174 dish was sown with 20 seeds of each target species that were watered every 2 days with 5 mL 175 of deionized water (control) or C. coggygria extracts (2.5% and 5%) from one of the three leaf 176 types (green leaf, senescent leaf and leaf litter). Five replicates were performed for each 177 treatment (target plant species \times leaf type \times concentration \times soil type). Bioassays were conducted under natural photoperiod and controlled temperature (20.5 °C \pm 1 °C) for 40 days. 178 179 Seed germination was monitored every day and used to compute total germination rate and 180 germination speed using the velocity coefficient (Mazliak 1982): $Cv = 100 (\Sigma N_i / \Sigma N_i T_i)$, where 181 N_i is the number of seeds germinated at time i, and T_i is the number of days since the start of 182 the experiment. The higher the velocity coefficient, the faster the germination. A seed was 183 considered as germinated when the protruding radicle achieved the length of 1 mm beyond the 184 seed coat. Lengths of root and shoot were measured for each individual at the same age, i.e. 10 185 days after germination (accuracy: 1 mm).

A further set of Petri dishes containing either natural or autoclaved soils was used to test the effects of *C. coggygria* extracts on biomass and basal respiration of soil microbial communities. Microbial biomass (MB) was estimated using substrate-induced respiration (SIR) rates (Anderson and Domsch 1978). Ten grams (dry weight equivalent) of subsamples were placed in 117 mL glass jars and amended with powdered glucose (1000 μ g C.g⁻¹ soil). After incubation (1 h, 22 °C), a volume of 1 mL of air was sampled in the headspace with a syringe and injected onto the gas chromatograph (ChrompackCHROM 3-CP 9001) to analyze CO₂ production. SIR rates were converted into MB using equations given by Beare et al. (1990).

194

195 2.3.2. Experiment 2: Response of oak seedling (2a) and sapling (2b) to C. coggygria aqueous
196 extracts in greenhouse and (2c) to C. coggygria presence in the field

197 This experiment was conducted in greenhouse to determine if *C. coggygria* aqueous 198 extracts could alter (i) oak acorns germination and early development and (ii) oak saplings 199 development and associated mycorrhiza. Finally, a seeding experiment was performed *in situ* 200 to compare patterns obtained in greenhouse (only chemical interactions) and in the field (all 201 types of interaction).

In the experiment 2a, thirty oak acorns were sown in individual pots filled with natural 202 203 soil and vermiculite (2:1, for a total of 150 g of substrate per pot). Three treatments were applied 204 on each set of 10 pot replicates: i) control, ii) leachates, watered with C. coggygria aqueous 205 extracts at 2.5% DM of plant material, and iii) litter, where soil substrate was mixed with 10 g 206 of C. coggygria leaf litter. Pots were watered every 3 days with deionized water or aqueous 207 extracts and kept under a 12h-photoperiod for 2 months. At the end of this period, germinated 208 acorns in each treatment were counted. The seedlings were separated into leaves, stem and 209 roots, and weighed after drying them at 60 °C for 48 h.

The experiment 2b was conducted to assess *C. coggygria* impact on older saplings and their mycorrhizae. A total of 70 forty-month old individuals of *Q. pubescens* certified mycorrhized by *Tuber melanosporum* Vittad. were grown in 10 L plastic pots containing a substrate consisting of mold (pH 6), perlite and vermiculite (1/3 of each). Three grams of magnesium carbonate per L of substrate were added to obtain an alkaline pH of 7.6 that favors *T*. 215 melanosporum development. Half of the saplings were watered monthly with 200 mL of 216 aqueous extracts at 5% DM of plant material whereas control saplings received 200 mL of 217 deionized water. In order to mimic as close as possible the natural conditions, C. coggygria 218 extracts were prepared according to the shrub phenology: with senescent leaves sampled from 219 October to January, litter sampled from February to April or green leaves sampled from May 220 to September. After 4, 12 and 16 months, 10 saplings per treatment were harvested and divided 221 into leaf, stem and root after careful removing of soil. A subsample of 10 secondary root 222 segments (3 cm) per sapling were randomly selected for the analysis of the mycorrhizal 223 colonization (Garbaye 2013). Root segments were kept in 60 % ethanol to stop the mycelial 224 development until analysis. Segments were placed in Petri dishes and all root tips were observed 225 using a binocular scope and classified as mycorrhized or not. We then computed the 226 mycorrhization rate according to the formula number of mycorrhizal root tip / total root tips \times 227 100.

228 For the field experiment (2c), 50 sowing points were installed on the Q. pubescens forest 229 understory, either in the presence or absence of C. coggygria shrub (100 sowing points in total). 230 Each sowing point consisted of manually dug holes of about 2 cm in which 2 downy oak acorns 231 were laid flat, covered with soil and a wire mesh (10 cm x 10 cm, 0.6 cm mesh size) to prevent 232 predation by rodents. Acorns collection and sowing took place in November 2013. Acorns were 233 collected on several trees to encompass intraspecific variation and non-viable acorns were 234 eliminated by floating and visual screening. Sowing points were distributed in 5 blocks in each 235 treatment (with or without C. coggygria). Plots were fenced to limit predation by wild boar. 236 Emerged seedlings were counted in June 2014, and seedling number and dimensions (diameter 237 at 2 cm and length) were then recorded yearly in winter until 2017 (4-year-old seedlings).

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239 2.3.3. Experiment 3: response of soil saprophytic fungi and mesofauna to C. coggygria aqueous

240 extracts

For this experiment, intact soil from the upper 10 cm were sampled, transported to the laboratory and placed in aluminum mesocosm (20×15 cm). The mesocosms were placed in a culture room with a natural photoperiod, a temperature of about 23 °C and an air humidity of about 40%. Mesocosms were sprayed each 3 days using 50 mL of deionized water (control) or aqueous extracts of *C. coggygria* senescent leaves at 2.5% and 5% DM of plant material.

After 15 days, soil arthropods were extracted using the Tullgren funnel method, and stored in 95% ethanol to be counted and separated into Collembola and different suborders for Acari (Oribatida, Mesostigmata and Prostigmata) (Hopkins 1997; Santonja et al. 2017) using a binocular scope. Collembola and Acari Oribatida were regarded as microbi-detritivore mesofauna, whereas Acari Mesostigmata and Prostigmata as predatory mesofauna (Coleman et al. 2004; Santonja et al. 2017).

Fungal biomass was determined by quantifying ergosterol, which is a specific fungal membrane constituent and thus a good indicator of living fungal biomass (Gessner and Chauvet 1993). Ergosterol extraction and quantification were performed following the method described in Santonja et al. (2017).

256

257 2.4. Data analysis

Differences in concentration of phenolics, flavonols and proanthocyanidins according to *C. coggygria* leaf type (green leaf, senescent leaf and leaf litter) were tested using KruskalWallis tests followed by post hoc Student-Newman-Keuls tests.

For the experiment n°1, differences in plant performance (germination rate and velocity, shoot and root growths) in the control treatments between species and soil types (autoclaved and natural) were first analyzed using a binomial GLM for germination rate and two-way ANOVAs for other response variables, followed by post-hoc Tukey tests. Then, we computed

a Relative Allelopathic Effect (RAE) as the relative difference between plant performance in 265 266 the control (Pc) and leachates (Pt) treatments: RAE (%) = (Pc - Pt) / Pt and calculated a mean 267 and bootstrapped confidence interval at 95% (n=1000) for each combination of species, leaf 268 type (green, senescent and litter), concentration (2.5 or 5%) and soil type (autoclaved or 269 natural). RAE was considered significantly different from zero (i.e. treatment different from the 270 control) when zero was not included in the bootstrapped confidence interval. Differences in 271 microbial biomass according to the C. coggygria leaf type, concentration and soil type were 272 tested using a three-way ANOVA followed by post hoc Tukey tests.

273 Concerning the experiment n°2, differences in oak seedling root, stem and leaf biomasses 274 according to the treatments (control, leachates or litter) were tested using one-way ANOVAs 275 followed by post hoc Tukey tests. Differences in oak sapling biomass (root, stem and leaf) and 276 mycorrhization rate according to the treatment, sampling date and their interactions were tested 277 using two-way ANOVAs followed by post-hoc Tukey tests. For the field experiment, the effect 278 of *C. coggygria* presence on seedling emergence and survival was tested using binomial GLMs 279 and using a one-way ANOVA for seedling growth. For all ANOVAs, normality and 280 homoscedasticity of the residuals were assessed by Shapiro-Wilk and Bartlett tests, 281 respectively, and data were log or root-squared-transformed when necessary.

Finally, concerning the experiment n°3, differences in mesofauna abundance and fungal biomass according to *C. coggygria* leachates were tested by Kruskal-Wallis tests, followed by post-hoc Student-Newman-Keuls tests, due to heteroscedasticity.

All statistical analyses were performed with R software (R Development Core Team 2017).
 286

287 **3. RESULTS**

289 3.1. Chemical analysis

290 Concentrations of total phenolics, flavonols and proanthocyanidins increased from green291 to senescent leaves but strongly decreased in leaf litter (Fig. 1).

292

293 **3.2.** *Bioassays*

294

3.2.1. Soil microorganisms and herbaceous plant responses to C. coggygria aqueous extracts
The sterilization process reduced by two-fold microbial biomass on natural soil (*t*-test, *P*<0.01; Fig. 2). On natural soil, this biomass increased regularly from green leaf to leaf litter
extracts watering with a weak effect of dose (2.5 vs. 5% DM), except for leaf litter extract that
showed a higher dose effect. On autoclaved soil, stimulatory effects of all aqueous extracts were
observed on microbial biomass, especially with extracts at 5% DM with 2 to 3-fold increases
(Fig. 2).

302 Target plant species exhibited highly different germination rate and velocity, and growth 303 length values in the control treatments (Table 1). Lactuca sativa had the highest germination 304 rate (79-85 %) and velocity (43-44). Verbascum pulverulentum presented the lowest 305 germination rate (14-34 %) concomitant to the lowest growth (1.0-1.4 and 1.0-1.2 cm for root 306 and shoot, respectively). *Linum narbonense* demonstrated the highest growth (6.0-6.1 and 5.4-307 5.6 cm for root and shoot, respectively) with the slowest germination velocity (8.2-8.3). The 308 effect of soil type on germination rate depended on species (Species × Soil interaction, 309 likelihood ratio $\chi_2 = 221.8$, P<0.001). Silene nutans and V. pulverulentum presented lower 310 germination rates on autoclaved soil compared to natural soil ($47.7 \pm 3.0 \text{ vs.} 55.3 \pm 3.9 \text{ for } S$. 311 *nutans*; 13.7 ± 2.7 vs. 34 ± 3.5 for V. *pulverulentum*). Higher germination rates were however observed for L. sativa (85.3 ± 1.6 vs. 79.3 ± 1.6) and Satureja montana (82.0 ± 2.8 vs. $74.0 \pm$ 312 313 3.2) on autoclaved soil compared to natural soil. Linum narbonense was the only species for 314 which germination rate was not affected by the soil treatment $(74.3 \pm 2.0 \text{ vs.} 75.3 \pm 7.2 \text{ for}$ autoclaved and natural soils, respectively). As a consequence, the presence/absence of 315 316 microorganisms in soils influenced species ranking for germination rate. In addition to lower germination rate on autoclaved soil, S. nutans was the only species presenting a lower 317 germination velocity on autoclaved soil compared to natural soil ($F_{4,140} = 8.4$, P < 0.001; 15.8 318 319 \pm 0.7 vs. 55.3 \pm 3.9, respectively), whereas this parameter seemed to be not affected by soil 320 treatment for the four other species. Shoot and root growth of all species were not affected by 321 soil treatment (P > 0.05, Table 1).

322 *Cotinus coggygria* aqueous extracts generally affected plant growth more than plant 323 germination, but extract effects depended on target plant species, leaf type, extract 324 concentration and soil type.

325 The effects of C. coggygria extracts on growth ranged from - 57% to no effect, with no 326 positive effect detected (Fig. 3). Generally, we observed higher inhibitory effects on root growth (up to -57%) than shoot growth (up to -29%). Inhibitory effects were higher with extracts 327 328 prepared with green leaf, followed by those based on senescent leaf. Inhibitory effects were 329 strongly reduced or totally disappeared with litter extracts and were generally stronger on 330 autoclaved soil than on natural soil. Linum narbonense was the most sensitive species, 331 especially on autoclaved soil where growth was reduced by more than 50% for several leaf 332 types and extract concentrations (Fig. 3). Satureia montana and V. pulverulentum were also very 333 sensitive to green leaf extracts on autoclaved soil, with almost 40% of root length reduction, 334 whereas S. nutans reached similar reductions with senescent leaf extracts on autoclaved soil. 335 On natural soil, plant growths were also reduced by about 20% for L. narbonense, S. nutans 336 and V. pulverulentum in presence of leaf extracts while S. montana maintained a similar plant 337 growth than in control treatment.

338 *Cotinus coggygria* extracts effects on germination rate and velocity ranged from -38% to

339 +26% and from -24% to +17%, respectively (Supplementary Fig. S1). Lactuca sativa had more stable germination rate and velocity across all treatments than the other species. Extracts 340 341 reduced the germination rate and velocity of L. narbonense to about 38%, but this reduction was overall lower on natural soil where 2.5% extracts slightly stimulated germination. 342 343 Germination rate of S. montana was reduced on autoclaved soil, while on natural soil its 344 germination velocity was stimulated by senescent leaves. Germination rate of V. pulverulentum was inhibited by green leaf extracts on natural soil. No clear hierarchy of extract effects was 345 346 evidenced regarding leaf type (Supplementary Fig. S1).

347

348 *3.2.2. Oak seedling and sapling responses to C. coggygria aqueous extracts*

349 In the greenhouse, leaf extracts did not influence acorn germination rate as all sowed acorns germinated (Exp. 2a). Both C. coggygria extracts and litter presence caused a 39% reduction 350 of seedling root biomass ($F_{2,27} = 6.4$, P < 0.01) but did not affect stem ($F_{2,27} = 0.2$, P = 0.8) or 351 leaf biomass ($F_{2,27} = 0.3$, P = 0.8) of the 2 month-old oak seedlings (Exp. 2a, Fig. 4). However, 352 353 aqueous extracts did not affect the 40-months-old oak sapling leaf, stem and root biomasses, 354 although leaf biomass slightly increased for saplings watered with C. coggygria extracts at the 355 end of the experiment (Exp. 2b, Table 2, Fig. 4). Mycorrhization rates, rather low at 4 months 356 $(18.8 \pm 2.6\%)$, increased after 12 and 16 months of experiment (68-82%) but were not 357 influenced by C. coggygria extracts whatever the sampling date (Table 2).

In the field, oak seedling emergence was lower under *C. coggygria* shrubs (LR $\chi^2 = 8.7, P$ 359 = 0.003), but *C. coggygria* presence did not affect seedling survival (LR $\chi^2 = 4.1, P = 0.5$, data 360 not shown), diameter (F_{1,70} = 0.1, *P* = 0.7) or length (F_{1,70} = 0.4, *P* = 0.5) growth over the 361 following 3 years (Exp. 2c, Fig. 4).

362

363 *3.2.3.* Saprophytic fungi and mesofauna responses to C. coggygria aqueous extracts

Saprophytic fungal biomass as well as Oribatida and predatory Acari abundances were not affected by *C. coggygria* extracts (KW = 1.3, P = 0.5; KW = 1.5, P = 0.5; KW = 0.4, P = 0.8, for saprophytic fungi, Oribatida and predatory Acari, respectively; Table 3). Collembola abundance was 3.5 times lower in mesocosms watered with *C. coggygria* extracts at 5% than in mesocosms watered with deionized water (KW = 7.0, P = 0.03; Table 3).

369

370 **4. DISCUSSION**

C. coggygria contained a particularly high quantity of phenolics in green and senescent leaves. For instance, total phenolic and flavonoid contents were at least 10 times higher than values reported for *Pinus halepensis* (Fernandez et al. 2009; Santonja et al. 2015). Phenolic quantities were however strongly reduced in litter. Phenolics are water-soluble compounds that are rapidly leached during the initial phases of decomposition (Chomel et al. 2014; Santonja et al. 2015). For example, Santonja et al. (2015) reported that *C. coggygria* lost 73% of initial phenolic content after 100 days of litter decomposition.

378

379 4.1. Impacts of C. coggygria on herbaceous species and oak regeneration

380 Bioassays conducted on several target plant species generally highlight species-specific 381 response to allelochemicals. For instance, Fernandez et al. (2013) found that 40% of 15 target 382 plant species tested were inhibited by aqueous extracts of *P. halepensis* green needles, while 383 20% were insensitive and 40% were even stimulated. In the present study, although sensitivity 384 to C. coggygria aqueous extracts varied depending on target species, effects were generally 385 negative and only a slight positive effect on germination was detected for one species, 386 highlighting a strong phytotoxic potential of C. coggygria. Contrary to our expectations, the 387 commonly used L. sativa was not the most sensitive target species. The high sensitivity of L. 388 narbonense is concordant with previous studies that also outlined a high sensitivity of *Linum* *strictum*, a species from the same genus (Bousquet-Mélou et al. 2005; Fernandez et al. 2006, 2013). Interestingly, this finding is contradictory with the general view that specialized metabolites are less efficient against co-occurring species (Callaway and Ridenour 2004). Litter, which had by far the lowest phenolic content, also presented the lowest effects. However, green leaves showed generally a higher effect than senescent leaves despite a lower phenolic content. Different chemical compositions between these two phenological stages may probably explain the particularly high effect of green leaves (Hashoum et al. 2017).

The negative influence of *C. coggygria* on early oak seedling root development may explain the lower emergence below shrubs recorded on the field. Later sapling development in contrast was poorly affected by extracts, both in the field and greenhouse experiments. Older saplings may be less sensitive to this type of interaction because of a lower quantity of absorbed phenolics relative to seedling biomass (dilution effect). Alternatively, older seedlings may be better protected against phytotoxic compounds thanks to their mycorrhizal associations (Mallik and Zhu 1995; Zeng and Mallik 2006).

403

404 4.2. Phenolics influence on soil organisms

405 In the present study, C. coggygria extracts generally increased microbial biomass. Hortal 406 et al. (2015) also found that specialized metabolites of the shrub Thymus hyemalis promotes 407 microbial activity and biomass. Microbial stimulation may be due to the use of these 408 compounds as energy source by microorganisms (Inderjit 1996; Blum and Shafer 1998), which 409 could explain the lower inhibition of herbaceous species in natural soils containing 410 microorganisms. An alternative explanation is that aqueous extracts also contain nutrients and 411 sugars that stimulate microorganisms, or that microorganisms may have been present in extracts 412 according to leaf types, adding more microbes to the soil. Increase in microbial biomass was 413 stronger at higher concentration of extracts, probably because of a higher quantity of 414 compounds or microorganisms. This was particularly the case with high increase of 415 microorganisms on autoclaved soils, containing less initial microbial biomass, which may be 416 linked to a higher colonizing capacity of remaining microorganisms and/or extract 417 microorganisms favored by a lower microbial competition.

418 Saprophytic and symbiotic fungi were not affected by C. coggygria extracts. Ex situ studies 419 found that phenolics may inhibit, have neutral effect or even stimulate fungal development and 420 respiration depending on the source species, on extracts concentration and on fungal target 421 species (Rose et al. 1983; Souto et al. 2000a,b). Rose et al. (1983) also showed that root 422 colonization of Douglas fir (Pseudotsuga menziesii Mirb.) seedlings by Rhizopogon sp. was 423 inhibited by the mere application of litter on soil surface. In our study, no effect on total 424 mycorrhization rate was detected but we did not investigate such potential species-specific 425 effects by examining mycorrhizal species present on oak roots. Even if qualitative changes in 426 mycorrhizal communities occurred, this did not seem to affect oak seedling development during 427 the 16 months of our experimentation. In addition, it is worth noting that our experiment was 428 designed to test chemical effects on already mycorrhized saplings, but it would be interesting 429 to further study whether initial root colonization by mycorrhizae could be affected.

430 Among soil arthropods, Collembola abundance was negatively affected while Acari 431 appeared as insensitive to extracts of C. coggygria senescent leaves. Previous experiments also 432 reported that phenolic compounds, including phenolic acids, flavonoids and tannins, can limit 433 litter colonization, growth and activity of soil Collembola (Poinsot-balaguer et al. 1993; Das 434 and Joy 2009; Chomel et al. 2014; Asplund et al. 2015). For example, Asplund et al. (2015) 435 reported a negative effect of lichen phenolics on Collembola abundance and species richness in 436 boreal P. sylvestris forest, while Das and Joy (2009) showed a decrease in litter colonization by 437 Cyphoderus javanus Börner (Collembola: Hexapoda) according to the increase in phenolic concentration in tropical forest. In the present study, by negatively affecting Collembola, 438

439 phenolics present in *C. coggygria* senescent leaves could favor microbial and Acari 440 colonization of leaf litter during the initial stages of litter decomposition. However, in later 441 decomposition stages positive effects of *C. coggygria* litter on Collembola have been observed 442 (Santonja et al. 2017), suggesting that the leaching of phenolics remove the inhibitory effect 443 found here with senescent leaves. In support to this hypothesis, Chomel et al. (2014) also 444 reported than phenolics present in pine needles delayed the litter colonization by Collembola in 445 Mediterranean *P. halepensis* forest.

446

447 4.3. Soil organisms modulate plant-plant chemical interactions

Aqueous extracts of C. coggygria leaves exhibited more negative effects on plant target 448 449 species on autoclaved than on natural soils. Microbial activities can influence the persistence, 450 availability and biological activity of phenolics in soil (Inderjit 2005; Kaur et al. 2009; Meiners 451 et al. 2012). Here, microbial community present in natural soil released the toxicity of C. 452 coggygria extracts, despite a similar microbial biomass than in autoclaved soil. We can 453 hypothesize that this alleviation of negative effects is due to a qualitative difference in soil 454 microbial community, i.e. sterilization removed a part of soil microbial community able to 455 degrade phytotoxic compounds. This highlights the possible importance of microbial 456 community composition in determining the intensity or direction of plant-plant chemical 457 interactions.

458

459 4.4. Synthesis: potential impacts of C. coggygria on forest regeneration

460 Our study shows that *C. coggygria* leachates can inhibit both herbaceous species and 461 early oak seedling development. Herbaceous species are strong competitor for oak seedling 462 establishment (Rey Benayas et al. 2005; Gavinet et al. 2016) because they form a dense 463 superficial network of roots that strongly compete with tree seedlings for water in the upper

soil layers (Balandier et al. 2006). The inhibitory effect of C. coggygria on herbaceous 464 species could mediate indirect interactions favoring oak establishment. Although we did 465 466 not observe such indirect positive interactions in the field, they may take place in systems 467 with a higher herbaceous cover. In the USA, Petranka and McPherson (1979) found that 468 *Rhus copallina*, a shrub closely related to *C. coggygria* with high phenolics content, plays 469 a key role in the prairie – forest transitions as this shrub allows for tree seedling 470 establishment by inhibiting herbaceous species development. In addition, by stimulating 471 microbial biomass and reducing the abundance of microbivorous mesofauna, C. coggygria 472 may favor microbial community development and associated functions such as nutrient mineralization. However, it is difficult to predict feedback effects on plant species without 473 474 more knowledge of the type of microbes being stimulated (neutral, mutualistic or 475 pathogens, Hortal et al. 2015) and our in-situ experiment suggests that modifications of soil microbes may not play an important role for oak seedling establishment, as also shown 476 477 in a pot experiment (Gavinet et al., 2018).

478 Changes in seedling response to neighbor presence with ontogeny have been highlighted 479 in several studies (e.g. Le Roux et al. 2013) and generally attributed to a change in resource 480 requirement or availability (Soliveres et al. 2010). The results of our study suggest that 481 ontogenetic changes in plant-plant interaction outcomes may also result from a change in plant-482 plant chemical interactions.

483

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Table 1: Germination and growth parameters of the 5 target species in the control treatment (watered with deionized water) depending on soil

687 type. Data are means \pm standard errors (n = 15 boxes for germination parameters, n = 35-150 seedlings for growth parameters). Different letters

688 indicate significant differences between species with a>b>c>d (P<0.05).

689

	Autoclaved soil			Natural soil				
	Germination	Germination	Root growth	Shoot growth	Germination	Germination	Root growth	Shoot growth
	rate (%)	velocity	(cm)	(cm)	rate (%)	velocity	(cm)	(cm)
Lactuca sativa	$85.3 \pm 1.6a$	$43.1 \pm 0.6a$	$2.42\pm0.08b$	$3.04\pm0.10b$	79.3 ± 1.6a	$44.1\pm0.0a$	$2.04\pm0.07b$	$3.44 \pm 0.11b$
Linum narbonense	$74.3 \pm 2.0b$	$8.2 \pm 0.2 d$	$6.01 \pm 0.13a$	$5.40 \pm 0.08a$	$75.3 \pm 7.2a$	$8.3 \pm 0.3c$	$6.13 \pm 0.11a$	$5.62\pm0.09a$
Satureja montana	$82.0 \pm 2.8a$	$22.9\pm0.9b$	$2.27\pm0.04b$	$2.16\pm0.03c$	$74.0 \pm 3.2a$	$23.1\pm0.9b$	$2.31\pm0.05b$	$2.57\pm0.04c$
Silene nutans	$47.7 \pm 3.0c$	$15.8 \pm 0.7 bc$	$2.16\pm0.09b$	$2.49\pm0.05c$	$55.3 \pm 3.9b$	$24.3 \pm 1.2b$	$2.61\pm0.07b$	$2.65\pm0.06c$
Verbascum pulverulentum	$13.7 \pm 2.7 d$	$16.2 \pm 1.5c$	$1.02 \pm 0.04c$	$0.99\pm0.03\text{d}$	$34.0 \pm 3.5c$	$19.7\pm0.9b$	$1.41 \pm 0.03c$	$1.18\pm0.03d$

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Table 2: Results of ANOVAs testing the effects of *Cotinus coggygria* extracts, sampling date,693and their interactions on oak sapling root, stem and leaf biomasses and mycorrhization rate. *F*-694values and associated *P*-values ***P<0.001) are indicated. Significant results are highlighted</td>695in bold.

	Cotinus d.f.=1	Date d.f.=2	Cotinus x Date d.f.=2
Root biomass	0.5	33.3***	0.4
Stem biomass	0.1	11.3***	0.8
Leaf biomass	0.1	2.9	1.1
Mycorrhization rate	0.2	78.2***	1.3

700	Table 3. Saprophytic fungal biomass (expressed as $\mu g.g^{-1}$ soil DM) and abundances of the
701	different mesofauna groups (expressed as nb ind.g-1 soil DM) according to Cotinus coggygria
702	extract concentrations. Values are means \pm standard errors; n= 5. Different letters indicate
703	significant differences between leachate treatments with a>b (Kruskal-Wallis test, $P < 0.05$).

Leachate concentration	Saprophytic fungal biomass	Collembola abundance		Oribatida abundance		Predatory Acari abundance	
 0	116.89±8.26 a	0.07 ± 0.01	а	0.22 ± 0.03	a	0.07 ± 0.01 a	
2.5	129.49 ± 7.37 a	0.08 ± 0.04	ab	0.31 ± 0.06	a	$0.08\pm0.01~a$	
5	133.46±10.29 a	0.02 ± 0.00	b	0.21 ± 0.04	a	0.08 ± 0.01 a	

707Figure 1: Chemical composition of Cotinus coggygria aqueous extracts of green leaves,708senescent leaves and leaf litter. Values are means \pm standard errors; n= 6. Different letters709indicate significant differences between leaf types with a>b>c (Kruskal-Wallis test, P<0.05).</td>



Figure 2: Influence of *Cotinus coggygria* extracts on microbial biomass of autoclaved (left) or natural soils (right). Dashed lines represent the mean value of control samples. Different letters denote differences between treatments with a<b<c (post-hoc Tukey tests, P<0.05). Values are means \pm standard errors; n= 4.



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Figure 2: Relative Allelopathic Effects of *Cotinus coggygria* aqueous extracts on herbaceous species root (filled symbols) and shoot (open symbols) lengths. Extracts were prepared with different leaf types (green, senescent and litter) at two concentrations (2.5% and 5% dry matter of plant material, figured by circles and triangles, respectively) and the target species were grown either on autoclaved (left) or natural soils (right). Error bars are bootstrapped confidence intervals, number of seedlings (n) are indicated for each species.

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Figure 4: Influence of *Cotinus coggygria* on downy oak seedlings development. Upper panel: greenhouse experiments showing the influence of allelochemicals on oak leaf (white), stem (grey) and root (dark grey) biomasses. Lower panel: field experiment showing the influence of *Cotinus coggygria* on seedling emergence, diameter and lenght. Different letters indicate differences between treatments for each biomass compartment. Values are means \pm standard errors; n= 10 for greenhouse experiments, n= 30 – 50 for field experiment.

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